Proceedings of the 17th National Convention
Conference of Interpreter Trainers

Putting the Pieces Together:
A Collaborative Approach to Educational Excellence

Len Roberson and Sherry Shaw, Editors

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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;
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- Advocates for research relevant to the practice and instruction of interpretation; and
- Encourages collegial relationships with professionals in other related disciplines and organizations.

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

California, 1990

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We would like to thank the authors of the papers included in these proceedings. We enjoyed reviewing your manuscripts and working with you as you made requested revisions. Thank you for your efforts and your collegial interactions.

Len Roberson and Sherry Shaw, Editors
University of North Florida

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Demand-Control Schema: Applications for Deaf Interpreters

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Abstract

This paper is a report on the results of teaching Dean and Pollard's Demand-Control Schema (DC-S) in an Interpreter Education Program (IEP) workshop class titled "Ethical Decision Making for Deaf Interpreters." The goal of this report is to present a model of a fairly unique application of the DC-S for development and use in the education of Certified Deaf Interpreters (CDIs), DIs (Deaf Interpreters who do not hold RID certification and used here to mean students of interpreting who are deaf working toward certification) and deaf/hearing interpreters working in actual interpreting settings as a team. The challenge taken on in this short course format was to present the DC-S in its original design and begin to pose the questions: Could it be further developed to meet the needs of deaf students of interpreting, DIs and CDIs? If so, how and by whom?

Introduction

Dean and Pollard (2001) adapted the Demand-Control Theory from occupational research conducted by Karasek (1979) to address occupational health and applied it to identifying demands (*requirements of the job*) and controls (resources an employee can use to respond to the requirements, or *decision latitude)* occurring in the work of interpreters. In the adaptation, the demands fall into four categories: environmental demands, interpersonal demands, paralinguistic,

and intrapersonal demands, known as the EIPI. Using lecture and stimulus materials to learn and apply the basic theory, interpreters and interpreting students move from theoretical construct to application and practice with simulated and real interpreting situations. This is known as dialogic analysis – looking at the interaction of demands and controls by pulling out details and classifying them. The DC-S was selected for its inherently validating and challenging properties as well as its perceived value in empowering consumers of interpreting services. CDIs and DIs are interpreters as well as consumers of the work of the hearing interpreters they team with. The DC-S provides a framework for looking at hypothetical and real work decisions, including and beyond those that are linguistic and cultural. It has provided a structure and a language for talking about our work and a viable schema to foster our understanding and practice of ethical considerations.

The course was a workshop class totaling 7-1/2 weeks, 18 hours of instruction. American Sign Language was the language of instruction. This was an elective class supplementing the regular IEP curriculum, an open enrollment course with a minimum enrollment of eight students. The class consisted of five deaf students and four hearing students. Student experience with interpreting ranged from students who had never studied interpreting, those who had completed interpreting coursework, those with only informal community interpreting experience, those with actual professional interpreting experience, to interpreters with more than 20 years of interpreting experience.

Deaf students (deaf of deaf parents, deaf of hearing parents, and hard of hearing) included one student holding a Reverse Skills Certificate (RSC, precursor to the current CDI), one who completed an IEP, and one who has worked primarily with deaf-blind consumers in a college setting. One of the deaf students had not had any prior formal work experience or training as an interpreter and one is a professional with exposure to the DC-S. Hearing students were equally split between working professional interpreters and two who were considering studies in interpreting. One student has deaf parents, and the interpreter holding a CSC is also an interpreting instructor and linguist who frequently works with CDIs and DIs. The hearing interpreters will be referred to here as HI. It was understood by all students that the presentation

of materials was geared primarily toward the DIs and the hearing interpreting students would play a supportive and supplementary role.

Course Format

The course emphasized the learning and adaptation of the DC-S for use by DIs, as a way to assess the ethical implications of their decisions in a format relevant to their identity as deaf adults. Studying the DC-S begins with learning to identify demands. Based on the demands identified, interpreters then offer control options and look at the implications or effectiveness, outcomes or consequences, assessing the need for further action (resulting demands and subsequent new controls). Interpreters then identify controls for: pre-assignment, assignment, and post-assignment categories.

The DC-S materials used in class were made available in a Blackboard course shell through the college's participation in a FIPSE grant that provides for the training and supervision of IEP faculty. (Fund for the Improvement for Post-Secondary Education, U.S. Department of Education. For more information go to www.urmc.rochester.edu/dwc/scholarship/FIPSE2.htm). All materials referred to herein are from the Theoretical Construct, Dialogic Work Analysis and Learning Methodology body of work.

DC-S Specific Activities

The course curriculum included the use of Dean and Pollard's PowerPoint presentation "Piecing Together Interpreting: How to Look at Interpreting Work through the Demand Control Schema" (DC-S), designed and provided for teaching the DC-S in IEPs. The course began with an exercise using the revised *Icebreaker* activity devised by Robyn Dean, "In Your Work, Have you Ever…" (Dean & Pollard, 2006). From a list of actions taken while interpreting, students asked each other to initial any items they had experienced, some of which might be perceived as being ethically questionable according to current interpreting standards. After the interaction, there was guided discussion requiring interpreters to identify who had placed their initials by specific items. The goal of the exercise as used in this class was to promote discussion about real

experiences, "admit" what we have most likely all done at one time or another, and begin to look at the circumstances affecting such decisions. The DIs commented primarily on their experiences using interpreting services – the actions of the HIs. Their primary perspective was that of consumers.

After presenting the basic theoretical constructs, specific materials were used to apply the DC-S theory. Broadly defined here as *Situational Analysis*, students were given pictures depicting scenarios, identified potential demands and categorized them in to the EIPI. The initial presentation of the first picture quickly evolved into role-playing the scenario, discussed in later sections of this paper. Students were also provided scenarios via video and from actual work experiences shared by visiting CDIs.

Practicing Controls, another of the *Picture Analysis* exercises used, presents a situation with a list of demands. The students were responsible to come up with control options to be used pre-assignment, assignment and post-assignment. Students responded with revised controls, new controls and questions to clarify demands as this activity proceeded. As evidenced in the examples in the next section "Class Findings," students tended to use more pre-assignment controls. Additionally, as demands changed, students understood the need to adapt their controls. When next presented with interpreting scenarios drawn from their *own* experiences and those presented by the instructor, students were asked to identify and categorize demands into the DC-S EIPI categories and list sample controls used. Students again were asked to come up with several pre-assignment, assignment and post-assignment controls.

Use of the *Ethics Spectrum* (Dean & Pollard, 2005) was effective in discussing how to categorize controls from liberal (tending toward action) to conservative (tending toward inaction), and those controls at the outer bounds of the spectrum, which represent unethical choices. The students were able to apply this conceptual framework quite immediately in discussion as well as continuing to apply the analysis during ongoing exercises and discussions, as when visiting CDIs shared their experiences. In addition to the DC-S materials, students researched codes of ethics of other professions, held a group discussion of the reasoning or need prompting the ethics and presented their findings. Three Deaf Interpreters who all hold the CDI attended class and spoke

about ethically challenging situations and how they were managed. Additional time was given to open questions, which primarily focused on opportunities for training, mentoring, issues of teaming with hearing interpreters and negotiating the intricacies of the role of a CDI/DI. Although the CDIs had minimal training in the DC-S and it was not specifically addressed, students quite naturally did some reframing of the experiences in terms of demands, controls and the ethics spectrum and were encouraged to continue to develop their understanding in subsequent classes.

Class Findings

While the primary focus of the class was the DIs, input and shared experiences from the HIs and hearing students in class, particularly the more experienced HI who most often works with CDIs and DIs, provided important content and practical interpreting scenarios for discussion, role play and analysis. The interaction between the novice hearing students, the newer DIs and the questions they posed gave all participants a new perspective on the materials. The student with an RSC made a valuable contribution with over three decades of experience, which spanned across a broad range of cultural, professional and technical evolutions. The Deaf students without prior training or experience brought invaluable experiences as professionals working in the field of deafness. Some of these students, for example, recounted frequent requests by hearing staff or supervisors to 'interpret' for other deaf employees, consumers, and others and so were able to use the DC-S to look at role boundaries, discussed later in this section.

The students' backgrounds and knowledge levels were quite diverse. The overall combination of skill and experience levels of the students proved beneficial, challenging and allowed for a wide variety of perspectives to be represented. The DIs also hailed from diverse chronological ages, ethnicities and cultural backgrounds, which, if time had allowed, were important factors to consider and include in discussion and analysis as controls and valuable world-views of interpreting. The course resulted in the following insights, adaptations, and suggestions for future development:

1. Of the many control options available to a CDI/HI team, the most easily recognized and employed were pre-assignment controls. Examples of CDI/HI team Pre-Assignment demands and controls proposed (without the EIPI) were:
    a. Demand: setting is new and unfamiliar to the DI
    b. Control: request an HI team who is familiar, skilled, certified, experienced in the setting, and professionally trusted
    c. Control: research content of the setting as appropriate
    d. Control: contact another DI/CDI or HI with experience in this setting to ask general information
    e. Control: meet with HI team in advance of appointment.
    f. Demand: DI called into a situation where the HI has been working with the deaf consumer for many months. DI has never met the deaf consumer.
    g. Control: let the HI initiate the contact with the deaf consumer before the appointment begins and then bring in the DI and introduce as trusted colleague
2. Students showed increased awareness of meta-cognitive learning for purposes of assignment analysis. Through situational analysis (primarily conducted through live discussion while the instructor reformatted into the DC-S structure), students gained recognition and perception of demands previously unnoticed or unconsidered, appreciation of the fact that they made decisions, or employed controls, and discussed the impact and effectiveness of their control options. They became aware of what they did and did not know. They were also able to consider alternative controls, all while being actively validated by learning that their decisions 'made sense' in context. At the same time, students were challenged in their considerations and experiences. By way of illustration, one DI shared an experience of being challenged by content while interpreting (the subject being discussed was cochlear implants and the perception of the DI was that the information was extremely oppressive and inaccurate). The DIs reaction was an intrapersonal demand that rose to the level of affecting the work. The interpreter used the control option of stepping out of interpreting role and into participant role to address the inaccuracy. While this is a superficial description of the scenario and does not list all demands and factors influencing this control decision, it is easily recognizable that is was a more 'liberal' control. The class understood the conflict the DI faced and challenged the control option used by identifying positive and negative

consequences as well as alternate control options, such as post-assignment controls of debriefing with a colleague while maintaining confidentiality. The class was quite fortunate that the DI was willing to share this experience.

3. Students benefited from the opportunity for professional development via preliminary case presentation practice, and productive discussions using the DC-S. As students recounted their experiences, we began to learn that, when describing a situation, if the interpreter used more evaluative language rather than stating what was seen and what was said, the opportunity to see what actually happened was lost. The interpreter's reaction to their own *interpretation* of events is what is seen, and we were therefore not able to accurately assess the demand-control interaction or ethical implications. Students learned to use more factual descriptions and began to look at reasons for the temptation to use evaluative language.
4. During the initial *Picture Analysis* activity of a scenario showing a physical location, consumers present in the situation (without interpreters present) and students were to come up with a list of demands. It became immediately apparent through discussion and explanation of the activity that it would be far more effective to 'stage' the situation illustrated in the picture via role-play. This allowed the DIs a more genuine and effective learning experience; they readily recognized the demands and controls to manage the logistics of the situation according to the demands as interpreters. Subsequently, the instructor provided different demands within the same scenario. This activity validated not only the need for the DIs to manage the logistics of the interpreting situation (physical location, sight lines and so forth), but to negotiate with their team interpreter, and the hearing and deaf consumers as well. Students realized their own experience or lack of experience in the different settings depicted in the materials and a natural progression of the theoretical construct ensued. Those with knowledge shared it, helping each other to consider demands and control options derived from their actual interpreting experiences. With the tendency for novices to jump immediately to controls, the role-playing was also very constructive for students to first learn to identify as many demands as possible.
5. The DIs initially perceived their role as that of consumer rather than interpreter. It is true that the DIs are the consumers of the HI's work. Within the Interpersonal Category of EIPI, the DIs information about communication dynamics, mood and tone, for example, (demands that might best be managed by the DI) are received and perceived through the HI. Recognizing

the difference between 'consumer' and interpreter perspectives allowed for additional meta-cognitive awareness of this phenomenon. The HIs in class also gained an understanding of the impact of their controls and the power they are given when working in any interpreting situation, and with DIs and CDIs.

6. The greater number of demands identified in class activities initially fell into the Interpersonal category. This is similar to the work with hearing IEP students. When the DI students experienced the demand of receiving information via the hearing team interpreter, they discussed any demands which they alone might recognize in the deaf consumer, which could then be relayed back to the hearing team and hearing consumer (control options). The following example was provided by one of the CDIs visiting the class. A deaf consumer expressed irritation at being repeatedly asked the same questions by the hearing service provider at the social security office. The CDI could understand the cultural reason for the reaction and one control choice was to explain that it was a factor of the system, which in fact, everyone had to answer the same questions each time. The deaf consumer, understanding they were not being singled out, was able to proceed with the appointment with greater ease, making it more likely that the goal of the environment was met.
7. Another discovery was the DIs experience of 'who holds the power' in interpreting situations, which was quite different than that of their hearing colleagues. While the general experience of the HIs was that the hearing consumer/agency/institution holds or is given the power, and that the HI themselves holds a great deal of power, one DI felt that, in an interpreting situation the DI would have more power to address the communication needs, as a consumer of interpreting (working with the HI) and as an interpreter. This included having input into the physical set up and location of interpreters, explanation of role and managing the pace of the interchange (which could not proceed without this critical input). The insights about demands and control options and the innate validation of the DC-S process helped the students' experiences make sense in context. The DC-S also proved to be key in empowering the DI students as consumers of interpreting. Specifically, they could more quickly assess a situation, recognize demands and respond with control options appropriate to the setting. They could also more readily assess the demands and control options used (consciously or unconsciously) and the effectiveness of the decisions made by their hearing interpreter team member as well as by HIs they used as a consumer.

Adaptation of the materials included establishing signs for some of the terminology and concepts of the DC-S that spoke to meaning and not just an automatic initialization of the word, as we do in English ("D" for Demand, "C" for control," etc.). Alternate signs were proposed for *Demand*, *Control*, *Demand Constellation*, and some of the demand categories, as well as the concepts of *liberal* and *conservative* on the ethics spectrum. These adaptations were critical to understanding and integrating use of the DC-S. Building on Cokely's (2000) statement of ethics as "action-focused reflection" (p. 28), the discussion of ethics inspired ideas about sign choices and expressions. For example, the concept of the sign RESPONSIBLE was replaced with the concept of responsiveness and directly tied to the DC-S construct of controls as decisions, skills and traits Responsiveness requires awareness of factors influencing our actions and decisions, their impact, and then follow-through to effectively meet the goal of the setting or environment ('to learn,' 'to receive services,' 'to participate in a community meeting' for example). It requires noticing demands as they arise, responding to them (taking or not taking action), noticing the implications, responding to any that rise to the level of resulting demands, and responding with new controls. What forms is a continuous process of ethical actions and decision-making.

The situation described by the DI who encountered the situation of stepping out of role lead to the discussion of the idea that ethical decision-making would more likely occur by aligning with the goals of each participant in an interpreting situation, as well as with the goal of the interpreting team.

> Interpreting teams hope for clear communication, a shared vision, and support for the interpretation that might resemble how successful actors, attorneys, architects or co-authors work together…But how do we move beyond correction and critique, and the defensiveness they engender, to a new model of how we interact with each other as teams? (Kinsella, 1997, p. 116).

Changes were necessary in the format for presenting information. Lecture format was less productive. Providing the actual or simulated interpreting situations, use of video and supplementing the DI students' experience with input from CDIs allowed for greater learning in the constraints of time. Lecture materials could then be embedded in discussion and presented in

the moment, dynamically. It should be noted that lecture materials were presented in their entirety, as were supplemental articles and readings typically recommended when training IEP students in the DC-S.

The demands particular to the work of a CDI and HI/CDI or DI/HI team lead to a critical discussion of confidentiality and what information can be revealed in consultation regarding the very sensitive situations CDIs are often called into, which frequently have serious outcomes and occur within a collectivist community such as the Deaf community. The DC-S materials include information about and encourage discussion of confidentiality as it relates to trust, keeping things in confidence, and professional integrity. Discussions included how other professionals such as medical doctors share information that is critical to patient care, in agreement about who is covered by or bound to confidentiality. It was agreed that the issue of confidentiality for DIs and CDIs in case presentations and during observation/supervision for training purposes should be prioritized, given more discussion and practice than the time constraints of the course allowed.

Students' initial attempts at case presentation consisted of openly shared feelings about being challenged in the work, and, once again, their initial tendencies were to jump to consideration of controls before a thorough analysis of demands. These student tendencies were addressed at the time of the presentations. The conditions of work that were considered most challenging by the students included:

1. Lack of information about the nature of an assignment
2. A HI team not being provided for a DI who is hard of hearing.
3. The HI failing to inform the DI about important environmental information protocol in a situation unfamiliar to the DI.
4. Hearing co-workers expecting the deaf person to serve as an interpreter while at work, where it was felt to be an inappropriate request.
5. Having to interpret in a situation where it was felt that content was misrepresented and damaging to the deaf community and the impact of this experience on the interpreter's role.

The DIs expressed the need for more training opportunities and support for on-the-job training, as is often their experience. The need for more mentoring opportunities for DIs was discussed vís

a vís the concern that this is often precluded by the sensitive nature of the work situations that DIs and CDIs are presently called to work in.

Students agreed that this very brief introduction to the DC-S provided a way to look at their work on a practical level, with direct benefit from its application to ongoing education and work as DIs, CDIs and in teaming with HIs. Exposure to the elements of the DC-S provided them with a glimpse of the road ahead – the possibilities for in vivo observation and supervision, supervision groups, and observation in specialized settings such as mental health. Supervision is the use of real interpreting situations presented by interpreters via EIPI structure using dialogic analysis to discuss control options and the entire sequence of consequences, resulting demands, and new controls. Supervision can be offered peer to peer or between colleagues with varying skill levels, 1:1 or in groups (Dean, Pollard, & English, 2004).

This class inspired the following recommendations:

1. Full adaptation of the DC-S should be conducted by DIs, CDIs and Deaf faculty.
2. Supervision for DIs/CDIs (in person and via video conferencing) for case presentation and study of the DC-S.
3. Supervision for DIs, CDIs and HIs specific to teaming.
4. Use of video examples of case presentations by DIs to identify demands and controls and to conduct a full dialogic analysis. An early video sample was shown during the actual presentation of this report.
5. Development of a DC analysis process for linguistic demands that prompt particular linguistic controls to better respond to the needs of deaf consumers who may be dysfluent, users of a different native sign language, etc.
6. Observation and supervision opportunities for DIs and CDIs, and HI/DI teams (currently in use in some medical and mental health settings and often referred to in our work as mentorship) (Dean, Davis, Barnett, Graham, Hammond, & Hinchey, 2003).
7. Mentorship for DIs and CDIs. Video relay call centers may present a unique opportunity, as well as elementary, middle school, and high school mainstream settings (Marsh, 2008).

Discussion Questions

What is your knowledge of the DC-S?
What is your experience using the DC-S?
What are your recommendations for its use with DIs, CDIs, deaf interpreting students and HI/DI teams?
What type of access would make training in the DC-S more available to you?
How can your hearing colleagues promote this access and shared opportunities?

About the Author

Kendra Keller, CI/CT, M.S., is a community freelance interpreter, interpreter mentor, and adjunct faculty in the IEP at Ohlone Community College in Fremont, CA and Studio A.C.T. at the American Conservatory Theater in San Francisco, CA. She has presented at the "Supporting Deaf People: Deaf Education and Educational Interpreting" international online conference, February 2008 and at Deaf Studies Today, April 2008. She has received training in the Demand Control Schema via the Mental Health Interpreter Training Institute in Montgomery, AL and as faculty of Ohlone College.

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Interpreting Culturally Sensitive Content in VRS Settings: Teaching Techniques

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Abstract

Interpreters work in video interpreting call centers across the country and work with consumers from areas near and far; across the United States and potentially the world. For the first time, interpreters are interpreting conversations, sometimes of intimate register, with cultures that are different and perhaps "foreign" to them. The use of language as well as discourse structure impacts the meaning of the messages. *Interpreting Culturally Sensitive Content in VRS Settings: Teaching Techniques* discusses a course designed to address this learning need by connecting cultural aspects of language with video interpreting. The training was based on data collected from a survey and interviews conducted by the author, March 2007. The data explored consumer and interpreter views of interpreting culturally sensitive information in VRS settings. Several questions were addressed including issues experienced as well as resolution tools when working interculturally with Deaf people of color.

Introduction

"Cast your bucket down where you are" (Washington, 1928, p. 219). This famous quote from Booker T. Washington's Atlanta Compromise Speech likens the value of cross-cultural communication to an experience at sea where thirsty sailors seeking water simply had to dip their buckets below to the now fresh waters. As with the parable, interpreters will find refreshing answers to interpreting culturally sensitive content by looking at available, rich cultural information. Interpreters can develop cultural literacy when interpreting for diverse consumers by "casting their buckets down where [they] are" and seeking available tools for rendering equivalent messages with culturally sensitive content.

"Interpreting Culturally Sensitive Content in VRS Settings" was originally developed as in-service learning for working interpreters and designed to be used as a basis of dialogue between Deaf people of color as consumers of VRS and interpreters working in VRS settings. The author was involved with VRS as an interpreter, instructor, and committee member. Through conversations with colleagues, common issues were present around interpreting for consumers from cultures different than their own. These conversations led the author to informally explore perceptions and experiences of both interpreters and Deaf consumers of color via interviews and survey. The information gathered along with existing interpreting pedagogy and diversity literature formed the basis of the workshop. With each provision of training and evaluation from the training, the instructor reshaped the course content and delivery.

Video Relay Service (VRS) started in the year 2000 as "a free telephone relay service" (Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf [RID], 2007, p.1) for deaf and hard of hearing individuals. It is a form of Telecommunications Relay Service (TRS) using video for communication instead of text and is regulated by the Federal Communications Commission (FCC) (RID, 2007). Interpreters are mandated to be qualified (Telecommunications Act, 2004 edition). As of July 2008, fourteen VRS providers were listed on the FCC website; these providers have interpreters working in call centers throughout the United States. Thus, an interpreter working in Nebraska may interpret a call from a consumer in New York; an interpreter working in Washington, DC may interpret a call from a consumer in Utah. Additionally, a consumer may communicate with someone around

the corner or from a different part of the world, making our work as VRS interpreters a series of multicultural events. For the first time, interpreters are interpreting conversations, sometimes of intimate register, with cultures that are different and perhaps "foreign" to them.

Demographic changes that are occurring in the United States impact the variety of calls that interpreters experience. As cited by Meadow-Orlans, Mertens, and Sass-Lehrer (2003):

> The results of Census 2000 confirm the increasing diversity in the U.S. population (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001)…The Hispanic population is projected to triple, from 31.4 million in 1999 to 98.2 million in 2050, making that the nation's largest minority group. The African American population is expected to rise by 70% during this same 50-year period (para. 1).

Demographic shifts are also occurring within the deaf community. Anderson (1998, p. 2) stated, "The American Deaf community is undergoing a demographic revolution. It is becoming more dynamic, and multicultural. This is especially true about our future generations of Deaf adults – students who are currently attending elementary and secondary schools". Allen (1994, Summary and discussion, para. 1) reported increasing "heterogeneity and diversity" within the population of deaf and hard of hearing students including greater racial/ethnic diversity. Allen also reported that according to the annual survey of schools "…the number of Hispanic students has *increased* by 28%. The number of white, non-Hispanic students has *decreased* [italics added] by 21% (from 35,069 in 1984 to 27,779 in 1994)" (Introduction, para. 2).

According to the Regional and National Summary Report of Data from the *2006 – 2007 Annual Survey of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Children and Youth*, the national racial/ethnic background percentages reflect great diversity with the number of deaf children of color comprising approximately 52% of the student population (Gallaudet Research Institute, December 2006). Given these statistics, interpreters working in VRS settings, regardless of the location of the center, will interpret for consumers of varying racial/ethnic cultures, as well as those from cultures representing differing sexual orientation, gender, age, region, and abilities. Interpreters are mandated to be qualified as defined by the ability to "interpret effectively, accurately and impartially, both receptively and expressively, using any necessary specialized vocabulary" (Telecommunications Act, 2004 edition). How do we do this when culturally sensitive content is semantically defined according to the specific culture? An added complexity is the cultural

politeness factor of appropriate talk when not a member of a culture. How does this affect the interpretation process?

These questions were addressed through interviews and surveys completed spring 2007. The initial results were presented and further discussed at the Deaf People of Color Conference, March 2007. The survey results pointed to viewpoints as well as tools for interpreters to use when interpreting culturally sensitive topics in VRS settings.

What is culture?

Tylor's (1958) definition of culture will be used for purposes of this paper: "Culture …is that complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, custom, and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society" (as cited in Mindess, 2006, p.18). Although the paper primarily has a focus on racial/ethnic culture when working with Deaf people of color in VRS settings, it is important to see this as part of a larger context of culture.

Development of Training

In preparation for delivering a workshop on interpreting culturally sensitive information, the author wanted to gather viewpoints of other interpreters and deaf consumers of color. This information would be used in conjunction with academic information about diversity, interpreting, and intercultural communication. Viewpoints were collected from an informal survey and interviews conducted by the author, March 2007.

There were eight interviews conducted including five interpreters of varying racial/ethnic background as well as three Deaf consumers of color of varying racial/ethnic background. The interpreters were nationally certified by the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf and experienced VRS interpreters. The three Deaf people of color had previously addressed multicultural issues through writings and/or presentations. Those interviewed signed a release form allowing the author to use the interview information for educational purposes, including publication. The

interview sessions further explored intercultural and intracultural experiences in the VRS setting and asked the interviewees regarding issues experienced as well as strategies used.

The anonymous survey was developed and disseminated to Deaf consumers and interpreters through the Internet, the Deaf People of Color conference, and through an interpreting referral service on a college campus which services VRS. There were a total of 85 surveys with 62 consumers and 23 interpreters responding. Those who participated in the survey self selected themselves and responded anonymously. Thus the 85 surveys represent the total number of surveys distributed to people who self selected participation.

The 15 question survey specifically asked about adaptations, desired behaviors, and potential training needs for interpreters. Both consumers and interpreters used the same survey with the interpreter survey having one consumer oriented question omitted. See Appendix for survey questions.

