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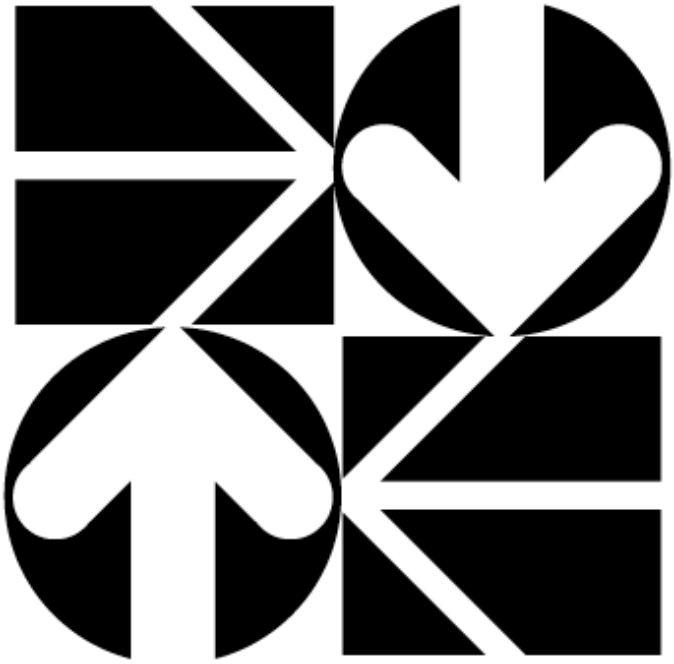
Conference of Interpreter Trainers



A NEW CHAPTER IN INTERPRETER EDUCATION:

Accreditation, Research, & Technology

Elisa M. Maroney, Editor

October 18-21, 2006
San Diego, CA

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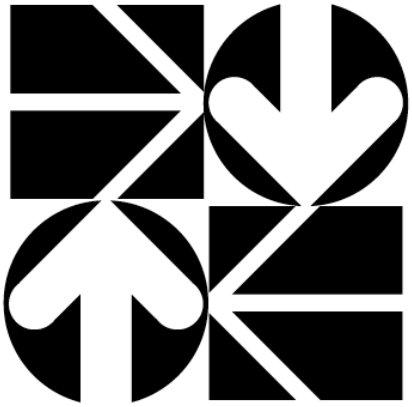

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Mission Statement

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

Acknowledgements

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Elisa M. Maroney, Editor

TABLE OF CONTENTS

IEP/ITP TRACK

SHORT-TERM TRACK

ADMINISTRATIVE TRACK

MENTORING/TECHNOLOGY TRACK

Effective Practices for Teaching Deaf Interpreting Processes

Eileen Forestal

Union County College

Abstract

The focus of this paper is on effective practices of teaching Deaf interpreters through collaborative learning. There is a critical need for a design of curriculum development for teaching. The rationale provides justification for looking into and developing collaborative learning to be incorporated into interpreter education for Deaf persons.

At conferences and elsewhere, few workshops are offered on Deaf interpreting and Deaf-Hearing Interpreter Teaming. Further, very little has been offered on teaching Deaf Interpreting and the processes related to Deaf interpreting and Deaf-Hearing Interpreter Teaming processes. There are very few opportunities for Deaf persons who are looking for workshops to enhance and hone their skills and to get practice on their current skills. There are very few opportunities for advanced training for Deaf interpreters, who have been working in the field. There are very few Deaf interpreters and interpreter educators qualified to teach Deaf interpreting, because there is very little information on training approaches and strategies. Mentoring is rarely available, if

at all, for Deaf interpreters, for each other, and for newcomers in the field to come and work with experienced Deaf interpreters (Forestal, 2005).

Interpreter education for hearing persons to become interpreters between American Sign Language (ASL) and English has been around for about 40 years, relatively new compared with spoken language interpreter education. The Conference of Interpreter Trainers had implemented national standards for interpreting education programs which led to progress in interpreter education (Winston, 2005). Even though interpreting as a profession for Deaf persons has been emerging for about 25 years, very little information can be found on what is entailed in the training and education for Deaf persons to become interpreters. There are now demands on training and education for Deaf persons to become interpreters. Research on curriculum development for training for Deaf interpreters as well as on their roles and functions is scarce; training materials are nil (Forestal, 2005). Recently, more workshops, yet few and far between compared with those available to hearing interpreters, are available for Deaf persons who are interested in becoming interpreters. However, little is known on the approaches for teaching Deaf interpreting (Forestal, 2005).

There is a critical need for curriculum development specifically designed for Deaf persons, their learning styles, and means of intaking information. With the growing demand of skilled Deaf interpreters, there is a hue and cry for training geared towards Deaf persons. However, not much is known about what is deemed effective for teaching interpreting to Deaf persons. From the research available, Deaf persons benefit through constructivism and collaborative learning (Forestal, 2005). The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., a national organization for interpreters, is now encouraging state chapters and organizations to provide more training.

As mentioned earlier, there is no formal training curriculum or research related to interpreter education for Deaf persons to become interpreters. Deaf people, sharing the same language and culture, are a highly collective group. Thus, Deaf persons use their knowledge and cultural experiences in teaching and learning from each other. As a collective group, a great deal of collaboration occurs within the Deaf community (Mindess, 1999). Deaf persons already have a foundational language (American Sign Language) and culture (Deaf culture), along with a worldview of Deaf persons, whereas, hearing students studying to become ASL-English

interpreters are from primarily English speaking backgrounds and represent the American majority culture.

In the past 25 or so years, interpreter education for hearing students was positively impacted through the shift in adult education from the "behavioral approach…, towards a learning oriented, student as active learner philosophy, where students are held responsible for their own construction of knowledge." Emphasis was on utilizing the "cognitive and constructivist theories of learning – approaches such as problem-based learning, cooperative learning" as part of the curriculum in which students would develop critical thinking, analysis, and active cognitive skills (Winston, 2005, p. 210). The major shift was with regard to moving away from a passive, teacher-centered approach towards a student-centered approach (Winston, 2005). Nonetheless, we still do not know what is entailed in the training of Deaf persons or their needs for training, and there is no formal training curriculum for Deaf persons to become interpreters (Forestal, 2005).

The purpose of this presentation, as an interpreter educator for more than 30 years and trainer for Deaf interpreters since 1993, is to discuss some strategies and tasks for collaborative learning for Deaf persons as effective practices for teaching and learning.

This presenter's experiences as a trainer and consultant on teaching Deaf persons as interpreters have taught her that the standard practices of interpreter education are not as effective. Her teaching approaches have evolved since she learned about constructivism and how the objectives were met successfully through problem-based learning approaches. Through her training approaches, she saw how the concept of collaborative learning was applied as an effective practice. Through empirical observations, evaluations, and comments from the participants, she saw how the groups of Deaf persons were able to socially construct their understanding, approaches, and views on translating and interpreting given texts. The Deaf persons, through the activities and discussions, were able to make decisions on language and cultural mediation. The situations and decisions made in the presenter's interpreting work were shared and the entire class would discuss them collaboratively and construct their understanding of the different processes. This presenter also found that she learned as well from them as she did from her experiences as an interpreter.

Several strategies and tasks for collaborative learning for Deaf persons have developed and evolved through the years. The strategies, based on the experience of this trainer and

evaluations/comments of the deaf participants, were shown to be effective practices for teaching, specifically Deaf persons. These strategies provide the Deaf students an experiential process through interactive and experiential activities, allowing them to base their conjectures, a critical component of collaborative learning. Dialectic activities, another objective of collaborative learning where there are discussions to explore beliefs and thought worlds, are utilized between peers and instructor. It is critical that the students are able to develop critical thinking skills through a guided interaction for self-assessment (Blunden, n.d).

Instructional strategies based on constructivism are inductive as students can pull from their experience and knowledge to apply to a larger whole or in other words, "construct their own generalizations" (Gutek, 2004, p. 9) within a collaborative learning environment (Bruffee, 1999). Bruffee (1999) discusses "the first four steps they take in organizing consensus group work – designing tasks, composing small groups, unpacking small group consensus in plenary discussion, and representing larger relevant knowledge communities" (p. 48). In this case, the knowledge communities are the interpreter and Deaf communities, especially the interpreter community as the Deaf interpreters work primarily in teams with the hearing interpreters. The additional step, which is the final one, is the one where the teacher, as the organizer of the collaborative learning, is primarily responsible for evaluating the work on an individual basis that the students/participants did during the process of the collaborative work (Bruffee, 1999).

The goals for collaborative learning in the past several workshops for this presenter have been to:

- Develop structure and design of tasks related to discourse analysis, translating, interpreting, and ethical decision-making processes in interpreting for collaborative learning;
- Develop ground rules for collaborative learning;
- Develop evaluation criteria of student outcomes; and
- Develop evaluation criteria of successful collaborative learning (MacGregor, 2001).

Some strategies for collaborative learning in interpreting processes will be shared during the presentation at the CIT conference.

About the Author:

Eileen Forestal is Coordinator and Associate Professor of the ASL Studies Program and the ASL-English Interpreting Program at Union County College in New Jersey, adjunct professor in Master's in Interpreting Pedagogy at Northeastern University, Boston, and a trainer/consultant on interpreting-related topics, Deaf interpreting and mentoring. She has a master's degree in Education of the Deaf from McDaniel College, formerly Western Maryland College, Maryland and is now a Ph.D. learner at Capella University, majoring in Postsecondary Education and Adult Learning. Her passion and interest in teaching and research are with Deaf persons interpreting and mentoring.

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Demystifying Sign Language Transliteration: Utilizing the Source of Research to Achieve the Target of Competency

Bruce A. Sofinski

J. Sargeant Reynolds Community College

Abstract

This paper reviews forty years of literature pertaining to the phenomenon commonly referred to as transliteration (as produced by ASL-English interpreters). Through this review, sign language transliteration (spoken English ←→ contact signing) is defined and separated from other forms of transliteration by applying the findings of various empirical studies found in the literature. The linguistic elements identified in the sign language transliterations of competent interpreters are incorporated into a diagnostic tool, which is designed to analyze a transliterated product. From this analysis, patterns of strengths and weaknesses are derived and utilized to form the basis of an individualized work plan from which the practitioner can improve through a targeted series of training activities.

Introduction

For nearly forty years testing bodies have been assessing the product of ASL-English interpreters for two distinct signed products – interpretation and transliteration (Frishberg, 1990).

With the proliferation of research regarding the structure of American Sign Language (ASL) in the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s (Stokoe, Casterline, and Croneberg, 1965; Valli, Lucas, and Mulrooney, 2005), the target for interpretation naturally became clearer with the growing body of literature. However, the same cannot be said of transliteration.

Early descriptions of transliteration vaguely referenced the signed target as a manually coded form of English [MCE], but provided little if any detail (Baker-Schenk and Cokely, 1980; Frishberg, 1990). This description went largely unchallenged and was broadly accepted for nearly 30 years.

In 1989, Winston challenged the instilled notion that transliteration was a simple recoding of spoken English, yet the fossilized description of transliteration persisted, remaining relatively static in a majority of the literature published throughout the 1990s (RID, 1996, "Defining interpretation and transliteration"). Siple (1997) provided an overview of the definitions, descriptions, and research conducted on the subject to that point, and Metzger and Fleetwood (1997) posited that transliteration was a literal translation from English, yet at the dawn of the 21st century the description of transliteration in a majority of textbooks remained predominantly unchanged (Kelly, 1999; Solow, 2001; Stewart, Schein, and Cartwright, 1998).

Over the last five years, however, transliteration has been the focus of numerous empirical studies (Larson, Turner, Custalow, and Breden, 2004; Sofinski, 2003; Sofinski, Yesbeck, Gerhold, and Bach-Hansen, 2001; Winston and Monikowski, 2003), which have highlighted the proliferation of ASL elements contained in the products of sign language transliteration. In addition, Sofinski (2002) published a detailed analysis of the linguistic elements of the signed product of a consumer who prefers sign language transliteration.

Further evidence in contrary to the established definitions and descriptions of transliteration has shown that even the K-12 setting stakeholders, with the exception of state coordinators, do not perceive manually coded forms of English (e.g., Signing Exact English) as "essential for entry level signed language interpreters at any instructional level of students being served" (Burch, 2005, p. 42), but instead use a sign language base of contact signing ["American Sign Vernacular" (Burch, p. 35)] as described by Lucas and Valli (1992).

Recently, the national interpreter testing instrument procedures moved away from directing interpreters to overtly differentiate between products of interpretation and transliteration and instead match the language of the Deaf consumer (Tipton, 2006). Yet with all

of these advances, interpreters and interpreter trainers are still unsure as to how to describe and instruct students and practitioners regarding sign language transliteration.

This paper is designed to provide participants with the foundation skills to do just these things by incorporating the findings of the recent corpus of research on transliteration, which expands on Winston's premise that transliteration is not a simple recoding of spoken English. The findings show that transliteration uses a range of contact signing as the target, the specific target of which varies by consumer. The resulting product consistently includes overt English influence as seen in the following: English-like mouth movements, varying types of English-like and ASL-like syntactic structures, and English influence in the phonological production of ASL lexical items (i.e., initialization).

The method introduced in this paper provides a framework to compare the transliterated products of students and in-service practitioners to the common ASL and English-influenced linguistic elements identified amongst the products of competent sign language transliterators studied in the research (see Appendix A). This method empowers individuals to assess the transliterated product of students and peers, as well as themselves, in order to determine strengths and weaknesses. From this baseline, participants are guided in the establishment of individualized work plans designed to increase the effectiveness of products known as sign language transliteration.

A Very Brief History - What has led us here?

To be able to discuss this topic of sign language transliteration we must first define the term. Before we can define the term, we must understand the phenomenon that we study. In order to understand the phenomenon, we must have a clear and objective view of what factors have contributed to our arriving at this point in this professional discourse. Primarily there are four contributing factors to the current understanding of sign language transliteration – history, politics, assessment, and training.

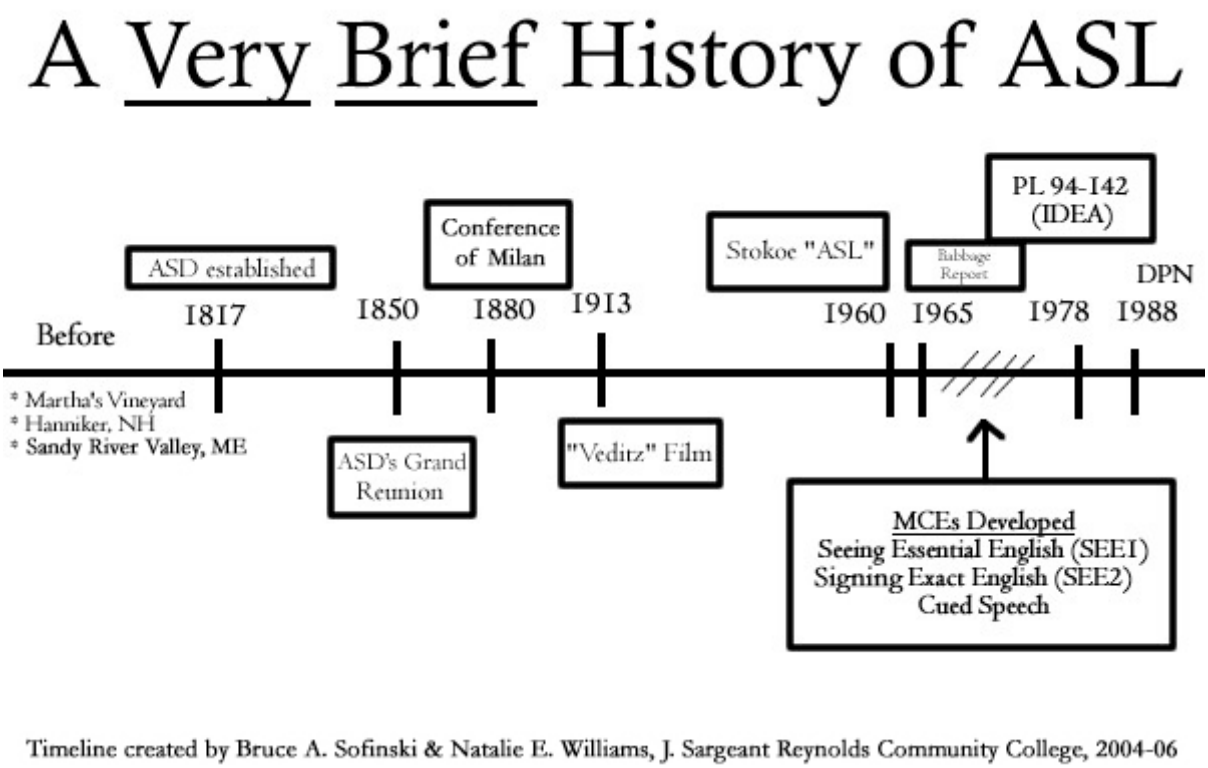

Table 1. A Very Brief History of ASL

Sign language transliteration does not exist in a vacuum. As with contact signing, sign language transliteration is a natural result of the interaction between spoken English and ASL. In contrast, other forms of transliteration, save oral transliteration, are based upon contrived forms of communication – MCEs (e.g., Signing Exact English and Cued Speech). (See Table 1.)

Communities using sign language existed in America prior to the formation of ASL (Groce, 1985; Lane et al., 2000) in locations such as Martha's Vineyard, Massachusetts, Henniker, New Hampshire, and Sandy River Valley, Maine. The roots of ASL can be traced to the establishment of what is known today as the American School for the Deaf (ASL) in 1817. By 1850 during ASD's Grand Reunion, it is written that no interpreters were needed for different signers because all could understand each other (Krentz, 2000). As with any language, changes within ASL have naturally occurred over time. This can be seen in viewing films made nearly a century ago of ASL narratives (Padden, 2004).

Ongoing politics also played an integral role in the development of sign language transliteration. As the Conference of Milan (1880) directly reduced the use of sign language in

the classroom, other actions of Alexander Graham Bell and Edward Miner Gallaudet during the mid-to-late 1800s negatively impacted the number of teachers of Deaf children who were themselves Deaf (Winefield, 1987). The cumulative results of over 80 years of oral-only education were addressed in the mid-1960s resulting in the development of various manually coded forms of English (MCEs) designed to teach deaf children in elementary school to read and write English.

At about the same time, Stokoe et al. (1965) published a dictionary describing these here-to-fore gestures as a language used by Deaf people. However, a majority of both hearing and Deaf people resisted the notion that ASL was a language for many years (Fant, 2000). With the implementation of PL 94-142, reauthorized as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990, the notion that sign language transliteration was solely based upon MCEs and not the naturally occurring contact signing, at that time known as Pidgin Signed English (PSE) (Baker-Shenk and Cokely, 1980), was a by-product of these centuries of politics and history.

In 1972, the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (RID) began assessing interpreters for two distinct products – interpretation and transliteration. This contribution solidified the idea that transliteration was solely between spoken English and an MCE (i.e., different forms of the same language), whereas interpretation was the process of working between English and ASL (i.e., two different languages).

By the end of the decade the National Interpreter Training Consortium (NITC) incorporated the definition of transliteration (i.e., English ←→ MCE) into curriculum, firmly entrenching this notion into interpreter education (Frishberg, 1990). These first works on curricula for pre-service and in-service interpreters were used as the basis for interpreter education that has largely continued into the 21st century (RID, 1996; National Council on Interpreting, 2006). Siple (1997) contributed a more complete history of the definition of the term "transliteration."

Signed **PHONOLOGY** Spoken

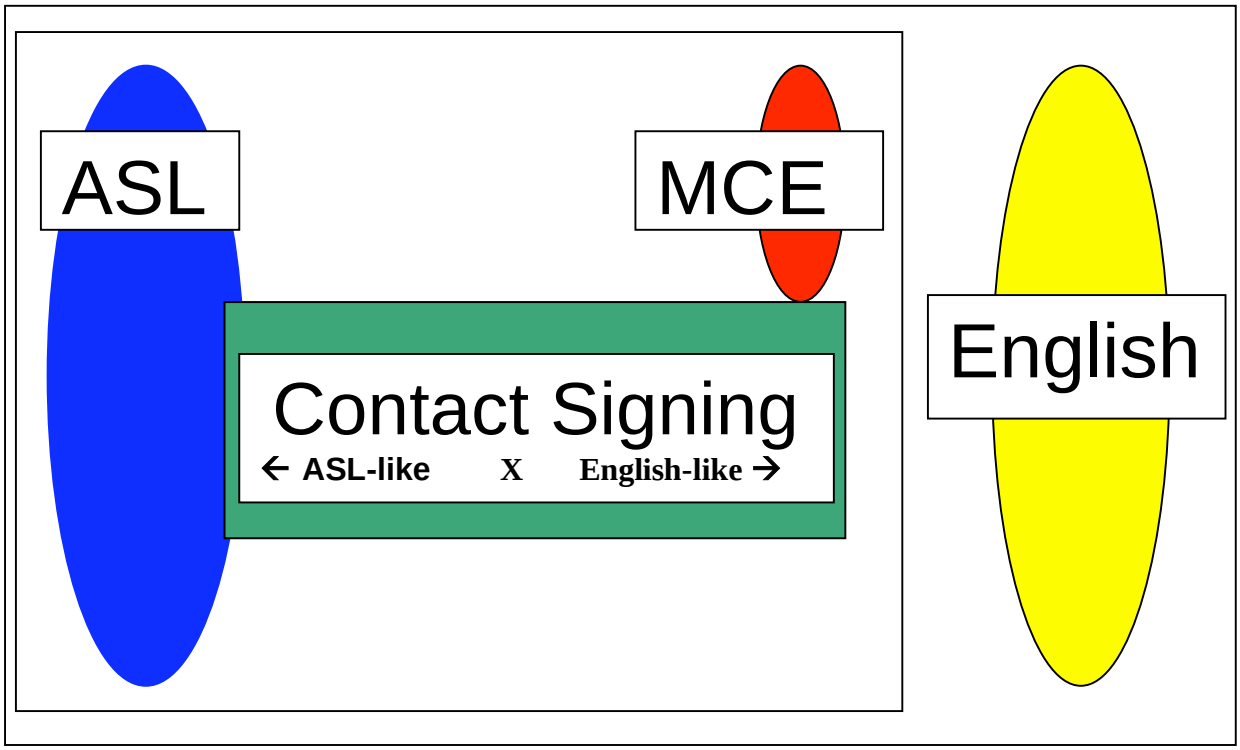

Table 2. A rethinking of the concept of a continuum between ASL and English.

The Demystification of Sign Language Transliteration

The concept of transliteration (spoken English ←→ MCE) is founded on the idea of a continuum of language (Baker-Shenk and Cokely, 1980) or communication (Solow, 1981) with ASL and English at polar ends of the spectrum. In these conceptualizations, the ASL-English continuum ranges from ASL to English with PSE, or contact signing, spanning the area of the continuum between these two languages.

A rethinking of such a continuum (see Table 2) focusing solely on phonology demonstrates that one would actually be required to change the mode of communication in order to successfully navigate such a continuum. For example, one would begin signing in ASL and move along through contact signing incorporating (in theory) fewer ASL linguistic features (morphologically, syntactically, semantically, etc.) and increase the use of linguistic features of English. At some point, the individual would change from signing to speaking in order to produce English.

This rethinking also incorporates the notion that ASL, English, and contact signing are naturally occurring phenomena, whereas MCEs are contrived for the purpose of teaching English to elementary-aged students. As such, MCEs contain predetermined production rules that differ from any of the naturally occurring phenomena. In this conceptualization, the distinction between various forms of transliteration becomes more obvious. Transliteration may occur between spoken English and various MCEs, between spoken English and visible English (i.e., oral transliteration), as well as between spoken English and contact signing. This later example of transliteration is the sign language transliteration for which we have been searching for a definition.

The corpus of literature specifically regarding sign language transliteration largely descends from the seminal work by Winston (1989), which analyzed the work of one sign language transliterator during one event. Descriptively analyzing the product, Winston observed the following five strategies: sign choice, mouthing, restructuring, additions, and omissions. Over the next 15 years this work was expanded upon by numerous researchers, including two works by Siple, who adds pausing (1993) and additions (1995). In 1990 Locker investigated lexical equivalence within transliteration; Livingston, Singer, and Abramson (1994) studied the effectiveness of interpretation and transliteration, determining not only that interpretation was more effective, but that the transliteration products were too similar to differentiate between. This problem was resolved some time later as specific linguistic features and different types of sign language transliteration (i.e., sign-driven, speech-driven and hybrid) were delineated by Sofinski et al. (2001). This work also includes nine (9) common features of sign language transliteration, which provide more detail in regard to sign choice, mouthing, and restructuring.

Non-manual elements used in sign language transliteration are the focus of Sofinski (2003), which makes this work important for three reasons. First, it demonstrated that transliterators working in front of a live audience do not typically shadow (or produce) complete English sentences on the lips (see Appendix B). Second, these English mouth movements are commonly either additions to or substitutions of English words contained in the source. Finally, the study exemplifies that transliterators naturally incorporate common features of ASL in the product, including constructed action/dialogue, adverbials and use of space.

Monikowski and Winston (2003) analyzed the elements involved with marking topic-boundaries in sign language transliteration. This study defines boundaries, features and pauses

that are all conveyed through the use of prosodic features. Larson et al. (2004) study the use of omissions in sign language transliteration finding "that omissions can be categorized into at least three distinct categories: Omission of Structure, Omission of Morphology and Omission of Repetition" (pp. 21-22).

Identifying Patterns and Linguistic Features of Sign Language Transliteration

The four above-mentioned studies published since 2000 comprise the foundation for the "Pattern and Linguistic Feature Checklist" (see Appendix A). The checklist is broken down into six sections. The diagnostician is required to identify the predominant pattern within each section, and identify if any of the remaining features were demonstrated in the product.

For example, the first section relates to shadow, which is defined as English-like mouthing. First, a determination of the predominant pattern is required. The choices are: textual – as if the mouth movements were those of "a" storyteller (not necessarily the source); sentential – the predominant pattern was of complete sentences, which together are not like the mouth movements of "a" storyteller; phrasal – less than a sentence, but more than a word; and, lexical – a word or a couple of words back-to-back.

Once the predominant pattern is identified, then any other feature that was demonstrated is checked under the "demonstrated feature" column. So, during the product did shadow (English-like mouthing) accompany fingerspelling? If yes, then that feature is marked. The same is done with shadow absent on inflected verbs and shadow absent on classifier predicates.

This process continues through the remaining five sections. Lexical form focuses on the handshape. Is the pattern the incorporation of signs that are non-initialized (i.e., base/root signs with minimal English influence) or is the pattern one of initialization (i.e., the handshape reflects English spelling)? The syntax section deals with the ordering of constituents along with NMS use related to syntactic structuring.

The decision-making choice for producing a particular sign or concept is the area under consideration in "lexical meaning base." The primary question is, is the pattern one of glossing (i.e. selecting a particular sign due to the English word spoken in the source) or source language intrusion, or is the meaning or intent of the speaker being matched with the language (i.e., ASL semantic meaning of the sign) the primary motivation for choosing that rendition?

The use of space section deals primarily with the establishment and incorporation of referents within the transliterated product. How consistently were the referents established and once established, was the referent consistently incorporated into the product? Finally, the NMS/Prosody section deals with the incorporation of non-manuals supporting topicalization, rhetorical questions, and adverbials, as well as topic-boundaries (Monikowski and Winston, 2003).

Developing an Individualized Workplan

Each student is a unique individual who brings a different set of experiences, including strengths and weaknesses (Sofinski, 2005). Once strengths and weaknesses have been identified, then these patterns are used as the basis for an individualized work plan through which the effectiveness of the transliterated product can be increased. In this way, each individual's work plan is tailored to that individual. This plan is to create a living document, not a static set of goals, which is constantly updated, so, as weaknesses become strengths, a new set of goals emerges from within the process. An additional objective is for the individual to end the training with a set of goals not yet attained and an understanding of how to begin to work on these goals.

Further Research

One area in need of further research relates to the specific change in elements of sign language transliteration when produced in an assessment environment as opposed to a live environment. In comparing the results for shadow (mouth movements) of Sofinski et al. (2001) and Sofinski (2003), the change in the type of mouth movements from a more textual presentation to a phrasal presentation is quite astonishing. One work, Mather (2005), provides one possible explanation for this phenomenon in her study of attention getting strategies in interpreted classrooms. The change in mouth movements to less English representation when the live audience is present may be the result of the transliterator attempting to maintain the attention of the students in the room.

Another area in need of study is the in-depth analysis of mouth movements in sign language transliteration and comparing those findings to mouth movements expected on the National Interpreting Certification (NIC). The NIC preparation packet continues to incorporate the 1996 definition of transliteration (RID, 1996) regarding mouth movement patterns, which

states: "Cohesive English sentences are visibly presented on the lips, either as exact words from the original text or as English paraphrasing of the original text." This definition is not supported by the findings of Sofinski (2003) who states, "In fact, less than 1% of the 220 structures analyzed (i.e., 44 source structures compared with the relative segments of five interpreting products) are complete English sentences."

Conclusion

Sign language transliteration is a distinct type of transliteration that is defined as employing contact signing as a base. Products of sign language transliteration share numerous ASL and English-influenced linguistic features in common, including the following three clear and readily identifiable English-influenced features: English-like mouthing of (primarily) phrases; ASL and English-like syntactic restructuring of the source message; and, increased use of phonological initialization of ASL lexical items when such is necessary to convey a specific English word. In this analysis, while elements of sign language transliteration products can be analyzed to show the incorporation of these linguistic elements, it is further evident that practitioners utilize the same process to produce products identified as sign language interpretation. The difference in the products lies within in the target of the process – ASL for interpretation and contact signing for transliteration – and not within different processes.

About the Author

Bruce A. Sofinski coordinates the J. Sargeant Reynolds Community College (JSRCC) American Sign Language & Interpreter Education (ASL&IE) program in Richmond, Virginia. Bruce was awarded an M.A. in Linguistics from Gallaudet University, and he is currently working on his dissertation at the Curry School of Education at the University of Virginia in Curriculum and Instruction with a focus on ASL/Deaf Studies. His research interests include: the sociolinguistic aspects of fingerspelling as used by the U.S. Deaf community; ASL proficiency (placement) testing/tools; and products of ASL-English interpretation commonly referred to as transliteration.

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Appendix A/ Pattern & Linguistic Feature Checklist **Name: _____**

PREDOMINANT PATTERN (select one)	**DEMONSTRATED FEATURE** (mark if noted)	**DESCRIPTION**
Shadow = English-like mouthing		
___	%%%%%%%	* Textual (like a story)
___	%%%%%%%	* Sentential (identify complete sentences)
___	%%%%%%%	* Phrasal (< sentences … > words)
___	%%%%%%%	* Lexical (word … word word … word)
	___	* Accompanies Fingerspelling
	___	* Absent on Inflected Verbs
	___	* Absent on Classifier Predicates
Lexical Form = focus on handshape		
___	%%%%%%%	* Base/Root Signs (minimal English influence)
	___	* Initialization when base/root sign unclear in context or does not exist.
___	%%%%%%%	* Initialization (handshape reflects English spelling)
Syntax = ordering of constituents/NMS use		
___	%%%%%%%	* Word-for-word following source (with deletions)
	___	* Word-for-word with PLEDGE (few deletions)
	___	* Deletion-pronouns, articles, preps & infinitives
___	%%%%%%%	* Phrasal restructuring (cause-effect; topic-comment)
	___	* Omission of repeated nouns and prep phrases
Lexical Meaning Base = what drives sign choice		
___	%%%%%%%	* English "gloss" (i.e. source language intrusion)
	___	* English prepositions (in, of, with, from)
	___	* Rep. English form morphology ("out"+"side")
	___	* Bound morphemes (-MENT, -ING, -LY)
___	%%%%%%%	* ASL semantic (i.e. meaning of ASL lexical item)
	___	* Omission of affixes, tense & plural markers
Use of Space = signed representation of mental construct		
___	%%%%%%%	* referents established and incorporation consistent
___	%%%%%%%	* referents established, but incorporation inconsistent
___	%%%%%%%	* referents not established, but incorporation attempted
___	%%%%%%%	* space inconsistent, inappropriate or unattempted
	___	* listing
	___	* tokens/surrogates
	___	* directional verbs
NMS/Prosody (not facial expression to convey emotion)		
___	%%%%%%%	* present
___	%%%%%%%	* absent
	___	* topicalization
	___	* rhetorical question
	___	* adverbials
	___	* topic boundaries – manual features (clasping)
	___	* topic boundaries – pauses
	___	* topic boundaries – NMS (eye gaze, etc.)

Appendix B/ Excerpts of Mouth Movements by Subject "VDDHH: TAP and Virginia Relay," by Roach

KEY:
S = source; other lines represent the mouth movements identified in the products of five transliterators
Information following a forward slash "/" indicates the manual elements co-produced with the mouth movements preceding the forward slash "/".
Information in parenthesis provides a description of other manual or non-manual elements in the product.

S: Here, at VDDHH, we offer two programs.

E1: Here, VDDHH, we offer two programs.

E2: Here, at VDDHH, we offer different programs.

M1: Here, VDDHH, we offer two kinds of programs.

H1: We offer two programs.

H2: Here, at VDDHH, we offer two programs.

S: The Technology Assistance Program, known as TAP, and the Virginia Relay Service.

E1: Technology Assistance Program, also called TAP, and Virginia Relay Service.

E2: Technology Assistance Program, called TAP, and the Virginia Relay Service.

M1: [*ADVERBIAL*/CL-5(2h)-on right "program on right"] Technology Assistance Program [(indistinguishable)/TO-NAME] TAP, and the Virginia Relay Service.

H1: Technology Assistance Program, known as TAP, and (close mouth)/"second on list" Virginia Relay Service

H2: (none identified)/"first on list" Technology Assistance Program, called TAP, and (none identified)/"second on list" Virginia Relay Service, VRS.

S: These are two programs that we offer.

E1: Two programs offer here.

E2: Two programs that we offer.

M1: These two kind of programs we offer.

H1: Two programs we offer.

H2: Two programs we offer.

S: The first program, Technology Assistance Program or TAP, is a (sic) equipment program,

E1: First program called TAP or Technology Assistance Program. That-(front left) equipment program.

E2: The first one … Technology Assistance … we call TAP for equipment program.

M1: First program, Technology Assistance Program ... equipment program ...

H1: The first, Technology Assistance Program/T-A-P ... equipment program ...

H2: First, [(purse lips)-ADVERBIAL/"first on list"], TAP ... that's equipment program.

Getting Inside the Black Box: A tool for diagnostic assessment of interpreters

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Abstract

Interpreters are often assessed, but rarely given diagnostic evaluations capable of guiding their professional development. This paper describes a diagnostic tool based on the belief that the answers to how interpreters improve can be found inside the interpreters. Guided by a respect and understanding for the difficulties of change, the interpreter and diagnostician engage in a collaborative process of dialogue and observation to discover how the interpreter would like to grow and outline a plan to make that growth a reality. By analyzing how the interpreter habitually divides his/her available energy to perform the various, simultaneous parts of the task, ineffective mental habits are discovered and remedies suggested. Finally, a comprehensive professional development plan designed to match the learning style of the individual interpreter is written. Each individual plan provides a framework for professional development that supports deep, lasting growth.

A Framework for Facilitating Change

Signed language interpreters engage in professional development activities for a variety of reasons – sometimes because they want to, sometimes because they have to. Some interpreters participate in professional development simply to collect continuing education credits and maintain their certification. Some are required by employers to document on-going efforts in professional development. However, many interpreters truly want to improve their work. They have goals, or at least wishes for what they would like their work to look like. This is not only true of novice interpreters, but also those with varied degrees of experience, including accomplished practitioners.

