Conference of Interpreter Trainers

2014 CIT CONFERENCE

OUR ROOTS:

THE ESSENCE OF OUR FUTURE

PORTLAND, OREGON

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Mission Statement

CIT's purpose is to encourage the preparation of interpreters who can effectively negotiate interpreted interactions within the wider society in which Deaf people live. As such, one of our primary goals is to increase our students' knowledge concerning the Deaf community, Deaf peoples' linguistic rights and our role in the preservation of ASL. CIT seeks to accomplish its mission by fostering teaching practices and research that help educate compassionate, engaged professional interpreters who will exhibit cultural and linguistic fluency, sophisticated interactional competencies and who are sensitive to issues of privilege. We also seek to advance teaching practices that lead to a deepening of cross-cultural awareness and to guide students to interpreting practices that are based in the norms and values embraced by the Deaf community by providing arenas for the sharing of these ideas.

Adopted 2013

Acknowledgements

To the authors, it has been a pleasure working with each and every one of you. We are grateful for your patience during the process. With your help, we have truly captured our roots, which will enable all us to have a much stronger future. We look forward to seeing where this journey takes us. Although we did not receive any papers submitted in ASL for this proceedings, we look forward to future proceedings published in both English and ASL.

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Keynote Presentation

Where are we? Back to our roots as we move forward in an evolving world

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Where are we? Back to our roots as we move forward in an evolving world

As CIT celebrates its 35th year of existence, the presenter muses on her experiences as an interpreter educator, interpreter, and consumer. The world has changed dramatically in these 35 years. The presentation follows with an examination of how living in a rapidly evolving, diverse, and technologically-driven society presents new issues and challenges for the interpreting education field. Issues of diversity; interpreting in K-12 educational settings, health care, and the legal system; interpreting for Deaf/Blind consumers; the impact of technology, including VRS and VRI; a collision of "rights" are discussed.

In response to the new environment facing interpreters and Deaf consumers today, the presenter focuses on three essential areas for interpreter education: language proficiency, communicative competence and "Deaf heart". It is proposed that interpreter educators re-examine expectations and consider new approaches to language proficiency for both ASL and English, and in particular, spoken English. A look at the United States Department of State language proficiency standards for professionals is offered for comparative purposes. The challenge facing interpreter educators is whether "sufficient" levels of language proficiency in the interpreting profession is adequate or whether the goal should be for "fluent" levels of proficiency. In offering "food for thought" for the essential area of language proficiency, potential strategies include: Deaf people as educators, early ASL skill development, ASL classes in schools, reaching out to family members, ASL camps, career fairs, listings and descriptions of ASL interpreting as a field in career resources, increasing program expectations for English language fluency, among others.

The second essential area is communicative competence, which includes but goes beyond language proficiency. Communicative intent, rather than simply parroting words is key. As such, interpretation incorporates meaning into the communication exchange to present the interpreted results as clear, accurate, coherent, and appropriate. Cultural proficiency is discussed as an aspect of communicative competence. For the most effective interpreting of communicative intent, it is presented that critical thinking skills are instrumental to the process. As "food for thought" considerations, the presenter stresses the value of the development and internalization of higher order thinking skills,

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by incorporating the modified version of Bloom's taxonomy into interpreter education. The newer taxonomy, modified by one of Bloom's students, Lorin Anderson, classifies as thinking skills in increasing complexity: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating. Interpreter educators are encouraged to consider strategies for facilitating critical thinking in different ways in the classroom and through mentoring. Inclusion of cross cultural principles and practices in interpreter education can also effectively enhance interpreting skills. Another important consideration for interpreter education in enhancing communicative competence is to incorporate effective practices to prepare interpreters for interpreting via the technology medium.

The third essential area for interpreter education in this new environment is the promotion of the "Deaf heart". The concept of Deaf heart has come up in recent times as a critical factor that appears to be lacking in today's interpreting profession as compared to the earlier years of interpreting where the majority of interpreters were fluent in ASL and had substantive interactions with the Deaf community, often before becoming interpreters. In contrast, many interpreters today have not had that level of immersion into the language and culture. The difference in attitude and perspective toward the Deaf community between the past and present has been noted by many. Having a Deaf heart is often translated into how much one understand and cherishes the Deaf experience. Regardless of whether interpreters have a Deaf heart or not, attitudes toward Deaf consumers must be an on-going evaluative process. Interpreters need to become sensitive to situations where they might intentionally or unintentionally devalue Deaf people. Since Deaf people are the roots of the interpreting profession, interpreter educators need to consider how they can promote the concept of Deaf heart in their programs. Food for thought considerations include ensuring a Deaf presence in interpreter education, promotion of significant interactions with Deaf people, and setting expectations for on-going reflective and evaluative analyzing of attitudes.

In consideration of moving forward to the future, the presenter adds a sixth E to the conference's E's of the Elements, the Essentials, the Environment, the Energy, the Emotion, that being "Empowerment". There are four key concepts in Empowerment as a critical force to building a better future. The first key concept is building a strong cooperative bond. This practice is much more constructive and effective than one based on running to groups only when their help is sought. This would include alliances with Deaf and interpreter affiliated organizations, diversity related groups, VRS and VRI companies, interpreter and cross-cultural organizations not directly focusing on ASL and Deaf culture, among others.

The second key concept for Empowerment is promoting dialogue and reflection. Promoting an environment that values dialogue and reflection is critical in fostering continuous improvements in interpreting and interpreter education. This empowering process would begin in the classroom and extend into the workplace and beyond. The third key concept for Empowerment is "acting locally, contributing globally". A modification of the slogan from "thinking globally" to "contributing globally", reflects a more active intent. To live by this slogan, interpreters and interpreter educators are encouraged to examine their roles as allies and advocates in promoting ASL, Deaf culture, and best practices in interpreting. Examples of strategies are provided. The key concept is that if everyone advocates in one way or another, the impact on society would be powerful, with positive results for the interpreting profession and ultimately, the Deaf community. The fourth key concept for Empowerment is establishing a national agenda. The idea here is to have a process of dialogue and reflection involving allies in the interpreter education community coming together to ultimately devise and implement critical goals for action. This could be in the form of a national agenda where goals could serve as guidelines for action at local, national, and international levels.

The elements of Empowerment as outlined in the presentation are illustrated with these four key concepts to promote dialogue and action. The actual process would be determined by the interpreting education community. Since the issues and challenges facing the interpreter education field are quite urgent, the CIT membership is encouraged to take the lead in promoting action. After all, as Abraham Lincoln noted, "the best way to predict the future is to create it."

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ASL-centric teaching: More than just having good ASL

Austin Andrews[2]

Description

Do you teach… in ASL? If you educate Deaf students, hearing ASL students, interpreting students, or give workshops to interpreters – in ASL –then this workshop is for you! How many ASL presentations, workshops and videos have left you shaking your head, thinking, "That's SOOO not Deaf-friendly"? As you know, teaching effectively - in ASL - requires much more than just 'having good ASL'; it requires different techniques and tools centering on the strengths of ASL. Join the presenter (Austin) and fellow workshop attendees in sharing real-world techniques and tools that will take your teaching to the next level!

In this highly interactive workshop, you'll see how specific techniques and tools can enhance the ASL-centric nature of your teaching, whether your learners are youths or adults, Deaf or hearing!

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Visual-spatial literacy: Are we teaching the essential skills?

Patricia Lessard[3]

Abstract

This paper explores the struggles inherent in working with visual and spatial information. It will describe how they are present as second-language learners attempt to become 'literate' speakers of ASL. It will define visual and spatial literacy, what it entails, and its pervasiveness. It will also outline its impact on the fields of ASL and ASL-English interpreter education. It will present key concepts, definitions and research findings to inform the discussion on why students struggle with the development of their visual and spatial skills. In addition, it will offer insights and suggestions for the creation of curricular materials that will mitigate student struggles and foster visual-spatial skill development. Lastly, it will offer resources for educators to incorporate into their current or future classroom materials.

Keywords: Visual and spatial literacy, spatial reasoning, figure-ground relationships, mental rotation, mental operations, transformations

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Visual-spatial literacy: Are we teaching the essential skills?

It is incumbent upon us as teachers of ASL and interpretation to support students as they develop essential skills in the visual and spatial aspects of ASL so that they can experience success and truly be literate speakers of the language(s) they use.

As with any language instruction, teachers of a foreign or second language hope that students will become fluent in the essentials of the language being taught in their classrooms. Being fluent entails being literate in that language. Literacy in the usual sense means that one can read, write, and express a language. Given that ASL is a visual-spatial language, then one would hope that students of ASL would achieve visual and spatial literacy as well. Interpreters are those who are fluent in two languages. One would hope that they too are literate, in the fullest sense of the word, in ***both*** languages.

Throughout my 23 years of teaching, I have witnessed the inability of some and the difficulty of most of my hearing students to think visually. They cannot easily conceptualize objects that exist in actual or referential space. They also have a difficult time expressing the spatial orientation or spatial relationships of objects seen in their mind, in an actual photo or illustration of some kind. While signing a narrative text that contains location information, they often compose expressions that are either devoid of any classifier constructions, or the ones that are present are flawed. When asked what they felt was the basis of their struggles, they said they did not understand the underlying principles of classifier constructions. When we did visualization exercises in class, some reported that they actually saw words or labels, not images. In observations made of the general public, Silverman states that less than 30% of the population strongly uses visual/spatial thinking. Furthermore, about 45% uses both visual/spatial thinking and verbal thinking. The final 25% thinks exclusively in words. These percentages mirror the composition of the students of most of the classes I have taught.

In Lessard (2002), Kuntze states, "The use of classifiers consists of making a connection between the visual representation of reality in the mind and its linguistic expression. It is not uncommon that the level of mastery in classifiers is perceived as an indication of the degree of mastery in American Sign Language." He goes on to say, "Some students struggle in making the necessary transition to the three-dimensional and visual way of talking in ASL" (pp. v-vii).

Five fundamental questions have long been the focus of my research:

1. How can one learn to be a better spatial thinker?

2. Why is it that some students are better at these tasks than others?

3. Why is it that when one sees an ASL student or interpreter who incorporates more of the three-dimensional features of a signed language into their work, one considers them to be "exceptional" when in actuality, that

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should be the norm?

4. How does one go about teaching students of ASL and interpretation to think visually?

5. It is asking a lot of students whose L1 is a verbal language to become fluent in an L2 that is a visual language in the brief time that we have them in our classrooms. What can be done to assist teachers in their attempts to transition students from expressing thoughts and ideas using the linear property of languages like English, to the more three-dimensional properties of a visual and signed language such as ASL?

Answers to these questions are the keys to fostering visual and spatial thinkers. They should also serve as the impetus for creating curricular materials that will support their skill development.

This presentation will discuss various aspects of visual-spatial literacy and suggest tips, techniques, and resources that instructors can incorporate easily and immediately into their curricular materials. It will briefly discuss how the lack of these skills impacts Deaf consumers; making their experience in the interpreting process more labored.

During a review of the literature for the most recent revision of my curriculum, I came across a substantial body of research, seminal works of the past, and very recent publications, that address the concepts of visual and spatial thinking, spatial intelligence and visual literacy. Before beginning the discussion of the literature review, however, it would be prudent to define key concepts that will be used in this presentation along with their implications for instruction. I offer the reader an annotated glossary of sorts, some entries excerpted from authoritative sources found in the reference section, and others, which have been distilled from various sources. These terms are not limited to the mental operations required to accurately express signed languages; they are found in disciplines such as psychology, engineering, mathematics, geology, chemistry, physics, etc.

Key Concepts

The National Research Council (2006), conceptualizes ***Space*** in the following way: People, natural objects, human-made objects, and human-made structures exist somewhere *in* space, and the interaction of people and things must be understood in terms of their locations, distances, directions, shapes, and patterns.

Signing Space is the term used for "the three-dimensional space in front of the signer, extending from the waist to the forehead, where signs can be articulated. Signers schematize this space to represent physical space and to represent abstract conceptual structure. … Where English uses prepositions to express spatial relations, ASL uses the visual layout displayed by classifier signs positioned in signing space" [underlining added] (Emmorey, 1998). The last point will be discussed later in the section on why some students express these constructions correctly while others struggle.

According to Gardner (1983), ***Literacy*** encourages fresh, and in many ways, more reflective attention to language. … the individual becomes aware that there are elements like words, that they are combined in certain acceptable ways [grammar] and that these linguistic elements can themselves be referred to [metalinguistic abilities]. In the view of Kuntze et al, it also "encompasses the acquisition of knowledge and the development of cognitive skills that one needs for thinking, comprehending, and communicating." (2014) – which harkens back to his earlier statement about the "three-dimensional and visual way of talking in ASL" cited earlier in this presentation.

Learning to think is a means to becoming literate. By extension, one could say that by thinking, comprehending, and communicating in one's L2, where comprehension would entail visually perceiving objects projected into some location in space and communication would require the ability to express oneself in a visually comprehensible way

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and also arrange the elements in a spatially accurate way, that one would develop ***visual and spatial literacy.*** In case the concept of visual and spatial literacy is not familiar, there are other related concepts that have also been used: spatial ability, spatial reasoning, spatial intelligence, and multiple intelligences [see for example, Eliot, 1987; Gardner, 1983; Gould and White, 1974; Kitchin and Freundschuh, 2000; Tversky, 2005].

The term that is probably the most easily recognized and the one with which most people are familiar is the term spatial ability. ***Spatial ability*** is defined as a trait that allows people to perform mental operations on objects, such as rotating them and viewing them from a new or different perspective. These operations play an integral role in the expression of ASL.

Spatial reasoning is specific way of thinking. It is primarily based on a combination of the following:

1. The ability one has to conceptualize space and objects located in space.
2. The tools one uses for representing or re-orienting objects in space. The tool could be one's mind or a digital, computer-generated representation that can be altered.
3. The cognitive processes one goes through when reasoning about space. (National Research Council)

As of the printing of its research findings in 2006, The National Research Council felt that spatial reasoning is "on par with, although perhaps not yet as well recognized and certainly not as well formalized" as mathematical or verbal reasoning.

Spatial visualization pertains to one's ability to imagine objects as well as their movements in space, to mentally manipulate (rotate, transform) spatial forms or to see them from another perspective or angle.

Spatial intelligence can be defined as one's capacity for the perception of spatial information (visual input) and the production of language (linguistic output) that attests to the perception and comprehension of the spatial information. It is one's ability to be cognitively flexible and to mentally imagine some transformation on an object, or to take oneself through a think aloud process, i.e., verbally guide oneself through the process of the transformation.

A powerful feature of spatial thinking is in one's ability to mentally change the appearance of objects. "***Spatial transformations*** are operations which establish new and different mental representations of objects that exist in space." (National Research Council) 'Objects' can be visible in a diagram, for example, or imagined in the mind. Below is a set of specific spatial transformations taken from the list proposed by the National Research Council.

These are considered to be the requisite skill set when engaging in the mental operations used for expressing a visual language:

1. **Changing perspective** – your frame of reference to the event
2. **Changing orientation** – re-orienting something or someone (mental rotation)
3. **Changing scale** – change size (large ←→ small)
4. **Moving wholes** – mentally re-locating whole objects such as the layout of furniture in a room
5. **Zooming in or out** – to capture a very detailed view of an object or a global view
6. **Enacting** – spatial thinking and motoric thinking, e.g., mental rehearsal)

Figure and Ground is a term used in many fields, language and art, for example.

In any language, the object that is given focus is called the FIGURE. It is usually expressed in terms of its relationship to an already referenced object called the GROUND. In English, the FIGURE usually occurs first in a sentence. For example, in the sentence: *The man sits next to the tree*, the man is the FIGURE and he is located in terms of his position relative to the tree, which in this sentence functions as the GROUND. English primarily uses prepositions to express FIGURE-GROUND, location "where" information, or spatial relationships.

Multiple intelligences are what Gardner (1983) claims that "all human beings possess." Among the other intelligences we possess, e.g., music, interpersonal, intrapersonal, bodily-kinesthetic, etc., he insists that we must also consider spatial intelligence. He posits that as a species, "we human beings are better described as having a set of relatively autonomous intelligences" and not just general intelligence.

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Fostering Visual and Spatial Thinkers

As a profession, we are not alone in our endeavor to instruct our students to be more visual and spatial thinkers. There is a growing body of research that addresses the nature and function of thinking in a more spatial manner. For example, results from research conducted in the disciplines of psychology, medicine, mathematics, aerospace, and aeronautics speaks to the merits of being able to think visually and spatially.

In addition, the National Research Council claimed that spatial intelligence is "not just under supported but underappreciated, undervalued, and therefore under instructed and called for a national commitment to the development of spatial thinking across all areas of the school curriculum" (Hegarty, 2010). Even though it was referring to K-12 instruction and curricula, one can see that these recommendations can be extended to the instruction of ASL and interpretation.

In its 2006 publication, *Learning to Think Spatially,* the National Research Council of the National Academies has also stated that when it comes to spatial thinking/reasoning there are three important points we should be aware of:

1. its pervasiveness (its presence in so many aspects of our lives), power (the things we are able to do because of it) and flexibility (what it allows us to do)
2. there are significant variations in how and how well one does this, i.e., there is no "best" way of thinking spatially – (we can afford to try various approaches and experience success in many ways, with some experiencing greater degrees of success than others)
3. the importance of meeting the challenge of formal training in spatial thinking. Much depends upon formal education (it might not be acquired simply by observing others since so much of it occurs in the mind of the actor; some learners just don't know how and where to begin on their own)

When one engages in spatial thinking while composing ASL texts, one is using a collection of cognitive skills. Those skills include visual perception, recognition of locative relations, recall of lexical or gestural movements to correctly express the concept as well as other cognitive operations that are required for one to perform visual and mental transformations. It is clear that spatial thinking is a complex and challenging process. There needs to be support for the teaching staff so that they can create learning environments where spatial thinking is encouraged frequently and where students can experience success. In doing so, the finished product will be accessible and more intelligible for Deaf consumers, making their experience less labor intensive and cognitively demanding.

Answers to the Questions

1. How can one learn to be a better spatial thinker?

"With appropriate instruction … spatial thinking can become an invaluable, lifelong habit of mind" (National Research Council).

Spatial thinking is something that can be learned. However, there needs to be a systematic approach in ASL and interpreter educational programs to elevate the levels of spatial thinking and thereby support the development of spatial literacy.

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Using the Familiar

Students need to first be exposed to the concept of spatial thinking in general. Basic terms that should already be familiar to them are, for example, symmetry, scale, mirror reflection, orientation, and rotation. These terms are also used when discussing various properties of ASL. Depending on the level of instruction, faculty might want to begin by discussing these terms as they are used in the more familiar discourse of space. When it is obvious that the students understand these terms as they apply to operations and events in their daily lives, their understanding can then be transferred to the visual properties of ASL.

Students of ASL and interpretation have actually interacted with a visual language before they reach the classroom; they have been exposed to the language of film. When they have watched a movie or other video presentation, they have witnessed events, perceived actions or transformations that have been conveyed to them visually, often without the aid of captions, a verbal component or spoken track. They have understood what was visually being expressed to them. There is, therefore, a resource teachers can use, which is prevalent and available in our culture and presents opportunities to engage with key vocabulary and concepts that are familiar to students in this genre. This resource can aid teachers in their scaffolding of student awareness, knowledge and skill; moving them towards being more visual thinkers and linguistically more visually and spatially literate. This concept and process is detailed in the *Classifiers: A Closer Look* curriculum (Lessard, 2002), which uses the analogy of a camera and movie set. It guides students to an understanding of the mental operations one must go through in order to correctly compose utterances that include classifier constructions of correct scale and to incorporate multiple viewpoints and perspectives. There is also the work currently being done by Klein and Taylor (2014). Their approach for teaching adult L2 learners of ASL is to show them the parallels that exist between cinematics and visual languages.

One can also look to the literature on Deaf children and their acquisition of complex constructions and use that as a means to gauge the developmental trajectory of hearing students. [See Janzen's work on space rotation, perspective shift, and verb morphology; Lillo-Martin and de Quadros's work on children's acquisition of points of view; Slobin et. al.'s work the cognitive challenges of Deaf children learning classifiers; Smith and Cormier's work on spatial scale and enactments.] There is also a growing body of research being published about Deaf adults and hearing L2 learners. [See Quinto-Pozos's work on teaching ASL to hearing students and Shield's report on the mental rotation ability of hearing adults.]

2. Why is it that some students are better at these tasks than others?

All students will likely experience some degree of success in their attempts at spatial thinking. However, one should keep in mind that there can be differences in ability and performance. The National Research Council has stated "spatial thinking develops uniquely in individuals, depending on their experience, education, and inclination." Student inclination and/or predisposition are important concepts to bear in mind when creating effective pedagogy. Gardner, in his book on multiple intelligences, believes that no two people, "not even identical twins – possess exactly the same profile of intelligences." [Being an identical twin, I can attest to the veracity of this statement.] Though students come to the classroom equipped with their abilities, i.e., intelligences, one student might not have the same abilities as another. Or if they do share the same ability, they may not have it to the same degree as the other. As an instructor, knowing this can inform how one views student learning, mainly, why it is that some students seem to perform better at certain tasks than others. Individual student variation must also be taken into consideration when planning lessons and carrying out instructional activities. Finally, no single task or test should be the measure of student success. It is possible that on a given day, no two students will perform exactly the same on a given task. Additionally, one student may perform differently on two separate, though related, tasks.

Besides inclination or predisposition, there are other factors that contribute to student struggles. One of them is the students' L1, i.e., English. ASL and English differ in several ways. They are different syntactically and also are

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expressed using a different modality. Many students produce ASL expressions that conform to the word order of English, which is linear, as opposed to ASL, which incorporates space to discriminate subject from object, to convey locative statements, to express contradictions, etc. It will also require them to use their non-dominant hand more frequently than they would probably prefer.

Additionally, there are other aspects of ASL that are even more challenging to hearing adult learners. In all fairness to the students, ASL has been considered a Category 4 language (Jacobs, 1996) partly because it is so 'foreign' when compared to languages like English.[4] One reason is because ASL is expressed in a different modality from English and also allows words to be expressed simultaneously that would normally be laid out sequentially in a spoken language. Not only are there are structures that require the use of both hands, not in a symmetrical arrangement but rather representing two different referents, but there are also considerations that need to be made for changes in perspectives or scale, figure and ground reversals, and other operations that are cognitively complex. "Describing an object is a complex process in which the description of the parts and their relationship to each other must be constructed in a manner that is semantically acceptable as well as grammatical. It often requires the simultaneous use of both hands, with each hand functioning as a separate articulator." (Slobin et al., 2003).

When introducing students to these complex structures, one may want to also include information on the language progression of typically developing Deaf children as a comfort. They also struggle with producing figure-ground constructions. As with most hearing students, early in their acquisition of ASL, they too omit the ground. In addition, like L2 learners, their errors will include utterances where the figure and ground do not correspond with each other in their scale. "Problems of relative scale pose difficulties to learners, because the same referent can be represented by different handshapes, depending on how their relative sizes are conceptualized in the projection from mental space into signing space. " (Slobin et al., 2003).

However, regardless of the signer's ability at handling the manual complexities, which are inherent in classifier constructions, there is also the underlying visual image that has to be conjured up and maintained during the entire span of the utterance. It also needs to be stored for future reference. Suffice it to say, this is the crux of the problem for many adult ASL learners.

3. *Why is it that when one sees an interpreter who incorporates more of the three-dimensional features of a signed language into their work, one considers them to be "exceptional" when in actuality, that should be the norm?*

One possible reason could be that these signers, when wishing to situate an object in their signing space, have made the transition from a verbal to a visual means for doing so. Their ASL locative expressions do not conform to the word order of English, and they are not overly affected by English intrusions such as on, at, across, under, etc. They correctly express location information and spatial prepositions via classifier constructions, and they remember the requisite figure-ground reversals. Not all their pronouns are expressed in second or third person; they understand that there are times when they can 'talk about' an event and times when it requires them to participate in the telling of the event, using first person pronouns. They are also able to incorporate more than one character and maintain multiple perspectives throughout the narrative, thus more closely resembling the narratives of a native speaker, making their ASL output intelligible and more accessible for the Deaf consumer.

Another way of saying this would be, in addition incorporating the lexical and grammatical features of ASL that allow them to express space, they have also reached a level of comfort with spatial transformations. They are capable of:

[4] The Foreign Service Institute and Defense Language Institute group languages into four categories based on how difficult they are to learn for speakers of English.

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1. Changing perspective – alternating between an aerial view, bird's eye view; a view from below, near, far; a frontal view, cross section, etc.
2. Changing orientation – also known as mental rotation, which they call into play when describing the world as it appears from another's point of view. It entails their ability to see objects (animate or inanimate) from more than one projection or orientation, and is an important skill to develop in ASL.
3. Changing size or scale (large ←→ small) – depending on the requirements of the text. They zoom in, for example, to provide a greater level of detail.
4. Moving wholes – e.g., performing a narrative where someone goes to the hardware store to buy an unfinished door and imagines which way the door will swing to determine which side will get the hinges and which side will get the exterior paint.
5. Enacting – spatial thinking and motoric thinking, which is the cognitive process one goes through when performing Constructed Action in ASL. They know when and where to shift from an observer's perspective to the perspective of a participant, requiring them to use manipulative or handling classifiers. They also can reorient objects according to this new view. Recently there has been more research on this feature [see Lillo-Martin, and de Quadros, 2011; Metzger, 1995; Quinto-Pozos, 2005, 2007; Smith, and Cormier, 2014]. This is not unique to Deaf adults and children. Hearing adults and children also make large enacting gestures when they tell stories where they are handling or referring to objects of a certain size or in locations relative to themselves. [See McNeill, 1992]

Lastly, spatially literate students in general, have advanced levels of knowledge of and skill in spatial ways of thinking. Simply stated, they know ***where, when, how and why*** to think spatially. Nothing less should be required of ASL students.