Each section of learning took participants through a process of theory and application. Students went through a process of identifying their culture, identifying examples of cultural information in VRS settings, defining potential issues with interpreting cultural information, and discussing strategies. The goal of the training was for interpreters to practically use the information in VRS settings when processing cultural information and when making decisions about approaches to interpreting cultural information. A second goal was for interpreters to develop self-awareness of their culture's impact on intercultural communication.

The training was designed with a constructivist approach due to the need for a student- centered work. As Lattuca (2006) relates, "…constructivists believe that knowledge is constructed from existing (or prior) knowledge. Constructivist pedagogy therefore emphasizes the active learner- who discusses, questions, debates, hypothesizes, investigates, and argues in order to understand new information" (see Phillips and Soltis, 2004, para. 3). The training was designed to scaffold students through a process of self- discovering through use of video clips samples, mock situations, and discussion; the content required a large amount of interaction with attitudinal goals being an important factor. Use of video clips as an initiator of discussion was an effective method. Iterations of teaching the content resulted in refinements to the process. Lattuca (2006)

states, "In teaching a course, we learn how to improve it" (para. 1). Through teaching the workshop, measures to improve the course were implemented such as exploring effective means of engaging learners, adding needed sub steps to achieve learning goals, and enlargement of core information included. This information will be further discussed under "Lessons learned."

Content Analysis

The content analysis was done informally by the author to inform workshop development through the review of questions from the survey and interview. Three questions were emphasized for course development: In your opinion, what if any training do interpreters need for cultural components of language? Were there cultural parts of your communication that were less understood by the interpreter? Give an example. Do you have any additional comments regarding interpreting of cultural parts of language in VRS settings? The responses were combined onto one document and reviewed by the author for patterns of responses. The interviews were viewed by the author, but not transcribed; then topic areas, sub topics, and discussion points were noted. This informal approach was done to inform workshop development.

The survey and interview data showed themes of issues with interpretation of culturally sensitive information in VRS settings as well as tools for addressing the issues. The themes and tools are discussed below. Note that the information is not meant to be all-encompassing of every viewpoint of Deaf people of color nor of every viewpoint of interpreters experiencing intercultural events. The information is a reflection of a sample of Deaf people of color and interpreters working in VRS settings.

Issues

The first issue seen was message comprehension. Deaf consumers of color reported that some interpreters did not understand their language and had to ask for repetition many times. Consumers queried felt that basic interpreter competencies were important, specifically cited was the interpreter's ability to understand fingerspelling.

Interpreters reported struggling with varying accents of spoken English users. Specifically mentioned were accents when interpreting customer representative calls from India, Hispanic accents, and accents of those from African nations. Also reported was non-comprehension of ethnic-cultural referents. A cited example was discourse between African American women about hair styles involving braids, twists, and weave styles. Other cultural referents mentioned were regional variation of signs as well as geographical referents which were culturally bound. Several comments mentioned comprehension difficulties when interpreting between African American youth using African American Vernacular English (AAVE).

The second issue seen was use of politically correct language. Consumers and interpreters rendered perspectives about interpreting messages that are not viewed as politically correct when used by a person outside of the culture. Deaf consumers queried stated that they preferred for the interpreter to interpret their messages as seen without substituting politically correct language.

The third issue seen as reported by Deaf consumers was interpretation miscues of cultural information. Miscues detailed were in the form of omissions, deletions, and substitutions. Omissions of cultural information were described where the culturally rich contents of the source texts were absent in the target texts. Deletions of cultural information were cited to happen when deemed politically incorrect for the interpreter to express the ideas rendered. Substitution of concepts were noted where the target texts would have the lexical items of the source texts; however cultural connotations would be lacking. An example is the use of the term "GIRL." This term has different meaning based on culture and context. An interviewee talked about experiencing an interpretation of GIRL to mean a "female child" when in fact she was using it as a "term of endearment used between good friends." Thus the interpretation was skewed, impacting communication.

The fourth issue, as noted by Deaf people of color and interpreters, was the interpreters' task management of culturally sensitive information. Several sub-issues were related to task management were included. Several comment talked about interpreter-centric interpretations based on the interpreters' experiences and culture instead of being based on the callers' cultural meaning, skewing the message. An example cited was the concept of family that is intrinsically

based on culture. One interviewee cited an example of *la familia* and the presence of several family members in the background of calls including children, parents, and extended family. The interviewee talked about the difference of concept between U.S. "mainstream" cultural views of "standard" American families vs. Hispanic cultural views of family. His knowledge of the culture aided decision-making. Without this background knowledge, the message would have been skewed.

Also noted was mimicking what the interpreter heard/saw or acting out the content instead of interpreting the content and creating stereotypical script for which the interpreter considers people of a specific racial/ethnic group to sound or sign. An example given was stereotyping all African Americans as users of African American Vernacular English. Additionally related was transference of cultural experience when the interpreter was a member of the same culture or very familiar with the culture. When interpreting intraculturally, interpreters related the need to be aware of wrongly assuming that the caller has the same experiences as the interpreter.

Tools

Given the diversity of consumers and the issues previously mentioned, how can one interpret effectively and accurately as mandated by the FCC? Interpreting culturally sensitive content in VRS settings may appear to be a daunting task. However, by "cast[ing] your bucket down where you are" (Washington, 1928, p. 219), interpreters can develop strategies to appropriately manage the task of interpreting culturally sensitive content. Several tools were suggested by Deaf consumers of color as well as VRS interpreters. The following comments are not meant to be all-inclusive of strategies or tools for interpreting culturally centric content. They are provided as a springboard to creation and implementation of tools that will work for an individual interpreter, center, or region.

The tools were derived from a series of comments made in the survey as well as interviews. Tools given were from Deaf people of color as well as interpreters. When tools were noted within the survey or interview, they were then informally listed on a separate sheet for use with the workshop. Tools discussed within this paper are not all inclusive, but represent commonly

noted themes as seen by reoccurring comments. Next, is a discussion of four tools for interpreters to enhance their interpretations of culturally sensitive content as given by Deaf people of color.

Interpreters were encouraged to explore ways to increase culturally literacy. Consumers noted that no one interpreter will possess intimate knowledge of all cultures experienced while doing VRS interpreting. However, one can increase one's cultural literacy. This will allow an interpreter to make more appropriate decisions in managing the task involving culturally sensitive content. Cultural literacy can be gained through things such as multicultural training, intercultural communication training, and training about general cultural literacy. Examples are: taking a multicultural Deaf culture class which explores different Deaf cultures, viewing DVDs which explore historically significant events in the lives of Deaf people of color such as segregated Deaf schools in the south, and reading books about multicultural Deaf people as well as publications by multicultural Deaf organizations. Also, interpreters can read books with cultural themes of hearing people of color or watch media that is culturally centered. One example of a media type that conveys culture is humor/comedy; this is often culturally laden.

Interpreters were also encouraged to respect the caller's culture by following the Deaf person's lead, interpreting their ideas accurately, and interpreting the message without mimicking cultural aspects seen. Deaf people of color also reported wanting culturally sensitive information interpreted regardless of the interpreter's comfort level of the content; a request was made for interpreters to not filter the message by eliminating culturally sensitive content or substituting cultural information with another concept. Also, interpreters were urged to not assume that the interpreter's cultural understanding of information was the same as the participants.
The tool for exhibiting respect for the caller's culture by following the Deaf person's lead is consistent with the issue of miscues. Rendering information without filtering instead of omitting, deleting, or substituting the cultural information will give equivalency of message. Following the source language content and not concerning oneself with use of politically correct language will also give equivalency of message.

The interpreter's attitude was closely linked to respect of the caller's culture. Comments were made regarding reflection on one's views of Deaf people of color and hearing people of color. The tool of attending to attitude may be of help with the issue of use of stereotypical scripts for all consumers of specific racial-ethnic groups. Lastly, the tools involved with working to improve the quality of calls were cited. A suggestion was given to ask for clarification when the interpreter is not familiar with the information being discussed or signs being used. Also, an emphasis was placed on skill enhancement by continuing to improve ASL receptive skills and specifically fingerspelling receptive skills as well as focusing on improving comprehension of spoken English accents.

Deaf consumers related the helpful strategy of providing brief information about the call to the interpreter and being aware of types of information for which the interpreter may not be familiar. Interpreters also gave tools: Awareness and shifting of model. Comments were made regarding interpreters becoming aware of cultural features of language so that interpretations includes more than the words and appropriately reflects the Deaf participant. Other comments talked about the interpreter being a person of color and interpreting intraculturally. There needs to be an awareness to guard against transference of one's cultural experience with the communication. Interpreters should be aware that although the participants may be of the same cultural group, their experiences may be different.

Remarks about shift of model talked about the need to open one's understanding of interpreting from a bilingual-bicultural model to a multicultural model, recognizing that Deaf people of color have their own respective cultures. This tool can be used to address the issue of task management of culturally sensitive information. Working from a multicultural model will aid movement from an interpreter-centric interpretation to a consumer-centric interpretation, regardless of the cultural difference.

Lessons learned

The iterative process of course development, teaching, evaluation, and editing resulted in rich refinements to the process. Initial teaching of the workshop followed a pre-specific format and PowerPoint structure with background information about VRS, consumer rights, premise of the

workshop, then discussion. With each teaching of the information, and subsequent student evaluations, more flexibility was built into the course. As Lattuca (2006) states:

> …the teacher must ascertain students' depth of knowledge, design effective learning experiences for a given group of students, assist them as they learn and practice new knowledge and skills, evaluate their learning, and provide students with specific feedback that they can use to improve their abilities and deepen their understandings (para. 7).

Methods were incorporated with teaching that allowed working with the students at their current level of awareness of culture, development of self-awareness, and practice of new knowledge and skills. With time, there was less focus on the pre-set PowerPoint presentation, more focus on the students, and more focus on what was happening in the room. Several lessons were learned along the way by the instructor and are discussed below.

First, it is important to know yourself before considering cultural features of others and working interculturally. Hall states, "The real job is not to understand foreign culture but to understand our own ….to learn more about how one's own system works" (Mindess, 2004, p. 18). It is impossible to obtain the level of awareness needed to assess intercultural issues and tools without first taking the deliberate step of exploring the learners' individual cultures. Exercises to explore one's culture were found to be most effective when using a broad definition of culture such as defined by Tylor (1958). This definition of culture as cited earlier within this paper, can include aspects such as regional variation, family norms, urban vs. rural cultural features, gender, sexual orientation, personal values, as well as racial/ethnic culture. Only after learners have ownership of themselves as multifaceted cultural beings can they appropriately consider how one's world view impacts the interpretation process.

Secondly, the training must be adapted to the learners. When training was provided, the instructor experienced learners with different types of characteristics. Again, using a constructivist approach as detailed previously, these characteristics determined the content and pace of the training. Some sessions had learners who were not attuned to themselves as cultural beings nor were they attuned to the impact of racial-ethnic culture on interpreting events in VRS settings. Other sessions had learners who understood culture and assessed issues experienced when interpreting intercultural events. Yet other sessions had some learners who were not

engaged in the process of exploring cultural issues and tools. Thus, there is a strong need to be student centered; start on the level of the student and scaffold the student through cultural awareness, impact of culture on interpreted events, issues of culture, available tools, and assessment of the event for use of appropriate tools.

Thirdly, knowledge, skills, and attitude goals must be included with the objectives. Of these, attitude needs to be emphasized. When the learner has an open attitude to explore cultural features of the interpretation process, the issues can be viewed from various perspectives including the Deaf person of color's perspective, the hearing person of color's perspective, as well as the interpreter's perspective. A shift of dominance from a white-centric view to a multicultural-centric view is critical to appropriately assessing needs of an interpreted event involving racial/ethnic culture. Richardson (1986) asks, "Given the sparse data the typical person has on culture and its effects, is it possible for any of us to appreciate another culture and not judge it by our own cultural biases and assumptions?" (p. 5). Given the diversity seen in VRS interpreting, it is important to not judge consumers by one's own cultural biases. One tool discussed by consumers dealt with the interpreter's attitude toward Deaf people of color. Learner success will depend on willingness to take ownership of the learning process with the teacher in the role of facilitator as well as learners' willingness to participate in discussions through didactic dialogue and group activities.

Fourth, timing is everything. The content requires that there is adequate time to accomplish goals. Trying to give an overview while incorporating too much information is not an effective approach for the subject matter; it is better to break the content into modules that correlate to specific blocks of time. In addition, inclusion of spoken English variation is as critical as sign models and interviews. Initially, clips of interviews and other materials were all in the sign modality. After further analysis of course comments and course structure, inclusion of content including accents, regional variations of speech, and African American Vernacular speech were included. Interpreters stated that specific spoken language components were challenging or incomprehensible for them. A deliberate focus on these spoken language parameters gave value to participants.

Evaluation

The training was designed as in-service training for practicing interpreters currently working in VRS settings. In line with the constructivist approach, evaluation was done through evidence of authentic learning through use of case studies and scenarios representing real parameters, tools, and application. Evaluation involved looking at the quality of learner analysis and application. In addition, formative evaluation was done through analysis of learner responses. Use of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf CEU form informed the instructor of student views of the training. Although the course was designed for use with practicing interpreters, the content is likewise critical for students in Interpreter Training Programs to experience as they develop cognitively as professionals.

Conclusion

"Cast down your bucket where you are" (Washington, 1928, p. 219). Whether the interpreter is already culturally literate or new to the concept of a multicultural world, each one can "cast down [their] bucket…". We can continue development of skills as we strive to provide effective, accurate, and impartial interpretations. VRS is an effective service when stakeholders work together toward the goal of achieving equal access to communication. Consumers, Deaf organizations, interpreters, interpreting organizations, and providers can form a symbiotic relationship with the goal of providing rich interpretations to *all* consumers.

Interpreters can use resources such as the RID *Video Interpreting Standard Practice Paper* to advocate for a setting focus on multicultural issues. The paper advocates for cultural competency by stating, *"*VRS providers should make available information and training regarding the multicultural dimensions and language variations of consumers. Strategies for working across cultures will improve services provided by interpreters in the VRS setting" (RID, 2007, p. 4). Interpreters working in the VRS setting regardless of location will experience interpreting calls between Deaf and hearing people of color. Thus, each of us has an urgent need to enhance understanding of interpreting culturally sensitive information.

About the Author

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Appendix

Interpreting Cultural Features of Language Survey Questions

Have you experienced an interpreted VRS call where the consumers were of a different racial/ethnic group than you? _____yes ____no
Have you adapted your language because of the racial/ethnic difference? ____yes ____no
How did you change your language?
Were there cultural parts of your communication that were less understood by the interpreter? Give an example.
Give an example where culture affected the interpreted message. Was the communication effective through the interpreter?
[a]What would you want the interpreter to do with cultural parts of your message?
Does it make a difference if the interpreter is of a different racial/ethnic group than you? Why?
In your opinion, what, if any training do interpreters need for cultural components of language?
Have you adapted your language because of the racial/ethnic difference? ____yes ____no
How did you change your language?
Were there cultural parts of the message that were less understood? Give an example.
Give an example where culture impacted the interpreted message. Was the communication effective through an interpreter?
Do you have any additional comments regarding interpreting of cultural parts of language in VRS settings?

Note. Survey questions listed do not include background demographic questions.
[a]Interpreter survey excluded this question.

Interpreter Cognitive Aptitudes

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Abstract

The phenomena regarding individual differences among interpreting students' apparent potential to succeed in the field has long been discussed among interpreter trainers. Interpreter trainers may or may not act on intuitive or ostensible signs that a student does or does not have "it"—that heretofore undefined set of qualities that allow for an individual to become an expert interpreter. Based on the dilemma that we do not know what foundational capabilities are necessary in order to learn interpreting skills, the presenter researched potential aptitudes in the following areas: spoken and signed language interpreter processing and models, second language acquisition, memory, intelligence, human information processing, decision-making, problem solving, multitasking, and human performance. The culmination of this research resulted in the development of the Foundational Cognitive Aptitude and Analysis (FCAA) model. This model bifurcates aptitudes into second language acquisition and interpreting aptitudes. Interpreting is further divided into intelligence, cognitive skills, and cognitive capacities categories.

Introduction

The wide range of individual aptitudes among sign language interpreters, as well as the range of success rates among interpreting students, gives cause to investigate the reasons for such differences. The goal of this paper is to introduce evidence of foundational cognitive attributes that serve as an understructure to learned and acquired interpreting skills (including second language acquisition). These foundational cognitive characteristics are being proposed to be aptitudinal in nature. In other words, without these abilities, an individual will be unlikely to succeed as an interpreter.

This study is limited to cognitive aptitudes for interpreting and does not take into account personality types, the level of maturity of the student or interpreter, or the amount of knowledge an individual has at any specific time in his or her life.

The Need for an Aptitudinal Model

Within the field of sign language interpreting, there is a paucity of tools to assess interpreter aptitude. Because of this paucity, several negative situations can occur a) Prospective interpreters have little way of knowing whether or not they will become successful interpreters and invest a great deal of time and money on education and training that may not lead to a career, or may lead to an unsatisfying career, b) interpreter educators make subjective judgments about students' potential and encourage some students to withdraw from programs even when those students may have the potential to be successful interpreters, and c) some students are passed through their courses even though they do not have the aptitude to become skilled interpreters.

Before an aptitude test can be developed, the criteria to be measured must be defined and analyzed. Based on theoretical research in the domains of second language acquisition, spoken and signed language interpreting, and cognitive psychology, I have developed a working model of cognitive aptitudes, the Foundational Cognitive Aptitude and Analysis Model. The model also possesses a secondary goal: to serve as a tool for working interpreters to analyze their own cognitive strengths and weaknesses.

Introduction to an Aptitudinal Model

The Foundational Cognitive Aptitude and Analysis Model (FCAAM) is divided into two broad classifications: second language acquisition aptitudes and interpreting aptitudes. Second language acquisition is divided into sets, subsets, and sub-subsets. Interpreting is divided into three categories: intellectual aptitudes, cognitive skills and cognitive capacities. Each category is then divided into sets, subsets, and sub-subsets.

Bold arrows represent subcomponent aptitude sets, subsets, or sub-subsets. Thin arrows depict relationships among the aptitudes. An aptitude pointing to another (with a thin arrow) influences the aptitude that is being pointed at and double headed arrows depict an interdependent or mutually influential relationship (see Figure 1). The focus of this paper is the interpreting aptitudes. Aptitudes will be presented following the interpreting categories of intelligence, cognitive skills, and cognitive capacities. Second language acquisition aptitudes will be mentioned throughout the paper.

Interpreting Intellectual Aptitudes

Linguistic Intelligence.

An aspect of linguistic intelligence, linguistic operational intelligence, is fundamental to second language acquisition. Linguistic operational intelligence is sensitivity to the nuances of language components and functions (Gardner, 2004). A person with high linguistic operational intelligence is especially sensitive to the meaning of words and distinctions among synonyms, to the order of words and grammatical structure, to the prosody of the language, and to the purpose of the speech acts received and expressed (Gardner). This person has the ability to think about the operations of language and analyze them. However, linguistic operation sensitivity must be combined with other aptitudes as learning a new set of symbols that comprise another language is different than analyzing an already assimilated language.

While interpreting, linguistic intelligence in the form of message analysis is required for content and context analysis while synthesizing incoming information with previous knowledge (Cokely, 1992). Other linguistic aptitudes include coherence of expression (Moser-Mercer as cited in Luccarelli, 2000) such as managing expressive fluidness, prosody, vocal dynamics, and diversity of expressive styles; metalinguistic or linguistic operation sensitivity; the ability to "drop form"; and comprehension.

Non-linguistic processing, or "representation" (Colonomos, 1997), is needed to produce the message in the target language without intrusion from the source language. Representation occurs during many information processing tasks (paraphrasing is included in the FCAAM as a monolingual form) and is a component of comprehension. An interpreter must be able to decode and comprehend linguistic messages in order to determine their meaning and importance and articulate this in the target language. The more sensitive and aware an interpreter is to the nuances of language on all levels, the more effectively the interpreter can assign appropriate word choices, determine significance from subtle prosodic features, and analyze linguistic features in order to make the best interpreting choices in that moment as well as offline to build knowledge for future reference.

Visuo-Spatial Intelligence.

Visual attention, visual representation, spatial representation, visual memory, and visualization manipulation abilities are integral to the interpreting process. Non-linguistic processing (Colonomos, 1997) is dependent upon comprehension and visualization. Visuo-spatial intelligence may be especially important for processing contexts that are visual or spatial in nature and for signed languages in which the visual descriptions and space are incorporated into the underpinnings of the language.

Signed languages are processed in the language centers of the brain in the left hemisphere just as spoken languages are and not in the visuo-spatial processing right hemisphere (Emmorey, 2002). Regardless, visuo-spatial intelligence is important for second language acquisition. The higher an individual's ability to analyze visual and spatial material, the more likely he or she will recognize

visual and spatial nuances and incorporate these features when synthesizing the language material.

Logical Intelligence.

For second language acquisition, logical intelligence combines with linguistic intelligence to recognize patterns in the new language and use reasoning in order to learn. Pattern identification, restructuring, manipulation, control, and integration influence second language learning (Dornyei & Skehan, 2003).

Interpreters' logical intelligence is continuously called upon to analyze incoming information: linguistic, environmental, and affective, in order to deduce, infer, and recognize patterns to determine structure, operation, relationships, and cause and effect and to plan. Reasoning, pattern recognition, analysis, and association combine to enhance problem-solving and prediction skills. Predictions may be about the message content, speaker goals, or the individuals involved (Cokely, 1992; Colonomos, 2007) and are a major factor in planning. The better an interpreter can plan the message formulation, the clearer the interpretation can be. Prediction comes from the interpreter's previous knowledge (schema) allowing conceptual relations to be activated quickly (Moser, 1977). Additionally, the interpreter may need to plan strategies for problem solving while interpreting. Planning to obviate problems could include cultural mediations, environmental disturbances, or intrapersonal challenges (Colonomos, 2006).

Interpersonal Intelligence.

An interpreter must analyze the message from the perspective of the speaker, taking into account subtle paralinguistic cues, and cultural, sociological, and idiosyncratic nuances in order to determine the meaning, goal or purpose of speech acts, attitude, delivery, and theme of the speaker (Colonomos, 2006). This type of analysis requires both interpersonal intelligence and linguistic intelligence. A major component of interpersonal intelligence is empathic inference and accuracy. Empathic inference takes observation of others and, employing memory, knowledge, and reason, infers the thoughts and feelings of other people (Ickes, 1997). The ability to analyze and infer meanings from a combination of observations from the language being used

and subtle and apparent behaviors from the speaker/signer contributes significantly to an effective interpretation. The higher someone's empathy is, the better he or she can mimic another person (Lovell & Miltich, 2005). The mimicking ability is useful for acquiring the linguistic and cultural nuances in the second language in a more native-like fashion. The interpreter uses this skill similarly. The better an interpreter understands the thoughts and feelings of the speaker/signer, the better the interpreter will be able to adopt the characteristics of the speaker/signer to accurately convey these characteristics to the target audience. The interpreter uses interpersonal intelligence to "take on" the emotions, personalities, and attitudes of the individuals for whom they are interpreting. The more accurate the interpreter's empathic accuracy, the more the goals, themes, undertones, hidden and implicit meanings, and double meanings will be interpreted accurately. Message analysis utilizes interpersonal intelligence and linguistic intelligence.

Interpersonal intelligence also assists an interpreter or interpreting student to view things from another's perspective such as being able to "see" and "hear" the interpretation from the perspectives of their audiences. Interpreters also need to be able to objectively look at their own work and the views of others about their work (J. Kegl, personal communication, July 10, 2007). Without this ability, learning will stagnate.

Intrapersonal Intelligence and Psychological Factors

Intrapersonal intelligence, or emotional intelligence, is extremely important for interpreters to function appropriately. Emotion interacts with cognition. Negative emotional states such as fear, stress, nervousness, or anger concenter in the prefrontal cortex, which houses information processing. As a result, the affected individual often cannot think clearly, reason well, or remember accurately (Goleman, 2005). In other words, stress actually can paralyze the part of the brain that can understand, make decisions, process information, plan, problem-solve, and multitask (Moser-Mercer as cited in Luccarelli, 2000; Goleman). For example, an interpreter student who experiences stress when interpreting fingerspelling cannot make reasonable guesses at the word even if he or she is technically competent at receptive fingerspelling in low-stress

environments. Someone prone to worrying will have difficulty interpreting until the worry is under control.

The opposite also holds true. Positive-level emotion such as motivation and belief in the potential of self (self-efficacy), enhance performance ability (Goleman, 2005). Good moods increase mental flexibility, problem solving, circumspection, and creativity (Goleman). Individuals with higher levels of self-efficacy, are often more mentally organized, more flexible in their thinking, and less anxious in general (Goleman).

Self-efficacy and a willingness to communicate are crucial to second language acquisition as well as interpreting. In addition, an individual should possess a high degree of self-regulation including self-management and strategies for overcoming environmental, emotional, and physical distractions while remaining committed to the language learning. This commitment, or the motivation and attitude of the learner are understood to be the two principal psychological factors for successful language learning (Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003).

Cognitive Skills and Cognitive Capacities

Metacognition

Metacognition is both a capacity and a skill. As a capacity, metacognition is knowledge or an awareness of the self, tasks, and strategies. As a skill, metacognitive regulation uses metacognitive knowledge to oversee cognitive processes, plan, evaluate, problem solve, make decisions, and monitor the process and outcome (Livingston, 1997).

Metacognitive knowledge of self is crucial for accurate interpretation. All individuals have filters and paradigms of how they view the world and perceive messages of others. Interpreters must be aware of their own views as the message can be misunderstood and skewed in the interpretation by subconscious biases (Colonomos, 2005, 2006). Individuals with this type of metacognitive awareness not only are more aware of their filters and biases but also how they process information and their own cognitive processes (Livingston, 1997).

Metacognitive knowledge of tasks and strategies is awareness of the nature of the task and the demands it will place on cognitive ability (Livingston, 1997). Metacognitive knowledge of tasks and strategies draws heavily from logical intelligence. An interpreter must be aware of tasks that are difficult for himself/herself in order to be able to apply strategies or coping mechanisms (Livingston).