The important question for these interpreters is how to make their desired changes a reality. Most interpreters have no clear idea how their desired change could happen, let alone have a well-articulated plan to get there. For most busy professionals, their development activities are sandwiched between very full schedules of work, family, and personal commitments. At best, they manage to attend workshops that happen to be offered in their area, regardless of the topic. When fortunate, they may be able to squeeze in working with a mentor or schedule a team interpreting assignment with a respected colleague. They may take a college course, on-line course, or use self-directed DVDs or videotaped materials with study guides. However, these activities do not necessarily translate into observable differences in an interpreter's work. As the years go by, interpreters may become more and more aware of this fact.

When interpreters approach their development in this way, taking "a little bit of this" and "a little bit of that" from whatever is available to them, it is a smorgasbord approach to development. This approach is one where interpreters work at improving a variety of aspects of their interpreting all at once. They may watch a DVD about fingerspelling, attend a workshop about classifiers, and read an article about team interpreting, all within the same time period. These are all aspects of their work that could improve, but they are not necessarily connected. If they are fortunate enough to work with a mentor or colleague, they may identify a number of ways they are dissatisfied with the work they produce. However, they seldom know how to move beyond identifying aspects they are unsatisfied with, and change the way they interpret to get different results.

For interpreters who are late learners of American Sign Language (ASL), it is especially common to conclude that what needs the most improvement in their interpreting is their second language fluency. Deaf consumers who view the quality of the interpreter's work often confirm that, indeed, there needs to be improvement in the interpreter's command of ASL. There can seem to be an infinite number of mistakes that need to be fixed in the target language production when the interpreter works from English to ASL. However, many interpreters have put tremendous effort into improving ASL fluency and still see no substantial improvement in the basic quality of their interpretation.

Improving ASL fluency is very important. However, for most interpreters, improved language fluency alone is seldom sufficient to produce substantial improvement in overall interpreting performance. Problems naturally associated with second language acquisition, especially at a later age, can distract us from other major changes that are also both possible and necessary if the interpreter is to grow and improve. For interpreters seeking substantial improvement, they must balance the continuous task of addressing language fluency while also placing it within the context of the entire interpreting process.

Thomas Guskey, in his text *Evaluating Professional Development* (2000), identifies the defining characteristics of truly effective professional development. In Guskey's view, professional development needs to be intentional, ongoing, and systemic if it is to produce desired results. When development is intentional, it has clearly stated goals. Helping interpreters define these goals is a first step to change. Identifying clear goals can also help interpreters stay focused in the ongoing process of development. Interpreters have a better chance at improving when they have a clear idea of where they are going and how they will get there. In Guskey's words, the best professional development is accomplished by "small changes guided by a grand vision."

Essentially, the act of engaging in professional development is one of seeking out and embracing change. Facilitating professional development is a process of helping people change behaviors. In this case, we are talking about performance behaviors. These behaviors are often old and even treasured habits. They are difficult to change. If we want to help people improve we will do well first to consider *how* people change.

For the most part, people are doing things the way they are doing them, because it makes sense to them. Individuals are rarely as unthinking, uncaring, stubborn, or ignorant as others

characterize them. However, it is good to realize that sometimes people simply do not want to change. They like things just the way they are. Even when they do want something different, people can only experience a shift in the things they are willing to change. In other words, it does not work to try to coerce people to change. Motivation to change must come from inside. However, we can help others find their motivation if they are willing.

The only way we can help people change is by first accepting them where they are. The answers to the difficulties that keep people from changing are inside that person. What we can do is assist people in going inside and finding their answers. What we cannot do is go inside their mind and change them to suit us. We can best assist those who seek change by helping them define their goals, find their enthusiasm, find a belief in the possibility of change, and identify the specifics that they want to change. If we do this together, in collaboration, we will have come a long way towards change. This collaboration is made possible by engaging in dialogue, by listening and by asking questions. In doing so, we can help others clarify what they want to change. We can understand where they have been, where they are, and where they want to go. This will give us the insight we need to help them get where they want to go.

The well-known Prochaska change model identifies 5 stages to change – precontemplation, contemplation, preparation, action, and maintenance (Prochaska, DiClemente, and Norcross,1992). It is interesting to note that his first two steps towards change happen completely internally. Precontemplation even suggests that someone has not yet begun to consider change, yet Prochaska views this state as part of the process of change. Precontemplation appears to be so thoroughly internal that even the person in question is not entirely aware of it. Contemplation is the first conscious movement towards change, and it is mainly internal. Even the third stage, preparation, is largely internal. Though it can include some outward action, preparation mainly consists of producing the mental state necessary to begin an external, behavioral change. When we encounter interpreters in these first three stages of change, it is easy to throw up our hands and think that we cannot help them. Overcoming this attitude in ourselves is an important step towards being ready to facilitate change in others.

If we are to engage in helping people grow, we need not only to accept them where they are, we also need to orient ourselves in finding their strengths. Any positive growth will start with identifying and building on the strengths already present. In the helping professions, strength based assessments have become quite popular and for good reason. They work.

Identifying and building upon strengths in any person attempting to change often produces faster, more effective and more satisfying results.

A few things we know about engaging strengths is that people rarely change by being torn down. We know that no one likes to be told something they already know, especially about themselves. People change when they believe they can change. Also, when people feel understood, they are more able to handle the truth. People comprehend the truth best when they discover it themselves. Therefore, if we want to help we must tell the truth, but we need to know when and how to do it. This is why it is most important to become skilled at asking good questions. Asking an elegant question is an art. If you can master this art, you can often help where no one else can.

In working with interpreters, it is important to consider their own assessment of their work. By and large, interpreters have a good sense for their own weaknesses. Having an evaluator affirm what they already know to be true is a positive experience. "Yes, you're right. I see you are having trouble with fingerspelling reception. You really do have a sense of your own work," is an affirmation. Receiving criticism from someone else when he/she is already aware of the problem is a negative experience. "You are really having a problem with fingerspelling reception and you need to work on that," is a comparatively negative, unnecessarily critical experience. Interpreters who have been affirmed are much more likely to embrace the feedback they are receiving than those who are being told what is wrong with them. Approaching interpreters from a strength based perspective also clears negative emotions the interpreter may have from past experiences of assessment that were mainly critical or evaluative processes. Separating these experiences from diagnostic assessment clears the field of dialogue. This often allows interpreters to digest and make better use of the assessment process.

What is a Diagnostic Assessment?

Interpreters are assessed in many ways – this begins in training programs where performance must be graded, then initial job placements are often based on passing a "screening" test of some sort. Many employers and agencies utilize their own version of a "test" to determine if an interpreter can be hired. Then comes the question of certification. Can you pass this test for certification? So much is riding on this question – status, money, opportunity. Then there are performance appraisals, like the Educational Interpreter Performance Assessment

(EIPA) that are sometimes required and may happen periodically. In all these situations, interpreters have a single performance judged. Decisions are made, based on the judgment of that one performance, that have major implications. This method of evaluation is akin to taking a photograph and is a "snapshot" approach to answering the question of competency. These snapshots of a specific moment in time are often not even actual real time interpreting performances. Most of the time, these are simulated events where interpreters perform simultaneous interpreting of frozen texts, from audio taped or videotaped sources. They do represent an authentic interaction between people and do not require all the same skills as real time interpreting.

Also, none of these assessments are diagnostic in nature because they do not tell the interpreter precisely what is sufficient or deficient in their performance. They do not define for the interpreter how he/she could or should change. They do not engage the question of what the interpreter should set as goals for change, let alone how the interpreter could proceed to attain these goals. Instead, they are meant to answer a question about whether or not an interpreter will most likely be able to perform up to a certain standard, or whether or not an interpreter may be hired, fired, rewarded, or reprimanded in their employment. It is important to separate these kinds of evaluations from diagnostic assessment.

In all of these evaluations, interpreters are judged based on what is present and what is not present in their work. The focus is on what is observable. However, most of the work of interpreting happens inside the mind of the interpreter. While focusing only on what is visible makes the job of evaluators much easier, more quantifiable, and ostensibly more standardized, it is insufficient to help interpreters who seek to improve. Granted, it is difficult to explore or talk about something we cannot see – the inner workings of the mind of the interpreter. However, it is precisely what lies inside this black box, the mind of the interpreter, which holds the key to change. Any evaluation tool that does not help an interpreter get inside their internal process is of limited value in producing change.

Some evaluation tools have done a thorough job of describing specific items of language competence in both ASL and English that should be present in the final rendition of a fluent interpretation. Catalogues of features can be useful. However, if an evaluation indicates only what should or could be improved, but offers no theoretical base to guide the necessary changes,

it is still unlikely to facilitate change. Any assessment that avoids the inner workings of the interpreters' process is a partial assessment.

It is worth mentioning that there is an assumption inherent in assessments that deal only with what is observable. The assumption is that if specific features of a target language are not present, then the interpreter simply lacks fluency in that feature. In fact, there can be a variety of reasons a needed feature is not present in an interpretation. Of course, one is lack of fluency. However, an interpreter may possess control of the feature in natural language use and still not use that feature in interpretations. We must go deeper within the black box of the interpreter's process to find out why the feature was not present when it could or should be used.

My own investigation has led me to conclude that often interpreters produce word for word transliteration that lacks fluency, because of conceptual constructs they hold about the relationship between English and ASL, power, and the users of these languages. It is more often their beliefs about the people and the politics of language that hold them back rather than their inability to do something different. They simply do not feel free to use their own language competence to produce equivalent messages (Elliott, 2002). If we are to help interpreters overcome this, we must enter this black box of the interpreter's process. But how shall we get in? How shall we help them find the freedom to claim their competencies as well as develop new competencies?

In both the Western medical and mental health systems, when we help people reach for greater health or change, we step back and take a systematic look at their history, their current condition that needs changing, and identify or label the condition, which then enables us to prescribe the proper steps to improve or ameliorate that condition. In a nutshell, this is the diagnostic process. People in the position of helping others change or heal, conduct a thorough assessment of the situation through a combination of interview and examination. Following a standardized system, they use the information they gather to decide what to call the current condition. This is the diagnosis. Diagnosis is the first step to change, because it tells us the course to take to treat this condition.

If we apply this model to helping interpreters change and improve the quality of their work, we must engage in a dialogue and examine the current condition. The diagnostician seeks to understand how and why the interpreter came to be in their current condition. In this way we can work with the interpreter to get at the root causes of what is observable and discover the

process that is functioning to produce what we see that is less than ideal. Diagnostic assessment helps interpreters identify where they are, name what they would like to change, and recommend strategies to make those changes a reality. Through a thorough interview and examination of the interpreting work, a diagnostician and interpreter can collaborate to identify areas for change. Once these areas have been agreed upon and observed, the diagnostician can recommend the appropriate "course of treatment." In collaboration, an articulated professional development plan can then be written to help the interpreter get from where they are to where they want to be.

The Key to Unlock the Black Box – Division of Energy Theory

The interpreting task is highly complex. To be effective, it requires fluency in two languages and two cultures, an ability to interact in complex settings, knowledge of content being conveyed, knowledge of the structure in which the content is conveyed, complex cognitive skills to make the transfer from one language to another, and the ability to make continuous split-second decisions. It is important for us to remember how complex this task is. It is not possible to perform it perfectly and it is not possible to improve all these portions of the task simultaneously.

In order to perform this complex task well, an interpreter must divide whatever energy he/she has available into at least five parts: 1) understanding the setting, goals, rituals, and relationships of the context where the interpreted event is happening; 2) establishing and maintaining relationships with the persons present; 3) taking in messages, either spoken or signed; 4) processing the meaning and function of those messages along with the intent of the speaker; and 5) producing equivalent renditions of those messages.

Truly advanced interpreters can also spend at least some portion of their energy in a sixth task of monitoring their output *from the perspective of the receiver.* This is an especially advanced skill that differs from the less sophisticated kind of self-monitoring practiced by many interpreters. Monitoring from the interpreter perspective means that the interpretation is geared for someone who is fluent in both languages and has access to both languages. If the work makes sense only in the context of having access to the original utterance, it is not likely to be adequate since neither receiver is completely bilingual. However, if interpreters are able to see and hear their own work from the perspective of the receiver, it enlightens the interpretation in a

way that allows it to be tailored to the specific recipient. This is interpreting in the ideal. For interpreters who master this skill, it often makes the other portions of the task less demanding.

Regardless of how many of these tasks the interpreter is performing simultaneously, this division of energy is not simply a matter of dividing the available resources into equal parts. Instead, it is a dynamic division that changes constantly with the demands of the work. The amount of energy required for each portion varies greatly from one assignment to another and also changes frequently throughout an interpreting assignment. The manner in which an interpreter manages this division of energy greatly influences the quality of their interpretations. While this division changes frequently, interpreters tend to perform this division in fairly consistent, habitual ways.

While observing an interpreter working, we can detect trends or patterns in how he/she habitually divides his/her energy. Looking at these trends gives us insight into the interpreter's process. Discovering these underlying patterns in the division of energy usually illuminates the problems that are observable at the surface level of the interpretations. Through a combination of observation and dialogue, diagnosticians can then guide interpreters in improving the foundations of their work by redistributing this division of energy more effectively.

Most interpreters tend to put the greatest amount of energy into the portion of the task they feel most comfortable with. When stressed or struggling, many interpreters will tend to put even more energy into that same portion. Yet, the place they need the most energy is where they are least competent. For example, some interpreters have native or near-native competence in ASL. Yet, when they interpret they put so much of their focus and energy on sign language that little is left to spend on processing messages or attending to English. The result is an interpretation that does not look nearly native because it is processed at lexical or phrasal levels. Other interpreters who enjoy the thinking and processing part of the task may spend the bulk of their energy there. When stressed they process and think even more. The result can be interpretation that is unclear and overly wordy or over-processed.

Along with developing patterns in how they divide their available energy, interpreters can also experience serious drops in the overall amount of energy available to do their work. If the energy available were contained in a vat, this drop of energy would look like something pulling the plug in the vat. The total amount of energy is reduced, because pulling the plug creates a leak. The cause of energy leaks can be physical, mental, or emotional. For example, being tired

from lack of sleep reduces the overall amount of energy available and reduces the effectiveness of the interpreter. Likewise, being hungry, upset, or worried would also reduce the total amount of energy available for the task at hand.

Energy leaks can also be psychological, as in situations where an interpreter has fears about their own performance. When an interpreter has a fear of sign to voice interpreting he/she often spends large amounts of energy mentally repeating, "I can't do this." As soon as a Deaf person lifts their hands to say something, "I can't do this," feels true because the interpreter's anxiety uses so much energy that he/she does not have enough left to perform the task well. Consequently, the performance is poor, the interpreter knows it, and his/her confidence is further undermined. This leaves the interpreter with even less energy to perform the task the next time.

Energy leaks reduce an interpreter's ability to perform competently and interpreters simply cannot do their very best work while energy is leaking. However, these leaks can be plugged and energy conserved for the task. This begins with identifying the leaks. Diagnosticians can work with interpreters to identify the leaks and interpreters can begin to plug or prevent their leaks by both disciplining their mental activity while interpreting and dealing with emotional and/or physical leaks before beginning to interpret.

Again, when interpreters struggle, most will tend to continue to put more energy into the part of the task that feels most comfortable or the part where they feel most competent. This tendency to play to one's strengths is natural, but in fact it seldom helps improve one's performance when the demands of interpreting become overwhelming. Recognizing how energy is being distributed and taking steps to redistribute that energy is usually more effective. Interpreters will tend to do their best work when they have the most energy available for the parts of the task where they are weakest.

Applying Division of Energy to Diagnostic Assessment

Diagnostic evaluations based on division of energy analysis involve a process that can take various forms. Like many good diagnostic processes, it is an in-depth conversation and exploration that responds to the specifics of the person being diagnosed. However, there is a framework that guides the process and informs the diagnostician:

- Interpreter requests an assessment.
- Diagnostician dialogues with the interpreter to determine goal(s) for the assessment.

- Diagnostician and interpreter determine the most appropriate observation site(s).
- Interpreter completes self-assessment (strengths, areas for improvement, and persistent problems.
- Diagnostician and interpreter have a pre-observation meeting for diagnostician to explain division of energy and allay fears.
- Diagnostician makes observation and takes notes.
- Diagnostician and interpreter have a post-observation meeting and schedule results delivery.
- Diagnostician reviews tape and analyzes division of energy .
- Diagnostician writes up evaluation parts I, II, III, and IV. (See Appendix.)
- Diagnostician meets with interpreter to deliver results.
- Diagnostician and interpreter write the professional development plan together.

A few points about this process merit elaboration. The ideal observation site is live, face-to-face interpreting that can also be videotaped. Face to face interpreting is preferable as it allows the opportunity to observe how the interpreter attends to the context and the relationships with the persons involved and how this affects the interpreting product. Without observing an interpreter handling these real life demands, we can only observe them translate. Real life interpreting takes place within an interaction that is contextually located. In order for us to be good diagnosticians, we must take these interactions into account. Some Deaf consumers have said that relationship, sometimes expressed as the sign ATTITUDE, may be the most important quality of a good interpreter. In order to assess accurately, we need to see the interpreter handle all the parts of the task. Then, in order for the interpreter to really grasp how they are performing, it is best to be able to show it to them on videotape. Watching their videotaped performance also gives the interpreter a chance to engage in their own analysis and invite a dialogue with the diagnostician. There are many comments that do not have to be made when interpreters can see themselves. At the same time, the interpreter can grow in their self-analysis skills.

While observing the interpreter's work, notes can be taken. A three-column approach is very helpful. The first column is "They Said" or the source for the interpretation. This can be either signed or spoken utterances, hopefully retained as completely as possible. The second column is "You Said," meaning the interpretation that was performed, again, as completely as

possible. The third column is "My Comment." This is a broad category that may include many kinds of comments, such as questions, observations, corrections and guesses, about the division of energy that can be used later for dialogue.

This retention of the source language text and the level of specificity it provided to interpreters trying to improve their skills is often very helpful. However, the remarks are most useful when they represent clear examples of the foundational structures that we are seeking to illuminate – some aspect of the black box. The more we can tie our comments and questions to the division of energy, and the inner working of the interpreter's mind, the more likely they will be helpful. Of course, the comments should also help reveal any weaknesses in any of the portions of the task. This will help us later in writing the professional development plan. Any skills that are insufficiently developed will need to be addressed.

At the point in this process when the diagnostician develops the final write-up, it is important to refer back to the interpreter's self-assessment. It is interesting to note that for experienced interpreters, the strengths that they depend on to function well are often the very same qualities that hold them back from achieving greater competencies. Thus, the strengths they identify and the areas the diagnostician identifies as needing to change are often one and the same. This is good to remember when we deliver the results of our analysis and lay out a vision for change. Often the things we will ask advanced interpreters to give up are the very skills that have brought them this far. We should remember that this could be a disturbing suggestion and approach it carefully.

For the final meeting to deliver the results, diagnosticians should allow at least 1 1/2 hours for the session. A good way to start this meeting is by going over the goal and the first section of the write up together. This will simply reconnect with the dialogue you have already had. Next, look at the videotape together to set the stage for your analysis. Choose the important examples that support your conclusions and ask the interpreter what they see. Affirm their observations. Go over your results by using both their own comments and the examples from the tape.

This is also a time that can be used to teach. For example, you can introduce topics like discourse analysis, levels of processing, or discuss interpreting models, especially if you are going to suggest activities in these areas. You can also show videotapes of other interpreters who are already producing the kind of work the interpreter desires. If the professional

development plan has not yet been written, do it now. Ask questions about what the interpreter has done in the past for professional development. Find out which activities have been helpful and which have not. This is a chance to explore the interpreter's learning style.

As Howard Gardner (1983) described in his book, *Frames of Mind: The Theory of Multiple Intelligences*, people have a variety of ways of learning. Some interpreters learn best by observation – either through watching Deaf people or other interpreters. Some learn best by reading or understanding things analytically. Some learn best by having something explained verbally. Some learn best by doing. If the development activities you suggest do not match the learning style of the interpreter you are evaluating, they will be of little help. Familiarize yourself with Gardner's work and then, while writing the plan, ask the interpreter what they know about what has helped them learn. Through dialogue, again, asking good questions, help the interpreter identify what types of activities are most likely to fit their learning style and, therefore, be most effective. Of course, you can write the best plan by knowing the local resources. If you are very familiar with the interpreters, Deaf community, and available resources, you will be most able to make specific suggestions about who and what will help the interpreter grow.

Professional development plans are highly individual. There is no template for what they should look like. The watchword is simple – to ask good questions, listen to the information the interpreter is giving you, and work together to come up with a plan that inspires the interpreter to believe he/she can experience the change he/she seeks.

Assessing the Assessment Tool

While feedback from interpreters who have received division of energy diagnostic assessments have thus far been nearly universally positive, there are some aspects of the tool that need further development. It would be helpful to have a more precisely defined process for the observation and documentation section of the assessment. While the three-column approach of observation can be useful it is definitely not comprehensive and likely relies too much on the intuition of the diagnostician. Lists of features of either language might not tell us the cause of what we see, but it would be helpful to have such a list at that point; ideally, one that corresponds to the portions of the task and the energy divisions. Such a list could help ensure that diagnosticians do not overlook important aspects of the work.

To be most useful, a diagnostic system needs to be standardized. In this respect, the division of energy analysis framework for diagnostic assessment of interpreters is far from complete. There is preliminary data to support the idea that there are common problematic patterns in habitual, ineffective division of energy. Ideally, these common patterns could be classified according to general type and a manual could be published describing both these patterns and guidelines for corresponding remediation of the difficulties. The work needed to identify these patterns and the corresponding redistribution of energy would take a comprehensive team of trained professionals several years to produce a truly standardized, verifiable diagnostic manual. Certainly, this work has been accomplished in other fields. We should have every reason to believe ours can do it too.

About the Author

Marlene Elliott, BA, CI/CT, is an independent scholar, workshop presenter, and diagnostician. She completed her original interpreter training at Western Oregon University in 1988 and her BA degree in ASL/English Interpreting at Empire State College in 2000. She also works part time for Sorenson Communications and currently resides in Portland, Oregon.

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Appendix

Diagnostic Assessment

Name:

Assessment by:

I. Interpreter's Goal:

II. Interpreter's Self-Evaluation

- A. Areas of Strength –
- B. Areas to focus for improvement –
- C. Persistent problems –

III. Allocation of Mental Resources

- A. Context
- B. Relationships
- C. Source Language Understanding
- D. Processing Skills
- E. Target Language Skills
- F. Tailoring output to consumers

IV. Major Areas of Focus

- A. Strengths
- B. Areas for Improvement
- C. Other Comments

V. Professional Development Plan

Where's the End of the Sentence? The Use of Prosodic Markers to Cue Sentence Boundaries in ASL Interpretation

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Abstract

Research in spoken languages has shown that speakers use a variety of means to indicate the organization of a message into prosodic phrases, and that listeners are sensitive to this organization (e.g., Wightman et al., 1992). Effective communication of the organization of the message may be especially critical when language is being transmitted through an interpreter. I investigated the communication of phrasing in English-to-ASL interpretation by asking Deaf ASL users to indicate perceived boundaries as they viewed a video of an interpreted lecture. Analysis revealed that interpreters use a distinct set of prosodic markers in both structured and stylistic ways at boundary points. This paper reports on the type, frequency and structure of the ASL prosodic markers that cued Deaf participants to the location of the boundaries. Results suggest that the Deaf participants' ability to identify boundaries may be facilitated by interpreters' use of multiple articulators at the boundary points and that the production of prosodic markers may be influenced by physical constraints.

Introduction

As our knowledge of linguistic structure grows, interpreter educators are moving beyond a lexical and syntactic level of message processing and advocating for a discourse analysis approach in educating interpreters (Winston and Monikowski 2004, Cokely 2005, Roy 2000). There is increasing recognition that coherent and cohesive interpretations are created at the discourse level, rather than being produced as a series of individual lexical items. A text is cohesive when it is divided into manageable propositional parcels that are linked together to create a whole. Interpreters do not always successfully divide ASL interpreted discourse in meaningful ways as reported anecdotally by Deaf consumers who occasionally must "re-interpret" interpreted discourse in order to parse the signs into meaningful phrases and sentences. Novice interpreters may be unable to produce connected discourse because they struggle with the meaning and articulation of individual lexical items. Even veteran interpreters who do create cohesive interpretations may be unaware of the linguistic and paralinguistic devices that cue boundary points in the discourse. With awareness of the ways that an ASL language stream can be divided into chunks, both novice and veteran interpreters can create more cohesive interpretations for Deaf consumers. Morphosyntactic structure is a key indicator in creating boundaries in discourse, but another important component is the role of prosody.

Two principal functions of prosody in spoken language are to mark prominence and to group words into larger units or phrases. There are a variety of proposals as to the organizational structure of phrasal units, which constitute the higher levels of the prosodic hierarchy (see Shattuck-Hufnagel and Turk, 1996, for a survey). Although it is clear that languages differ as to the nature and number of phrasal units that they exploit, some kind of phrasing has been identified in virtually every language that has been examined from this perspective (for an exception, see Woodbury, 1993). Since phrasing is found so widely in spoken languages, the use of phrasing in signed languages should come as no surprise (Bahan and Supalla, 1995; Mather and Winston, 1995; Sandler, 1999; Wilbur, 1999). The variation observed among spoken languages suggests that certain aspects of the structure of the prosodic hierarchy and the acoustic dimensions that reflect this structure, are language-specific. Signed languages might thus be expected to differ from spoken languages with respect to phrasal prosody, because they are distinct

languages with their own structural characteristics, in addition to the differences that can be explained by virtue of the distinct modality in which signed languages are expressed.

In spoken language, phrasal structure is used by speakers to organize the message they are communicating and by perceivers to process the prosodic input (Cutler, Dahan, and van Donselaar, 1997). The prosodic dimensions of spoken languages employ acoustic properties including frequency (f0), duration, intensity and segmental spectral properties. The prosodic dimensions used to mark phrasing by native signed language users are less well-studied, but may include variation in manual duration and rhythm (Boyes Braem, 1999), nonmanual articulations (Wilbur, 2000), and use of the nondominant hand (Sandler, 1993).

The present study of ASL prosodic markers differs from many others, because it examines prosody as produced by interpreters, rather than native users of signed language. Relatively few studies have looked at interpreters' use of prosody, although one recent study focused on prosodic features that mark topic boundaries in both interpretation and transliteration (Winston and Monikowski, 2004). This issue is important, because interpreters need to use prosody effectively to indicate boundaries in order to create interpretations that may be more readily processed by Deaf consumers. This task is especially salient for the interpreting profession since most interpreters are second language learners of ASL and do not have native competency with the language. Additionally, interpreter education programs need evidence-based research on which to ground their pedagogy.

The goal of the study reported here was to examine the type, frequency, and structure of prosodic markers that were identified by Deaf consumers of interpreting services. Specifically, this study examines the form and function of the prosodic markers used in ASL interpretation that establish sentence boundaries. Defining sentence structure in signed languages is an ongoing endeavor (Engberg-Pedersen, 2006; Hansen and Hessmann, 2006) and this paper makes no claims that the identified boundaries are indicating syntactically-defined sentences, nor is it claimed that these boundaries correspond to sentence structure in spoken languages. This study does suggest, however, that Deaf participants can identify some type of boundaries in ASL interpretation and that these boundaries segment the stream of language to facilitate comprehension. With more information about the structure of boundary markers in interpreted discourse, interpreter educators can more accurately instruct students about effective ways of constructing coherent and cohesive interpretations.

The second section of this paper describes the design of the stimulus material for the study. The third section presents information about the Deaf participants who were involved in this project. The fourth section describes the coding and analysis used in the project and the fifth section outlines the results and provides discussion. Finally, the sixth section summarizes the study and offers ideas for future directions.

Design of Stimulus Material

Creation of a Source Language Text

The first step of the project design was to create a sample of spoken English that would serve as the source language material for the signed language interpreters. Although there are spoken English samples available for public use, I elected to create a novel English text in order to control for variables such as the length, content, and register of the sample. Attention was also given in selecting a speaker who spoke audibly, at an average rate of speed, and with clear articulation. In addition, I wanted to create a sample that was representative of a typical interpreting assignment. A final objective was that the source language text be on a topic that would be reasonably accessible to both the signed language interpreters and the Deaf research participants.

A lecture format was chosen for the sample because interpreters frequently work at conferences, for presentations, and in classroom environments where monologic lectures are the primary form of discourse. A male professor from the University of New Mexico was selected to provide a 15-minute lecture on a self-selected topic. The professor chose to speak on the topic of ants, including their eating, breeding, and communication practices. The lecture was designed to appeal to a general audience with no prior knowledge about the topic. The professor provided a one-page outline of his lecture and was videotaped as he provided a brief summary of his talk. The outline and videotaped summary were created as preparation materials for later use by the interpreters.

A graduate student in the linguistics department was videotaped as she provided an introduction of the professor that contained information about the professor's educational and professional background. The videotape was created for later use as practice material for the study. The professor then presented the lecture to an audience of three graduate students. He spoke in a relaxed, but structured, manner and he occasionally referred to his notes while

speaking. As he lectured he was videotaped with a Sony TRV38 Digital Camcorder (mini-DV format). In order to create a clear video image, he was positioned in front of a blue cloth backdrop and was lighted with two 650-watt halogen movie lights (3400 Kelvin).

Creation of a Target Language Text

The second step of the research project was to videotape professional signed language interpreters providing an ASL interpretation of the spoken English lecture. Five interpreters were used for this project so as to examine the use of prosodic markers across several interpretations rather than a single sample.

This study was designed to examine the work of veteran interpreters, rather than novice practitioners, in order to examine successful interpretations. The five interpreters who participated in the study were individually invited to participate and all satisfied the selection criteria: (1) be actively working as a signed language interpreter; (2) be certified by a national interpreter credentialing association; and (3) have a minimum of seven years of professional interpreting experience.

Although factors such as gender variation, linguistic heritage, and educational background among interpreters may play a role in their performance, this study was designed to examine the work of professional interpreters without focus on interpreter variation. There was an attempt, however, to use a cross-section of interpreters who were representative of practitioners currently working in the field. Four of the interpreters were female and one was male. One interpreter acquired ASL natively from Deaf parents, while the other four learned through interpreter education programs and contact with members of the Deaf community. The interpreters ranged in professional experience from 7 to 25 years.

All five interpreters provided an interpretation of the lecture individually under the same conditions. Upon arrival at the videotaping site, the interpreters were informed that they would be videotaped as they provided a simultaneous English to ASL interpretation of two videotaped segments. The segments were described as a three-minute introduction of a speaker and the speaker's 15-minute lecture entitled "The Life of the Ant." The interpreters were informed that they would be interpreting for a Deaf audience member who was a native user of ASL.

The interpreters signed a consent form and completed a professional history questionnaire. Each interpreter was given a check for seventy dollars, an amount which reflected

the average rate of pay at the time. The interpreters were then provided with the preparation materials including the lecture outline and the videotape of the speaker summarizing his lecture. The interpreters were not informed of the specific focus of the research project; rather they were only told that a particular linguistic feature of their interpretation would be analyzed.

When ready, the interpreters were positioned in front of a blue backdrop and videotaped as they provided an ASL interpretation for the previously videotaped introduction and15-minute lecture. While interpreting the interpreters were videotaped using a Sony TRV38 Digital Camcorder (mini-DV format). In order to simulate an actual interpreting environment, a Deaf native user of ASL served as the audience for all five interpretations. After videotaping each of the five interpreters, the final steps in creating the stimulus material were to videotape the directions for the research project and compile the segments into a single digital presentation.

Composition of the Stimulus Video

The final step in creating the stimulus material was to compile the various sections of the stimulus video into one computer program for presentation to the Deaf participants. The stimulus video was composed of three sections: (1) the directions; (2) the practice trial; and (3) the interpretation.

Directions

Since the research participants would be Deaf, ASL users, the directions for the study were created in American Sign Language. The directions were first written in English and then interpreted into ASL by a Deaf, native user of the language. As he signed the directions, he was videotaped using the camera, lighting, and backdrop arrangements as before, i.e., a Sony TRV38 Digital Camcorder (mini-DV format) and 650-watt halogen movie lights. A second Deaf person participated in the videotaping of the directions to provide feedback and suggestions about how to sign the directions in ASL.

The directions stated that participants would be taking part in a research project about how interpreters created boundaries in ASL interpretation. The participants were directed to view the videotaped interpretation and look for the points where there was the completion of a full

idea, concept or "sentence."[1] The participants were directed to press an electronic button each time they perceived a boundary in the interpretation. The directions also stated that participants would be given a short practice trial prior to performing the actual research task.

Practice Trial

The second section of the stimulus material consisted of a practice trial videotape that would provide the Deaf participants with an opportunity to become accustomed to identifying the boundaries in the interpretation. The Deaf participants would be viewing the three-minute introduction of the speaker during the practice trial. In order to simulate the actual study conditions, the practice tape had a 15-second break incorporated in the text in the same manner as the actual study videotape.

The purpose of including a practice trial was to provide participants with the opportunity to view a videotaped interpretation on the laptop, identify perceived boundaries, and press a button to mark the location of the boundaries. The practice trial also served to familiarize each participant with the interpreter that would be seen during the actual research project.

Interpretation

The third section of the stimulus material was the videotape of one of the five ASL interpretations of the lecture. In order to reduce fatigue for the Deaf participants, the interpretation was divided into five separate segments with a 15-second break between segments. A black screen containing the title of the lecture, "The Life of the Ant," preceded the interpretation videotape.

Presentation of the Stimulus Material

The final step in creating the stimulus material was to transfer each of the three segments of the stimulus material into iMovie software. Five individual files were created with the following videotaped segments:

[1] The sign for "sentence" was specifically used in the directions because of its familiarity to most people. Although the sign "sentence" was used, there is no claim that the research results define the sentence structure of ASL. The assumption of this study is that prosodic cues help establish phrasal boundaries and these boundaries serve to divide discourse into meaningful chunks. Whether these chunks constitute single lexical items, phrases, or sentences is not the focus of this research project.

a) the directions;
b) the practice trial; and
c) the interpreted lecture.

The videotaped segments were transferred into software files that were edited and saved on a Macintosh PowerBook G4 laptop. The laptop was used to present the material to the Deaf participants. An external Powermate button was connected to the laptop and served as the response key for the participants. The participants were directed to respond by pressing the Powermate button to indicate the perception of a boundary. The electronic button created a visual indicator in the iMovie software that was used in later analysis. The total time of the stimulus material videotape including directions, practice trial, and interpretation, was 22 minutes in length.

Once the stimulus material was compiled, it was ready to be viewed by Deaf participants. The participants and the study procedures will be described in the subsequent section.

Deaf Participants

In this section, the Deaf participants are described along with the setting and procedures used in the research process. As suggested by Cokely (2005), interpreter educators can benefit by drawing on the wisdom and experience of Deaf people when assessing interpreters' competence. This project was designed to engage Deaf native users of ASL as active participants in the study, because of their language fluency and their experience with interpreting services. The role of the Deaf participants was to view an ASL interpretation and evaluate the occurrence of sentence boundaries in the text.

Fifty Deaf participants took part in this research project. In order to participate in the study, the participants had to satisfy the following criteria:

a) Identify themselves as a member of the Deaf community;
b) Report that ASL was their primary language;
c) Be 18 years of age or older; and
d) Report frequent use of signed language interpreters.

The participants resided in 10 different states and the District of Columbia. They were fairly evenly divided across gender (males = 21, females = 29) and represented a broad spectrum of age ranges and levels of education. The majority of the participants were employed at

residential schools for the deaf. The participants responded to a call for subjects at either a residential school or a national conference. They were recruited in geographical areas other than where the interpreters worked in order to assure anonymity and eliminate potential bias from prior experience with the interpreters. The participants engaged in the study voluntarily and were paid twenty dollars each for their involvement. Prior to participating in the study, each participant was asked to sign a consent form and complete a personal information sheet.