4. How does one go about teaching students of ASL and interpretation to think visually?

Students of ASL may not realize how often spatial thinking is required in many aspects of their everyday life. Regardless of whether it is an instantiation of people, naturally occurring objects, human-made objects, or imaginary objects, these entities exist somewhere *in* space – even if it is only imaginary space. People and things also interact with each other, and that interaction is often expressed in terms of relative locations, alignment, distances between them, movement to and from them, etc. Some students may not be well versed when it comes to expressing these concepts using the tools afforded them by the visual-spatial linguistic devices of a language like ASL.

At first, it may seem that they "know" ASL. Lexically, they may have fairly developed word bank, and may not have any pronounced production errors. Semantically, they are able to select the correct sign for the meaning intended. Syntactically, their sentence constructions might generally conform to the grammar of ASL – except when it comes to expressing spatial relationships. In this case, their word bank could be underdeveloped, especially when it comes to classifiers. When interviewing students, they admitted to selecting a classifier handshape rather arbitrarily; not because it was semantically motivated, but because it was the only one they knew. Needless to say, manual errors are easily detected and more easily remedied. Any errors that are due either to incorrectly conceptualizing objects, or the inability to express them correctly is more difficult to identify and correct. It requires the instructor to know what the students are 'seeing' in their mind's eye. In situations such as this, it is helpful for the instructor to engage the student in what has been called a Think Aloud Protocol (TAP). The creators of mental rotation tests have used this technique for students in general. Recently, the results of a process used with students of interpretation were presented at the International Symposium on Signed Language Interpretation and Translation Research by Russell and Winston (2014). In either case, when engaged in a TAP, a student can verbally walk through each step of their thought process as well as the stages they went through to mentally re-orient or transform an object. It has been found to be an effective strategy and would be an added benefit to any curriculum. One challenge, however, would be

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finding enough instruction time for such valuable activities. Another challenge would be finding adult learners who wouldn't mind going through the process in front of their peers.

Additionally, the cognitive operations for processing spatial information would have to be broken down into discrete stages. This cognitive task is difficult and can be frustrating if one tries to teach this as a single concept rather than a serial process. First, the students could be directed to recall a favorite or familiar object, thus using long-term memory (rehearsed versus constructing something new and unfamiliar). Next, they should envision a specific image, one that is expressed to them in print only. This helps them transition from verbal to visual conceptualizations. After they are comfortable conjuring up an image from a printed prompt, they should focus attention to a specific location on the object and attend to the details that are now visually available to them. The last step would be to transform this mental representation in some manner, e.g., rotate it, enlarge it or shrink it.

At this stage, they are only engaged in mental operations on an object. The next logical step would be to increase the level of difficulty by asking students to now express what they envisioned into ASL, keeping in mind that though they are chronologically 18+ years old, their language level is similar to that of a young Deaf child. To facilitate the transfer from verbal to visual thinking, it is helpful to use multiple examples during the initial learning. For adult learners, it is also beneficial to vary the conditions of practice. A second exercise that could be used would be similar to the first in that its objective is to encourage students to visualize something, but different in that it requires them to perform a few more operations. For example, the students would be guided through a series of steps where they are told where to visualize objects but this time in relation to themselves. In the *Classifiers: A Closer Look* curriculum, this activity is referred to as "90° 180° 270°." It was designed to help students see objects or the setting of an ASL text from more than one viewpoint or angle. Reports from teachers who have used the 90° 180° 270° technique say that it has been particularly effective with students when teaching them to mentally rotate or relocate elements in their utterances. It was interesting to note that regardless of whether they were my students, or of another class, some students were better able to rotate objects at 90° and 270°, whereas others performed better on the 180° rotation. This is consistent with what Gardner states about the differing abilities of our student populations.

Finally, one cannot overestimate the value of practice. "Familiarity and practice imagining specific types of objects and events sharply improves the ease of cognitive processing of spatial representations" (Lohman and Nichols, 1990).

5. *What can be done to assist teachers in their attempts to transition students from expressing thoughts and ideas using the linear property of languages like English, to the more three-dimensional properties of a visual and signed language such as ASL?*

Tools, tools, and more tools! Tests and other forms of measurement currently available from disciplines outside of ASL instruction are a good place to start. In her presentation at the Maria J. Krabbe Foundation for Visual Thinking in 2005, Linda Kreger Silverman provided participants with several checklists, which they could use to gauge whether or not their students were visual-spatial learners (pp .2-3). These checklists can be converted into rubrics for Student Learning Objectives. There are clear advantages to using spatial ability tests as one starting point when examining spatial thinking (Hegarty, 2010). Various programs have used classic tests of spatial visualization ability, such as the Vandenberg Mental Rotations Tests (Vandenberg & Kuse, 1978). A similar test of one's ability to perform some sort of spatial re-orientation was developed by Kozhevnikov and Hegarty (2001).[5] They were not involved in sign language research; they were psychometricians. In their study, the participants were shown a black and white line drawing that had an array of objects. They were then asked to imagine themselves standing near one of the objects

[5] The URL for free sample of this test can be found in the Resources section at the end of this paper.

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and facing towards a particular object within the array. The following example was taken directly from the test. The diagram has been omitted.

Example:

Imagine you are standing at the flower and facing the tree.
Point to the cat.

When looking into studies directly related to ASL, Quinto-Pozos (in personal communication, October 2013) adapted the Perspective-Taking/Spatial Orientation, or PTSO Test (Hegarty et al., 2008). He conducted a case study where he compared the performances of his participants to see if there was a difference between their scores on the English- and ASL-based versions of the PTSO test. Quinto-Pozos strongly believes that perspective-taking is an important aspect of signed language processing. Earlier research by Talbot and Haude (1993) demonstrated that people who were more fluent in ASL performed better on mental rotation tests. The results of studies such as these can assist in the creation of curricular materials that are exclusive to teaching in the ASL classroom.

Even without the aid of formal testing instruments or research findings to inform new curricular materials, teachers are still able to quickly assess their students' performances. They can create checklists and rubrics to identify specific linguistic structures, their presence, level of mastery, or visible absence.

Concluding Tips and Resources

1. Prime them to look for (printed text), listen for (audio text), think about (mental exercises) <u>where</u> statements.

2. Prime them to look for, (printed text), listen for (audio text), think about (mental exercises) <u>what</u> statements that contain dimensions, or adjectives of size and shape.

3. Prime them to look for, (printed text), listen for (audio text), think about (mental exercises) <u>prepositional phrases</u>.

NOTE: Remember FIGURE-GROUND reversals

4. Watch their <u>eye gaze and path of movement</u> in verbs for indicating subject – object relationships

5. Watch their <u>eye gaze and placement of objects</u> for indicating the alignment of these objects.

Are they expressed according to observer or participant POV?

Is there evidence of enactment (Constructed Action)?

Are they using depicting or manipulating/handling classifiers?

Are they produced correctly?

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6. Practice examples of zooming in or out, and changing scale. For example, have them sign an utterance about a tree in their yard where they are looking out a kitchen window, and the tree is perhaps 50 feet away. Next, have them "zoom in" a little, to notice that there are unusual dark streaks running down the bark. Now zoom in even further to show that the dark streaks are actually trails of ants carrying their eggs to a safe place.

Did they effectively change scale?

Were both hands used?

Was a classifier used for the bark and one for the dark streaks?

Did they remember the figure-ground reversal?

How did they represent the bark (ground, first)? How did they show the ants (figure, second) in this close-up scale?

Did they engage in some form of enactment or Constructed Action when it came to show how the ants carried the eggs? Or did they use the lexical sign TO-CARRY?

7. Remind them that ASL is a category 4 language. In other words, it is complex and very different from English. They should have patience and forgiveness for themselves because it takes a long time to learn.

8. Compare their progress to that of Deaf children from Deaf families – even they struggle at first; it is normal to forget the second referent (ground) or to forget to change perspective or viewpoint.

Resources

For an electronic copy of the Perspective Taking/Spatial Orientation Test and answer key developed by Mary Hegarty, Maria Kozhevnikov, David Waller, see:

http://www.psych.ucsb.edu/~hegarty

McKim, R. H. 1980. *Thinking Visually, a strategy manual for problem solving.* Dale Seymour Publications. Available through most major booksellers.

Helpful Websites

Spatial Intelligence & Learning Center (one of the NSF Science of Learning Centers) www.spatiallearning.org [Look under tests and instruments]

VIZ Visualization Assessment and Training Program: viz.bd.psu.edu/

www.visualspatial.org

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Educational Interpreter Boot Camp: Intensive mentoring outcomes

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Abstract

This project was established to address the need to increase the number of qualified educational interpreters in the state of Pennsylvania. State law requires interpreters working in an educational K-12 setting to have earned a minimum of a 3.5 on the Educational Interpreter Performance Assessment. The Boot Camp focused on providing targeted skill development led by two instructors from two of the state's Interpreting Programs, and intensive one-on-one time with a trained mentor. This Boot Camp was funded through the Pennsylvania Department of Education's Bureau of Special Education for two years, 2012 and 2013. The goal of this paper is to provide information on how similar Boot Camps can be replicated in other states to assist in bridging the gap from graduation to meeting the state standards for educational interpreters.

Keywords: Boot camp, mentors, mentees, educational interpreter performance assessment

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Educational Interpreting Boot Camp: Intensive mentoring outcomes

Qualified interpreters in the educational setting are a provision under the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA; Classroom Interpreting, n.d.). In order to define what the term *qualified* means, many states implemented the use of the Educational Interpreter Performance Assessment (EIPA) and chose a level out of the 1-5 scale that the state has deemed makes an interpreter "qualified". Twelve of the twenty-three states that require the EIPA have mandated that interpreters must achieve a minimum of a 3.5 score out of 5 (Classroom Interpreting, n.d.). Pennsylvania, where this project took place, is a state that requires a 3.5 on the EIPA. This paper discusses the orchestration of an Educational Interpreter Boot Camp to bridge the gap from graduation to achieving the state minimum standard of a 3.5 for interpreters who were recent graduates of interpreter training programs. This paper summarizes the impetus, planning, and implementation of the Boot Camp. For further details of the daily structure and materials that were utilized, see Bentley-Sassaman, Houser, and Morrison (2014).

History

In 2008, the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania establish a law that all educational interpreters who work in K–12 settings must attain a minimum score of 3.5 on the EIPA or be registered with the Office for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing as a nationally certified sign language interpreter (The Commonwealth of Pennsylvania School Code, Chapter 14, "Highly Qualified Personnel", Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, 2008). Interpreters are also required to earn at least 20 hours of staff development activities related to interpreting or transliterating annually (22 Pa. Code § 14.105(b)(i-iii)). At that point in time, there were approximately 100 educational interpreters who met the state minimum standard. In order to bring potential educational interpreters' skill levels up to the required minimum score of 3.5, a formal mentorship program was established. The Pennsylvania Training and Technical Assistance Network (PaTTAN), an initiative of the Pennsylvania Department of Education's Bureau of Special Education that is responsible for providing professional development and technical assistance related to special education issues, included goals for establishing such a program in its State Personnel Development Grant (SPDG), which was funded through the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP).

PaTTAN's Educational Interpreter Mentorship Program was established in April 2008. The Mentorship Program's goal was to increase the number of qualified educational interpreters, those who had achieved a minimum EIPA score

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of 3.5, through a formal mentoring program, regional interpreting labs, and continuing professional development. The program was staffed by eighteen educational interpreter mentors who were trained by experts from the DO-IT Center at the University of Northern Colorado. There were strict criteria for mentors to qualify to participate in the program. Mentors' academic and credential eligibility requirements were a minimum score of 4.2 on the EIPA, a bachelor's degree (preferred) or an associate's degree from an accredited college or university, and at least 3 years' experience working in an educational setting. Once eligible participants were identified, they participated in 6 days of face-to-face training, which included methods of skill assessment, techniques for discussing interpreting performance, prioritizing of skill development needs, and strategies for enhancing reflective practice and decision making among K–12 interpreters. Once completing the training, mentors worked one on one with individuals who had attained an EIPA score between 2.4 and 3.4. Regional interpreting labs were made available to the mentors, which included professional development materials to support technical skills as well as the role and responsibility germane to the educational setting.

PaTTAN educational consultants, acting as Pennsylvania EIPA local test administrators in Pennsylvania, discovered that the majority of students who graduate from American Sign Language (ASL) interpreter training programs (ITPs) were unable to reach the state minimum requirement score of 3.5. PaTTAN engaged all state ITPs in dialogue to determine how to reduce the number of lower-scoring interpreters working in educational settings and increase EIPA scores to the 3.5 minimum. This effort additionally met one of the goals of the state professional development plan, collaboration with pre-service programs. Quarterly meetings between PaTTAN and the ITPs began in 2009.

The participants of this collaboration formulated ideas for helping to prepare qualified interpreters to enter the educational setting. The concept a "boot camp" emerged, and an educational consultant from PaTTAN and two instructors (each representing a different ITP) further met to brainstorm setting up a program that would enhance the skills of new interpreters to meet the state minimum standard. Since the state already had a pool of qualified mentors who had participated in extensive training, the ITP to PA Schools Boot Camp was formed to help bridge the gap and increase the number of educational interpreters in Pennsylvania meeting the state-established minimum requirements for being a qualified educational interpreter.

Logistics

The Pennsylvania Department of Education's Bureau of Special Education had the foresight to write goals for establishing a program like the Educational Interpreter Boot Camp into its State Personnel Development Grant (SPDG), which was funded through OSEP. The approximate cost for one boot camp was a total of $21,300. The item lines in the budget included food, $500.00; hotel $4,800; instructors $6,000; and mentors $10,000. Utilizing the cafeteria at university greatly assisted with keeping food costs low. Participants were permitted to have single occupancy for hotel lodging. Hotel fees could have been reduced by requiring double occupancy for participants or by utilizing dormitories on the university campus. Fees paid to instructors and mentors were not by the hour, but one amount for the entire boot camp; $3000 to instructors and $2000 to mentors. The time commitment made by each participant was extensive, ten to twelve hours daily during the one week of face to face training and mentoring, as well as, countless hours of preparation and post Boot Camp work by both instructors and mentors. This is testimony to the level of commitment by these dedicated professionals.

Mentors

The six mentors who participated in the Educational Interpreter Boot Camp were chosen from the pool of trained, veteran, educational interpreters who participated in the mentorship program explained above. In 2012 there were four mentors and in 2013 there were five mentors. Three of the mentors who participated in 2012 returned in 2013.

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In addition to these three returning mentors, two other mentors who had received the same aforementioned mentorship training joined the team as outlined in Table 1.

Table 1: Mentor characteristics

	Mentor			
Characteristic	**Elaine**‡	**Eleanor**+	**Elsie**‡	**Ellen**‡
Years as mentor	14	5	27	15
EIPA score	5.0	4.5	4.2	4.2
Years working in K–12	17	6	36	23
Education in interpreting	AAS in Interpreting	AAS in Interpreting	MA in School Counseling and Guidance	AAS in Interpreting

	Mentor	
Characteristic	**Emily**†	**Edgar**†
Years as mentor	5	9
EIPA score	5.0	4.4
Years working in K–12	5	13
Education in interpreting	MA in Deaf Education	BS in Interpreting

‡ Indicates participant in both 2012 and 2013 Boot Camps
+ Indicates participant in 2012 Boot Camp only
† Indicates participant in 2013 Boot Camp only.

As stated above, the mentors for this program were chosen from the preexisting PaTTAN Educational Interpreter Mentorship Program mentor pool. All six mentors received extensive training in utilizing the Ten-Step Discourse Analysis Process (Witter-Merithew, 2001) in their mentoring work. PaTTAN provided other materials for their mentors to utilize for the duration of the program, including a collection of resources called a "hub" of DVDs, books, and video cameras. Each mentor was provided with these same materials for use during the Boot Camp. The mentors chosen for the Boot Camps were identified through review of the rate of improvement of previous mentees assigned to these mentors, number of mentoring hours (ranging from 60 to 192 hours), as well as character traits of the individual.

Mentees

Strict criteria were established for participants in the role of mentee. The mentees must have been interpreters who (a) graduated from an ITP within the previous 2 years, (b) scored between 3.0 and 3.4 on the EIPA within the previous 2 years, and (c) expressed interest in working as an interpreter in the educational (K–12) setting. The interpreters who were selected as mentees agreed to (a) attend all days of the Boot Camp, (b) work with their mentor during the time between the Boot Camp and the EIPA retake, and (c) retake the EIPA (Bentley-Sassaman, et al., 2014).

The final task in preparation for the Boot Camps, was to pair the mentoring teams. The PaTTAN consultant reviewed the EIPA results for each mentee pertaining to strengths and targeted areas for skill development. The consultant also interviewed each mentee to gain knowledge of the individual's character and to discuss the time and energy commitment required for participation in the Boot Camp. Based on this information, the PaTTAN consultant

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matched each mentee with the mentor who would best meet the skill development needs and personality traits of the mentee. This process was utilized for pairing mentoring teams for both Boot Camps.

Boot Camp

The Boot Camp was located at a university where one of the instructors taught. This location was ideal in that there was available classroom space for the morning instruction and evening activities, work space for mentors in another room, office space for the instructors and educational consultant, one-on-one space for the mentors and mentees to meet in the library, on site cafeteria, and the technology needed (computers, DVD players, VHS players, etc.) (see Bentley-Sassaman, et al., 2014). Before the Boot Camp began, the instructors were provided with the EIPA scores of the mentees. Targeted skill sets were chosen based on the EIPA scores where the mentees all had lower scores. Curriculum for the Boot Camp was then developed with those skills in mind. In both 2012 and 2013, the same skills were targeted. For the second year, the instructors examined the scores of those mentees. Interestingly, all of the mentees scored low in the same targeted skill areas. As such, those areas were again focused on in the second year the Boot Camp was offered. The targeted areas were:

1. Discourse Mapping
2. Appropriate use of fingerspelling
3. Prosodic information: emphasis
4. Prosodic information: register
5. Sign to voice: emphasizing important words

Structure of the Boot Camp 2012- 2013

The structure of the 2012 and 2013 Boot Camps were similar in nature with some improvements based on feedback from 2012 to 2013. The instructional delivery and the mentoring time were the same both years. In 2012, we did not have a meet and greet where the mentors met their mentees prior to the first day of the Boot Camp. Feedback was provided by the mentors and mentees that they would like to have a meet and greet the evening before the first day of Boot Camp. In 2013, we incorporated that feedback and had a small social where the mentees, mentors, instructors, and the PaTTAN consultants met. A brief explanation of the Boot Camp was provided, folders with the pertinent information for the week were distributed, and mentors and mentees were formally introduced.

Another change that was made from 2012 to 2013 was when the Boot Camp took place. In 2012, the Boot Camp took place, and then three weeks later, everyone met up at the PaTTAN Educational Interpreter Summer Institute, a two-day training for educational interpreters in the state of Pennsylvania. In 2013, the Boot Camp began at the Summer Institute, where the mentors and mentees practiced the targeted skills together during the training. When the training was completed, the mentors and mentees then traveled to the university hosting the Boot Camp and began instruction.

The daily structure of the Boot Camp was the same for both years. For more explicit details of the lectures, stimulus utilized, mentoring time, and activities see Bentley-Sassaman, Houser, and Morrison (2014).

1. Morning: Classroom instruction with the two instructors – Each morning focused on a different skill set. Lectures were coupled with hands-on interpreting practice utilizing the Ten-Step Discourse Analysis Process

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(Witter-Merithew, 2001), video recording of interpreting work, and some superficial self-analysis. While the mentees were in the classroom, the mentors were in another room preparing for the afternoon sessions. All video recorded interpreting work was given to the mentors immediately after the recordings were completed for the mentors to analyze and develop mentoring activities.

2. Afternoon: Intensive one-on-one time with mentors – The mentors reviewed the video work with the mentees, provided feedback, and practiced skill development. They worked together for several hours in the afternoon.

3. Evening: Group activities – After dinner, the mentors and mentees came back to the classroom for group activities. The mentors and mentees were paired up and both participated in fun activities that focused on the targeted skills. Instructors led these activities.

After the last day of Boot Camp concluded, there was a wrap-up with the mentors, mentees, instructors, and the educational consultant. The mentors and mentees developed a plan to work on over the next three weeks. Mentoring continued during the three weeks prior to the EIPA retake. Due to the location of the mentors and mentees, much of the mentoring happened through distance technologies such as Skype. After the three weeks concluded, the mentees then retook the EIPA.

Results

In both 2012 and 2013 the majority of the mentees did see an increase in their results. In 2012 two of the mentees met or exceeded the 3.5 goal. The other two both saw increases, but did not meet the 3.5 minimum (see Figure 1). Cindy took her EIPA in March of 2012 and saw a .6 increase when she retook the EIPA in June 2012. Caitlyn did not seem to improve much, only .1; however, after graduating she had been working in a retail store for a year and a half and not interpreting. Had she retaken the EIPA prior to the Boot Camp, her score may have been lower than when she took it straight out of college. Most of the mentees saw an increase in the targeted skill sets (see Table 2) as well as the overall EIPA score (see Figure 2).

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Figure 1: 2012 Mentees before and after EIPA scores

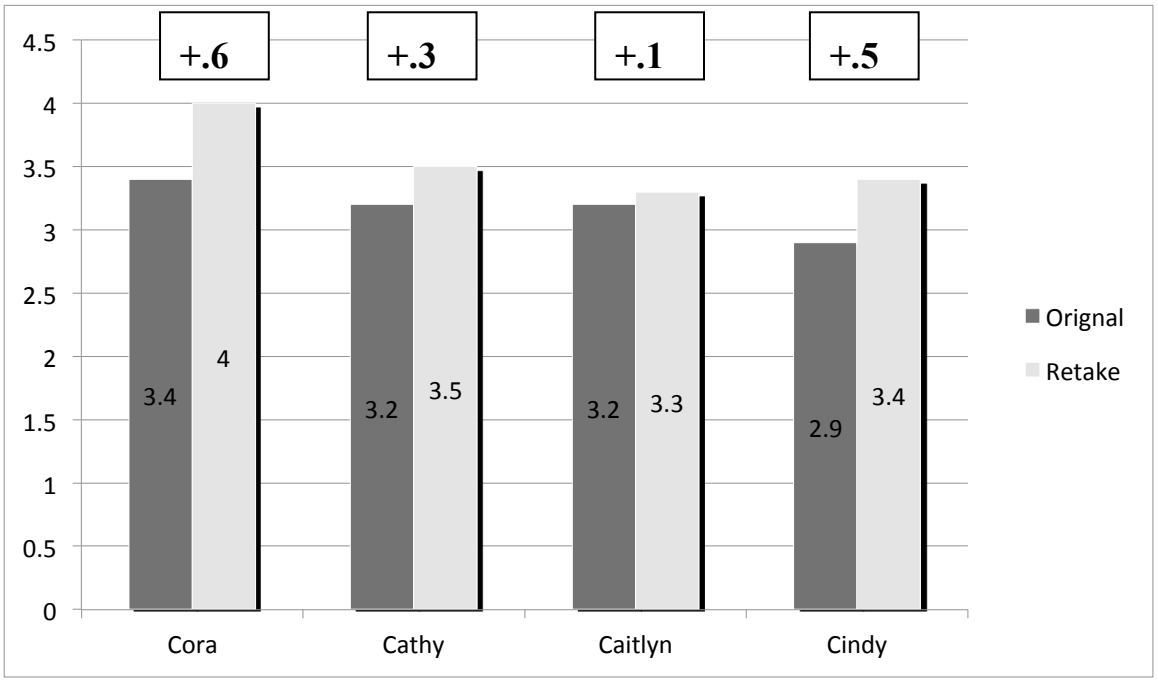

Figure 2: 2012 Targeted skill set scores differentials

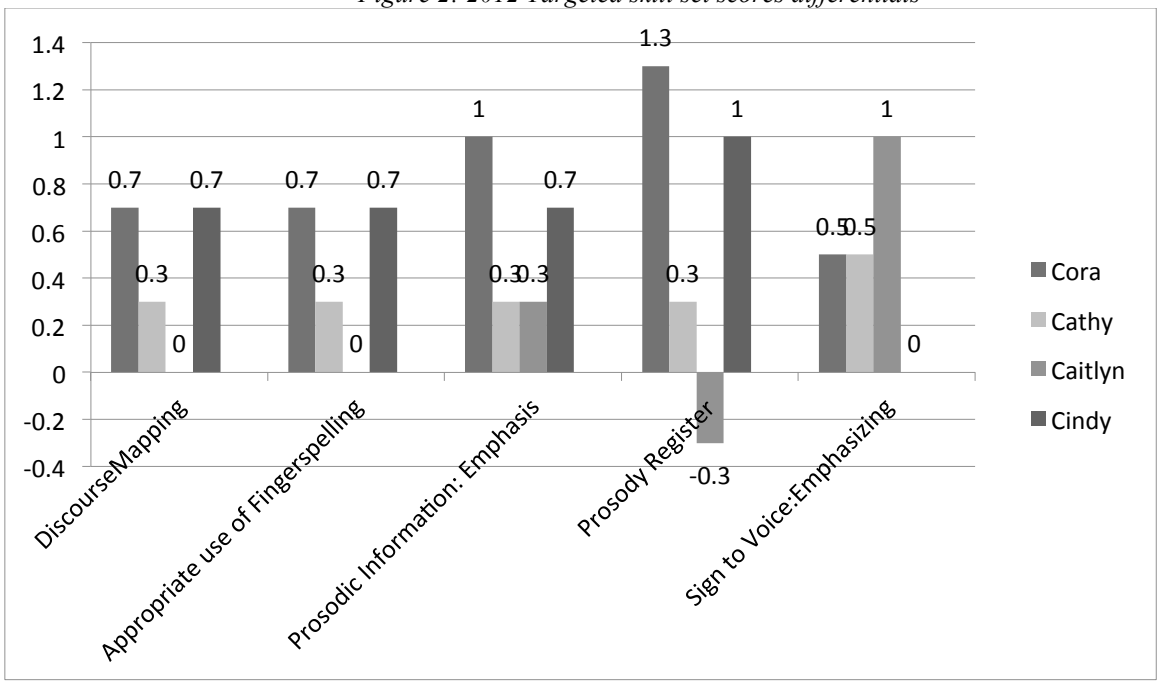

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Table 2: 2012 Targeted skills pre and post EIPA test

	Mentee			
Skill	Cora	Cathy	Caitlyn	Cindy
Discourse mapping				
Original	2.3	1.7	2.0	1.3
Retake	3.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Appropriate use of fingerspelling				
Original	3.3	2.7	3.0	2.3
Retake	4.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Prosodic information: Emphasis				
Original	3.3	2.7	3.0	3.0
Retake	4.3	3.0	2.7	3.7
Prosody register				
Original	3.0	2.7	3.0	2.7
Retake	4.3	3.0	2.7	3.7
Sign to voice: Emphasizing important words				
Original	2.5	3.0	2.5	2.5
Retake	3.0	3.5	3.5	2.5

In 2013, two of the five mentees exceeded the 3.5 minimum. Another mentee increased her score by .3 and the other two received the same score (see Figure 3). The two who received the same score were in a similar situation as Caitlyn was in 2012. Both Sarah and Sharon were very limited in their interpreting over the past year prior to the Boot Camp. They both interpreted in limited situations, religious ceremonies once a week. The breakdown of the targeted skills can be seen in Figure 4 and Table 3.