Metacognitive regulation is utilized to oversee cognitive processes, plan, evaluate, problem solve, make decisions, and monitor the process and outcome. Metacognition regulation, or executive control, works to appropriately allocate cognitive resources based on feedback from cognitive components (Livingston, 1997). Metacognitive regulation is used during interpreting, in part by monitoring. The interpreter monitors his or her own process as well as outside sources such as a team interpreter and clients in order to make decisions about the process. In addition, the interpreter is monitoring accuracy of predictions based on schema, allocation of focus, and adjustments to processing based on observations through monitoring.

Attentional Control

Attentional control refers to conscious mental effort allocation or concentration. Selective attention allows us to choose which sensory information receives focus and which is filtered out (Ashcraft, 2006). This is concentration, the ability to focus mental effort on selected stimuli, allocate the attentional resources, and filter out distracting stimuli that are not pertinent.

Interpreters must have attentional control (Moser-Mercer, 2000) such as the ability to filter out interference (Cokely, 1992) and concentrate (Colonomos, 1997). Attentional control is the first step in order to logically reason, analyze and retain information memory stores. Attentional recourse allocation is required throughout the interpreting process.

Attentional control is moderated by the ability to control stress and emotions, as stress and negative emotions interrupt one's ability to attend (Goleman, 2005), and attending is also moderated by metacognitive control and working memory. Attentional control must be moderated appropriately to be effective. For example, many novice interpreters devote their

attention to the target language production, thus reducing attentional capacity for processing the information and causing them to interpret on the lexical level (Moser, 1977).

Memory

Attention filters perceptions that then are stored in short-term memory. Working memory processes information perceived and synthesizes information stored in long-term memory. The central executive is the attentional controller of working memory. It manages the other components by directing and allocating attention, including the filtering out of unnecessary stimuli (Baddeley, 2000). Memory is a cognitive capacity, and directly interacts with cognitive load, another cognitive capacity. Working memory, a component of memory, is both a capacity and a developed active function, thus it is a capacity and a skill. Attentional control allows for functional working memory. Working memory directly interacts with long-term memory, multitasking, chunking, and extemporaneous decision-making while processing and multitasking (online decision-making.) Long-term memory directly interacts with working memory and online decision-making.

Memory is used throughout the interpreting process from the information stored and chunked into units of meaning (Cokely, 1992; Moser, 1977) to the search for equivalent meaning in the target language. Processing in working memory allows interpreters to process language, plan, reason, problem-solve (Cohen, Peristein, Braver, Nystrom, Noll, Jonides, & Smith, 1997), and process online (Christoffels, de Groot, & Waldorp, 2003). Working memory also plays a part in an individual's learning and comprehension (Baddeley & Della Sala, 1996).

Chunking and Cognitive Load

Chunking can be viewed as an extension of comprehension in addition to a sub-process of working memory and a major factor determining cognitive load. Higher cognitive processes, such as information processing, occur within working memory, and working memory has a limited capacity. Subsequently, information processed within this capacity, such as while interpreting, uses "chunking." The classic theory regarding cognitive load was first proposed by

Miller (1956), in which he stated that humans can process and retain seven, plus or minus two, "pieces" of information at a time. The chunks vary in size depending upon familiarity (Miller). The more familiar an interpreter is with the content, the larger the chunks can be and the chunks may contain substantial amalgamated information and take less cognitive load "space." Attention can be less allocated to concentration and temporary storing and the interpreter can have the luxury of using the attention spared for other parts of the process.

According to Seleskovitch, interpreters chunk incoming information, holding it for a few seconds in short-term memory until "cognitive complements" transform the lexical units into larger units of meaning. Once the units of meaning are formed, they converge into even larger units of meaning and can be analyzed for meaning and chunked into larger pieces by the interpreter (as cited in Mackintosh, 2007). These chunks can be analyzed at the lexical, phrasal, sentential, or discourse level and are retained for analysis until a complete understanding has been achieved or when the chunk is converged with another chunk (Cokely, 1992).

Chunking allows the interpreter's mental capacity to be more available for other cognitive tasks such as problem solving, decision-making, monitoring, association, and further analysis than if the interpreter is not chunking. Familiarity and practice play an important role in encoding and chunking information and are a major distinction between novices and experts in types of problem solving. De Groot (as cited in Sweller, 1988) performed the pioneering research on memory in problem solving in chess. Both experts and novices would search for solutions with the same depth and breadth. The difference rested in the experts' ability to remember and encode longer sequences of moves and configurations, thus being able to work with more information in pre-acquired schemas than novices (Sweller).

Online schema acquisition (i.e. schema acquired "in the moment" while interpreting), which is a product of working memory, aids chunking while processing. However, if the interpreter is having difficulty with the incoming information or needs to problem solve more than usual, schema acquisition may be difficult as problem solving uses a large amount of cognitive processing capacity (Sweller, 1988). Cognitive load is a capacity that varies based on the load required for various processing. The more efficient interpreter can lessen the cognitive load

allocated to schema acquisition, making more capacity available for other individual functions and multitasking.

Multitasking

The adaptive executive control allows simultaneity of cognitive tasks, otherwise known as dual-tasking or multitasking. Multitasking quickly consumes the mental resources or attentional capacity. Simultaneous interpreters likely cannot perform cognitive tasks at full capacity because of the cognitive load occurring simultaneously in the other parts of the process (Moser, 1977). Familiarity decreases the amount of cognitive load and thus allows for more multitasking, as does practice and in the best case, automaticity (Schumacher, Lauber, Glass, Zurbriggen, Gmeindl, Kieras, & Meyers, 1999). Full automaticity is not required for multitasking; however, an increase in automatization decreases the difficulty of the task and allows the executive control to re-allocate attentional resources, based on priority and strategy, to other demanding tasks (Schumacher, et al.). In interpreting, attention is divided to accommodate the many simultaneous tasks. The more the tasks are automated, the more attention can be allocated to other tasks such as analysis, attending to the message in order to comprehend it, and analysis of the goal of the speaker, planning, and decision-making.

Online Decision-Making

An individual reaches a decision by assessing available information and predicting potential outcomes. Influencing factors include how the outcome will affect the individual and other individuals, what the probability of the outcome is, and the potential risk. Social norms, values, and confidence, as well as cognitive control and process management color perspectives on risk. To complete the decision-making process, the individual integrates all of the aforementioned by applying knowledge, emotions, and dispositional tendencies (Parker & Fischhoff, 2005).

Decisions can be greatly affected by time-pressure and emotions. One reason for this is that emotion processing, working memory, and part of the decision-making process are operated in the orbitofrontal cortex, so stress can "clog" the ability to process information efficiently

(Bechara, Damasio, & Damasio, 2000). Another reason that emotions affect decision-making ability is that decision-making is influenced by bioregulatory process signals that are often expressed in emotions. These feelings can influence a variety of operations in the decision-making process and can be conscious or unconscious (Bechara, et al.).

Stress from time-pressure galvanizes a different response system in decision-making processes for decisions that must be handled immediately versus those that do not carry urgency. Time-pressure-influenced decisions are often based on emotional influences whereas in making decisions that do not need to be handled immediately, the brain responds more slowly and analytically (Sylwester, 2005). However, "snap judgments" that occur almost instantly but do not carry time-pressure stress may be analytical decisions processed quickly in the subconscious (Gladwell, 2005).

Decision-making relies on stress regulation ability; logical intelligence such as analysis, reasoning, problem solving and memory; metacognition; and tendencies of the individual. In 1998, Campbell divided interpreter tendencies into four categories: risk-taking, prudence, persistence, and capitulation (as cited in Clark, 2007). None of these tendencies that guide decisions are better than others in a clear-cut sense. Instead, the situational demands determine the best approach to making decisions in the interpreting process (Clark). Metacognition allows for the awareness and monitoring of tendencies and their effects in the decision-making process.

Set Shifting

Online decision-making relies on working memory, long-term memory, metacognition, and set-shifting abilities. Cognitive set shifting (Grant & Berg, 1948) is flexibility of approach or strategy when faced with a new challenge, rule, or reinforcement (Owen, Roberts, Hodges, & Robbins, 1993). Set-shifting flexibility is essential to adaptation. Interpreters locked into particular interpretations can neither adapt nor modify based on new signals such as a team feed or feedback from a client that indicates that the interpretation is not being understood or is not clear. Second language learners must release a learned set of rules, such as native language linguistic and cultural rules, in favor of learning a new set of rules. One cannot become bilingual

if unable or unwilling to apply rules in a new language that contradict the rules in the first language. The ability to adapt or shift set would occur after being presented with new stimuli and is connected to decision-making. In other words, if new information is presented and the decision-making process is activated, switching set can only be deemed as an option and carried out if one has the flexibility with which to do so.

Speed and Depth of Processing

Multitasking, cognitive load, and chunking contribute to the interpreter's brain's ability to process language and information. The better the interpreter's ability to multitask, chunk, and save capacity, the faster processing can be. The faster the process of accessing information from working memory or long-term memory, the more capacity that is saved during these stages, and the more attentional capacity that is available for the processing of incoming information (Moser, 1977).

Effort also goes into depth of processing. Analysis, memory, and available cognitive load aid in an individual's ability to process information more deeply. Processing depth ranges from sensory to semantic-associative. Semantic associative level processing is more likely to be retained and retrieved from memory (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). Interpreters must be able to process incoming information with various levels of knowledge and be able to process at various depths. Variant depth processing restructures cognition in interpreters (Moser-Mercer, 2000) likely allowing deep processing to occur more naturally.

Suggestions for Future Research

Further research could be conducted in six main areas: a) increased investigation and refinement of the aptitudes and their relationships, b) investigation of other aptitudes not included in the FCAAM and their relationship to the model, c) assessment of degree of significance among the aptitudes, d) application of the model as an analytical or diagnostic tool, e) application of the model as a basis for developing an aptitude test, and f) modifying the FCAAM relevant to various language combinations.

The application of the FCAA Model as an analytical or diagnostic tool for currently working interpreters is another area where further research could be conducted, as is application of the model as an aptitude test for potential interpreting students. A factor of great import is to decipher which aptitudes are innate, which are learned, which are capable of being learned, and which can be improved through learning and experience. It is likely that many can be improved although some individuals may have more potential for improvement than others.

Conclusion

Every individual is cognitively unique and some people are better suited for certain tasks than others. Up until now, there has been very little research describing which cognitive tasks are required in interpreting. The goal of this paper is not only to recognize the cognitive functions, but also to recognize at a more foundational level which cognitive characteristics are needed to perform the cognitive functions needed for interpreting. The FCAAM seeks to determine the cognitive aptitudinal traits for individuals seeking to become interpreters as well as to serve as a diagnostic tool for working interpreters. The FCAAM recognizes aptitudes/characteristics categorically and relationally. Ultimately the goal is to develop an aptitude test based on the FCAA model for individuals interested in becoming interpreters to determine career suitability.

About the Author

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Shedding Light on Issues and Interests That Drive Conflict in Interpreting

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Abstract

A fundamental element of ASL/English interpreting is ethical decision-making. The countless decisions interpreters must make incorporate personal and professional values, beliefs, cultural knowledge and competency in the non-deaf majority culture, the American Deaf Culture, and often, additional cultural perspectives that are represented in the communication exchange. Given the wide range of interpersonal and professional skills an interpreter must possess and the delicate boundaries we must maintain, it is no surprise that the interpreting field is fertile ground for conflict. This article summarizes a study which examined conflict, specifically issues and interests reflected in the grievances filed against ASL/English interpreters within the national Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) Ethical Practices System (EPS) from January, 1999 – July 1, 2005. The results of this study raise pertinent questions regarding how education efforts might address these issues and interests before they escalate to the level of formal grievance.

Introduction

For the 25 years I have been an American Sign Language (ASL)/English interpreter and interpreter educator, I have been intrigued by the study of ethical decision-making and interpreting. I am still amazed by the incredible honor and enormous responsibility it is to facilitate communication between D/deaf and non-deaf consumers during the mundane and not-so-mundane events in their lives: the births of their children, the deaths of their family members and everything in-between. Ethical decision-making, a cornerstone in this profession, is a complex process, incorporating personal and professional values with cultural knowledge and competency in the cultures represented in the communication exchange, including the majority "hearing" culture and that of the American Deaf culture. Considering the wide range of interpersonal and professional skills an interpreter must possess coupled with the delicate boundaries an interpreter must maintain, it is no surprise that this field contains such a great potential for conflict. My passion for teaching ethics and decision-making, along with the countless professional conflicts I experienced and observed over the years piqued my interest in pursuing advanced study in conflict theory and alternative dispute resolution. This course of study eventually led to my thesis research that is summarized in this article.

Conflict is addressed in the interpreting profession through a formal process when Deaf and non-deaf consumers believe a professional interpreter's actions or behaviors are unethical and in violation of the Code of Professional Conduct. Consumers and/or interpreter colleagues may file a grievance with the national Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID). Within the RID, a Professional Standards Committee oversees the Ethical Practices System (EPS) which includes an avenue for enforcement of the Code of Professional Conduct and a grievance procedure for processing complaints. This multi-level complaint process includes intake, mediation and adjudication[1].

Between January 1999, when the first RID mediators were trained and began their work in the EPS, until July 2005, when the "new" Code of Professional Conduct was adopted, RID received

[1] See RID's Enforcement Procedures Flow Chart at http://www.rid.org/ethics/enforcement_procedures/index.cfm/AID/67

over 100 grievances filed against interpreters (M. O'Hara, personal communication, June 22, 2007). Of those, mediators facilitated more than 30 disputes through formal mediation. The successful mediations ended with a written agreement, drafted by the mediator and signed by both parties, which summarized the key issues is dispute and the actions the parties agreed each would take in order to reach resolution. The study presented here represents the first time grievances and mediated agreements were systematically analyzed for the purpose of gaining deeper understanding of issues and underlying factors that caused conflicts to escalate to the level of a formal grievance. Additionally, I conducted mediator interviews which offered insight concerning the key questions that drove this research:

1. Why do these conflicts occur?
2. What lessons are found within the conflict themes that could be addressed and ultimately help strengthen the relationships inherent in the field of interpreting?
3. How might these themes inform interpreter and consumer education, both formal and informal, so that we might understand and manage conflict before it reaches the point of filing a grievance?

Conceptual Context

Sign Language interpreters learn the underpinnings of professional ethics and ethical decision-making in a variety of ways. Formal interpreter education programs, housed in post-secondary institutions across the country, are likely the first places students of interpreting are exposed to the concept of professional ethics, the NAD/RID Code of Professional Conduct and those ethical considerations which are uniquely related to ASL/English interpreting. After graduating from these programs, interpreters continue to develop and hone their ethical decision-making skills through professional development activities such as workshops and seminars, mentoring and/or on the job experience. While no published standards guide these educational activities, patterns and themes emerge from the literature available on the topic of ethics and decision-making for Sign Language interpreters.

A limited number of texts and research-based articles addressing ethics and decision-making for Sign Language interpreters currently exist. Gish (1990) was one of the first to publish a book for

teaching students of interpreting about ethics and decision-making. Mills Stewart and Witter-Merithew are authors the most current book to date addressing specific ethical decision-making strategies and skills for students of interpreting (2006). In addition to these books, a handful of other texts or book chapters address this topic, as do several articles in conference proceedings and the Journal of Interpretation, the scholarly publication of the RID. Dean and Pollard (2006) published a noteworthy article proposing that a variation on the Demand-Control Schema be used as a tool for developing critical reasoning skills and making ethical decisions by focusing on the consequences of actions.

One topic that Gish and Mills Stewart and Witter-Merithew overtly address is conflict and its place in the decision-making process. Gish (1990) explores conflict from a problem-solving perspective, offering a problem-solving model as a tool to use when considering conflict and analyzing decisions. Stewart and Witter-Merithew also address conflict, but more from an Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) perspective, incorporating information from mediation practices into the chapter addressing conflict, sources of conflict, and interpreting-related conflict resolution strategies. The field of ADR offers many approaches to conflict and dispute resolution outside a court of law, including, but not limited to, restorative justice practices, negotiation, mediation and adjudication. Before addressing the RID Ethical Practices System, which incorporates mediation and adjudication when resolving grievances filed against interpreters, it is advantageous to gain a deeper understanding of conflict and conflict analysis from the field of ADR.

Conflict is inevitable and can happen any time two or more people come together with differing points of view, ideas, life experiences and/or perspectives on any given situation. Johnson and Johnson (1991) remind us that "the word conflict is derived from the Latin *conflictus*, meaning "striking together with force" (p. 303). While the personal and professional conflicts we experience on a daily basis often feels as though they fit this explanation, it is the definition Pruitt and Kim (2004) offer that provides a helpful, and more hopeful, frame of reference when considering the conflict that occurs in our field: "For us, conflict means *perceived divergence of interest*, a belief that the parties' current aspirations are incompatible" (pp. 8 – 9). Much has been written about theories of conflict, strategies for negotiating disputes and mediated approaches to

conflict resolution. Several of these theories and conflict analysis strategies are germane when considering the conflicts that drive a consumer or colleague to file a grievance against a practicing interpreter.

Moore (2003) offers a conflict analysis approach that is considered a classic tool in diagnosing conflict: the "Circle of Conflict" (p. 64). In this model, Moore identifies and defines five types of conflict: relationship, data, interests, structural and value-based.

1. Relationship conflicts are those with strong emotions, misperceptions or stereotypes, poor communication or miscommunication, and are repetitive negative behavior.
2. Data conflicts include misinformation, different views on what is a relevant, different interpretations of the data and different assessment procedures.
3. Interests based conflicts are defined as perceived or actual competition over substantive (content) interests, procedural interests or psychological interests.
4. Structural conflicts are those related to destructive patterns of behavior or interaction; unequal control, ownership or distribution of resources; unequal power and authority; geographical, physical, or environmental factors that hinder cooperation; time constraints.
5. Values conflicts involve different criteria for evaluating ideas or behavior; exclusive intrinsically valuable goals; different ways of life, ideology or religion (p. 64).

A more recent iteration of Moore's work by Furlong (2005) removes the interest category from the other categories, implying that interests reach more broadly across all categories of conflict and express a party's "wants, needs, hopes and fears" (p. 38). Furlong adds another category of conflict to the circle called "externals/moods," which are factors that contribute to the conflict yet are not directly a part of the situation (p. 32). Mills Stewart and Witter-Merithew (2006) identify Moore's original schema as a helpful tool in understanding conflict as it applies to interpreting, offering case studies incorporating interpreting-related examples of the various types of conflict and discussion questions to explore possible resolution strategies. Moore's Circle of Conflict, as modified by Furlong, offers a theoretical foundation from which to begin diagnosing the conflict within the grievances filed against interpreters. While it is important to distinguish the various types of conflict and their causes, it is equally important to seek a deeper understanding of the roots of the disputes within these conflicts, and identify the underlying

interests that drive the parties in the dispute. We do this by first understanding the difference between issues, positions and interests.

According to Gold (2006), an "issue" is the subject of the dispute, the "position" is the stance a party takes on the issue, yet at the heart of the matter you find the parties' "interests," or *why* the issue is important to them. Interests are basically those things that an individual deems important or desirable and incorporate a person's needs, desires and wants: "Interests tend to be central to people's thinking and action, forming the core of many of their attitudes, goals, and intentions" (Pruitt & Kim, 2004, p. 15). "A focus on interests provides the opportunity for learning about the parties' common concerns, priorities, and preferences, which are necessary for the construction of an integrative, or a mutually beneficial agreement that creates value for the parties" (Lytle, Brett & Shapiro, 1999, p. 33).

Three types of interests include: substantive, procedural and psychological (Lax & Sebenius, 1986, as cited in Lewicki, Barry & Saunders, 2007; Moore, 2003). Substantive interests relate to the focal issues of the negotiation and have to do with things of substance such as time or money. Process interests are those related to *how* the dispute is being settled. Psychological interests (referred to by some as relationship interests) are those concerning the relationship and emotional needs of the parties, both during and after the negotiation. Lewicki et al. point out that Lax and Sebenius suggest that there is a fourth "interest in principle" when they say "Certain principles – concerning what is fair, what is right, what is acceptable, what is ethical, or what has been done in the past and should be done in the future – may be deeply held by the parties and serve as the dominant guides to their action" (p. 66). This theoretical frame offers an effective approach to analyzing conflict, specifically the underlying drivers of the conflict.

When considering this framework in the analysis of conflict with interpreters, it is important to consider those strategies and approaches that have the greatest potential to produce an integrative or interest-based outcome. According to Lewicki, Barry, and Saunders (2007), an integrative approach, also described as "cooperative, collaborative, win-win, mutual gains, or problem solving" (p. 58), is one that is most conducive to maintaining relationships. Given the nature of the work, interpreters must successfully maintain and negotiate relationships with multiple

parties all of the time. Not only does the interpreter maintain direct relationships with all of the parties involved, but she/he also is an integral part of the relationship that is developed and maintained by the parties as their communication with each other moves through the interpreter. As such, an integrative, interest-based approach to conflict resolution is a critical element and an important lens to use when analyzing conflicts and grievances within interpreting.

Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005), in their monograph featuring perspectives of stakeholders, begin to explore interpreting conflicts through focus groups and interviews with members of the Deaf community and note "feedback from representatives of the Deaf Community indicates that concern and dissatisfaction regarding interpreting services has increased" (p. 31). The feedback they gathered identified themes in the concern and dissatisfaction felt by consumers in the areas of interpreter attitude, self-awareness and identity, professionalism and business practices, and linguistic competence. The findings in this research provide valuable clues into common issues and interests within the Deaf Community regarding their work with interpreters and the conflicts that arise. These conflicts, if filed as formal grievances, are processed within the Ethical Practices System of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID).

According to the RID Ethical Practices System Policy Manual (2006), "the goal of the RID Ethical Practices System is to uphold the integrity of ethical standards among interpreters. In keeping with that goal, the system includes a comprehensive process whereby complaints of ethical violations can be thoroughly reviewed and resolved through mediation or complaint review" (p. 1). When consumers or other interpreters file a grievance against a practicing interpreter with the RID, they initiate a multi-level process for handling the complaint that includes intake, mediation and/or adjudication. In this study, I analyzed a random sampling of the mediation agreements and complaints filed in the EPS to cull common themes in the conflicts that emerge throughout the documents. These complaints and agreements offered a rich source of data from which we can learn a great deal about the underlying issues and interests found in interpreter-related conflicts.

Methodology

This research study attempted to answer the question: What do the themes found in the grievances filed against ASL/English interpreters suggest about the issues and underlying interests driving the complaint process? Related to this question were four sub-questions: (a) What issue spurred the complainant to proceed with a formal grievance? (b) Who were the complainants? (c) Were these patterns and themes specifically addressed in the "new" Code of Professional Conduct? and (d) Based on this information, what specific topics in ethical and professional decision-making need to be addressed or further clarified in educational programming for interpreters (both pre-service and continuing education) and/or consumers of interpreting services?

This research began with an extensive literature review of scholarly work on the topics summarized earlier in the Conceptual Context. Next, I analyzed a total of 49 documents from the RID Ethical Practices System filed between January 1999, when the mediation process began, and July 2005, when the Code of Ethics guiding interpreters' decisions was replaced by the current NAD/RID Code of Professional Conduct. The 23 mediation agreements and 26 grievances that were filed but were disqualified because of some technicality in the process, were randomly chosen and meticulously sanitized by RID staff. All identifying information including locations, names of people and/or entities involved in the dispute were removed from the documents. My review included documenting themes that surfaced when comparing these documents to the RID Code of Ethics, the NAD/RID Code of Professional Conduct, Moore/Furlong's Circle of Conflict (2005) and the interest categories as offered by Lewicki et al. (2007). Finally, I conducted interviews with five of the most experienced RID mediators to clarify and/or corroborate the findings in the literature review and the analysis of the data. The mediators, two Deaf and three non-deaf, were from locations across the country and provided a range of diverse perspectives and skills. The interviews included questions that drew upon the mediators' experience and knowledge to further illuminate the sub-questions identified in this research.

Results

A total of 113 complaints were filed with the Ethical Practices System from January 1, 1999 to July 1, 2005. Forty-six of these complaints went to mediation and 32 reached agreement. A total of 31 complaints did not meet the EPS criteria and were disqualified. Thus, the random sample of 49 mediated agreements and grievances used for this study is a strong representation of the whole, reflecting 78% of the documents that met the criteria of this study and nearly half (43%) of the total grievances. A substantial finding of the analysis shows that 36 of the 49 documents, or 78%, were complaints filed by Deaf consumers of interpreting services. Only five complainants were interpreter colleagues and four were agencies with whom interpreters worked. This finding is important because it indicates a disproportionate dissatisfaction in Deaf consumers of interpreted interactions and it offers a focus for the remaining analysis of the data. The top five settings in which these conflicts occurred were: Community or Public Setting, Legal, Employment, Education and Medical. While it could be argued that all settings are important, it is worth noting that these top five settings are particularly high-stakes environments where the consequences of unethical behavior and/or conflicts between consumers and interpreters can have serious and potentially long-term ramifications.

Issues in Light of Ethical Codes for Interpreters and Conflict Theory

The figures show how frequently each tenet in the Code of Ethics (Figure 1) and the Code of Professional Conduct (Figure 2) were identified in the documents. Most of the grievances and agreements noted several violations and therefore were documented accordingly. Additionally, the results of the Circle of Conflict analysis (Figure 3) and interest categories (Figure 4) are also presented.