Each Deaf participant viewed the stimulus videotape individually. The participants were informed that they were engaging in a linguistic research project on signed language interpreters. They viewed the videotaped directions for the project on the laptop and were allowed the opportunity for questions. They then performed the practice trial in preparation for viewing the interpretation videotape. After the practice trial, when the participants indicated readiness to begin the study, the videotape was started and the researcher left the immediate environment.

As stated earlier, five interpreters were videotaped providing separate interpretations of the lecture. It should be noted that each of the Deaf participants viewed only one of the interpreters. Ten Deaf participants viewed the first interpreter; another ten viewed the second interpreter, and so on, for a total of 50 Deaf participants watching five separate interpreters. The study was designed in this way in order to examine the variety of markers that were employed across interpreters.

Coding and Data Analysis

This section of the paper describes the procedures for collecting and analyzing the data including defining "clusters of agreement" and the type of prosodic markers identified in the coding.

Defining "Clusters of Agreement"

Ten Deaf participants viewed a single interpretation and responded to perceived sentence boundaries by pressing a button. Analysis of the participants' responses focused on "clusters of agreement" which were defined as intervals where six or more of the Deaf participants (out of ten) responded within one second. This one-second interval of agreement was also employed in an examination of prosodic markers in British Sign Language (Fenlon, Denmark, and Woll, 2006).

Across the five interpretations, there was a total of 153 "clusters of agreement" as to the location of sentence boundaries in the interpretations. The individual number of "clusters of agreement" varied among the interpreters, as shown in Table 1.

Interpreters					Total
A	B	C	D	E	
46	6	36	21	44	153

Table 1. Number of clusters of agreement identified in each interpretation

The variation in number of agreement points among the interpreters may be due to several factors, including varying attention by participants, or an idiosyncratic use of prosody by the interpreters that may not have consistently cued the participants. It is also possible that the methodology of this study did not fully capture the variation in the interpreters' use of prosodic markers. It should be noted that in informal interviews following the study, all Deaf participants said that they felt the interpreters were successful in conveying the information in the lecture.

These 153 agreement points were time-aligned to the digitized interpretations for analysis. The analysis of the interpreters' production of prosodic markers examined a two-second interval, beginning one second prior to the first participant's response, and ending at the final response in the cluster. The two-second interval in the interpretation was analyzed and coded for the type of prosodic markers that occurred, the frequency of the markers, and the number of overlapping markers. A graphic representation of the analysis process is offered in Table 2.

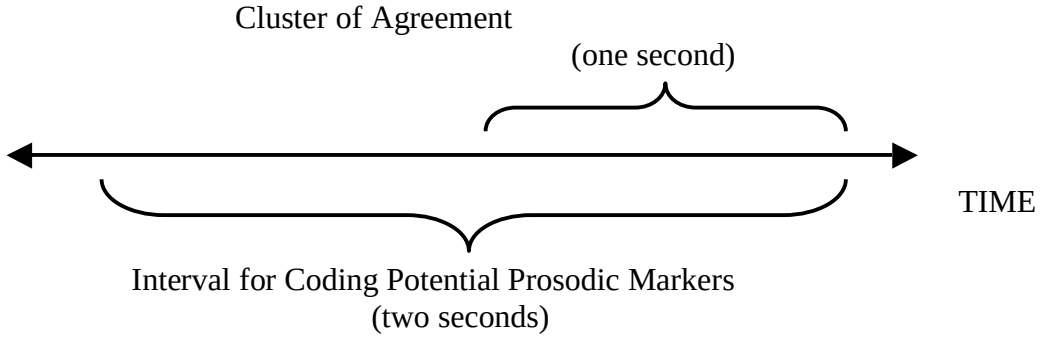

Table 2. Representation of clusters of agreement and intervals for coding

Coding the Data

The prosodic markers were analyzed and coded by identifying specific physical movements of the interpreter. The range of prosodic markers produced in signed languages have been described by various researchers and served as a foundation for this analysis. A total of 21 prosodic markers were coded for analysis. The markers were coded only if there was a change in state when they were produced. In other words if a marker, such as a body lean, was held constant throughout the two-second interval, it was not coded as marking a boundary.

The videotaped interpretations were viewed frame-by-frame and coded across each prosodic marker type. Codes were used to designate the specific shift in movement and each prosodic marker was coded for its duration. The prosodic markers were designated as falling into one of four broad categories based on specific articulators used in signed languages. The four categories were:

Category 1 - Hands
Category 2 - Head and Neck
Category 3 - Eyes, Nose, and Mouth
Category 4 - Body

A description of the specific prosodic markers for each category follows.

Category 1 – Hands

Coding in Category 1 occurred across the following five prosodic markers.

1. Held Handshape - Describes the holding or "freezing" of a handshape.
2. Hand Clasp - Describes the behavior in which the interpreter clasps his/her hands in front of the body. The fingers may be interlocked or folded. The hand clasp tends to occur around the waist with the elbows at a 90 degree angle.
3. Fingers Wiggling - Describes the behavior when one (or both) hands are being suspended in a neutral space in front of the interpreter's body and the fingers are wiggling.
4. Hands Drop - Describes the behavior of one (or both) hands having completed a sign and are dropped and held without movement.

5. Signing Space - Describes the behavior in which the hands are signing to the left or right of the interpreter's body.

Category 2 – Head and Neck

In this category movement that involves rotation with respect to an X, Y, and Z axis describe the head. For all head position fields, the head first moves to a target position and then maintains that position as some value (front, back, left right, etc.). Coding in Category 2 occurred across the following seven prosodic markers.

1. Head Position: Tilt (Front and Back) - In this position the interpreter's head is tilted forward or backwards and maintains that position for some length of time.
2. Head Position: Turn (Left and Right) - In this position, the interpreter's head has rotated on the Y axis (which may be envisioned as a vertical rod originating at the middle of the skull). The head is turned either left or right and held in that position.
3. Head Position: Tilt (Left and Right) - In this position, the interpreter's head has rotated on the Z axis (which may be envisioned as a horizontal rod originating at the back of the skull and coming through the nose). The head is tilted either left or right and held in that position for some length of time.
4. Head Movement: Nod - In this motion, the interpreter's head is moving on the X axis which may be envisioned as a rod running from ear to ear). The head is moving up and down in this position in a repetitive motion.
5. Head Movement: Shake - In this motion, the interpreter's head is moving on the Y axis (which may be envisioned as a vertical rod originating at the middle of the skull). The head is moving left and right and held in a repetitive motion.
6. Head Movement: Side to Side - In this motion, the interpreter's head is moving on the Z axis (which may be envisioned as a horizontal rod originating at the back of the skull and coming through the nose). The head is moving left and right in a repetitive manner.
7. Neck - Describes a shift in the muscular tension of the neck.

Category 3 – Eye, Nose and Mouth

Coding in Category 3 occurred across the following five prosodic markers.

1. Eyebrows - Denotes a shift in the interpreter's eyebrow height.
2. Eye Gaze - Denotes a shift in the direction of the interpreter's eye gaze.
3. Eye Aperture - Denotes a shift in the degree of the eyelid movement such as squinting, widening, or closing.
4. Nose - Denotes that the interpreter is "wrinkling" his/her nose.
5. Cheeks - Denotes a shift in the cheeks by puffing or releasing a puff.

Category 4 -- Body

Coding in Category 4 occurred across the following four prosodic markers.

1. Body Lean - Denotes a shift and hold of the direction of the interpreter's body.
2. Body Movement - Denotes movement of the interpreter's body that continues in a repetitive manner.
3. Large Breath - Denotes the presence of a visible breath.
4. Shoulders - Denotes the behavior of the shoulders being raised or lowered.

Results and Discussion

This paper will report on the initial analysis of the data by examining two parameters: (1) the frequency of prosodic marker type, and (2) the number of prosodic markers at the identified sentence boundaries.

Frequency of Prosodic Marker Type

Coding the results revealed the most frequent prosodic marker type in each of the four articulator categories. The hands (Category 1) and the body (Category 4) each had a single marker that was dominant, while the head and neck (Category 2) and the eyes, nose and mouth (Category 3) used several different markers. This difference suggests that the fine motor movements of each of the individual articulators can act independently of one another. In addition, the results show that, although the interpreters show variation in their production of prosodic markers, there are specific markers that fairly consistently occur more frequently than others.

	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Hand Clasp	42	3	28	8	19	100
Held Handshape	16	2	10	4	6	38
Sign Space	6	3	6	2	6	23
Hands Drop	1	0	3	3	11	18
Fingers Wiggling	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 3. Frequency of Markers in Category 1 – Hands

	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Head Position: Tilt (F/B)	32	3	19	15	26	95
Head Position: Turn (L/R)	31	1	16	7	19	74
Head Movement: Nod	14	0	16	7	30	67
Head Position: Tilt (L/R)	6	1	18	10	12	47
Head Movement: Shake	2	0	2	3	2	9
Head Movement: Side to Side	0	1	0	0	1	2
Neck	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 4. Frequency of Markers in Category 2 – Head and Neck

	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Eye Aperture	43	6	35	17	44	145
Eyebrows	32	4	29	12	42	119
Eye Gaze	30	6	27	13	42	118
Nose Wrinkling	0	0	4	0	0	4
Puffed Cheeks	1	0	0	0	2	3

Table 5. Frequency of Markers in Category 3 – Eyes, Nose, and Mouth

	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Body Lean	41	3	23	7	22	96
Shoulders	9	0	10	3	2	24
Body Movement	8	1	2	1	0	12
Breath	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 6. Frequency of Markers in Category 4 – Body

Number of Prosodic Markers at Boundaries

A second question that was investigated is the number of prosodic markers employed at the boundaries. American Sign Language has been described as being "layered" (Wilbur, 2000), because it enables the use of multiple articulators simultaneously. Analysis of the data reveals that prosodic cues that mark boundaries are also produced in a layered manner. Table 7 outlines the number of markers that were observed in the two-second interval of interpretation. The chart shows that the number of prosodic markers being produced most often falls between five and eight per interval.

	A	B	C	D	E	Total
Three Markers	3	0	0	3	0	6
Four Markers	0	1	1	2	0	4
Five Markers	5	2	2	6	8	23
Six Markers	6	1	13	5	13	38
Seven Markers	16	0	9	4	14	43
Eight Markers	10	2	6	1	5	24
Nine Markers	6	0	5	0	3	14
Ten Markers	0	0	0	0	1	1
TOTAL	46	6	36	21	44	153

Table 7. Number of Prosodic Markers

The initial analysis of the type, frequency and number of prosodic markers employed in ASL interpretation suggests that, as with spoken language, people have the ability to detect when prosodic markers are being used for lexical/grammatical purposes versus when they are used for marking phrasal boundaries. One of the surprising findings of this study was the high number of markers used by interpreters during a very short interval of time. Although the number of markers used is relatively high, the data suggest that there is a limited set of prosodic markers used by interpreters to indicate boundaries and that their usage demonstrates that a range of stylistic variation is possible while still producing a successful interpretation.

It was observed that when multiple prosodic markers occur together in ASL interpretation (which is almost always the case) they could occur either simultaneously or sequentially. One hypothesis is that the sequential production may be used because of the physical constraints of a visual-gestural language modality. For example, if one large articulator (e.g., body lean, hand clasp, shoulder raise) is being employed to mark a boundary, no other large articulator can occur simultaneously. If a second large articulator is used to mark the boundary, it occurs in a sequential manner. However, fine motor movements (e.g., eye aperture, head tilt, head nod) can be used simultaneously with a large articulator. The combination of the more fine-grained articulations with the larger articulations may serve to reinforce the presence of a boundary.

Summary and Future Directions

The goal of this project was to provide interpreter practitioners, mentors, and interpreter educators with evidence-based research that may be incorporated into instructional programs as well as add to the body of research about the use of prosody in American Sign Language.

Specifically, this research study provides an investigation of the use of prosodic markers that occur at phrasal and sentence boundaries in ASL interpretation.

Initial findings suggest that interpreters employ a limited set of prosodic markers that occur with varied frequency. This frequency hierarchy suggests that some markers are more effective at cueing Deaf people to the locations of boundaries in ASL interpretation. In addition, the interpreters' use of multiple markers may be an effective way to cue Deaf participants to the boundaries in interpreted discourse. Deeper analysis of the timing and duration of the markers and their sequencing in combination is needed. Further investigation will reveal how these articulator categories are timed and coordinated to effectively cue boundaries. It would also be enlightening to do a parallel examination of the use of prosodic markers by native users of ASL.

About the Author

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A United Front? Opening a Dialogue on Effective Practices for Educating Interpreters to Work in Health Care Settings

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Abstract

Although health care interpreting is one of the most common forms of community interpreting, effective practices for the education of interpreters working in health care have yet to be identified. In this paper, commonalities and differences between ASL – English interpreters and spoken language interpreters working in health care setting are explored. Areas covered include national organizations serving community interpreters, certification, standards, ethical/professional conduct and education. The corresponding panel discussion, facilitated by signed language interpreter educators and spoken language interpreter educators, examines the challenges and benefits of partially and/or fully conjoint education programs for health care interpreters based on effective practices.

Introduction

Signed language interpreters and spoken language interpreters have been present in health care settings for many years. In both disciplines, interpreters originally worked on an ad hoc basis, moving toward professionalism after the passage of legislation requiring access and the establishment of professional organizations. For signed language interpreters working in health care settings, this process of professionalism is estimated to have begun in the early seventies. For interpreters working between spoken languages in health care, discussions and awareness regarding professionalism began much later, in the early to mid-nineties. However, effective practices for educating interpreters to work in health care settings have yet to be adequately identified and implemented.

This paper introduces the areas central to the panel discussion by the authors regarding the education of interpreters working in health care. The issues were approached from both the perspective of signed language interpreters and educators (Swabey and Taylor) and spoken language interpreters and educators (Alvarado-Little and Coronado). Given the active role of the National Council of Interpreters in Health Care in providing leadership in health care interpreting and the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Center's (NCIEC) initiative to develop effective practices in interpreter education, the timing for such a dialogue is ideal.

One of the goals of the panel discussion was to examine the challenges and benefits of partially and/or fully conjoint education programs for health care interpreters who work between spoken languages, and those who work between spoken and signed languages. Topics within this discussion include 1) the underlying values of the RID-NIC Code of Professional Conduct and the NCIHC (National Council on Interpreting in Health Care) Code of Ethics for Interpreters in Health Care; 2) models of interpreting and models of instruction used in the respective fields; 3) existing resources and materials beneficial to both disciplines; 4) standard practices and effective practices in health care interpreting and health care interpreter education across languages.

Increasingly, hospitals and clinics in urban and rural areas hire both signed language interpreters and spoken language interpreters. The need for qualified interpreters to work in health care continues to grow, both for non-English speakers and Deaf, Hard of Hearing and Deafblind individuals. Preliminary data from a survey of signed language interpreter referral agencies indicates that 30-50% of the assignments are health care related. Legislation, as well as

lawsuits by patients, has increased the demand for certified, qualified interpreters in health care settings.

Recently, several articles have appeared in the media focusing on the growing awareness and need for the provision of quality interpreting services, particularly in the health care field. According to an article in the New England Journal of Medicine (Flores, 2006), "Some 49.6 million Americans (18.7 percent of U.S. residents) speak a language other than English at home; 22.3 million (8.4 percent) have limited English proficiency. Between 1990 and 2000, the number of Americans who spoke a language other than English at home grew by 15.1 million (a 47 percent increase), and the number with limited English proficiency grew by 7.3 million (a 53 percent increase). The numbers are particularly high in some places: in 2000, 40 percent of Californians and 75 percent of Miami residents spoke a language other than English at home, and 20 percent of Californians and 47 percent of Miami residents had limited English proficiency" (p.229).

Yet, even with the high demand for interpreters in health care settings and the high risk for complications resulting from inadequate interpretations, there are no documented effective practices for teaching health care interpreting. Questions remaining to be answered using empirical data and research include the language proficiency needed to interpret effectively in health care interpreting, the efficacy of hospital based programs compared to college/university programs, performance assessment models for interpreted medical encounters and effective approaches (including scope and sequence) for preparing interpreters to work in health care.

Commonalities and differences between ASL-English interpreters and spoken language interpreters in health care settings.

In this section, a brief comparison will be given of organizations serving community interpreters, national standards, ethical/professional conduct, certification, and education.

Organizations

In the United States, the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) is the only national interpreting organization that provides a national testing system, a certification maintenance system, and an ethical practices system for signed language interpreters. The RID reports a membership of 12,442 in 2005-06 with affiliate chapters in all fifty states, Puerto Rico, and the

District of Columbia. The members include interpreters, students, educators, other stakeholders and organizations that support the goals of the organization. However, the United States does not have any national membership organizations within the field of ASL-English interpreting that focus on a particular specialty setting. At RID national state and regional conferences, interpreters in attendance work in a variety of settings – community, conference, and educational.

Signed language interpreters in the U. S. do have at least two other national membership organizations – NAOBI (National Alliance of Black Interpreters) and Mano a Mano. The mission of NAOBI is to " to promote excellence and empowerment among African Americans/Blacks in the profession of sign language interpreting in the context of a multi-cultural, multi-lingual environment" (www.naobi.org). NAOBI began in 1987 and now holds an annual national conference, among other activities. Mano a Mano focuses on "signed language interpreters and the culturally and linguistically Spanish influenced communities they serve, providing professional resources, community forums, news events, networking and more" (http://www.manoamano-unidos.org/). Mano a Mano began in 1999 and holds biannual conferences.

Interpreters who work between two spoken languages in community settings do not have one unifying body, like RID, that serves as a professional organization and a certifying body. The national organizations that serve interpreters include the American Translators Association (ATA), which originally served only translators working with written documents – it was only in 1998 that it established the ATA Interpreter Division. Although ATA does certify translators in a number of language pairs, it does not certify interpreters. There is also an organization serving legal interpreters – NAJIT (National Association of Judiciary Interpreters and Translators) (www.najit.org/).

Germane to this paper and panel discussion is the National Council on Interpreting in Health Care (NCIHC). Although there are state and local interpreter associations, NCIHC sees its mission as broader than that of an interpreter organization. NCIHC is an active professional organization, advocating for language access issues, the rights of patients and the education of healthcare providers. Starting as an informal working group in 1994, yearly meetings were held until NCIHC was formally established in 1998. The group is composed of leaders from around the country who work as medical interpreters, interpreter service coordinators and trainers,

clinicians, policymakers, advocates and researchers. During its short history, it has developed a code of ethics, professional standards, a listserv, a website (www.ncihc.org) and position papers. In addition, it serves as a resource to those involved in language access issues.

Both RID and NCIHC have published mission and goal statements. These are reprinted in Table 1 below. The similarities between the two organizations include the commitment to language access rights, the promotion of excellence in interpreting, and the access to quality services.

Table 1. NCIHC and RID Comparison – Mission, Goals, Values, Philosophy

	NCIHC	RID
Mission	The National Council on Interpreting in Health Care is a multidisciplinary organization based in the United States whose mission is to promote culturally competent professional health care interpreting as a means to support equal access to health care for individuals with limited English proficiency.	It is the mission of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., to provide international, national, regional, state, and local forums and an organizational structure for the continued growth and development of the professions of interpretation and transliteration of American Sign Language and English.
Goal	1. Establishing a framework that promotes culturally competent health care interpreting, including standards for the provision of interpreter services in health care settings and a code of ethics for interpreters in health care. 2. Developing and monitoring policies, research, and model practices. 3. Sponsoring a national dialogue of diverse voices and interests on related issues. 4. Collecting, disseminating and acting as a clearinghouse on programs and policies to improve language access to health care for limited-English-proficient (LEP) patients.	It is the goal of RID to promote the profession of interpreting and transliterating American Sign Language and English.
Philosophy (RID)		The philosophy of RID is that excellence in the delivery of interpretation and transliteration services among people who are Deaf or Hard of Hearing, and people who are hearing, will ensure effective communication. As the professional association for interpreters and transliterators, the RID serves as an essential arena for its members in their pursuit of excellence.
Values (NCIHC)	The NCIHC pursues its mission with a commitment to: • Social justice. • Respect for and acceptance of all peoples, including small communities, native peoples, and cultural communities whose tradition is oral.	

	• The empowerment of limited-English-proficient communities. • The evolution of culturally appropriate practices in health care interpreter training programs.	

Besides the national organization for health care interpreters, there are six state medical interpreting organizations; two of them have a national presence – CHIA (California Health Care Interpreters Association) and MMIA (Massachusetts Medical Interpreter Association). The other four are located in Arkansas (Arkansas Medical Interpreters Society), Georgia (Medical Interpreter Network of Georgia) and New York (Association of Medical Interpreters of New York and Multicultural Association of Medical Interpreters of Central New York). In addition, there are 62 local, state or regional organizations serving community interpreters. (For a full listing see the NCIHC website.)

The RID website (www.rid.org) lists seven special interest groups (SIGs) that are formally recognized by RID. These groups consist of RID members who have common goals and interests aligned with the goals of RID. It is interesting to note that there is not a SIG representing interpreters in health care settings. The current RID SIGs are as follows:

1) Deaf Caucus
2) Educational Interpreters and Transliterators
3) Interpreters with Deaf Parents
4) Interpreters for the Deaf-Blind
5) Interpreter Service Managers
6) Interpreters and Transliterators of Color
7) Bisexual, Lesbian, Gay, Intersexed, Transgendered Interpreters/Transliterators

In the next table, the tenets of the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct, followed by RID certified medical interpreters, are briefly compared with the NCIHC Code of Ethics.
The NCIHC Code of Ethics is based on three core values: beneficence, fidelity and respect for the importance of culture and cultural differences. RID's philosophical base reflects a commitment to and recognition of the communication rights of Deaf people in the United States.

According to Bancroft (2005)), medical interpreting standards throughout the world focus on the following three areas: 1) the consumer's health and well-being; 2) promoting the bond between provider and patient and 3) respect for all parties. Furthermore, Bancroft identifies three key documents for health care interpreting – the MMIA standards of practice; the CHIA

standards of practice; and the Bridging the Gap curriculum and states that all "take as a given that the interpreter should protect the best interests of the patient by supporting the patient-provider relationship."

RID's Code of Professional Conduct is not specific to any given setting, but claims to be applicable to all settings, including legal, medical, and educational. In Table 2, this brief overview indicates that there are some differences and similarities between the professional codes promulgated by each organization. Both codes were developed with extensive input from stakeholders and the NAD-RID Professional Code of Conduct is a collaborative effort between the RID and the NAD (National Association of the Deaf). A dialogue on the underlying values that form the basis for these tenets is one part of the panel discussion accompanying this paper.

Table 2. Overview of NCIHC and NAD-RID Professional Codes

Tenet	NCIHC	RID
1	Confidentiality (#1)	Confidentiality – (#1)
2	Accuracy; considers cultural context (#2)	Possess skills and knowledge for the particular setting (#2, #3)
3	Impartial – does not counsel or interject (#2)	Conduct self in a manner appropriate to the situation (#9, #4)
4	Boundaries, role (#3)	Respect for consumers – (similar to 6)
5	Develops his/her own cultural knowledge and knowledge of other cultures (The intent is to emphasize the importance of culture in the health care context and in the creation of meaning – no such specific emphasis in RID CPC although #7 and #2 are applicable.)	Respect for colleagues, interns, and students in the profession (NCIHC #6 does not specifically mention others in the profession; emphasizes respect of patients and providers.)
6	Respect (see #4)	Ethical business practices (much more specific than #9 which emphasizes integrity in all interactions)
7	Advocacy (Applies when the patient's health, well-being or dignity is at stake. No such specific tenet in RID CPC.)	Professional development (see #8)
8	Further development of knowledge and skills (see #7)	---
9	Always professional and ethical (#6, #5, #3)	---

Standards of Practice

The *NCIHC National Standards of Practice for Interpreters in Health Care* was co-funded by The Commonwealth Fund and The California Endowment. According to the NCIHC website, "the standards were developed through a national consensus-building process that included focus groups and surveys of hundreds of working health care interpreters from across the United States. The NCIHC's National Standards of Practice are designed to help improve the quality and consistency of interpreting in health care. Just like clinical protocols for physicians, these new standards will provide guidance as to what is expected of health care interpreters and what constitutes good practice. These standards provide a common base of understanding of (our) profession and foster consistency in its practice, thus improving the quality of interpreter services across the United States." The document contains an introduction explaining the need, the development, and the potential uses for the standards, including training, hiring, performance monitoring as well as a basis for the assessment of qualifications. Each standard is presented with an accompanying objective, related ethical principles, and specific examples.

Although the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct is not described as containing standards of practice, it does have similarities with the NCIHC document. Each tenet is followed by guiding principles and illustrative behaviors. RID also publishes Standard Practice Papers (SPPs), which claim to articulate the consensus of the membership in outlining standard practices and positions on various interpreting roles and issues. There are currently 17 position papers (two in draft form). Most are brief, ranging in length from 1 – 5 pages. Two papers are related to health care interpreting – "Interpreting in Medical Settings" and "Interpreting in Mental Health Settings." Unlike the NCIHC National Standards of Practice for Interpreters in Health Care, the RID Standard Practice papers are geared to what the health care provider needs to know about working with an interpreter.

Certification

RID has offered a generalist certificate since 1972. Currently there are separate certification exams for Deaf interpreters and for hearing interpreters. In addition, certificate exams are also offered for legal interpretation (SC:L) and oral transliteration (OTC). Some

states also offer certification (e.g., Texas and Missouri), but currently RID is the only national certifying body.

At the present time, the NCIHC does not have an official position on certification and is in the process of discussing next steps involving standards for training and certification. However, much of the discussion is in the preliminary stages. Although RID focuses primarily on interpreters working between two languages (English and ASL), NCIHC currently serves interpreters working between a variety of language pairs, making issues around testing and certification more complex.

Some states do certify medical interpreters in a limited number of spoken language pairs. For example, the Department of Social and Health Services in the State of Washington offers a medical interpreter test in the following languages: Spanish, Vietnamese, Cambodian, Laotian, Chinese-Mandarin, Chinese-Cantonese, Russian and Korean. (For additional information refer to www1.dshs.wa.gov/msa/LTC/.)

Education

In a focus group of 24 working medical interpreters from around the nation in 2006, only 20% of the interpreters reported feeling well prepared for the medical interpreting assignments they take. This is not surprising, given the lack of training for medical interpreters that is significant in scope and sequence.

Although there are a reported 126 interpreter education programs in the U.S., none to date have been identified as providing a comprehensive sequence of courses to prepare interpreters to work in health care settings. From 1983 – 2001 The College of St. Catherine offered an associate degree (AAS) in Health Care Interpreting and then, beginning in 1999, an applied baccalaureate degree (BI) in Interpreting with a specialization in health care interpreting. This type of specialized programming was the first of its kind in the U.S. and filled a burgeoning need in Minnesota for health care interpreters. However, the program now offers a BA in Interpreting. Students interested in medical interpreting can take courses offered on campus through other departments such as medical terminology, ethics in health care, anatomy and physiology, death and dying and other related courses. These courses, chosen with an Interpreting major advisor, along with an elective course in medical interpreting and a supervised internship in a medical setting provide preparation for working in health care settings. However,

it is not clear yet in the evolution of the field if it is effective to specialize at the baccalaureate level. A strong case could be made for the appropriateness of acquiring knowledge and skills necessary for a variety of community settings at the BA level and developing specializations at a later time. Unfortunately, there seems to be no standard for acquiring specialized competency in health care interpreting for working interpreters.

A model for educating interpreters to work in health care settings was tested at the University of Tennessee as part of a FIPSE project, developed by Dean and Pollard at the University of Rochester. This course sequence was based on problem-based learning (PBL) and the demand-control schema. Students took an introductory course in demand-control schema as well as a course called Medical Interpreting via Observation-Supervision. This sequence was offered with success as a pilot project as part of UT's baccalaureate degree in interpreting, but according to UT, the sequence in medical interpreting is no longer being offered.

The new distance program in interpreting at the University of Northern Colorado offers three specialty areas: Community, K-12 and legal interpreting. Medical interpreting is part of one of the community courses, but it is not offered as a separate area of specialization.

To date, it appears that many programs incorporate information about interpreting in a variety of settings in their program curricula. Instructors use a variety of video texts and simulated situations, which may include some related to the health care setting. Ethics and decision-making courses, offered in most programs, along with introduction to interpreting courses, commonly introduce the health care setting. However, internship or practicum placements in health care settings are available, but uncommon, as are course sequences preparing students for these vitally important supervised internships in health care settings.

If interpreters are getting at best, an introduction to health care interpreting in their education programs, then where are they developing the knowledge and skills to truly work effectively in health care? Interpreters interviewed to date indicate that they have gained the competency they have in the following ways: 1) most report learning "by trial and error" on the job and most often without supervision; 2) by taking professional development workshops on interpreting in health care, ranging from 2 hours to 5 days; 3) by taking courses at community colleges on related topics (terminology, anatomy); 4) by reading pamphlets and other information found at clinics and conducting web searches; and 5) talking with colleagues.

Although there are several books and training manuals for spoken language medical interpreter training, there are few, if any, commercially available texts or curricula available for signed language interpreters working in the medical area. This is not to say that there are not effective texts and other resources available for teaching ASL-English interpreters to work in the medical setting. Drawing from various disciplines, there are excellent sources for teaching many of the knowledge and competencies needed to work effectively in the health care setting. However, effective practices have yet to be identified, either for interpreting in the health care setting or teaching interpreters to work in the health care setting.

The educational opportunities for health care interpreters working between two spoken languages are quite different than those available for signed language interpreters. In the Language Services Resource Guide (2006), 53 programs are listed for medical interpreting. However, none of the listed programs lead to an AA or BA degree in Interpreting, although many of the courses are offered for college credit. The listing includes programs run by nonprofit groups, including faith based and community organizations. Other programs are run by commercial businesses or government programs. Programs range from three-day beginning interpreter training programs with no entry requirements to graduate-level university programs. There are currently no federal health care interpreter or translation certification standards and no consensus on the meaning of certification or adequate training for interpreters in health care. While some programs provide a certificate of completion, a certificate of attendance, or an undergraduate certificate, this is not to be understood as certification. "Certificate program," for example, does not equal "certification" (NHeLP Language Services Resource Guide, p. 41).

Summary of Similarities and Differences

Table 3 serves as an overview of some of the similarities and differences between signed and spoken language interpreters. With this shared background, the panel and the audience can pursue some of the larger and deeper questions posed earlier

Table 3. Common Questions – Spoken Language and Signed language Health Care Interpreting

Questions	**Interpreting between a spoken language and a signed language in the U.S.**	**Interpreting between two spoken languages in the U.S.**
Is there a nationally recognized Code of Conduct or Code of Ethics for medical interpreters?	There is not a specific code for medical interpreting but the NAD-RID Professional Code of Conduct is applicable to all	The National Code of Ethics for Interpreters in Health Care was published in July of 2004.

	settings.	
Is there a nationally recognized Professional Code of Conduct/ Ethics applicable to all settings: medical, legal, educational?	Yes (RID, 2005) (first published in 1965)	No
Are there Codes of Conduct/ Ethics for medical interpreters developed by state associations	No	Yes. CHIA, MMIA
Is national certification available for medical interpreting?	No	No
Is national certification available for generalists or specialties other than medical?	Yes. Generalist Legal OTC CDI	Yes. Legal certification available for some language pairs
Is state certification available for medical interpreting?	No	Yes, in some states and for some language pairs. States include Oregon, Washington and California.
What requirements are necessary to sit for certification?	RID-NIC: Generalist: currently none 2008 – AA degree 2012 – BA degree Must pass written test before taking performance test	Varies by test and state. For Washington, no requirement but must pass written exam before taking oral exam.
Are MA programs available in 1) interpreting (including community work) 2) teaching interpreting	1) Yes – 1 program – Gallaudet University 2) Yes – 1 program – Northeastern University	1) Yes – Masters of Public Health degree in Health Interpreting (University of North Texas, Health Science Center, School of Public Health) 2) No
How many undergraduate (BA) opportunities are available in community interpreting?	26 programs granting BA degrees in Interpreting.	None identified to date that offer a BA in Interpreting.
How many AA/AS programs available in Interpreting?	99	Several programs offered in community colleges but those identified don't result in an AA or AS degree.
Standardized curriculum in medical interpreting available for purchase?	No	Yes
Standardized training for medical interpreter trainers?	No	Yes
Are there state organizations for medical interpreting?	No	Yes
Are there regular national or state conferences for medical interpreters?	No, but often sessions on medical interpreting at RID national and state conferences.	Yes (MMIA, CHIA, ATA and others)
Is there a national organization serving community interpreters?	Yes – RID # of members – over 12,000	ATA now has a division of community interpreting but the primary focus is still translation.
Is there a national association for interpreter educators?	Yes – CIT	No
Is there a national listserv for medical interpreting?	No	Yes – the NCIHC is a national organization with a listserv, but

		it's a member benefit.
Legislation mandating interpreting services?	Rehabilitation Act of 1973; ADA (1990)	OCR TITLE VI
Regular print or online newsletters/journals on medical interpreting?	No	Undetermined. However, the ATA Medical Interpreter Division publishes the Caduceus.
Telephonic interpreting in hospitals and clinics?	N/A	Yes. Some hospitals and health care facilities rely mainly on telephonic interpreting.
Video remote interpreting?	Yes – not widespread yet	Not common.
Professional development offered online?	Currently relatively little for medical interpreting.	One online program has been identified.
Dual role positions?	Not documented at this time, but anecdotally seems to be a small percentage of positions.	Very common in health care settings.

Conclusion

Interpreting in health care is a complex, growing field that requires appropriately credentialed and highly competent practitioners. Although interpreting in medical settings is one of the most common forms of community interpreting, it is not one for which interpreters have adequate preparation opportunities . However, many of the resources needed to identify effective practices for health care interpreting and educating health care interpreters are available. The NCIHC has pursued the specific area of health care interpreting for the past 12 years and has developed position papers and other documents that are of interest to signed language interpreters. Sawyer (2004) has written about curriculum development and assessment for interpreter education, bringing together relevant research on these topics. Literature exists on the nature of the doctor-patient encounter, interpreted and non-interpreted, both from a discourse perspective and a sociolinguistic perspective (Metzger, 1995, Wadensjo, 1992). The view of the interpreter from a societal and institutional perspective has also been explored by Angellini (2005). Dean and Pollard (2004, 2005) have proposed an approach to teaching interpreting that situates interpreting within the practice professions, promoting a problem based learning approach. Some of the Regional Centers for Interpreter Education have developed excellent resources for medical interpreting (www.stkate.edu/CATIE).

With the available resources and a collaborative model, the time has come to identify and document effective practices for health care interpreting and for teaching health care interpreting.

Such an endeavor will serve students, interpreters, and educators and, more importantly, improve communication access to quality health care.

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Applying what we know through translation and note taking

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Abstract

Much exists in the literature concerning American Sign Language and the process of interpretation at the level of syntax and vocabulary. This paper, however, will encourage the exploration of the interpretation process at a deeper level, that of discursive practices, through the translation process. To accomplish this, students of interpretation must be aware of the different levels of processing available to them during a text analysis. As a field, we must critically examine and balance practices that adopt an applied linguistic perspective, based on the instruction of vocabulary and syntax, with those that are grounded within the social sciences and humanities, such as the acknowledgment of culture and power on the interpreting process.

Introduction

Researchers and linguists have documented many of the features of American Sign Language (ASL) at the level of grammar and vocabulary (Valli and Lucas, 1992), information that is now available to interpreter educators and students of interpretation. For example, we know that the grammar of ASL includes topic-comment structures and that in the construction of

conditional phrases, the condition typically precedes the result. We also know that ASL incorporates a rich classifier system and a numbering system more complex than English.

At the same time, our field has recognized that knowing the vocabulary and syntax of ASL is not sufficient to guarantee an accurate translation or proficient interpreter. For example, researchers and educators have also begun to explore the discursive practices of the Deaf community (Pollitt, 2000) and compare that to the culture of hearing individuals (Hoza, 1999; Humphrey and Alcorn, 2001).