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Figure 3: 2013 Mentees before and after EIPA scores

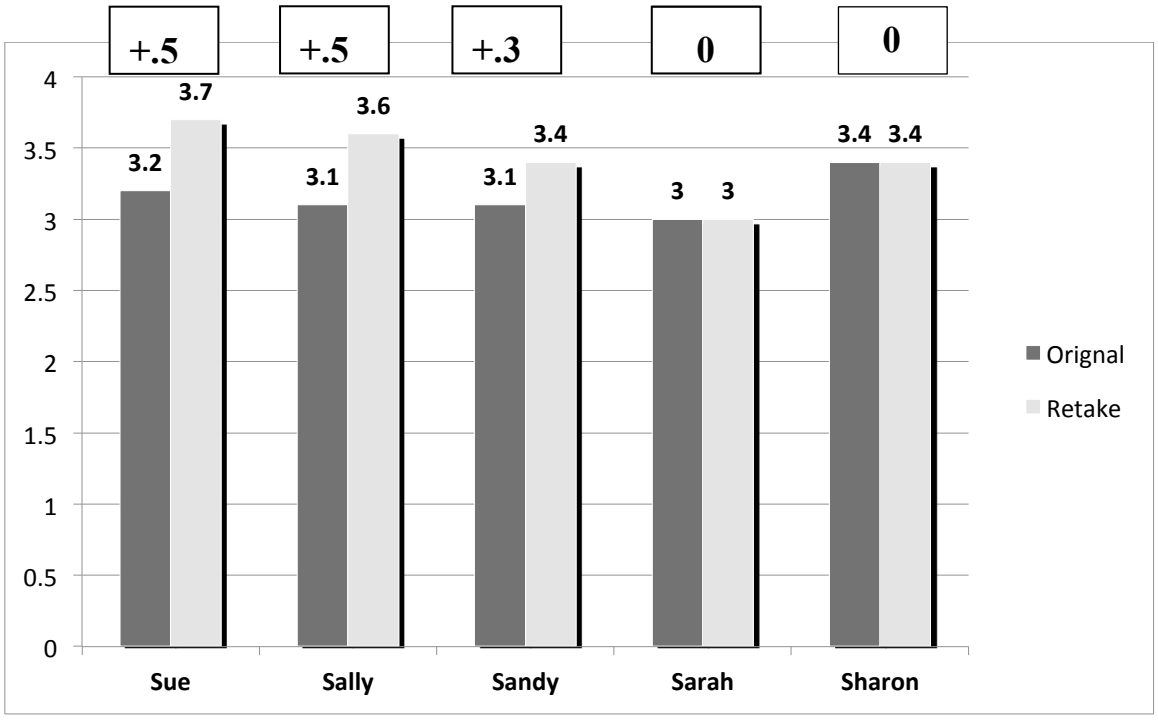

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Figure 4: 2013 Targeted skill set scores differentials

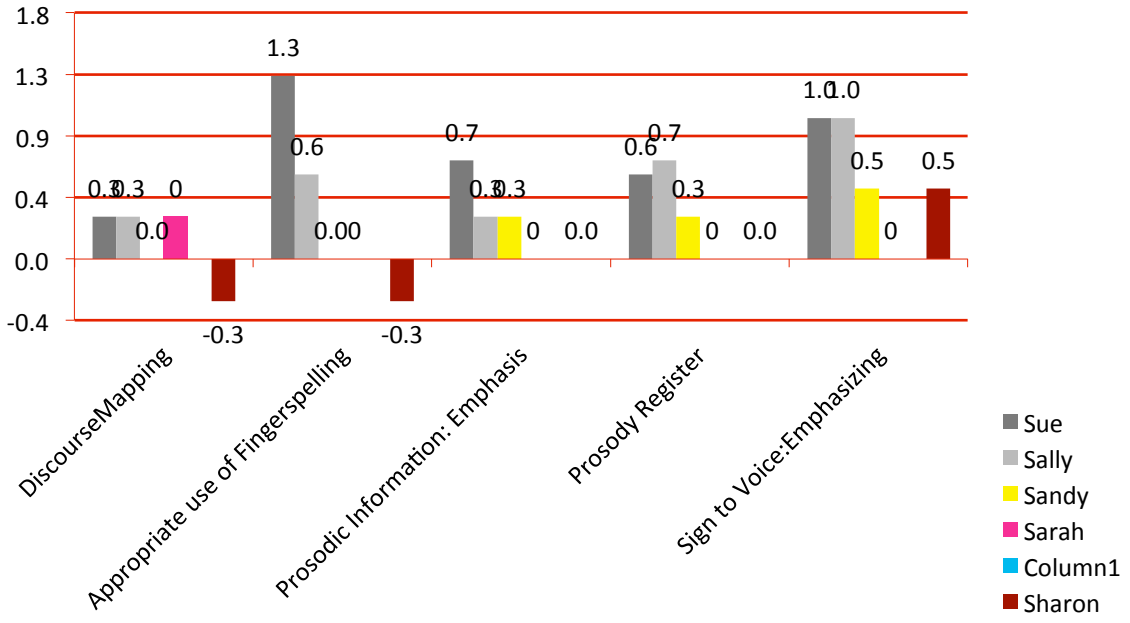

Table 3: 2013 Targeted skills pre and post EIPA test

	Mentee				
Skill	**Sue**	**Sally**	**Sandy**	**Sarah**	**Sharon**
Discourse mapping					
Original	2.0	1.7	1.7	1.7	2.0
Retake	2.3	2.0	1.7	2.0	1.7
Appropriate use of fingerspelling					
Original	2.7	2.7	3.0	3.0	3.0
Retake	4.0	3.3	3.0	3.0	2.7
Prosodic information: Emphasis					
Original	3.0	3.0	2.7	3.0	3.0
Retake	3.7	3.3	3.0	3.0	3.0
Prosody register					
Original	2.7	3.0	2.7	3.0	3.0
Retake	3.3	3.7	3.0	3.0	3.0
Sign to voice: Emphasizing important words					
Original	2.0	2.5	2.5	2.0	2.5
Retake	3.0	3.5	3.0	2.0	3.0

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Caitlyn, Sarah, and Sharon seemed to not have improved over the course of the Boot Camp. All three of these mentees were not interpreting, or interpreting only at religious services once a week since their graduation. This limited their use of ASL and interpreting skills. Even though the scores do not show improvement, based on what we observed during the Boot Camp, the three of them had made improvements. Sharon's scores went down in two areas, again if she had taken the EIPA right before the start of Boot Camp, we feel her EIPA score (3.4) would have been lower due to her limited amount of interpreting during the year from her first EIPA to the Boot Camp. Due to funding reasons, the Boot Camp has ended. Based on what we have learned, if there are any Boot Camps in the future, we are recommending that all the interpreters be working regularly either as an interpreter, or using sign language on a regular basis. If mentees are accepted into a Boot Camp who have not been interpreting, we suggest their mentor works with them over a longer period of time prior to retaking the EIPA.

When looking at the aggregate scores from the post Boot Camp EIPA scores for both the Boot Camp of 2012 and 2013, each skill category did increase (see Figure 5). The Boot Camp in 2012 and 2013 lasted approximately 3 weeks. The increases in the scores in such a short amount of time are a testament of the instructors, mentors, and mentees dedication and desire to improving skill sets. Three weeks is a short time to improve on one skill set, and during the Boot Camp five skill sets were addressed.

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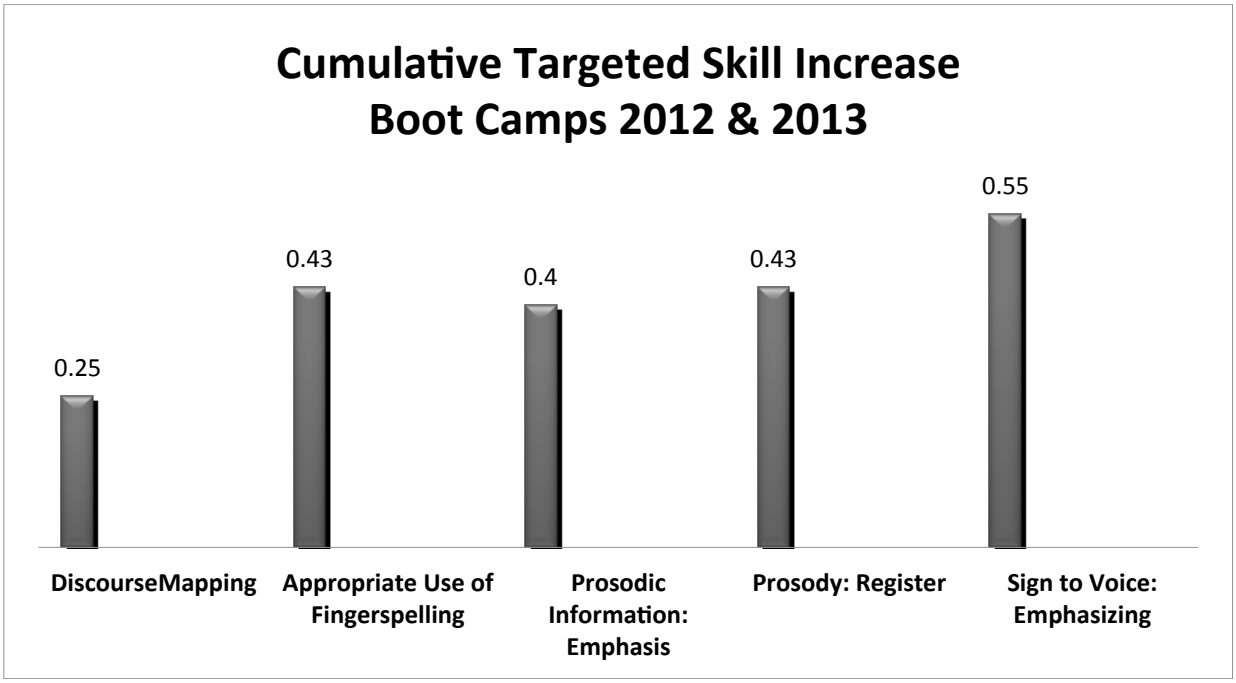
Figure 5: Cumulative target skill increase



Conclusion

Overall, the 2012 and 2013 Boot Camps were a success. Even though not every mentee achieved the 3.5 score on the retake of their EIPA, they all learned tools to help them improve for the future. Through this project we can see that the instruction time coupled with the intensive one-on-one mentoring component led to improvement with the mentees in the targeted skill areas. The goal of the Boot Camp was to prepare interpreters to meet the minimum state standard of the 3.5 on the EIPA. This goal is important as these interpreters work with deaf and hard of hearing children who need access to language. The ultimate winners are the deaf children as more interpreters are now qualified to work with them.

Acknowledgments

We would like to acknowledge the Pennsylvania Department of Education's Bureau of Special Education for their financial support and Dr. Janet Sloand for her support of the Boot Camp. Thank you to all the mentors who worked with the mentees and helped make this Boot Camp idea a success. Thank you to all the mentees who gave up a week of your life to attend the Boot Camp. It is our hope that you learned valuable tools and you keep working on your skills no matter your score. We would like to thank Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania and the College of Education for graciously hosting the Boot Camp allowing us the use of classroom space, office space, and private rooms in the library for one-on-one mentoring.

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Gatekeeping in ASL-English interpreter education programs: Assessing the suitability of students for professional practice

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Abstract

Over the past two decades, educational programs in disciplines including medicine, nursing, social work, dentistry, psychology, and occupational therapy have begun to assess their students' fitness to practice in the profession. In what ways can interpreter education programs assess and guide students who do not behave in accordance with values and norms of the profession or the Deaf community? If guidance is not successful, how do departments decide that a student's pattern of behavior is potentially harmful to future consumers? This paper addresses one attempt to operationalize the dimensions of personal and professional suitability with guidelines that are sufficiently concrete and specific. We begin by providing background into the history of gatekeeping in human service education programs and the responsibilities of postsecondary institutions in this role. We outline the process of establishing a Student Code of Professional Conduct within our department at Gallaudet University. Finally, we discuss gatekeeping in relation to ASL-English interpreter education programs in general.

Keywords: Fitness to practice, professional suitability, student conduct, interpreter education

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Gatekeeping in ASL-English interpreter education programs: Assessing the suitability of students for professional practice

In higher education, *gatekeeping* refers to the process of assessing students to determine their fitness to practice in a profession (Heller, 2004; Lafrance, Gray, & Herbert, 2004). Gatekeeping requires that academic programs establish and adhere to protocols and policies designed to evaluate students' suitability for a professional practice. Assessing a student's suitability to practice is an important component in human service programs since graduates take jobs in which they hold power and influence over people's lives (Cole & Lewis, 1993). As with other human service professions, graduates of signed language interpreting programs work closely with people in critical areas (e.g., healthcare, education, vocational, and judicial settings), and their work can significantly impact the lives of their consumers.

How are ASL-English interpreters vetted into this practice profession? Historically, members of the Deaf community identified and encouraged individuals to become interpreters by informally evaluating their signed language competence and attitude toward signing and the Deaf community (Cokely, 2005). As signed language interpreting developed as a profession in the United States, various institutions (e.g., interpreting agencies, academic programs, and credentialing bodies) began determining who could enter the field (Bridges, 2014; Brunson, 2014). Deaf people continue to informally encourage people to become interpreters; however, formal evaluations of potential interpreters now take place primarily through the programs and institutions that are managed by both Deaf and non-Deaf people.

There are approximately 150 postsecondary ASL-English interpreter education programs currently in operation across North America[9]. Interpreter education faculty and administrators face a myriad of questions in their role as gatekeepers into the interpreting profession. How can their programs capture and perpetuate the "received wisdom" (Cokely, 2005, p. 4) of the Deaf community that once identified the potential and trustworthiness of an individual and nurtured them into interpreting? How can interpreting faculty assess the conduct of students who do not behave in accordance with values and norms of the profession and the Deaf community? In what ways can programs determine that a student's pattern of behavior is a sufficient indicator of potential harm to future consumers?

[9] For a list of interpreter education programs in the United States, see Discover Interpreting at http://www.discoverinterpreting.com. For a list of interpreter education programs in Canada, see the AVLIC website at http://www.avlic.ca.

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In this paper we describe how the Gallaudet University Department of Interpretation responded to these questions by developing a system of assessing student conduct. We outline the steps taken in collaboration with students, faculty, and community members to define the behaviors expected of interpreting students. Finally, we discuss how this assessment process supports student growth for moving into professional practice.

Gatekeeping in Postsecondary Programs

The determination of who may enter a profession is expressed by a variety of terms: *gatekeeping, professional suitability, personal suitability, fitness to practice,* and *student conduct*. Regardless of its label, assessment of suitability to practice is generally measured by a combination of academic achievement, cognitive abilities, and traits and aptitudes of a student. The goal of human service programs is to graduate students who will behave knowledgably, responsibly, and ethically within their chosen profession. Upon graduation, professional associations monitor the behaviors in practitioners by adherence to a professional code of ethics and satisfying continuing education requirements.

In the past decade, the issue of students' professional suitability has been addressed in a variety of higher education programs, including medicine (Schneidman, 1994; Whiting, 2007), nursing (Sasso, Stievano, Jurado, & Rocco, 2008), social work (Currer, 2008; Currer & Atherton, 2008; Tam & Coleman, 2009; Younes, 1998), dentistry (Ozar & Sokol, 2002), psychology (Rosenberg, Getzelman, Arcinue, & Oren, 2005), and occupational therapy (College of Occupational Therapists, 2007; Occasional Paper on Professional Suitability, 2010). Each of these fields has grappled with how to monitor and assess the professional and ethical conduct of their students and their fitness to practice in their various professions.

Signed language interpreting has become increasing visible in the public realm, which has led to a burgeoning interest in interpreting as a professional option. However, according to Born and Carroll (1988), the desire to enter a profession does not necessarily translate into an entitlement to do so. The decision to accept or terminate a student from any program is precariously balanced between a university's enrollment policies, a student's right to pursue her vocation of interest, and the rights of the individuals with whom that person will come into contact with as a professional (Sofronoff, Helmes, & Pachana, 2011). The title of *interpreter* is not yet protected by law and can be used freely by individuals with a variety of educational backgrounds, linguistic abilities, and perspectives on professional and ethical conduct. The 2009 United States Department of Justice indictment of individuals who were engaged in fraudulent business practices in video relay interpreting services[10] brought ethical conduct of signed language interpreters into sharp focus. Such high profile incidents point to the need for vigilance about professional and ethical decision-making and the assessment of professional conduct.

To be a *professional* means to have "advanced expertise … in a society-granted monopoly over services, and … shared commitment to promote the public good" (Audi 1999, p. 749). *Suitability* is defined as the state of being appropriate to a particular purpose; thus, *professional suitability* is the condition of being suited for the purpose of providing professional services to the public. How does the concept of professional suitability apply to the education of ASL-English interpreters? First, students of signed language interpreting must be able to achieve a high degree of bilingual fluency in preparation for the work of rapid language transfer between two languages. Research suggests that certain aptitudes in language learning may be necessary for success as an interpreter (Gómez, Molina, Benítez, & de Torres, 2007; Shaw & Hughes, 2006). Further, students must be knowledgeable in the language and culture of deaf and hard of hearing persons, as well as the spoken language and norms of the majority culture (AVLIC, 2014). Indeed, interpreting students are entering a complex linguistic and social activity that requires certain aptitudes,

[10] See http://www.justice.gov/opa/pr/2009/November/09-crm-1258.html.

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personality traits (Bontempo, Napier, Hayes, & Brashear, 2014), and cognitive skills (Macnamara & Conway, 2014; Stone, 2014).

The practice of gatekeeping within an educational program first necessitates knowing the skills that are required for professionals to do the job. In interpreting, some students may be identified as not possessing sufficient linguistic capabilities, some struggle with the required academic rigor, while others may not exhibit the requisite traits or aptitudes for the work. Students may have an inability to master the interpersonal skills necessary for working with others, display mental health issues that impede their work, or exhibit a pattern of not adhering to ethical principles. Issues of dishonesty, criminal records, immaturity, indications of substance abuse, a history of unsuccessful work experiences, limited intellectual capacity, and frequent career changes need attention in the gatekeeping process (Koerin & Miller, 1995; Miller & Koerin, 1998; Moore & Urwin, 1990). While some of these factors may be detected during the admission process, or early in the student's educational experience, dealing with them can present some unique difficulties for interpreter education programs, especially in an era when individual rights require considerable sensitivity.

Many of the skills necessary for professional success as an interpreter are difficult to institute as entry requirements into a program. There is growing recognition among interpreter educators for the need to establish and improve admission policies for students; less frequently discussed is the need for systems that *exit* students from programs. Explicit standards that guide decision-making about the personal dimensions of interpreting practice are not easily measured, making it difficult to guide students out of a program. Without established behavioral standards required of their students, faculty members can have difficulty in terminating students for reasons other than poor academic performance.

Can interpreter educators justify excluding or dismissing students from their programs? It is certainly possible that faculty may err in their assessment of a student who later becomes a successful practitioner in spite of a teacher's misgivings. But of greater concern is the realization that a student who performed adequately in the academic environment is practicing in a less than competent or unethical manner after graduation. Students with personal issues but who are open to self-reflection and a willingness to examine their beliefs, values, and attitudes, could be assessed as being very well suited for the profession.

How do interpreting programs integrate conduct assessments into a curriculum? In professional programs, appropriate professional behavior may be best viewed as an academic requirement, rather than a misconduct issue (Cobb & Jordan, 1989; Moore & Urwin, 1990). In this approach, incoming students should be made aware of certain behaviors that exhibit "emotional intelligence" and that are expected of professionals (along with other behaviors that will not be tolerated). Bracy (2000) suggests that emotional intelligence has two dimensions that can serve to inform the development of criteria and measures for admissions and retention in education–the intrapersonal and the interpersonal. She defines *intrapersonal intelligence* as "… the capacity to access one's own range of affects or emotions, to discriminate among these feelings, label them, and then to draw upon them as a means of understanding and guiding one's behavior" (p. 92). She further suggests that it is from this source of intelligence that one forms an accurate model of oneself and the ability to use that model to operate effectively in life. *Interpersonal intelligence* is the ability to understand other people, what motivates them, how they work, and how to work cooperatively with them. It is the capacity to notice and distinguish among the motivations, personalities, and intentions of others that drives the capacity for genuine empathy.

In sum, gatekeeping in human service programs is important for a number of reasons. First, and of primary importance, the assessment of a student's suitability to practice is needed as a means of protecting public welfare of individuals who make contact with professionals that impact their lives. In addition, gatekeeping helps guard the overall status of a profession in society and the degree of trust – or mistrust – of its practitioners. Further, assessments have the potential to foster students' empathy and emotional intelligence. Finally, gatekeeping serves as a means to protect the reputation of particular educational programs.

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One Journey in Establishing Gatekeeping Policies and Protocols

In this section, we provide an overview of the steps taken by the Gallaudet University Department of Interpretation (DOI) to address the issue of students' suitability to practice in the interpreting profession. In this journey, we acknowledge the shifting role of academic institutions in assuming the role of gatekeepers into the profession, and we are still considering the tensions surrounding ownership of this role. In sharing our process with the reader, we are not advocating a one-size-fits-all approach for every program, nor are we attempting to be prescriptive about establishing policies and protocols. Rather, we offer this description as an example of one department's journey with the hope that it may be useful to other programs.

The gatekeeping journey began for Gallaudet University with the establishment of the Associates of Arts in Interpreting in the late 1970s when professional expectations for conduct were incorporated into coursework. With the launch of the Masters of Interpretation (MAI) in 1988 and the Bachelors in Interpretation (BAI) degree in 2005, the DOI considered how to distinguish the programs from one another and how to address concerns about personal suitability for professional practice (Shaw, Collins, & Metzger, 2006). As part of program entry, students were required to sign a one-page form that broadly outlined the "essential qualities" expected of students in the program, including:

> …tact; sensitivity to the needs and interests of consumers, colleagues and supervisors; appropriate judgment; and awareness of, and ability to follow, ethical and moral constraints.

This form, entitled "Evaluation of Personal Suitability for Work in Interpretation," also provided a brief description of the departmental process if a student demonstrated behaviors in conflict with behavioral expectations, including the possibility of dismissal from the program.

The department continued to grow in student numbers, both in the BAI and MAI programs. In 2010, a PhD program was initiated[11] in the department and doctoral students were placed in teaching roles as part of their coursework. With these advancements, the department recognized a need to more clearly operationalize professional suitability as a teaching and learning concept. A rubric was needed to assess student behaviors that was in alignment with the Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs) for the department. In 2013, two DOI faculty members assumed the responsibility of investigating best practices for professional suitability in postsecondary education and devising an updated system for gatekeeping within the department. The first step involved gathering information from other practice profession programs at the university. This was followed by creating an annotated bibliography of publications on fitness-to-practice, personal suitability, professional suitability, and student conduct. The literature repeatedly advised that policies and protocols be in alignment with professional code of ethics from the specific discipline the student would be entering. In addition, documents within the university were reviewed, including the Gallaudet University Student Handbook and policies in other practice profession programs (Counseling, Education, Social Work, and Clinical Psychology). A meeting was held with personnel in the Gallaudet University Office of Student Conduct regarding logistical and legal issues for establishing policies for student termination.