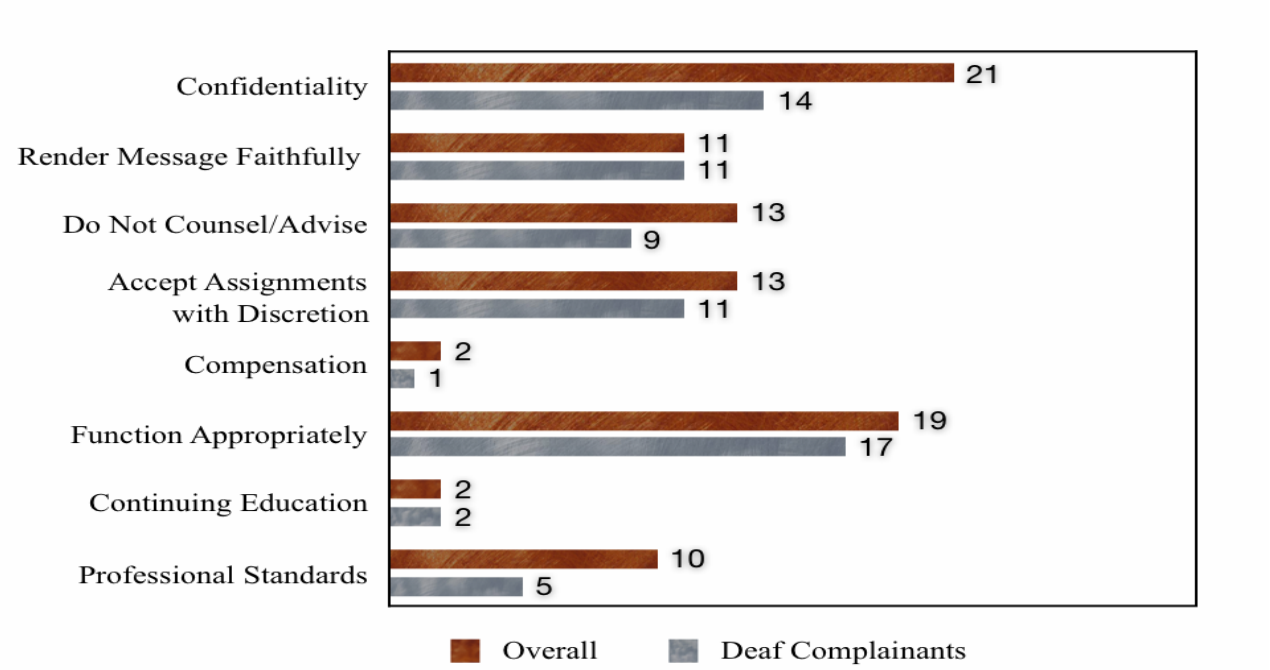

Figure 1. Code of Ethics – Overall and Deaf Complainants.

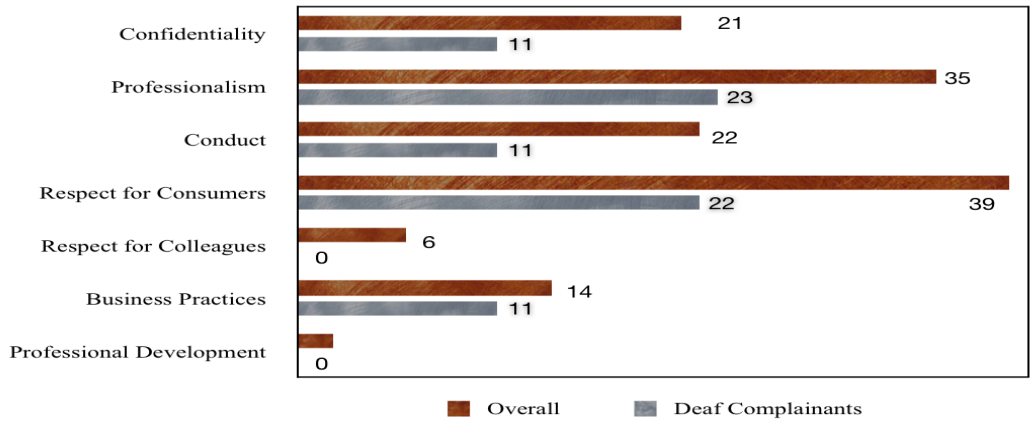

Figure 2. Code of Professional Conduct – Overall and Deaf Complainants.

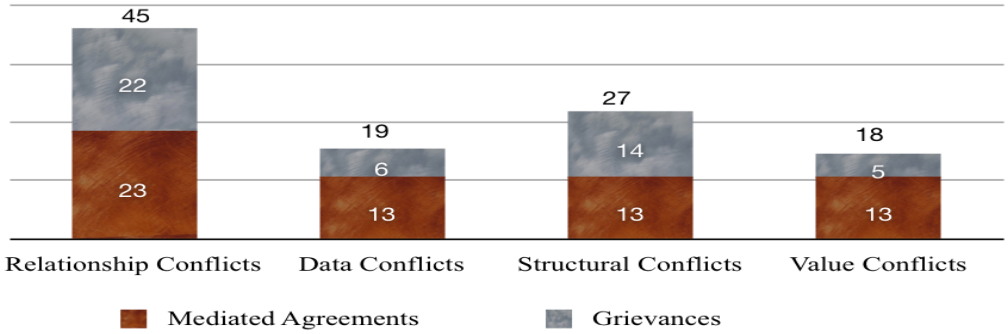

Figure 3. Types of Conflict[3]

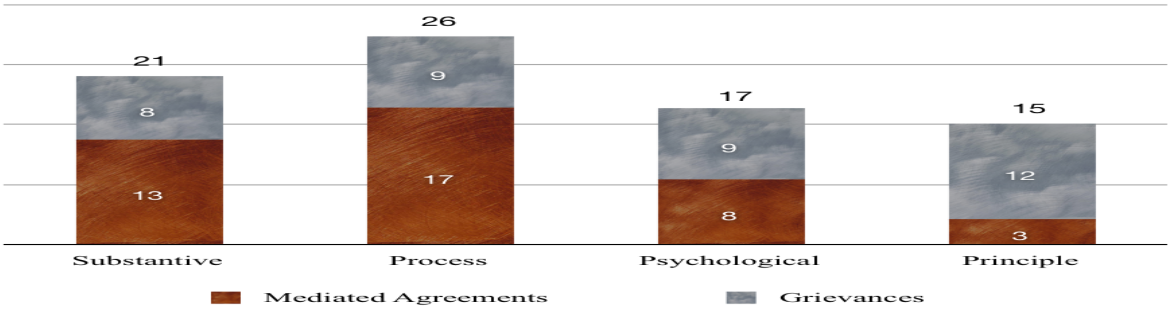

Figure 4. Interests

Discussion

This study showed that the issues and interests present in grievances filed against interpreters fell into five major categories: Confidentiality, Attitude and Respect, Impartiality and Boundaries, Professional Behavior, and Technical Interpreting Skills. In terms of conflict theory, the data analysis revealed that relationship conflict was the most prevalent, process interests were the most noted, and substantive interests were highly prevalent.

[3] Note: 31 of the 45 documents possessing relationship conflicts included references to issues occurring over a period of time.

Confidentiality

Interestingly, confidentiality was the most frequently cited breach in ethical behavior in all of the grievances, but was less frequently noted when looking solely at the Deaf consumer grievances. It did, however, appear frequently within the conflict theory analysis as a substantive issue with ties to procedural interests. The "substantial" issue was the confidential information and the differing perspectives the interpreter and complainant had with regard to the definition of "confidential" information. The "process" in dispute was how and with whom the information was shared, and for what purpose. If the emotions around the issue of confidentiality were explicitly raw and suggested a deeper pain, interests were also coded as psychological.

Respecting and honoring confidential information is the cornerstone for developing trust between interpreters and Deaf consumers. The profession has recognized that there are professional standards for dealing with confidential information, as seen in the Illustrative Behaviors under the confidentiality tenet of the Code of Professional Conduct. If we begin looking at confidential information as something of substance that both Deaf people and interpreters value, and begin discussing if, when, why and how that information is or is not shared, we will be addressing mutual interests in process and substance. Despite the number of incidences relating to confidentiality, this was not the top issue identified by the mediators when asked to name the top three reasons they thought Deaf people filed complaints against interpreters. The issue identified by four out of the five mediators was related to interpreter attitude and consumers feelings of being disrespected.

Attitude and Respect

There is no mention of "attitude" in the Code of Ethics or in the Code of Professional Conduct, yet this word and related themes, such as respect (or lack thereof) permeated the documents. Despite having neither an overt mention of attitude nor any apparent means to address this within the Ethical Practices System, it is particularly intriguing to note that the second most cited tenet

in the agreements and grievances was Tenet #6, which directs interpreters to "function appropriately" in various situations.[4] "Function appropriately" is a nebulous phrase open to wide interpretation and with great potential for conflict, yet it appeared to serve as an open door to the grievance system for those issues related to attitude. Commonly used terms by the complainants in an effort to describe or further define this concept frequently pertained to what the interpreter did or conveyed through behavior or demeanor. The interpreter was "not appropriate," "unprofessional," displayed "attitude," did not act "professionally," and/or displayed inappropriate or no "boundaries."

An example of disrespect and attitude explicitly noted in six of the documents addressed the interpreters talking to non-deaf people in the presence of the Deaf consumer without signing, consequently leaving the consumer out of the exchange and without any opportunity to "overhear" or monitor what was said. This issue, like many others, was framed with terms like "disrespect" and "attitude," and included a sense of indignation, frustration, and urgency, reflecting a desire for this not to happen to other Deaf people in the future. Other examples of attitude surfaced in terms of acting overbearing and controlling. Deaf complainants expressed concerns that the interpreter was "over-controlling," telling office personnel to "hurry up because she has to leave," and in one particularly blatant example, the Deaf complainant stating, "she is like a BOSS-MOTHER to us."

This notion of attitude was further explored during the interviews with the RID mediators. Each mediator was asked to define attitude from two different perspectives: a Deaf perspective and an interpreter perspective. When defining attitude from a Deaf perspective, the mediators' described attitude in terms of respect, cultural understanding and competency. This supports the definition of attitude that Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) illuminated when conducting interviews with Deaf consumers, which also included themes of respect and cultural competency. When the mediators were asked to consider the definition of attitude from an interpreter's perspective, several key elements from the interpreter perspective seemed to miss the point with regard to possessing a deeper understanding and appreciation for the Deaf experience, and oppressive behaviors. The interpreter perspective included several elements that were tangible and

[4] "Interpreters shall function in a manner to be appropriate to the situation."

measurable but were based on more superficial action that did not reflect a deeper appreciation of core values and beliefs one would expect to be shared (or at least recognized) by an interpreter. This inconsistency across definitions suggests that there is a disparity between Deaf people and interpreters with regard to how attitude is viewed, defined and measured. This misperception, particularly when it is perpetuated over time, is a source of conflict with serious ramifications within Deaf consumer and interpreter relationships.

Impartiality and Boundaries

Another source of conflict with serious ramifications is found in the Code of Ethics tenet addressing impartiality. Behaviors that indicated a transgression with regard to impartiality and boundaries varied, from blatant examples of the interpreter "stepping out of role" and taking over some part of the interaction (i.e. completing a Deaf student's class work, trying to diffuse an emotional exchange between the Deaf and non-deaf consumers, and "bad-mouthing" a Deaf consumer's family member) to actively engaging in the exchange between the complainant and the non-deaf consumer, or carrying on a conversation with the non-deaf consumer using spoken English and not signing, even though the Deaf consumer was present. Issues with boundaries were very clearly marked with terms stating the interpreter did not act "professionally," "stepped out of role," and/or "displayed inappropriate or no boundaries."

When exploring the definition of boundaries from the Deaf and interpreter perspectives with the RID mediators, each view held a common understanding that a boundary is a line or a distance between the interpreter and the Deaf consumer. Significant differences were related to *who* drew that line, how wide or close the distance is between the two and perhaps most importantly, who *controlled* the line or distance when it was moved or adjusted. Another noteworthy difference relating to the underlying interests regarding boundaries is that the Deaf perspective appears to be based on empowerment and self-determination, and the interpreter perspective is based on professional responsibility and integrity of the work, or on the strong desire to "help."

Professional Behavior

Directly related to boundaries is the concept of *professional behavior*. Professional behavior is an overarching term that can encompass many if not all of the previously mentioned issues, depending upon how one defines it. The descriptors used by the complainants to define professional behavior and to convey dissatisfaction in that regard again included phrases like: the interpreter was "not appropriate," "unprofessional," and did not act "professionally." For example, several grievances mentioned non-certified interpreters who were working in courts and law-related environments represented themselves as certified interpreters with credentials in legal and medical interpreting. Other unprofessional behaviors mentioned by complainants included interpreters answering cell phones while interpreting and sleeping on the job.

Technical Interpreting Skills

The next most frequently referenced tenet was Tenet #2, addressing the integrity and comprehensibility of the interpretation.[5] An issue mentioned often was that the interpreter was "unqualified" for the event, and possessed inadequate skills; therefore, the consumer was not able to access and understand the message. It is interesting to note that in the complaints reviewed for this research, consumer frustration with technical skills and understanding the message were cited less frequently than issues of professional judgment and interpersonal skills. This seems to suggest that a) the attributes and characteristics that fall under the umbrella of "attitude" are important and valued more than interpreting skills, and b) a poor attitude and judgment are tolerated less than weak interpreting skills.

Conflicts and Interests Analysis

The most prevalent type of conflict in the grievances and mediation agreements was relationship conflict. These conflicts, characterized by strong emotions, poor communication,

[5] RID Code of Ethics "Interpreters and transliterators shall render the message faithfully, always conveying the content and spirit of the speaker using language most readily understood by the person(s) whom they serve."

miscommunication, and negative behavior occurring repeatedly over time, were noted in 92% of the documents and were evident in all five of the above mentioned categories. This is an important finding because building and maintaining relationships, rapport and trust are significant elements in the work of interpreters.

A second important finding was discovering process interests as the most noted throughout the documents. It appears from this study that Deaf people are telling us, through these documents, that for the most part, they want to be involved in making decisions with regard to how an interpreted event proceeds. The decision-making involvement is not with the interpretation, per se, as demonstrated in the proportionately lower concern regarding interpreting skills and the lack of interest in the professional development areas of the Code of Ethics and Code of Professional Conduct; rather, involvement lies in deciding where the interpreter sits or stands, how clarifications are made, and how the non-deaf consumer is told about how to work with an interpreter. When they are not involved in this decision-making process (particularly by not being asked), when they are ignored as they try to engage in the process, or when the interpreter talks with the non-deaf person without signing, they detect "attitude" and as a result feel deeply offended and disrespected.

Recommendations

One of my motives for conducting this study was to see if the results supported the notion of including information on conflict theory and resolution into education efforts for students of interpreting, working interpreters and consumers of interpreting services. I believe it does, and in that spirit I offer the following recommendations to interpreter educators:

1. Include more information about the RID EPS and mediation in courses and activities for students and working interpreters; specifically, what mediation is, what is involved in the process, what to expect and how to prepare for mediation.

2. Explore the use of Circle Processes[6] in classrooms and on a local, community level so as to further build collaboration within communities and address the misunderstandings and misperceptions fueling conflicts between Deaf people and interpreters Circles could provide the structure and framework necessary for hosting successful, intentional conversations between Deaf people, students and working interpreters on topics like those addressed in this study and may serve as a preliminary step in resolving disputes before they escalate to formal grievances.
3. Address the need for interpreters to possess a deeper understanding and appreciation for the Deaf experience and Deaf Culture by expanding their focus on Deaf Culture, both in and outside of the classroom. To address the issues raised in mediations regarding negative non-verbal messages that escalate conflict, efforts in Deaf Culture and ASL classes are needed to assist students in raising their self-awareness with regard to unintentional negative, non-verbal messages they may express through posture, facial expression and eye contact. Additionally, courses in intercultural communications, anthropology and other related fields of study can help inform these efforts and build a stronger base of cultural competence within the students.
4. Offer a deeper, more genuine learning experience with regard to Deaf Culture and the Deaf experience for working interpreters in their continuing education activities (including self-designed independent studies). More active involvement in the Deaf Community, and/or participation in the Community Circles recommended above may further hone cultural competence and provide opportunities for growth and development.
5. Educate both interpreting students and working interpreters about conflict and conflict resolution would benefit interpreters, Deaf consumers and the profession. Helping interpreters develop strategies for how to prevent or address and resolve these conflicts would strengthen their working relationships and the rapport they must have with Deaf consumers. Further exploration of the conflict theory, including examples and case study application, would provide interpreters with a solid foundation in understanding conflict, including common issues and interests driving conflicts within the field. Activities specifically focused

[6] Circle Processes are a form of restorative justice and are often used in efforts to build community. The work of Kay Pranis, *The Little Book of Circle Processes* (2005), would serve as a useful tool in these efforts.

on ethical decision-making and developing a greater appreciation for the consequences of those decisions will also help develop a greater appreciation for the consumer perspectives and build a stronger sense of empathy for those involved in interpreted exchanges.

6. Identify current and best practices on the systemic level of interpreter education, and specifically address cultural competence, ethics and decision-making. How is cultural competence developed and measured? What theory and models for analyzing ethical dilemmas are being taught? What activities are used to move theory to practice for students? How is success measured? All of these questions are critical to providing consistent educational programming.

Conclusion

Conflict happens. It is an inevitable part of our daily interactions with colleagues, students, consumers, and acquaintances. While not every decision made by interpreters is an ethical dilemma (Hoza, 2003; Kidder, 1995; Mills Stewart & Witter-Merithew, 2006), and not every conflict that surfaces during an interpreter's day escalates to the level of a formal grievance, I believe this study makes a useful contribution to the body of research that guides how we discuss and teach interpreting, ethical decision-making and what we know about working as ASL/English interpreters. I am hopeful that the results of this study prove to be valuable in informing the educational activities offered to students, working interpreters and consumers of interpreting services by providing a better understanding of why conflicts occur, particularly those between interpreters and consumers, and how we can better understand them to ultimately strengthen, not destroy, our working relationships.

About the Author

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Addressing the Standards: Forming Meaningful Relationships Between Interpreters, Interpreting Students and Deaf People

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Abstract

The current state of the Deaf community is addressed by looking at current trends such as the Deafhood awareness that is spreading through Deaf community circles. Analysis of the Deaf community perspective on the evolution of the community and how interpreters approach interpreted events is key to determining how to set standards for interpreter education. The interpreter perspective on the role of the interpreter both in and out of interpreted events, and how that role has shifted over the years is at the forefront of interpreter education needs. A look at select interpreter training programs shows that interpreter education curriculum may not be fully addressing the current underlying themes that are continually emerging in the Deaf community. This paper addresses current research ideology and applications to utilize interpreter education curricula that are more sensitive to the Deafhood movement and addresses how we can strike a balance as Deaf people and interpreters.

For the purposes of this paper "d" deaf, will be used to signify a person who fits the medical definition of deaf, and a "D" Deaf, will be used to signify a person who considers him/herself culturally Deaf.

The Deaf Community and Deafhood

Outsiders to the Community have written about Deaf individuals and analyzed the culture of Deaf people for decades. Most analysis focused on the lack of sound and hearing in deaf peoples' lives (Humphries, 2008). Historically, little attention has been given to Deaf cultural aspects and foundations. However, during the forty-plus years since American Sign Language was first recognized as a language, a wide body of research and literature has developed. Alongside books written by hearing researchers, more articles, books and research done by Deaf people on their own culture and community have been published, such as Padden, and Humphries (1988), Kannapell (1989) and Bahan (1989), making true insider perspectives accessible to all students of the language and culture. Indeed, many interpreters and ASL students are more able to outline basic Deaf Culture and ASL principles than deaf people themselves. Schools and programs for deaf children are slowly starting to include Deaf Culture and ASL classes for their own deaf students. As a case in point, Gallaudet University has just recently made an introductionary ASL and Deaf Studies class a requirement for all majors (Gallaudet Undergraduate Catalog, 2007-2008).

The shift from the 20th century to the 21st century showed a growing self-awareness as well as transcendence within the thinking of Deaf people. A growing number of deaf people perceive themselves as being Deaf in terms of a cultural perspective rather than an "it just is" perspective. With the publishing of Ladd (2003), theoretical applications in Deaf studies have forced the field to become a "producer of theory rather than a consumer of it" (Bechter, 2008, p. 60). Ladd delved into the histories of Deaf people in France during the 19th century and in England during the 20th Century. From a lens of colonialism and resistance theory, Ladd was able to show the experiences of Deaf people were analogous to those who had been colonialized.

What was even more powerful to many Deaf Studies scholars reading Ladd's work was that Deaf people today continue to experience the same kind of oppression that Deaf people worldwide experienced in the 19th and 20th centuries. Most American scholars were used to looking at Deaf community issues within our own country, without considering the experiences of deaf people in other countries. Furthermore, Ladd made it clear that the experiences of oppression were not unique to our linguistic minority group but to that of others who had endured the colonialization of British and other empires around the world. This helped solidify the thinking of many Deaf Studies scholars, giving them a paradigm and body of research on which to base their community analysis and discussions.

Key to the analysis of colonized minorities was the value of the inside voice. When people from that particular oppressed group shared their experiences and analyzed the cultural norms from within, what resulted was a rich data base that could be used for numerous purposes. The value placed on the inside voice empowered Deaf researchers to take on different projects analyzing multiple aspects of the language and culture, such as Kuntze in the field of literacy (2008) and Ladd in Deaf cultural theory (2003).

In 1975, Humphries took the Latin root *audire* (meaning *to hear*) and coined the term *audism* to describe oppression related with hearing. He went on to define audism as "the notion that one is superior based on one's ability to hear or behave in the manner of one who hears" (as cited by Bauman, 2008, p. 13). Now the term is making its way through Deaf community circles as members recognize oppression experienced daily and use associated terminology to talk about it. The oppression was external, from the mainstream community, and internal, such as how many deaf people are taught that they need to speak to fully fit into society. Parents and teachers encouraging and praising deaf children's oral skills created an environment where deaf people with good oral skills would look down on other deaf people without those oral speaking abilities. This resulted in a systemic internal oppression within the Deaf community and caused divisions that continue to this day (Ladd, 2003).

In his search of Deafhood, Ladd (2003) analyzes the experience of Deaf people by using colonialism theory. He looks at how colonialism has affected minority groups and shows how

Deaf people have the same type of experience. Such an example of linguistic colonialism existed in the Deaf community when some deaf people did not regard the signed language being used as "a bona fide language and promoted the use of a Signed English variant as the only appropriate medium for intelligent communication" (Ladd, 2003, p. 178).

Instead of becoming unified, the Deaf community divided into two groups; a group that subscribes to the majority beliefs such as using spoken language and maximizing residual hearing versus a group immersed in signed language who embrace the Deaf world. There has lately been a resurgence which has allowed Deaf people to break free of the oppression experienced from hearing people and other deaf people who have identified themselves with the hearing community. Ladd's term, Deafhood defines "the existential state if Deaf 'being-in-the-world'. Deafhood is not seen as a finite state but as a process by which Deaf individuals come to actualize their Deaf identity" (p. xviii). The process and understanding of being deaf and what it means to be Deaf is a very individual experience yet universal in members of the Deaf community worldwide. This shared experience is the understanding of *Deafhood*.

This process occurs almost as if in a vacuum, however the impact of enlightenment is not minimal. While it seems more and more deaf people recognize that oppression is part of their lives and are becoming empowered to make changes, the process is not over yet. The resurgence is bringing forth discussion and shedding light on the lifelong oppression experienced by deaf people. There is a real push for systematic change, to make sure the Deaf voice is heard and Deaf values are recognized by mainstream society. This freedom to talk about and recognize what has been suppressed so long is liberating. More and more deaf people are reacting to this newfound privilege, some in positive ways and some in anger.

Many people who may or may not have been the intended audience have felt these reactions. Based on the authors' collective experiences, at times deaf individuals have felt oppressed by interpreters and likewise, at times, deaf people have made interpreters feel the same way. This may be due to the unique position of interpreters being the most accessible group of hearing people, the ones that come in the most contact with and who can actually converse with deaf people. Deaf people, reacting to the accumulated oppression in their lifetimes by retaliating

against hearing people may react more strongly to perceived oppressive behavior from interpreters. Sometimes the situation the deaf person and the interpreter find themselves in would ordinarily warrant no strong reactions from either party yet results in either or both parties feeling like victims of oppression. Furthermore, interpreters work with a variety of deaf people from numerous backgrounds and ethnicities, including those that are both deaf and Deaf. How do interpreters fit into both worlds? How do they develop the cultural dexterity to successfully negotiate all possible situations? Are interpreters able to foster relationships between hearing and Deaf cultures? How do we provide a balanced educational experience for student interpreters that leads to a well-rounded, bi-cultural, empathic professional?

Introduction of Interpreters/Interpreting Education

In order to look towards the future of interpreter education practices, we must first examine the evolution of the profession. Sign language interpreting began as a charitable activity that was performed by hearing friends, family members, and neighbors of Deaf individuals. Deaf people had these friends and family members interpret at church, make phone calls for them, or accompany them to doctor visits. Thus, in the early years, interpreting duties fell to individuals who were asked by Deaf people to interpret. This process of Community selectivity was the norm until the early 1960s (Cokely, 2005). As a person became a friend of a Deaf individual, it was considered an inherent duty to interpret for a variety of situations. There was no notion of interpreting as a profession.

On June 17, 1964 the idea of interpreting as an organized profession began to change when the National Registry of Professional Interpreters and Translators for the Deaf was formed. The intent of this organization was to recruit, train, and register individuals who were acting as sign language interpreters into one organized entity. From that moment on, the practice of Community selectivity evolved. Instead of solely through deaf people, prospective interpreters started to be recruited by other interpreters and later, by interpreter training programs (Cokely, 2005). These Interpreter Education Programs (IEPs) were established to provide a means of skill development for those new interpreters who did not have access to the Deaf community through familial relations or friendships.

Long gone are the days of Community selectivity. Today, many aspiring interpreters have never met a deaf person prior to entering an IEP. Their interest in the profession often comes from exposure to sign language taught by hearing teachers or seen on television. New interpreters develop their skills entirely through IEPs and, some become practicing professionals with limited contact with the Deaf community; Most often, ASL teachers are the only deaf persons with whom those interpreters have a significant relationship. Indeed, while one of the authors of this paper went though her interpreter training in the 1990s, she was exhorted not to socialize with Deaf people by her IEP instructors, fearing that these kinds of community ties would contaminate the neutrality of the interpreting situation. From conversations with other interpreters across the country, she found this was a common message given to interpreter students during this time.

As the evolution continued in the field of interpreting, many models of interpretation were established including the "communication conduit, communication facilitator, and cross-cultural mediator" (Liedel & Brodie, 1995, p. 99) to keep up with ever-changing demands placed on the profession as a whole. Over the years, higher percentages of deaf people attained college degrees and with better access to education and training, rose up in the ranks of corporate, academic and political venues. In conjugation, the interpreting profession as a whole, raised training and education expectations for interpreters. The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) added a degree requirement to their interpreter certificate testing eligibility requirements (RID, 2003). Advances in technology, particularly Video Interpreting and Video Relay Interpreting, led the field to, yet again, develop skills and protocols for a wider variety of situations.

In our readings and discussions, we learn that Deaf people want interpreters with the right "attitude." Mindess (1999) discusses this issue in-depth in her work:

> Attitude has been identified as the most important characteristic of an effective interpreter. To me, the right attitude means putting Deaf people at ease, placing Deaf people's needs as your priority, enjoying Deaf people's unique perspective on the world, acknowledging the special cultural patterns of Deaf people, and most importantly, supporting the Deaf community (p. 229).