Several models of the interpretation and text analysis process have been postulated (Cokely, 1992; Colonomos, 1992; Gish, 1987; Isham, 1986) which encourage a more global, context-based examination of the source and target texts. These models help interpreters determine their strengths and weaknesses and can serve as a guide for interpreter educators.

Yet, while it could be argued that instructors in American Sign Language – English Interpreter (AEIP) classes typically examine many of these issues, program graduates still approach the task of interpretation from the level of grammar and syntax. This is evidenced, for example, by the types of questions posed by beginning practitioners, such as "What is the ASL sign for that English word?"

Working at the level of Discourse

This paper is a discussion of the pedagogical process used in an interpretation program to move the learners from the level of grammar to that of discourse, and it will outline how this is done further on.

First, though, it is helpful to look at the research from the field of spoken languages to begin to build a common understanding of discourse. Paul Grice (cited in Hancher, 1996), a renowned linguist has postulated that within dialogic settings, individuals follow a Cooperative Principle. This Principle, Grice argued (cited in Hancher, 1996), was guided by four rules that he labeled the Maxim of Quantity (to be concise), the Maxim of Quality (to speak honestly), the Maxim of Relation (to stay on topic), and the Maxim of Manner (to be organized).

Spinelli and Ripich (1985) compared conversations from the level of discourse within both clinical and classroom-based settings. They focused on a number of areas related to language use such as attention, repair, and turn-taking strategies. They found that in terms of attention-getting events, students experienced less competition in clinical settings whereas in

classroom settings, the teacher allocated turns and spent 15% of the class time maintaining or initiating attention (Spinelli and Ripich, 1985). The topics were more limited and teacher-directed in classes as compared to clinical settings and the educators in the study frequently requested more information or repairs from students than clinicians did when the students were not clear (Spinelli and Ripich, 1985).

In 1991, Gee examined the issue of discourse in relation to children learning a second language. He suggested that language use at the level of discourse served as an “identity kit” for individuals in terms of how to act or interact in specific settings. Valli and Lucas (1992) would call this function of language use “a signal of social identity” (p. 311). Individuals, for example, have a "primary discourse" which develops during the enculturation process and that they use with "intimates" or others they frequently interact with (Gee, 1991). When not engaged within their primary discourse, individuals also partake in and have knowledge of sub-discourses of “secondary institutions (such as schools, workplaces, stores, government offices, businesses, or churches)” and of the official discourse (Gee, 1991, pp. 7-8).

Turning to the field of ASL-English interpreting and, as mentioned earlier, educators and researchers have encouraged an examination of discourse by identifying significant facets of the process. For example, in 1992 Colonomos suggested processing information at the textual level. Cokely (1992) referred to the semantic intent of the presenter and Gish (1987) encouraged interpreters to look at the speaker’s goal. Authors such as Isham (1986) and Shaw (1992) have encouraged interpreters to look beyond grammar by examining register and the contextual force of an utterance (Isham, 1986). Roy (2000) identified and discussed the impact an interpreter has as a third party on the regulation of a conversation. Seleskovitch (1978) encouraged interpreters to identify the gist of the message through a process of exegesis, the extraction of the meaning from the corpus. In 2004, Napier presented a model for examining texts from a contrastive discursive and linguistic perspective.

As a field, we have also come to recognize that we perform our work in dialogic settings (Cokely, 2005). Graduates of interpreter education programs work in settings where individuals typically “seek information” or “chronicle events” (Cokely, 2005).

Why work at the level of discourse?

There are many reasons to encourage students to approach the act of translation or interpretation from the level of discourse. Much evidence exists that suggests we should expect differing discursive practices or expectations between the Deaf community and the hearing majority, especially in terms of Grice's Cooperative Principle and four Maxims (cited in Hancher, 1996) and Gee's (1991) discussion of primary discourse.

For example, Pollitt (2000) suggested that there was a discourse of deafhood, a way of experiencing the world dissimilar in some respects from the hearing majority in terms of areas such as topic range, foregrounding of specific issues, turn-taking practices, and terms of address. Humphrey and Alcorn (2001) pointed to disparities in the amount and kind of information Deaf and hearing individuals share within different contexts through the use of expansions. Page (1993) and Mindess (1996) earlier suggested the Deaf community had at times a more elaborative style of communication.

It has been theorized that Deaf community members approach individuals from a diffuse perspective (Page, 1993) and might adhere to a politeness system of positive face (Hoza, 1999). This might result in them being labeled "blunt" (Tope, 1993) from the majority, hearing perspective due to different communicative codes or discursive practices. Hearing individuals, on the other hand, might more often be characterized as individualistic in orientation (Bienvenu, 1991; Humphrey and Alcorn, 2001; Page, 1993) and more prone to following specificity patterns when interacting in social or professional settings (Page, 1993)

Deaf community members might be more collectivist in nature (Mindess, 1996), with a tradition of an oral history (Humphrey and Alcorn, 2001) and past-oriented (Humphrey and Alcorn, 2001).

It has been further suggested that Deaf individuals value reciprocity (Mindess, 1996; Smith, 1983; Still, 1990), clear communication and the sharing of information (Mindess, 1996).

There is support from the field of education for approaching the interpretation process from a holistic, global methodology (Gish, 1987). It has been suggested that students can learn new abilities and be successful if the tasks they are attempting are meaningful and lead to productive work in their community (Dewey, 1902). Working with complete texts and examining them from a discursive level allows students to experience the work that they will

perform and goes beyond the application of specific linguistic or grammatical rules, an approach which disassociates the task from authentic experiences.

As students explore the act of interpreting at the level of discourse, however, they can become overwhelmed when challenged to identify the many facets and meanings of a text (Gish, 1987). As educators, we must recognize that students need to be given tasks that are challenging but not overwhelming (Krashen and Terrell, 1983; Gish, 1987). To do that, we must recognize the abilities and language fluency students possess within a zone of proximal development as defined by Vygotsky (as cited in Gish, 1987). Or, as Krashen and Terrell (1983) have described it, we must not overwhelm students‘ affective filters by presenting them with tasks that are beyond their abilities or interests, thereby shutting them down.

Applying Theory to Practice

To apply theory to practice and to make the work both meaningful and challenging without overwhelming, we can take the advice of Napier (2004) to follow a constructivist approach. Together, the instructor and students can analyze texts and create translations and interpretations within a supportive setting. This involves the creation of a group of learners and co-educators and fosters cooperative learning and critical thinking. The approach outline below is just one of many ways to accomplish this.

Pedagogical process

One of the goals of this activity, from the perspective of Bloom’s taxonomy (as cited in Krathwohl, 2002), is to take the students from more concrete and simple constructs to a level of understanding which is abstract and involved.

To do that, it is essential that the students have achieved a sufficient level of fluency in ASL and English to successfully translate the text provided. They should be conversant with the research outlined above in terms of discourse and be at the point where they have begun to apply or critically examine the information. As Bloom would describe it (as cited in Krathwohl, 2002) they will progress from the “Knowledge” and “Comprehension” stages through to the “Application, Analysis, Synthesis,” and, hopefully, “Evaluation” stages in order to become critical thinkers.

Students are first introduced to the topic of a text and given a brief autobiography of the participants, in this case a sample of a dialogic setting in which a Deaf participant is seeking employment as an ASL instructor. This sample falls within the description given by Cokely (2003) of assignments typically undertaken by program graduates. It should also fall within the schema of most learners as they typically begin a program in interpretation after having worked with an ASL instructor.

Brainstorming

As suggested by other authors (Gish, 1987; Napier, 2004) and as a means of handling the cognitive demands of interpreting, the participants are encouraged to brainstorm prior to viewing the source tape. This process will be informed by the research outlined previously. To facilitate student participation and ownership, they will be assigned or can choose different aspects of discourse to explore.

As a starting point, the students can be asked to consider Grice's four Maxims as a guide to preparation:

Maxim of Quantity (to be concise)

How might some information be foregrounded and emphasized by the hearing/Deaf participants? Consider differences in terms of expansions, euphemistic language, and implicature.

Maxim of Quality (to speak honestly)

What is the goal of the hearing/Deaf participant and how might the following impact each person's participation - power and status, terms of address, face and politeness, perspective (diffuse/specificity)?

Maxim of Relation (to stay on topic)

What differences might you expect in terms of topic range?

Maxim of Manner (to be organized)

How might the hearing/Deaf participant organize information differently,

chronologically? Register, turn-taking, maintenance, repair?

Note-taking

Next the student will review the function and types of mnemonic devices available to aid in their translation process. They might choose to use linear notes or key phrases and concepts, the Cornell System (The Office for Educational Practice, 1981), or visual mind maps. Then they will have the opportunity to view the source tape several times, and as a class and in groups ensure everyone has a fairly complete understanding of the text.

Translation Process

Once the source tape has been viewed and the students are fairly comfortable with their notes, they are then encouraged to explore the translation process utilizing the information they have generated as a group. They will review Grice's Maxims and the predictions they made concerning the discursive practices of the participants. This will be conducted in their first language, English for example, and shared with other groups and their instructor as a means of critically examining their application of theory to practice.

At this point, students will then be encouraged to generate draft translations of both the English and ASL source texts and begin working between the languages. They will be asked to consider how theory can be applied and will be guided through the process by their peers and instructor.

Once they have generated a draft translation, this will be shared within their group or the entire class as time permits for discussion and feedback. Throughout the process, the participants will continue to work at both the level of syntax and level of discourse as they attempt to find meaningful translations of concepts and sentences within the broader framework of discourse. Each participant's ability to recognize and navigate issues of identity and discourse will be critically examined.

Consecutive and/or Simultaneous interpretation

In the final stage of this process, students will be asked to select a peer to work with. As a team, they will each be given the opportunity to either interpret the source text consecutively or simultaneously. The learner who is responsible for observing the interpretation will take into consideration the overall success of the interpretation and also consider the extent to which their

partner was able to work beyond the level of grammar and syntax. As a team, they will review the process utilizing the four Maxims.

Caveats

As with any lesson in interpretation, there are several limitations to this exercise that must be kept in mind. One issue to consider is the level of fluency students need in ASL to successfully work at the level of discourse. Jim Cummins (1979) in his work on bilingualism has described fluency in a second language in two ways. He suggests learners can achieve a level of fluency at the level of Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS) or Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (Cummins, 1979).

To work at the level of discourse, where students can discuss and demonstrate mastery of "the functions of language, language as skilled work, the norms and structure of language use" (Valli and Lucas, 1992, p. 311), students must be operating at the level of CALP (Cummins, 1979) in ASL. Unfortunately, I would argue that many students begin and graduate programs functioning, instead, at the level of BICS (Cummins, 1979), thus making it challenging for them to work beyond the vocabulary and syntax level.

Critical to this approach is the adoption of both a holistic and mechanistic approach to the translation process as students are allowed to explore the entire process, but can also focus on individual words or concepts. Some students might continue to only consider the individual parts, the units, as Gish (1987), or propositions, as Isham (1986), referred to them, which could be a result of their language fluency. As they become more adept with ASL and progress to the level of CALP they must be challenged to think more globally.

The text selection process for this activity is very teacher-centered as this is an introductory task designed to enhance the learner's understanding of discourse. In subsequent activities, the students could be asked to choose or create their own materials.

Whenever a brainstorming activity is undertaken, there is always the danger of falling into stereotyping clients both hearing and Deaf. In the Canadian context, students and educators are predominately white and middle to upper class making it difficult to consider the experiences of the 'other.' It is important that the instructor guide the students in meaningful discussions about the use of language and impact of culture without going beyond their personal experiential bounds of those of the students.

Where topics are covered that the instructor or students are not qualified to discuss, students should be encouraged to spend time out of class with individuals from different cultural and socio-economic backgrounds, to read about and attend cultural events, and to participate in targeted field trips. It is also important to have the community involved in the class to address questions beyond the scope of the instructor.

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A Social Constructionist Approach to Gendered Discourse and its Implications for the ASL-to-English Interpreting Process

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Abstract

The notion of *gender* is a social construction. Individuals learn to perform "appropriate" gendered behaviors, according to the social norms of their respective societies/cultures. One form of gender performativity is observed within interactive discursive acts. Within ASL-to-English interpreting, little has been written on spoken English gendered discourse styles. Because our field is made up predominantly of white females, [1] issues of gender within the intersectionalities of race, class, and sexuality, influence the final interpreted utterance. This paper explores a post-structuralist framework of spoken English gendered language as a social construction and discusses the implications such gendered features have on the Sign-to-Voice interpretive process, as well as their impact on speaker intent and credibility.

[1] E-mail correspondence. Melissa Bowhay, RID membership. 2006 RID database on gender and race/ethnicity distribution. July 13, 2006.

Introduction

Much is written within the field of Sociology on the construction of gender. West and Zimmerman (2002) describe *gender* as "the product of social doings," and that "gender itself is constituted through interaction" (p. 6). Gender, they write, is an "accomplishment:" "it is something that one *does*, and does recurrently, in interaction with others" (p. 16). Our sense of gendered selves, Mary Talbot (1998) writes, "is constituted in discourse," illustrating that people are not "passively shaped" into gendered beings, but "are active in their own construction" (p. 157). She defines *discourse* as "historically constituted social constructions in the organization and distribution of knowledge" (p. 151). These constructions "shape people, giving positions of power to some but not to others…only exist[ing] in social interaction in specific situations" (p. 154). Two other sociolinguists, Shari Kendall and Deborah Tannen (1997), write of the "'social construction' paradigm" (p. 82) of gender and discourse. They explain that, "in this paradigm, gendered identities…are maintained and (re-)created through social practices, including language practices" (p. 82). In other words, gender identity is expressed through discourse *when we interact with others*. Simply stated, discourse is how we interact through language with others. It is how we converse with others in society. Through speech acts, we perpetuate our social identities, whether they are identities of gender, race, class, or sexuality.[2]

One question that guides this paper is, how do interpreters "do gender" (Fenstermaker and West, 2002) while interpreting? Are gendered discourse features observable in the interpreting process? Are interpreters *consciously aware* that they are engaged in such gendered interactions? How do these features impact the interpreting process in terms of speaker credibility and source message intent? The goal of this paper is to expand our understanding of the ASL-to-English interpretive process by examining the presence of certain gendered language features while interpreting. While there is a

[2] By "speech acts" I mean the sociolinguistic term of 'the act of conversing with others;' I do not assume an audist definition that the literal word 'speech' refers to the spoken discursive acts between social individuals. On the contrary, "speech acts," for the purpose of this paper (and all of my research and lectures), refers to the 'act' a person performs when making an utterance (signed or spoken) to another within social interactions.

body of research regarding interpreter effects, in general, on the interpreting process itself (Cokely, 1992; Feyne, 2002; Hoza, 1999; Lawrence, 1998; Mindess, 1999; McIntire and Sanderson, 1993/1995, to name a few), there is little research regarding gendered discourse within the interpreting process. Although the body of research just mentioned above has contributed to our understanding of the interpretive process from a sociolinguistic lens, the study of how male and female interpreters "voice differently" based on specific sociolinguistically-established gendered language features has received limited attention. For that reason, I will analyze certain documented gendered language features and apply them to the ASL-to-English interpreting process. For example, based on interpreters' socially constructed identity as either "girls/women" or "boys/men", how are issues of politeness strategies reflected in the interpreting process? Do female interpreters utilize politeness strategies differently than male interpreters? How are hedges and fillers used differently? What about "taboo" words, such as profanity or discourse with sexual content? How might prosody be employed differently between male and female interpreters? These will be addressed below, but first a breakdown of the make up of professional interpreters in the field will be presented for the reader's understanding of the significance of this research to our profession.

Demographic Breakdown of Gender and Race within RID Membership

According to the 2006 RID membership database, there were 12,442 members in good standing within the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) national organization.[3] The table below shows that over 81% of the membership is constituted by women, with only a little over 12% of the membership by male interpreters. (See Table 1a below.) This is a little under a 7:1 ratio of women to men in the profession of ASL/English interpreting. In addition, the 2006 results show that less than 10% of ASL/English interpreters are members of non-white minority groups (See Table 1b below). Although there has been a slight increase in ethnic-racial groups over the last decade (Burch, 2000), the racial makeup of our profession remains largely of white European descendants, who are mostly females.

[3] E-mail correspondence. Melissa Bowhay, RID membership. 2006 RID database on gender and race/ethnicity distribution. July 13, 2006.

Table [1a] 2006 RID Individual Membership Self-Reported Gender Distribution

Gender	2006 Membership (*N*=12,442)	% 100.0
Female	10,089	81.0
Male	1,500	12.0
Total Self-Reported	11,589	93.1

Table [1b] 2006 RID Individual Membership Self-Reported Race/Ethnic Distribution

Race/Ethnicity	2006 Membership (*N*=12,442)	% 100.0
African/Black	538	4.3
Asian/Pacific Islander	143	1.1
Euro-American White	9,688	77.8
Hispanic/Latino(a)	417	3.3
American Indian/Alaskan Native	94	0.7
Total Self-Reported	10,880	87.2

What is not present in the data above is a category of sexual orientation. This information was not available on the RID database. What is also not present is the category of class (interpreter income levels). The former data would be worthwhile information to have for purposes of gender identities and discourse analysis. Similarly, the latter data would also be valuable information for this paper, as there is significant research regarding the influence that social class plays within gendered discourse (Conrick, 1999; Coates, 1993; Cameron, 1998; Crawford, 1995; Macaulay, 2005), and this author believes the implications of class on discourse styles and interpreting are worthy of further investigation for interpreter education programs. [4] However, since this information is *not* available, the focus of this paper will be on a broader analysis of gender and discourse, in general, as applied to the interpreting process, with analyses

[4] Furthermore, the fact that the above racial categories fail to separate minority groups by ethnicities is problematic, from a sociological perspective. For example, the categories of "Asian" and "Hispanic/ Latino" fails to recognize ethnic representation of such groups as S.E. Asian Indians, Japanese, Chinese, Koreans, Filipinos, and Indonesians within the former category, and Chicanos within the latter category. A further breakdown by ethnicity would give us a better understanding of members who are interpreters of color and their experiences as gendered interpreters from their respective cultural lenses.

made on the specific subjects of race, sexuality, or class where relevant to the topic presented.

Gendered Language

Before I begin to attach gendered language features to the interpreting process, I will first introduce a post-structuralistic theoretical framework on gender and language. There is extensive literature written from sociolinguist scholars that theorize the differences between men's and women's discourse styles through social interaction (Ayim, 1997; Bonvillain, 2000; Butler, 1990/1993; Cameron, 1992/1998; Coates, 1993; Conrick, 1999; Holmes, 1995; Key, 1975; Spender, 1980; Talbot, 1998; Tannen, 1990; Weatherall, 2002; Wodak, 1997). Generally speaking, gendered discourse styles are a demonstration of the ways in which females and males are socialized to dialogue differently from each other.

One theory posed by Maryann Neely Ayim (1997) is the "sex roles socialization theory of gender and language" (p. 45). In essence, this theory states that women and men at an early age are socialized in the ways they are to "be" female and male. Women are socialized into language patterns that display "hesitance, insecurity, indirectness, weakness, deviousness, politeness, and hypercorrectness," leading to an overall perception of "inferiority" by the user of the language patterns and those who engage with her (p. 46). Men are linguistically socialized into speech patterns that are perceived as "strong, dominant, forceful, and direct…" (p. 46). Mary Talbot (1998) writes that sex-preferential differentiation in language (what she calls "doing gender"), is a "part of 'behaving' as 'proper' men and women in particular cultures". Essentially, she asserts that the ways in which men and women speak are "highly culture-specific" (p. 6-7). This constructionist approach to understanding gender and discourse was "brought about," according to Ann Weatherall (2002), "by the influence of poststructuralist ideas that stress the thoroughly discursive and textual nature of social life" (p. 75-76). She uses the term *discourse* "to embrace two senses of gender as a social construction" (p. 76):

> On the one hand, gender is constructed in the ways it is described in talk and texts. On the other hand, gender as a concept is itself constructed—a

> social meaning system that structures the way we see and understand the world. (p. 76)

These authors support the post-structuralist theoretical approach mentioned above to gender and discourse as being a social construct within a society. Girls and boys are not 'born' with an inherent 'knowledge', if you will, of how to converse according to their biological selves. Instead, girls and boys are socialized within families, peer groups, and cultural groups on the appropriate ways within their respective circles to interact discursively with others. Gendered language, then, is a by-product, a consequence, of gender performativity.

Furthermore, Maeve Conrick (1999) reminds us that Western mainstream society still carries an unwritten gender expectation within language and discourse. It is what she describes as the "male-as-norm" principle:

> The "unquestioned acceptance of men's speech patterns as the 'norm' from which women 'deviate'. The underlying message…[of this principle] is that what men speak is 'real' language and…what women speak… is defined in relation to, the norm represented by men" (p. 55).

In the field of social science, and particularly in discourse analysis, this principle implies a hegemonic male bias while recording gender differences in language. If there is already an underlying socio-structural value system of how men and women are perceived in terms of speech acts, how might this play out when we are interpreting sign-to-voice for D/deaf individuals? In other words, how might our "gendered speech acts," albeit subconscious, influence speaker credibility to audience listeners?[5] I will address this below.

Gendered Language and the ASL-to-English Interpretative Process

For the purpose of this paper, I will be addressing specific spoken gendered language features and applying them to the ASL-to-English interpreting process.

[5]Typically, a "gender appropriate" discourse is defined by the dominant group of white, upper/middle-class, heterosexual language users. Those who deviate through transgressed speech acts (i.e., lesbian masculinities and gay femininities or white middle and upper class women using swear words) are assessed accordingly in a heterosexual, white-normed, upper/middle-class society. Individuals, whether male, female or queered, learn to perform socially appropriate discourse (according to their respective race, ethnicity, and class) to either avoid social rejection or to experience social acceptance as their gendered selves.

Specifically, I will be discussing such spoken features for politeness strategies as saving face and indirectness, hedges and fillers, high-rising terminal, and taboo words (swearing and discourse with sexually explicit context). Below follows a description of these specific linguistic features attached to gender and discourse and their influence on ASL-to-English interpreting.

Saving Face and Indirectness

Deborah Schiffrin writes of an "interactional sociolinguistic framework" within face-to-face interactions, where "listeners share speakers' contextualization cues, [and] subsequent interactions proceed smoothly" (Schiffrin, 1994, p. 100). This "interactional sociolinguistic framework" to discourse, Schiffrin theorizes, is "grounded in a view of the self and what it does (e.g., make inferences, become involved) as a member of a social and cultural group and as a participant in the social construction of meaning" (p. 101). Schiffrin includes Goffman's contribution to the development of interactional sociolinguistics through his approach to discourse which focuses on providing "an understanding of the forms and meanings of those contexts that allow us to more fully identify and appreciate the contextual presuppositions that figure in hearers' inferences of speakers' meanings" (Schiffrin, 1994, p. 102).

One such "situated meaning" (Goffman, 1967) in face-to-face interaction is the use of politeness strategies. There are positive politeness strategies and negative politeness strategies. Bonvillain (2003) defines positive politeness as "that [which] recognizes the hearer's [listener's] desire to be respected" (p. 410) and negative politeness as "oriented to the hearer's [listener's] desire not to be imposed upon" (p. 409). Citing Brown and Levinson, she writes, "politeness strategies develop to deal with *face-threatening acts*…[t]he more threatening an act is, the more polite and indirect are the means used to accomplish it" (p. 128). Coates (2004), also citing Brown and Levinson, defines politeness in terms of the concept of face:

> Respecting face is defined as showing consideration for people's feelings. We show consideration by respecting two basic needs: (1) the need not to be imposed on (this is called **negative face**); and (2) the need to be liked and admired (this is called **positive face**) (p. 105).

"Face," according to Goffman (1967), is "defined as the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact…an image of self delineated in terms of approved social attributes…" (p. 5).

Such politeness strategies as saving face and indirectness are not new topics of analyses for researchers within our own field (Hoza, 1999; Mindess, 1999; Lawrence, 1998; Feyne, 2002); however, attaching the notion of gender performativity within an interactional sociolinguistic framework expands our understanding of how female and male interpreters may produce voiced interpretations, and informs Interpreter Educators as to how to incorporate such subconscious strategies into our classroom methodologies. Jack Hoza (1999) uses Deborah Schiffrin's explanation of interactional sociolinguistics above as a foundation to set up his premise of politeness and face-saving strategies utilized by interpreters while interpreting in face-to-face situations. Using an "interactional sociolinguistic framework," Hoza analyzes "real-life scenarios in which interpreters have…made decisions regarding face" (p. 39). Specifically, he explores "the interpreter's impact on the face needs of the speakers in interpreted interaction" (p. 39) by looking at Goffman's positive and negative face needs (Goffman, 1967) and the positive or negative politeness systems "used by speakers to address, or redress, one's face needs" (Hoza, 1999, p. 54).

Hoza (1999) provides three separate scenarios to illustrate this premise. However, for the purpose of this paper, I will focus on one particular scenario. This scenario deals with a female interpreter using positive politeness strategies that she feels represent the intent of a D/deaf student with her fellow classmates. During a group feedback session for graduate students' educational posters, classmates give feedback and suggestions for change in each other's individual projects. The feedback from hearing participants follows "an explicit rule of politeness: say[ing] something nice first, then provid[ing] criticism couched in this positive comment" (p. 43). However, when it is time for the D/deaf student to give feedback, she states a negative first ("…the color of the poster seems a bit dull. You *should* use a brighter color"[emphasis mine]) and follows it with a positive ("but I agree that the pictures are really clear and the poster focuses on one concept, which is nice for this group of students") (p. 42). The interpreter, upon thinking about the intent of the message, reverses the order and voices: "'I agree that the poster

focuses on only one concept which is nice for this group of students and the pictures are really clear, but *I'm wondering* about the color because it *might* not catch the children's eye. *Perhaps* a brighter color would work better for that'" [emphasis mine] (p. 42).

In analyzing Hoza's scenario, this author noticed politeness strategies utilized by the interpreter that could be strongly argued as specifically influenced by the interpreter's socialized gender identity. Firstly, although this author recognizes that the interpreter in this scenario changed the order of the D/deaf participant's message, rearranging the feedback to follow the "explicit rule of politeness" agreed upon by all of the students in the group, this is not necessarily done so by the interpreter because of her gender, per se. In terms of what is happening with the rearrangement of the above source message, Anna Mindess (1999) reminds us that there are differences in communication styles within different cultures in which interpreters must be fluent. One difference between hearing and Deaf cultures is the use of indirect and direct conversational styles, respectively. Mindess (1999) writes, "American Deaf culture…tends to employ a direct mode of expression." Citing Harlan Lane in her work, she writes:

> 'Hinting and vague talk in an effort to be polite are inappropriate and often offensive' (Lane, 1992, p. 16)….Deaf people have no patience for ambiguity…straight talk is an expression of intimacy and solidarity between the Deaf (p. 151).

This author asserts that the fact that this particular interpreter in Hoza's study chose to use intercultural communication considerations while interpreting indicates a cultural awareness between the two groups, as well as illustrating the intent of the D/deaf student in alignment with her hearing peers. If directness in Deaf interaction is a sign of intimacy and connectedness, and not an intention to offend, then rearranging the source utterance to match those of the hearing students is a correct cultural adjustment, regardless of the gender of the interpreter.

With that stated, the part that I want to analyze in terms of gender influence is when the interpreter chooses vocabulary that *softens* the feedback more than that originally expressed by the D/deaf student. While Hoza argues that the interpreter uses face saving and positive politeness strategies by considering how the mainstream hearing (American) society gives feedback, therefore, working toward interactional equivalence

in her interpretation, I would agree. However, I would also like to expand this notion to include the consideration that a gendered construction of discourse may have had even more of an influence as to why this female interpreter chose the wording that she did. For instance, the specific wording, italicized above (*I'm wondering*; *might*; *perhaps*) softens the more direct approach taken by the D/deaf student (*should*). This indirect politeness strategy is called *hedging* and is used to weaken or reduce the force of the utterance" (Holmes, 1995, p. 72). It is viewed as a strategy to "avoid seeming too masculine by being assertive and saying things directly" (Talbot; 1998, p. 39), with phrases such as *you know, kind of, sort of,* and *I think.* Holmes cites Robin Lakoff as labeling this politeness strategy as "characteristic of 'women's language'…express[ing] a lack of confidence and reflect[ing] women's social insecurity…" (p. 73). Wodak (1997) also writes that hedging is a linguistic strategy used by women to "allow us to pay attention to the face needs of all participants" (p. 250). Scholars have also shown that men and women in "subordinate roles" or in positions of powerlessness will also use hedging within discourse (Conrick, 1999; Bonvillain, 2000; Ayim, 1996; Holmes, 1995). (See further detail on *hedging* below). Hence, in analyzing the interpreter's word choice from the sentences in Hoza's scenario above, it seems likely, from a social constructionist's approach to gender and discourse, that her position as a female working in her role influenced her decision to utter her interpretation in the way that she did: to align herself, and her Deaf consumer in a positive light, consistent with the intent of the message and the interactional setting.

Hoza's research is an excellent example for discussion of gendered discourse strategies applied to the ASL-to-English interpreting process. Had the interpreter been a male, would he have chosen a more direct approach to his reformulated target language utterance in terms of order of the message or vocabulary? Research on this subject strongly suggests that a male interpreter would. To add to the equation, how would a male or female interpreter of color voice this text differently from each other and from their white counterparts? The implications of this information for interpreter preparation programs are significant, as the incorporation of such subconscious interactional discourse styles into curriculum for Sign-to-Voice practice can lead interpreting students to a more progressive and informed interpreting approach to the ASL-to-English interpreting task.

Hedges/Fillers

As previously stated, *hedges*, or *fillers*, are positive politeness devices attributed to women's discourse styles or people (men *or* women) in positions of low status documented in a large majority of texts dedicated to gender and discourse. Some commonly used phrases for this category are *you know*, *I think*, *sort of*, *I mean*, *perhaps*, and *maybe*. Examples of fillers can be the aforementioned, as well as utterances such as *um*, *er*, and *uh*. Coates (2004) describes hedges as "linguistic forms…which express the speaker's certainty or uncertainty about the proposition under discussion (p. 88). Bonvillain (2003) calls hedging strategies "the 'female register'" because this type of stylistic discourse "embodies the female role in our society" (p. 195), even though she admits that this politeness strategy can be used by either men or women. Tannen argues that hedging strategies are ways to avoid appearing too direct or assertive with another and to form connections within a conversation (p. 77). Wodak (1997) states the many functions of hedges and fillers in conversations:

> They can express shades of doubt and confidence; they allow us to be sensitive to others' feelings; they help us in the search for the right words to express what we mean; they help us to avoid playing the expert (p. 249).

If users of hedges and fillers do typically convey uncertainty in their message utterances, how might these utterances influence audience perspectives on speaker credibility for Deaf presenters? While interpreting, the internal process of reformulating the source message into the target message is an active, although, invisible, process; one that Carol Patrie (2001) refers to as "transfer." While searching for the appropriate word or phrase to produce, interpreters may inadvertently "think out loud," filling the silence from source language (SL) to target language (TL) with such fillers, as a way of reminding the audience that they are still on task and working. Since the audience trusts that the interpretation produced by the interpreter is what the speaker is meaning to say, these filler words may be assumed by the audience to be a reflection of the speaker's original message and discourse style, and not that of the interpreter and her/his processing.

Stephanie Feyne's article in RID's monthly newsletter, VIEWS (2002), addresses this very question. In particular, she looks at the hedging strategy, "*you know.*" She records the use of this strategy among male *and* female interpreters when presented in situations of lower status, such as in the courtroom. Further, she states that she has noticed "many of these powerless features cropping up in ASL-English interpretation—especially when the content is difficult to interpret" (p. 24). Concerning the social judgments made by audience listeners toward the spoken constructed target language utterance of the interpreters, Feyne writes

> Hearing interlocutors had no way of knowing that the 'you knows' were a product of the interpreter and not the Deaf individual...hearing consumers usually cannot discern that it is we [interpreters] who have made simple utterances or repairs and ascribe the unsophisticated communication style to the Deaf individual rather than to the interpreter (pp. 24-25).

Indeed, as I have stated above, interpreters may unintentionally influence audience perspective of a Deaf speaker based on the subconscious use of socially constructed discourse features employed while interpreting. This subconscious feature needs to be addressed in interpreter preparation programs while interpreting students are developing their skills in the task of transferring SL to TL to catch this before it becomes "normalized" or habituated in their cognitive processes, when it would then be harder to change.

High-Rising Terminals

Holmes (1995) refers to the intonational pattern of speech where the pitch rises at the end of a declarative as a "prosodic hedge" (p. 102). The prosodic hedge is described linguistically as a "high-rising terminal" (HRT), there is a "rising inflection typical of a yes-no question, as well as being especially hesitant" (p. 102). Holmes asserts that the function of such declaratives is to "invite the addressee to acknowledge the speaker's talk and indicate that they are following and understanding the speaker (p. 102-103). It is also viewed, Holmes (1995) states, as an "uncertainty signal" (p. 101), which would mean that it functions as a positive politeness strategy. Prosodic hedges are most often seen in women's talk, as well as in "lower working-class speech and in the speech of younger

people" (p. 104). Coates (2004) supports the function of HRT as a "signal that the speaker wants to continue talking and [to] simultaneously check that the addressee is 'in tune with' the speaker" (p. 184). She also confirms through her research of New Zealand speakers that the stereotype of HRTs being used predominantly by women as "pretty accurate," with "female speakers us[ing] HRTs three times more than male speakers" (p. 185).

Following along with Coates' description of HRTs, I am more cognizant of this while interpreters are working in the ASL-to-English interpreting task. Often I notice interpreters producing HRTs at the end of their TL declarative utterances and have often wondered why interpreters, when voicing, may tend to use HRTs. Could it be that interpreters may be subconsciously signaling to the audience that they still have the floor, or are not finished with what they are trying to say in the interpreting process? Is it a subtle form of the interpreter seeking out that the listener(s) is/are still "in tune with" the message? Or could it be more technical than that, and have to do with the interpreter's internal sense of uncertainty as to the accuracy of what they have produced in terms of SL message meaning and intent of the SL speaker? Regardless of the internal thought process, whether conscious or subconscious, the end result, this author believes, is the same: an utterance that produces a declarative with a high rising pitch at the end similar to a yes/no question that may leave an audience or listener(s) with a sense that the original sender of the message is uncertain or lacking confidence in their presentation.

I have incorporated this particular feature of gendered language discourse throughout the years within my own classroom instruction. Several generations of my own IPP students can quote the mantra, "Are you asking or telling?" that they have been asked by me after a voiced utterance of a signed message. Often within the learning process of interpreting students, their utterances produced within consecutive interpreting exercises take on the form of yes/no questions, even when the SL message was presented in declaratives. I introduce the notion that their individual identities of gender, class, and race may also influence their use of HRTs for interpreted utterances. As a regular classroom exercise, students analyze their voiced interpretations for gendered features through group discussions. Within workshop and classroom instructional contexts, Feyne (2002) also addresses prosodic features, specifically register and intonation, "all of which

carry metanotative information" (p. 24). She argues that "casual register…hedges and rising inflections [HRT]" are "expected from speakers who are less experienced or of lower status" (p. 24). This "metanotative information" is what we need to bring to the forefront of the minds of our interpreting students. These specific gendered discursive acts carry social values with them that need to be addressed in terms of speaker intent. Deaf speakers must rely on interpreters' communicative competence when reformulating their message into English (or any other spoken language).

Taboo Words

Coates (2004) defines *taboo words* as "anything which could come under the general heading 'vulgar language'" (13). This covers swearing, sexually explicit language, and vernacular terms (as viewed by white, middle-class groups toward working class individuals or people of color who use vernacular as a form of class/race identity). Furthermore, she writes that "taboo language has a symbolic association with masculinity, not femininity" (p. 98), with a social stigma also against men using obscene language in the presence of women (p. 13). Bonvillain (2003) asserts that, "given class and context, men use curse words with greater frequency and greater profane force than do women" (p. 194). Additionally, in Cameron's edited text, Kaplan (1998) writes that "[i]n many cultures, there is a strong…sanction against female obscenity" (p. 62).