Using the collected information and resources, faculty members drafted a Student Code of Conduct (S-CPC). Following the recommendations of other disciplines, the S-CPC aligned with the structure and content of the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct and other learning benchmarks for student development. The S-CPC is comprised of four documents: (1) an overview, (2) tenets, (3) a discussion form for documentation purposes, and (4) a flow chart denoting the administrative processes of documenting and addressing student behaviors. The DOI faculty reviewed the draft and their feedback was incorporated into the documents.

A critical step in the process was the establishment of a stakeholder task force consisting of students, interpreters, administrators, and Deaf community members and who reviewed the drafted documents and provide critical feedback.

[11] Entry to BAI and MAI program within the Department of Interpretation requires a specific score on an ASL performance evaluation (ASLPI), the submission of a separate English and ASL sample of the applicant, and a response to an ethical dilemma. PhD admission is based on a specific score on the ASLPI, submission of a research paper written in English, interpreter certification, and five years of experience as a professional interpreter.

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After their feedback was incorporated into the documents, the draft was again presented to the department faculty for final suggestions and revisions (See Appendices A-D for the final documents). The process of creating the S-CPC required approximately two academic years. The steps in creating the S-CPC are listed in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Steps taken to create Gallaudet Department of Interpretation Student Code of Professional Conduct.

#	Action Steps
1	Identified need for change in policies and procedures for assessing student conduct.
2	Reviewed literature on gatekeeping, personal and professional suitability, and fitness to practice.
3	Reviewed university documents (e.g., Handbook of Student Conduct) relevant to professional suitability.
4	Met with university administrators in the Office of Student Conduct regarding policies in addition to logistical and legal issues for establishing a DOI S-CPC.
5	Consulted with program chairs in other practice profession education programs.
6	Created first draft of S-CPC incorporating literature, university documents, and in line with the NAD-RID CPC.
7	Created first draft of S-CPC administration protocol.
8	Shared initial draft of all documents with full-time interpreting faculty.
9	Shared revised drafts of all documents with stakeholder panel comprised of a student from each program (BAI, MAI, PhD), Deaf community members, a professional interpreter, and two administrators from the Office of Student Conduct (43% of the panel identified as Deaf).
10	Gathered input from stakeholder panel.
11	Created revised draft of all documents based on stakeholder input.
12	Shared revised drafts with full-time interpreting faculty.
13	Received approval from all relevant parties on each document.
14	Created final draft of all documents.
15	Received final approval of all documents from department chair.
16	Released documents to all full-time faculty and stakeholders.
17	Trained faculty on implementation procedures.

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18	Created ASL translation of S-CPC.
19	Implemented procedures with all students.
20	Revisit and revise documents on biannual basis.

Despite the effort that has gone into creating the Student Code of Professional Conduct, work remains to be done. The next phase in the project involves the creation of a rubric to accompany the tenets, based on the belief that professional behaviors should be viewed as an academic requirement, rather than as misconduct. The rubric will provide a standardized format for observing and tracking suitability concerns for every student enrolled in the BAI, MAI, and PhD programs. In addition, the rubric will provide a means to document improvements in behavior. The Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs) for each course also need to be reviewed to ensure that elements of the S-CPC are included in relevant coursework, including professional practice and skills courses in which students represent themselves professionally (during observations, at service learning activities, and in conduct with peers and instructors). The rubric will serve as the measuring instrument, and the SLOs will be updated to include the learning outcomes provided in the rubric. As noted in Figure 1, the final step in the process is to revisit and revise all documents, policies, and procedures on a biannual basis; the first revisions will take place in the Spring semester of 2015. At that time, faculty and stakeholders will have the opportunity to give feedback and suggest modifications to be applied the following semester.

Discussion

In this paper, we review the role assumed by interpreter education programs as gatekeepers for students who want to enter the interpreting profession. We provide a summary of one program's process in assuming the gatekeeper role and suggest that interpreter education programs need assessments that reflect professional suitability to practice. As a field, we must define the professional suitability of interpreters, whether as personal traits or as a set of skills that can be learned and developed. Expectations of conduct in interpreter education programs should be made available to all students and should be applied uniformly. Lack of a consistent policy increases the risk of bias or unfairness, which, in turn, may lead to litigation as students challenge decisions they perceive to be unfair or unfounded. By establishing gatekeeping procedures, programs can make decisions on professional suitability with confidence, supported by sound policies and procedures.

Having systems to guide interpreter education programs with the gatekeeping process may be advantageous in several ways. First, a system provides a means to support students as they consider their chosen profession and their own motivations and suitability to become an interpreter. A system also provides students with a clear set of behavioral expectations, promotes fair, equitable, transparent procedures while offering a useful feedback mechanism. Finally, a system provides a structure for documenting observations of student behavior and a standard of measurable criteria against which to evaluate and act upon unsuitable behavior.

It must be acknowledged that even broadly drawn criteria may result in a "slippery slope" that leads to an increase of fear, competition, criticism, and other harmful social conditions for students. Further, the use of certain personal criteria may blur the distinction between faculty-as-academic-advisor and faculty-as-counselor, creating the potential for role conflicts. There are also conceptual difficulties with notions like "maturity" and "integrity" that can lead to a lack of clarity and negative labeling. It is important to exercise caution in the development of criteria lest they contradict values that promote a non-judgmental acceptance of individual differences, a belief in the capacity for change, and respect for individual rights and self-determination. Programs must also guard against the possibility of

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punishing students who are not yet ready for practice, rather than identifying those who are likely to continue unsuitable conduct.

We argue that an essential prerequisite for professional work is for students to demonstrate the ability to think critically about interpreting practice and about the environments in which they will work. Without this capacity, new graduates entering the field could become overly identified with the business practices of their work and lose sight of to the goals of social justice, language, and the social pre-conditions that reflects interpreters special bond and allegiance to the Deaf community (Witter-Merithew, Johnson, & Nicodemus, 2010). One of the problems with gatekeeping is timing; by the time a student gives evidence that they are not suitable, they have already invested a great deal of time and money in their degree. In the Bachelors program, faculty most often see issues arise in the junior year, which, with remediation, results in additional time delays. Here, the importance of working this into courses from the start would benefit students in leaving sufficient time for teaching, learning, and assessment before graduation looms. When it is determined interpreting is not the right profession for an individual, students can be guided into a profession that better suits their particular skills, attributes, and traits.

Conclusion

Undoubtedly, some students enter interpreter education programs with personal issues that could affect their future practice. The days of "counseling out" students on the basis of subjective judgment are over. Faculty impressions must be replaced by concrete and documented facts. Interpreter education programs hold an obligation to assess the professional suitability of students, and if conduct issues go unresolved, serve as gatekeepers for the profession. Educational programs designed to prepare students for work in human service fields should include a number ways to support their learning. If there is general agreement that suitability for interpreting practice is a substantive issue, the ramifications for educational progress need to be seriously considered by educational institutions, faculty members, professional associations, and potential employers. The challenge for interpreter education programs is to develop relevant assessment exercises, criteria, and procedures. An additional challenge will be to find better ways to deal with the determination of suitability within the parameters of university regulations and provisions for appeals. In an era where human rights are paramount and students have legitimate appeal mechanisms, faculties of interpreter education programs must have structured systems. Ultimately, gatekeeping must be addressed by interpreter education programs because of an obligation to the Deaf community, to the profession of interpreting, and to society at large.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix 1
Student Code of Professional Conduct (S-CPC) Overview

Interpreting is a challenging and rewarding profession that requires a high degree of knowledge, linguistic competence, decision-making skills, and interpersonal capabilities. Interpreters interact with people whose lives are touched in various ways by their work. Since monolingualism and audism are pervasive in society, interpreters should

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be cognizant of how these attitudes influence their work with the American Deaf[12] community. Thus, professional acts and practices must be negotiated with the Deaf community. As a result, it is the obligation of every interpreter to demonstrate maturity, exercise judgment, employ critical thinking, and reflect on past actions in the practice of their profession. The Department of Interpretation (DOI) Student Code of Professional Conduct was created as a means to assist students in moving toward professional interpreting practice both during their education and upon graduation.
The Department of Interpretation admits students who meet department criteria of being academically, professionally, and personally suited to work as interpreters. Admission into the program is judged by previous academic work, letters of recommendation, work history, and the student's professional goals. Adherence to standards of conduct and communication are essential elements of professional competence that are to be developed and expanded upon in the students' program of study. The Department of Interpretation has a responsibility to students, the Deaf community, and society at large to ensure that they can perform the duties required by the profession.

In addition to academic competence, students must demonstrate conduct and communication skills consistent with professional standards. These skills are to be demonstrated in the classroom environment and critically, in interactions with members of the Deaf community and other communities. Students are expected to adhere to the S-CPC, which is based on the tenets in the National Association of the Deaf (NAD) and the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) Code of Professional Conduct. Breaches of the S-CPC may be reported by faculty, staff, fellow students, or others. Students should be aware that breaches of the S-CPC may be grounds for a recommendation of academic probation or dismissal from the Department of Interpretation.
The DOI seeks to prepare its graduates to be practitioners who apply critical thinking skills in their interpreting practice and adhere to the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct. Thus, the principles for student conduct reflect the concepts of confidentiality, professionalism, civility, communication, respect for others, ethical practices, and commitment to the profession.
In the 2013-14 academic year, the Department of Interpretation saw a need to create a set of expectations that align with the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct.

Department of Interpretation faculty members who reviewed the S-CPC were:

Melanie Metzger, Chair	Paul Harrelson
Jeremy Brunson	Danielle Hunt
Keith Cagle	Brenda Nicodemus
Steven Collins	Cynthia Roy
Valerie Dively	Christopher Stone

In addition, a stakeholder task force was formed to review the document and their input is included in this final version of the S-CPC. The task force was comprised of the following individuals:

BAI Student – Matthew Kanka
MAI Student – Darla Konkel
PhD Student – Tamar Jackson Nelson
Gallaudet Interpreting Service – Amy Lanasa
Community member and educator – Gina Oliva
Gallaudet Office of Student Conduct – Hillel Goldberg and Eloise Molock

The S-CPC was officially adopted by the Department of Interpretation in May 2014 and was implemented in the Fall Semester of 2014. The S-CPC will be reviewed and revised by DOI faculty and stakeholders on a regular basis.

[12] "American Deaf community" is taken from the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct and is intended to represent individuals who are Hard of Hearing, D/deaf, and Deafblind.

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Appendix 2
Student Code of Professional Conduct (S-CPC) Tenets

4. CONFIDENTIALITY

Tenet: Students adhere to professional standards of confidential communication.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters hold a position of trust in their role as linguistic and cultural facilitators of communication. Students will maintain confidentiality about professional activities and classroom communication.

Illustrative behaviors for students:

i. Honor commitments to keep information in confidence.
ii. Do not share personal or private information from classroom discussions with others.
iii. Do not share details of professional activities (e.g., observations, mentoring, interpreting, and other required activities) outside of their respective environments. Specifically, do not share information regarding professional activities via: text messaging, email, third-party conversations, and postings to social media.

5. PROFESSIONALISM

Tenet: Students possess the professional skills and knowledge required for academic and interpreting situations.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters are expected to stay current with language use, cultural norms, and changes in the profession of interpreting and be able to apply this knowledge in their work. Students must also be actively engaged in learning and adhere to the ethical and professional standards of the interpreting community and Gallaudet University.

Illustrative behaviors for students:

i. Adhere to educational commitments by attending classes, being punctual, and being prepared for active learning.
ii. Demonstrate ability to work within a professional context by adhering to institutional norms and expectations, and by showing respect to others (e.g., faculty, staff, student peers, Deaf community members, and professional interpreters).
iii. Accept interpreting assignments (pro bono or for pay) with regard to full and thorough analysis of your knowledge, skills, integrity, language expectations, setting, and the needs of the people who are receiving your services.
iv. Abide by linguistic, social, and ethical norms when interacting with interpreters, members of the Deaf community, and other individuals.
v. Seek further knowledge about aspects of Deaf culture.
vi. Stay abreast of past and current empirical research in Interpretation Studies related disciplines.
vii. Abide by national and international codes of conduct established by professional interpreting associations.

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6. CONDUCT AND CIVILITY

Tenet: Students conduct themselves in a manner appropriate to specific situations.

Guiding Principle: Students are expected to present themselves appropriately in demeanor and appearance. Further, students avoid situations that result in conflicting roles or perceived and/or actual conflicts of interest.

Illustrative behaviors for students:

i. Convey an attitude of respect for the capabilities and worth of others, in both verbal and non-verbal communication.
ii. Refrain from rejecting or minimizing the capabilities and worth of others or attempt to impose your views and values on others.
iii. Respect differences among individuals.
iv. Demonstrate sensitivity to the feelings and opinions of others.
v. Convey openness to those who have backgrounds that are different than your own.
vi. Ask questions and actively listen to others.
vii. Refrain from non-constructive criticism of others.
viii. Demonstrate professional decision-making skills in public.
ix. Adhere to the guidelines in the Gallaudet University Student Handbook.

7. COMMUNICATION

Tenet: Students demonstrate an ability to take time to understand others, to manage emotions effectively, to use humor appropriately, and to allow people the opportunity to make mistakes.

Guiding Principle: Students are expected to maintain professionalism in communication with others, including members of the Deaf community, faculty and staff, fellow students, and working interpreters. Professional communication includes giving and receiving feedback, observing the work of others, and asking questions.

Illustrative behaviors for students:

i. Communicate in a professional, courteous manner in online communication (e.g., emails, social media, texting) and face-to-face communication.
ii. Avoid language that may be perceived as a put-down by the listener.
iii. Learn and follow the chain of command within institutions.
iv. Communicate in a manner that is respectful and promotes collaborative results.
v. Represent yourself as a member of the Department of Interpretation, Gallaudet University, and the interpreting profession in a positive manner.

8. RESPECT FOR OTHERS

Tenet: Students express respect for members of the faculty, staff, Deaf community, fellow students, and working interpreters while demonstrating humility, honesty, and integrity.

Guiding Principle: Students demonstrate the ability to work within a professional context by understanding and adhering to organizational norms and expectations, demonstrating respect for other

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professionals, deferring to those more advanced in the field, and supporting and mentoring others who have less experience. At times these contexts may include emotionally charged situations in which respect for your own responses and others' reactions require thoughtful and mature consideration.

Illustrative behaviors for students:

i. Use ASL in public spaces on campus (e.g., the cafeteria, Market Place, Rathskellar, Bison Shop, and the library). It is recognized that there may be times when spoken language is appropriate, such as when communicating with campus visitors who are not fluent in ASL.

ii. Demonstrate listening and attentive behaviors when conversing with others through posture, eye contact, and body language.

iii. Respectfully consider the ideas and themes raised by others.

iv. Express yourself with self-assurance by articulating thoughts and feelings in a clear, deliberate, and unassuming manner.

v. Demonstrate honesty and trustworthiness in interactions with others.

vi. Avoid deceit or stretching the truth.

vii. Do not take credit for work done by others.

viii. Admit and accept shortcomings and limitations in knowledge and skills.

ix. Do not flaunt knowledge or skills.

x. Do not display anger, annoyance, frustration, defensiveness, excessive self-criticism, or withdrawal when given feedback.

9. ETHICAL PRACTICES

Tenet: Students maintain ethical practices.

Guiding Principle: Students demonstrate the ability to hold, understand, and value multiple perspectives, and worldviews. Students exhibit the ability to eliminate previously held stereotypes and beliefs about individuals from different cultural groups. Students recognize their larger role as citizens within a society and act according to ethical norms.

Illustrative behaviors for students:

i. Know the tenets of the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct.

ii. Follow best practices within the profession when faced with ethical conflicts including practicing discretion when accepting interpreting assignments, following standard billing practices, and discussing individual terms and conditions.

iii. Demonstrate willingness to change or compromise in the face of new information.

iv. Demonstrate flexibility when considering the opinions of others.

v. Recognize that there are multiple ways of doing things that are reasonable and appropriate for the situation.

10. COMMITMENT TO THE PROFESSION

Tenet: Students exhibit a commitment to the interpreting profession. In addition, students demonstrate the ability to be depended upon to undertake and complete activities that support this commitment.

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Guiding Principle: Students are expected to foster and maintain interpreting competence and the stature of the profession through ongoing development of knowledge and skills.

Illustrative behaviors for students:

iv. Value potential avenues for learning, including classroom discussions, readings, activities, assignments, and feedback from members of the Deaf community, peers, colleagues, faculty, and staff.

v. Take initiative to acquire new information, improve, and change when a gap in knowledge is discovered or a deficit in a personal quality is uncovered.

vi. Demonstrate dependability, reliability, and follow through with tasks and assignments by meeting deadlines, being punctual, being prepared, and working as a team member.

vii. Go beyond the minimum expectations in learning and professional activities.

viii. Be reflective about all learning opportunities.

Appendix 3
Student Code of Professional Conduct (S-CPC) Discussion Form

Student Name: _____

This discussion form is offered as a learning opportunity for students' professional growth. During this meeting we will discuss the behavioral concern, share perspectives, and collaboratively develop an action plan.

S-CPC tenet under discussion – Circle tenet(s) under discussion
(Note: To be completed by DOI faculty member prior to meeting with the student.)

1. **CONFIDENTIALITY**
Tenet: Students adhere to professional standards of confidential communication.

2. **PROFESSIONALISM**
Tenet: Students possess the professional skills and knowledge required for academic and interpreting situations.

3. **CONDUCT AND CIVILITY**
Tenet: Students conduct themselves in a manner appropriate to specific situations.

4. **COMMUNICATION**
Tenet: Students demonstrate an ability to take time to understand others, to manage emotions effectively, to use humor appropriately, and to allow people the opportunity to make mistakes.

5. **RESPECT FOR OTHERS**
Tenet: Students express respect for members of the faculty, staff, Deaf community, fellow students, and working interpreters while demonstrating humility, honesty, and integrity.

6. **ETHICAL PRACTICES**
Tenet: Students maintain ethical practices.

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7. **COMMITMENT TO THE PROFESSION**
Tenet: Students exhibit a commitment to interpreting and the interpreting profession. In addition, students demonstrate the ability to be depended upon to undertake and complete activities that support this commitment.

Behavioral concern – List the parties involved and briefly describe the behavioral concern being discussed.
(Note: To be completed by DOI faculty member prior to meeting with the student.)

Discussion Summary – In this section, both student and faculty perspectives can be documented regarding the behavioral concern.
(Note: To be completed collaboratively by DOI faculty member AND student during the meeting.)

Action Plan and Timeline
(Note: To be created collaboratively by DOI faculty member AND student during the meeting. If no action plan can be agreed upon, please note here.)

Action Step	**Target Date for Completion**

Students may provide a statement regarding the incident separately to be attached to this document.

We have met to discuss a behavioral concern regarding the DOI Student Code of Professional Conduct. We have discussed the concern, created a summary of our discussion, and outlined an action plan.

Student Signature: _____ Date:_____

Faculty Signature: _____ Date:_____
I understand that unsatisfactory progress on the action plan within the targeted timelines will result in a referral to the program coordinator and the DOI chairperson. I understand that I am responsible for completing the steps created in

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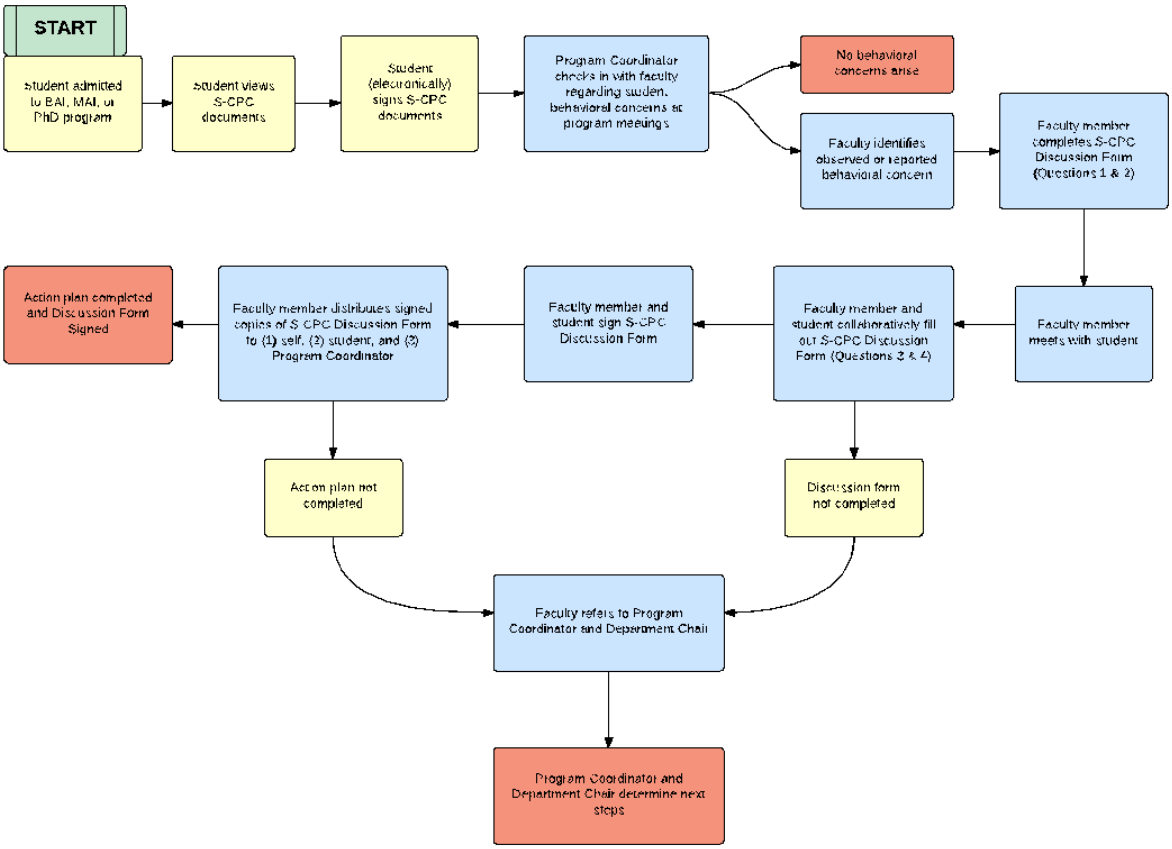
the action plan and informing the DOI faculty member when finished. I also understand that failure to comply with the action plan could lead to academic probation or dismissal from the program. I have received a copy of the action plan.

Student Signature: _____ Date:_____

☐ This action plan has been completed.

Faculty Signature: _____ Date:_____

Appendix 4
Student Code of Professional Conduct (S-CPC) Flow Chart



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Turn-taking and repair – Problems with FLOW in intercultural communication

Stephanie Kent[13], Eileen Forestal, and Cynthia Napier

Description

What would interpreting be like if we embraced and valued interruptions rather than judging them as negative disruptions to flow? Conversation analysis yields specific insights about the dynamics of turn-taking (when the same language is used by all) and also about when, how, and by whom repairs can be initiated (also based on interaction in the same language). In this dialogue between two Deaf and one Hearing interpreter-researcher/practitioners, these functionalist analyses in the homolingual (same language) mode are combined with a critical analysis of power from the field of translation studies. Lawrence Venuti's concept of *foreignization* (from cultural studies) is introduced as an opposite paradigm to the popular linguistic paradigm of fluency. The implications of exploring problems of flow from another paradigm are suggested as a productive path for improving the quality of interpreting for everyone.

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Essential elements for energizing interpreter education through context-based learning

Melissa Smith[14]

Description

The complexity of interpreting work is not solely a result of the challenge of bridging languages and cultures. Although these two areas are in themselves multi-faceted, there are a myriad of contextual, situational, and human factors that further complicate interpreter-medicated interactions. In this workshop, specific examples of actual situations that interpreters encountered while working in public school classrooms will be described and used to prompt discussion on how similar situations are likely to be encountered by interpreters working in other settings. Participants will then be asked to brainstorm tips and strategies for more successfully navigating potentially challenging yet predictable circumstances likely to be encountered by working interpreters. The presenter will provide insights and ideas designed to lead students toward deeper understandings and develop more effective tools for creating positive change when faced with sets of circumstances that they may initially find challenging to successfully navigate.

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Patterns of practice: Current investigations in educational interpreting

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Abstract

The U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, awarded a grant (H325K100234: 2010-2104) to the University of Northern Colorado-DO IT Center focused on improving the services of educational interpreters in K-12 settings. One aspect of the award was designed to identify and describe patterns that exist within the work of educational interpreters. As a result, a multi-step, multi-year, national project was undertaken. The overarching goal of the investigation was to better understand the day-to-day practices of educational interpreters in order to better define and implement effective pre- and in-service curricula to prepare and support these service providers as highly qualified members of the educational team. The preliminary findings of two of four significant explorations into the work-world of educational interpreters are presented in this paper – Study 1: National Survey of Educational Interpreters and Study 2: National Summit on Educational Interpreting.

Keywords: Educational interpreting, K-12 interpreters, patterns of practice, sign language, deaf, hard of hearing, children

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Patterns of practice: Current investigations in educational interpreting

The U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP), awarded a 2010 grant (H325K100234) to the Distance Opportunities for Interpreter Training (DO IT) Center that was focused on improving the services of educational interpreters in K-12 classrooms.

A major aspect of the grant was an evaluation component designed to identify and describe patterns that exist within the work of educational interpreters across the United States. There are four concurrent studies in progress as part of this grant-funded project. Reported in this article are two of the studies.