IEP instructors have long been challenged to teach something as ambiguous as attitude. The prevailing wisdom in the early days was that if one put in the years, he or she would earn the respect of the Community. But as the profession developed further, and cultural studies as a whole became more widespread, interpreter educators became apt at applying new cultural analysis techniques to the Deaf community. The challenge is to teach beyond the obvious, on-the-surface Deaf culture values, such as long goodbyes and hug greetings, to the internal and subtle cultural value system that guides the interactions and lives of Deaf people. Additionally, the challenge is to teach student interpreters to "read" the Deaf community members as well as individual cultural dynamics and adapt accordingly.

Currently, the interpreting profession is focusing on the huge variations in interpreting assignments by adding new models such as the Demand-Control Schema (Dean & Pollard, 2001), the Deaf community is experiencing its own evolution about who Deaf people are and the essence of being that makes up each individual. Are the changes that are taking place concurrently in the Deaf and Interpreting communities parallel to each other? Do they support the efforts of both cohorts, or are these two successions working against favorable outcomes?

Recommendations to Foster Cultural Awareness

The authors are advocating for inclusion of a variety of "cultural competence" activities that are listed below. These activities are a compilation of best practices of several IEPs in America regarding the infusion of cultural awareness and competence in their IEP curricula. Furthermore, the authors recommend that IEP curricula should be infused with views from Deaf Individuals who are interpreter stakeholders. Interpreter stakeholders have a bigger investment in interpreters then the average Deaf/deaf individual. These may be people who work with interpreters daily, are interpreters themselves or work in an IEP.

The field has recognized this challenge to create a blueprint for cultural and linguistic teaching standards. The Commission of Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE) standards call for "Minority group dynamics, prejudice, class, power, oppression, and social change, as well as

Language and society, bilingualism, language variation, syntax, semantics, cross-cultural communication, and cross-cultural conflict" (National Interpreter Education Standards, 2007). The new CCIE standards also state that "efforts should be made to recruit qualified Deaf program directors, faculty, and practicum supervisors" (National Interpreter Education Standards, 2007) However, there do remain some barriers to deaf people attaining positions in IEPs that should be of concern to professionals in the field. Many IEPs require RID certification of their staff and, while this is a good standard, it is perhaps not the only standard IEPs should use when considering deaf individuals for positions. RID's pool of Certified Deaf Interpreters is very small: 74 as of July 2008 (RID, 2008) so not many deaf people possess RID certification. Additionally, the role of Deaf Interpreters as well as guidelines for training and certification is still in flux (Boudreault, 2005). Perhaps IEPs could consider a deaf person's portfolio of experiences teaching interpreting as well as possession of Advanced American Sign Language Teachers Association certification as an alternative indicator of a quality instructor. Team teaching opportunities where Deaf and hearing instructors teach interpreting together is another approach IEPs can take to ensure their students get training from experienced interpreters and get the Deaf perspective as well as see Deaf people as partners in the interpreting profession.

As Interpreter Educators, we also must seek out ways for our interpreter students to create meaningful relationships with d/Deaf people outside the classroom. Redardless of how good the teachers are, or the student's aptitude for learning language, one must immerse him/herself in native-like signing situations. The manufactured environment of the classroom, the simulated dialogues, lab practice, and even signed conversations amongst the students need to be synthesized by actual and involved interaction with a variety of Deaf people outside the IEP environment.

As to the issue of needing to let the Deaf Community work through the new reality of Deafhood, interpreters, interpreter trainers, and interpreter students can show sensitivity and their support for the process in several ways. With their Deaf friends, they can provide a sounding board to keep the Deaf people "real" in their perceptions of hearing people. For instance, in the writing of this paper, the two Deaf authors quickly came up with different instances where interpreters oppressed Deaf people, but the hearing interpreter author countered with similarly emotional

stories where deaf people had oppressed interpreters leading us to realize the effectiveness of dialogue in cultural understanding. Hearing interpreters with significant relationships with Deaf people can model ways to encourage partnerships with Deaf people, such as to choosing to sign at interactions with mixed hearing and deaf participants. Hearing IEP instructors can use their positions to advocate for the hiring of Deaf IEP instructors. In many ways, large and small, our field can work toward a healthy balance of hearing and deaf perspectives.

Current Practices in IEPs to Foster Cultural Awareness

The authors conducted an informal survey of IEP instructors from 8 different programs across the country. We had direct relationships with the instructors so were able to take the discussion to a more in-depth level as we asked questions relating to what their IEPs do to promote meaningful relationships between their student interpreters and Deaf people. We found that most of the standards for IEP students and Deaf interactions include structured academic activities with the goal of allowing students to develop Deaf cultural awareness. Within these activities it is assumed that students will have exposure to a semblance of Deaf culture. Below is a list of activities that we found are currently being utilized across the country:

1. Deaf Awareness Club: Among the schools we polled, we learned that most have a student lead organization whose mission is to promote "Deaf Awareness." This is a social group that participates in various school-wide activities such as the Homecoming parade. They typically have one or more performance-type activity per year in which the group members perform songs and skits using ASL. In most cases the percentage of Deaf people involved in the group is minimal compared to hearing students. In schools with very few deaf students, this group often is the de facto group of friends of those deaf individuals.
2. ASL Club: In most cases this is a social group in which all members get together in a silent setting. All participants must use sign language to communicate. Again, in most cases the percentage of Deaf students is minimal compared to hearing students.
3. Silent Weekend: Often done in partnership with local ASLTA/RID chapters, the silent weekends provide students with a day or two of workshops, exposure to different Deaf individuals than the students typically see at school, possible "speed" mentoring to get one-

on-one conversational practice and feedback, vocabulary development and fun/games, all in ASL.

4. Deaf Community Service: A rising number of IEP programs try to instill a service component to learning through volunteerism. Some tasks include serving meals at Deaf Club functions, manning booths at a Deaf Carnival, or helping with grounds cleanup day at a Deaf camp. It was expressed that by providing the students with more tangible responsibilities, the learning activities became more authentic, thus creating a sense of belonging.
5. Local Deaf Club: Each school that we contacted has course requirements mandating students attendance at a number of Deaf events. These events can vary in context from attending a Deaf church service, Deaf school plays or Thanksgiving dinner at the Deaf Club. Students are often asked to attend an event and write a report on the experience. In many communities the local Deaf Clubs do allow students to become members. However, most of the schools we spoke with reported that often the interactions seem "forced." The experience seemed to be more beneficial when events were attended with a Deaf community mentor or a person assigned to "introduce" the interpreting student to different Deaf functions.
6. Deaf Community Members in the Classroom or Lab: A few of the schools we spoke with ask Deaf community members to assist in the classroom for various interactive and role-playing activities. Students seemed to feel these interactions were beneficial; however, compensation was always an issue and varied depending on the school. Several programs staff their lab with Deaf people, giving the developing interpreter the opportunity to converse with and develop relationships with a variety of d/Deaf people.
7. Mentoring Programs: In one state, there is a statewide mentoring program that provides funding to mentors of interpreting students. In another state, the interpreter organization supplies funds for mentoring. Mentoring has proven to be successful in fostering relationships that seem to be more meaningful to both the hearing student and the Deaf mentor. In building these more profound relationships, both individuals can relate on a more personal basis. Once empathy has been established, solid working relationships and a sense of partnership evolve. The time spent mentoring is typically one-on-one between a Community member (a trained mentor) and the student or between working interpreters and current students. Some mentoring sessions focus on ASL skills, some focus on Deaf culture issues, and others work on the process of interpreting itself. In many cases the Community

member invites the student to meet his or her family and attend Deaf activities together where the Deaf person can introduce the student to other Deaf folks in a far more relaxed and natural manner than would happen if the interpreter student went to the event alone. Working with a Deaf mentor, the students gain insights on that person's views on what makes a good interpreter.

8. Culture Infused into Curriculum: A popular way to discuss how different cultural values can conflict is to present case analysis of incidents involving opposing cultural values. Suggested resources include material by Holcomb and Mindess (2001, 2007), Foley (2003), and Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005). After studying these materials, students are better prepared to debate the incidents from different perspectives and gain insights through a neutral medium on Deaf culture that will link with their real life experiences and interactions with Deaf people they encounter. Crucial to the development of cultural competence in interpreter students is the recognition of their own culture. As Mindess (1999) discusses in one chapter of her book, "Do Americans Really Have a Culture?" interpreter students need to recognize how culture guides their perceptions and decision-making. This includes and goes beyond the various backgrounds of the interpreter students (i.e. ethnicity, religion, urban/rural). In several schools, the concepts of "White Privilege" and "Hearing Privilege" and their impact on minority cultures in Western society are examined. Along those lines, a few schools that the authors polled stated that, while students are actively involved in the Community through fieldwork, they also have the opportunity to discuss and analyze every experience in their fieldwork class. It is expected that these courses will cover the specific issues observed and felt by students when engaged in interpreting and social situations.
9. Innovative Community Forum on Attitude: During the recent school year, a community college took the initiative to directly address the issue of "attitude" in the field by hosting a 4-step community forum involving Deaf consumers, interpreters, student interpreters, IEP instructors and other stakeholders. Opening such a community debate is opening the doors to Deaf-Interpreter collaboration on lining up the two community dynamics.

This list is somewhat comprehensive; however, most IEPs we surveyed use select techniques from this list. All the activities mentioned in the previous list lead to the development of cultural competence, which in turn is the development of the "good attitude" that deaf people expect

from interpreters. The truth is that once an interpreter begins to realize that interpreting impacts another human life and it becomes personal, his or her attitude begins to change. Once interpreter students and interpreters have personal relationships with a variety of deaf people, they are open to flexible working relationships with their deaf consumers.

Curriculum That Brings a Deaf Perspective Into the Classroom

As a positive indicator on the increased value of cultural competence for interpreters, the 2007 CCIE Interpreter Education Program standards require that accredited IEP programs be guided by a philosophy that reflects the "sociolinguistic view of Deaf and hearing communities. Efforts should be made to establish and maintain an open and continuing dialogue with the various members of the Deaf community representing the diversity within the communities. Diversity within the Deaf community must be recognized as an evolving factor. The opinions and information gained through the dialogues should guide the development of the curriculum, instruction, and practicum" (National Interpreter Education Standards, 2007, p. 5).

In the following paragraphs, we outline a few suggestions that may be of benefit to interpreter education programs in fostering collaboration and a deeper understanding of the cultural differences amongst the Deaf community and interpreters. We suggest that these four concepts be implemented in addition to the activities already being utilized as outlined above.

Relatively new to the profession of interpreting is the idea of applying Demand-Control Schema (DCS) to our work. Dean and Pollard (2001) propose that interpreters do impact the interpreted situation in several ways. Interpreters change the word choices of the consumers involved and add and delete information as to their perceptions of the goal of the message. Additionally, consumers respond to translation choices which influence both individuals and the situation at hand DCS is a way to present situations to interpreter students, affording them the opportunity to manage a specific situation. DCS focuses more on the choices interpreters can make while interpreting than the technical skills involved within the interpreting process. Dean and Pollard state that interpreters face demands or challenges while interpreting which are categorized as environmental, interpersonal, intrapersonal, and paralinguistic. Each of these demands presents

interpreters with challenges that require decisions to be made to while interpreting. The reactions/controls may include behavioral actions and interventions, translation decisions, or internal/attitudinal acknowledgments (Dean & Pollard). With DCS, interpreters must recognize that they have an impact on the interpreted situation as well as the degree of success in becoming integrated into the situations. "It seems unrealistic to say that interpreters then should strive to be "invisible" to the consumers involved…" (Liedel & Brodie, 1995, p. 100).

Presenting this information to interpreter students, and acknowledging the difficulties interpreters face daily will help ease the stress new interpreters face when entering the field. Discussing all perspectives (ideally with both hearing and Deaf instructors) while practicing DCS in the classroom presents interpreter students with a positive way to manage interpreted situations as they occur. With the newness of DCS, the field awaits more study materials that include perspectives and reactions from Deaf professionals in the field who can share how they personally use DCS.

Liedel and Brodie introduced another tool for interpreters, the Cooperative Dialogue model, at the 1995 national RID convention. This model allows for an ongoing dialogue between both the interpreter and Deaf individual in regards to interpreted events. For example, as deaf people have found themselves involved in more corporate environments, the need for interpreters and deaf people to work together to navigate the corporate culture has increased. Interpreters who work in these settings need to develop a greater range of skills including public speaking, increased register, and cultural mediation between the corporate culture, Deaf culture, and mainstream cultures. Using Cooperative Dialogue, the Deaf person and the interpreter can meet prior to corporate events to discuss goals for the meeting and strategies for communication efficiency while maintaining corporate meeting dynamics. During the meeting, the two would work together, adapting the communication strategy as needed. After the meeting, the two again would meet to discuss successes and what could be changed for better communication efficiency to better meet the Deaf person's goals at the next meeting.

This approach is unlike the status quo where interpreters often assume that consumers take a passive role in the interpreted situation. Likewise, Deaf individuals just as often lay blind trust in

the interpreter to perform a successful interpretation and deliver the content of the message exactly the way it was intended. According to Liedel and Brodie (1995), the onus is on both the interpreter and the Deaf person to work together towards a successful outcome. This model suggests that interpreters and Deaf individuals work as a team, assisting each other in providing accurate interpretations. This model assumes dialogue will occur before, during, and after each interpreted situation.

The Cooperative Dialogue model is based on a few simple principles that could easily be integrated into any IEP. First, the Deaf individuals and interpreters take mutual responsibility for the outcome of the communication event. Secondly, both must acknowledge the interdependence of the interpreter and Deaf participant and the effect that relationship has on the outcome of the situation. Finally, both must collaborate throughout the communication event to ensure the message is perceived accurately by all involved (Liedel & Brodie, 1995).

This model can be integrated into an IEP through the use of Demand-Control discussions in the classroom as well as observations throughout the Community. While implementing DCS in the classroom, professional corporate settings can be discussed openly. Asking Deaf professionals into the classroom to elaborate fully on their experiences in the corporate environment can lead to a better understanding by both perspectives. Allowing students to begin experiencing professional corporate interpreting can only lead to more success for all people involved. An additional benefit to inviting Deaf people into the classroom is that they become educated about the possibilities of Deaf-interpreter partnerships and this empowerment enables them to discuss the communication situation with interpreters in the field, utilizing Cooperative Dialogue.

One way we can begin this process is by applying consecutive interpreting (CI) both in and out of the classroom. Consecutive interpretation is the process of interpreting after the speaker or signer has completed one or more ideas in the source language and pauses while the interpreter transmits that information into the target language (Russell, 2005). It is interesting to note that CI has been written about by a Deaf person advocating for its use (Stratiy, 2005). Additionally CI is used often when working with a Deaf Interpreter (Boudreault, 2005). These two reasons make the authors give pause to this as a possible curriculum inclusion because historically, CI has been

used as a teaching tool for students of interpreting. Recently, however, CI has become more popular in real-life situations as well. It has been concluded that consecutive interpreting leads to a more accurate interpretation (Ficchi, 1999; Russell). Thus far, CI has not been taught as a viable method for interpretation due to various myths including the notion that interpreters using consecutive methods are less skilled than those who only utilize simultaneous interpreting and consecutive interpreting is too time consuming. Contrary to these myths, CI can be a quite viable means of communication. It is a means by which a more cohesive and natural target language utterance may be produced. When working with the Cooperative Dialogue model, CI can be extremely successful. Interpreter Education Programs would be served well by including the practice of consecutive interpreting as a means of providing an effective interpretation, as opposed to solely focusing on the benefits of CI as a stepping stone to simultaneous interpreting.

The increasing use of Deaf Interpreters (DIs) presents a unique challenge and opportunity for IEPs. It is a challenge because the guidelines for use of DIs are still in flux. Not all interpreters understand the role and responsibilities of working with a DI. In fact, Cokely (2005) states that the "linguistic and communicative strategies that CDIs (Certified Deaf Interpreters) commonly employ are markedly different from what has become expected, conventional practice among non-deaf interpreters/transliterators" (p. 20). He goes on to say:

> These observations suggest that there is much about the work of our Deaf colleagues that we do not yet understand and that they may not be able to fully articulate. One wonders then how it is possible to assess and certify competence in the absence of such fundamental research. (p. 20)

In some regions, DIs are often utilized in a wide variety of situations including medical appointments, social security interviews, and conferences, but in other locations, DIs are only used for legal interpreting such as in the court systems. An additional IEP challenge is to create opportunities for interpreter students to practice with a DI especially at locations where DIs are scarce. "Providing a course on the role and tasks of the DI as it relates to hearing signed language interpreters is essential as well. This way, they will be more prepared to work with a DI as a team. This will allow them to be more aware of and prepared to use DI services when the communication between Deaf and hearing consumers becomes uncertain or difficult"

(Boudreault, 2005, p. 351). Deaf and Hearing team interpreting presents opportunities for better communication rendering and IEPs should lead the profession in promoting the use of DIs. DIs are also uniquely able to see both the Deaf and the Interpreter sides to interpreting situations, particularly those with cultural misunderstandings, and are a real asset during DCS discussions.

The lives of Deaf individuals, as well as interpreters, have changed significantly in the last few decades. IEPs need to make curricular changes such as the inclusion of Demand-Control Schema, incorporating the Cooperative Dialogue model, placing more emphasis on Consecutive interpreting and teaming with Deaf interpreters to meet the current demands of the field. IEPs need to ensure that cultural competence is emphasized including how the Deafhood movement is transforming the needs of Deaf professionals. The Deaf community has an obligation to itself and the interpreting community to become involved in the educating of new interpreters. The interpreting community has an obligation to educate itself about the plight of the Deaf community: to expand on the positive one-on-one relationships that already exist between Deaf people and interpreters to positive collaborations between the Deaf and Interpreting communities. The embracing of Deaf-interpreter partnerships should happen inside IEPs and outside, in the everyday lives and work of Deaf people and interpreters.

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Measurement of Cognitive and Personality Traits in Determining Aptitude of Spoken and Signed Language Interpreting Students

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Abstract

The study of aptitude for acquiring interpreting skills is the premiere focus of a research partnership between Lessius University College (Belgium) and the University of North Florida. The partners report preliminary results of studies with conference (spoken) and community (signed) interpreting students and discuss potential for future aptitude research. Lessius reports on an admission standards descriptive study and replication of a study that suggested predictors of success in interpreting programs. UNF reports on an exploratory study that measured *critical thinking, cognitive flexibility, memory, psychomotor speed, and motivation.*

Introduction

Interpreter education programs strive to improve recruitment and retention of students who demonstrate aptitude for completing program requirements with vital entry-to-practice competencies; however, the basic question that perplexes faculty members and program directors

continues to be, "What student traits, or aptitudes, can predict successful acquisition of interpreting skill"? This question is the same for all programs, despite the fact that they work with diverse language pairs and within different modes (spoken/conference interpreting and signed/community interpreting). Research efforts around *the question* have been extensive and ongoing for the past 25 years in the realm of spoken language/conference interpreting aptitude (Alexieva, 1993; Gerver, Longley, Long, & Lambert, 1989; Lambert, 1991; Longley, 1989; Moser-Mercer, 1985; Moser-Mercer, 2000; Russo, 1993; Russo & Pippa, 2004) and, to a lesser extent, within signed language interpreting studies (Humphrey, 1994; López Gómez, Bajo Molina, Padilla Benítez, & Santiago de Torres, 2007; Monikowski, 1994).

The topic's complexity, which has centered on identifying the cognitive components of the interpreting process, has spawned recent investigations on working memory, information processing, and mental capacity of both spoken language interpreters (Köpke & Nespoulous, 2006) and signed language interpreters (Hermans, van Dijk, and Christoffels, 2007). If cognitive and personal traits indeed affect student success in interpreting skill acquisition, continuing this line of research will promote practices in admission and aptitude testing, counseling, and recruitment that are more evidence-based and, consequently, less likely to reject students who might develop the necessary traits through quality programming and personal development. Controversy within our profession surrounds the somewhat delicate topic of admitting or declining students based upon test results that are not valid, and frankly, there is little evidence to substantiate that presently-administered admission tests are capable of predicting student success in their interpreting programs of study. One aspect of aptitude that has become apparent to researchers is that reliable predictors are elusive at the moment and if we are able to identify them, one comprehensive aptitude test would not be applicable to all programs.

Amongst immense challenges, the practice of researchers working in isolation is not optimal for building a consistent body of research that speaks to the issue of predicting student success (Shaw, 2006). For this reason, an official, bilateral research partnership was established in 2008 between faculty researchers from the University of North Florida's ASL/English Interpreting Program and Lessius University College's Department of Applied Language Studies (Antwerp, Belgium) to confront the challenges of aptitude research. The partnership (hereafter referred to as

LUC/UNF) has identified commonalities in theory and purpose and is committed to pooling its personnel, time, expertise, and financial resources for continuing the research of student aptitude and admissions testing. The research efforts of the respective partners were already in full swing at the time the institutional agreement was approved in Spring 2008, and the subsequent joint endeavors will concentrate on expanding upon the work of Lessius (Salaets & Timarová, 2008; Timarová & Ungoed-Thomas, 2008) and UNF (Shaw & Hughes, 2006, Shaw, Grbić, & Franklin, 2004). The convergence of previously parallel efforts will center on the goal to eventually substantiate student screening practices with evidence.

The LUC/UNF partnership accepts the basic assumptions that should preface discussion about aptitude/admissions testing and screening of potential students. These assumptions are:

1. Bi-lingual proficiency is an obvious requirement for learning the interpreting process, and, depending upon the length of the program, language study may or may not be incorporated in the program of study.
2. Evidence-based testing would serve the purpose of conserving financial and temporal resources of students and programs. A larger proportion of students would successfully complete their studies within the standard length of the program, money could be saved, and student efforts to succeed would not result in failed final examinations and failing course marks.
3. Aptitude/Admission Testing should be program-specific and relate to the length, content, and methods associated with the particular program.

The partners also agree upon a suggested model of aptitude testing that clarifies the distinction between *aptitude for acquiring interpreting skill* and *aptitude for being an interpreter* (see Figure 1).

	Entry		**Training**
	Innate	Acquired	Acquired
Learning ability			Feedback integration
	Intelligence	Problem-solving skills	
Interpreting ability	Memory	Language proficiency	Note-taking skills (spoken)

Figure 1. Examples of major skill categories (learning, interpreting) and their time of acquisition (innate, acquired before training, acquired during training).

So far, literature and research on aptitude focused on skills required for the interpreting skill as such (e.g. Jiménez & Pinazo, 2002; Lambert, 1991; Moser-Mercer, 1985; Russo & Pippa, 2004; Sunnari, 2002). It is our belief that, given the complexity of the interpreting process and the fairly limited time allotted for acquisition of the skill, it is likely that students need to be equipped with a set of learning skills that will help them to acquire the core interpreting skill within the given amount of time. Such learning ability should not be taken for granted. Students applying to interpreting programs are usually required to have a previous university degree. During their prior studies they have certainly demonstrated their ability to study, however, we wish to make a crucial distinction here between academic, primarily *knowledge-based* studies and interpreting programs, which are *skill-based*. The transition from one kind of learning to another may not be straightforward for all students, and those who excelled in their previous academic studies may find it hard to cope with the interpreting program. We believe that good pedagogical practice also needs to take into account different types of learners and understand their learning specificities in order to be able to facilitate the learning process for all who have the potential to become interpreters.

We also support the premise emphasized by Dodds (1990) that we should avoid screening out potential students who do not exhibit skills they have never performed. The scenario that Dodds presents to support this cautious rejection of applicants is taken from the history of screening at the University of Trieste (Italy) where admission tests are non-binding (unenforceable). On one

occasion, Gringiani (1989) documented that in a group of applicants, 36% of the applicants who failed the admission tests successfully completed their programs and became interpreters. Similarly, 45% of those who passed the tests failed to complete their programs. This is the kind of eye-opener that propels the LUC/UNF team toward systematically identifying traits for successful *aptitude for acquiring interpreting skill.*

Lessius University College Research Summary

The Lessius University College admission testing research program is a follow-up of an earlier project reported in Timarová and Ungoed-Thomas (2008, in preparation). The project took a descriptive approach to mapping the situation in existing admission practices across interpreting schools. More specifically, 18 schools offering spoken language (conference) interpreting programs responded to a survey on current admission practice and success rate. The results (Timarová & Ungoed-Thomas, 2008) have shown that there is a reasonable consensus among schools in terms of which tests are used for selection, and also in rationale for the tests: schools roughly agree on which skills are tapped by which tests. However, schools also demonstrate a fairly high failure rate – on the average, close to 45% of admitted students do not complete the program successfully. A second part of the project (reported in Timarová and Ungoed-Thomas, in preparation), we analyzed available admission and final exam records from one school. Our analysis suggests that the prediction model is very weak, i.e. that the admission tests as presently administered weakly predict final exam success. These results led us to consider alternative approaches to admission tests. Literature on the topic includes a number of empirical attempts (Gerver, Longley, Long & Lambert, 1989; Moser-Mercer, 1985; Russo and Pippa, 2004) to construct admission tests using more stringent criteria than applied in present tests (validity and reliability) and, crucially, to determine predictive value of such tests prior to their application in real-life screening.

The current research project carried out at Lessius in 2007-2008 builds on one such previous study. Specifically, Gerver and colleagues (Gerver, Longley, Long, & Lambert, 1989) found a number of tests of basic language-processing skills which demonstrated a very high predictive validity vis-à-vis final exams (consecutive and simultaneous interpreting). The aim of the present

project at Lessius was two-fold. One, we replicated the study by Gerver et al. to test their conclusions and see if they are as potent as originally reported. Two, as mentioned above, we subscribe to the view that interpreting research and practice has so far failed to make a crucial distinction between the interpreting skill and the aptitude for acquiring the interpreting skill. In other words, research and practice focus on testing the skills that are considered important for interpreting per se, but do not consider the specific demands of the learning process. A student may have the necessary skills for interpreting, such as good memory, but may fail to complete a program due to insufficient capacity for learning, e.g. problems with integrating feedback into subsequent performance. For these reasons, we included additional tests into our test battery. These tests were comprised of standard psychological tests of learning styles, motivation and mental flexibility. The shift of focus on the skill acquisition process constitutes a major, novel contribution by LUC/UNF to interpreting research and practice. The project is in its early stages, and only partial and preliminary data are available at the moment. Full report of the results will be published later. For this reason, this paper will report only preliminary partial results of two sub-populations (of a total of six groups).