As Frishberg (1986) and Stewart et al. (1998) initially report in their texts on the history of the ASL/English interpreting profession, family, friends, educators, and clergy were among the first interpreters for Deaf and hearing individuals wanting to communicate with each other. The concept of interpreting as a form of "service" or "helping" D/deaf people is still heard to this day (by this author) from a significant number of interpreting students as to their reasons for joining this field. It is not surprising, then, that as an interpreter educator, I encounter conflicts with students on the subject of avoiding swear words and sexually-related contexts (e.g., biology vocabulary) presented to them during practice sessions in class. Some students (and professionals working in the field) have religious convictions that do not allow them to utter swear words or vulgar speech. Aside from the fact that this avoidance to utter taboo words expressed in the SL message potentially violates one of the tenets of the Professional

Code of Conduct for ASL/English interpreters, the omission of deliberate forms of expression may also greatly affect the credibility and intent of the Deaf speaker's SL message. "Softening" the vocabulary choice, or completely deleting the expletive altogether, may affect the emphasis intended by the original speaker, as well as alter the intended result altogether.

This issue begs the question of gender and taboo words in public settings or in mixed company. Does gender of the SL speaker vs. the interpreter (i.e., male speaker/female interpreter; female speaker/male interpreter; same sex of speaker to interpreter) affect the decision to omit or to use profanity or sex-context language? In public settings where taboo language that is viewed as "inappropriate" for women to utter, how might the interpreter inadvertently distort the intent of a message by a D/deaf speaker by omitting the swear words or changing them to less offensive terms (e.g., *shit* to *shoot*; *damn* to *darn*)? Do male interpreters feel just as uncomfortable using taboo language in an audience of mixed sexes?

Relevant to this topic is research conducted by a linguist and certified interpreter named Brenda Nicodemus. Described in a profile by Stewart et al. (1998), the authors describe her research on gender variation in interpretation. Nicodemus conducted a pilot study where five male and five female professional interpreters viewed a Deaf man in five different role-playing vignettes. The scenarios were confrontational in nature, from teasing to more serious in context. The results, she reports, were "startling," with the male and female interpreters using "linguistic forms characteristic of their gender" (p. 95).[6]

Focusing on gendered discourse while interpreting, Nicodemus found that the female interpreters of her study tended to use hedges to soften an insult and "euphemistic terms and other less graphic descriptions" when interpreting for a dirty joke. Comparatively speaking, the male interpreters of the study "used slang and other vulgar terms in their interpretation" for the same passages (p. 95). Furthermore, she found that the females used "politeness strategies to soften face-threatening messages," and included

[6] This is not to promote an essentialistic frame toward women's and men's ways of speaking as "natural;" rather, this is to illustrate how women and men are taught to perform gendered discourse so that it appears second nature, even to the users. This author does not promote an essentialist viewpoint of gendered speech acts.

"face-Communication," while the male interpreters "tended to be more direct and use less mitigating strategies" (p. 95). The results of this pilot study illustrate the existence of gendered language patterns and are exciting for the further research of gendered language within the interpreting process. Incorporating such concepts and exercises into interpreter preparation programs will bring a cognitive understanding for interpreting students that can only better serve their consumers.

Implications for Interpreter Preparation Programs

Incorporating an interactional sociolinguistic framework into interpreter preparation program curricula, and specifically introducing a social constructionist approach to gender and discourse into classroom exercises will inform a newer generation of interpreting students as to a more linguistically appropriate and accurate means of interpreting between multi-cultured and multi-gendered interlocutors, in terms of speaker intent, based on recognition of individual participants' social identities. Furthermore, on the topic of diversity within our profession, Alice Harrigan (1997) writes, "the 'average' interpreter [is] white, female, and occasionally gay (male or female)" and advocates for the need "to diversify the profession [of ASL/English interpreters]" (p. 104). She states further:

> Recognizing that privilege and oppression are factors that influence a communication event, it becomes possible to analyze situations in terms of how interpreters use their power as members of the majority [hearing] culture (p. 106).

Since ASL/English interpreters are predominantly white and female, how might (albeit internalized or subconscious) hegemonic ideologies of racism, sexism, classism, and homophobia impact the interpreted target language utterance? Equally as important, how might audience members negatively view the target language message based on their own hegemonic and audist assumptions about D/deaf people, women in society, or more specifically, interpreters of color? Bringing to the forefront of the interpreting process through instructional methods within interpreter preparation programs, these socially constructed perceptions that each of us brings to the interpreting task will help to foster

more sensitive interpreters in terms of working within a diverse population, in general, and one more aware of gender issues, specifically, within interpreting regarding issues of power and dominance in the intersectionalities of race/ethnicity, class, and sexuality, and, hopefully, will lead toward a more level playing field in terms of equality between D/deaf and hearing people, and toward a truer representation of the intent of the source message meaning.

Conclusion

This paper has addressed specific interactional discourse features from a social constructionist framework of gender and language. Incorporating a post-structuralist sociolinguistic approach in terms of gender and the intersectionalities of race/ethnicity, class, and sexuality into our interpreter preparation programs will bring a broader awareness of the subconscious speech acts, intonational patterns, and decision-making strategies interpreters use when working from an ASL-to-English context. Addressing the various previously-constructed social values students bring to the classroom that are attached to their diverse identities and backgrounds, through a pedagogical framework within the ASL/English interpreting classroom, will help to prepare a newer generation of interpreting students to be more cognizant of their discourse styles and of those around them and in the social interpreting setting.

Limitations of this paper

Given the parameters of this paper's length, there is not enough room to include many other features that this author feels influences the decision-making process of interpreters based on the social construction of gender and discourse, such as turn-taking strategies, interruptions, and apologies, and use of vernacular, to name a few. The intersectionalities of gender with race, class, and sexuality also need space of their own to focus on the specific roles they play for interpreters while interpreting. Also, the Western notion *gender as binary* (either male or female, only) ignores the continuum of gender acknowledged within sociology that includes not only male and female, but also intersexed individuals and those who are boy/girl identified, regardless of their biological

selves. Certainly, further writing on the specific subject of discourse and these above intersectionalities as they play out in the interpreting process is the intent of this author.

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Marketing Concepts for ASL-English Interpreting Programs

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Abstract

This paper looks at current efforts of the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers to develop an integrated marketing communication strategy to address the national shortage of interpreters.

No one can argue convincingly that the supply of interpreters is adequate to meet the demand. Yet our field has never embarked on a concerted, organized national marketing strategy to draw people into interpreting as a career. Most programs simply rely on word of mouth; inquiries are answered and program informational brochures go out on request. Few programs have a serious recruitment plan aimed at attracting, identifying, realizing, and tracking student enrollments. In more than two decades of Department of Education funding for interpreter education -- with the expressed goal of addressing the shortage of interpreters -- only one effort has been made. The National Multicultural Interpreter Project (NMIP) set out to recruit people of color into interpreting, creating a brochure and recruitment video. Sadly, the Project came to a close before the materials could be widely distributed. Now, with the leadership of the new National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers (NCIEC), the field is in a position to draw

upon the work of the NMIP, to build and renew partnerships, and to mount a national marketing strategy to draw more people into interpreting as a career.

Like most other projects undertaken by the NCIEC, addressing the interpreter shortage will require collaboration. Our efforts began in March 2006 with a meeting of the directors of thirteen interpreter education programs in the Northeastern University Regional Interpreter Education Center states. The purpose of the meeting was to develop a framework for an integrated marketing communication strategy for the interpreting field. Participants were invited to take the material back to their institutions and, working with their admissions offices, develop and launch their own recruitment effort. The resulting concepts were presented to the NCIEC as the foundation for a national campaign. Similarly, you are invited to take the concepts in this paper to your own institution and integrate it with your program's own unique brand. It is our hope and intention for you to be an active participant in this national enterprise. We will need to work together aggressively to increase the size and diversity of the interpreting workforce.

Examples for Study

As we look to expand and diversify the workforce in our field, it is useful to learn from the experiences and expertise of sister fields. Nursing provides one such example and their history can benefit our efforts. In the six-year period from 1995-2000, baccalaureate degree programs in nursing experienced an annual decline in enrollment (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 2006). Nursing schools were failing to meet current and projected demand for Registered Nurses (RNs). Moreover, nursing school student bodies were overwhelmingly white (73%) and female (91%) (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 2001). Not surprisingly, the RN workforce was similarly lacking in diversity. Among the cited reasons why men and members of minority groups were not attracted to nursing were role stereotypes, economic barriers, few mentors, gender biases, misunderstanding about nursing, and increased opportunities in other fields (American Association of Colleges of Nursing, 2001). Many of these are echoed in our field.

By 2001, schools of nursing and associated organizations had embarked on a national campaign, combining traditional marketing methods, targeted outreach campaigns, and strategic planning. The main challenge, not unlike our own, was to increase the number of men and minorities entering nursing programs by shifting common beliefs about the nursing profession

and replacing familiar images of the nurse. The marketing efforts included upfront focus group research with target audiences (e.g., working male nurses); creating and updating marketing materials and websites with revised visual cues and language (e.g., removing flowery, feminine language); distribution of marketing materials at high school and college fairs; and media coverage of the need for a diverse nursing workforce. The field developed incentive programs and improved financial aid options, wrote legislation, reached out to young people to stimulate interest in nursing, and gained corporate sponsorship to develop and televise public service announcements and disseminate free posters and brochures. (See www.discovernursing.com.)

The Oregon Center for Nursing created two posters intended to attract men and minority group members into nursing. Figure 1 depicts a "macho nurse" image, a concept that came out of focus groups conducted with male nurses. The image in Figure 2 evokes a sense of inclusiveness of diversity in the nursing profession; members of racial and ethnic minorities can see themselves in the faces of this diverse group. (For more information, see www.oregoncenterfornursing.org.)

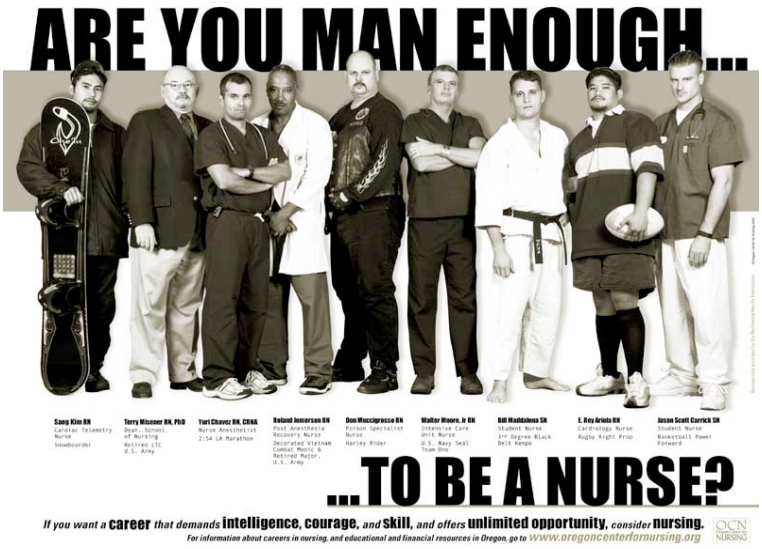

Figure 1: Ad targets prospective male students.

Note. From the Oregon Center for Nursing. Copyright 2002.

Figure 2: Ad shows diversity in the nursing field.

Note. From the Oregon Center for Nursing. Copyright 2002.

The nursing campaign has been wildly successful – so much so, that applicants have had to be turned away from programs. In a press release dated December 12, 2005, the AACN reported five consecutive years of enrollment increases of 13, 14.1, 16.6, 8.1, and 3.7 percent in 2005, 2004, 2003, 2002, and 2001, respectively. For a graphic depiction of enrollment changes in baccalaureate nursing programs from 1994-2005, please refer to the AACN website: http://www.aacn.nche.edu/Media/ppt/94-05EnrChgs.ppt.

Building Marketing Concepts: Challenges in Interpreting Education

The March 2006 program directors discussion mentioned above revealed several challenges facing interpreting education today. First, interpreting education has not been producing enough graduates to meet the demand for interpreters across the nation. The extent of the supply and demand problem is currently being investigated through the NCIEC national needs assessment process and a related RID-funded study being conducted by California State University at Northridge. Yet, even in the absence of verifying data, the shortage is palpable, experienced daily by the Deaf community, service providers, and interpreter referral services.

We suspect that the interpreting field suffers from a number of misconceptions about the work and the milieu. For example, it is not commonly known that interpreting is, itself, an

activity of high intellectual demand. People who thrive on intellectually stimulating work are likely looking elsewhere for career opportunities. Interpreting is seen as serving the needs of Deaf people only. Many people are not aware that interpreting work brings practitioners into contact with a wide variety of professionals and others who are in need of interpreting services too. It is also not widely known that interpreters earn money for their work; it is still believed that interpreting is performed by family members, friends, and clergy who are there to help. In short, interpreting is not widely viewed as a profession. It lacks prestige, glamour, and intellectual appeal.

A national marketing campaign for the interpreting profession must achieve an increase in enrollment of high-caliber students; an increase in gender, race, and ethnic diversity in interpreting student bodies; a shift in attitudes about interpreting as a profession; an increase in understanding and awareness of the profession; a fresh, new image; and ultimately an increase in the number of successful graduates.

Take-home Messages

It will be important to communicate positive images of interpreting to contradict and dispel common misconceptions while appealing to both the rational and emotional considerations of career seekers. The following are simple affirmative statements that could be used as central themes for a media campaign:

- ASL-English interpreting is demanding and challenging and meaningful!
- ASL-English interpreting is a profession!
- ASL-English interpreting presents a world of opportunity!
- ASL-English interpreting serves multiple participants. Be all they need you to be!
- Everyday is a New Adventure!
- Interpreting is a World of Opportunity
- I can go anywhere…
- I am a highly educated professional.
- I live my life on my own terms.
- I can make a difference.

The Media Campaign

Using the resources of the NCIEC, we plan to launch a national media campaign. The campaign will utilize a variety of media to advance our messages about the interpreting field. A program-neutral website, brochures, and posters are currently under development. The website will carry video testimonials by interpreters about their work, and by Deaf and hearing consumers describing how interpreters make a difference. Interpreters will be shown working in a variety of interesting settings. A searchable database will allow prospective students to identify programs that fit their needs in terms of location, size, and degrees granted and to link directly to various interpreting education program websites. Under consideration are a series of simple interactive "tests" of one's ASL level, critical thinking skills, and aptitude for interpreting. Brochures and posters produced in English and Spanish will be strategically disseminated to associations of career counselors, high school guidance counselors, adult education programs, community based organizations and churches, and AA degree programs in ASL. Radio and cable television public service announcements will be used to increase visibility of interpreting, address current misconceptions, and depict interpreting as an exciting and rewarding career.

Public Relations Outreach

As the media campaign targets specific organizations, schools, and programs, a public relations campaign will also enhance visibility and awareness of interpreting in the minds of the general public. We plan to develop media kits for programs that will contain generic material that can be used by individual programs. In addition, interpreting programs can issue press releases to local newspapers and community organizational newsletters touting, for example, new hires, graduation statistics, and student participation in service learning in the community, and collaborate with local organizations to develop human interest stories that reflect the messages of the national campaign. For example, Deaf Services Unlimited (2005) issued a press release about an interpreter who had been present at more than 350 births. Each story we can share is an opportunity to provide facts about the interpreting field, about how to become an interpreter, and, most importantly, about where to find an interpreting education program.

Impact Assessment

A longitudinal assessment will measure the success of our national marketing campaign, tracking geographic impact and national trends. Working with academic degree-awarding programs, five basic strategies are recommended:

- Track and report student inquiries (e.g., admissions office receives 200 inquiries per year yielding sixty actual enrollments; student found out about the program through a guidance counselor). Current data will be collected immediately, with annual follow-up to monitor impact assessment.
- Track enrollment. Use current enrollment this year followed by annual data collection following the start of the national marketing campaign. Baseline data is being gathered currently by the NCIEC through the national needs assessment process. The NCIEC database should be updated on a periodic basis.
- Track graduation rates with comparative program attrition rates.
- Track mean time to achievement of credentials (i.e., How long does it take the average student to gain state-level credentials? National credentials?)
- Track demographic information identifiable at each of the above milestones:
  - Student population (ethnicity; gender; part-time/full-time)
  - Faculty (ethnicity; gender; adjunct; tenured, etc.)
  - Program (part-time/full-time; degree offered; etc.)

At the time of this writing, the NCIEC is in the process of developing a national database of interpreting education programs. A questionnaire was field tested by programs in the Northeastern University Regional Interpreter Education Center region and revised for national dissemination. It was disseminated in paper form to all interpreting education programs in late spring 2006 and in fall 2006 it will be available online. As long as a critical mass of interpreting education programs has responded, it is expected that the database will be operational by late fall 2006. The success of the impact assessment will depend on broad-based acceptance of this plan by interpreting education programs and on their commitment to comply with the regular data collection procedure.

Building Partnerships

This paper provides a framework for an integrated marketing communication strategy for the interpreting profession. It can only be most successful with the collaboration of interpreting education programs nationwide. Among the ways that programs can support these efforts are to:

- participate in needs assessments and other data collection activities of the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers.
- use the ideas in this paper to launch your own program marketing campaign. Track inquiries and yield.
- enlist their institution's marketing or public relations department, asking for collaboration on the design of marketing strategies that echo the message of the national campaign and also reflect the special characteristics of your program.
- conduct focus groups of current students to find out why they came to study interpreting. Capture their reasons in PR material for your program.
- conduct focus groups of your program graduates, track their paths to employment and credentials; issue press releases to local newspapers about their achievements.

Only through assertive and consistent marketing on a national level will we be able to increase applications and enrollments sufficiently to address the growing demand for interpreters. We look forward to the discussion to be held at the CIT conference and to sharing ideas and possibilities with interpreting education program administrators and faculty as we launch this national campaign to expand, enhance, and diversify our workforce. Please contact us at www.asl.neu.edu/nciec for more information. Perhaps one day we, like nursing, will have too many qualified applicants for the available seats in our programs.

About the Author

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From Best Practice to Best Practice Process: Shifting Ethical Thinking and Teaching

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Abstract

There has been a phenomenological shift in the ethical thinking of interpreting professionals from a deontological, or rule-based approach to a more teleological, or goal-based approach. Given this apparent shift, there is a need for standardization among interpreting teachers and mentors in imparting teleological decision-making skills to students. However, most interpreting professionals and educators learned to make ethical decisions based on the deontological principles outlined in the RID Code of Ethics. Later, most settled into making ethical decisions more intuitively, based on their on-the-job experience. While this approach might be sound, it makes the transfer of critical reasoning skills to students idiosyncratic and less effective. The authors' demand-control schema work teaches interpreters and interpreter educators to frame critical reasoning skills in the context of a structured decision-making process that yields a "best practice process" rather than a context that mandates best practices per se.

Introduction

Since the publication of our first article outlining the basics of what would eventually become the demand-control schema (DC-S) for interpreting work (Dean and Pollard, 2001), I (Dean) have presented over seventy DC-S trainings and workshops in 25 states, reaching approximately 2500 working interpreters, interpreting students, and interpreter preparation program (IPP) faculty. I often begin these workshops with an icebreaker that lays the groundwork for a very different type of ethical dialogue that challenges the helpfulness of the "best practices" concept frequently discussed in our field. Following a description of this icebreaker activity, the ethical challenge we will return to is this: "How can one determine what is the best practice, or what is the right/best answer, before first establishing what the question is?"

Breaking the Ice

I adapted this icebreaker from those used in other workshops where participants are required to move around the room in silence, gathering signatures on a document that lists a variety of possible life events (e.g., "once I rode in a hot air balloon"). Each participant's task is to obtain a fellow participant's signature next to an event that the participant has actually experienced. The "winner" is the first one to fill the entire list with signatures or to reach a pre-determined number of signatures. Each participant is only allowed to sign one line on a given sheet of paper, although they are free to change the line they are signing each time they are approached. I modify this ice breaker by listing 20 items that pertain to interpreting practice. Approximately half of these items are rather ordinary events (e.g., interpreted for a celebrity or had to turn down a job for personal reasons). The remaining half of the items are about more challenging decision-making issues that might arise while interpreting (e.g., held the hand of someone in pain, reported students for cheating on a test, made up information that could not be heard). Whenever I do this exercise, the outcome is both consistent and poignant.

Generally, participants provide signatures for both the ordinary and the challenging decision-making items without much thought – likely because they do not know what is about to happen next. I ask the "winner" of the icebreaker to tell the group who signed up for the first item. Then, I ask that individual to introduce him/herself and briefly share the story about the item they signed. When the participants realize that each of them will be expected to share the

story about the item they signed on the winner's paper, there is usually a collective gasp as they struggle to remember whether they signed an ordinary item or an item which will require them to "explain themselves" in front of their peers.

Those who signed up for the ordinary items readily introduce themselves and share the requested story (e.g., "I interpreted for the President when he came to my home state"). Their stories are usually brief and we then move on to the next item and the next person. However, those participants who signed their names next to the examples involving judgment or decision-making, often jump to a defense of why they made that decision or a detailed description of what was going on that led them to that decision. Many qualify their story by saying, "I know this is wrong but…" or "I would not do this again but…" as they explain why they did what they did. Some even suggest that they misread the item and that they did not do such a thing!

When the icebreaker activity is completed and everyone has been introduced, I ask participants to look over the list of 20 items and to think of two different categories into which the items might logically fall. Their answers are usually in the vein of: "professional versus unprofessional," "right versus wrong," "worker versus human," etc. After we discuss these views, I inform them of the two categories I had in mind when designing this exercise: "what is safe to admit at an interpreting workshop and what is not safe." There is collective agreement.

Ethics as Taking Responsibility

In his book, *The Responsible Self*, H. Richard Niebuhr (1963), a well-known ethicist in the field of theology, defines ethics in terms of *being responsible*. The word *responsibility* is a derivative of the verb "to respond." Logically then, in order for one to "be responsible," one must first be in a position to respond to something. For Niebuhr, an ethical response cannot be determined absent of knowledge regarding what it is that one is attempting to respond to, that is, what the situation or question is that has predicated the opportunity for a response. Aristotle similarly emphasizes this need to understand the stimulus situation in his equating of ethics with "a fitting response." In this context, before the interpreting field can provide an answer to what constitutes a best practice – including what is ethical – we must first ask, "What is the question?"

At first blush, one might suggest that the question posed to interpreters is predicated by the event of two or more people who do not speak the same language coming together in an attempt to communicate. That is, the act of interpreting is a response to the "questions" manifest

in the interlocutors' utterances. It is this "question – response" interplay (Q: "What was said/signed?" A: "Then this is what I said/signed/did in response") that determines what is ethical or unethical or, at least, more versus less effective. Indeed, in IPPs, analysis of this type of question – answer interplay is how one's interpreting skills are typically assessed. However, it is also well known in the interpreting field (not only in relation to signed and spoken languages but also in the field of biblical translation) that it is the *context* of the communication event that first must be established before one can determine the effectiveness of the translation work and/or behavioral decisions the interpreter makes (Cokely, 1992, Gish, 1987, Humphrey and Alcorn, 1995, Metzger and Bahan, 2001, Namy, 1977, Roy, 2000, Wadensjo, 1998, Winston, 1989). Therefore, in our demand-control schema work, we do not talk about how an interpreter should respond (the interpreter's control options) before knowing what is being asked of the interpreter by the context of the communication situation (the job's demands).

This idea, determining how to respond only after due consideration of the context, can challenge even the most commonly accepted "best practices" that the interpreting field has recommended since the original Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) code of ethics was published (Quigley, 1965). For example, interpreters have been admonished to "match the spirit of the speaker." However, one could readily construe a constellation of job demands that would make "matching the spirit of the speaker" not only undesirable, but potentially unethical. Consider the context (determined in our DC-S work by analyzing the environmental, interpersonal, paralinguistic, and intrapersonal, or EIPI demands) of interpreting in a group psychotherapy session, where group cohesion and emotional safety are significant aspects of the goal of the environment. Imagine that one of the hearing group members begins to divulge painful information and is talking through her sobs. Would "matching the spirit of the speaker" be effective in this situation? Should the interpreter "copy" the intensity of the speaker's emotions or might that appear as if the interpreter were mocking the speaker? Given the goal of this environment, adhering to this particular best practice principle would likely be inappropriate.

Another example of a long-standing "best practice" exhortation in our field is that communication information that is "missed" by the interpreter should be pursued and recovered so that the deaf consumer has equal access to all that was said. However, if in the same group therapy situation described above, the crying participant's story was not fully understood by the interpreter, would asking this person to repeat or speak up, or offering visual cues that the

interpreter is struggling to hear (leaning in, cupping one's ear, etc.), or peering at the person in an attempt to speech read, be effective and ethical decisions? Again, given the goal of this environment, likely not. And yet, if one element of this situation were altered – the same group, same participant talking but, this time, the conversation is emotionally neutral, then the above control options for recovering missed information would be fitting, as would matching the spirit of the speaker. Context is everything and, further, is too unpredictable to yield the drafting of de-contextualized "best practice" recommendations, in our opinion.

After being employed for a period of time, many interpreters come to the conclusion that the tenets of the 1979 Code of Ethics (Cokely, 2000) and more recent best practice recommendations are best construed as guidelines and not as strict behavioral mandates. Cokely (2000) even calls such rigid, rule-based perspectives on any code or established precepts "the very antithesis of ethics" (page 28). In teaching interpreters about ethical and effective decision-making via the demand-control schema, we agree that ethics should not be thought of as a "code" but, rather, as a *process* – a process that Niebuhr (1963) states also requires "staying with one's action." That is, in addition to determining "the question" (understanding contextually what is going on) and subsequently determining a fitting response, Niebuhr (1963) further emphasizes that "responsibility lies in the agent who stays with his action, who accepts the consequences in the form of reactions and looks forward in a present deed to continued interaction" (page 64). Similarly, in our DC-S pedagogy, we teach interpreters not to think in terms of employing a given best practice but, instead, employing a "best practice process." That is, a process by which ethical and effective practice decisions are made within an EIPI contextual framework that does not have its end point when a "fitting response" has been chosen and executed. The best practice process we teach continues even after a given decision has been made and employed.

Deontological versus Teleological Ethics

Before we describe our DC-S best practice process, we must first describe two very different approaches to making or justifying ethical decisions – the *deontological* approach versus the *teleological* approach. A deontological approach to ethics focuses on adherence to rules. A teleological approach to ethics focuses not on rules, but on outcomes. One who makes or justifies ethical decisions deontologically does so through "binding" her/himself to a rule or a

principle (δεο, from the Greek meaning *to bind*). One who makes or justifies ethical decisions teleologically does so through evaluating the likely consequences of their decisions and the impact of those consequences on the end goal (τελοσ, from the Greek meaning *the end*).

The RID Code of Ethics of 1979 is deontological in nature (Cokely, 2000). That is, it consists of a list of rules that interpreters are expected to follow. Taken together, the eight tenets of the 1979 Code convey an ethos that the interpreter, optimally, should be "invisible" to the consumers. If an interpreter were facing an ethical decision that the eight tenets did not directly address, it was generally understood that she should fall back on the ethos behind the tenets, that is, make the choice that maximizes interpreter invisibility or otherwise parallels what would occur if the interpreter was not there. In this manner, an interpreter could justify her actions, or more often her *lack of an action*, deontologically, relying on the ethos that the interpreter is, ideally, not there. This "interpreter as invisible" ethical approach, at times, may lead to ethical and effective decisions, but we would argue that responding in this rule-based manner fails to encourage interpreters to take into consideration critical contextual elements prior to making a decision to act in some way or to refrain from acting in some way. In other words, deontological reasoning creates a mandate to act (or not act) prior to answering the question "What is going on?" Niebuhr (1965) and Mandelbaum (1955) would argue that rule-based decision-making, disconnected from an analysis of the specific situation at hand is, ipso facto, unethical.

Teleological ethical reasoning is instead focused on the consequences of one's decisions, as these consequences contribute to, or detract from, a *conscious* end goal. The consequences to be considered are those that may result from the interaction between the context of the situation (in our DC-S work, the EIPI demands) and the individual's proposed response (in our work, the interpreter's controls), including when the proposed response is "to not respond." It is not enough to choose a control option simply because it appears to respond to the demands presented by the situation. Control options also must be evaluated in light of the consequences, both positive and negative, that may result from that particular demand-control interaction. What distinguishes this ethical approach from deontological or best practice approaches in the field of interpreting is that it more overtly acknowledges that the constellation of demands present in a given interpreting assignment – most importantly the demand we call "the goal of the environment" – will continually change from one assignment to the next. An ethical and effective control option that is fitting in one assignment may potentially be ineffective, even

unethical, in the next assignment – even if only one EIPI element has changed. Teleological ethical perspectives are arguably the norm, rather than the exception, in other practice professions such as medicine and law enforcement (Dean and Pollard, 2004a, 2005).

D-C-C-RD Sequence

Our phrase, "the demand-control-consequence-resulting demand sequence" (D-C-C-RD) is what we have previously referred to as DC-S "dialogic work analysis" (Dean et al., 2004b). In the demand-control schema, *demands* pertain exclusively to the interpreting job while *controls* pertain exclusively to the interpreter. (Controls include not only the interpreters' translation and behavioral decisions but even their personal characteristics such as age, gender, appearance, background, etc.) If you have Job A and bring in interpreter A, this will yield a particular set of demand-control interactions with its unique set of consequences. Job A with Interpreter B will yield a different set of demand-control consequences, as would Job B with Interpreter A.

For illustrative purposes, imagine that Job A is a case management appointment at a senior center and Interpreter A is a highly linguistically skilled, young male interpreter. Now imagine the same Job A, but, instead, with Interpreter B. Interpreter B is a middle-aged female with adequate, but less well-developed linguistic skills. The interaction of Job A with Interpreter A versus Interpreter B will bring about different demand-control consequences. Both interpreters might be fitting for this job; at this point, we are only pointing out that the resulting demand-control interaction is likely to be different. Which interpreter-job pairing is optimal or which of myriad decisions either interpreter might optimally make cannot be determined without a further analysis of the situation's EIPI factors. However, it should *not* automatically be assumed that the person with the more advanced linguistic ("technical") skills is automatically the better choice. As we have argued (Dean and Pollard, 2004a, 2005), interpreting is not a technical profession; it is a practice profession. If all that mattered were the interpreter's technical skills, then Interpreter A would likely be the preferred candidate for this job, or any other interpreting job, in comparison to Interpreter B. Yet, depending on the particular interplay of demand-control factors, it would be easy to create scenarios where Interpreter B, perhaps as a result of differing practice profession decisions or even characteristics of the interpreter herself, would yield the preferred set of demand-control consequences.

The D-C-C-RD sequence is the specific way we teach our teleological approach to formulating a best practice process. We teach interpreters and interpreting students to first analyze interpreting situations for the EIPI demands that are present. After a thorough consideration of the demands present in each of these four categories, we begin discussions of potential control responses. We take care to "cast a wide net" in the consideration of potential control responses, encouraging the consideration of responses from several points along the "ethical and effective" range of potential responses, that is, from the conservative side of that range to the liberal side of that range. (See Dean and Pollard, 2004a or 2005 for details of this model.)

As each potential control option is considered, we require interpreters to speculate about the positive *and* negative consequences that may result from employing that particular control option (noting always that deciding not to do something is itself a decision that has consequences). We caution that just because a decision may yield a negative consequence, it does not necessarily mean the decision was a poor one. Many optimal decisions will have one or more negative consequences in addition to positive consequences. Minor side effects from an appropriately prescribed medication would be an analogous example. When such side effects are moderate or greater in degree, doctors may prescribe additional medication(s) to ameliorate the side effects rather than discontinue the original medication that is yielding desired positive consequences. In this same way, we discuss the "resulting demands" (i.e., what might result from negative consequences) that are created by some control decisions.

For example, in educational interpreting settings, asking the teacher before class for a copy of her notes always has the negative consequence of "taking the teacher's time."[1] The potential for negative consequences does not mean that the control option of asking for the teacher's notes (in response to the environmental demand of dense or complex instructional content) is a poor choice. Instead, Niebuhr would suggest that the ethical response is to "stand by" the decision by following it through to its next stage. In the D-C-C-RD sequence, this next stage is the "resulting demand" stage. If the interpreter, by acting responsibly with his control decision to ask for preparatory materials, anticipates a negative consequence to this control, which he chose as the best one to respond to the *original* demand, he can use the resulting

[1] Note that control decision consequences do not refer to whether or not a request such as this was responded to favorably by the consumer. In this case, we are not labeling as a positive consequence when the teacher says, "Yes, you can have my notes" and a negative consequence as when her response is, "No, you cannot have my notes."

demand concept to prepare a new control that will respond adequately to that resulting demand (e.g., the teacher's annoyance at the request or the teacher's perception that the interpreter must not be adequately skilled).

In our experience, when first introducing DC-S dialogic work analysis to interpreters, we have observed that many will initially reject some ethical and very effective control options simply because they perceive a risk of one or more negative consequences. Nearly all control options – from throughout the liberal to conservative spectrum of ethical and effective decisions – will have some negative consequence that might stimulate a resulting demand. The challenge is to thoroughly assess the situation (EIPI), consider a range of potential responses (not just blindly follow a rule), anticipate both positive and negative consequences to these potential decisions, and implement those decisions that are likely to have the optimal positive impact on the goal you are striving for, understanding that "side effects" will stimulate additional demands that must also be addressed via new controls. Niebuhr puts it thusly: "The idea of pattern of responsibility, then, may summarily and abstractly be defined as the idea of an agent's action (the controls they employ or refrain from employing) as response to an action upon him in accordance with his interpretation of the latter action (the EIPI demands) and with his expectation of a response to his response (positive consequences, negative consequences, and resulting demands)" (page 65, parenthetical notations ours).

Evaluating Critical Reasoning Skills by Employing the D-C-C-RD Sequence

We teach critical reasoning (and ethics) through the structured use of the D-C-C-RD sequence, which can also be used to document, facilitate, and evaluate an individual's critical reasoning skills. For illustration, consider the following interpreting assignment. A deaf student is taking a CPR certification class at the Red Cross. She is a 20 year old female. The instructor is a 40 year old female. During the actual demonstration of CPR techniques, the deaf student and the teacher work together 1:1. Consider the following D-C-C-RD sequence that happens as the teacher instructs (the goal of the environment being "education"):

Demand	**Control Option**	**Consequence**	**Resulting Demand**	**New Control**
Teacher points to show directions of a medical procedure saying "this and that"	1) Interpreter allows teacher to show visuals and does not interpret the language	Positive: Interpreter does not distract student from the visual information Negative: Deaf student sees the teacher talking but interpreter is not signing	Deaf person perceives that information was missed	Interpreter assures deaf person at the end of the instruction that the information was all represented visually
	2) Interpreter interprets "this and that" by using the names of the referenced equipment, body parts, etc.	Positive: Names of equipment, etc., are reinforced Negative: Deaf student is pulled to look at interpreter signing instead of the visuals	Deaf person misses important visual information	Interpreter explains to teacher and student that the visuals may have been missed
	3) Interpreter signs what is spoken while shadowing the pointing of the teacher	Positive: This conveys the greatest amount of verbal and visual information Negative: The interpreter gets in the way of the teacher's instructions	Teacher and deaf person experience the intrusion of the interpreter	Interpreter explains the reason behind the choice and asks for guidance on less intrusive but equally effective controls

We are not suggesting that any of the above three control decisions constitutes a "best practice" nor are we recommending one of these decisions over another. Any of these decisions, and others that might be hypothesized, may be an ethical, effective, and appropriate one. The choice between them should be made in light of the mitigating demands that are present in that situation

(which are not shown in the above chart), in addition to the constellation of positive and negative consequences created by the particular demand-control pairing under consideration.