Gathering these data provided evidence of current patterns of practice in educational interpreting within the K-12 system. Analyzing the data provided an evidence-based approach to reviewing pre- and in-service curricula for preparing educational interpreters who can work effectively as integral members of the educational team in support of students who are deaf and hard of hearing. The primary questions addressed in these investigations were:

1. What are the national demographics of educational interpreters currently working in K-12 settings and the Deaf and hard of hearing students they serve?
2. What are the working conditions of educational interpreters, including hiring criteria, level and experience of their work, and their academic and professional credentials?
3. What are educational interpreters' primary roles and responsibilities, and what other assignments are part of their daily work?
4. What are the current patterns of practice between educational interpreters as related service providers and their interface with the K-12 educational system?

Methodology

The investigation team took a mixed methods approach. Study 1: National Survey of Educational Interpreters using primarily quantitative data using forced choice questions with a limited number of open-ended questions. This method provided quantitative data that could then be validated through the second investigation, Study 2: National Summit on Educational Interpreting. The University of Northern Colorado's Internal Review Board approved the design for both studies simultaneously. As the proposal clearly indicated that the responses were anonymous and would be reported in aggregate, an exempt status was granted.

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Study 1: The National Survey of Educational Interpreters

Study 1 was an online National Survey of Educational Interpreters working throughout the United States. Multiple avenues were used to solicit input from a broad range of educational interpreters about the day-to-day experiences of the educational interpreter.

The National Survey of Educational Interpreters was created and delivered through Qualtrics Research Suite, a secure web-based system for which UNC holds a license. The survey link was available to an estimated 25,000 individual interpreters. The invitation to participate was posted to the DO IT Center webpage (www.unco.edu/doit), and by professional organizations and employers of interpreters (e.g., RID, Sorenson, TASK-12), educational listservs, other social media, as well as through personal contacts and word of mouth.

After beta-testing the survey and making minor revisions, the final survey consisted of 108 primary questions. Eight specific categories were addressed in the survey: a) demographics, b) interpreter background, c) professional development, d) K-12 interpreter requirements, e) roles and responsibilities, f) salary and benefits, g) student demographics, and h) working conditions.

The survey remained open for a four-week period in the spring of 2014. One reminder email message was sent at the mid-point of the timeline.

Participants

Targeted participants were practicing educational interpreters from across the United States. Interpreters had to indicate that they worked as an educational interpreter within the past two years and that they were over 18 years of age to actually participate in the survey. The survey results were anonymous; no personal identifying information was sought in the survey. Submitted surveys totaled 1,728, and 1,615 completed surveys were analyzed. The response rate for each question varied as respondents were not required to complete each question in order to continue with the survey. As an example, 206 survey respondents did not provide their state, which impacted correlation results in some categories.

Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

When the survey timeline was concluded, the team began the analysis work. First, incomplete surveys were removed from the data set. Second, as Qualtrics has analysis capability within the system, much of the work was therefore contained in the Qualtrics system itself. Some of data were taken to Excel for further analyses. Preliminary descriptive analyses were accomplished as were initial correlation analyses.

Study 2: National Summit on Educational Interpreting

The purpose of the National Summit on Educational Interpreting was to solicit confirmatory data, rather than exploratory data, related to the day-to-day work of the educational interpreter. The summit brought together K-12 interpreters, one representative from each state, who provided validation of the patterns of working and interpreting in K-12 settings identified in three data sources: a) National Survey of Educational Interpreters results (Study 1); b) skills and knowledge sets identified from the Educational Interpreter Performance Assessment data analysis; and c) K-12 state handbooks and standards found on state education agency websites. The Summit was to further clarify and advance the understanding of the day-to-day work of interpreters in K-12 settings. The primary questions addressed in this investigation were:

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1. To what extent do the perspectives of the summit participants confirm the patterns of practice findings to date?
2. What additional patterns of practice can be identified? What patterns may be overemphasized or erroneous?
3. Based on the findings and their own personal experiences, do the summit participants feel there is a need for an independent professional organization for educational interpreters?

Participants

Summit participants were recommended and vetted from a variety of sources, such as state education agencies, schools for the Deaf, professional organizations (RID, Interpreters in Education and Instructional Settings SIG), and personal contacts. Participation requirements were: a) a minimum of three years of experience as a K-12 interpreter; b) currently working as a K-12 interpreter; and c) documentation that they had met their state standards required to work in the K-12 educational system.

One educational interpreter from each state was selected with consideration given to diversity (e.g., age, experience, gender, geographic location) in order to provide a broad perspective of the educational interpreting workforce. In the group of 50 educational interpreters, there were three males and three interpreters of color. The average age was 45 years with the average age when they started interpreting being about 26 years. The academic credentials of the participants ranged from a doctoral degree to a high school diploma. There was almost an even split of those who held a BA or higher degree and those with less than four year degrees. Less than a third of the participants indicated they had deaf family members; of those who indicated they had Deaf family members, several indicated they had more than one family member who was Deaf.

Design of the summit

The summit was designed as a 3-day event hosted in Denver, Colorado. The agenda consisted of focus groups and large group discussions between and among the selected participants, supported by facilitator/note taker teams. The five facilitator/note taker teams attended a half day training event prior to the summit in order to ensure consistency in the discussions across the focus groups.

The general format of the focus groups was roundtables of 10 state representatives with a group facilitator and a note taker. Each facilitator followed a script of the questions, and the methods in which to conduct the focus group discussions. Because of the large size of the group, the focus groups were run formally so that each participant had equal opportunity to participate. In responding to the majority of the questions, participants were asked to discuss their experiences from a state perspective, rather than from an individual perspective.

Data collection and analysis procedures

Based on the preliminary analysis of the National Survey of Educational Interpreters results, the participants were each asked a variety of questions to validate and/or present different perspectives, essentially providing qualitative data with supporting examples that illustrated answers to the questions. The seven small group sessions focused on the following topics:

1. Interpreter roles and responsibilities in and out of the classroom
2. State and national standards
3. Deaf and hard of hearing students' learning environment
4. Working conditions
5. Interpreter roles and responsibilities as part of the educational team

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6. National organization for educational interpreters
7. Educational and professional development

The participants' interactions were recorded by the note taker, and then the notes from the seven sessions were merged to provide a full picture of the national perspective. Recorded notes were taken according to: a) key points and themes; b) quotes; c) non-verbal cues from the participants; d) wording and timing of probes; e) follow-up questions that could be asked/answered; and, f) big ideas, hunches, or thoughts of the group facilitators and/or note takers.

Findings

The preliminary findings from the data from the survey and the summit are discussed in this section. Findings to date are addressed in six categories: a) interpreter demographics, b) roles and responsibilities in and out of the classroom, c) working conditions, d) interpreters' knowledge about child learning, e) state requirements for interpreting in K-12 educational settings, and f) educational and professional development. Findings will be provided from both studies, but will rely more heavily on the survey data as the summit data has not yet been completely aggregated and analyzed.

The survey results indicated respondents from all but two states; all 50 states were represented at the summit. A caveat must be stated that the survey was predominately submitted by interpreters in suburban/urban areas (79%) who held both academic (89%) and professional credentials (e.g., EIPA, NIC, NAD, QAST) (86%). Participants at the summit represented a similar profile. The results did not represent the entire workforce; there were few respondents representing, for example, those working in rural settings, those without academic and/or professional credentials, nor non-members of professional organizations. This means that conclusions from this preliminary investigation should be cautiously considered before using this information as representative of the K-12 interpreter workforce.

Interpreter demographics

Acknowledging the caveat stated above regarding the survey and summit data, a composite representative of an educational interpreter, the typical respondent, was a white (89%) female (91%) who was in her late-30s. She was hearing (97%). She had some college coursework or degree(s) (89%), and she was likely to have a BA or higher degree. This representative educational interpreter held professional credentials (86%) by either national and/or state assessment systems.

The primary school setting for the composite educational interpreter was in a metropolitan area. 42% of the survey responses indicated suburban settings with 37% working in urban schools. Less than a quarter (21%) of the respondents indicated they worked in a rural school setting.

Two-thirds (66%) of the respondents indicated they were interpreting outside the K-12 system in addition to their educational interpreting roles. The top three venues where they worked were by response rate: a) the general community, b) religious settings, and c) postsecondary settings.

The summit participants validated this composite representation of the educational interpreter today in school settings across the United States.

Roles and responsibilities in and out of classrooms

Interpreting was the primary role of the educational interpreter, but as with other members of the educational team, other responsibilities were also expected. Two-thirds (65%) of survey respondents interpreted extra-curricular events. When asked to indicate all that applied to that category, 75% selected sporting events, 44% the arts which included theater and dance, and 52% interpreted for students involved in clubs and school government.

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Tutoring was expected in an average day by 61% of the respondents. In that group, 52% prepared special materials for deaf and hard of hearing students, and 34% assisted other students and/or the class as a whole. About a third (31%) shared educational team member roles such as bus, lunch or playground duties, and approximately a third (28%) also provided support to the classroom teacher.

When asked which educational team member the interpreter approached to talk to about student progress, 75% selected the teacher of the deaf and 71% indicated the general education teacher. Less than half (43%) talked with another interpreter and almost a third (32%) talked with the students themselves.

More than half (59%) attended IEP meetings as a member of the educational team. From this group, 87% were asked for input by the educational team and 32% of them submitted a written report as part of the IEP process. 92% of this group had access to the student(s)' IEP report. On the flip side, 41% of the respondents did not attend the IEP meetings. Only 38% of this group were asked for input by the educational team and more than half (58%) of this group had no access to an IEP report.

When asked what was most important in their roles and responsibilities, the top three choices they selected were: a) knowing I have effective interpreting skills, b) a regular income, and c) a collaborative/supportive educational team. The least important were: a) understanding the curriculum and b) technology and technology support.

The summit participants, on the other hand, did not believe their states condoned interpreters preparing special materials for students. When asked, the summit participants had difficulty in clearly identifying the members of an educational team and the role of the various team members.

Working conditions

About three-fourths (71%) of the survey respondents were full-time employees of a K-12 school system. 55% of them worked 35-40 hours a week, while 11% worked more than 40 hours a week.

Two-thirds (64%) of the respondents were paid as hourly employees. In contrast, 36% were salaried positions. The pay range was significant. For hourly positions almost half (48%) were making $15.00 to $27.49/hour. A small number of them (2%) were earning more than $50/hour. For the salaried positions, approximately a quarter (21%) were earning between $30,000-$34,999 an academic year, and a very small percentage (1%) earned over $70,000/year. Pay increases were based on years of experience for more than half (51%) of the respondents. A college degree resulted in a pay increase less than a quarter of the time (22%). One final glimpse into the financial status of educational interpreters was that 25% of them have other jobs in addition to their educational interpreting work.

83% of the respondents acknowledged benefits as part of their employment compensation. Medical insurance was listed as most important and of those who had benefits 97% indicated that this was included in their benefits package. Sick time was offered in 95% of the responses, while paid vacation time was much lower at 36%.

Because the majority of the respondents were from metropolitan settings, it was not surprising that more than half of them worked with other interpreters in their school setting. Of those who worked with other interpreters, 62% selected 6-10 interpreters in their system. With this in mind, 43% of the respondents indicated that they always had subs, 43% had subs on occasion, and 13% never had a sub interpreter to support their work.

Although more than half of the respondents worked with other interpreters in their school setting, only a third (35%) worked with a team interpreter, and then only rarely. Another third (37%) indicated they had never worked with an interpreting team in the educational setting.

The summit data related to working conditions have not yet been analyzed and therefore no validation or contradiction can be offered at this time.

Interpreters' knowledge about child learning

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Most of the respondents (61%) worked primarily with one student who was deaf or hard of hearing. The interpreters were spread across the grade levels: 42% in pre-K and elementary settings, 20% in middle school, and 38% in high school settings. The middle school data were likely skewed in that educational systems typically define "middle school" differently. About one third (29%) of the respondents reported that the deaf and hard of hearing student had peer groups in their schools of 6-10 students who were deaf and hard of hearing and 12% had 11-20 students.

The students were Deaf (66%) or hard of hearing (34%). 40% of the students used an FM system and almost the same percentage (39%) had cochlear implants. More than a third (37%) of the students spoke for themselves.

A quarter (25%) of the respondents indicated that they support students who had other challenges. Of these students 21% were developmentally delayed and 20% were language delayed.

Cultural diversity of the students was not asked on the survey. However, the vast majority of the summit participants indicated that the interpreters in their states worked with students who were deaf and hard of hearing from other countries. Many of these students were language delayed and required different support systems than interpreters were trained to provide.

State requirements for interpreting in K-12 educational settings

In both the survey and the summit responses, it was evident that there was a great deal of misperception and misunderstanding about state standards. In addition, based on two other studies that are currently underway, a number of states are modifying and updating their requirements at this time, which further complicates the present situation.

The findings did provide evidence that the consistent perception of state requirements for interpreting in K-12 educational settings was that there is a lack of consistency in the state standards and that the existing standards are set too low to adequately support students who are Deaf and hard of hearing in their learning and their own educational pursuits. In addition, the standards currently remain focused on technical skills with little attention given to the knowledge sets needed to effectively apply those skills in the educational setting. To further complicate this issue, state standards are often not enforced and interpreters are not always held accountable for their own academic and technical foundations or for on-going professional development.

Other grant-related investigations pertaining to the current trends in state standards will be made available in future publications.

Educational and professional development

One survey question was designed based loosely on the Educational Interpreter Performance Assessment (EIPA): Written Test domains to ascertain the knowledge base of education interpreters. Selecting all that apply, 89% of the respondents indicated they had received training in K-12 interpreting, and 42% noted that they had received content specific coursework. 37% had training in educational theory, and 31% had some exposure to literacy education. While two-thirds of the group reported that they tutored on a daily basis, only one-third (32%) said they had any training to tutor. Only about half (52% in all three areas) said they had had any education in child, cognitive or language development. The summit representatives confirmed much of the survey findings in this category.

Based on responses, it is interesting that less than half (43%) of the state standards included continuing education requirements after the interpreter has initially met the state standards for employment.

Finally, when asked if there was a need for a professional organization specifically for K-12 interpreters, the majority (87%) of the survey respondents indicated "yes." The summit focus groups discussed what goals and what services this potential organization might provide. Passionate feelings were expressed in support of a new organization as well as the need to work further with the Registry of Interpreter for the Deaf to specifically represent and support this large constituency of their membership.

Implications for Interpreter Education

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Patterns of practice for K-12 interpreters working with students who are Deaf and hard of hearing were apparent in the findings from Study 1: National Survey of Educational Interpreters and Study 2: National Summit on Educational Interpreting. Presented here are educational practices that affect pre-service education and ongoing professional development opportunities for educational interpreters.

One clear pattern that emerged from both the survey and the summit was the lack of understanding and appreciation for the educational system. As illustration, many of the survey and summit participants were unaware of the EIPA Guidelines for Professional Conduct. Further, they had difficulty defining or explaining certain terms that the investigation team assumed would be inherent to their work-world (e.g., ED: K12; IEIS). This suggests that these topics were not thoroughly explored in their per-service programs.

First, educational interpreters would benefit from an in depth understanding of systems theory in general as well as the educational system in particular. In both studies, participants were unsure of many aspects of the educational system and how they fit into this system as part of the educational team. During the summit there was evidence of a lack of knowledge and understanding of who was the "educational team." Without the understanding of the system in which they work and their role within that system, the educational interpreter's ability to effectively work as an integral part of the team is seriously compromised.

Second, the emphasis on interpreting skills must be balanced with knowledge and theory such as that related to learning, language acquisition, and understanding the curriculum. On the survey, one of the least important aspects of the educational interpreter's roles and responsibilities was identified as "understanding the curriculum." In contrast, the most important role and responsibility was "knowing I have effective interpreting skills." Because there is a great deal of emphasis on skills in interpreting programs, state standards, and interpreter testing, it is understandable why interpreters answered the questions in the way in which they did.

At the same time, the continued emphasis on technical interpreting skills rather than the more holistic preparation of a practice professional is not preparing well-rounded educational interpreters. Although language competencies are absolutely essential to prepare a qualified educational interpreter, the ability to work with others in a collegial relationship in support of a student who is deaf or hard of hearing is essential to the overall work of the educational interpreter. Knowing how to appropriately address an issue, with whom, and when, is a knowledge set necessary to effectively apply interpreting skills in a classroom environment.

Third, in addition to developing an appreciation of the curriculum and the educational goals of the K-12 setting, the IEP process and the educational interpreter's role in this process is a necessary prerequisite to practice. Topics to include in pre-service education include: a) What does the IEP process mean to the interpreter's work?; b) What can the interpreter contribute?; c) What does the interpreter take from the IEP meeting and resulting report?; d) What are the boundaries related to what and with whom they can share in that process?; e) What are strategies to work with the educational team if the interpreter is not currently engaged in this process?; f) As it is a legal process, are there conflicts with other standards (e.g., requirements for legal interpreters) in their respective states?

Fourth, the current population of Deaf and hard of hearing students being educated in the school system requires specific pre-service education for interpreters. For example, a high percentage of the respondents were working with students who had additional physical and/or cognitive challenges. While no program can provide education in the myriad of possible configuration of additional challenges, the pre-service education needs to provide tools for the educational interpreter to know how and where to find support and solutions to the challenges they face in this area of their work.

A subset of this is the need for educational interpreters to be familiar with the new technologies (e.g., cochlear implants, FM systems) that are also being used to support students who are deaf and hard of hearing in schools. There is typically another educational team member who has responsibilities for these technologies, but as a member of that team, the educational interpreter needs to be able to converse about the technology and most certainly be able to articulate the impact of the technology on their particular service and support to the student.

A percentage of a course on a variety of specialized settings, or even a 3-credit hour (45 contact hours) course in educational interpreting is insufficient to provide an adequate foundation of the educational system and the roles and responsibilities of K-12 interpreters. Such a cursory overview may provide interpreters with some theory and knowledge of the work, but it does not provide the much needed higher order application and critical-thinking

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analysis and decision making schema needed to step confidently into school settings as a member of the educational team.

Acknowledging that not all education can occur in pre-service training and based on the results of these investigations, it can be concluded that both in-service and professional development opportunities must be reevaluated as well. One starting point would be to work with state education agencies to define this need. At the same time, this would be an opportunity to educate stakeholders about the essential need for educational interpreters to be current in their professional development and to support efforts in identifying avenues to make this available to, and even mandatory for, their workforce.

In state education agencies the majority of professional development requirements are clearly defined for licensed personnel. It is most often required that academic coursework or specific training opportunities be approved by an institution of higher education or endorsed by the professional organization. This is typically not the case for educational interpreters, as evident in both the survey and summit data. It is our responsibility as interpreter educators to support decision-makers as to appropriate continuing education and/or professional development opportunities. A first absolute is that without a holistic pre-service foundation with an emphasis in educational interpreting, effective continuing education is not viable. These professional development opportunities must focus on longer-term engagement with learning that is designed with scope and sequence and that includes application. Finally, knowledge sets and skills application need to be authentically and directly related to the needs of the deaf and hard of hearing students and the educational environment.

As the field considers more in depth education for K-12 educational interpreters, we may want to look to other models of pre-service education and continuing professional education from other disciplines. Here are a few models to consider:

1. Interpreter education programs (IEPs) could develop emphasis areas, including an emphasis in educational interpreting, K-12.
2. Some IEPs could become specialized programs offering only pre-service education in educational interpreting.
3. More IEPs could enter into consortium relationships so that institutions share their expertise in educational interpreting: both coursework and expertise could be made available to students.
4. Some IEPs could form partnerships in order to deliver bachelor's-level pre-service education in general interpreting and master's-level specialized programming in educational interpreting.

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Requiring a capstone paper: How to make it a successful experience

Christine Monikowski[16]

Description

This presentation will demonstrate how to assign smaller more manageable "steps" that will lead to a completed paper and a successful experience for the student, as well as creation of a poster for a college-wide presentation. Those attending will be expected to participate in small/large group discussions, analyzing a variety of traditional approaches to the task. The goal is to leave with a clear understanding of how to establish a comparable course or to re-vamp an existing course, to make it a success for both the instructor and the students, and to streamline a fundamental piece of our students' educational experience.

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Deaf interpreter educators: An expanding field

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Abstract

In the past few years with the recent emergence of the number of Deaf people getting their Master's degrees specializing in ASL or Interpreting, the interest in teaching in the interpreting field has grown as well. The number of Certified Deaf Interpreters has grown as well. This workshop is designed to help guide those who are interested in teaching interpreting, but are not sure where to start. We will share our experience in teaching interpreting courses as well how our interpreting programs are structured. For those who want to be involved in interpreting programs, this workshop will give suggested guidelines and resources needed to prepare for teaching interpreting courses.

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Deaf interpreter educators: An expanding field

Since the emergence of the interpreting field, community colleges and colleges that offer American Sign Language and Interpreter Training Programs have grown tremendously nationwide. Interpreter education for hearing people has been around for about 40 years (Forestal, 2006). Today, more Deaf people are getting their Master's degree due to the Master's degree in American Sign Language offered at Gallaudet University. Since the opening of the Master's program in 2003, a total of 131 students have graduated at Gallaudet University (Gallaudet University, 2014). This does not include the numbers of the other programs offered elsewhere such as Western Maryland College, Lamar University, and other universities. There are also currently over 160 Certified Deaf interpreters (CDI) according to the Registry Interpreters for the Deaf website. (RID, 2014). With the huge growth of Deaf people graduating with a Master's degree as well as obtaining their certification, there has been a strong interest in teaching in the interpreting training program as well. There are few opportunities of training for Deaf people who want to learn how to teach interpreting courses. There are very few materials offered for those who want to teach interpreting courses.

Purpose

The purpose of this presentation is to provide materials and information for Deaf people who are interested in teaching interpreting. One of the ways is sharing our Interpreter Training Program curriculum as well as sharing resources we use in the classroom. This presentation will also allow hearing people to find out what kind of resources and support they can provide for their Deaf colleagues.

In the past 40 years, the majority of interpreter educators are hearing people while the majority of American Sign Language educators are Deaf people. This is due to several factors; one is the lack of educational programs providing Deaf people background on the field of interpreting. Most interpreting training programs curriculums are catered to hearing people. Another factor is the lack of resources or materials available for Deaf people who are interested in teaching interpreting courses. Both presenters will give their experience and knowledge as interpreter educators and how Deaf people can start teaching interpreting courses which will provide a valuable asset for interpreting students as they will have direct feedback about their interpreting and ASL skills from native users.

Deaf people's involvement in Interpreter Training Programs

Today, however, this has changed since now more Deaf people are getting their certification in interpretation. The number of certified Deaf interpreters in the field is still small compared to the numbers of hearing people. The

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reason for this is the CDI certification program is a relatively new field as it started in 2001. The CDI was not the first certification offered for Deaf people as the Reverse Interpreting Skills Certificates (RSC's) was offered in 1972 (Forestal, 2006). However, the RSC is no longer available today. As mentioned above, the number of certified Deaf interpreters are in the area of 160 nationwide (RID). This is not the only avenue Deaf people have for teaching interpreting courses. There is a growing number of graduate programs which are offered for Deaf people such as the Masters of Sign Language in Education (MSLED) offered at Gallaudet which averages 35 to 40 students graduating every year. There are other programs such as Lamar University in Texas and Western Maryland College in Maryland as well as a few other colleges that offer a graduate degree with a combination of Deaf Studies, Deaf Education and/or ASL studies. While the majority of the students who graduate will have training related to ASL or Deaf studies, they will not necessarily have the training in the field of interpreting.

The field of ASL interpreting involves the bicultural mediation between two languages, ASL and English. The following quote below explains the process of interpreting.

> The process of interpreting includes taking a source language message, identifying the meaning and speaker intent by analyzing the linguistic and paralinguistic elements of the message, then making a cultural and linguistic transition and producing the message in the target language. (Humphrey and Alcorn, 2007, p. 149)

Currently, most interpreting programs nationwide have only hearing people teaching interpreting courses. It is a recurring issue that most interpreter training programs offer only two years of training, which is impossible for students to be ready for work at the end of their two-year term. It makes sense that hearing people who have experience in the field of interpreting should be teaching as they can share their knowledge with students. Their experience is invaluable for students who are learning how to be an interpreter. However, interpreter programs also have non-native ASL users such as hearing people teaching and giving feedback for students related to their ASL skills. Interpreter training programs should incorporate native users such as Deaf people into their curriculum. They can also provide invaluable assets with their experience as a consumer or user. Native Deaf instructors or faculty members could also give feedback on ASL for students.

Several interpreting programs involved both hearing and Deaf faculty co-teaching for interpreting courses. While this is the ideal situation, many programs would have budget cuts and have to reduce to one faculty member per class. The majority of Deaf faculty were laid off or allowed to teach only ASL courses. Today, most interpreting programs have hearing faculty teaching all of the interpreting courses and Deaf faculty teaching ASL courses.

Criteria for Deaf People

There is set of criteria that should be required for Deaf people who want to teach interpreting courses. The criteria would be similar between hearing and Deaf people.

One important criterion for interpreting is the person must be bilingual. The person must be fluent in both languages. This is very important if a person considers teaching in the field of sign language interpreting. A person must be fluent in both English and ASL. This applies to both Deaf and hearing people. A person must be fluent in order to facilitate between the two languages.

> Language competency, which covers the ability to manipulate with ease and accuracy the two languages involved in the interpreting process, is a prerequisite for successful interpreting of a message, for the message is mediated through language. (Patrie, 2009, p. 13)

How are they expected to interpret the information if they do not have fluency in both languages? Deaf people who want to teach interpreting should be bilingual in both languages.