Method

Participants

Students of the one-year postgraduate (spoken language) conference interpreting program at Lessius University College, Antwerp, Belgium (LUC) and at Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic (CU) participated in the study. There were 9 LUC candidates (7 were admitted to the program), 7 women and 2 men, and the mean age was 23.2 years (s.d. = 3.49 years). There were 23 admitted CU students, 20 women and 3 men, and the mean age was 30.4 years (s.d. = 6.32 years). The main reason for the mean age difference between the two groups is that, at LUC, the student population is mainly composed of students directly progressing to the course from their undergraduate studies, while at CU the study program is offered as a life-long learning degree course, and candidates typically apply for admission as part of their early-to-mid-career change. The background of LUC students typically consists of a first degree in applied language studies, while the background of CU students is more diverse, including first degrees in language studies,

but also in law, business studies, humanities or social sciences. Due to demographic (and other) differences, the two samples are analyzed separately, but it is important to see whether similar patterns can be observed across the two groups in order to generalize the applicability of tests to different interpreting schools, or to limit their application to specific programs of study.

Materials and Apparatus

The test consisted of 11 tasks, nine of which replicated materials used by Gerver et al. (1989). All materials were in the participants' native language (Dutch for LUC students, Czech for CU students). Only five tests (all based on Gerver et al.) will be discussed here.

Cloze tests 1, 2 and 3 (CL1, CL2 and CL3).

Three cloze tests were designed in each language. Each test was based on a newspaper article and was approximately 500 words long. CL1 and CL2 were presented as written tests. In CL1, a total of 35 words were selected and deleted from the text. In CL2, every tenth word was deleted. CL3 was presented as an auditory task and, also in this test, every tenth word was deleted and replaced by a short tone signaling the gap. The difference between the auditory and written version of the cloze test is that in the written task, participants had the opportunity to evaluate both preceding and following context, and go back and forth as they found necessary, or even return to a particular place later. The auditory version of the test was much more restrictive in this respect – participants heard the text only once and had to write down the missing words during listening. The score was the number of correctly completed blanks.

Error Detection (ED).

For each language version, an article was selected from a newspaper and adjusted and modified to the length of approximately 500 words. Errors of three types were inserted. One error type was pronunciation, in which a consonant in a word was changed so as to produce a non-word (phonetically plausible string of phonemes, but lacking semantic meaning). For example, "foat" was substituted for "coat" (example taken from Gerver et al. (1989). Semantic errors consisted of

replacing a lexical item with another word, which was implausible in a given context, such as "a table has four rooms," with "rooms" being an incorrect substitute for "legs." Syntactic errors consisted of changes to a single word, which produced an error of one of three types: incorrect verb tense, incorrect verb number (singular vs. plural form) or incorrect preposition. There were 17 instances of each type of error (pronunciation, semantic, syntactic) distributed in the text for a total of 51 errors. The text was presented auditorily at a slow rate. Participants listened to the text only once and had to note down all words which were incorrect. The score was the number of correctly identified errors.

Synonyms Test (SY).

Participants were given five words (two nouns, two verbs, one adjective), and their task was to write as many synonyms for each word as possible within a time limit of five minutes. Two examples were provided to illustrate the boundaries of what is considered a synonym (e.g. metaphorical use, slang words, etc.).

Results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) for the two groups, CU and LUC, of students' performances on individual tests. A series of ANOVAs has shown that neither test discriminates between students who passed and those who failed their final interpreting exams. The measure for pass/fail was the overall result as defined by school requirements, such as passing both consecutive and simultaneous interpreting exams on a minimum number of languages (usually two foreign languages required). The same test was run with a less stringent definition of "pass." A student was coded as passing if she or he passed the final exams for at least one of the working languages. The rationale was that such results demonstrate ability to acquire the interpreting skill. However, the results of the ANOVAs have not changed – none of the tests were significantly predictive. On the other hand, a series of t-tests has shown that there are significant differences between schools on three tests: Cloze 1 ($t(28) = 7.0$, $p < 0.001$), Error Detection ($t(28) = -5.66$, $p < 0.001$) and Synonyms ($t(28) = 5.87$, $p < 0.001$).

Table 1

Mean Scores (With Standard Deviations) on Each Test Achieved by CU and LUC Students

Test	School	
	Charles University (N = 21)	Lessius University College (N = 9)
Cloze 1 (written, key word blank) max score = 35	32.1 (2.35)	24.0 (4.00)
Cloze 2 (written, 10th word blank) max score = 50	33.1 (7.96)	30.9 (7.34)
Cloze 3 (audio, 10th word blank) max score = 50	37.2 (4.78)	35.0 (6.18)
Error Detection max score = 51	30.2 (4.72)	40.3 (3.91)
Synonyms	34.1 (6.43)	20.0 (4.85)

Discussion

Based on the work of Gerver and his colleagues (1989), we expected our replication study to find significant predictive value for all five tests. However, this was not the case. We now would like to discuss some of the possible explanations and consequences. The first possible explanation is suggested in the significant differences between the two schools. Three tests turned out to produce significantly different scores between the student groups. While it is true that the tests were constructed in different languages, the author team worked very closely on making them fairly similar, following pre-specified parameters. The parameters were partly based on Gerver et al.'s work, but were made more specific where the original study did not go into sufficient detail. Similarly, scoring procedures were made as close as possible. The difference between the present and the original study was the administration of all tests in the participants' native languages, while Gerver et al. used English and French because they were two languages common to all participants (for some, these were the mother tongue, for others they were one of their working languages). However, by removing the language effect, our study would be expected to have more power and produce more convincing results, but this was not the case. Another issue that jumps to mind is the age difference between the two groups of students, as mentioned in the Participants sub-section. This difference is significant ($t(28) = 3.17$, $p = 0.004$) but difficult to

compare to the original composition of the participant group, as the average age is not reported. However, the age range (21 to 35 years) reported by Gerver et al. suggests that the original study was conducted at a school offering an interpreting program for a demographically similar group as the one at Charles University, i.e. more mature students who are making an early-to-mid-career change. Both issues will need closer attention. Another explanation for the failure to replicate the original results is in the timing of the tests. Gerver and colleagues administered the tests during the regular screening procedure, while the present study administered the tests as a separate research project on an occasion separate from the admission testing. It is possible that the motivation to perform to one's best abilities was higher during the original study testing.

These are just some of the possible reasons for the results of the study. More data are coming in (for the other tests, and also for other populations of students) which need to be analyzed yet. However, it seems clear at this point that the results of the original study are not universal, and that more research will need to be carried out to determine the precise nature of the original results and the ability of the tests to provide such high levels of discriminatory power. As mentioned in the introduction, universal application of screening procedures is very unlikely, and the specific circumstances that are at play cannot be easily adjusted for and captured.

University of North Florida Research Summary

In 2002, Phase I of a multi-phase study investigated student and faculty perceptions of what students needed to successfully transition from language proficiency to interpreting skills acquisition. This phase targeted signed and spoken language interpreting students in Austria and the U.S. (see Shaw, Grbić, & Franklin, 2004, for method and result details). The constructs that emerged as major contributors to student transition included *external support systems* (such as family encouragement)*, faculty-student relationships, personality characteristics, program curricula, academic skills, and professional* experience (see Stauffer & Shaw, 2006, and Craw & Shaw, 2007, for related studies on *personality characteristics* and *support systems*). Phase II was designed to quantify these constructs and over 1,500 interpreting students responded to surveys asking them to rank the characteristics in order of importance and in order of which traits they needed most to develop (see Shaw, 2006, for comprehensive results and Shaw & Hughes, 2006,

for signed language student results). Following the first two phases in which student and faculty perceptions were documented, the logical next step was to actually observe these characteristics in a third phase.

A study conducted in summer 2008, *Fundamental Neuropsychological Traits and Learning Strategies of Spoken and Signed Language Interpreting Students***,** became Phase III of the project. One of the goals was to provide student-generated data that identified which traits are present when a student begins interpretation study and which may be acquired through skill sets that target their development throughout their programs. The results, once finally analyzed, are expected to support the present theoretical stance that central nervous system functions and learning strategies of signed language and spoken language interpreting students are closely related, thus encouraging a more comprehensive exchange of students, faculty, and curricula across modalities.

Method

Research Questions

Phase III used a mixed-methods approach and was the first direct measure of specific attributes that faculty members and students thought were the most important for successfully acquiring the skills to interpret. The study was exploratory in nature and sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the neuropsychological, learning, and personal traits of the participating student groups?
2. Are there differences between entry-level (those beginning simultaneous interpreting courses) and advanced (those nearing program completion) students?
3. How do the neuropsychological, learning, and personal profiles of males and females and spoken language interpreting (SPI) and signed language interpreting (SLI) students compare?

Participants

The sample (N = 47) was comprised of students from SPI programs (n = 29; 62%) and SLI programs (n = 18, 38%) in four categories: entry-level spoken (n = 13, 27.7%), advanced-level spoken (n = 16, 34%), entry-level signed (n = 5, 10.6%) and advanced-level signed (n = 13, 27.7%). The sample was primarily female (n = 41, 87%) and the mean age was 24.23 (s.d. = 3.84 years). Representatives from each of the four countries are: Czech Republic (n = 11, 23.4%), Austria (n = 11, 23.4%), Belgium (n = 15, 31.9%), and The Netherlands (n = 10, 21%). The sample was heavily weighted with conference interpreting students due to the limited number of SLI programs in the E.U. Likewise, entry level students from either modality were less available for testing during the period of data collection, which ran toward the end of their semester terms. The one criterion for participation in the project (based upon discussion by the instrument-review team) was that students were proficient in English, which was not problematic as many had English as one of their working languages, had studied abroad, or were accustomed to using English in daily interactions. This requirement for English proficiency was necessary for students to participate in group interview using English and to take the AMI. Students had the option to select a test language for the CNSVS so that reaction times could be accurately calculated in their native languages without the additional process of working within a B language.

Materials and Apparatus

The instruments used in the study were selected by an international team of test reviewers (researchers and interpreting faculty from spoken and signed language interpreting programs) who rated potential instruments on their appropriate measurement of the characteristics previously identified. The group reviewed **d2 Test of Attention** (Brickenkamp & Zilmer, 1998), **Motivated Strategies for Learning Questionnaire** (Pintrich & DeGroot, 1990), **CNS Vital Signs** (CNS Vital Signs, LLC, 2003) and **Achievement Motivation Inventory** (Schuler, Thornton, Frintrup, & Mueller-Hanson, 2004). Considering such features as a test's content validity (relevance to interpreting students), language availability, translation quality, cost, and technical support, it was decided that the CNS Vital Signs (CNSVS) and Achievement

Motivation Inventory (AMI) would be the best choices to field test with interpreting students at four universities:

1. Charles University, Prague, Czech Republic (SPI program)
2. Karl-Franzens-University of Graz, Austria (SPI and SLI programs)
3. Lessius University College, Antwerp, Belgium (SPI program)
4. University of Utrecht, The Netherlands (SLI program)

The CNSVS is a computerized neurocognitive test battery (used in medical settings for clinical screening) that measures five domains of cognitive functions: *verbal and visual memory, psychomotor speed, reaction time, complex attention,* and *cognitive flexibility*. The AMI is a self-report questionnaire that measures *compensatory effort* (strategies for avoiding failure), *competitiveness, confidence in success, dominance, eagerness to learn, engagement, fearlessness, flexibility, flow, goal-setting, independence, internality, persistence, preference for difficult tasks, pride in productivity, self-control*, and *status orientation.* The instrument consists of 170 items on a 7-point-Likert scale. Following the testing sessions, participants were interviewed for their perspectives on how well the test battery assessed the skills they needed in their interpreting courses.

Preliminary Observations

Achievement Motivation Inventory

Although comprehensive data analysis has not occurred as of this writing, the study's final results will be prepared for journal review during the 2008-2009 academic year (results from the Prague sub-group will be merged with the Timarová and Salaets data set mentioned above for longitudinal analysis). The AMI data initially were viewed to identify any obvious differences between the sub-groups of advanced, entry, spoken, and signed participants. In the spoken/signed subgroup, the major differences (although not determined to be significant at this time) were in the categories of *flow* (ability to concentrate for long periods without distraction) and *internality* (belief that personal successes are due to internal causes regardless of situations). While SPI students were less likely to describe their ability to maintain *flow* as highly characteristic of themselves, the reverse was true for *internality*. In all other categories a cursory look at the means does not reveal other discrepancies within this subgroup. In the entry/advanced subgroup,

the advanced-level students were more likely to report that *eagerness to learn* (desire to spend a lot of time increasing knowledge in the absence of external rewards) and *flow* accurately described them. Contrary to the spoken/signed subgroup, there were several other categories that may reveal significant differences between entry and advanced students, including *engagement* (desire to be regularly busy with school-related activities more likely in advanced students), *fearlessness* (lack of fear of failing at difficult tasks more likely in entry-level students), and *persistence* (willingness to exert effort over long periods to reach a goal more likely in entry-level students). Other comparisons across the subgroups did not indicate large discrepancies, which will speak more to the similarities between the subgroups.

CNS Vital Signs

Preliminary analysis of CNSVS indicates potentially significant differences along the lines of gender, level, and type of student. Keeping in mind that the instrument was developed for gathering general, clinical baseline data on a person's cognitive functioning, some subscales (i.e. Verbal Memory Test, Visual Memory Test) present a ceiling effect that limits sensitivity to distinctions between the groups. This may be the reason that the *Neurocognition Index* (NCI), which is an average of the standard scores of the five domains, does not present obvious group differences in an exploratory view of the data. On the other hand, the students' reaction times were recorded in milliseconds and this resulted in interesting comparisons of the summative data across the five domains. For example, *memory* scores tended to be slightly higher for females and for signed language interpreting students. Females had higher psychomotor speeds than males, and the SLI students scored higher than SPI students in this domain, an understandable difference due to the highly-developed psychomotor skills that SLI must develop in their programs. Interestingly, there does not appear to be a substantial difference between entry and advanced students in the psychomotor domain, but entry students did exhibit slower *reaction times*. Also in the *reaction time* domain, males performed faster and SLI students required less time to respond. There appeared to be slight differences between groups in the c*omplex attention* and *cognitive flexibility* domains with the SPI students and females scoring slightly higher in *cognitive flexibility*. SLI students and females scored slightly higher in c*omplex attention* and there were no differences between entry and advanced students in these domains (possibly due to

the ceiling effect mentioned above). A more sophisticated analysis of the data over the next several months will determine if these differences represent significant relationships amongst the variables and will enlighten us about similarities and dissimilarities between the groups.

Group Interviews

Group interviews were conducted after each testing session to assess the students' perceptions of the accuracy with which the tests measured specific skills and traits that were important to success in interpreting programs. Students were asked the following questions:

1. Did the CNSVS measure skills you think are important in your courses?
2. Did the AMI measure skills you think are important in your courses?
3. Which of the skills measured today do you think you possessed when you entered the program?
4. Which of the skills do you think you developed since beginning in the program (advanced students)?

The interviews were recorded for transcription purposes and will be analyzed according to standard phenomenological protocol. As in Phase I, diverse students from spoken/conference or signed/community interpreting programs began to sound amazingly similar when asked about their experiences as students. Students were generally excited to participate, and the CNSVS seemed particularly helpful in alleviating the stress they may have been experiencing as they neared final examinations and end of term. The CNSVS introduced an element of fun and laughter could be heard in the testing room as the students worked their way through the challenging tasks. In the follow-up interviews, participants immediately verbalized that the CNSVS was very appropriate to their program requirements and there was much less enthusiasm for the AMI, which did not indicate to the students exactly what traits were being assessed.

Conclusion

The data sets described here are still fresh at the time of this writing, data analysis is incomplete, and we have attempted to provide a brief review of the results in their embryonic stage. We have much to learn from further analysis, and when that is accomplished, we will determine our next

steps for pursuing the aptitude line of research to which our institutions are committed. The researchers are considering several possibilities for publication of the final analyses in refereed journals with international scope that can be readily accessed by both spoken/conference and signed/community program faculty members. The partnership between LUC and UNF is itself in its infancy and with our mutual interests and the support of our institutional administrators, we look forward to taking definite steps, however small, toward identifying the key components of interpreting student aptitude.

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Steps to Interpreter Education Program Accreditation: Putting the Pieces Together

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Abstract

The Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE) administers a multi-step accreditation process that involves program self-studies, site visits, and program reviews. CCIE's goal is to accredit programs that are in compliance with the *National Interpreter Education Standards*. In this paper, the various stages of the CCIE accreditation process, including program reviews, preparation of the Self-Study Report (SSR) and the on-site visit are described. Additionally, rubrics and evaluation procedures that are designed to guide programs through the accreditation process with respect to the *National Interpreter Education Standards* are shared.

Introduction

This paper focuses on the various stages of the CCIE accreditation process and the series of guidelines and rubrics designed to assist interpreter education programs throughout this process. Programs are encouraged to use the same rubrics to guide their efforts through the self-study process and the writing of their respective Self-Study Report (SSR).

The preparation of the Self-Study Report includes broad-based input from students, faculty, instructors, staff, administrators, and a range of other stakeholders. The Self-Study Report also includes a statement of how the study was conducted, provides clear evidence that an identifiable process actually took place, and summarizes methods and findings. It is in the Self-Study Report whereby programs document compliance with the CCIE *National Interpreter Education Standards*.

The CCIE Self-Study Report is designed to provide information and documentation to allow the Rating Team to evaluate how and if the program is meeting each of the *National Interpreter Education Standards*. Programs also are expected to state actions or recommendations that address areas of concern, along with any additional background information that will assist the CCIE in fully understanding the situation in the program and what it is doing to achieve full compliance with each of the standards. A National Interpreter Education Standards Rubric is available on the website at http://www.ccie-accreditation.org/ for programs to access and is the same one used by the Rating Team. The SSR is viewed as a comprehensive document in which programs should describe: (a) where they show exemplary commitment to students, the profession of interpretation, and a documented effort to cultivate an environment of professionalism, teaching-and-learning, research, information sharing, and innovation, and (b) where the program has identified an issue, if practical steps are being taken to address it, and what actions are being taken.

Once the Self-Study Report is completed and submitted to the CCIE, a CCIE Rating Team will rate the completed Self-Study Report and, if the report indicates that the program meets CCIE *National Interpreter Education Standards*, a site visit will be arranged. The CCIE Site Visit Team uses the Self-Study Report in conjunction with other information gathered on-site about the interpreter education program to create an Evaluation Team Report. The CCIE Board of Commissioners will consider the Evaluation Team Report along with other supplementary written or verbal information and will determine the interpreter education program's overall compliance with the CCIE *National Interpreter Education Standards*. The CCIE will prepare the CCIE Action and Recommendations document and will notify the program in writing of the result 60 days after receipt of the Site Visit Team report.

In addition to the Self-Study Report, the interpreter education program will submit a summary of its Self-Study Process outlining the procedures used to conduct, plan, and organize the report. The summary of the self-study process includes the following:

1) a complete list of names of all the persons involved in preparing the SSR,
2) the delegation of responsibilities and procedure(s) used to gather and document information, and
3) how stakeholder consensus was reached for the final overall organization, clarity, and completeness of the SSR across five areas:
    a) participation in the self-study process,
    b) knowledge of the self-study,
    c) completeness, organization, and transparency of the SSR,
    d) relevance of supporting documentation, and
    e) evidence of continuous-quality improvement.

Stages of the CCIE Accreditation Process

The various stages of the accreditation process are delineated below and specific information can be found on the CCIE web site at http://www.ccie-accreditation.org/. The program completes an Application for Candidacy Status and submits relevant materials to CCIE by March 1. The following procedure will be followed to accomplish the site review:

1. The CCIE reviews the submitted materials for completeness to determine if the program is sufficiently prepared to begin the *self-study review process* and informs programs by June 1 if they have achieved Candidacy Status
2. Programs achieving Candidacy Status begin their respective self-study in June and submit the SSR to CCIE no later than June 1 of the following year
3. The Review Team rates the SSR and makes a recommendation to CCIE regarding the scheduling and conduct of an on-site visit
4. If an on-site visit is recommended, the Site Visit Team will be scheduled and will conduct its review
5. Final reports from the SSR Review Team and the Site Visit Teams are prepared and a recommendation is made to the CCIE regarding accreditation

6. CCIE votes on accreditation and then advises the program of its decision

Preparation of the Self-Study Report

The self-study is a formal process by which an interpreter education program critically examines its structure and conceptual framework, judges the program's overall effectiveness relative to its mission, identifies specific strengths and weaknesses, and uses its assessment plan to indicate any necessary modifications and program improvements. The Self-Study Report forms the basis of the accreditation process. The process should flow naturally out of a program's ongoing evaluation and/or assessment process. It should include consideration of external factors influencing educational directions, as well as an assessment of the extent to which the program is in compliance with the *National Interpreter Education Standards*.

The Self-Study Report is designed to address several questions in relation to the *Standards*.

1. What are the program's mission, goals and objectives? Are they consistent with the mission, goals, and objectives of the institution? Are they appropriate to the current time, circumstances, and constituencies?
2. Is the conceptual model on which the curriculum is based (curriculum design) consistent with the mission?
3. Are all of the courses (objectives, teaching-learning strategies, evaluation methods) congruent with the curriculum design?
4. Is there empirical evidence that the objectives of the program are being achieved?
5. Are the human, physical, and fiscal resources needed to achieve the programs objectives available now? Are they likely to be available in the foreseeable future?

The self-study process includes:

- Listing of program objectives
- Identification of internal and external resources
- Identification of individuals to be involved and delegation of responsibilities
- Determination of appropriate time lines
- Reporting mechanisms

The program has one year to conduct the self-study and prepare the SSR. The program may find it useful to appoint several committees and assign each committee to evaluate a specific aspect of program operations that relates to one or more of the *Standards*. One individual, usually the program director, should serve as the coordinator and resource to the self-study committees. Committee reports, each containing a summary of the findings relative to the *Standards*, including strengths and weakness, areas of concern, and commendations and recommendations, should then be used as a basis for completing the SSR documentation.

The Self-Study Process *precedes* the preparation of the final review and documentation. Although the requirements of the final review and report should be considered in the plan for the study, the initial focus should be on assessment and the evaluative process, and not the document. The self-study process should be comprehensive and examine in sufficient detail all aspects of the program so that the Rating Team can access program compliance with the standards. It is both self-evaluative and descriptive, and should include comments, suggestions for program enhancement, the resolution of current problems or weaknesses and plans for future change. A Self-Study Report Process Rubric is available on the CCIE website and is the one used by Rating Teams to evaluate the program's process and procedures used to conduct, plan, and organize the report. Rating of the report includes how stakeholder consensus was reached for the final overall organization, clarity, and completeness of the SSR across five areas:

a) participation in the self-study process,
b) knowledge of the self-study,
c) completeness, organization, and transparency of the SSR,
d) relevance of supporting documentation, and
e) evidence of continuous-quality improvement.

Each of the five areas, 3a – 3e, will be rated as:

1) Commendable, when a program exceeds expectations for the area rated,
2) Meets expectations, when a program meets expectations for the area rated, and/or
3) Needs improvement, when a program does not meet expectations and needs to address plans for improvement.

The full self-study process relies on the participation of the entire program faculty, as well as a variety of other stakeholders. The process must include input from full-time and part-time faculty, the administration, selected students in various phases of the program, program graduates, practicum and internship supervisors, mentors and employers. Generally, the full group is not expected to write the final report; rather, a small committee or a single individual is designated or assigned the responsibility for overseeing the entire process and the final preparation of the report.

The self-study process constitutes a substantial financial investment by the institution. In addition to application and process fees, faculty time, clerical support, data gathering procedures, reproduction of the final document, and expenses associated with three on-site visitors are additional costs related to the accreditation process.

Guidelines for Completing the Self-Study Report and Directions for Using the Rubrics

A Self-Study Committee (SSC) should be convened to initiate, organize and manage the self-study process. Membership of the committee should be broad-based, with representation from the collegiate community, including administrative leaders (Dean, Associate/Assistant Deans, and Chairs), faculty, professional staff, students, alumni, preceptors, other appropriate members of the profession, and other stakeholders. The Chair of the SSC should be a member of the interpreting faculty other than the Dean. Collegiate retreats may be a constructive means by which the self-study process is both initiated and concluded. Utilizing subcommittees may facilitate the self-study process, each organized with a Chair, to focus upon the following major areas of the *National Interpreter Education Standards:*

A. Sponsorship
B. Resources
C. Students
D. Operational Policies
E. Curriculum
F. Prerequisites
G. Content Requirements
H. Program Evaluation

The Self-Study Committee Chair or Co-Chairs and the chairs of the subcommittees should meet regularly during the self-study process. Objective information and data should be sought and used by the subcommittees in evaluation of the program's compliance with the *Standards*. Wherever possible, a staff member of the program should be assigned to process factual and statistical information required by the committee as a whole or by the subcommittees. The Self-Study Report should be developed and reviewed with broad-based input from students, faculty, preceptors, staff and administrators, and these stakeholders should all be aware of the report itself and its contents. The subcommittees should provide a self-evaluation of the program's compliance with the *Standards* and not merely a description of what currently takes place.

The responsibilities of the Self-Study Committee and its Chair or Co-Chairs include:

- coordinating and providing leadership for the self-evaluation
- selecting, orienting and overseeing self-study subcommittees
- establishing and maintaining communications with participants in the process, including liaison with university officers
- developing a master timetable for the self-study effort, including individualized schedules for each subcommittee
- managing the process, including adherence to the established timetables
- reviewing and coordinating subcommittee reports for unnecessary overlap, inconsistencies, contradictions, and statistical inaccuracies
- assuring that objective information and self-evaluation have been incorporated by the subcommittees
- unifying, synthesizing, and preparing a comprehensive yet succinct Self-Study Report

The person(s) responsible for the final editing process should be mindful of the need to change neither the thrust nor the context of the various responses and findings. The master timetable should provide adequate opportunity for distribution and discussion of the SSR by the broad range of stakeholders prior to it being forwarded to CCIE Rating Team members.