This very brief example hopefully illustrates how the D-C-C-RD sequence can be used in both teaching and evaluating critical reasoning skills. It first taps the interpreter's ability to effectively identify job demands or answer the question, "What is going on?" Then, the interpreter must formulate *several* potential responses to that job demand. Next, they must consider the interaction between the demand and the control options they have proposed by identifying both positive and negative consequences likely to result from each control choice. Potential resulting demands arising out of negative consequences are then identified. Finally, as Niebuhr encourages, in this "resulting demand" stage, the interpreter considers optimal ways to "stay with the decision" (when appropriate) by formulating follow-up control responses.

Learning this new way of ethical and effective decision-making is not easy for interpreters or interpreter educators. Some feel challenged by this different way of thinking and struggle to learn and apply it. Others, while making decisions in this way instinctually, still struggle to slow down their thought processes to consider and critique them on a conscious level, in an effort to identify the most salient and effective aspects of their critical decision-making thought processes. We believe the demand-control schema and the D-C-C-RD sequence in particular offer a useful framework for this practice-profession challenge. Notably, the NAD-RID's new Code of Professional Conduct (RID, 2005) and the interview portion of the NAD-RID National Interpreter Certification test reflect a more teleological approach to interpreting practice that is entirely consistent with the demand-control schema for interpreting work.

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The National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers' 2- to 4-Year Program Transition Project

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Abstract

The National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers has begun research on Interpreting Education programs in the United States. To date, 125 programs have been identified. This paper provides a brief treatment of how incipient changes in pre-requisites for RID certification impact existing interpreting education programs. Current issues in interpreter training are discussed. Historical circumstances of community colleges and 2-year interpreting programs and evolving perspectives on curricular requirements are considered. Possible connections with other disciplines that have wrestled with issues similar to those of interpreter education are highlighted.

Background

Beginning in 2008, an AA degree will be required of all applicants seeking certification from the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID). In 2012, that requirement changes—applicants thereafter must have a baccalaureate degree before they can be considered for

certification. Approved by RID membership in 2003, these requirements were long overdue in the field of signed language interpreting. However, while degree requirements for certification herald another step in the acceptance of American Sign Language (ASL) as a bona fide member of the family of world languages, they also present real challenges to the academic programs offering those degrees.

A survey (see Winston, this volume) conducted in 2006 by the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers (NCIEC) found 125 institutions of higher education in the United States that offered associate or baccalaureate degree programs in sign language interpreting. Of that number, the overwhelming majority (99 of the 125) offered associate level degrees only. Based on initial investigation, few programs were found to have transition plans, either proposed or existing, for helping students make the difficult move from AA to BA level study. Given the normative time of 4-5 years that it takes for students to complete baccalaureate degrees, and the ever-increasing demand for qualified interpreters, the deadline of 2012 looms large in the field of interpreting education.

The recent surge in the popularity of video interpreting has also complicated matters. Video interpreting represented only a small niche of the market as recently as 2002. Today, however, as the number of interpreters working in video venues mushrooms, communities across the country have begun to experience serious shortages in the number of interpreters available for traditional face-to-face interpreting. The ramifications of this transition toward virtual interpreting will continue to be felt for the foreseeable future, exacerbating the problem of preparing interpreters for certification in the complex discipline of signed language interpreting. As more interpreters are drawn into this new technology, educational approaches to preparing entry-level interpreters will have to adjust as well. Other market considerations will also come into play, given the vast financial resources available to video interpreting purveyors, their growing need for interpreters, and the resultant pressures that will certainly be brought to bear on institutions of higher education (IHE).

A more fundamental problem facing both AA and BA programs in interpreting education is the lack of coherent outcome standards across existing programs. This lack of standards is unsurprising, given that the academic discipline of signed language interpreter education has only been in place since the mid 1970s. However, with the demand for interpreters rising dramatically at the same time that the standards for certification are becoming more exacting,

there is a clear need for articulation of both ASL and interpreting outcomes across the curriculums of existing programs.

A logical place to begin this work is with ASL outcomes. Like interpreting itself, ASL has been offered for academic credit for roughly 30 years in select schools. Only in the last 15 years or so has it been widely regarded as a world language. As is the case with any emerging discipline, the development of standards takes time. Here ASL has something of an advantage. The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL) has done outstanding work in establishing performance benchmarks for foreign language study.

By clearly articulating standards for novice, intermediate, and advanced proficiency levels of foreign language competence, ACTFL has provided a solid foundation for the development of ASL outcomes. NCIEC and the American Sign Language Teachers Association (ASLTA) are conducting early work in this area. For this effort to be successful in the long run, it will be necessary to draw together all of the stakeholders involved, including teachers, administrators, and curriculum developers.

The lack of ASL standard outcomes leads to significant problems downstream in interpreting courses. It is not unusual for students who have completed AA degrees in interpreting to be made to repeat ASL coursework when they enter BA degree programs. Even though there are relatively few ASL curriculums in use, there has been little movement among programs toward working cooperatively to determine standardized entry and exit proficiency levels.

This lack of standards is most perceptible in its effect on incoming interpreting students. The pre-requisites for admission to signed language interpreting programs are strikingly different from those of spoken language interpreting and translation programs. Where most spoken language programs require functional fluency in both the source and target languages as a condition of enrollment, none of the 125 signed language interpreting programs have such rigid requirements. Far more common are course masks that have students coming into programs without any significant proficiency in ASL, working from ASL 1 to “advanced” interpreting, in as short a time as four semesters.

The historical circumstances of signed language interpreting programs do much to explain why standards in ASL interpreter education are at such variance with those in spoken language interpreter education. Signed language interpreting education began in earnest in the

mid 1970s, largely as a result of the civil rights legislation of the 1960s, most notably the Vocational Rehabilitation, the "504" legislation, and Public Law 94-142. Taken together, these new regulations stipulated that Deaf people had the right to interpreting services in a wide variety of venues.

This led rather precipitously to a problem that persists to this day, that of the demand for qualified signed language interpreters far outstripping the supply. One of the first reactions to this was to begin interpreter training programs. Community colleges were the most expedient way to go about this, and, initially, nearly all programs were housed there. However, it soon became apparent that the two-year format was inadequate to the task. Cokely (2005) describes the transition toward the public education of signed language interpreters; between the time when people came into the field of interpreting only after having learned the language and having been acculturated into the world of Deaf people, and the more current practice of people beginning with ASL 1 in an academic setting and then moving on to the study of interpreting, also in an academic, rather than a community, setting.

Another complicating factor in this mix is the issue of certification. Signed language interpreters have been certified on the national level by the Registry of Interpreters of the Deaf (RID) only since the late 1960s. However, this certification has had little impact on the ability of interpreters to find employment. To this day there is little regulation of interpreters in the workplace. While an increasing number of venues are requiring certification, e.g., courts and postsecondary institutions, a surprising number of venues, K-12 schools chief among them, still do not.

With the demand for interpreters spiraling ever upward employment is relatively easy to find, even without certification or significant education. Students are quick to learn that completion of an interpreter training program is not necessarily a prerequisite to finding employment. There is, therefore, little incentive either for the creation of programs beyond the level of vocational training or for students to engage in such study.

A comparison to spoken language interpretation programs is instructive. While there are some programs that offer certificates in aspects of spoken language interpretation to be found in community colleges, none have been found that give certificates (not to mention degrees) to students who have taken basic language course work (e.g., Spanish I, II, and III) as a part of the sequence that led to the certificate. The acceptance/arrangement of students taking basic

language courses/coursework as a part of their degree program seems to be unique to ASL interpreter training programs. Spoken language programs the world over require some measure of bi-lingual fluency of students before they are admitted. The only such stipulation in ASL interpreting is found at Gallaudet University in a program that offers a Masters degree.

An insight into how and where the academic study of signed language interpreting stacks up from the perspective of IHEs can be found by looking at Kent State University in Ohio. Kent State is somewhat unique in that it offers baccalaureate degree programs in translation studies in French, German, Russian, and Spanish and in Educational Interpreting (Sign Language). Certainly there are important differences between the study of translation and the study of interpretation. Still, there is much to be gleaned from seeing how a single institution treats disciplines that are far more similar than they are different—at least in the minds of many signed language interpreters and educators. The following information is offered solely for the purpose of that comparison. No criticism of Kent State or its programs is here implied or intended.

Degree Programs in Interpretation and Translation at Kent State University

	Spoken Language Program(s)	Educational Interpreting Program
Degree offered	B.S. in Translation (French, German, Russian or Spanish)	B.S. in Education: Educational Interpreter
Department	Modern & Classical Language Studies	Special Education
College	College of Arts and Sciences	Education, Health, and Human Services
# of credit hours (degree)	129 hours	129 hours
# of credit hours (academic discipline)	82 credit hours	86 credit hours
First language course offered in degree sequence	Intermediate (assumes three full years of prior language study)	ASL I
Proficiency Testing	MLA, CLEP for course credit/placement	SCPI rating of Intermediate prior to Advanced Practicum

The details of these programs, taken from the Kent State University website (www.kent.edu) stand in stark contrast to one another. The only real similarity to be found in these degree programs is the institute's requirement that degree programs consist of at least 129 (semester) credit hours. While the credit hours for academic discipline also appear to be congruent, on closer inspection the content in those courses is found to be quite different.

It is no surprise that the most remarkable differences between the programs can be seen in the expectations of language proficiency for each. Spoken language students are expected to have three years of basic language study *prior* to entering the program, where Educational Interpreting students take three years of basic language study (ASL I-VI) *during* the program.

Even more telling is the requirement that Educational Interpreters achieve a rating of at least Intermediate on the Sign Communication Proficiency Interview (SCPI) prior to entering their advanced practicum, a course that takes place during the final semester of their program. Here is a description of what is expected from a student at the Intermediate level on the SCPI scale.

> Able to discuss with some confidence routine social and work topics within a conversational format with some elaboration; generally 3-to-5 sentences. Good knowledge and control of everyday/basic sign language vocabulary with some sign vocabulary errors. Fairly clear signing at a moderate signing rate with some sign misproductions. Fair use of some sign language grammatical features and fairly good comprehension for a moderate-to-normal signing rate; a few repetitions and rephrasing of questions may be needed.
>
> (http://www.ntid.rit.edu/ntiddean/ocas/process_rating.shtml)

Again, this is the expectation of students who have *completed* their study of ASL. Looking at the requirements for admission to the spoken language programs, it is by no means certain that Intermediate proficiency as judged on the SCPI scale would even gain admittance to programs in French, German, Russian, and Spanish Translation, much less serve as a gate-keeping requirement at the end of them.

Perhaps the institutional arrangement of these programs helps to explain the discrepancy in the level of literacy required. Spoken languages are housed in the Department of Modern and Classical Language Study in the College of Arts and Sciences, while Educational Interpreting belongs to the Special Education program in the College of Education, Health, and Human Services. It bears mention here that Kent State's Department of Modern and Classical Language Study does have a Bachelor of Arts degree program in ASL, one which comports closely with the BA degree programs in the other languages Kent State offers. Anomalies such as this are not uncommon in IHE. They are as interesting to note as they are hard to reconcile.

Research into language acquisition, both signed and spoken, has done much to inform current practice in ASL interpreting programs. It is widely recognized that the four semesters (or six quarters) of study typical at the community college level is barely adequate to the task of attaining functional fluency in ASL. It is in no way equal to the challenge of learning to interpret into and out of ASL. The following chart, provided by the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages provides an interesting glimpse into the language proficiency requirements of different jobs. Interpreting is at the top of the list in terms of difficulty. The level of proficiency that can be expected of students graduating from community college level programs is seen to be commensurate with what is needed for cashiers and receptionists, a far cry from the level of literacy needed by interpreters.

Proficiency Levels Needed in the Work World

Proficiency Level	Functions	Corresponding Jobs/Professions Who	Who has this level of proficiency?
Superior	*Discuss topics extensively, support opinions and hypothesize. Deal with a linguistically unfamiliar situation*	Interpreter, Accountant Executive, Lawyer, Judge, Financial Advisor	Educated native speakers; students from abroad after a number of years working in a professional environment
Advanced High **Advanced Mid** **Advanced Low**	*Narrate and describe in past, present and future and deal effectively with an unanticipated complication*	University professor of foreign languages --- Doctor, Sales representative, Social worker --- Customer service representatives, Police officers, school teachers	Students with masters degrees or doctorates --- Native speakers who learned Spanish in the home environment --- Graduates with Spanish degrees who have lived in Spanish-speaking countries
Intermediate High **Intermediate Mid** **Intermediate Low**	*Create with language, initiate, maintain and bring to a close simple conversations by asking and responding to simple questions*	Aviation personnel, telephone operator, receptionist --- Tour guide, cashier ---	Graduates with Spanish degrees who have not lived in Spanish-speaking countries --- After 6 years of middle/high school, AP --- After 4 years of high school
Novice High **Novice Mid** **Novice Low**	*Communicate minimally with formulaic and rote utterances, lists and phrases*	--- ---	--- After 2 years of high school --- ---

From the paper *La Enseñanza de Español y Otras Lenguas Extranjeras en los Estados Unidos: Cantidad y Calidad* (*The Teaching of Spanish and Other Foreign Languages in the United States: Quantity and Quality*) presented at the II Congreso de la Lengua Española in Valladolid, Spain, October 18, 2001 by Dr. Elvira Swender of the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL)

NOTES:

1. The levels indicated are minimal proficiency levels for specific job descriptions and have been established by subject matter experts from a variety of agencies, organizations and companies for whom ACTFL provides oral proficiency testing following an analysis of the linguistic tasks and the responsibilities of the positions.
2. The references to how long it takes to reach certain levels of proficiency were written specifically for the study of Spanish, a Category I language. Other Category I languages include Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Swahili and Swedish. For Category II, III and IV languages, one can expect that it will take longer to reach the same levels of proficiency.

Georgia Department of Education
Kathy Cox, State Superintendent of Schools
January 13, 2003 • Page 1 of 1 •

The Role of Community Colleges

The foregoing serves to limn some of the particulars of the current circumstance of interpreting education *vis a vis* postsecondary education. Although the particulars are unique to

signed language interpreting, the circumstance itself is quite familiar in higher education. The issue of bridging the gaps between high school and college, and between postsecondary study and the workplace is also relevant to this discussion and has been well studied. Here, a brief look at the early history of community colleges is useful.

> During the (early 20th century), the country's rapidly growing public high schools were seeking new ways to serve their communities. It was common for them to add a teacher institute, manual learning (vocational education) division or citizenship school to the diploma program. The high school-based community college, as first developed at Central High School in Joliet, Ill. was the most successful type of addition. Meanwhile, small, private colleges such as Indiana's Vincennes University had fashioned an effective model of higher education grounded on the principles of small classes, close student-faculty relations and a program that included both academics and extracurricular activities.
>
> From the combination of these traditions emerged the earliest community colleges, roughly balanced in number between private and public control but united in their commitment to meet local needs. The typical early community college was small, rarely enrolling more than 150 students. . .
>
> A distinctive feature of the institutions was their accessibility to women, attributable to the leading role the colleges played in preparing grammar school teachers. In such states as Missouri, which did not yet require K-8 teachers to have a bachelor's degree, it was common for more than 60 percent of community college students to be women, virtually all of them preparing to be teachers.
>
> (American Association of Community Colleges: http://www.aacc.nche.edu/)

The last paragraph above is of particular note to interpreter educators, given the field's determination to recruit more actively among underserved populations. The historic role of community colleges in providing access to these populations can be seen in the current demographics of community college students.

Community College Fact Sheet

Number and Type of Colleges

Public institutions	986
Independent institutions	171
Tribal institutions	29
Total	1,186

Enrollment: 11.6 million students

6.6 million credit

5 million noncredit

Enrolled full time - 40%

Enrolled part time - 60%

45% of all U.S. undergraduates

45% of first-time freshmen

59% women

41% men

62% part time

38% full time (full time = 12 + credit hours)

Student Profile:

47% of all black undergraduate students attend community colleges

55% of all Hispanic students attend community colleges

47% of all Asian/Pacific Islander students attend community colleges

57% of all Native American students attend community colleges

Average student age: 29 years

Earnings:

The average expected lifetime earnings for a graduate with an associate degree are $1.6 million - about $.4 million more than a high school graduate earns.

(*Data are derived from the most current information available as of January 2006* - http://www.aacc.nche.edu)

Clearly community colleges will continue in the vital role they have played in the education of signed language interpreters. RID's new requirements for certification will necessitate some changes at this level, but there is no reason to believe that community

colleges will play a less significant role in the future. The question at hand is just what that role will be.

The role of community colleges across the spectrum of higher education in preparing students for transfer is experiencing a paradigm shift from the perspectives of students and educators alike. Cuseo (2000) finds that while the number of potential 2- to 4- year transfer students is growing, there is a gap between the number of students who enter 2-year schools with the intention to transfer to 4-year schools and the number of students who actually do so. Cuseo (2000) cites two additional sources on this topic. Pascarella and Terenzini (1991) describe the situation in terms familiar to many—students enrolled in 4-year programs are far more likely to persist in their educational pursuits than those enrolled in 2-year programs. The California Community College system, by far the largest in the nation with 125 schools, states (1994) that since the 1970s the number of students transferring from 2-year to 4-years schools has decreased relative to total community college enrollment.

These are among the many issues facing educators looking to improve the academic treatment of signed language interpreting and will doubtless be a major focus of the NCIEC initiative.

Possibilities

As the education of signed language interpreters enters the mainstream of higher education, it will be helpful to compare the issues we face with those of other disciplines that have followed similar arcs. There is much to be learned from studying how colleagues in other fields have reckoned solutions to problems we share. In this regard, the study of one discipline in particular—early childhood education has much to offer.

In 2002 the McCormick Tribune Foundation sponsored the Cantigny Conference in Cincinnati, Ohio. The focus of the conference was the improvement of early childhood education. Taken from the conference proceedings (Sharpe, 2003), here is a list of the key agenda items.

Issue 1: Linkage between associate and baccalaureate degree programs

Issue 2: Credit for prior learning experiences

Issue 3: Need for support services to promote student success

Issue 4: Lack of diversity among higher education faculty and staff

Issue 5: Language as a barrier to student success

Conference objectives included:

- To explore key issues and barriers to students' success in completion of educational pursuits
- To identify what type of support and communication is needed for successful articulation to be developed and maintained
- To explore and develop strategies for creating an accessible pathway to career mobility for early childhood educators and facilitate movement from one level of education to another
- To identify places where collaboration can and should take place

Even a cursory look at these items will reveal the many places where issues in early childhood education and signed language interpreter education overlap. Indeed, one could substitute "interpreter education" for "early childhood education" without misstating in the slightest the goals of the NCIEC in regards to transition from 2- to 4-year study.

The report of the Cantigny Conference proceedings, available on the McCormick Tribune Foundation's website at http://www.mccormicktribune.org/education/revisioningarticulation.pdf is highly recommended. For each abovementioned "Item" the report offers a concise summary of the issue, an explication of the challenges attendant to the issue, and possible steps that might be taken to address the challenges.

Here again, the prior work of our colleagues in childhood education will surely inform the work we are undertaking with the NCIEC. Work done in fields of study, such as Nursing, also holds promise for the work to come. Although far more regulated than either Early Childhood Education or Interpreting, the pathway to the profession(s) of nursing are remarkably similar to those of interpreting, with a large number of aspirants entering through the portals of community colleges.

The issue of preparing ASL interpreting students for transition from AA degree programs to programs at the Baccalaureate level is as complex as it is crucial. The NCIEC survey has discovered a small number of AA and BA/BS programs that are starting to work together toward

articulation of their curriculums. These early efforts are starting to bear fruit, if only on the local level.

At this writing the data collection and analysis from the NCIEC survey is ongoing. A small group of interpreting educators is meeting regularly to design the grant's work in support of facilitating the transition from AA to BA study. The data from the survey will reveal which programs are currently involved in transition planning and implementation. A meeting of BA program directors will be held immediately prior to the CIT-ASLTA conference in October, 2006. At that time directions for possible collaboration and standardization will be discussed. As was the case in Early Childhood Education, it will be necessary to include representatives from every conceivable constituency in the larger discussion on the transition to BA study.

It is expected that several models of articulation will be identified from the survey research and follow-up. These models will be held out as having potential to other schools engaged in the transition process. Schools considering the establishment of ASL and/or interpreting programs can benefit from the groundwork we lay here that describes in detail issues in creating and sustaining an ASL/Interpreting program. Schools and programs currently engaged in the struggle of transition will benefit from our shared experience.

Conclusion

Much good work has been done in creating a set of academic standards from the programmatic aspect. The document on the CIT website (http://www.cit-asl.org/docs/Standards.pdf) contains an intricately wrought list of standards and guidelines for accrediting interpreter education programs. Drawn with an eye toward accreditation standards from regional bodies such as Middle States Association of Colleges and Schools, the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools, the Western Association of Colleges and Schools, these standards have been carefully crafted to align programs to existing standards for academic programs at the post-secondary level.

The new RID pre-requisites for certification are a watershed event in the history of signed language interpreting. The ramifications of raising the bar will be felt for some time to come. It will mean, at the very least, a fundamental re-visioning of how IHEs work together and separately in the education of interpreters. Old models will be recast in new forms. There is the potential for great harm if we do not act prudently. Our best hope

for the future is steady collaboration. Working together, we can help each other to shape our future in the most responsible manner possible.

About the Author

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The Mentor Training Project: Concurrent Learning via Technology

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Abstract

A pilot Mentor Training Project (MTP) was conducted using distance education technology to improve the quality of mentoring provided by professional interpreters to interpreting interns in a college based interpreter education program. The goals of the project were:

- to provide mentors with information about mentoring and adult learning,
- to introduce students and mentors to each other before the actual mentoring experience,
- to help mentors understand the way students are taught to discuss interpreting, and
- to give mentors an idea of where the students are in their development as interpreters.

Mentors in the project were working interpreters with varying years of experience in interpreting and mentoring. The MTP included exploration and discussion of adult learning theories, general mentoring, and

information specific to signed language interpreting. Using a WebCT online instructional format, mentors also had the opportunity to observe and interact with current second-year interpreting students and to practice giving them feedback on their work.

Background

Portland Community College's Sign Language Interpretation Program (SLIP) requires that students complete at least one internship before they can graduate from the program. Two internships, with the first at the community college level and the second in a K-12 setting, are strongly recommended. Students are screened before they are permitted to enter internship: in addition to successful completion of their courses, they must also pass a "Qualifying Exam" which requires them to demonstrate their ability to interpret a lecture from sign to voice and from voice to sign with a minimum of 70% accuracy in each area. This figure may seem low, but it is only a starting point for entry into internship where they will continue to develop their ability to convey an accurate message.

Students are assigned to professional interpreters who serve as their mentors. They begin their internship by observing the professional interpreter, and then prepare to demonstrate to both the mentor and the deaf client(s) their ability to begin interpreting in this setting. By the end of the term, they are expected to take full responsibility for interpreting the class, or, in a teamed class, to take their turn in the rotation of interpreters. Only with the approval of both the mentor interpreter and the deaf client do they begin to provide interpreting services. The mentor remains with them throughout the internship, even after they have assumed the full interpreting responsibility, and is expected to provide professional guidance and daily feedback on their work, as well as to take over the interpreting if they begin to falter.

We have been fortunate to have excellent mentors for our students over the years, many of them past graduates of our program, but have found a smaller than usual pool of interpreting settings available in which to place students in recent years. Occasionally even those who have mentored for us for some time express doubts that they are "doing it right" and newer interpreters are often unsure when they are ready to begin to mentor. Therefore, our primary purpose in

setting up the mentoring project was to expand the pool of potential mentors for our interpreting interns and to improve the effectiveness and self-confidence of our current mentors.

We had a number of goals for our project. Because of a belief that both "process" and "product" are important, we wanted to help mentors become more comfortable with both giving feedback on specific features of an interpretation, and with helping students explore their process, so that they could use both techniques to support student interpreters. We wanted mentors to recognize that feedback needed to go beyond sign choice and parameter errors to deeper issues in order to help students recognize patterns in their work and the likely causes of their successes or challenges. Another important goal was to help mentors understand where students were in their development both as learners and as interpreters, so that they could formulate realistic expectations for them. Professional interpreters may be unsure what a student interpreter should or should not be able to do, and thus either over- or under-challenge them, inhibiting the learning process. They may be reluctant to allow the student interpreter to work, perhaps fearful that it will negatively impact the deaf students, or reluctant to give up the feeling of control of the situation afforded by doing the work themselves. Likewise, if they are unfamiliar with adult learners, they may not realize that students' quest for a "black and white" answer to their questions instead of the ubiquitous "it depends" is an indicator, not of laziness on the students' part, but of a normal stage in the development of adult learners.

Finally, because our field is growing and changing so rapidly, and because training programs and texts differ, terminology our students are currently using in their classes may be unfamiliar even to very knowledgeable and skilled working interpreters. For example, interpreters not educated in the last few years may not have been exposed to the demand-control schema. A second example is over the years our profession has used "lag time," "decalage," and "processing time" to refer to the time between receiving the source message and producing the target language version. So, another goal was to ensure that both students and interpreter mentors spoke about their work in the same "language."

As stated in the Continuing Education Activity Plan filed with RID, the goals were as follows:

Upon completion of the Sign Language Interpreter Mentor Training Project, participants will be able to:

- Describe the adult development schema of Perry and Belenky et al. (Perry, W.G., 1981; Belenky, M.F. et al., 1986).
- Describe their own learning styles and the variation in adult learning styles, using the Dunn and Dunn model
- (http://www.geocities.com/educationplace/element.html).
- Describe and apply principles of mentoring, demonstrating appropriate mentoring techniques.
- Assess an English to ASL interpretation for accuracy and target language use.
- Provide feedback to a student interpreter in an appropriate manner.

Project Structure

In order to provide the mentoring training, we applied for an in-house grant from the Staff Development Office of our college, and received funding to purchase textbooks and to pay a part-time instructor to develop and conduct the mentor project. Our mentoring project took the form of an online training for mentors run in conjunction with a Mock Interpreting II class in which second year interpreting students were enrolled in fall term 2005.

All second year interpreting students take Mock Interpreting II, which places them in an on-campus class without deaf students. Although we are limited to classes available, we make some effort to match students with a subject area in which they feel somewhat comfortable, and to choose lower-division entry-level courses rather than those in professional/technical programs. The students attend their assigned class, usually one hour three times per week, and practice interpreting it. Ideally, they use this experience to integrate and apply what they have learned about text analysis, assessing an interpreting situation, and researching and preparing for an interpreting assignment, as well as practicing their voice-to-sign interpreting skills. Each student is paired with a classmate who observes at least once a week to provide support and feedback. The instructor observes at least three times during the term: the first time for general feedback and support, and the last two for graded observations. Students document their hours and explore their experiences through journal writing as well as a once-a-week "recitation" class, where they discuss what they have learned. In addition to helping them to understand and learn

from their experiences, both the journal and the recitation allow them to practice confidentiality and impartiality in discussing their work. Journals are sent directly from student to instructor, and therefore may be used to convey information privately. In recent years, instructors have had the option of having the journal writing and submission done online, through WebCT, rather than in "hard copy." This also allows for a continuing online discussion to expand on topics brought up in journals and in the recitation session.

When it came to designing the mentor training, we realized that getting a group of interpreters together in one place at one time is often quite difficult, and that using an asynchronous online format would allow us to provide ongoing training without the need to juggle schedules. We also hoped that using WebCT would allow local working interpreters to become familiar with taking classes online and increase their confidence to allow them to be more comfortable if they later chose to participate in one of the growing number of online training opportunities available nationally. First and foremost, however, was the opportunity that the online format allowed the professional interpreters to observe and interact with the students they might someday mentor. Thus, mentors not only had the opportunity to read about and discuss the development of adult students, but to observe it in the students' online discussions. Students also had the opportunity to get to know potential mentors through the online course.

We were fortunate to have the assistance of our wonderful technology support specialist, Andrew Freed, who made it possible for us to join the two groups online. The Mock II students were automatically placed in the online class when they registered for the course. Allowing the mentors, who were not registered students, access to the class required first obtaining permission from the registered students for "outsiders" to be involved the online class, and then manually inputting the mentors' names and identification numbers to make them unofficial "students."

The WebCT class for both mentors and students was designed and conducted by Dot Hearn. Mentor participants accessed their course content from the Homepage of the WebCT site, from there, they could link to the mentor area. In this area were various links, including an overview of the course, summaries of the textbook chapters they would be reading, a weekly schedule of activities and readings, and links to useful Web resources. Mentors were able to access the students' portion of the course, with the exception of private emails, and students could likewise access the mentors' portion if they wished. After reviewing several textbooks, we chose Lois Zachary's *The Mentor's Guide: Facilitating Effective Learning Relationships* (San

Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 2000). This book had the advantage of being accessible to a casual reader, offering concrete tips on interacting with mentees, and including exercises to help participants reflect on their experiences as both mentors and mentees. Aware of the hectic schedules of most working interpreters, we chose only the most pertinent chapters and exercises on which to focus during the course. Using funding from the grant, we purchased several copies of the book. We placed one on reserve in the college library and took the remainder to worksites shared by several participants. In addition to the textbook, participants were provided with supplemental readings in the form of online articles on adult learning theory, learning styles, types of assessment, and what to expect from interpreting students. At the beginning of the course, participants were given the opportunity to take the Dunn and Dunn Learning Styles Inventory (http://www.geocities.com/educationplace/element.html), and were provided with their individual results and explanatory materials.

At the same time the mentor participants were working through their content, the interpreting students were focusing their skill development and discussions on specific aspects of their interpreting, using Marty Taylor's *Interpreting Skills English to ASL* (Edmonton, Alberta, Canada, Interpreting Consolidated, 1993). Although funding did not allow us to purchase copies of this text for the mentors, we encouraged them to access it on their own, in conjunction with a discussion of types of assessments, and placed copies on reserve in the library for them to use. Students already had copies of the book from one of their first year courses.

Up to 2.0 RID CEUs were available for participation in the training. Because we did not meet face-to-face, we needed to find a way to determine and document the number of hours earned for participation. The following are the criteria we used:

Date	**Activities**	**Quantity**	**Hours**
10/17	Orientation Meeting*	Attendance	2
	Online discussion	Min. 1 post/1 reply	1
10/24	Online discussion	Min. 2 posts/2 replies	2
10/31	Online discussion	Min. 2 posts/2 replies	2
11/7	Online discussion	Min. 2 posts/2 replies	2
11/14	Online discussion	Min. 2 posts/2 replies	2
11/21	Online discussion	Min. 2 posts/2	2

		replies	
	Practice assessment		2
11/28	Assessment of student interpreter.		5
12/5	Feedback to student interpreter.		1
	Total		**20 = 2.0 CEUs**

Table 1. CEU requirements.

Although grades were not given, we also provided a rubric to guide participants in knowing what we expected from their posts.

	2	**1**	**0**
Depth & focus of comments	Uses analysis skills to explore the subject in depth; makes substantive comments	Often uses analysis skills to explore the subject, but occasional comments lack depth	Rarely uses analysis skills to explore the subject; most comments lack depth
Use of specific examples or references	Consistently uses specific examples or references to support statements	Often uses specific examples or references to support statements	Rarely uses specific examples or references to support statements

Table 2. Expectations rubric.

Recruiting participants

For this training we targeted local interpreters with two or more years of interpreting experience who were interested in serving as mentors for PCC interns. There was no requirement of previous mentoring experience. The training was open to other interpreters, but all announcements stated that priority would be given to those willing to be mentors for PCC SLIP students. Dot created an email list of interpreters who had served as mentors for our students in the past and who had expressed an interest in developing their mentoring skills, and those who had expressed an interest in becoming mentors. This desire for training was expressed to Dot in her role as internship instructor at PCC. Dot sent a direct email invitation to this list of interpreters. One additional interpreter on this original list, who is from a rural area where our interns are not placed, was included in this first mailing because this interpreter was going to be mentoring for the first time and wanted to develop mentoring skills. General flyers were emailed to coordinators at the local colleges and K-12 educational programs where our interns are usually

placed, to the Oregon RID affiliate chapter email newsgroup, to the Region X IEC coordinator, and was posted on the RID website.

The brief application included information about years and type of interpreting experience, current areas of interpreting, mentoring experience, and willingness to be mentors for SLIP students. Our goal was to have at least one mentor participant in the pilot project for each of the Mock II students, since the mentors would be giving feedback to the students on a sample of their interpreting work. There was no maximum number of participants established, although we did agree that somewhere around 25 would be ideal.

A total of 17 interpreters applied for the pilot project. All of them were from the original target group and they were all accepted into the project. All of the participants were currently working in educational settings. With one exception, educational settings were the interpreters' primary or exclusive workplace. Their years of interpreting experience ranged from 2 years to over 30 years; mentoring experience ranged from none to over 20 years. The following chart shows the demographics of the participants.

Primary workplace	**#**	**Certified**	**Pre-certified**	**Mentor exper?**	**Interpreter training**
K-12 exclusively	6	1	1	1=N	4=PCC ITP; 1=ITP; 1=other
K-12 with college	3	0	1	Y	3=PCC ITP
K-12 with freelance	1	0	1	N	1=PCC ITP
College exclusively	2	1	0	Y	2=ITP
College with freelance	4	4	0	Y	2=PCC ITP; 1=ITP; 1=other
Freelance with college	1	1	0	Y	1=other

Table 3. Demographics of participants.

Elements of the Pilot Project

Week 1: Adult Learning Theory

We started the readings and discussions with the concept that in order to teach or mentor adult students, it is helpful to look at some of the theories about adult learning and development, and to consider some of the literature about learning styles.

We described two models of adult learning, which formed the foundation for this training. Mentor participants were told that the purpose of the models was not to label students, but to help understand stages that typical learners go through during the learning process. It is

essential to remember the subjects on whom the research for these models was based, and to realize that not all learners have the same life experience. Variations such as educational experience, culture, and socioeconomic status have a great impact on students' ways of knowing.

One of the models discussed was William Perry's model, published as *Forms of Intellectual and Ethical Development* (1970), based on a study he did of male students at Harvard. Though some criticize this theory because it was developed solely on men, later research indicated that the stages were similar for female students as well (Perry's "Cognitive and Ethical Growth: The Making of Meaning", 1981). Perry listed a series of "positions," that is, ways of seeing the world, through which adult learners pass. A more in-depth overview can be read at William J. Rapaport's website, *William Perry's Scheme of Intellectual and Ethical Development* (see references). The mentor project participants were reminded that students do not pass through these positions in lockstep, and that one person may use different positions in different parts of life.

The first of Perry's positions is dualism, in which learning is a matter of facts, or right and wrong answers, obtained from an expert or authority. One example of an adult in the dualistic stage is the belief that, "there is one right answer, and a good teacher knows it."

Perry's second position is multiplism. In this stage, learners begin to realize that there may be uncertainty or a variety of opinions about an issue, but at first have no way to evaluate them and choose among them. One example of an adult learner at this stage might be "There may be many answers to this question, but which one do we have to know for the test?"

Perry's third position is relativism. In these stages students have learned how to learn, and how to consider context in choosing among diverse opinions or multiple answers. One example of a learner at this stage is, "Yes, things are relative, but not everything is equally valid. I have to consider the context." Some research indicates that most college students do not reach the relativistic stages until after graduation (see Baxter Magolda, 1992, p. 189). While relativism is the goal for interpreters, this stage is not generally attained by interpreting students graduating from either two or four-year programs.

The other model discussed was based on research done on women, and reported in the book *Women's Ways of Knowing* by Belenkey et al. (1986). Later studies have shown that with the exception of the initial stage, "Silence," this model works for both males and females. This schema consists of five stages and parallels Perry's in many ways.