Most two-year interpreting training programs require at least the minimum of a Master's degree from their faculty to teach courses. For Deaf people who are interested in teaching interpreting courses, they will need to obtain their Master's degree in the field of ASL, Linguistics, Interpreting, Deaf Studies or deaf-related field. For those who have a Master's degree in education, it is highly recommended they get a Master's in one of the fields listed above as Deaf Education focuses more on the K-12 education curriculum.

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Deaf people should have experience with interpreting either as a consumer as well as an interpreter. It is highly recommended that they have already achieve or progressing towards their Certified Deaf Interpreter certification. Currently, according to the RID website Deaf people must have an equivalent of an associate's degree to get the certificate. This will change in 2016, in order for a Deaf person to obtain a CDI, they must have completed a Bachelor's degree in any field. However, to teach at an interpreting program, most will require them to have a Master's degree. Most faculty who teach interpreting courses have some kind of certification requirement either state-wide or nation-wide like National Interpreter Certification (NIC).

Passion

One important factor with having a Deaf person teach interpreting courses is they must have the *passion* for teaching interpreting. There are some Deaf faculty who prefer and are satisfied with teaching ASL courses. This passion for teaching a specific topic is important for any faculty at any college setting. There are currently only a few programs that offer a Masters in Interpreter Pedagogy. The majority of Deaf people get their masters in the ASL or Deaf studies field which means they will need to be passionate about teaching interpreting as it requires more work. The work that may be required is to attend workshops related to interpreting, obtaining their interpreting certification as it is essential to have this information before teaching an interpreting course. Their degree in ASL or Deaf studies will not be enough to provide them the knowledge needed to teach the interpreting courses.

Sharing Information

For this conference, both presenters provide their experience as Deaf Interpreter Educators and explain about their experience teaching in two separate interpreting programs. They will explain their involvement in the field of interpreting. They will explain what is offered in their respective programs and the pros and cons of both programs. The presenters will share their experience and what materials and resources they use for their classes. Both will explain effective approaches and techniques used in the classroom. They will discuss about what should be the requirements for Deaf people who want to start teaching interpreting courses. They will share several resources and materials that can help future Deaf people who want to teach interpreting courses. The presenters will share ideas on how an interpreting program can support their Deaf faculty as they show interest in the field of interpreting.

Deaf Interpreter Educators Survey

The presenters did an anonymous survey through the website Survey Monkey. The purpose of the survey was to see how many Deaf people are actually teaching interpreting, what credentials they have for teaching interpreting. Do they have a CDI or plan to obtain one in the near future. What kind of teaching style was used, co-teaching or individually? The presenters will share the results of the survey at the conference. The questions in the survey are shown below:

1. What is the highest degree you obtained and what area did you study in?

2. Do you have CDI certification? If yes, go to #4, if no, go to #3.

3. For those who are not certified, do you plan on getting your certification in the near future?

4. How long have you been teaching interpreting courses? Do you feel you have enough resources/materials needed to teach the course?

5. Do you teach your courses individually or co-teach with hearing faculty member?

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This is just a start; there should be more research on Deaf Interpreter Educators and how to provide them with the support needed for teaching interpreting courses. This will help increase the numbers, which will benefit the interpreting program as a whole. The results will be shared at the conference.

Conclusion

Interpreter Training Programs should include more Deaf people teaching in their program. However, they need to find qualified candidates who can teach in the program. They should use the following criteria: Interpreting Certification, Master's degree in Deaf related field, and passion for the field of interpreting. One way to increase the number of Deaf people knowledgeable about interpreting would be to have colleges that offer Masters Programs that have both Deaf Studies/ASL as well as Interpretation degree work together. They could collaborate and offer a degree that overlaps both degrees so the number of Deaf Interpreter Educators would increase. Another option is to provide workshops that provides Deaf people who are interested with the support and resources needed to get involved with the interpreting field. The more we educate, this growing number of Deaf Interpreter Educators would help interpreting programs grow stronger providing more support for interpreting students. It is time for change, we need to have the best of both worlds (hearing and Deaf) to improve our Interpreter Training Programs nation-wide.

Acknowledgments

Kevin Taylor and Bradley Dale would like to extend their gratitude to the Deaf Interpreter Educators who participated in our survey. Their information and input gave us the data we collected for the presentation as well as the proceedings. We both wish to thank all of those who have been involved and supported us as a Deaf Interpreter Educators at our respective colleges.

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Nourishing our roots

Amy Williamson[19]

Description

In this session, research findings from a survey of deaf parented interpreters will be shared. Through the survey findings, participants will learn who deaf parented interpreters are, how they entered the field, and what backgrounds they bring with them. With this backdrop, participants will reflect on personal experiences in educating students from deaf parented families and explore curriculum elements found within their own programs that contribute or hinder the learning experiences of deaf parented interpreters. By looking critically at the experiences of deaf parented interpreters, participants will be able to glean insight into what a bilingual interpreter education can look like when students begin their education with proficiency in a language pair.

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The more we change, the more we stay the same: Examining conflict in interpreting and the implications for interpreter education

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Abstract

The complex and personal nature of the work ASL/English interpreters do can be challenged by differences. One way to understand conflict in our profession is by analyzing complaints filed against interpreters within the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) Ethical Practices System (EPS). In 2008, Paula Gajewski Mickelson completed an analysis of complaints filed against interpreters within the EPS using conflict theory, the RID Code of Ethics, and the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct as a theoretical frame. The 2008 study identified patterns and themes within a sample of complaints filed from 1999–2005. In 2014, a similar review was conducted on data from 2006–2013. This paper will provide a data comparison, highlighting the similarities and differences found in the two data sets. Insights from this study will be offered in ways that can inform teaching strategies, not only for students in interpreter education programs, but also for professional development activities for working interpreters.

Keywords: Ethics, conflict resolution

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The more we change, the more we stay the same: Examining conflict in interpreting and the implications for interpreter education

ASL/English interpreters hold a very privileged place in the lives of the people we serve. Few professionals enter the lives of others as deeply and often as we do—interpreters work with Deaf and hearing people in life events that range from birth to death, and everything in between. The linguistic and cultural demands of our work are endless and are complicated by many variables, including, but not limited to, ethnic, cultural, generational, and interpersonal differences. Yet in the midst of these differences, we (interpreters, Deaf and hearing people) are fundamentally the same: we are human, wishing for many things, including acknowledgement, understanding, and respect.

As educators, one way to quantify and teach the complexities of an interpreter's interactions, our decisions, and why we do what we do as professional interpreters is within the context of ethical decision making, and more specifically, our code of professional conduct. In the United States the most widely recognized code is the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct (CPC). Analyzing complaints filed against interpreters within the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) Ethical Practices System (EPS) can help us to understand when and why our professional interactions go awry. Considering these complaints within the context of conflict theory and dispute resolution practices can offer us a new lens from which to understand our work, plan for the inevitable conflicts that will occur, and offer valuable tools to use when managing and dealing with the conflicts.

A Context for Decision Making: Ethics

To understand the how and why interpreters make decisions, it is important that we start with a definition of ethics. Cokely (2000) began building a definition with the work of Socrates and Aristotle, defining ethics as "purposeful action-focused reflection … not something one has, rather ethics is something one does" (p. 28). He underscores the importance of understanding the connection between reflection and action when

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considering ethics by stating that "we reflect in order to be able to act and in order to be able to identify those actions that are consistent with, and faithful to, our values, principles and beliefs" (Cokely, 2000, p. 28). Kidder (1995) offers a similar definition, using phrases such as "the science of the ideal human character" and "the science of moral duty… moral defined as describing whatever is good or right or proper" (p. 63). Kidder concedes that it is easy to spin into an abyss when trying to construct a definition of ethics. To counter this temptation to spin, he defines ethics rather simply as "the stuff of daily life. Daily life, after all, marches in a constant parade of judgments, many of them moral in nature and most of them shaped not only by our reasoning but by our intuitions" (p. 64). As interpreters, our decisions cannot solely rely on our personal intuition and reasoning, but must also reflect the values, beliefs, and principles of the interpreting profession.

Professional ethics are not something determined in isolation or set in one moment in time never to be changed. "Professional ethics are standards or behaviors that have evolved over time to reflect the profession's desire to ensure the well-being of its clients. They are expressed in a formalized code of behavior which describes the principles that are important to the profession. More importantly, they define the forms of behavior that are *morally desirable* by the profession in its service to consumers" (Gish, 1990, p. 21).

The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) is the national professional organization of interpreters in the United States. Founded in 1964 and incorporated in 1972, the RID's mission (2014) is to promote "excellence in the delivery of interpreting services among diverse users of signed and spoken languages through professional development, networking, advocacy, and standards." (http://www.rid.org). Three primary foci of the RID are the (1) Certification Programs, which develops, maintains and processes certification exams, (2) Certification Maintenance Program through which continuing education is connected to maintaining professional credentials, and (3) Ethical Practices System (EPS), which includes the Code of Professional Conduct and the process by which grievances may be filed and processed when complaints are lodged against members.

The first code of ethics published by RID was in 1965, just one year after RID was established. This code (Appendix 1) reflected the perceptions of this budding field and Deaf people in society at the time. It guided the ethical decision making of professional interpreters in the field until 1978, when a revised version of the code was approved by the RID membership (see Appendix 2). According to Cokely's analysis (2000), these two versions of the code were firmly rooted in a deontological foundation, characterized by the notion that "certain acts or behaviors are inherently wrong or unacceptable and thus are always prohibited" (p. 40). Cokely argued convincingly that this orientation was no longer reflective of our maturing profession, which began to recognize and embrace the linguistic and interpersonal complexities of the work. As such, the duty- or rule-based paradigm was restrictive and a source of discord within the profession.

In 2000, the boards of directors of the RID and the National Association of the Deaf (NAD) established the National Council on Interpreting, which created a task force to review and update the code of ethics. At the time, the NAD also credentialed interpreters. A code of ethics, which NAD certified interpreters were required to uphold and follow, accompanied the NAD certification process. The RID and NAD had begun to work on a new, joint certification exam for interpreters and working together on a revised code of ethics was a natural outgrowth of that collaboration. As a result, the NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct (Appendix 3) was developed and ratified by the RID membership in 2005.

The Code of Professional Conduct is different from the previous iterations of the Code of Ethics in that it shifted from a duty- or rule-based paradigm to a rights-based paradigm and includes sections addressing

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scope and philosophy as well as seven overarching tenets, each with a guiding principle and several examples of illustrative behaviors. This Code of Professional Conduct is the current document illustrating the values, beliefs and principles of the profession, and serves as a guide to professional sign language interpreters as we make decisions.

The work of interpreters and the environments in which we make decisions are, at best, complex. Facilitating communication between two or more people with linguistic, cultural, generational, socio-economic variations inherent in the exchange can present multiple points for decision making, and a great potential for conflict. For this reason it is also important to examine conflict within the realm of ethical decision making.

Conflict: A Natural Part of Life

The context for ethical decision making Kidder suggests as "the stuff of daily life" is also useful when considering when and where conflict may occur. The term "conflict" may describe general "discord of action, feeling, or effect; antagonism or opposition, as of interests or principles" (http://www.dictionary.com). On the other end of the spectrum, conflict may also identify a larger, more overt confrontation, such as an argument or war. Pruitt and Kim (2004) suggest such broad usage may diminish the term's clarity as a single concept. To sharpen our understanding of the concept, they define conflict as the "perceived divergence of interest, a belief that the parties' current aspirations are incompatible" (pp. 7-8). This definition is helpful when considering conflict within the realm of ethics and decision making for interpreters because it suggests that the conflict that the parties are experiencing is a belief that their interests are incompatible. However, the fact that it is a perception or belief leaves room for the notion that if or when the parties identify their interests in the situation, they may find that they are not as different or incompatible as they originally thought. It is this definition of conflict that informs this data analysis of conflict within the interpreting profession and supports utilizing principles and practices found in mediation and other alternative dispute resolution activities when addressing conflict.

To understand conflict from a more theoretical perspective, Moore (2003) offers the "Circle of Conflict" (p. 64) as a conflict analysis tool. Using this approach, Moore identifies and defines five types of conflict:

1. Relationship conflicts are those with strong emotions, misperceptions, or stereotypes, poor communication or miscommunication, and are repetitive negative behaviors.
2. Data conflicts include misinformation, different views on what is a relevant, different interpretations of the data and different assessment procedures.
3. Interest-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-based conflicts involve different criteria for evaluating ideas or behavior; exclusive intrinsically valuable goals; different ways of life, ideology or religion (p. 64).

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A more recent version of Moore's work is presented by Furlong (2005) in which the interest category is set aside 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 further modified Moore's work and added another category 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). The Circle of Conflict provides a useful theoretical approach to understanding conflict in general, and within the interpreting profession.

While it is important to understanding the various types of conflict, it is at least equally important to gain a deeper appreciation for the roots of a dispute, and more specifically, the underlying reasons why the parties are engaged in the conflict. According to Gold (2006), at the core of the matter you find the parties' interests, or why the issue is important to them. Essentially, interests are those things that an individual deems important or desirable, and incorporates their 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). When considering the interpersonal nature of interpreting work, looking at conflict from an interest-based angle makes the most sense. "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). An interest-based focus provides the greatest potential for preserving the relationships of the disputing parties.

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. Lax and Sebenius suggest a fourth type of interest parties may have, interests in principle: "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" (Lewicki et al., 2007, p. 66).

This interest-based theoretical framework along with Furlong's iteration of the Circle of Conflict provided Gajewski Mickelson an effective approach for analyzing conflict within the interpreting profession. Conflict in interpreting is consistently and specifically documented and tracked by the RID through the Ethical Practices System.

A System for Dealing with Conflict: The RID Ethical Practices System

According to the RID Ethical Practices System Policy Manual (Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, 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.

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Each complaint filed with the RID is not automatically eligible for processing through this system. The RID Ethical Practices System Policy Manual identifies the following criteria that must be met for a complaint to move forward:

1. A complaint must be based on the possible violation(s) of the official NAD-RID Code of Professional Conduct.
2. A complaint must be filed due to an incident related to the provision of interpreting services.
3. A complaint must describe an incident that occurred after the interpreter's services were contracted through a verbal or written agreement, and may involve paid or volunteer interpreter service.
4. A complaint may be filed as a result of the contracted interpreter's conduct prior to, during, or after an interpreting assignment. (p. 2)

After the intake process, grievances that satisfy these criteria move to mediation. In this step, the complainant and respondent meet with one or two mediators who serve as third party neutrals to facilitate a discussion between the parties to address the complaint. According to the EPS Policy Manual, members of the RID and/or NAD serve as the mediators and are "interpreters and deaf individuals who have completed professional mediation training through RID. They are knowledgeable in ASL, deafness, and the interpreting process" (p. 5).

The mediation step in the EPS began in 1999 in an effort to provide a space and process for complainants and respondents to discuss their dispute prior to moving to adjudication. The idea is that disputes resolved directly by the parties, with the support of a facilitated process, will offer the greatest potential for mitigating harm to their working relationship. If grievances are successfully resolved by the parties, the mediator documents the resolution and agreed upon actions in a Mediation Agreement, which both parties sign. This form summarizes the issue(s) of the complaint and outlines the mutually accepted steps one or both parties must take to resolve the issue. If an agreement is not reached in the mediation step, the original complaint is referred to the adjudication process where a final decision is rendered.

In 2008, Gajewski Mickelson completed a study of the grievances filed against interpreters within the RID Ethical Practices System, in part analyzing a random sample of "scrubbed" complaints[21] in conjunction with the Code of Professional Conduct, identifying the tenets most frequently cited as those violated by the actions of the interpreters. Additionally, the same sample was studied incorporating a theoretical framework for looking at conflict that takes an integrative approach to dispute resolution, looking at the issues and interests that underpin the conflict(s) presented in the grievances. The following is a comparison of the statistical data documented in the original study (January 1, 1999–July 1, 2005), and that of comparable data collected from January 1, 2006–December 31, 2013.

[21] The term "scrubbed" cases refers to the process of eliminating any identifying information from the documents before review. This process is used to protect the confidential information and integrity of the system in accordance to the EPS manual. Section 7.7 (page 16) of the EPS manual: "RID shall maintain records in a secure place and may use information from those records for educational purposes. Any records concerning ethical matters that are used for educational purposes shall have specific identifying information removed so that the confidentiality of the individuals involved and the circumstances of the situation are preserved. This may include a confidential log of EPS cases, mediation agreements or final EPS decision letters."

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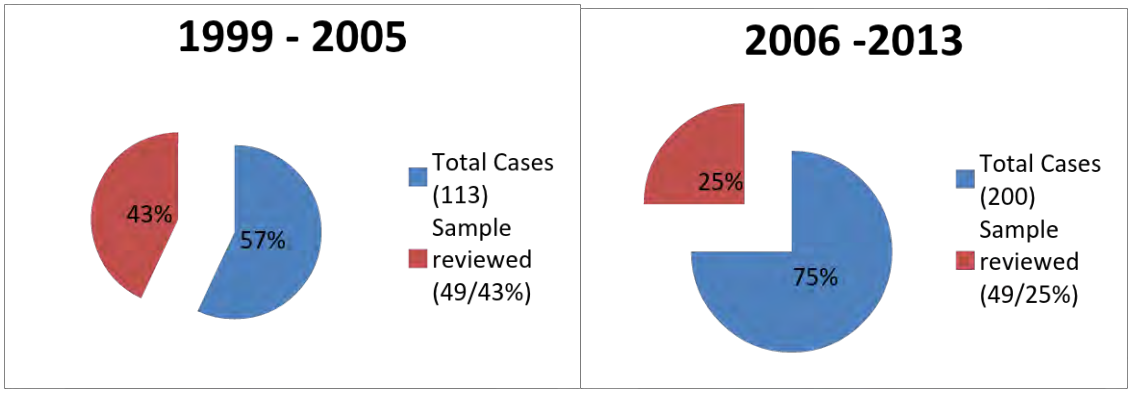
What the grievances tell us

The 2008 study looked at 49 out of the 113 total grievances filed from January 1, 1999 to July 1, 2005, which marked when the mediation system was implemented in the EPS and the date that the "new" Code of Professional Conduct was ratified by NAD and RID. This sample represented 43% of the grievances filed. Since the first study, RID improved its electronic tracking of the EPS information, which provided some ease in calculating information for the entire data set. For the 2014 study, 49 documents were randomly pulled and reviewed from January 1, 2006 to December 31, 2013. Because the total data set was larger (200), it meant that the percentage of cases reviewed reflected 25% of the total number, as opposed to the 43% of the 1999–2005 data. See Figure 1 for the data comparison. For this reason, many figures are calculated into percentages, to allow for a more comparable read of the data.

Figure 1



According to Gajewski Mickelson's 2008 study, in the 6 ½ year span between January 1, 1999 and July 1, 2005, a total of 113 grievances were filed, which is an average 17 grievances per year. Of those, 15 were dropped by the complainants, 31 were reviewed and rejected for not satisfying the published criteria for complaints, 21 bypassed the mediation step and went directly to adjudication, and 46 were addressed in the mediation process (p. 32). In the 2014 study, a total of 200 complaints were filed, averaging 25 complaints per year. Of those, seven were dropped by the complainants, 111 were rejected as they were not in compliance with the criteria, 21 went directly to adjudication, and 54 went to mediation. Additionally, seven grievances were classified as "other." These were either dropped, terminated or on hold, awaiting further information. Because of the variation in the span of time, Figure 2 presents these data in terms of percentages to allow for a clearer, more relevant comparison.

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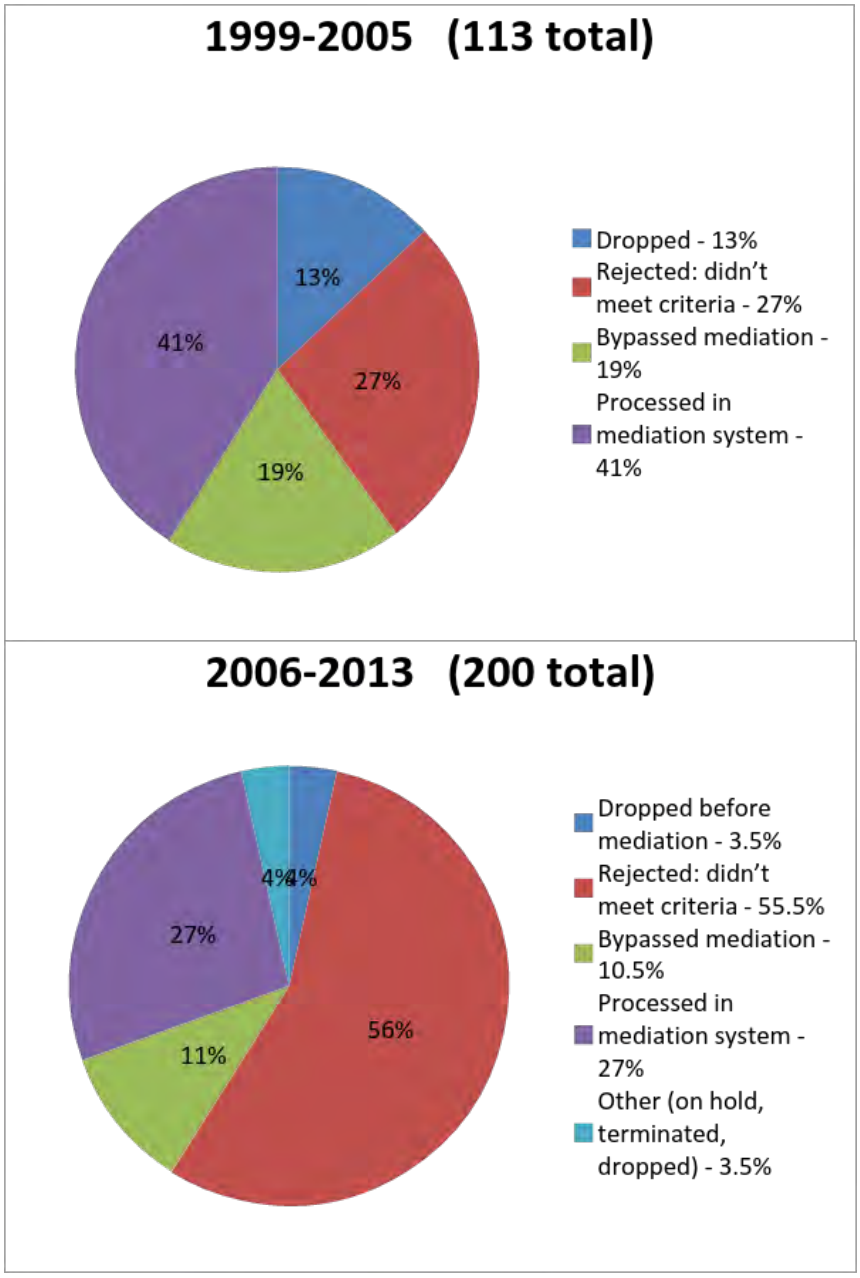
Figure 2



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While the numbers fluctuate each year, the overall number of complaints filed as well as the annual average number of complaints filed indicate that more people are utilizing the system for addressing their concerns with interpreters and/or interpreting services. The most significant difference is found in the number of cases rejected from the system for not satisfying the complaint criteria. This area will be presented in more detail shortly.

Next we looked at a comparison of who filed grievances within the system. The 2008 study looked at the sample set and found that 74% of the complainants were Deaf, 22% were hearing, and the remaining 4% were unknown. The 2014 study was able to glean comparable information from the entire pool of grievance filers, and the results were strikingly similar: 75% of the complainants were Deaf or hard of hearing and 25% were hearing. Unlike the 2008 study, which did not look at the respondent pool, the current study found that 96% of the respondents were hearing, and 4% were Deaf. This information tells us that overwhelmingly, Deaf people are filing the majority of the complaints processed in the EPS. Additionally, the number of Deaf respondents was noted in the current study at 4%, with 96% of the respondents hearing. Even though the number of Deaf respondents is small, it indicates that as the services of Certified Deaf Interpreters increases, so may the number of complaints filed against them in the EPS.

Not all of the grievances filed are processed in the EPS. Once the grievance is received, RID staff review the grievance, assuring that the complaint meets all of the stated criteria for processing. If a grievance is rejected from the system, it is typically because the grievance: (1) was out of scope, for example, was filed against an interpreting agency as opposed to an interpreter; (2) the respondent was not an RID member; (3) the grievance documentation was incomplete; (4) it was filed beyond the required 90-day window of time for accepted cases; or (5) the incident cited was not related to the provision of interpreting services.

It is important to note that RID staff documents each complaint received regardless of completeness or intent. If a complaint letter is sent to RID describing a consumer's unhappiness with an interpreter, but does not include the complaint form or corresponding narrative, the complaint is logged but not accepted. Examples of unaccepted complaints include a consumer who writes anonymously, a consumer who wishes to inform RID of a situation without filing a formal complaint, a complainant who files a complaint and then never responds or follows up even after multiple attempts by RID staff. RID takes each situation seriously but respects the fact that some may believe it is necessary to write a letter of complaint without filing formal charges. RID makes attempts to communicate with consumers, hearing and deaf, who call or write to question an interpreter's behavior. There are times that the situation does not fall under the auspices of the CPC and thus are not actionable with RID.

Figures 3 and 4 respectively, compare the 1999–2005 sample data with the current total number of rejected cases.