The narrative of the SSR should be organized following the order of the *National Interpreter Education Standards,* and programs are encouraged to use the National Interpreter Education Standards Rubric, both of which are available on the CCIE website. The Self-Study Report should be organized with a title page and a table of contents with page numbers, and may include checklists, rubrics, and appendices as needed to document compliance with the standards. The list of examples of documentation and evidence provided in the rubric are not all-inclusive and the program may provide additional information to demonstrate its compliance with each Standard. The following should be considered for each standard:

1) In the narrative, describe how the program is in compliance with the *Standard*. The program may include checklists, rubrics and appendices as needed to document compliance. The program may use a check ☑ to indicate documents and/or evidence that are being submitted as part of the self-study.
2) Comment on the findings for each *Standard*:
    a. Describe where the program shows exemplary commitment to students, the profession of interpretation, and is making a documented effort to cultivate an environment of professionalism, teaching-and-learning, research, information sharing, and innovation.
    b. If the program has identified an issue and is taking practical steps to address it, briefly describe the issue and the plans.
    c. State actions or recommendations to address any areas of concern along with any additional background information to help *CCIE's Board of Commissioners* to fully understand the situation in the program and in making appropriate recommendations to achieve full compliance with the standard.
    d. Use a check ☑ to identify areas of grave concern that prevent the program from meeting the standard. If information in support of a *Standard* is missing, please explain.

Rubrics for Interpreter Education Programs

The National Interpreter Education Standards Rubric is designed to evaluate how and if the program is meeting each of the *National Interpreter Education Standards*. Programs are expected to state actions or recommendations to address areas of concern along with any additional background information to assist the CCIE in fully understanding the situation in the program and in making appropriate recommendations to achieve full compliance with the standard. Each standard will be rated using the following scale:

1. Meets the Standard: The program is meeting or exceeding all the elements required by the standard.
2. Partially Meets the Standard: The program is not currently meeting an element of the standard, but the program has accurately identified the deficiencies and is taking steps to address meeting the standard in an expeditious timeframe.
3. Does Not Meet the Standard: The program currently is not meeting the requirements of the standard, or insufficient or inadequate information is available to assess whether the program currently is in compliance with the standard.

Writing the Self-Study Report

The program should provide specific details about how it satisfies each standard. These details are sometimes in the form of specific documentation (e.g., job descriptions, faculty vitae, institutional catalogs, policies and procedures) and sometimes in narrative form (e.g., description of program facilities, assessment of the content of program curriculum, faculty professional development plans, and institutional support). Programs also have the opportunity to address areas that are not in compliance, stating their plans for ongoing improvement. The report contains a synopsis of relevant data, conclusions, and plans generated by the study.

CCIE Review and Rating of the Self-Study Report

An external peer CCIE Rating Team rates the completed SSR. The Rating Team Leader of the Rating Team receives all documentation submitted by programs that have completed their

respective SSR. The raters conduct independent evaluations of the program. The Rating Team Leader collects the evaluations and determines if the raters are in consensus about a program's compliance with the standards. The Rating Team's final report will include its determination of the program's compliance. If a program is determined to be in compliance, an on-site visit will be scheduled. If a program is found to be not in compliance, the program has the opportunity to remediate the deficiency and resubmit an SSR.

CCIE Site Visit

If the SSR is satisfactory, a site visit to the program will be arranged. The CCIE Site Visit Team uses the SSR in conjunction with other information gathered on-site at the interpreter education program to create an Evaluation Team Report. An onsite team will visit and assess the program and subsequently submit their findings and recommendations to the CCIE. The CCIE will make the final decision regarding accreditation status.

Accreditation Decision

The *CCIE Board of Commissioners* considers the Evaluation Team Report along with other supplementary written or verbal information and determines the interpreter education degree program's overall compliance with the CCIE *National Interpreter Education Standards*. The CCIE makes a judgment and prepares the CCIE Action and Recommendations document notifying the program in writing of the results. A judgment is made whether the program has earned or been denied accreditation.

Conclusion

The goal of the CCIE is to accredit programs that are in compliance with the *National Interpreter Education Standards*. CCIE's multi-step accreditation process involves program self-studies, site visits, and program reviews. It should be viewed as a rewarding experience and, at the same time, a commitment to a year long process to which administrative support is critical and in which programs devote substantial time and resources. The self-study is a formal process by

which an interpreter education program critically examines its structure and conceptual framework, judges the program's overall effectiveness relative to its mission, identifies specific strengths and weaknesses, and uses its ongoing evaluations and assessment plan to indicated any necessary modifications and program improvements. A variety of rubrics and evaluation procedures were designed by CCIE to assist and guide programs through the accreditation process and are available on the CCIE website. CCIE is committed to assisting interpreter education programs earn accreditation status. CCIE encourages programs to conduct self-studies to improve student outcomes so that program graduates are not only prepared to practice their profession, earn certification and/or credentials, but are inspired to become future leaders in interpretation and interpreter education.

About the Authors

Myra Taff-Watson has an M.A. in Rehabilitation Counseling/Deafness from NYU, the RID CSC (1978), is a certified teacher of the deaf, and has run a statewide interpreting service since 1986. She directed the IEP at the University of Arkansas at Little Rock for 24 years, was awarded $8 million+ in RSA and OSEP grants, and retired in 2006 as faculty emeritus. She has over 200 publications, has served on the *JOI* editorial board since 2000, editor of the *ARIDian News & Views* since 1987, and co-editor of the *CIT News* for 14 years. She serves as a CCIE Commissioner and Chair of the Editorial Committee.

Karen Petronio teaches and is involved in material development with the Department of ASL and Interpreter Education at Eastern Kentucky University. She has her Ph.D. in Linguistics from the University of Washington and has a Masters degree in Linguistics from Gallaudet University and a Masters degree in Recreation Administration from Morgan State University. Her interests include linguistic research, particularly on the properties of Tactile ASL. She has her Certificate of Interpretation from the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf and is currently serving as a CCIE Commissioner and is the Chair of the Training Committee.

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Lindsey Antle holds a B.A. in English and Secondary Education and an M.A. in Management/ Human Relations. She has been interpreting since 1960 and holds the RID Comprehensive Skills Certificate and the Oral Interpreting Certificate: Comprehensive. She directed the Interpreter Training Program and the RSA Regional Grant at Front Range Community College and started and directed the Interpreter Preparation Program at Pikes Peak Community College, and held administrative posts at both colleges and with the State of Colorado. Since retiring, she has returned to her first love and interprets full time. She serves as a CCIE Commissioner and is the Operations Manager.

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Visual Language Interpreters (VLI)

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Program Accreditation and Educational Excellence: Collaboration with Organizations, Programs and Institutions

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Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education

Abstract

This paper focuses on the accomplishments of the Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE) and its collaborative efforts with organizations, programs and institutions over the past two years. Information includes a revised committee structure, the stages of the accreditation process, the benefits of accreditation, rater training, nominations of new Commissioners, and CCIE's membership in the national Association of Specialized and Professional Accreditors (ASPA).

Introduction

After years of work by numerous organizations and individuals, the Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE) was formally established in July 2006 with thirteen (13) Commissioners whose purpose was to provide access to national accreditation for signed language interpreter education programs that are housed in accredited colleges or universities. CCIE evolved from the efforts of the Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT), the seminal organization that shepherded the accreditation movement through its first 25 years. The CCIE is

now an autonomous organization that accredits programs demonstrating compliance with the *National Interpreter Education Standards*. This paper focuses on the various accomplishments of the CCIE as it strives towards its goal of promoting professionalism in the field of signed language interpreter education through a process of accreditation that provides quality assurance in higher education.

During its first two years, the CCIE worked diligently to build its infrastructure, revise its committee structure and committees, refine the Policies and Procedures Manual and the Accreditation Manual, revise its Bylaws, collaborate with other organizations, conduct rater training, and launch a web site. CCIE is proud to announce that it also successfully applied for and was accepted as a member of the national Association of Specialized and Professional Accreditors (ASPA) in April 2008. CCIE Commissioners who were able to attend the ASPA conferences in 2007 and 2008 have brought back a wealth of knowledge that will help ensure that the CCIE is abreast of the most current information on accreditation. In a world in which universities, colleges, and programs increasingly are being held accountable for the quality of their efforts, CCIE accreditation is now a readily available and effective vehicle for interpreter education programs to demonstrate their educational effectiveness in teaching and learning.

Accreditation by CCIE provides validation that interpreter education programs are in compliance with the CCIE *National Interpreter Education Standards*. As part of the accreditation process, a program objectively evaluates and provides documentation of its educational activities, resources, and outcomes. CCIE accreditors maintain autonomy and confidentiality and provide unbiased access to peer review of programs. The accreditation process has four main parts: 1) a directed self-study allowing the program to document its success in achieving its stated mission; 2) submission of a Self-Study Report for CCIE review; 3) an on-site visit by CCIE raters; and 4) a judgment by the CCIE Board of Commissioners regarding subsequent program accreditation status.

Accomplishments to date include:

- Accreditation of one program. This program demonstrated its ability to meet a set of research-based standards, that it is engaged in continuous program improvement, and that it provides for quality assurance through self-evaluation and peer review.
- Processing of eleven (11) programs in various stages of the accreditation process.
- Conducting training in 2007 for raters for the CCIE Rating Team and Site Visit Team.
- Development of documents, guidelines, and rubrics providing guidance to programs considering the accreditation process.
- Launching of a home page at http://www.ccie-accreditation.org.
- Publication of an article in the RID July 2008 issue of the *VIEWS*.
- Development of an information sheet on the benefits of accreditation.
- Development and continuing development of materials for dissemination to programs, universities, and colleges to increase awareness of CCIE and of the benefits of accreditation.

CCIE Infrastructure

The 13 Commissioners convened their first conference call in June 2006 and in October 2006, held their first face-to-face meeting in conjunction with the CIT Conference in San Diego, CA. Initially working from the infrastructure outlined in the Accreditation Manual developed by the Task Force that established the CCIE, the Executive Committee and committee chairs were elected from among the 13 Commissioners. The Executive Committee began with four officers, the President, Vice-president, Secretary, and Treasurer. In 2007, the CCIE added an Operations Manager who is responsible for the day-to-day operations of the Commission. At the second face-to-face meeting in Denver, CO in September 2007, the CCIE further delineated the responsibilities of each officer and has continued to refine the responsibilities of each of the committees. The CCIE developed protocols for monthly conference calls and communication, handling of finances, receiving applications for accreditation, the accreditation process, selecting new Commissioners, and preparing print and non-print materials for dissemination.

Committee Structure

The Executive Committee is comprised of the President, Vice-President, Treasurer, Secretary, and Operations Manager. The Board of Commissioners appoints various standing committees and ad-hoc committees as necessary from among the Commissioners. At this time, the Policies and Standards Committee is the only committee that includes non-Commissioners. Once CCIE is confident that its committee structure is working well, CCIE will be seeking, inviting and appointing additional members to join its other committees. Any future appointments will be made by the full Board of Commissioners in consultation with the Chair of the respective committees.

The CCIE's Standing Committees are:

- Policies and Standards Committee
- Editorial Committee
- Training Committee
- Accreditation Process Committee
- Educational Research Committee
- Nominating Committee
- Fundraising and Finance Committee

The Policies and Standards Committee is responsible for the periodic review of the National Interpreter Education Standards, guidelines, policies and procedures, gathering comments on proposed revisions from higher education professionals and the public, and referring proposed revisions to the CCIE Board of Commissioners for consideration.

The Editorial Committee establishes standards for materials that are developed for publication and works with the committees to prepare and/or edit print and non-print materials for dissemination to the public. Additional duties include preparing content for the CCIE website.

The Training Committee is responsible for recruiting and training raters and site visitors, working with the Editorial Committee to develop the necessary training materials, and

maintaining contact with raters and determining their availability to serve. This Committee works closely with the Accreditation Process Committee in forming appropriate Rating Teams for each program that has submitted a Self-Study Report (SSR).

The Accreditation Process Committee is responsible for overseeing the accreditation process from the rating of the SSR through the site visit and finally through the CCIE's decision regarding a program's accreditation status. This Committee works with the Training Committee to establish appropriate Rating Teams throughout the process. This Committee also provides support through the paper review(s) and ratings, coordinates site visit(s), receives the accreditation recommendation(s) from the Rating Team and the Site Visit Team and presents those recommendations to the Commission for a decision.

The Educational Research Committee analyzes and synthesizes data gathered in the accreditation process and disseminates findings. It will serve as a catalyst for other research activities that may impact the future of interpreter education and will investigate mechanisms by which research findings can be applied to teaching. This committee also will begin to develop a database of research findings and best practices. Once developed, the database will be on the CCIE website and updated for public access.

The Nominating Committee (this function is currently undertaken by the Executive Committee) develops, defines, and maintains the methodology employed in the selection of candidates to serve on the CCIE Board of Commissioners. This Committee oversees the selection process, solicits nominations for membership on the Commission, evaluates the qualifications of the candidates, and recommends new members to the Commission.

The Fundraising/Finance Committee solicits public and private contributions to support the activities of the CCIE. As grant opportunities become available, this Committee has the responsibility of preparing proposals for submission. The Committee also will seek and investigate private sources of funding, prepare proposals and follow up on their disposition.

Policies and Procedures Manual, Accreditation Manual, and the Bylaws

The Task Force that established the CCIE designed an Accreditation Manual outlining the accreditation process. From this Accreditation Manual, the CCIE developed an internal Policies and Procedures Manual that is intended to be a codification of certain actions, policies and/or procedures adopted by the Commission with respect to the operation of accreditation and related activities. The CCIE amended its Bylaws to align with its current structure and with the Policies and Procedures Manual. The Accreditation Manual is in its final stages of revision and will be placed on the website by Fall 2008.

Collaboration with other Organizations and the Benefits of Accreditation

CCIE is proud to announce that it prepared a successful application and became a member of the national Association of Specialized and Professional Accreditors (ASPA) in April 2008. ASPA is a membership organization comprised of approximately 60 of the nation's accreditors of higher education programs. Through bi-annual meetings, maintenance of a database, professional development activities, support for focused advocacy, and other resources, ASPA stands behind its member organizations in their striving to become more effective, more efficient and more influential in the cause of strengthening higher education. Membership in ASPA will assist CCIE in its efforts to promote standards for interpreter education and accreditation of programs. In turn, the accreditation process encourages interpreter education programs to strengthen program outcomes to meet the increasing demand for graduates to be employment-ready (Taylor Straut, 2008). CCIE Commissioners who were able to attend the ASPA conferences in 2007 and 2008 brought back a wealth of knowledge that will help ensure that the CCIE is kept abreast of the most recent information on accreditation. CCIE's next step will be to seek recognition by the Council on Higher Education Accreditation (CHEA).

Activities of the Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE)

The Accreditation Process and Accrediting Programs

As a part of the accreditation process, a program objectively evaluates and provides documentation of its educational activities, resources, and outcomes. CCIE accreditors maintain autonomy and confidentiality and provide unbiased access to peer review of programs. The CCIE, as the accrediting body, provides an external, independent evaluation of the report submitted by the program, and findings from the CCIE Site Visit Team. The accreditation process has four main parts:

1) a directed self-study allowing the program to document its success in achieving its stated mission,
2) a Self-Study Report (SSR) submitted for CCIE review and rating,
3) an on-site visit by CCIE raters (if the SSR indicates that the program meets CCIE *National Interpreter Education Standards*), and
4) a judgment by the CCIE Board of Commissioners regarding attainment or denial of accreditation status.

In June 2007, the CCIE accredited one program. The program demonstrated its ability to meet a set of research-based standards, that it is engaged in continuous program improvement, and that it provides for quality assurance through self-evaluation and peer review. Currently, 11 programs are in various stages of the accreditation process. Five programs are undergoing SSR review during this cycle, and six new programs have begun the accreditation process as of Spring 2008.

Training of Raters and Composition of Rating Teams

In 2007, CCIE conducted rater training for the CCIE Rating Teams and Site Visit Teams. From this pool of raters who successfully completed training, Rating Teams were formed and assigned for each interpreter education program submitting an SSR. Rating Teams consist of three members: one Team Leader and two members. The teams include representation from various stakeholders, such as ASL instructors, Deaf consumers, Deaf professionals, interpreter

practitioners, and interpreter provider personnel. Additionally, every effort is made to have a diverse representation of race, ethnicity, geography, and gender on each Rating Team.

Applications will be taken periodically for new Raters. Candidates are selected based on meeting the following criteria:

- Demonstrate current experience as an interpreter educator in an accredited institution within the past five years, or
- Hold professional credentials (ASLTA, NAD, RID, state credentials, other professional credentials), and
- Demonstrate contributions to the profession in the past five (5) years (e.g., committee work, publications, workshops), and
- Exhibit computer literacy and access (platform, modem speed, adequate access, and willingness to learn).

Individuals interested in becoming Raters submit a letter of interest, a vita covering the relevant criteria listed above, and the names and contact information of three references that can specifically address the criteria above. Based on the applications, Rating Team members will be selected by the Training Committee and approved by the Board of Commissioners. Selected candidates will attend the next Rater Training and agree to:

- Attend the full training,
- Commit to a minimum of three years of service as a Rater, upon successful completion of training,
- Reimburse the CCIE for all costs of the training, if the candidate fails to complete the training, and
- Provide all online access required for pre- and post-training (email, ability to send and receive attachments, frequent and regular access to the internet).

During the training, the CCIE will provide:

- Expenses of the training (travel, per diem, hotel) and
- Honorarium for attending the training.

During ratings, the CCIE will provide:

- Expenses for travel, if needed (for site visits, the host institution provides all expenses for raters),
- Expenses of copying, mailing, and communication, and
- Honorarium per a signed Memorandum of Understanding (MOU).

The CCIE will not provide computers or computer access to any on-line training. Upon selection as a Rater, the applicant agrees to:

- Successfully complete Rater Training,
- Follow all CCIE policies and procedures,
- Review and rate all assigned programs within the timelines provided,
- Provide full evaluation reports to the Team Leader,
- Maintain strict confidentiality of all reviews and ratings, and
- Uphold all policies regarding conflict of interest when assigned to rate programs.

Nomination and Appointment of Commissioners

The Board of Commissioners strongly promotes the practice of diversity and inclusion within its membership and makes every effort to have representatives from as many stakeholder groups as possible. Nominations for vacant membership positions on the Board of Commissioners will be solicited from the academic, professional and consumer constituents of accreditation (e.g., collegiate institutions that offer interpreter education programs, organizations of professional interpreters, interpreter educators, American Sign Language instructors, the higher education community, employers of interpreters, and consumers). Furthermore, constituents include, but are not limited to**,** the National Alliance of Black Interpreters, the National Black Deaf Advocates, the National Asian Deaf Council, the Intertribal Deaf Council, the National Hispanic Council, the National Council of Latino Deaf Americans, the American Association of the Deaf-Blind, the Association of Visual Language Interpreters of Canada, the American Sign Language Teachers Association, the Conference of Interpreter Trainers, the National Association of the Deaf**,** and the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf.

The objectives of this process ensure that applications are received from individuals who are ready and able to take on accreditation responsibilities and leadership, and to ensure that:

- Qualified individuals are vetted and endorsed to serve on the Board,
- All constituencies identified in the Board Nomination Process are represented fairly and have input into the nomination of the candidate(s),
- Diversity of the CCIE is achieved and maintained, and
- The applicant's current employment/service will not create a perceived or real conflict of interest and will complement the composition of the Board of Commissioners.

Interested individuals apply by submitting a letter of intent to serve and ability to devote time to perform the required CCIE activities, a vita, evidence of leadership experience, and either the knowledge of the academy and the ability to represent the academic community, and/or knowledge of the interpreting practice and the ability to represent interpreter practitioners. The Committee reviews all recommendations and nominations received from individual members, agency members, constituent groups, and academic institutions. The Committee prepares a slate of candidates for election and presents nominees to the entire Commission for action. Only candidates who have been nominated according to the prescribed process will be considered for endorsement. To ensure continuity of knowledge and smooth transitions in leadership, and renewed energy and commitment, Commissioners will be appointed for staggered three-year terms.

Development of Guiding and Informational Documents

CCIE Commissioners are continually developing documents, guidelines, and rubrics to provide the necessary guidance to programs considering beginning the accreditation process and/or who are in the process. These guiding and informational documents (many of which are found on the CCIE website at http://www.ccie-accreditation.org) include:

- An overview of the Accreditation Process and Timelines.
- A Self-Study Process Rubric that programs can use to guide their efforts through the self-study process as they are preparing their SSR. The CCIE Rater Team also will use this rubric as they evaluate the SSR.

- A National Interpreter Education Standards Rubric to assist programs in gathering and organizing the necessary documentation as evidence of their compliance with all the *National Interpreter Education Standards* A - H.
- A Curriculum Map that is designed to assist programs to specifically document Standard F - Prerequisites and Standard G – Content Requirements. The Map serves as a chart that indicates where in the curriculum, that is, in which course(s) each of the competencies are met for Standards F and G.
- An information sheet on the Benefits of Accreditation to colleges and universities, to programs, to students, and to parents, the business community and the general public.
- A Brochure with the CCIE mission statement, the accreditation process, regional versus specialized accreditation, benefits of accreditation, ASPA membership, and other related information.

CCIE Home Page

The official CCIE Home Page was launched in March 2007 at http://www.ccie-accreditation.org. Since that time, continual updates are made and currently include an online application process; CCIE overview and goals; mission statement; programs with CCIE accreditation; the accreditation process and timelines; the National Interpreter Education Standards and Rubric; Self-Study Process and Rubric, Self-Study Report Guidelines, Rubric and Curriculum Map; Fee Schedule, Commission vacancies; and other information to assist programs through the accreditation process.

Conclusion

CIT and all contributing organizations can be proud of the 25 years of hard work that went into establishing the Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education. When the CCIE presented at the CIT Conference two years ago in San Diego, the reality of a long-hoped-for event had come to pass. CCIE stood before its colleagues as an autonomous organization serving the nation as the official accreditation body for interpreter education programs. During the past two years, the CCIE has strived for excellence by solidifying its infrastructure, providing rater training, forming

Rating Teams, accrediting one program, processing eleven programs through various stages of the accreditation process, developing guidelines and rubrics, launching a home page, reaching out to institutions of higher education and the interpreter education community, collaborating with other organizations, and fulfilling its promise to rate at least five programs a year. It's been an exciting journey filled with challenges, productivity, and collaborative teamwork.

About the Authors

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Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (RID)
Sign Language Associates (SLA)
Sorenson Video Relay Services (Sorenson VRS)
Visual Language Interpreters (VLI)

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Self Analysis Tools & Techniques: Moving Beyond Symptomatic Analysis to Uncover Root Causes

J. Lynne Wiesman
Signs of Development

Abstract

According to Human Performance Improvement, addressing a performance problem requires a systematic process that includes identification and prioritization of performance gap(s), root cause analysis, and development of an intervention with ongoing evaluation of that intervention (Sanders & Thiagarajan, 2001). It is the crucial step of identification of the root cause that is lacking in the work of many interpreters attempting to analyze their work. With the goal of developing effective interventions to address performance gaps efficiently, much of what is identified is superficial or symptomatic failing to accurately determine the underlying causes for these performance gaps. Addressing a symptom may lead to some short-term change but inevitably results in the reappearance in some shape, form, or fashion of the root cause left untouched below the surface. To be maximally effective, interpreters and those training and working with them must uncover root causes for performance gaps or risk flawed performance improvement processes.

Overview of Training & Performance Improvement

Sign Language interpreting, as an industry, is still in its relative infancy. As the profession has grown, it has drawn insights from research conducted in a variety of well-established fields including cognitive and behavioral sciences, education, and psychology. As practitioners in the field expand their own varied academic experience, it brings with it the benefit of an infusion of research and tools from other fields. One such field is that of Training & Performance Improvement (T&PI). Research into adult education gleaned from the T&PI industry, both pre- and in-service forms, has enormous ramifications to and benefits for not only educators and their interpreting students but mentors and practicing interpreters seeking to improve their skills and knowledge.

These advancements are fostering a greater understanding of the need to identify and address performance gaps systematically to maximize skill and knowledge development in students and working interpreters. It is no longer sufficient to consider that the one-size-fits-all approach of traditional workshops and education will satisfy the needs of every developing and practicing interpreter. There is an enormous body of literature from which to draw that addresses the ineffectiveness of the traditional shorter term approaches to skill and knowledge development. These linkages to T&PI are benefitting educators and enabling individual interpreters to become more engaged in their own unique professional development needs and the most effective processes to develop their knowledge, skills, and abilities. As the industry becomes savvier about the ways in which the development of these individual performance gaps can best be addressed, the educational process is becoming maximally effective and more efficient.

To begin with, definitions and explanations about Training and Performance Improvement as an industry and their potential influence and benefits to the field of Sign Language interpreting are required. The premier organization dedicated to improving workplace performance, the International Society for Performance Improvement (ISPI), advocates for a systematic process to address performance issues in both individuals (as human resources) and organizations (ISPI, 2002). The Human Performance Improvement (HPi) process is a systematic, results-based process aimed at improving performance of individuals and organizations (Piskurich, 2002). The

process is a dynamic, semi non-sequential one that includes five identifiable components including sequentially : (a) analyzing the organizational and environmental context, (b) identifying the performance issue, (c) determining the cause for that identified performance issue culminating in a (d) selecting and implementing of an intervention, and (e) ongoing, simultaneously evaluating throughout the aforementioned stages (Bimberg & Nida, 2005; Piskurich, 2002). It is the middle stage in which this paper will focus: the determination of the root cause for the performance gap. Figure 1 provides a graphical representation of the stages and steps to a systematic performance development process.

The front-end analyses are conducted to ultimately determine the best-suited intervention which will address the root cause for the performance issue. It is not sufficient to merely identify the performance gap. Doing so may result in the implementation of an intervention, typically training, that does not address the performance gap. A cause analysis, therefore, addresses the question of "why the performance gap exists" (Piskurich, 2002). Keeping in mind that these processes (stages and steps) can also be applied effectively to organizations (large and small), the focus of this paper will be on their application to individual performance. An individual's skills and knowledge, like organizations, are composed of intricate, intertwined, and inextricably linked sets of behaviors and processes. Historically, skill development has consisted of a more veteran interpreter, mentor, or educator observing the work of a newer or more novice interpreter to ascertain a pattern or patterns of miscues, deficiencies, or errors in the product to determine one or more performance gaps. *Performance gap* is defined as "the behavioral area not performed to standards when measuring task performance" (Clark, 1999, para. 5). A simpler way to understand performance gaps is by taking the difference between the current level or amount of knowledge, skills, or abilities (KSAs) and the ideal level or the amount necessary to adequately perform the task at hand. In other words, a formula for understanding a performance gap would be: desired KSA – current KSA = performance gap. The performance gap (or more likely several gaps) was then prioritized and a skill activity developed to "fix the problem" and provided to address the deficiencies by the more veteran interpreter.