The first of these stages is silence. At this stage authority is all-powerful and all knowing. The learner sees herself as passive and dependent on authority.

The second stage is received knowledge, in which the learner sees herself as a receptacle for knowledge, but not as a creator of it. This is very similar to Perry's dualistic stages, in that the student sees authorities as the source of knowledge and that learning consists of gathering and remembering facts. In this stage, students have no tolerance for ambiguity, a quality that is necessary to function effectively as an interpreter, as well as to be successful in intercultural interaction in general (Lustig and Koester, 1996, p. 262).

Stage three is subjective knowledge. This position is similar to Perry's multiplistic stages, in that it acknowledges difference of opinion, but sees the recognition of truth as intuitive, rather than as proven by some external method. Each person has a right to her opinion, and one's own opinion should not be forced on others.

The fourth stage is procedural knowledge and emphasizes learning how to learn or learning how to think. That is using analysis in order to determine what is true. This may take the form of "separate" or "connected" knowing. Separate knowing has to do with the ability to use critical reasoning to develop arguments to support an answer. Connected knowing takes the form of understanding based on looking at an issue from another's point of view, "getting inside their head," so to speak.

Their fifth stage is constructed knowledge. In this stage, like Perry's relativistic positions, the student recognizes a variety of answers or viewpoints, and realizes that both context and the self are important in determining what is known.

There was a positive reaction to this information from the participants and they found it beneficial. As one participant said, “These categories are very helpful, in terms of understanding reactions I have experienced from mentees. They help to explain why some mentees are still asking for signs, regardless of their good training.”

We asked the mentors to discuss what stage(s) a student entering internship would be in according to these adult learning theory models. At PCC, this means the students are in the second half of the second year of the program, by which time they have completed 6-8 terms of prerequisite courses, and 4 terms of program courses. Several mentors discussed relativism versus multiplism, but many also felt unable to respond based on the minimal information they were given. This excerpt from one participant’s posting sums up the general beliefs about this

question, "I would be hard pressed to predict what to expect from an ITP student, just based on knowing that the student is a second year ITP student. People come from so many different backgrounds and life experiences. These students have really gotten used to 'It depends,' but I'm sure they all internalize it at different levels and in different ways."

Because of this feedback, Julie developed several mini case studies that would give the participants more information with which to work. The participants felt much more comfortable and were better able to apply the theories to the case studies. This additional information allowed them to look at a person's overall situation and discuss it in more depth. This activity led into a lengthy discussion about how to provide feedback to students and mentees: a direct versus "sandwich" approach. (The "sandwich" approach is the one popular in many business models: tell the person something positive, follow with something needing improvement, end with another positive.) One mentor wrote, "I did my mini case study #1 assessment, then read some of the ones that you all had done, and I think I need to toughen up a little bit…. I realize that I am a great cheerleader, but need to stretch my skills to being a better provider of feedback. The risk with that for me is that I would open myself to conflict, arrrggg. Now I need to set some goals to work through my resistance to diving in and saying what I really want to say. " In contrast, another mentor responded, "I think I have the opposite problem. I don't have enough praise or cheerleading, because I don't experience that as genuine myself, so I tend not to include it. I have to really consciously think about finding a strength that I can praise wholeheartedly, and remember to talk about it. I try NOT to sandwich it (all meat, no carbs, smile) so that we can enjoy it for its own worth. I guess that part about relation-building really impressed me in the [Zachary] book."

Weeks 2-5: Zachary Chapters

Following the discussion and activities related to adult learning theory, they went on to readings and activities from the Zachary text, with additional supplemental articles. The Zachary chapters selected were "Grounding the Work," (p.1-28) which focuses on learner-centered mentoring; "Tilling the Soil: Preparing," (p. 65-92) which is about mentor preparation and motivation, and developing mentoring skills; "Planting Seeds: Negotiating," (p. 93-116) which is about involving the mentee in goal-setting, measuring success, and accountability; and

"Nurturing Growth: Enabling," (p. 117-143) which refers to creating a learning environment, offering both support and challenge, and giving feedback.

In "Tilling the Soil," the mentor participants were asked to write a personal history timeline about their mentors. This proved to be a beneficial activity that provided several people with important insights that may impact their mentoring. One participant realized, "I recognize different teachers and peers along the way that I have benefited from in a similar way to a mentorship, but I have never actually had a mentor in a sustained sort of way. This could explain why I don't really have a model to look towards. In other words, I don't know how to behave as a mentor because I never saw one in action." Another mentor noticed that her personal mentors have tended to confront her about issues. Her response, "I'm noticing a pattern here. … Personally, apparently this confrontation seems to work on me. But I hate it. I guess I can receive it if I respect the person but if I don't then I just get defensive." This post led into a discussion about different ways of providing feedback other than "in your face;" or how could a more "softhearted" mentor provide feedback to someone like this mentor who wants a more blunt confrontation. This activity and discussion was positive for all of the participants. Another mentor reflected on her own experiences with her mentor and related it to her own experience as a mentor now, "I remember when I was in my internship, my mentor said one of the reasons she liked being a mentor was that it gave her a chance to analyze her own work and to learn. At the time I thought she was being polite. She was a professional interpreter, she'd already graduated, what could she have left to learn....man was I clueless!! Now after having mentored myself a few times, I totally understand what she was saying. It's when the intern asks us why we do something that we have a chance to stop and think about why we do it."

Week 6: Zachary, Taylor, and Videotape Feedback

The original goal was for the participants to divide into small groups and do a group assessment of a sample videotape. We would provide feedback on this activity and they would proceed individually to provide feedback on students' videotapes. Due to scheduling problems and difficulties locating a video sample, the practice assessment was eliminated. We did have an online discussion about providing feedback and this information was also included in the Zachary text. Dot also provided a brief overview of Taylor's major features of an interpretation from her *Interpreting Skills: English to American Sign Language* book, as well as a listing of the

potential errors under each section. We also stressed the importance of looking at patterns of errors rather than citing individual errors. The summary was intended to give mentors other areas to think about when they were viewing the students' work, rather than teach them in-depth about Taylor's work.

This section also included reading and discussing the establishment of clear guidelines and boundaries for the mentoring relationship. There were personal stories of times this has or has not gone well. One participant put it very succinctly, "I would feel a bit frantic as to how to stop or change a situation if something wasn't going right [with the mentee's interpreting]. I now realize this happened because the mentee and I did not take the time to negotiate how to transition as smoothly as possible so that together we could have the least impact on the client. The mentoring guide will be so helpful to use to construct a solid plan before any interpreting takes place. Some things that seem so vital are the delineation of mutual responsibilities (so that the mentor, meaning me, is not a passive observer!) accountability assurances, clear boundaries, and relationship ground rules, (the student/client needs come first) protocols for addressing stumbling blocks (clear communication, no hurt feelings) and a consensual mentoring agreement so we can work together as a team."

Online Discussion Participation

The level of participation varied widely, from nothing beyond the original login during orientation, to those who read everything and participated heavily in discussions, as well as a few "lurkers" who, based on the WebCT statistics, read materials, but rarely joined the discussion. We tried to encourage participation in the discussions through tying CEUs in with discussion posts. To some participants this was not an important issue, therefore, not an incentive to be more "vocal." The discussions were good and quite in-depth, but we would have liked to have more across the board participation. In looking at the WebCT statistics, we were relieved to know that even some of the silent participants were probably still benefiting from the discussions based on all of the pages they read.

Name	**Hits**	**Read**	**Posted**		**Name**	**Hits**	**Read**	**Posted**
TA	685	317	28		AH	470	299	11
SA	428	262	31		HH	267	182	19
CB	490	154	5		LJ	765	378	29
SB	35	24	0		LL	669	377	12

DC	615	259	3		LM	186	107	1
AG	798	322	13		CP	470	263	9
MG	149	87	1		JS	35	9	1
TH	207	162	1		HW	225	74	12
DH	163	94	2					

Table 4. Mentor participation in online discussions

Reflections: What did and did not work

The goals of this project were met. The mentor participants learned about adult learning theory and how this applies to interpreting program students and about the importance of using a mentee-centered approach. One major benefit stated by participants was learning about the importance of developing a relationship with the mentee and the elements involved. As one mentor wrote, "The most beneficial information I learned had to do with what an intricate process building a mentor/mentee relationship really is, and that it doesn't happen automatically; if left to develop on its own, in fact, the relationship will usually perish."

Simultaneously, while this was one of the major benefits, it was also one of the drawbacks of this pilot project. The mentor participants were encouraged to have a dialogue with their student, to arrange for an on-site observation and meeting if their schedules allowed, and for the mentors to observe and participate in online discussions with the students. In reality, there was almost no involvement from the mentors in the online discussions with students. None of the mentors met face-to-face with the students nor did they do on-site observations, so the relationship building being discussed remained theory rather than practice. In feedback from mentors, they felt the lack of a developed relationship with the students. Future trainings will need to include specific activities that will result in more interaction between mentors and students, rather than simple suggestions that they meet or correspond online.

Another area which participants generally felt was not successful was the activity of providing assessment of the students' interpreting work samples. The following is feedback from one mentor that accurately represents what the mentors felt in general, "Giving feedback on a videotape, which was contradictory to what was taught in the book [was not beneficial]. I had no chance to talk to the mentee so it was just a very uncomfortable task." Several mentors also said they did not feel qualified to assess an interpretation because they did not have the tools to do that.

One potential issue with the assessment concerns may be a matter of semantics. The word "assess" was used to mean looking at the student's work sample and provide feedback the same as working with an intern in a "live" setting. This word was interpreted by some participants to mean they were to do an in-depth diagnostic analysis of the work and make a formal evaluation. From this experience, we have decided to include a glossary with the next training and will consider how best to use the words "assess," "assessment," and "feedback."

We each had individual areas that we felt did not go well as far as our performances. Dot discovered more differences between facilitating classroom discussion related to mentoring and facilitating asynchronous online discussions than was expected. Due to Department Chair duties, Julie did not have as much time available to participate in the ongoing training as she had hoped and was, therefore, less involved. Both of us also felt we were not as prepared when the training started as we would like. For example, we did not have a sample video of a former student to use as a group assessment practice before the training started. We are addressing these issues. Because the Department Chair duties are rotated between the two full-time SLIP faculty, Julie has more time available to devote to the ongoing discussions in years when another faculty member is chair. Dot has taken more training in facilitating online discussions. Interpreting samples are now available.

Pilot Completion: Feedback from Participants

Mentors were asked for feedback about the training at its completion and again at the end of the second term after the training. The second feedback requested occurred after the mentors had each had the opportunity to apply what they had learned. Here are some of their comments.

> "I probably spent 20-25 hours or more with this class. I don't know if I would have learned as much with a traditional format. Mentoring is so much more than what I had been led to believe."

> "This class will help me organize more for a better mentor/mentee experience."

> "Some of the activities were hard to do without a mentee to work with. The assessment part did not seem to connect with the other readings and activities."

> "I felt like there were several parts to this project and individually, they were all great. But I felt they did not all fit together. Perhaps to do that, it would require more time and more transition. I think the idea of the project is great."

> "Being part of a larger group of mentors who now have a shared knowledge and way of talking about what we do. I have a bit better understanding of the LSIP program and its expectations. Thoughtful awareness of my own mentors, and that they don't have to come from the interpreting field or have been a formal mentorship."

Follow Up: Mentor Training Part II Fall 2006

Based on participants' feedback, we have designed "Mentor Training Part II," to address the part of the previous training which both we and the participants felt was not adequately covered due to time constraints: instruction on and practice doing an actual assessment of a sample interpretation, followed by participants' assessments of student work. In this part of the training, open to both new and part I participants, potential mentors work with experienced faculty and peers to assess model interpretations, and then provide specific feedback to students enrolled in ITP 281 Mock Interpreting II.

This training is similar in format to the initial session, using WebCT and providing RID CEUs as before. Objectives for this training are as follows. Upon completion of the project, participants will be able to:

- Assess a student interpretation in terms of its comprehensibility and congruency
- Assess the grammatical correctness of an interpretation
- Suggest possible underlying causes of interpreter errors
- Suggest possible strategies or practice techniques to remedy those errors

From September – November, 2006, both mentors and students participate in weekly online discussions of their readings from *Interpreting Skills: English to ASL* (Taylor, 1993). This time, mentor participants will read and discuss Taylor's text at the same time as students, who initially used the text in one of last year's Interpreting Process classes, use its sections to focus in on particular areas of their interpretations.

Using a DVD provided by the program, mentors view and discuss a demonstration assessment of an interpretation, then perform and discuss a practice assessment of a second interpretation. We have received permission from some 2005 and 2006 graduates to use interpretations done while in our program as a sample for demonstration and practice purposes and have converted them from VHS to DVD and copied them for loan to participants. During this time, students are entering and becoming accustomed to their new Mock Interpreting assignments, writing journal entries and discussing their experiences with their peers. As before, with permission, mentors have access to student discussion.

In November-December, 2006, mentors will assess student interpretations (with student permission only) and provide individual feedback to their assigned students using what they have learned in their discussions to guide them toward specific observations about the students' work. They will both correspond one-on-one with their assigned students and hold face-to-face meetings with them to practice their feedback skills.

We are hopeful that this will round out their mentoring training, so that they can combine the adult development theory and process feedback methods from Part I with the specific skill-focused observation skills from Part II to enhance the quality of their interactions, and to improve the mentoring experience for mentors and mentees alike.

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Enhancing Critical Thinking and Active Learning in Online Courses

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Abstract

Distance education has become a reality in our field, with many programs, courses, and professional development opportunities proliferating every year. This panel of distance faculty provides examples for participants to understand the many ways that active learning, critical thinking, decision making, and self-assessment are effectively incorporated into online learning environments. Participants will also be invited to analyze their own classroom activities to fit online possibilities.

Introduction

Distance education has become a reality in higher education in every field. In our field of interpreter education, programs, courses, and professional development opportunities are proliferating every year. Many wonder at the possibilities of sparking active learning and critical thinking in any classroom, let alone accomplishing it effectively at a distance. Questions are raised about the ability to encourage critical thinking and active learning for online students. Nowadays these questions need to shift from concerns about whether this can be accomplished to

how it can be facilitated. Just as traditional face-to-face approaches can be highly motivating for students or deathly suffocating to active learning, so, too, can every form of distance learning, from old-fashioned correspondence courses, to simple asynchronous online discussions and interactions, to full-blown synchronous computer-animated dog-and-pony shows. It is not the format or delivery method of the lesson or activity that is important; it is the design that teachers use in development and the expectations, goals, and interest of students participating in the learning that result in, or hamper, active learning. The most exciting activities designed to stimulate learning will fail if students are not interested in learning, if they expect simply to be taught "at." The most lifeless bit of fact can open a new world of experience and learning if it sparks a fire in the learner's mind. This is not news. To quote Plutarch, *The mind is not a vessel to be filled but a fire to be kindled.* The fire can be kindled in any environment and educational setting.

The broader field of adult education is experiencing a paradigm shift. More than ever, faculty are recognizing that effective practices in education require a focus on learning rather than on teaching, on critical thinking rather than on rote memorization. Daniels and Bizar (1998) list the characteristics of educational practices that are considered effective. Their summary includes a broad spectrum of projects that have investigated and outlined standards for effective practices and reflects broad consensus. Effective practices in education are those that focus on learning, that encourage reflection, that are authentic and constructive--that encourage learners to build from experience on what they already know. Recommendations from various organizations have called for active learning rather than passive absorption of information; for reflection rather than memorization. The table below summarizes some of these changes.

Less	**More**
Whole-class-directed instruction, e.g., lecturing	Student responsibility for own learning
Student passivity: sitting, listening, receiving and absorbing information	Active learning through talking, collaboration and experience
Prizing and rewarding silence in the classroom	Participation in the classroom
Class time spent on reading texts	Experiential, inductive learning
Superficial coverage of broad content	Deep coverage of fewer topics
Rote memorizing of facts	Critical focus on thinking skills
Emphasis on competition for grades	Collaboration in learning

Adapted from Daniels and Bizar, 1998. (p. 3)

Although Daniels and his colleagues focus on K-12 education, the expectations for adult learning are similar. Bloom and colleagues (1956) were some of the earlier pioneers in discussing learning rather than teaching. Many faculty in higher education have developed some familiarity with and beyond Bloom's taxonomy, and have seen learning being targeted at least in the objectives listed in many courses. Since Bloom, various educators have offered revisions, and other perspectives, on developing critical thinking. Anderson and Krathwohl (2001), Marzano (2001), Wiggins and McTighe (2005), and Angelo and Cross (1993) all offer valuable perspectives on approaches to developing critical thinking and stimulating active learning. Winston (2005) provides a discussion of these perspectives in relation to teaching and learning interpreting. Wiggins and McTighe (2005) discuss these same characteristics for adult learning. Their discussion of "coverage" and "uncoverage" is one that sheds valuable light on teaching and learning in higher education. They define coverage as:

> A teaching approach that superficially teaches and tests content knowledge irrespective of student understanding or engagement. The term generally has a negative connotation: It implies that the goal is to march through a body of material (often a textbook) within a specified time frame. (Ironically, one meaning of the term *to cover* is "to obscure.") Teachers often couple the term with an excuse linked to demands of curriculum frameworks ("I would have liked to go into greater depth, but we *have* to cover the content") or external testing (but the students will be tested on… and the results are published in the paper"). (p. 340)

Covering topics, then, is to ignore, or place as a secondary priority, what students learn, and to place as primary, the passing of words, print, facts, and figures by the eyes and ears of students.

Contrast their definition of "uncoverage," which they contend is essential for active learning:

> A teaching approach that is required for all matters of understanding. To "uncover" a subject is to the opposite of "covering" it. Three types of content typically demand such uncoverage. The content may be *principles, laws, theories,* or *concepts* that are likely to have meaning for a student only if they are seen as sensible and plausible; verify, induce, or justify the content through inquiry and construction. The content may be counterintuitive, nuanced, subtle, or otherwise

> easily misunderstood ideas, such as gravity, evolution, imaginary numbers, irony, texts, formulas, theories, or concepts. The content may be the conceptual or strategic element of any skill (e.g., persuasion in writing or "creating space" in soccer). Such uncoverage involves clarifying effective and efficient means, given the ends of skill, leading to greater purposefulness and less mindless use of techniques. (p. 353)

There is very little that we need to teach in interpreting education programs that requires coverage; our focus necessarily needs to be on "uncoverage" as we help students learn to think, to analyze, to make informed decisions, and to reflect on the impact and effectiveness of those decisions.

Not all educators have shifted to and embraced this paradigm, and certainly not all institutions and communities. Many educators still focus on the basic levels of learning-rote memorization without application, spewing facts, laws, and ethics without an understanding of why these are important. In our field, ASL teachers require students to remember vocabulary because the list of vocabulary is in the current week's lesson. Interpreting teachers focus on students needing to remember parallel vocabulary in two languages and matching them up. Some still count the number of seconds of processing time an interpreter has, rather than looking at why the interpreter has it. Educators need to move away from the perspective that teaching means transferring information and facts, and from the belief that the best teachers "cover" the most content. Educators need to focus on guiding students toward developing critical thinking, decision making, and self-assessment as a primary goal, with every activity, workshop, course and curriculum aimed at actively learning those processes. The broader field of adult education has been growing toward a philosophy of student centered, active learning, to Wiggins and McTighe's concept of "uncoverage." The literature about adult education and effective approaches to education provides exciting information for interpreting educators. There is a growing wealth of literature about learning-based education that can inform our own education practices. Winston (2005) describes a small part of this literature, and encourages interpreting educators to incorporate these approaches into interpreting education. The *Domains and Competencies for Interpreting Educators* (Project TIEM.Online, 2005) reflects the emphasis on critical thinking and active learning embraced by this paradigm shift in higher education.

Active learning requires that people participate in their own learning process, reading, discussing, applying, and integrating what they are learning into their own knowledge and practices. They need to be able to critically analyze information, make justifiable decisions about their actions, and assess their own progress and growth throughout the learning process. Online activities can be an excellent format for encouraging all of these learning processes, contributing to the growth of skills and knowledge for students. Unfortunately, teaching practices, whether aimed at critical thinking and active learning or not, are often transferred to the online environment with little consideration for the learning needs of students. Faculty simply transpose activities and assignments intended for face-to-face classrooms directly to a distance environment, without regard for the exciting opportunities and novel constraints that distance, and especially online environments can offer. Students often join distance courses or programs believing that the work will be easy, and that active participation will be at a minimum. Faculty efforts often result in poorly designed learning experiences, and students have limited opportunities to actually learn.

Activities that incorporate and encourage critical thinking and active learning need to be specifically designed to achieve those learning goals. Educators need to approach their own activity design by explicitly stating these goals, then reflecting on authentic, holistic approaches to achieving them, and only after this should they begin structuring specific activities so that learners are able to build on their existing knowledge, expand their experiences, explore and critically analyze options. Learners need to create their own work, making decisions about their work, and finally they need to assess the effectiveness of their own work. Taking this even further, they need to be able to assess the work of others, and guide them in the same reflective and analytical thinking process they have benefited from. Educators need to instill this in interpreting students.

Essential Skills for Faculty

An essential factor in encouraging life-long learning is having faculty skilled in facilitating this kind of learning, faculty who are comfortable resisting the pressures of students and peers who want, even demand, to be told what to know, memorize, and spew back to the teacher on a test. Even the most effectively designed online learning activity needs a skilled and practiced educator to implement it. Faculty need to experience this kind of learning themselves,

observe skilled facilitators managing discussion, online dynamics, and activity design, and then themselves be mentored in managing activities that encourage learning and exploration.

A fundamental skill is the ability to pose guiding questions rather than provide answers, to kindle active, analytical thinking and reflection rather than to assuage the impatience of those wanting the right answer. There are many avenues for developing these skills. Programs that help people become mentors, coaches, and facilitators abound. A Google search will find dozens of options for the interested teacher. Starcevich (2003) provides one such example on his website for coaching and mentoring, the *Art of Questioning*. Faculty and students alike have found it useful as they learn how to stimulate critical thinking in their students and in their own reflections about their work. This approach to questioning has been adapted to focus on interpreting, and interpreting education (Winston, 2004) and is included here to provide context for the online activity examples provided at the end of this paper.

8 Categories of Questions that can lead to analytical thinking

1. Purpose: *asking about the goal, expectations, or objectives of the interpreter*
   What do you want to happen as a result of our mentoring sessions?
   Why did you choose to accept that assignment?

   My Example:_____

2. Problem: *asking about a specific problem raised in the mentoring*
   What was the problem that occurred when you chose to sit instead of stand?
   Why have you decided that fingerspelling is the cause of your problem?

   My Example:_____

3. Assumptions: *asking about underlying, implicit assumptions being made*
   Why do you assume that fingerspelling is important for this setting?
   What assumptions are you making about learning English when you invent new signs?

   My Example:_____

4. Implications/Consequences: *asking about possible results of choices*
   What is the result of an interpreted class if a student does not know sign language?
   What would happen if you stopped the presenter for clarification at that moment?

   My Example:_____

5. Information: *asking about actual facts or data that support a belief or comment*
   How do you know that the consumer doe not understand use of space in ASL?
   How do you know that no one understood your interpreting?

   My Example:_____

6. Concepts: *asking about what is meant about specific concepts*
   What is your idea of an "effective" interpretation?
   How do you understand the idea of "collaborative" learning?

   My Example:_____

7. Conclusions/Interpretations: *asking about the perspective the person has taken*
   When you see 2 Deaf people signing to each other while you are interpreting, why do you conclude that they don't like you?
   Why do you interpret the teacher's fast pace as a dislike of having an interpreter in the class?

   My Example:_____

8. Point of View: *asking about different possible point of view on a similar topic*
   What do you think is the teacher's role in working with a Deaf student?
   How might the Deaf student want to respond in that situation?

   My Example:_____

Adapted from: Mentoring: The Art of Questioning. Matt M. Starcevich, Ph.D.,©2003
Center for Coaching and Mentoring, Inc. Retrieved from http://coachingandmentoring.com

Encouraging Active Learning Online

The panel discussion and activity to be conducted during the CIT conference will be an opportunity for participants to actively explore the many ways that active learning, critical thinking, decision making, and self-assessment are effectively incorporated into online learning environments. Distance faculty with experience in teaching interpreting, mentoring, and pedagogy will share their approaches to enhancing active learning online. Panel members will analyze a variety of online activities that encourage learners to meet these goals. Participants will be invited to share, in small groups, teaching activities that they would like to analyze and possibly re-structure for online learning, and in fact, to foster active learning in any activity, be it online or on-ground.

Active learning can happen in many types of activities. The activities can be individual and independent, or group-based collaborations; they can foster analysis, decision-making, assessment, self-assessment, or interaction; they can include all of those goals, or any one or two. They are integrated into the whole course or program, and rarely stand alone within the context of learning. The remainder of this paper offers two specific examples of online activities that spark active learning, and that have been designed with just that goal in mind. These activities, in various permutations, have been incorporated into online interpreting education courses by the author, and have resulted in exciting learning and growth in both students and the instructor.

Collaborative Activities: Active learning activities can be undertaken collaboratively. Learners collaborate with group members to accomplish projects and goals, and participate and contribute actively as a group member. They are expected to meet responsibilities as a group member, and to provide feedback about their own and others' work in both small and large groups. Some examples of collaborative activities are:

- Group assessment of skills, either language or interpreting: Prior to working independently on many new skills, learners can work collaboratively to learn how to prepare assessments of language skills, interpreting skills, and interaction skills.
- Mentoring practice online: While many doubt the possibility for mentoring online, practice in this environment offers some interesting and valuable opportunities. In the same way that the time-constraints of translation and consecutive interpreting practice strengthen and hone an interpreter's ability to transfer meaning effectively, so does the time constraint of mentoring via chatroom or text messaging hone mentoring skills. Learners are able to reflect before reacting, to think of alternatives before jumping in to answer, and to experience the value of waiting time in mentoring settings.
- Materials preparation: Learners can cooperate to identify criteria for effective materials creation, then create the materials, share them with classmates, and receive analytical, reflective input about their work. Likewise, they can prepare reflective feedback on others' work.
- Discourse mapping: Students can progress through the entire discourse mapping process, preparing some aspects, such as individual maps of texts, independently, while participating within groups to compare, discuss, assess, and reflect on the text structures that each brings to the discussion. Discourse mapping, itself a series of active learning challenges, sparks learning whether it is offered online or face-to-face.[1]

Individual Activities: Active learning activities can also be designed to be undertaken individually. These require that learners take the initiative to search out answers, create study time, prepare for discussions and assignments, and add value to course discussions. Individual

[1] Winston and Monikowski (2000, 2005) have adapted their discourse mapping approach for both online and face-to-face courses.

activities are often valuable after learners have practiced a skill together in a group. However, they can also be scheduled prior to group work, with learners exploring resources to bring to group activities. Examples of such independent activities include:

- Guided reading: Faculty provide guidance and suggestions about how to read and organize their understandings of the course text, and about types of questions learners can pose for themselves about the readings; using these guides, learners then study the texts in order to learn through them.
- Preparation of weekly discussion postings: Learners reflect individually upon what they have learned, and on questions they have, and prepare their reflections as postings to the course. They might use any number of resources to contribute to their reflections, including other's input and postings.
- Assessment of skills: Learners can practice independently assessing the language and/or interpreting skills of themselves, and/or of others.
- Feedback and input to others: Learners can independently craft reflective commentary and feedback to others in the course

At first glance, many of these might seem to be the same activities used in any course. And that is the point, they are. They are activities that encourage analysis, decisions about relevant (and irrelevant information), and reflection on the value of their decisions. The difference, when adequately prepared for online learning, is that students must take the extra step of preparing statements to be shared. While the occasional student will post work without thinking, most find that the impact of seeing their work in public, for all to analyze, encourages them to deeper analysis and reflection than spur-of-the-moment comments made in class might require.

There is one place where online active learning activities usually differ significantly from their counterparts in on-ground courses, however. When preparing activities specifically as online activities, care must be taken to craft the instructions, the interactions, and the requirements to accommodate turn-around times, various schedules, and time zone differences. The design, and the designer, must take into account the distance in both time and space that learners have from the instructor and from each other. Instructions must include step-by-step, explicit information about many aspects of the activity, including due dates, acceptable and unacceptable formats, clear turn-around times, and submission requirements. Many students and

teachers have years of experience with this on the ground; online courses present a sometimes steep learning curve of unexpected challenges: how to format fonts, how to attach information, how to explore resources via e-libraries and so on. Thus, perhaps one of the biggest barriers to effective online activities is neither the active learning hoped for nor the online environment itself. It is the shift from giving directions with a few words, a smile and a nod, to explicit and complete information that is available to everyone at all times.

Below, I share two examples of activities designed to encourage active learning that have been structured specifically for online learning. The first is a complex, yet, effective approach for online discussions. As learners and faculty become habituated to the patterns of the online format, discussions shift from stilted, self-conscious essays to flowing, deeply reflective discussions about important issues. The topics and concepts are no longer simply "covered" in the discussions. They are uncovered, as Wiggins and McTighe would say.

The second example is a skills assessment and mentoring activity. It is in fact a series of activities that build from one assignment to the next. First, learners practice assessing samples of interpreting in small groups. Following discussion and input from the class, they practice again individually. They then again post their work to the class for input and discussion. Finally, they begin to practice mentoring, incorporating learning-centered questioning techniques in an online format.

As you read through the examples, take note of the information that is explicit, specific and highly structured (e.g., due dates, format, quantities) and of the information that is left to the student to explore, mold, and experiment with (e.g., journals, individual appointments, specific topics for discussions). The two primary goals of the CIT presentation will be to analyze these for the ways that they encourage active learning and critical thinking, and for their similarities and differences to more traditional active learning activities that occur in face-to-face classes.

1. Course discussion: In many on-ground courses, discussion is hardly a factor. Faculty debate the value of grading it at all because it is difficult to manage and justify. They often give up trying to have discussions, because so often students, assigned to read materials prior to a class discussion, have not, or have not done so with any depth or analysis. Participation grades are often lumped into attendance, and the presence of a warm body is enough to satisfy the grading criteria for participation.

Discussions held online, when structured to encourage and support active learning, open a door to a wealth of new learning, exploration, and excitement in learners. The temptation to teach, to produce, to ***do*** something, can be very strong in on-ground classes, where the silence of students not participating can be overwhelming and intimidating.

Online discussions, especially in asynchronous formats, provide an excellent opportunity for teachers to allow silence, and the time for students to think, and can require that each student, not just the vocal few, participate with thoughtful commentaries that encourage reflective thought. Rather than being a small and inconvenient part of the overall assessment of the course, discussions can reflect the depth of student learning, and can become a major part of the assessment. Compared to on-ground discussions, assessing the quality and depth of posted discussion is easily documented and supported.

Structuring discussions online can be complex. It is essential that students have clear, explicit criteria for participating in such discussions, especially when they first experience online learning. Information about quality of content, depth of discussion, average lengths of postings, number and frequency of postings, all provide students with structure and knowledge about online interactions. A sample set of instructions is offered below, as one example of how online discussions can be structured to encourage critical thinking and active learning. During the CIT workshop, panelists and participants will be able to discuss the various options, requirements, and impact of these online activities for developing critical thinking. Discussion will center around the individual and group collaborations this activity includes, and the critical thinking, decision-making, and assessment encouraged through this activity.

Example 1

Instructions: Course Discussions = 40% of Final Grade

Purpose: To promote critical thinking and reflective analysis about the readings and course content and to help you synthesize your thinking on a variety of topics within the readings (and beyond!).

The course and group discussions are yours, and the goal is to foster collaborative learning with your peers. To get the most benefit you need to participate. When someone poses a question, you need to try to respond to it. Each of you has valuable insights and perceptions to bring to the group. The purpose is not a simple question and answer interchange; you are looking to explore the ideas and investigate new information. My role in these discussions is to facilitate, oversee, and guide; I will not

be responding to each of your comments and questions during these discussions.

Students will:

- Read ALL postings to the Bulletin Board and your assigned discussion group. You are responsible for all announcements, information, course changes, etc. that are posted here, as well as for the discussions about the topic.
- Demonstrate synthesis and integration of the information in the readings by responding to discussion questions.
- Discuss the information with others through comments and feedback to them in forums or assigned discussion groups as directed. These discussions need to occur in a frequent and regular manner.

Resources: Course readings, additional resources you have found from the Web, newspapers, personal experience, peer feedback.

Directions: You need to post a minimum of 4 postings per week during the course. The specific requirements for posting are described below, and are a bit complicated at first glance, but the intention is to encourage frequent and regular discussion. Once you get the sense of the pattern and flow of online discussions, these directions will seem less complex.

NOTE: The quality and correctness of your English grammar and writing are not graded in discussions. Although your postings must be clear and well-organized, the written English will not be graded. It is graded in all written assignments like the final paper.

Preparing and posting original comments

1. Compose 2 clear, organized, original comments each week. These should stay within a 3-4 paragraph limit for each comment.
2. The quality of your participation is essential. Make sure your participation adds to the growth of knowledge and discussion within your group!
3. At various times in the semester, you will be assigned an activity. Your discussion postings can focus on what you are learning from these activities.
4. You will be graded on the quality and appropriateness of your responses (see grading criteria explanation below).

Commenting on other's postings

1. Read the responses of others in your group and comment upon 2 of them. You need to demonstrate that you have considered the responses and integrated the comments of others.
2. Postings that say simply "I agree with Jane Doe!" do not demonstrate thought, integration, or synthesis and will not be counted for your grade. (Please feel free to make brief, supportive

comments during the discussion! Just understand that they won't count toward your grade.)

3. You may also post a web site review (a maximum of 4 during the course). If you find an interesting site related to the topic of the week, share it with the class. Let us know where to find it, why and how it is related to the course, and post your analytical review of the content of the site.

Grading Criteria for class discussion

1. Quality of participation: Your responses will be evaluated as acceptable (following the above criteria) or not acceptable (does not follow the above criteria).

AND

2. Quantity of participation: the total number of acceptable postings per each deadline.

You are welcome to post as many comments as you would like! Discussion is encouraged, and the "rules" are designed to keep discussion going, not stifle it. However, I have established some base-line criteria in order to foster ongoing discussion. A maximum of 4 postings per week will be counted (two originals and two responses to others). In order for all four to be counted, they must be posted at regular and frequent intervals. This is intended to avoid all discussion postings being done at the last minute, with no discussion in between due dates! If you post 4 early in the week they can be counted; if you post all on the last day or two occasionally, they might be; if you always post at the last minute, they will not be counted. Why? Discussion requires that YOU participate, not just take advantage of other people's insights and input.

The explicit, written nature of these instructions is what most often differentiates them from face-to-face instructions, and is one factor that makes designing online activities so difficult for many faculty.

2. Online Mentoring: Many contend that mentoring can only be effective in face-to-face interactions. That is an argument for another day. This activity is intended to help people practice mentoring, to get used to the time needed for waiting, for letting the mentee become engaged, and for reflection before commenting. The activity itself is taken from within a larger context of an entire mentoring program; some of the instructions are no longer as explicit as they might need to be in the beginning. Students have become acclimatized to online interactions, and have developed an understanding of many of the “how’s” of online interaction.

Example 2

Assessing Interpreting and Mentoring Interpreters

(3 week assignment = 15% of course grade)

Week 1: Prepare an individual assessment of your own interpreting sample. Post your assessment to the entire class by the final day of Wk. 1, by noon ET.

Week 2:

- Discuss and comment on the Interpreting Assessments posted by other people in the class. You should look at a minimum of 2.
- Using the input from the discussions, prepare an assessment of your assigned partner's interpreting sample. Post that assessment to the class by the final day of Wk. 2, by noon ET.

Week 3: Hold mentoring appointments with the interpreter whose work you assessed in Wk. 2. You need to set up 2 appointments with each other. In one, you will act as mentor, working with the individual interpreting assessment that your partner posted. In the other, you will act as the mentee, using the interpreting assessment you prepared for your own sample.