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Figure 3

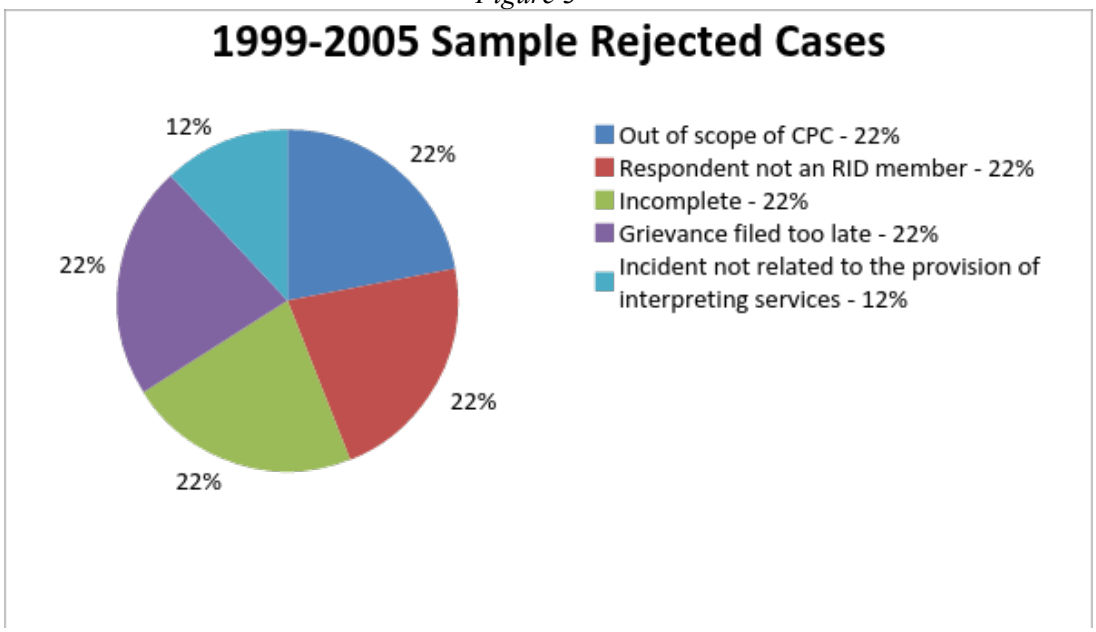

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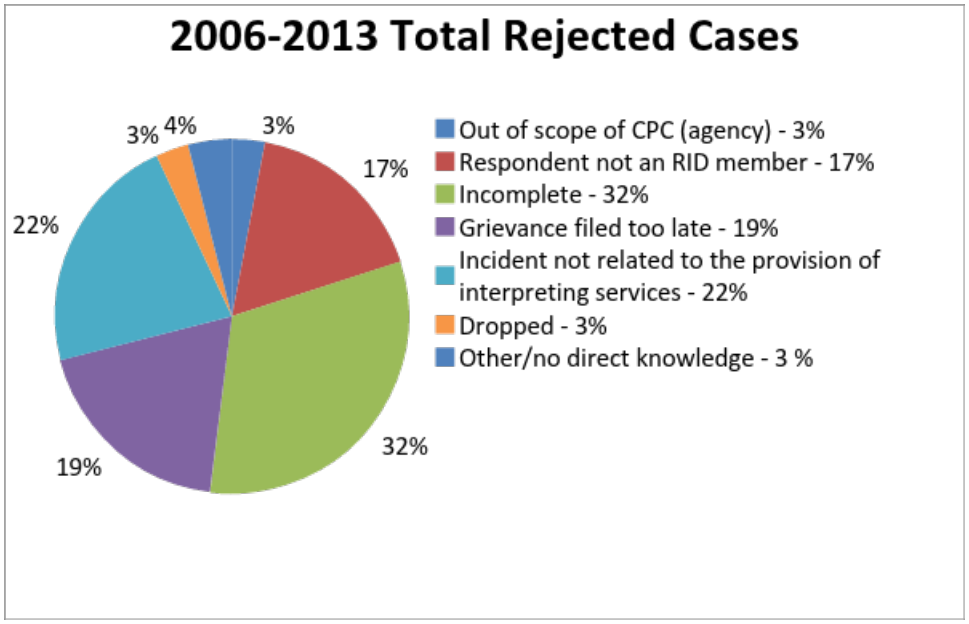
Figure 4



Within these two data sets, there is a noteworthy decrease in the number of complaints falling outside the scope of the CPC from 1999–2005 (22%) and the 2006–2013 data (3%). These complaints often include complaints against interpreting service agencies, which is clearly outside the parameters of the CPC and the jurisdiction of the EPS. On the other hand, there is an increase in the number of complaints filed to address behaviors not associated with the provision of interpreting services (i.e., allegations may include an interpreter's behavior on social media, at a social gathering, at a professional development activity, etc.). So while the complainants seem to understand the scope of the CPC, they are still filing complaints that are concerned with circumstances surrounding the provision of interpreting services. This seems to indicate that the complainants have a better understanding of what is and is not within the scope of the CPC but are still using this system to address non-interpreting behaviors and decisions. There is also an increase in the number of incomplete complaints that must be rejected, despite RID staff members' efforts to follow up with complainants to collect information that make the complaint complete. Regardless of whether it is accepted or rejected, each complaint, email, or video that is sent to RID is followed up on and tracked. If the intake process seems daunting, complainants may explain the situation to a staff person and request assistance with filling out the necessary paperwork and narrative to file a formal complaint.

When looking at mediation outcomes, there was no significant difference noted in the comparison data. In the 1999–2005 data, 70% of the mediated complaints ended with a signed agreement, compared to 78% of those from the recent study. Additionally, Figure 5 shows that 15% (1999–2005) and 18% of the mediations in the current study ended with no agreement, which meant the case was referred to adjudication.

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Figure 5

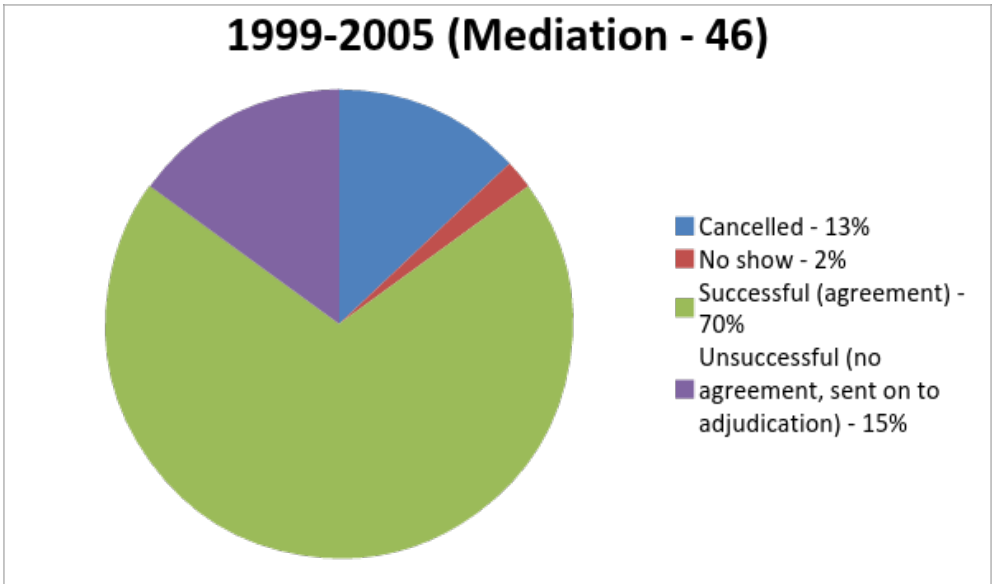

Figure 6 compares the sample data in light of the Circle of Conflict to identify the issues within the conflict, we see some things that seem to remain the same, while others have changed. For example, relationship issues were still the number one type of conflict reflected in the data. Examples of negative behavior in the past, or that occurred repeatedly over time were given. Additionally, examples of poor or failed communication were also noted within this category.

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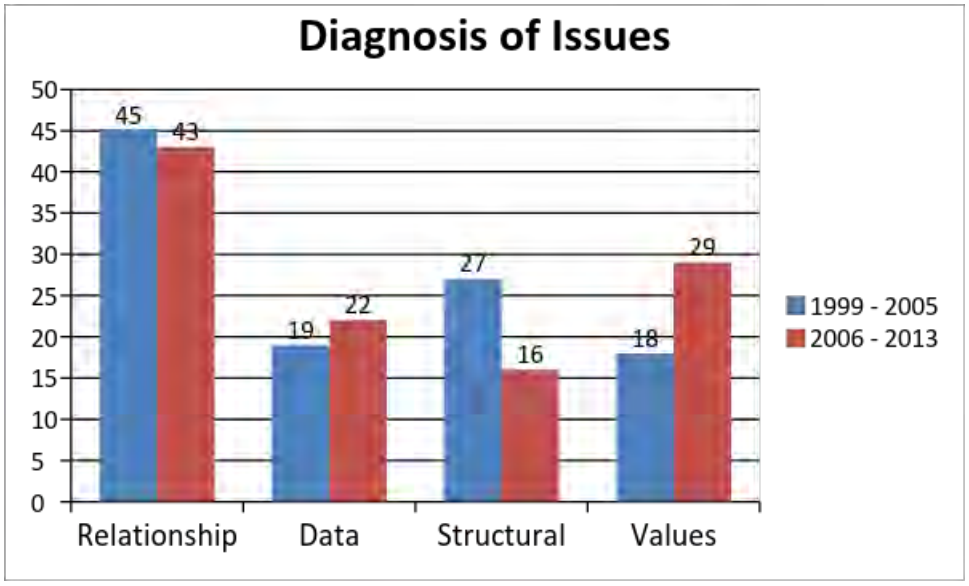
Figure 6



While structural conflicts were noted less often, there was a slight increase in data conflicts, and more of an increase in values-related issues. Data conflicts include situations when there is not enough or too much information, or when there is misinformation or problems in getting the correct information needed for the situation. For the first time, data conflicts within the grievances noted the use, or misuse of social media that was the source of the conflict or, in some cases, escalated the conflict. Inappropriate Facebook and blog posts, e-mail correspondence that escalated a misunderstanding ,and even the distraction of using a cellphone during an assignment were all examples of social media appearing in the grievances.

There was also an increase in the values conflicts, which include strong statements about what the parties believe is right or wrong, good or evil, just or unjust. These beliefs are deeply rooted in values and are difficult situations to mediate and resolve, particularly when parties have vastly different values systems and beliefs.

Analyzing the documents in light of interests also revealed some similarities and differences in the data sets. In Figure 7, three interest categories revealed an increase, while one, substantive, was represented in less than half of the current cases compared to the original data. Substantive interests generally include a concern with things of substance, such as time or money. In the first study, confidential information was identified in this category as a thing the complainants and respondents deemed important, particularly how confidential information was defined, if or how it was shared, and with whom. In the current data set, confidential information was identified more frequently in the rejected cases as opposed to the mediated agreements reviewed.

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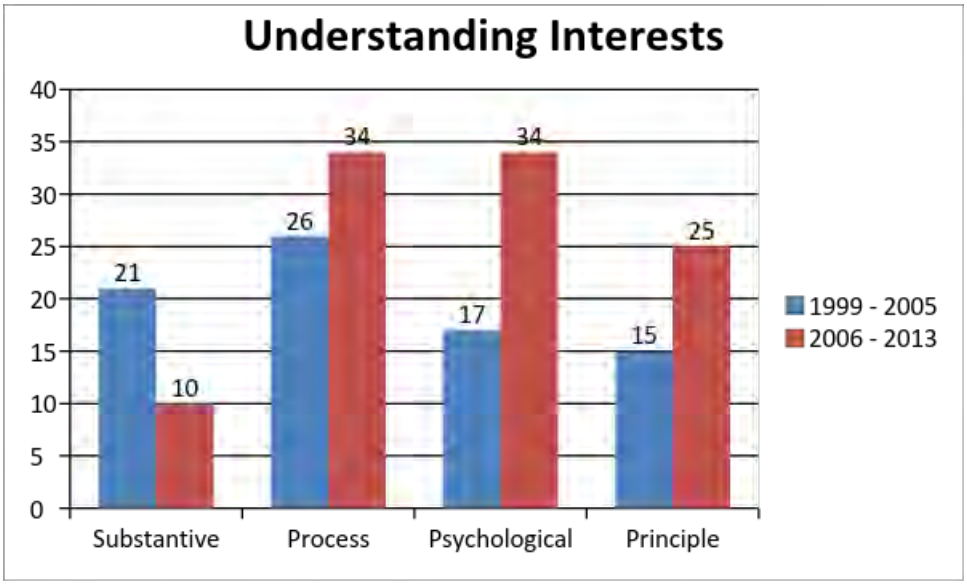
Figure 7



Once again, process interests were noted most frequently in both studies. In the 2014 study, process interests tied in frequency with psychological interests, which were noted more often in the 2014 study compared to the earlier study. Process interests have to do with how something is done. Specifically related to interpreting work, process interests include actions (or inaction) that is related to the overall experience, not how effective an interpretation was or was not. For example, concerns regarding how an interpreter conducted her/himself in an appointment, how space needs or information gathering was negotiated were noted in this category. Comments regarding how information and communication was handled using social media were noted here. The psychological interests, which are sometimes called relationship interests, were noted when emotional language was used in the documents, such as "what he did was wrong!" and "I was humiliated by her actions," and "I lost all trust in interpreters because of him." There are times when documents are included in more than one interest category. For example, often times the documents with emotional language (psychological interests) will also be tallied in the principle interests categories, particularly when there is strong language noting what is unfair, wrong, unacceptable or unethical.

Comparing the Code of Professional Conduct tenets cited in the cases by the complainants also revealed some similar results and noteworthy differences between the two data sets. In Figure 8, the comparison chart shows a clear decrease in the times Professionalism and Respect for Consumers were identified. Even though fewer people noted Respect for Consumer as a tenet violated, there were numerous times "respect" or lack-thereof was mentioned in all of the documents. Conversely, a clear increase was noted in Conduct, with less of an increase noted in Confidentiality and Business Practices.

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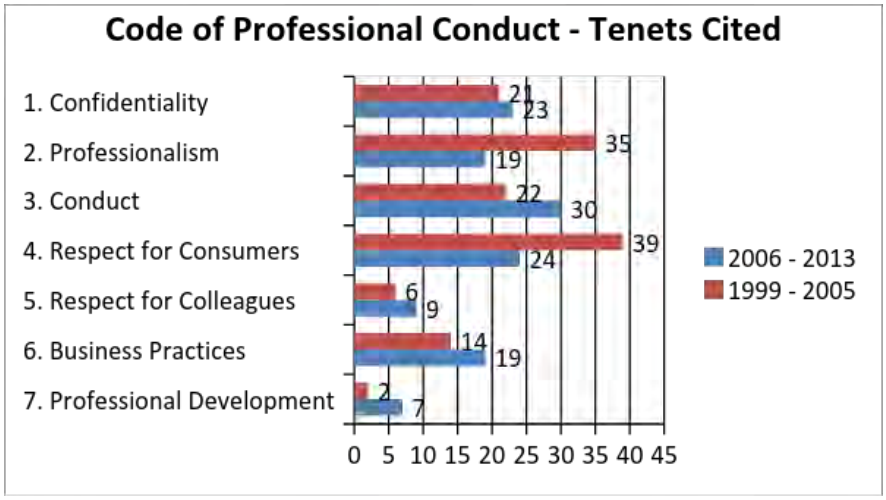
Figure 8



Finally, a comparison of the mediated agreements in both data sets specifically examined how the parties chose to resolve their conflicts. Figure 9 shows four solutions common to both time frames, and the emergence of two new strategies in the 2006–2013 cases.

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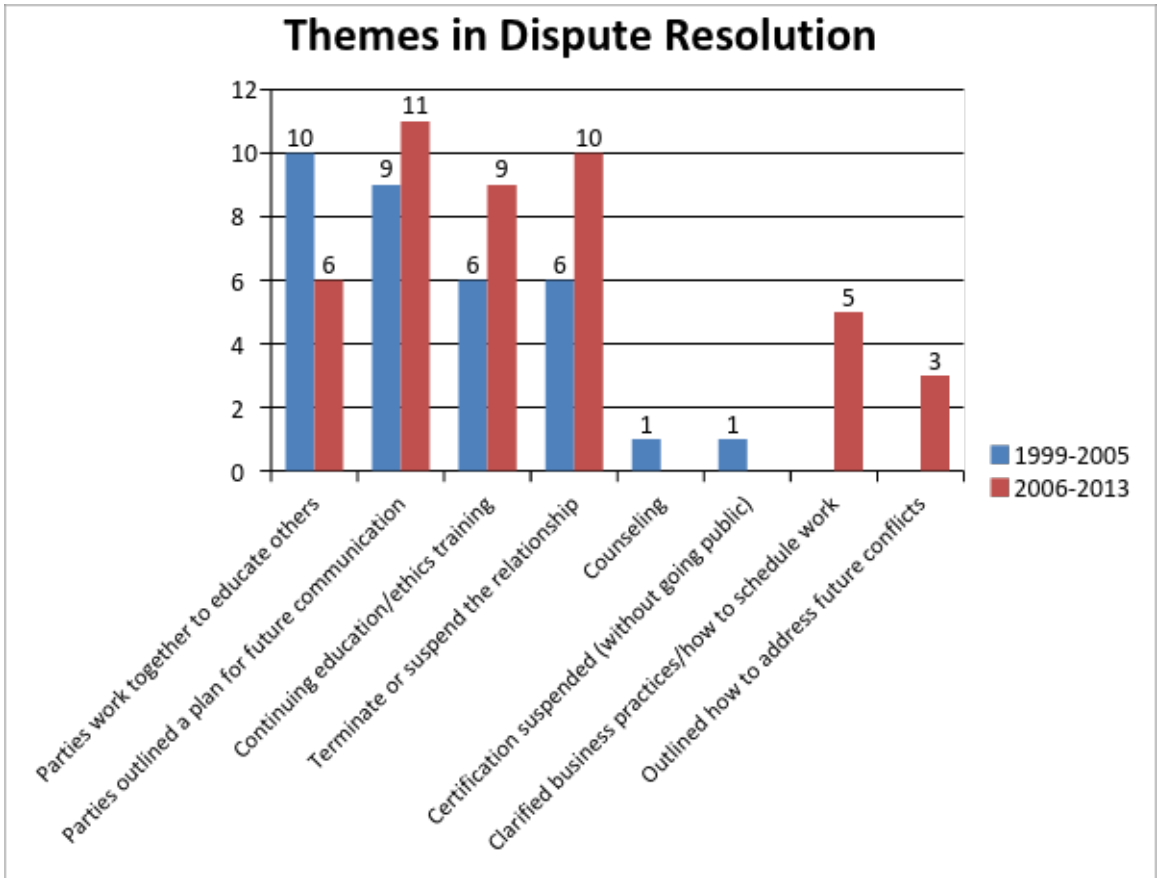
Figure 9



Strategies such as working together to educate others, identifying how they will communicate, or how they will resolve future conflicts are all reflective of mediation goals and outcomes. Identifying common interests and working together, or minimally in agreement, are all commonly a part of mediation processes. The one strategy that saw an increase in the recent data was agreeing to terminate or suspend the parties' relationship. While it is a viable solution, it does run contrary to what one might expect from a mediation. This may, however, be an indication of many things, including conflict escalation that may have gone beyond what the parties could manage in any other way. New this time were outlining steps for how to address future conflicts that may arise and clarifying business and scheduling practices. Both of these reflect creative and effective ways to address and manage conflict.

The data comparisons revealed some interesting trends. Even though some parts of the 2008 study were not replicated (i.e., interviewing mediators), there are valuable insights in this comparison for interpreter practitioners and interpreter educators alike.

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What Does This Mean for Interpreters and Interpreter Educators?

Considering the complexities of interpreting, and how conflict manifests, is managed (or not) and resolved (or not) by everyone in an interpreted exchange provides a deeper understanding of the work. Looking at the data specifically in light of conflict theory and dispute resolution practices can positively inform our work as interpreters and interpreter educators preparing new interpreters to enter the field. The following insights are shared as a way to understand conflict and identify how it manifests in our professional interactions, develop strategies for successfully addressing disputes, and provide resources to teach and learn dispute resolution practices so that we all may develop constructive, effective ways to address conflict in the field.

Creating environments conducive to identifying interests, perspectives and appreciating differences

Identifying what is important to another person *and why*, understanding their perspective and appreciating differences is easier said than done. One simple yet effective way to create an environment conducive to developing those skills is to host activities where students, working interpreters and Deaf people can engage in *genuine* conversations. These are not panel discussions, but small group conversations guided by questions that help build relationships and encourage participants to share their experiences and perspectives with each other.

At St. Catherine University, we incorporate Ethics and Decision Making (EDM) Coaching and EDM Circles as part of our interpreting program to help students make these connections and develop, as Kidder calls it, their "ethical fitness" as interpreters.

EDM Coaches meet with students regularly to unpack decisions, ethical and not, to discuss possible interests of the different people affected by our decisions, and to determine potential consequences and perspectives on our decisions. Dean and Pollard's Demand-Control Schema (2006) is another frame of reference used in EDM Coaching sessions, to allow for deeper, more meaningful consideration of the impact of our presence in interpreted settings and the wide range of choices we have when making decisions.

EDM Circles are an adaptation of traditional Circle Processes (Pranis, 2005) that allow students, working interpreters and members of the Deaf Community an opportunity to discuss various ethics-related topics that manifest in our work together as sources of conflict, including boundaries, respect and confidentiality. EDM Circles and Coaching provide intentional ways to address the connection between ethical decision making and conflict.

Identify the "what" of ethical decision making and also practice the "how"

Case study review, where students analyze a scenario using a specific decision-making model or analysis process is a commonly used activity to develop ethical decision making skills. While the decision, or "what" you would do is important, a critical piece that is often missing from the analysis is "how" that decision will be implemented. The data in this conflict analysis study indicates that process interests, or how something is done, are consistently the most prevalent interests in Deaf complainant/interpreter respondent conflict. Incorporating role plays and other activities for students to practice how they would implement their decisions, and communicate with others in an interpreted interaction allows students an

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opportunity to hone this important skill and helps them analyze the potential consequences and different perspectives of those actions. Asking students to consider: What will you say to the doctor when she asks you to leave the room because it's crowded? How do you make sure the Deaf patient knows what the doctor has said and respond to the doctor? How do you ensure that the Deaf patient has an opportunity to respond to the doctor? If they do not address the doctor directly, how will you do this? Taking time in a role play to explore these questions and letting students practice these skills is a critical part of their development. Move the discussion to action by role playing interactions and exploring the potential interests of each of the people in the scenario by posing questions like "what do you think is most important to the doctor right now? The Deaf patient? The nurse? The Deaf spouse? What can you do or say to address those interests? How would you do that?"

An additional set of circumstances that can be applied to case studies are those where specific conflicts are added to the scenario and students are encouraged to identify resolution strategies. Pulling examples from this study is an easy way to help students further develop their conflict resolution skills using real-life examples from the profession. Once presented with a conflicted scenario, ask students questions that help them consider motivation, skills and abilities, and that focus on a solutions-based outcome. Questions that draw directly upon mediation practices include those that explore thresholds for compromise and overall comfort level with conflict, such as "if you were the interpreter in this scenario and facing this conflict, what would you need from the other person to move on?" "What would you be willing to give up or let go of to move on?" "How might you engage the other person in a joint problem-solving approach to agree on the problem(s) and more specifically, how to move forward?"

Additional considerations

This study intentionally used an interest-based lens when analyzing conflict in the interpreting profession because it aligns with an integrative, or win/win, dispute resolution outcome. A benefit of this approach is the potential to maintain, preserve or even strengthen the relationship of the conflicted parties through a joint resolution process. There are, however, other lenses that may be used to analyze conflict which incorporate power- and rights-based theories. These lenses are more conducive to a distributive approach to dispute resolution, with a win/lose outcome. The integrative resolution approach was chosen for this study primarily because strong relationships are a critical part of interpreting, and serve as a foundation for building trust. With this in mind, students and interpreters must still consider the real and perceived power inherent in any given setting, privilege they hold as an interpreter in the situation, and the rights of those involved as they ponder their decision-making options in any given situation. Taking an historical look at the changes in the field, particularly at the shift in the relationship between interpreters and the Deaf Community (Cokely, 2005) can also enhance our understanding of other potential root causes of conflicts and how we might address them in our resolution strategies. Educators play an important part in helping students make these connections, again by raising questions for them to consider as they reflect on this work.

It is also important to note that conflict and ethical violations sometimes require very different resolution strategies. As the professional association for interpreters, RID has a responsibility to the public to ensure compliance of its members with the established ethical standards. RID is responsible for addressing both as is evidenced in the resource allocation put forth to support the mediation process within the EPS as well as the adjudication processes. Mediation is a valuable process, which is intended to assist the parties address and resolve their conflict in an interest-based fashion. What is unique about the EPS is that it addresses

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conflict as a root cause of issues related to ethics and ethical decisions. The mediation process often successfully provides an environment, either via video or in person, which can allow the parties to address problems in a forward-moving fashion, agreeing on the problem and focusing on the future. Mediators help parties understand that the past cannot be changed, but the parties can be empowered to control their own future.

There are times when the mediation process is not be the best option for resolving a dispute and may be used in a fashion that runs counter to its intent. One example of this from the study is the mediations that end with an agreement to terminate the parties' relationship. While it may be a satisfying outcome, mediation is intended to be an interest-based, integrative resolution process that preserves the relationship of the disputing parties.