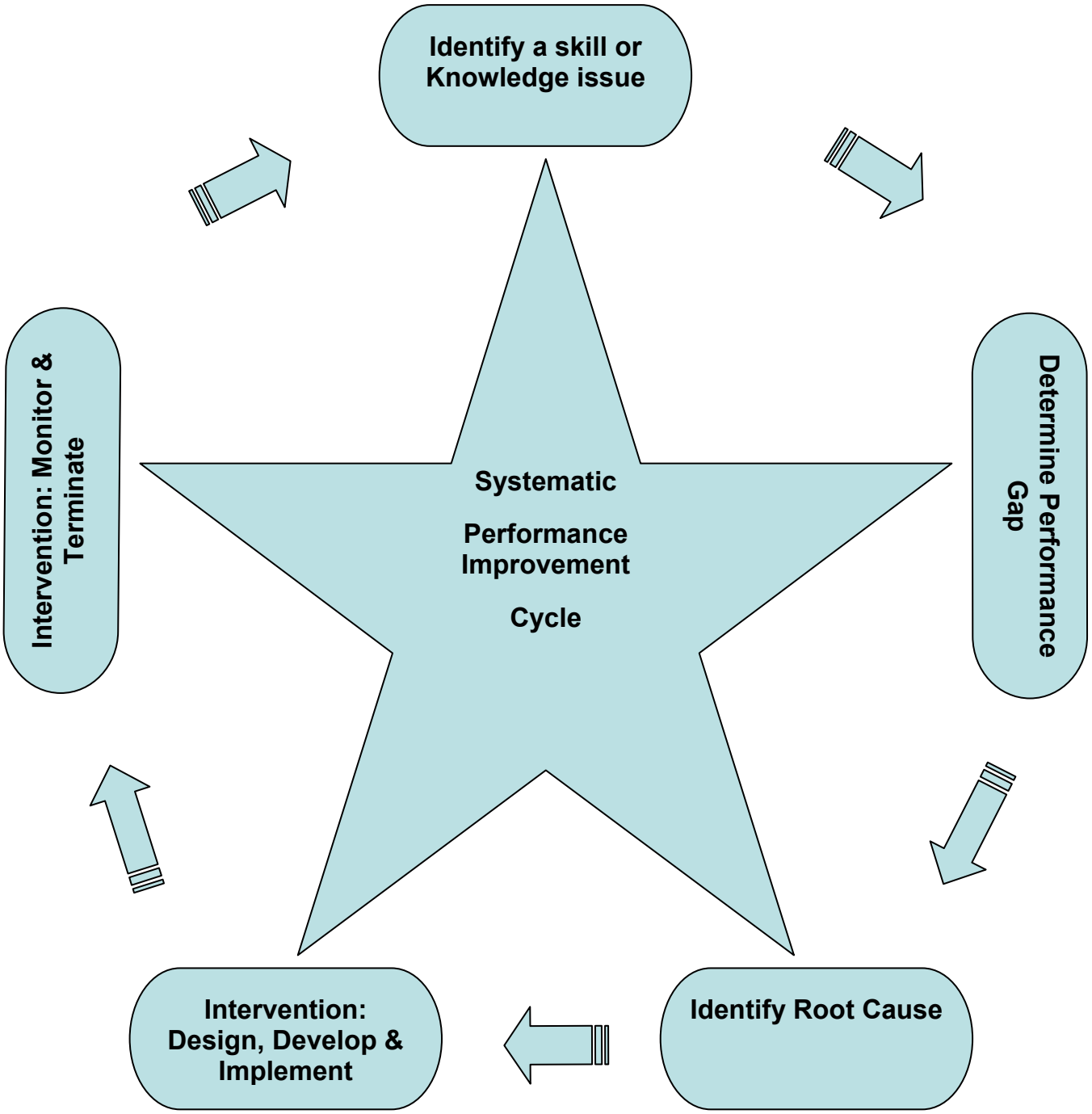

Figure 1. Human Performance Development Model (Adapted from the HPi & HPT Models; Piskurich, 2002, Van Tiem, Moseley, & Dessinger, 2004).

The problems with this approach are numerous. Not withstanding the enormously complex cognitive tasks operating simultaneously (Cokely, 1992), environmental factors that are internal and external to interpreters' work are invisible to the eyes and ears of the observer of the

interpretation. These include the intra- and interpersonal dynamics as well as the psychosocial processes inherent in each interpreting engagement. The single-most critical step that is eliminated and becomes a barrier to effective skill and knowledge development is the identification of the root cause for the pattern or performance gap. This results in skill development that is fraught with superficiality resulting from little or no attempt to identify and isolate the error's source. Without isolating the source, by conducting a root cause analysis, students and interpreters seeking to address a pattern manifesting in the product are often frustrated when that pattern persists despite diligently focusing time and attention on development of the identified pattern or skill challenge.

This superficial, symptomatic error analysis has meant that much of the work of interpreters' attempts to identify and close performance gaps has resulted in addressing a small percentage of the process (that which can be seen or heard in the product.) There have been estimates and anecdotal references to approximately 10% of the interpreting process that can be evidenced in the product (Gish, n.d.). The remaining 90% of the process, therefore, is internal and invisible to well-intentioned observers. Subsequent to these observations which, as mentioned previously, looked solely at the product to determine the patterns deficient in the work, skill development activities would be prescribed based on only 10% of the actual process. Without conducting a root cause analysis to attempt to ascertain the fundamental essence of the problem, which almost certainly is beyond the eye or earshot of any external analysis, skill development ineffectively addresses only the symptom and not the cause. An authentic example of this might best illustrate this point.

Four interpreters express a challenge with receptive fingerspelling. Practitioners, mentors, and educators recognize this as an all-too-familiar challenge experienced by interpreters. A traditional approach may suggest to the four interpreters that they spend more time immersed in the language by socialization in local Deaf community events, review of ASL videotapes, or practice utilizing one of the many websites available focusing on the receptive fingerspelling of isolated words typically not in context. After very minimal discussions with the four interpreters, the results of an initial cause analysis reveal:

1. Interpreter A has not had her eyes checked or her prescription for her glasses renewed for well over ten years and is, in fact, struggling to read labels in the grocery store. She also expressed concerns regarding headaches when doing computer work. The cause for this, consequently, is more anomalous and unrelated to language or interpreting.
2. Interpreter B has determined that he struggles in just understanding terms (words, proper names, and places) that Deaf people fingerspell when in conversation and when watching videos and Vlogs. The cause for this is not the interpreting process but something beginning in receptive language.
3. Interpreter C has no problem when working intralingually but something in the interlingual process between comprehension of a source language (sL) and production of a target language (tL) is creating distress for her. The cause for this appears to begin somewhere in the interpreting process.
4. Interpreter D appears to have a similar issue as Interpreter C, but upon further analysis, it is determined that it relates not only to fingerspelling, although it appears to be the most obvious place where the process breaks down, or even the interpretation process. The analysis may have stopped there; however, this interpreter confides that she was in a very abusive relationship and developed the pattern of fear lest she be beaten over communications that were not deemed acceptable by her husband. The journey to determine the root cause has shifted from relating to the interpreting process and now appears to be something psychological.

From this illustration, it has been shown that with very minimal front-end analysis, the four interpreters, though appearing superficially similar, are challenged differently. Consequently, the intervention proposed previously from a more traditional approach would provide these four interpreters with a similar activity that would have addressed a symptom, thus failing in all but Interpreter B's case. Because the cause in his case was related to receptive language, the intervention suggested for him may have been successful. However, without a thorough understanding of the root cause for his language issue, the process is still prone to failure. This is an example of an analysis at the beginning stage of the performance improvement cycle: performance analysis. There is still much work to do to determine root causes for each of these interpreters. However, this illustration is provided to demonstrate that symptomatic (visible and

audible) production issues, if not further analyzed, can result in the development of interventions (skill activities) that are mismatched and, more likely than not, ineffective. A one-size-fits-all approach to skill activities is at best ineffective and at worst frustrating and counterproductive for those wishing to improve skill and knowledge challenges leading to performance gaps. Self Analysis Tools, specifically root cause analysis, enable educators, mentors, students, and interpreters to identify and isolate the specific challenge and to better understand the underlying cause for the challenge. In this way, performance development shifts from a haphazard guess at skill development to a systematic and sound process.

The remainder of this paper will focus on a sample of only three of many cause analysis tools available, their purpose, and brief application information. The analysis tools description will be used to demonstrate the efficacy and benefits to fairly common skill challenges to provide a basic understanding of their applicability on a continuum of difficulty degrees. These tools can be utilized for the visible, behavioral skill challenges such as the example used earlier with the receptive fingerspelling issue. They are also applicable and useful with *soft skills*. Soft skills, such as attitudes, feelings, and motivation are far more difficult to address insofar as they cannot be directly observed and are more difficult to measure. Nonetheless, behaviors that can be observed and measured and that manifest as a result of the soft skills are able to be analyzed utilizing the self analysis tools.[7]

Tools & Techniques Application

For the purposes of describing the self analysis tools and the techniques to ensure their use is maximally effective, they will be separated into two categories: general-purpose and specific-purpose. *General-purpose analysis tools* are those analyses an interpreter can utilize to look at

[7] Regretfully, space does not permit inclusion and discussion of the range of self analysis tools available, developed currently, and being developed. A more complete listing, usage explanation, and forms (as applicable) are available at www.signs-of-development.org/analysis_tools.htm. The site is password protected; however, a password is available by agreeing to individual usage. More extensive usage rights can be obtained by emailing the author at Lynne@signs-of-development.org.

her or his work without having a specific goal yet established. This work is more typically beneficial at the onset of each professional development cycle or when first attempting to ascertain the source of a challenge. This type of analysis provides guidance and direction to determine root causes for already-identified challenging patterns, with the primary goal being to close a performance gap for general skill development needs. These tools can be utilized to uncover the cause of behaviors that are observable as well as those that are considered soft skills and only observable by looking at the subsequent resulting behaviors. *Specific-purpose self analysis tools* are those utilized when an interpreter has already determined the goal, such as preparing for certification. These tools aid interpreters in analyzing the product to reveal the challenges exclusive to the specifically-identified goal. Having conducted these analyses, interpreters are then able to focus on the exact nature of the challenging patterns rather than the potentially overwhelming entirety of the goal. This equips interpreters with the strategies and tools to refine the professional development process and enables the work to be more efficient and effective.

These tools are not intended to be used mutually exclusively. Any one tool, when used in tandem with another (either two general-purpose tools or one general-purpose tool used with one specific-purpose tool), can lead to a more in-depth understanding of the underlying cause of a symptom. For example, a *5 Whys Analysis* (Monden, 1998) may be used initially to assist an interpreter in understanding a fundamental issue appearing symptomatically in the product yet eluding root cause detection and identification. Upon completion of the *5 Whys*, the *ABC Analysis* (Bijou, Peterson, & Ault, 1968; Hieneman, Nolan, Presley, De Turo, Roberson, & Dunlap, 1999) tool may be used to look more closely at specific samples of work to identify the triggers to the behavior revealed by the *5 Whys*. In this way, the analysis reaches a depth of understanding that aids the next stage of the performance improvement process: identification, development, and implementation of the intervention that more accurately addresses and closes the performance gap.

General-Purpose Sample Analysis Tools

ABC Self Analysis Tool Description

The ABC Analysis tool (Bijou, S. W., Peterson, R. F., & Ault, M. H., 1968; Hieneman, et al., 1999) is borrowed from the field of Applied Behavioral Science. Its application was originally developed to analyze children with behavioral issues and determine the source of the problem. This enabled those working with the child (e.g., psychologists, parents, and teachers) the ability to develop appropriate behavior modification strategies that addressed the cause and not the symptomatic behavior. This was done by observing and recording the child's behavior, determining what was antecedent to the identified or isolated problem behavior, and then determining the consequence of that behavior.

This relatively easy-to-learn tool has been adapted and used by this author to train and mentor students and interpreters with resounding and unsurpassed success. The application of the ABC Analysis process can be utilized by students (ASL to interpreting) or practicing interpreters. Its benefit is in determining the triggers to the symptomatic behaviors that can be seen and heard in the product. These triggers often go unnoticed by those diagnosing (self or external) skill challenges since the emphasis is typically on the challenging behavior and not what may have happened consistently just prior to the behavior. As mentioned previously, because a majority of the interpreting process is cognitive, the work of interpreters to diagnose performance challenges and develop meaningful interventions (or skill activities) to address the challenges may have been mismatched if looking at the behavior and not the triggers to the behavior. With this tool, interpreters begin to look at what is happening immediately prior to the behavior that triggers what was identified as the challenge. In many cases, interpreters report profound surprise and relief to unearth the actual causes of challenges that have plagued them for some time, and caused an inability to develop a skill activity that would effectively close the performance gap. Again, no performance development can be effective when addressing the symptom.

Application steps.

The form provided in Figure 2 contains the three easy steps documented in three columns: A = Antecedent, B = Behavior, and C = Consequence. The first crucial step is to identify the Behavior upon which the analysis will focus. Each ABC Analysis should only focus on one behavior. It is also essential to have a videotaped sample of the work being analyzed. However, that is not meant to imply that this analysis is not equally effective on performance (knowledge and skill) challenges unrelated to actual interpreting products. This analysis can also be beneficial when addressing issues of lack of confidence or when attempting to understand the source of ethical dilemmas in which an interpreter might repeatedly be facing. In those cases, the use of a videotape strengthens the process but the absence of one does not preclude analysis. However, with respect to analyzing the interpreting product, analysis of live work is not compatible with ABC Analysis Tool. The benefit of this tool, when used to analyze an interpreted product, can only be realized with the review and analysis of captured work, as the application explanation next will demonstrate. Subsequent to having identified instances of the Behavior in the B column, interpreters return to the beginning of the videotaped sample to the point in the video just prior to the first instance of the documented Behavior. This data becomes the A or Antecedent. This proximate or direct cause may also have its own Antecedent thereby requiring additional analysis to further determine the root cause. However, this step in the process allows the interpreter to, at least, move beyond the symptom to look deeper at patterns that are triggering the Behavior (or challenging patterns).

Upon completion of the Behavior and Antecedent analyses, the interpreter looks at how the Behavior manifested in the product. In other words, the goal is to establish the C or Consequence in the product from each Behavior. It is the desire and contention of this author that more of the work on performance improvement should be focused on this phase of the complex process of interpreting. Interpreters are infamously known for berating themselves over the errors or miscues in their work, so much so that they spend inordinate amounts of time and energy focusing on total elimination of these errors (which will never be possible). Would an effective strategy potentially be to acknowledge and accept these challenges from the onset and to focus on developing effective strategies for managing them in the product? The difference in the most

effective interpreters and those who are considered adequate is not that the effective interpreters' work is without error. It is that they have developed and incorporated strategies to manage the challenges more effectively, efficiently, and often imperceptibly. This step will help reveal the ways in which the challenges are managed (or mismanaged) providing valuable information to the interpreter seeking to develop effective management strategies.

A=Antecedent	B=Behavior	C=Consequence
Saw hand being raised & froze	00:07 w-i-e-s-m-a-n	Skipped name (too close to message & left obvious hole in product)
Saw hand being raised & became nervous	01:13 r-o-c-k-s-p-r-i-n-g-s	Produced Rockspring after pause & awkwardly loud & mismatched volume and emphasis (AKA Infamously known as Marie Griffin's game show interpretation)
Saw hand being raised & broke down	03:26 n-a-t-a-l-i-a	Paused & omitted term

Figure 2. ABC Analysis data collection form with behavioral focus of receptive fingerspelling.

Each step of the ABC Analysis process provides valuable and powerful information for the interpreter. Detecting patterns in all categories can be a starting point for professional development planning and work. The patterns identified in all three categories provide an opportunity to clarify performance challenges by identifying potential patterns.

1. **"B"** is providing information related to the specific surface behavior and what the interpreter believes is the challenge. In this example, seeing that city names are the more frequent "**B"** noted may lead the interpreter to understanding the challenge is related to knowledge of city names in a specific area or, in other words, not all receptive fingerspelling.

2. **"A"** reveals the trigger. In the example above, the issue is not a fingerspelling challenge but a psychological issue of fear which likely needs to be addressed first.[8] At this time, another Analysis Tool such as the *5 Whys* may be utilized to delve into the cause for this fear. Addressing a behavior without the underlying trigger will usually not result in eradication of the behavior.
3. Finally, the "**C"** category focuses on how the interpreter manages the process. In the example above, the interpreter may see that because she is too close to the message, there is not the opportunity to utilize strategies that would result in a product that is more cohesive and native-like even with the specific term or item omitted. The "**C"** is where this author hopes many interpreters will focus their performance improvement work!

5 Whys Description

The *5 Whys* tool, **first implemented in the 1970s in the** Toyota Production System, is perhaps one of the easiest to grasp and apply. In essence, it requires no form but simply identifying a pattern and asking "why" after each statement of the problem. This simple question leads the interpreter to underlying causes for those things that appear in the surface product. The goal is to reach a depth of analysis where the interpreter discovers something fundamental or perhaps previously considered outside of her grasp or control.

Application steps.

A statement of the specific challenge which is referred to as the 'effect' in a cause-and-effect analysis is noted in a journal in whatever format the interpreter chooses. This documenting (compared to simply thinking or stating it out loud) aids in helping the interpreter to clarify the challenge. At the completion of noting the challenge, the simple question "Why?" is written and

8 Determining a challenge is rooted in a psychological issue (such abuse as has been mentioned previously in the paper) does not imply that mentors and educators should delve into some of the psychological issues that interpreters may deal with. The extent to which mentors and educators may address these issues relates solely to aiding the student or interpreter to recognize and minimize the potential impact of the psychological issue on the work product.

the answer becomes the statement for the second iteration followed by another "Why?" The process goes through approximately five iterations. However, not every cause analysis will require five and others may require one or two additional iterations.

Example application.

An example of this application might look like this:

1. I struggle with production of classifiers. Why?
2. Because I don't know how to produce some of them correctly. Why?
3. Because I get confused with the differences in production of some shapes differentiating between the concept heard in English such as a big oak or a willow tree. Why?
4. Because I'm not sure what they look like and how to represent them in ASL classifiers. Why?
5. Because I grew up in a city without much exposure to trees.

From this example, it can be seen that the symptom that may have been addressed by having the interpreter brush up on classifier shapes, ultimately is completely unrelated to Classifier production or even ASL, the tL. The issue needing to be addressed is one of knowledge of the incoming English sL concepts.

Another example of this application used when addressing prosodic features might look like this:

1. I have problems accurately voice interpreting an ASL text when there is more than one character; I get people confused in the interpretation. Why?
2. Because I have a difficult time knowing when there is a shift between characters. Why?
3. Because I am unsure of what triggers the shift in characters Why?
4. Because I don't know what cues I am overlooking to know when there has been a shift in the attention from one character to another. Why?
5. Because I'm not sure what they are or what they look like in ASL or whether I am, in my own production of ASL, even producing them.

From this example, the symptom is interpreting role shifts in ASL-to-English work. If the process stopped before the response to the first "why", the resulting skill development may focus on watching ASL texts with more than one character or strengthening visualization strategies

when working from ASL to English. However, further analysis determines that the root cause is more fundamental and is grounded in a lack of knowledge as well as an ability to identify (and possibly produce) prosodic features that convey the relatively subtle shifts between characters.

Specific Purpose Sample Analysis Tools

Certification Preparation Self Analysis Description

As interpreters prepare for the various aspects of certification (written, interview, and performance tests), they are bombarded by numerous avenues of potential support. The effectiveness of these supports, typically short-term workshops, is unknown. Equally of concern to these candidates for certification is the fact that there are a confounding amount of competencies required to be successful on these all-too-important tests. When certifications, incomes, and the ability to work lie in the balance as outcomes of the performance on one specific day, the result can be an overwhelming sense of fear related to not only the testing process but also the lack of awareness of what it takes to be successful. Because of this, these candidates for certification find it difficult to determine the performance gaps for the numerous knowledge and skill domains being tested. This Certification Preparation Self Analysis tool (Wiesman, 2008) guides interpreters through a comprehensive set of questions which, when answered, will aid in the determination of the performance gaps for each of the domains tested. This identification of performance gaps enables preparation time and activities to be more focused and effective. A byproduct is that it also promotes a greater sense of confidence by helping the candidate to feel better prepared on test day.

Application steps.

At this writing, there are two major sections of the analysis: interview and performance. Each section contains a number of categories representing competencies required from the various testing processes (RID, EIPA, and state quality assurance screenings). This Certification Preparation Self Analysis Tool enables interpreters to isolate component parts of the work and to identify which area may require more focus during preparation. For each category, there is a

series of questions used to facilitate the analysis of that particular category. When looking at a sample of the work, these questions are intended to guide the rating and determination of test readiness. A snapshot of the Certification Preparation Self Analysis Tool is provided in Figure 3.

NIC Performance Test Self-Analysis Tool

Interpretation Rating Criteria			Self-Assessment	
NIC Standard, Advanced, or Master?			Self-Rating[1]	Evidence[2]
Performance				
Sign to Voice / Receptive	Articulation	How clearly are words enunciated? Is the target message conveyed appropriately according to the context in which it was uttered (5 Ps[3])?		
	Affect	Are the speakers conveyed accurately in terms of their level of animation, motivation, passion, etc. Were the pacing, pausing, and communication style aligned with those of the speaker?		
	Grammatical	Are sentences formed grammatically correctly? Were tenses accurately conveyed? Is there sufficient range of grammatical structures used (varying sentence types)? Is the use of grammar aligned appropriately with the language use of the speaker (5 Ps[3])? Were language appropriate prosodic features conveyed from the source to the target message?		
	Intent	Is the intent of the message conveyed? Irrespective of the words used, did the listener receive the same message value as would have been received by a person communicating directly with the speaker (without an interpreter)?		
	Content	Was the overall content of the message conveyed with reference to language economy, cultural mediation, and attempts at equivalency of the message? Were fillers used culturally appropriately? Was visual information conveyed?		
	Constructed Action	Did the target message condense constructed action and convey the target message into a low-context equivalent form?		
	ASL Features	Were ASL features conveyed accurately into English such as spatial set-up and referencing, classifiers, directionality, etc.?		
	Pronouns	Were instances of person conveyed accurately into the target message (narration, 1st, 2nd, and 3rd person)?		

Figure 3. NIC Performance Test Self Analysis Tool.

A "self-rating" column utilizing a 5-point Likert scale (snapshot provided in Figure 4) encourages the interpreter to look <u>not</u> for errors but for evidence of effective work. Ratings in categories < 3 may indicate a need to focus skill development work or, at the very least, provide an awareness for emphasis on test day. Finally, the column for evidence requires substantiation of the self rating. The interpreter must locate specific instances of the effective work in the sample being analyzed.

[1] Self-Ratings:

5	Always	The work contains all of the necessary elements in this area.
4	Often	The work shows sufficient strength in this area and very infrequently challenged.
3	Sometimes	There is evidence of the use of this, though the work could be strengthened in this area.
2	Occasionally	There is infrequent evidence of the occurrence of this in the work.
1	Never	The work demonstrates almost a total lack of this in the product.

Figure 4. Certification preparation self-analysis rating scale.

Example Application

An example of the user-friendliness and utility of the tool for certification candidates as well as educators and mentors is provided in Figure 5.

This paper was intended to provide a brief glimpse into the benefits that practices of T&PI professionals can have on the education (pre-, in-, and self-service) of interpreters. It is only one aspect of the entirety of the T&PI focus on human resource development. The challenge for interpreters and those educating and mentoring them is to approach the work of skill and knowledge development from a multi-dimensional lens instead of the traditional one-dimensional lens. For the performance improvement process to be effective, interpreters must first determine the actual skill gap that moves them beyond the symptomatic surface challenge to establish the root cause for these challenges and develop interventions that most appropriately match these root causes. It is the author's hope that this will initiate a dialogue related to the possibilities for incorporating root cause analysis into the classrooms, mentoring relationships, and professional development work of all interpreters. Additionally it is hoped that many providers of educational activities will become interested in what the T & PI research and literature (Addison & Haig, 2006; Ford, 2002; Gilbert, 1996; Mager & Pipe, 1997; Piskurich, 2002; Rossett, 1999; Sanders, & Thiagarajan, 2001; Stolovitch, & Keeps, 1999; Swanson, 1995; Van Tiem, Moseley, & Dessinger, 2004; Werner & DeSimone, 2006) has to offer in the continuing focus and efforts to improve what we do.

Interpretation Rating Criteria			Self-Assessment	
NIC Standard, Advanced, or Master?			Self-Rating[1]	Evidence[2]
Performance				
Sign to Voice / Receptive	Articulation	How clearly are words enunciated? Is the target message conveyed appropriately according to the context in which it was uttered (5 Ps[3])?	4	00:35 The ship docked at the harbor only momentarily. 01:43 While amassing an enormous amount of souvenirs, they were concerned about how they might get them home safely. The setting is formal, participants are separated by academic status, and the interpretation reflected that at the following places: 02:33, 03:34, 04:56.
	Affect	Are the speakers conveyed accurately in terms of their level of animation, motivation, passion, etc. Were the pacing, pausing, and communication style aligned with those of the speaker?	2	Few instances of evidence. The speaker was animated and the interpretation did not provide evidence of a similar level of animation.
	Grammatical	Are sentences formed grammatically correctly? Were tenses accurately conveyed? Is there sufficient range of grammatical structures used (varying sentence types)? Is the use of grammar aligned appropriately with the language use of the speaker (5 Ps[3])? Were language appropriate prosodic features conveyed from the source to the target message?	5	Throughout, there is an emphasis on full, complete sentences. Sentence structures are varied: 00:10 Thank you for joining here today. 03:40 Rh? (not in the sL) Do we all tend to overspend when traveling abroad?

Figure 5. Certification preparation self-analysis tool example application.

About the Author

Lynne Wiesman is the founder and CEO of Signs of Development. As a Performance Consultant, she is actively involved in developing sustainable mentoring projects for state organizations as well as educating and mentoring interpreters with an emphasis on supporting their preparation for certification. She is currently working on her dissertation focusing on approaches to mentoring that most effectively close the graduation-to-certification performance gap.

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