NOTE: For this week, you are welcome to set up appointments as you wish. The appointment should last for 45-60 minutes in the course chat room. You may also use other means for meeting if you prefer: AOL chat room, videophone, etc. Use of telephone with voice-only communication is not an accepted medium. The only requirement is that the communication be directly accessible for Deaf people (chat rooms: written English; videophone: signing only). Even if you and your partner are both hearing, this is a good time to remember and practice inclusive approaches of communication. I strongly recommend that you do not do them back-to-back. You have all experienced the fatigue of these meetings.

Mentor Role: Your goal as mentor is to work with the mentee to find strengths and areas needing improvement in the posted assessment (not in the interpreting sample), and in her/his assessment skills. You should also work with your mentee to determine how she/he might present this information to the interpreter.

Mentee Role: Your goal as mentee is to work with the mentor on understanding your skills in assessing an interpreting sample, to discuss your strengths and areas of discomfort or areas you want direction or help. You should be prepared to contribute throughout this discussion with your ideas.

Journals: You will need to post a journal to your small group facilitator within 48 hours of each meeting. The requirements and criteria are the same as before, when you mentored each other for the Language Assessments.

The two activities described above, with instructions prepared for online participation, are examples provided to launch the CIT conference discussions. We will analyze the ways that these spark critical thinking, require decision-making, and then require assessment and self-assessment, reflective online interactions with peers. Panel members will share other activities and participants will be able to analyze an activity of their own for its potential as an effective online activity.

About the author

Betsy Winston is the Director of the National Interpreter Education Center at Northeastern University, and coordinates the activities of the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers. She is actively involved in the design, development and implementation of the Masters in Interpreting Pedagogy program there. She holds a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from Georgetown University, an MA in Linguistics from Gallaudet University, and an M.Ed. in Technology and Learning from Western Governors University.

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Effective Practices in Mentoring: Closing the Gap and Easing the Transition

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Abstract

Mentoring is touted as a way to close the gap, and to ease the transition to work for interpreting students. It is also used by seasoned interpreters who value on-going growth and life-long learning. This presentation presents information about current and effective practices in mentoring that are being offered nation-wide.

Introduction to Our Goals

Mentoring has become a familiar buzz word in recent years, with workshops, courses, and academic programs becoming available for interpreters. As students continue to graduate from interpreting programs with gaps in their skills, and with the transition from program to profession sometimes difficult to make, mentoring has been touted as a way to close the gap, and to ease the transition. It is also used, albeit much less frequently, by seasoned, certified interpreters who value on-going growth and life-long learning.

The term, mentoring, is applied to many different behaviors, actions, and goals. People have been "mentoring" for many years. In fact, few people agree about what "mentoring" really

means, who should do it, or what the people who in engage it should be called. The National Consortium of Interpreting Education Canters (NCIEC) is in the process of identifying current mentoring resources and practices, with the goal of establishing effective practices in our field. The National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers is a recently established institution in our field. Formerly a group of loosely affiliated grant programs that provided regional and local workshops and trainings in the US, the group has joined forces to provide more extensive and effective education, training and programming opportunities to interpreters and interpreting educators across the US.

A major goal of the NCIEC is to identify effective practices in our field, and an important initiative is the area of mentoring. The NCIEC mentoring team is conducting several inter-related activities that 1) identify current and/or potentially promising practices; 2) evaluate them for effectiveness in mentoring; and 3) implement them appropriately across the US, meeting the needs of the field across a variety of settings and populations. To this end, several activities have been launched, including the dissemination of two surveys targeting mentors and mentees, focus groups, and materials and resources reviews. At the time of writing, most of these activities have not concluded, and reporting results is not possible. In this paper, the types of activities are described, and preliminary findings from a few are shared. Results of these activities, as available in October, will be reported during the CIT conference presentation, and will be available to augment this paper thru the Mentoring Resource website.

At the time of this writing, [1] nation-wide needs assessments were being disseminated and analyzed, and focus groups consisting of mentoring experts were being convened around current and effective practices in mentoring. The conference presentation will provide information about results of these investigations into effective practices in mentoring, and will engage participants in explorations of mentoring, mentoring needs, and mentoring services in their areas. We look for those administrators and program directors who attend to discuss how such practices as mentoring, peer mentoring, diagnostics, tutoring toward credentialing, and coaching, are being and can be integrated into interpreting programs, into practicums and internships for interpreting students, and into continuing education for working interpreters. Results of the CIT discussion

[1] This Proceedings paper was written to meet the publication deadlines for the 2006 CIT conference. Updated information will be provided during the presentation at the CIT conference in October, 2006. For copies of all additional information presented, please contact the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers (NCIEC) at www.asl.neu.edu/nciec

will be available at the NCIEC website. Readers are encouraged to access the site to add to the information provided in this paper.

Identifying and Assessing Effective Practices in Mentoring

The process of identifying and assessing effective practices in mentoring requires extensive investigation and study, both inside our field, and outside. It is essential to understand the broader context of mentoring in education and business, current practices and expectations in our field today, to assess the effectiveness of those current practices, to investigate and stimulate new ideas, and to implement those practices that are effective. In an on-going cycle, the assessment of the effectiveness of practices continues after implementation, with the goal of providing continuous feedback that informs and results in improvement in mentoring and mentoring practices.

Reviewing Existing Information

There are several sources of existing information to explore. The first step in our process is to identify those practices that are happening, and then to evaluate them for their effectiveness. The NCIEC Mentoring team is currently identifying the many existing sources of information available about mentoring, both within our field and outside of it. We are compiling this information through materials and resource searches, local, regional and national focus groups, and through two nationally disseminated surveys, one targeting mentors and one targeting mentees.

In addition to identifying existing resources and information, we are collecting input from participants in the focus groups, and on the surveys, about their opinions, beliefs and expectations for mentoring. As we identify existing practices, we will begin to evaluate them for their effectiveness for improving the quality of interpreting in our field.

One of the first sources of existing information about mentoring to be reviewed is the Standard Practice Paper (SPP) from RID. The Professional Standards Committee of RID, between 1993-1995, developed the Standard Practice Paper about mentoring, publishing it in 1996. RID is currently updating this paper. It should be understood that the RID SPP's are explicitly intended to reflect existing practices happening at the time the papers are developed. They make no claim about the effectiveness or adequacy of the practices that exist. Thus, while

the current, and up-coming SPP on mentoring will provide a mirror reflecting what IS happening in our field, it will not claim that such practices are effective or adequate.

The current SPP for mentoring states that, for our field, "…mentoring is a goal-oriented relationship between two interpreters; a mentor and a second individual…who seeks to learn and grow through association with that mentor. The mentor has more experience, skill or knowledge, either of interpreting in general, or of some specific aspect of interpreting" (RID 1996). RID describes mentoring as a way to augment, but not substitute for, formal interpreter education programs.

RID further states that "each mentoring situation is unique, depending on the individuals involved and the goals of the relationship….Common to all successful mentorships is mutual commitment to professional growth." (RID 1996)

At the time of this writing, RID was just beginning to convene a new group to review and revise the SPP for mentoring. Their work will provide valuable input for our own activities as we strive to evaluate mentoring practices that currently exist for their effectiveness. With an increased understanding of mentoring as it is currently being offered, and a set of established practices in mentoring, interpreters, both novice and seasoned, will be able to continue to learn and grow, and as a result, offer more effective services to consumers who rely on the highest quality of interpreting.

NCIEC Mentor and Mentee Surveys

The NCIEC mentoring team developed two surveys for and about mentoring. The first, the Interpreter Mentor Survey, has been successfully piloted and is being prepared for national dissemination. The second, the Interpreter Mentee Survey, is being prepared to pilot, and will be disseminated nationally after that. Due to their length, neither is duplicated in this paper; however, each may be accessed through the NCIEC website at www.asl.neu.edu/nciec.

Interpreter Mentor Survey

This survey is exceptionally long (74 questions), and required approximately 15-20 minutes to complete it. Yet input from open-ended comments consistently indicated that respondents were eager to complete it, and appreciated the opportunity to provide input in this somewhat isolated area of expertise. This survey was initially tested on 8 mentors, revised based

on feedback, and piloted on a group of 22 mentors around the US. These mentors were identified by the six interpreter education centers as leaders in mentoring practices in their respective regions.

The survey collects information in several essential topics: mentor demographics, training in mentoring, experiences as a mentor, opinions about effective mentoring, and finally, mentor's own experiences being mentored. Although the entire survey is not reproduced here, the section asking opinions about effective practices is offered for your review. During the CIT presentation, we hope to cover these questions, and the entire survey, in our discussions with participants.

Your Thoughts Regarding Effective Practices in Mentoring

55. Several terms have been used to describe the individual who receives mentoring services. How do you refer to the individual you mentor?
- ☐ mentee
- ☐ protégé
- ☐ other _____

56. Is there a term other than mentee/protégé that is better suited to the individual receiving mentoring services?
- ☐ yes, it is _____
- ☐ no, satisfied with the term I currently use

57. What <u>top three</u> factors do you feel contribute to an individual's reluctance to utilize mentor services?
- ☐ personal insecurity about one's interpreting ability
- ☐ not enough trained mentors in the area
- ☐ interpreter's perception that skills are fully developed and not necessary of improvement
- ☐ lack of understanding of the mentorship process by the mentee/protégé
- ☐ lack of understanding of the mentorship process by the IEP educators
- ☐ lack of self-perception of the need to enhance skills
- ☐ negative past experience as a mentee/protégé
- ☐ lack of understanding on how to obtain a mentor
- ☐ lack of financial resources
- ☐ inadequate/insufficient advertising of mentorship services
- ☐ other _____

58. What do you feel the minimum qualifications should be for a mentor (check all that apply)?
- ☐ experience as an interpreter educator
- ☐ certification
- ☐ mentor training
- ☐ a minimum number of years working the field How many years? _____
- ☐ academic credentials:
  - ☐ AA/AS
  - ☐ BA/BS
  - ☐ M.A/M.S.
  - ☐ other _____

59. What do you feel is the minimum number of training/credit hours required for an individual to obtain the knowledge and skills needed to conduct effective mentorships?
- ☐ an intensive weekend course is adequate
- ☐ while an academic quarter or semester course would be desirable, 20-30 hours of intensive training is adequate
- ☐ no less than one semester is adequate
- ☐ no less than two semesters is adequate
- ☐ no less than a certificate program of at least two semesters is adequate
- ☐ other _____

60. In which formats do you feel training of mentors is <u>most effectively</u> offered?
- ☐ face-to-face training only
- ☐ online only

- ☐ blended training
- ☐ any and all formats can be effective

61. Do you feel that mentors should undergo a certification process similar to interpreter certification?

- ☐ yes
- ☐ no

62. Do you believe that a formal, objective diagnostic process should be a part of the mentorship process?

- ☐ Mentorships should have the latitude to be structured between the mentor and mentee/ protégé without outside influence.
- ☐ Diagnostic information would be helpful as the mentor and mentee/protégé design a mentorship.
- ☐ Mentorships should always use trained diagnosticians and diagnostic information as the guide to the development of a mentorship.
- ☐ other _____

63. If someone were to ask you, what the state of the mentorship experience is today, how would you answer? (Check all that apply)

- ☐ unknown to most interpreters in the field
- ☐ recognized as "existing" but misunderstood by most
- ☐ perceived by many as an excellent way to improve skill but most would not seek it out
- ☐ an activity more and more interpreters seek out on a regular basis

63. Do you agree with this statement? "Mentorship is considered one of the best methods or tools for enhancing skills of working interpreters and closing the readiness gap for recent graduates."

- ☐ Strongly agree
- ☐ agree
- ☐ disagree
- ☐ strongly disagree

64. What do you believe are the trends in the supply and demand for mentors?

- ☐ Mentoring is an activity that has seen its time and the supply is greater than the demand.
- ☐ Today's mentors are able to meet tomorrow's demand for mentorships.
- ☐ Mentoring services will grow at a slow and steady pace and therefore an additional cadre of mentors will be needed.
- ☐ Mentorship requests far outpace the supply of trained mentors and will only continue to grow at a rapid pace.

65. What do you consider to be key elements in effective practices in mentoring? (Please list)

_____

_____

_____

_____

66. What additional philosophies do you bring to mentoring?

_____

_____

The Mentee Survey covers similar topics, and is looking for information from the Mentee's perspective. We look forward to your input during our presentation.

NCIEC Focus Groups

The NCIEC Mentoring team is also planning and conducting focus groups around the country. As of this writing, one national focus group has been held. Mentors from around the US were identified by the Regional and National Interpreter Education Centers and invited to participate in the discussions. Approximately 40 mentors were identified for their leading work in mentoring, and attended a 3-day discussion in Boston in June 2006. Topics of the focused discussions included an extensive discussion about existing practices, identification of practices that appeared effective, and some emerging definitions of what mentoring is and is not. This group is continuing in an online discussion of these topics, and will be involved with identifying additional mentoring resources within their home areas. This national focus group, with many mentoring leaders attending, serves as the first of many that the NCIEC will host on this important topic. If you are interested in learning more, or in participating in some way, please join us at our presentation, or contact any of us through the NCIEC website at www.asl.neu.edu/nciec.

About the author

Betsy Winston is the Director of the National Interpreter Education Center at Northeastern University, and coordinates the activities of the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers. She is actively involved in the design, development and implementation of the Masters in Interpreter Pedagogy program there. She holds a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics from Georgetown University, an MA in Linguistics from Gallaudet University, and an M.Ed. in Technology and Learning from Western Governors University. Dr. Winston serves as the leader of the NCIEC Mentoring Project Team, which is responsible for designing and implementing the efforts reported here.

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Effective Practices for Establishing Mentoring Programs

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Signs of Development
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Abstract

This presentation explores the various options for developing mentoring projects. The specific emphasis is on effective practices for providing initial program training to participants, ideal organizational structure of training, participants, and presentation curriculum. With the explosion of mentoring programs and funding nationwide, there exists a rush to take advantage of these funding options. Additionally, certification and licensing requirements by many states are providing an additional motivation for interpreters seeking credentials to seek out mentoring and ways to advance skills in a potentially limited time. The presenters have provided numerous trainings to various states and organizations and through those experiences, have explored a number of options for the optimal framework and training for mentoring programs. They will share their philosophy on mentoring and the effective practices for a team of Deaf/Hearing presenters.

There is a great deal of discussion nationally on the issue of the "gap" between graduation and qualification, and ways to approach closing the gap. Qualification may be viewed as employability, certification, assessment, or some other measure deemed appropriate by those contracting with or hiring interpreters. Nationally, states are recognizing that providing a workshop based on a cursory needs assessment of interpreters has fallen woefully short of closing skill gaps necessary to increase the pool of those qualified to interpret for Deaf and hard of hearing adults and children. Of the many interventions available to address skill gaps and human performance issues, among the systematic approaches, one effective approach to professional development is formal mentoring.

States and statewide organizations are beginning to accept mentoring programs as a viable avenue to providing a meaningful individualized system for professional development instead of the "one-size-fits-all" approach of a workshop. There can and have been a variety of ways to establish a structured, formal program. This paper explains an effective process for establishing a successful program. The authors have been involved in mentoring for over 50 years combined. Having both graduated from and taught in the only formal, academic program for mentoring for interpreters, the Master Mentor Program (MMP), their expertise stems from mentoring every graduate of the MMP with the development of the required mentorship project. Both have also developed and administered mentoring projects and training for their own practice. Of recent, their work has focused on assisting states and state organizations with the development, provision, administration, and refinement of mentoring projects.

Effective programs include:

1. Comprehensive training to initiate a mentoring program lasting at least two days, optimally three.
    - Rationale: Mentors begin with an icebreaker serving a multiple purpose, followed by an introduction to the Vygotskian approach to mentoring, experience mentoring and being mentored, concepts of meta-mentoring, its applications and uses, development of a 3+3 self-assessment, determination of cause vs. symptoms, effective questioning techniques, and guidance on developing skill activities. Training days are maximally effective when they are 4-6 hours in length. To enable mentors to absorb the amount of information while applying it,

needs to happen over a series of days so as not to reach overload and an inability to benefit from the entire training. Additional training can be provided to focus more directly on skill building activity development, portfolio development, etc.

2. A team of mentors: one Deaf and one hearing.
    - Rationale: Mentors and interpreters who seek mentoring benefit enormously from a dual-perspective approach. Deaf people who have the potential and desire to become a mentor are more likely to become involved when there is a Deaf-trained mentor providing the training.
3. Training for mentees.
    - Rationale: There has been a shift in the paradigm for effective mentoring. Because of that, mentees may be coming to the mentoring relationship with goals that may not be congruent with the new paradigm. To facilitate a successful mentoring relationship, mentees begin with an icebreaker similar to mentors to be used later in the training. Training is provided on the new paradigm and will allow mentors to provide their services more effectively and efficiently.
4. A mechanism for support for newly trained mentors via distance or face-to-face sessions.
    - Rationale: Mentors, having been trained, need both a support group of like-minded and trained mentors as well as input from experienced mentors. As they begin to apply their new knowledge, this type of support can help to address concerns, frustrations, provide additional guidance, etc.
5. Project duplicability.
    - Rationale: For a project to take life and to have a notable return on investment, the project should be able to replicate itself. This replication enables organizations to stretch their initial monetary investment over several years. It is always beneficial for the hosting organization to capitalize on the training provided to participants and to provide ways for the program to grow and expand exponentially on a limited initial investment.
6. Program Measurement.
    - Rationale: Projects should contain measurements of effectiveness that are both qualitative and quantitative.

To that end, the authors have developed a mentoring program and processes that have far-reaching benefits to states especially duplicability. It is hoped that this structure can provide guidance to states and organizations with establishing viable mentoring programs with longevity as its central goal.

The primary objective and philosophical foundation for this training is best summarized by an initial PowerPoint slide shown to all groups at the outset of mentoring training:

Give me a fish, I eat for a day.

Teach me to fish, I feed myself (and others) for a lifetime.

Goals & objectives for establishing effective mentorship programs to consider are:

Goal I – Train 20 mentors from various regions of the state. Mentors will:

1. Be able to demonstrate effective mentoring techniques via a mentee-centered approach;
2. Understand the mentoring cycle;
3. Be able to articulate the benefits of and the need for portfolio segments;
4. Be able to incorporate strategies to address various learning styles and preferences;
5. Understand the critical element of cause versus symptom analysis;
6. Be able to develop meaningful skill activities; and
7. Be able to assist in the development of independent study plans.

Goal II – Provide overview of the mentoring process to 20 interpreter mentees from various regions of the state. Mentees will:

1. Embrace the need for and be able to develop portfolios;
2. Understand the mentoring process via a mentee-centered approach;
3. Be able to articulate the obligations, responsibilities, and rights of the mentoring participants: mentors and mentees;
4. Understand the essentials of self-assessment and the need for the cause versus symptom analysis;

5. Be able to develop a 3+3 assessment, 3 effective patterns and 3 challenging patterns, and prioritize challenges on which to focus (foundational skills versus narrow-gap closure approach); and
6. Be able to develop an independent study plan and participate in skill development activities that are meaningful and realistic in scope.

Goal III – Mentors mentor a minimum of 2 interpreter mentees. Mentors will:

1. Provide on-going mentoring to 2 interpreter mentees in their respective areas in the six months following comprehensive mentoring training, including:
   - Promotion of mentoring services,
   - Identification of potential mentees,
   - Interview and selection of mentees,
   - Development of the mentoring relationship,
   - Articulation of duties, obligations, responsibilities, etc.,
   - Be available a minimum of 2-3 hours per month to meet with mentees, and
   - Provide meta-mentoring and oversight to at least one mentor in next six-month cycle;
2. Provide meta-mentoring and support to a newly trained mentor in the second half of the cycle;
3. Provide on-going mentoring to one interpreter mentee in the second half of the cycle;
4. Develop independent study plans for themselves as mentors for certificate of completion and CEUs for themselves as applicable;
5. Participate in online listserv discussions regarding the mentoring process as it is applied;
6. Participate in mentor training providing services as a meta-mentor in second-level mentor training;
7. Develop a program in their respective regions repeating the processes in Phase I-III:
   - Provide mentor training to new mentors in Phase III,
   - Provide mentoring support to newly trained mentors, and

- Continue to mentor at least one new mentee every six months; and

8. Provide six-month and one-year reports on program activities, successes, feedback, measurement statistics determined by the host organization, and evaluation.

Goal IV – Mentees will participate in the mentoring relationship. Mentees will:

1. Be able and willing to commit and work a minimum of 2 hours per week on skill development activities for six months;
2. Be responsible and take control of the mentoring relationship;
3. Provide on-going and end-of-program evaluation of evaluation process; and
4. Maintain a journal of mentoring activities.

The structure of the program is a process to train mentors and mentees simultaneously. The goal for this is to ensure that the mentoring participants begin with a similar base of knowledge, expectations, and understanding of the philosophical approach to mentoring. This structure has proven successful and a time-saving benefit. It has also bypassed potential conflicts that may arise from mentors utilizing an approach to mentoring for which mentees may not understand or have been prepared.

Two trainers are utilized for every phase of the initial one-year process. It is maximally effective to utilize one Deaf and one hearing trainer. This combination of trainers encourages and provides a number of benefits:

1. All participants understand and benefit from translating all spoken English source materials for visual accessibility;
2. Deaf members of the community are more encouraged to participate and become mentors for interpreters (not only language mentors); and
3. Participants are able to experience first-hand the ability, effectiveness, and potential of Deaf mentors.

Candidates for training are selected by the host organization. Criteria may be membership in the organization, certification (or lack thereof) at a certain level or a particular type, regional, employment or other affiliations, a combination of factors, or others as deemed appropriate by the host organization.

Phase I

An initial training schedule provides sufficient time for:

1. Training to mentors;
2. Training to mentees;
3. Relationship-building; and
4. Mentoring.

The most effective schedule that captures and enables all of the aforementioned needs has been:

Friday – all day training to Mentors exclusively;

Saturday – all day training to Mentors and Mentees separately with a final meet-and-greet hour at the conclusion of the day; and

Sunday – 1/2 day provided for mentoring sessions, wrap-up, and evaluations.

Not included in the formal schedule but from experience, social time has been enormously beneficial and effective. Training provided to the Texas Society of Interpreters for the Deaf (TSID) recently was held at the Southwest Collegiate Institute for the Deaf (SWCID) in Big Spring, Texas. SWCID provided dorm and meeting space (as well as other services) to assist TSID in providing the training to participants at a significantly reduced cost. Because Big Spring is a small community, the majority of the time after training hours was spent in the dorm lobby. This provided for additional time for prospective mentors and mentees to get to know each other on a less formal basis and to begin to form bonds that strengthen the mentoring process post-training.

This initial training is followed by six months of mentoring provided by the trained mentors to the trained (and possibly untrained) mentees. Support is provided via a listserv during this time by one or both of the trainers to ensure that questions, concerns, conflicts, etc. are addressed and for mentors to have a place to discuss issues with each other as they apply the mentoring concepts. This listserv discussion will provide the basis for future training of the mentors to become meta-mentors and trainers.

Phase II

A second "round" of training is held. This second phase has the intent to prepare those who formerly received mentoring training to develop skills as a meta-mentor (a concept developed in the MMP) and to acquire the skills and knowledge needed to provide mentoring training in their own areas for Phase III. Previously trained mentees are selected to return to receive mentoring training as well as those potential mentors who have been identified by the host organization and who were unable to attend Phase I.

Similar considerations need to be addressed for training days and times for Phase II with an additional need. Training time separate from mentor training needs to be provided the previously-trained mentors to facilitate their participation in Phase II mentor training as meta-mentors. To ensure that there is ample time, an additional 1/2 day is required to ensure that there is no loss in training time to the other groups. The most effective schedule that captures and enables all of the aforementioned needs is:

Thursday – 1/2 day training to Meta-Mentors/Trainers exclusively;

Friday – all day training to Mentors exclusively;

Saturday – all day training to Mentors and Mentees separately with a final meet-and-greet hour at the conclusion of the day; and

Sunday – 1/2 day provided for mentoring sessions, wrap-up, and evaluations.

Subsequent to this training, an additional listserv must be developed for the newly trained meta-mentors who will now provide the support and mentoring to the Phase II trained mentors. The trainers then become an access point only to the Meta-Mentors to provide support as they move up the tier in the process. This additional listserv will also begin to address needs for training new mentors and establishing a mentorship program in their respective areas.

Phase III

At the conclusion of Phase II, the Meta-Mentors become trainers and in a more regional approach, will provide training similar to Phases I & II. This regional training concept will train previously trained mentors on meta-mentoring and preparing them eventually to provide training to new mentors.

This program, as it is developed has limitless possibility for duplicability. With an initial investment of funds to train mentors and meta-mentors, the program has the potential to blanket a state with trained mentors within a period of a few years. A cost/benefit analysis of one of the programs provided by this training team was:

Totals for one year:
Mentors trained: minimum 40
Mentees receiving mentoring: minimum 50

Training cost per person for an entire one-year project was approximately $19,500 or $216 per person. For additional years, the estimated costs per person decrease the initial investment by spreading out the value of the initial training to more trained mentors and mentees.

Philosophical Framework

Before discussing the philosophical framework, the definition of mentoring needs to be considered. At the first Mentoring symposium, participants were invited to collaborate and develop a working definition of mentoring. Thus the following definition is now used as an underlying premise towards effective practices of teaching mentoring: Mentoring is "an interdependent, collaborative relationship formed with the intention of professional development for one or more participants" (Mentoring Symposium, 2006).

Vygotsky had a strong influence on constructivism. His perspective is that there is always a relationship with what the student, in this case the mentee, already knows and what needs to be known, in other words, learned. With problem-based learning, students are able to apply self-assessment, thus there is not a need for a time-consuming diagnostic evaluation by the teachers (mentors). From this structure and for inquiry purposes that were conveyed in the beginning, students are able to begin a questioning process through dialogues or group discussions. Developing skills for the inquiry of each other, the students see the value of reflecting further upon what they were working (Harland, 2003).

Vygotsky became a leading proponent in collaborative learning as he constructed his theory based on cognitive development. This theory centers around the concept of the zone of proximal development. He defined it as:

> the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more knowledgeable others (Doolittle, 1995, p. 3).

With this concept as the premise for learning, the students progress with a structured activity and/or with the teacher's support, and learn how to do the work with less guidance from the teachers and, gradually, go on their own independently.

Constructivism, based on Vygotsky's theories, plays a major role in language acquisition and developing requisite skills for interpreting. As adult learners, the students/mentees construct meaning of life through experiences, knowledge, worldview, language, culture, and the community they live in (Blunden, n.d). Instructional strategies based on Constructivism are inductive as mentees can pull from their experience and knowledge to apply to a larger whole or in other words, "construct their own generalizations" (Gutek, 2004, p. 9). These strategies provide mentors as mentees and mentees in the mentoring training an experiential process through interactive and experiential activities, allowing them to base their conjectures. Dialectic activities in which there are discussions to explore their beliefs and thought worlds are utilized between the mentor and mentee(s). It is critical that the students/mentees are able to develop critical thinking skills through a guided interaction for self-assessment (Blunden, n.d). Utilizing the Socratic Method, which grew from Idealism, instructors guide students/mentees through a questioning process to "stimulate people to think about their assumptions, to think critically, and to try to read the truth" (Gutek, 2004, p. 16). Idealism supports the premise that learners have an innate ability for learning as its approach utilizes the process of inquiry to guide learners on what and how they know (Gutek, 2004).

Interestingly, some students/mentees have a harder time with this approach as they prefer that they be given answers. These students would show resistance to making the effort. They want to be told what to do in precise steps. They expect that there are pat answers in language, translating, interpreting, and in making ethical decisions. It may be their learning style; however with time and patience, they develop critical thinking and skills for self-assessment with support from the instructor.

Learners as rational persons, within a pragmatic-based learning environment, develop an understanding of self through a "process-oriented definition of the individual with the

environment" (Gutek, 2004, p. 87), enabling the learner to build her or his own understanding of life and meaning, a pertinent element of the Pragmatism philosophy. The more knowledge of the world around them, the more the learners can infer through the Idealism approach (Gutek, 2004).

Students/mentees are more motivated when encouraged to draw on their experiences to build their understanding and learning. Making their applications to learn something new through their experiences allows the students to maintain their motivation until they are tired or bored with the subject or topic and move on. This does not occur through passive learning. Mentoring sessions and the mentor need to be responsive to the students as they express themselves and have some control of their own learning and experiences. For the mentees to become or stay motivated, there must be an ongoing mentor-mentee interaction (Oldfather, 2006).

The premise, as discussed above, drawn from constructivist theories of Piaget, von Glaserfeld, and Vygotsky, affirms that the student(mentee) - teacher(mentor) interactions guide students to learn through a social context. Through this type of interaction, the students and teacher take control and express their motivation, thinking, and feelings, thus being able to cope and work through different emotions such as frustration, boredom, and stress (Oldfather, 2006). Students/mentees do learn to achieve satisfaction in their learning, as they are able to construct their knowledge and meaning within their experiences.

Gutek (2004) points out in his discussion on Liberalism Pedagogy that teachers cannot maintain neutrality or objectivity in their roles as teachers. Teachers must be part of the students' learning and discovery that make it more real and applicable. Learning is reciprocal and mentor and mentee can learn from each other as the mentees trust that the mentors are part of their learning and are directly involved in problem-based learning and activities. When students/mentees see their teachers taking chances and sharing their views, they will be more willing to be open to new ideas. They will be able to accept different learning styles and worldviews when their own mentor shows that s/he is learning from them and accommodates learning styles (Gutek, 2004).

Bruner built his constructivist theory around the premise that "learning is an active process in which learners construct new ideas or concepts based upon their current/past knowledge" (http://tip.psychology.org/bruner.html, n.d, p. 1). The constructivist theory is derived from "Socratic learning" (http://tip.psychology.org/bruner.html, n.d, p.1) and from

pragmatism and Dewey's Philosophy (Gutek, 2004). Mentees and the mentor are involved in active dialogues so that they can discover their own meaning and develop self-analysis skills. Mentees are then taught how to guide their peers through similar processes, thus learning how to discuss their own work and apply self-analysis of their text analysis and interpreting work. This process allows students to construct their understanding of applying theoretical components of interpreting processes and the meaning of the texts for interpretation. Then they analyze specific areas of the interpretation and work on strengthening the skills (http://tip.psychology.org/bruner.html, n.d). This approach is effective practice for teaching interpreting skills and for students to take an active role in their own learning.

Mentees need to be introduced to this type of learning as they come into a mentoring program expecting traditional approaches of learning. In traditional approaches, the teacher knows the answers, the teacher is right, or the teacher will tell them how to do it. Some students still prefer that they are told how to do it and what they did wrong, rather than making discoveries on their own or through a dialogue with the mentor. The process requires a collegial relationship where mentor and mentee share discovery and discussion of their work. The questioning process may occasionally be met with defensiveness as mentees take ownership of their learning and analytical processes. Through constructivism and Vygotsky, students/mentees learn how to look at the process, not only the product of their interpreted work and/or decision-making.

There is a salient Chinese proverb, "Teachers open the door, but you must enter by yourself." This training is founded in the belief that teachers/mentors must be aware that even if they open the door of learning for the students/mentees, they need to feel the support of their teacher/mentor to cross the threshold on their own. Thus, it is a two-way process with teaching and learning. The teacher/mentor must guarantee that the doors remain open for them at all times and provide them motivation to walk through that door and many new doors with excitement. Using this analogy of doors, students need opportunities to discover which doors are best for them to go in and out, knowing that mentors will keep the door open so they can return to try a different door should they desire.

Another Chinese proverb, which has been and still is a wonderful guide for the authors as educators and mentors to both Deaf and hearing students, states, "Tell me and I'll forget; show

me and I may remember; involve me and I'll understand." This is the fundamental principle of pragmatism and constructivism that serves as a wonderful guide for mentors.

Evaluation of Training and Program

"Evaluation is the process by which an organization can determine which interventions work and which ones do not" (Combs and Fallette, pg. v). Measurement in this context is a multi-faceted approach. Measure includes a pre- and post-training assessment of mentoring concepts for the mentor and the mentee which addresses a Level 2 of the Kirkpatrick's Four Level Model of Evaluation. This evaluation requires a baseline measurement (obtained from the pre-assessment instrument) and compares it to those of the post-training responses. With this, the organization can determine the participants level of comfort and confidence applying the knowledge and skills. This level of evaluation does not measure what a person does with the learning, just that it has occurred.

Standard evaluation tools can be used by the organizations. These address a Level 1 evaluation or the reaction to the training. In this way, the organization is assessing the reaction to the initial training. This reaction can be applied to the concepts as well as the trainers.

At the conclusion of Phases II and III, Level 3 Evaluations occur. This determines the way in which the participant has applied the information learned in training. This is commonly referred to as transfer. This evaluation answers the questions:

1. Has the mentor applied the concepts of mentoring in an effective manner?
2. Has the mentee applied the work conducted in the mentoring relationship to his or her performance?

A Level 4 Evaluation can and should be developed for the hosting organization. This evaluation seeks to determine the organizational results and impacts. Some examples of these might be an increased number of qualified interpreters, increased membership, or other measurements to evaluate whether the organization's goals have been achieved.

Measurement statistics should capture not only formally mentored interpreters, but also those for whom the trained mentors work. Mentees with whom the mentor works more informally (even those outside the auspices of the program, but utilizing the skills and knowledge learned from the training) should be captured. Consider collecting and organizing statistics of those receiving mentoring (formally or informally) to include interpreters in

education, VRS, etc. This ensures that the impacts of the initial training and investment reflect the true benefits statewide and may provide strength in future pursuits for additional funding.

Outcomes assessment measures the effectiveness of the program and should be both qualitative and quantitative in scope.

1. At the completion of Phase I (the first six month cycle) --
    - Quantitative:
        - Mentors (Phase I mentors) will have successfully been trained in a minimum of 5 regions (total minimum 20 mentors trained statewide).
        - Two mentees (Phase I mentees) per mentor will have been provided mentoring (minimum 20 mentees to receiving mentoring statewide).
    - Qualitative:
        - Mentors will be able to continue mentoring work on their own and be established as mentoring resources for the region.
        - Mentees will have successfully addressed one skill challenge and either closed the gap or made significant progress toward closing the gap.
2. At the completion of Phase II (the second six month cycle) --
    - Quantitative:
        - Ten (10) Meta-Mentors/Mentor trainers trained and providing meta-mentoring to two Phase II mentors.
        - Meta-Mentors/Mentor trainers provide mentoring to one mentee (either program trained or new mentee).
        - One mentee (Phase II mentee) per Phase I mentor (non-meta mentor).
        - Mentors (Phase II mentors) trained and mentored in second six-month cycle (minimum 20 additional mentors trained statewide).
        - Two mentees (Phase II mentees) per mentor (minimum of 20 additional mentees statewide).
    - Qualitative:
        - Phase I mentors will have provided successful meta-mentoring to facilitate Phase II mentors to provide mentoring services.

- Phase II mentors will be able to continue mentoring work on their own and be established as a mentoring resource for the region.
- Phase I mentees will have continued work more independently on other identified skill gaps and be better able to self-assess and continue work independently.
- Phase I mentees will become trained to provide mentoring services.
- Phase II mentees will have successfully addressed one skill challenge and either closed the gap or made significant progress toward closing the gap.

A final note, the authors understand and agree that the term *mentee* does not accurately capture the essence of the mentoring partnership and relationship and that the term *mentee* may connote a differentiation in power that is not inherent or intended. However, for the purposes of this paper and to distinguish between the two groups and the two types of training, the term *mentee* has been used to signify those who are seeking mentoring from *mentor* for those who are learning mentoring skills.

This program teaches interpreters to fish and to feed themselves (and others) for a lifetime. The program's success is measured by its ability to saturate the market with interpreters trained to self-analyze and own their professional development.

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