There are other times, when egregious ethical violations occur and the adjudication process is the best option for resolution.

Deaf people, students, and working interpreters alike would all benefit from further exploration of the different dispute resolution options, and their rights and responsibilities in each.

Recommended resources

There are numerous resources in the field of alternative dispute resolution that would be excellent resources for further study in this area. In addition to the texts and articles cited in this article, there are several resources that we recommend that are easily accessible and would easily inform an educator's work in understanding and incorporating dispute resolution practices into learning activities.

Directly in the field of interpreter education, *The dimensions of ethical decision-making: A guided exploration for interpreters* (Mills Stewart & Witter-Merithew, 2006) provides a comprehensive approach to teaching ethical decision-making with a chapter devoted to introducing conflict theory and resolution into the decision-making process.

A resource that the RID staff and mediators who work within the EPS often recommend is Ethical intelligence: Five simple rules for leading a better life (Weinsten, 2011). This book offers practical suggestions and activities for individuals to do in an effort to gain a deeper self-awareness for how they approach conflict and decision-making.

Finally, Getting to yes: Negotiating agreement without giving in (Fisher & Ury, 1991) offers concise suggestions for negotiating conflicts that result in mutually acceptable, interest-based resolutions.

Any one of these texts offer an excellent place to begin learning more about dispute resolution and activities that would help interpreting students hone strategies for resolving conflict.

Conclusion

The more we change in terms of advancing the interpreting profession, incorporating technology and discovering new and better ways to do our work, the more we stay the same. We are interconnected beings who on a very basic level wish to live well and to be acknowledged, understood and respected. Because interpreting is inherently complex, conflict is also a natural part of the work. Recognizing that connection and addressing it with an understanding and working knowledge of interest-based, integrative dispute

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resolution practices can make those times of conflict more manageable and allow us the opportunity to grow from those experiences.

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Appendix 1

The Original RID Code of Ethics (Adopted in 1965)

1. The interpreter shall be a person of high moral character, honest, conscientious, trustworthy, and of emotional maturity. He shall guard confidential information and not betray confidences which have been entrusted to him.
2. The interpreter shall maintain an impartial attitude during the course of his interpreting, avoiding interjecting his own views unless he is asked to do so by a party involved.
3. The interpreter shall interpret faithfully and to the best of his ability, always conveying the thought, intent, and spirit of the speaker. He shall remember the limits of his particular function and not go beyond his responsibility.
4. The interpreter shall recognize his own level of proficiency and use discretion in accepting assignments, seeking for the assistance of other interpreters when necessary.
5. The interpreter shall adopt a conservative manner of dress upholding the dignity of the profession and not drawing undue attention to himself.
6. The interpreter shall use discretion in the matter of accepting compensation for services and be willing to provide services in situations where funds are not available. Arrangements should be made on a professional basis for adequate remuneration in court cases comparable to that provided for interpreters of foreign languages.
7. The interpreter shall never encourage deaf persons to seek legal or other decisions in their favor merely because the interpreter is sympathetic to the handicap of deafness.
8. In the case of legal interpreting, the interpreter shall inform the court when the level of literacy of the deaf person involved is such that literal interpretation is not possible and the interpreter is having to grossly paraphrase and restate both what is said to the deaf person and what he is saying to the court.
9. The interpreter shall attempt to recognize the various types of assistance needed by the deaf and do his best to meet the particular need. Those who do not understand the language of signs may require assistance through written communication. Those who understand manual communication may be assisted by means of translating (rendering the original presentation verbatim), or interpreting (paraphrasing, defining, explaining, or making known the will of the speaker without regard to the original language used).
10. Recognizing his need for professional improvement, the interpreter will join with professional colleagues for the purpose of sharing new knowledge and developments, to seek to understand the implications of deafness and the deaf person's particular needs, broaden his education and

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knowledge of life, and develop both is expressive and his receptive skills in interpreting and translating.

11. The interpreter shall seek to uphold the dignity and purity of the language of signs. He shall also maintain a readiness to learn and to accept new signs, if these are necessary to understanding.
12. The interpreter shall take the responsibility of educating the public regarding the deaf whenever possible, recognizing that many misunderstandings arise because of the general lack of public knowledge in the area of deafness and communication with the deaf.

(Cokely, 2000, p. 37)

Appendix 2

RID Code of Ethics (As revised in 1978 and adopted in October, 1979)

1. Interpreters/transliterators shall keep all assignment-related information strictly confidential.
2. Interpreters/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.
3. Interpreters/transliterators shall not counsel, advise or interject personal opinions.
4. Interpreters/transliterators shall accept assignments using discretion with regard to skill, setting, and the consumers involved.
5. Interpreters/transliterators shall request compensation for services in a professional and judicious manner.
6. Interpreters/transliterators shall function in a manner appropriate to the situation.
7. Interpreters/transliterators shall strive to further knowledge and skills through participation in work-shops, professional meetings, interaction with professional colleagues, and reading of current literature in the field.
8. Interpreters/transliterators, by virtue of membership or certification by the RID, Inc., shall strive to maintain high professional standards in compliance with the Code of Ethics.

(Cokely, 2000, p. 38)

Appendix 3

Retrieved June 30, 2014 from http://rid.org/UserFiles/File/NAD_RID_ETHICS.pdf

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NAD-RID CODE OF PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT

Scope
The National Association of the Deaf (NAD) and the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. (RID) uphold high standards of professionalism and ethical conduct for interpreters. Embodied in this Code of Professional Conduct (formerly known as the Code of Ethics) are seven tenets setting forth guiding principles, followed by illustrative behaviors.

The tenets of this Code of Professional Conduct are to be viewed holistically and as a guide to professional behavior. This document provides assistance in complying with the code. The guiding principles offer the basis upon which the tenets are articulated. The illustrative behaviors are not exhaustive, but are indicative of the conduct that may either conform to or violate a specific tenet or the code as a whole.

When in doubt, the reader should refer to the explicit language of the tenet. If further clarification is needed, questions may be directed to the national office of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc.

This Code of Professional Conduct is sufficient to encompass interpreter roles and responsibilities in every type of situation (e.g., educational, legal, medical). A separate code for each area of interpreting is neither necessary nor advisable.

Philosophy
The American Deaf community represents a cultural and linguistic group having the inalienable right to full and equal communication and to participation in all aspects of society. Members of the American Deaf community have the right to informed choice and the highest quality interpreting services. Recognition of the communication rights of America's women, men, and children who are deaf is the foundation of the tenets, principles, and behaviors set forth in this Code of Professional Conduct.

Voting Protocol
This Code of Professional Conduct was presented through mail referendum to certified interpreters who are members in good standing with the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. and the National Association of the Deaf. The vote was to adopt or to reject.

Adoption of this Code of Professional Conduct
Interpreters who are members in good standing with the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc. and the National Association of the Deaf voted to adopt this Code of Professional Conduct, effective July 1, 2005. This Code of Professional Conduct is a working document that is expected to change over time. The aforementioned members may be called upon to vote, as may be needed from time to time, on the tenets of the code.

The guiding principles and the illustrative behaviors may change periodically to meet the needs and requirements of the RID Ethical Practices System. These sections of the Code of Professional Conduct will not require a vote of the members. However, members are encouraged to recommend changes for future updates.

Function of the Guiding Principles
It is the obligation of every interpreter to exercise judgment, employ critical thinking, apply the benefits of practical experience, and reflect on past actions in the practice of their profession. The guiding principles in this document represent the concepts of confidentiality, linguistic and professional competence, impartiality, professional growth and development, ethical business practices, and the rights of participants in interpreted situations to informed choice. The driving force behind the guiding principles is the notion that the interpreter will do no harm.

When applying these principles to their conduct, interpreters remember that their choices are governed by a "reasonable interpreter" standard. This standard represents the hypothetical interpreter who is appropriately educated, informed, capable, aware of professional standards, and fair-minded.

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CODE OF PROFESSIONAL CONDUCT

Tenets

1. Interpreters adhere to standards of confidential communication.
2. Interpreters possess the professional skills and knowledge required for the specific interpreting situation.
3. Interpreters conduct themselves in a manner appropriate to the specific interpreting situation.
4. Interpreters demonstrate respect for consumers.
5. Interpreters demonstrate respect for colleagues, interns, and students of the profession.
6. Interpreters maintain ethical business practices.
7. Interpreters engage in professional development.

Applicability

A. This Code of Professional Conduct applies to certified and associate members of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., Certified members of the National Association of the Deaf, interns, and students of the profession.

B. Federal, state or other statutes or regulations may supersede this Code of Professional Conduct. When there is a conflict between this code and local, state, or federal laws and regulations, the interpreter obeys the rule of law.

C. This Code of Professional Conduct applies to interpreted situations that are performed either face-to-face or remotely.

Definitions

For the purpose of this document, the following terms are used:

Colleagues: Other interpreters.

Conflict of Interest: A conflict between the private interests (personal, financial, or professional) and the official or professional responsibilities of an interpreter in a position of trust, whether actual or perceived, deriving from a specific interpreting situation.

Consumers: Individuals and entities who are part of the interpreted situation. This includes individuals who are deaf, deaf-blind, hard of hearing, and hearing.

1.0 CONFIDENTIALITY

Tenet: Interpreters adhere to standards of confidential communication.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters hold a position of trust in their role as linguistic and cultural facilitators of communication. Confidentiality is highly valued by consumers and is essential to protecting all involved.

Each interpreting situation (e.g., elementary, secondary, and post-secondary education, legal, medical, mental health) has a standard of confidentiality. Under the reasonable interpreter standard, professional interpreters are expected to know the general requirements and applicability of various levels of confidentiality. Exceptions to confidentiality include, for example, federal and state laws requiring mandatory reporting of abuse or threats of suicide, or responding to subpoenas.

Illustrative Behavior - Interpreters:

1.1 Share assignment-related information only on a confidential and "as-needed" basis (e.g., supervisors, interpreter team members, members of the educational team, hiring entities).

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1.2 Manage data, invoices, records, or other situational or consumer-specific information in a manner consistent with maintaining consumer confidentiality (e.g., shredding, locked files).

1.3 Inform consumers when federal or state mandates require disclosure of confidential information.

2.0 PROFESSIONALISM

Tenet: Interpreters possess the professional skills and knowledge required for the specific interpreting situation.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters are expected to stay abreast of evolving language use and trends in the profession of interpreting as well as in the American Deaf community.

Interpreters accept assignments using discretion with regard to skill, communication mode, setting, and consumer needs. Interpreters possess knowledge of American Deaf culture and deafness-related resources.

Illustrative Behavior - Interpreters:

2.1 Provide service delivery regardless of race, color, national origin, gender, religion, age, disability, sexual orientation, or any other factor.

2.2 Assess consumer needs and the interpreting situation before and during the assignment and make adjustments as needed.

2.3 Render the message faithfully by conveying the content and spirit of what is being communicated, using language most readily understood by consumers, and correcting errors discreetly and expeditiously.

2.4 Request support (e.g., certified deaf interpreters, team members, language facilitators) when needed to fully convey the message or to address exceptional communication challenges (e.g. cognitive disabilities, foreign sign language, emerging language ability, or lack of formal instruction or language).

2.5 Refrain from providing counsel, advice, or personal opinions.

2.6 Judiciously provide information or referral regarding available interpreting or community resources without infringing upon consumers' rights.

3.0 CONDUCT

Tenet: Interpreters conduct themselves in a manner appropriate to the specific interpreting situation.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters are expected to present themselves appropriately in demeanor and appearance. They avoid situations that result in conflicting roles or perceived or actual conflicts of interest.

Illustrative Behavior - Interpreters:

3.1 Consult with appropriate persons regarding the interpreting situation to determine issues such as placement and adaptations necessary to interpret effectively.

3.2 Decline assignments or withdraw from the interpreting profession when not competent due to physical, mental, or emotional factors.

3.3 Avoid performing dual or conflicting roles in interdisciplinary (e.g. educational or mental health teams) or other settings.

3.4 Comply with established workplace codes of conduct, notify appropriate personnel if there is a conflict with this Code of Professional Conduct, and actively seek resolution where warranted.

3.5 Conduct and present themselves in an unobtrusive manner and exercise care in choice of attire.

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3.6 Refrain from the use of mind-altering substances before or during the performance of duties.

3.7 Disclose to parties involved any actual or perceived conflicts of interest.

3.8 Avoid actual or perceived conflicts of interest that might cause harm or interfere with the effectiveness of interpreting services.

3.9 Refrain from using confidential interpreted information for personal, monetary, or professional gain.

3.10 Refrain from using confidential interpreted information for the benefit of personal or professional affiliations or entities.

4.0 RESPECT FOR CONSUMERS

Tenet: Interpreters demonstrate respect for consumers.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters are expected to honor consumer preferences in selection of interpreters and interpreting dynamics, while recognizing the realities of qualifications, availability, and situation.

Illustrative Behavior - Interpreters:

4.1 Consider consumer requests or needs regarding language preferences, and render the message accordingly (interpreted or transliterated).

4.2 Approach consumers with a professional demeanor at all times.

4.3 Obtain the consent of consumers before bringing an intern to an assignment.

4.4 Facilitate communication access and equality, and support the full interaction and independence of consumers.

5.0 RESPECT FOR COLLEAGUES

Tenet: Interpreters demonstrate respect for colleagues, interns and students of the profession.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters are expected to collaborate with colleagues to foster the delivery of effective interpreting services. They also understand that the manner in which they relate to colleagues reflects upon the profession in general.

Illustrative Behavior - Interpreters:

5.1 Maintain civility toward colleagues, interns, and students.

5.2 Work cooperatively with team members through consultation before assignments regarding logistics, providing professional and courteous assistance when asked and monitoring the accuracy of the message while functioning in the role of the support interpreter.

5.3 Approach colleagues privately to discuss and resolve breaches of ethical or professional conduct through standard conflict resolution methods; file a formal grievance only after such attempts have been unsuccessful or the breaches are harmful or habitual.

5.4 Assist and encourage colleagues by sharing information and serving as mentors when appropriate.

5.5 Obtain the consent of colleagues before bringing an intern to an assignment.

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6.0 BUSINESS PRACTICES

Tenet: Interpreters maintain ethical business practices.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters are expected to conduct their business in a professional manner whether in private practice or in the employ of an agency or other entity. Professional interpreters are entitled to a living wage based on their qualifications and expertise. Interpreters are also entitled to working conditions conducive to effective service delivery.

Illustrative Behavior - Interpreters:

6.1 Accurately represent qualifications, such as certification, educational background, and experience, and provide documentation when requested.

6.2 Honor professional commitments and terminate assignments only when fair and justifiable grounds exist.

6.3 Promote conditions that are conducive to effective communication, inform the parties involved if such conditions do not exist, and seek appropriate remedies.

6.4 Inform appropriate parties in a timely manner when delayed or unable to fulfill assignments.

6.5 Reserve the option to decline or discontinue assignments if working conditions are not safe, healthy, or conducive to interpreting.

6.6 Refrain from harassment or coercion before, during, or after the provision of interpreting services.

6.7 Render pro bono services in a fair and reasonable manner.

6.8 Charge fair and reasonable fees for the performance of interpreting services and arrange for payment in a professional and judicious manner.

7.0 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Tenet: Interpreters engage in professional development.

Guiding Principle: Interpreters are expected to foster and maintain interpreting competence and the stature of the profession through ongoing development of knowledge and skills.

Illustrative Behavior - Interpreters:

7.1 Increase knowledge and strengthen skills through activities such as:

- pursuing higher education;
- attending workshops and conferences;
- seeking mentoring and supervision opportunities;
- participating in community events; and
- engaging in independent studies.

7.2 Keep abreast of laws, policies, rules, and regulations that affect the profession.

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Interpreting in the zone: The implications of two studies for interpreter education

Jack Hoza[22]

University of New Hampshire at Manchester

Abstract

This paper highlights some of the features that enable interpreters to interpret "in the zone," which is a peak experience that happens when professionals are completely absorbed in their work and are performing at their best, where their skills and judgment rise to the challenges before them. The paper primarily focuses on three major findings from two qualitative studies conducted by the author: 1) a national survey of certified interpreters (n=223), and 2) a study that involved videotaping novice and experienced interpreters interpreting the same interactive text and interviewing the interpreters afterwards (n=12). Each of these three findings has implications in terms of priorities in interpreter education and how interpreting is taught or enhanced. First, interpreters of varying skill and experience can have an in-the-zone experience, and this kind of experience can be nurtured and can serve as the foundation for further development as an interpreter. Second, the unconscious, as well as the conscious, plays a crucial role in the in-the-zone experience, and understanding this fact can enhance one's interpreting work. Third, there are two different kinds of expertise, and it behooves interpreter educators to appreciate this difference and to understand the kind of expertise they are advancing in their work with student interpreters and professional interpreters.

Keywords: Interpretation, in the zone, qualitative research, interpreter education, the conscious, the unconscious, types of expertise, novice, expert

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Interpreting in the zone: The implications of two studies for interpreter education

Professionals, athletes, artists, and others may use the phrase "in the zone" (or "in flow") to describe a state they experience in which they are totally engaged in the moment, are energized, and feel that they can successfully handle almost anything they encounter. People can be in the zone in their personal lives as well, as when they are engaged in their favorite hobbies or other activities that require their complete attention, and in which their skills rise to the challenges of the occasion. When in the zone, time can seem to slip away and the person can feel that time passes very quickly. Whether at work or play, being in the zone (or being in flow) involves having one's total attention on the task and in the moment, and is typically a euphoric state in which the person is totally immersed in the experience (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 1991, 2008).[23]

Interpreting is a cognitive task in that it occurs in the brain, and this cognitive process involves a high degree of engagement in the moment and the type of intense attention that can lead to being in the zone (Hoza, forthcoming). Gile's (2009) Effort Models (of interpreting) focus on the mental energy needed to do the task, which is in limited supply; Gile discusses constraints (challenges) and resources (linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge as well as skills and resource materials) as situation-specific aspects of the work that affect one's ability to manage the interpreting process. Dean and Pollard's (2013) Demand Control Schema focuses on meeting the demands (needs) of a situation with the interpreter's controls (skills and resources). Regardless of the terms used,[24] it is clear that when interpreters' skills and resources meet the challenges of the situation, they can not only meet the demands of the situation, but can also be freed up to be more present in the situation, to more fully interpret, and to not only interpret people's meaning, but to also be more fully engaged and aware of the overall environment and the interaction, and to make quick and successful decisions that make the interpretation work well (Hoza, forthcoming). When experts are in the zone, they can simultaneously handle multiple features of their work, can quickly solve problems, and are energized by the process (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990, 1991, 2008).

To better understand what the in-the-zone experience is like for interpreters, what enables interpreters to get into the zone, and how this state may differ for novices and experts, I conducted two qualitative studies. One study was a

[23] Whereas Csikszentmihalyi (1990/1991/2008) uses the phrase *in flow* in his work, I will use the phrase *in the zone* throughout this paper. There are some differences between the meanings of these two phrases, but these differences will not be explored in this paper.

[24] While the terms used by Csikszentmihalyi (1990/1991/2008), Gile (2009), and Dean and Pollard (2013) are quite similar, there are some differences. For example, Csikszentmihalyi speaks more generally of the psychological experience that results from the interaction between *skills* and *challenges*; Gile uses the terms *constraints* to refer to the limitations of the situation and *resources* to refer to what the interpreter can use to manage the situation; and Dean and Pollard use the terms *demands* and *controls* as part of an overall approach (schema) for preparing for and managing the interpreting context as part of a practice profession.

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national survey of certified interpreters in the United States (n=223),[25] and the other study involved videotaping novice and experienced interpreters interpreting the same interactive text and interviewing the interpreters afterwards (n=12). The results of these studies will be fully reported in an upcoming book, *Interpreting in the Zone: Understanding the Interpreter Brain*, to be published by Gallaudet University Press (Hoza, forthcoming).[26] Both of these studies resulted in extensive data, but this paper will highlight only three main findings of the two studies that have important implications for those involved in interpreter education, whether the interpreter educators are in an established program, present workshops or short-term training, or function as mentors.

I begin by briefly describing the research design of the two studies. I then discuss the three specific areas by reviewing the relevant data and discussing the implications for interpreter educators. The three main areas are the following: (1) what the experience is like when an interpreter is in the zone, (2) what it is about the conscious and unconscious that allows an interpreter to be in the zone, and (3) the difference between two types of expertise. Each of these has major implications in terms of what needs to be prioritized and nurtured in interpreter education.

Two Studies

An invitation to the national online survey was sent out via email to 766 randomly selected nationally certified interpreters in the United States, and a total of 223 interpreters responded to the survey, resulting in a 29% response rate.[27] After being asked demographic information, interpreters were asked to respond to four main topic areas: (1) what they tend to consciously prepare for when preparing for an interpreting assignment and what they rarely consciously prepare for, and what they tend to monitor during interpreting and what they tend to not monitor during interpreting, (2) the cognitive (mental) process they undergo when they do live interpretation, and how they know an interpretation is successful and is "working," what causes an interpretation to not "work" and how they tend to get back on track, (3) insights (aha! moments) they have had about their interpreting work, goals they have (if any), and how they are trying to accomplish these goals, and (4) how they think seasoned interpreters and newer (novice) interpreters differ in their cognitive processing and interpreting work.

The other study was a video study that involved videotaping 12 interpreters interpreting the same stimulus material and interviewing the interpreters afterwards. These interviews included questions about the interpreters' everyday interpreting work as well as a discussion of six excerpts from the video sample, which were selected by the researcher. The interpreters were asked what they were conscious of, and not conscious of, at the time of the excerpt, as well as the tactic they were using at the time, and whether or not the tactic was successful or not.

Three groups of four interpreters were interviewed. All 12 interpreters were licensed to interpret in the state of New Hampshire and, thus, resided in New Hampshire and nearby states. One group was a group of four randomly selected *novice* interpreters. These interpreters were state-screened (i.e., they had passed the NH state-screening for interpreters [the NH Interpreter Classification System] or a comparative state-screening from another state), and had

[25] Although 223 certified interpreters responded to the first survey questions, each question on the survey was optional and only about half of the respondents completed all of the questions on the survey. Also, to clarify, there was no attempt to distinguish between novices and experts within this group of respondents; rather, the results of the national survey were considered a sampling of nationally credentialed interpreters as a whole.

[26] The manuscript is to be submitted in the summer of 2015, with an anticipated publication date of 2016.

[27] Seven hundred and fifty-one (751) of these surveys were sent to hearing interpreters and 15 surveys were sent to Certified Deaf Interpreters (CDIs), which was in proportion for each of these two types of certified interpreters in the field. While the hearing interpreters were provided the survey in English, CDIs were provided the survey in both English and ASL, and could respond in either English or ASL. Two hundred and twenty (220) of the completed surveys were received from hearing interpreters and three from CDIs.

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been state-screened and licensed for less than five years. Two groups of experienced interpreters were also interviewed. One group was a randomly selected group of *professional* interpreters who had been nationally certified for over 15 years. The other group was a group of *selected* interpreters who were nationally certified and had been selected by a group of 15 Deaf people who often work with interpreters and who attend public events that are often interpreted.[28]

These Deaf people were contacted via email, which included a link to a video in which the information was presented in ASL (signed by myself, a native ASL/English bilingual). They were asked to list those nationally certified interpreters who they thought were excellent (top-notch) interpreters, in that they could interpret well from ASL to English and English to ASL and were trusted by Deaf people. Out of the list of 70 NH-licensed, nationally certified interpreters they were provided (which included photos of the interpreters), 5 interpreters were selected by at least half (8) of the Deaf people. Four randomly selected interpreters from this list were interviewed and were considered *selected* interpreters.

All 12 interpreters were invited via email to participate in the study. A 14-minute video of a meeting between a Vocational Rehabilitation (VR) choose-to-work specialist (English speaker) and a VR consumer (ASL signer) served as the stimulus.[29] The interpreters had a short warm-up period in which they were alone in the videotaping room and observed short introductions by both of the participants in the video. They were also alone in the room when they were videotaped interpreting the meeting. They were asked to pause the video as needed by pressing the space bar on the computer, to rewind if they so wished, and to talk to the video as they would to a real-live person, e.g., "Could you repeat that for the interpreter?" The interpreters in the video study were paid a nominal fee for their participation.

Being in the Zone

Survey respondents were asked how they could tell whether or not an interpretation is successful and is "working." The majority of respondents (61%)[30] exclusively mentioned external factors such as the participants' comprehension as noted by backchanneling and positive feedback, the success of participants' communication and interaction, and the fact that the interpretation is flowing smoothly, as though the interpreter is not there. Over one-third (37%) mentioned both internal and external factors, and only 2% of the respondents exclusively mentioned internal factors. Respondents that mentioned the internal experience of what this was like seemed to convey a sense of being in the zone. The following are the ways in which these interpreters described this internal experience of knowing that the interpretation was working: having a great feeling of exhilaration, feeling "on top of it," having a sense of "zen," being "in tune," being "in the zone," having a sense of "owning the message," being "on," and sensing that "time flies by."

The interpreters in the video survey were asked this same question and all of the interpreters mentioned the same external factors as the survey respondents (above). Some interpreters in all three groups -- the novice, professional, and selected interpreters -- also reported having an in-the-zone type of experience. For example, one novice interpreter stated, "It's very smooth, and it's like I'm not even there," and another novice interpreter stated the

[28] There was also a second tier of four interpreters who were mentioned by either five or six Deaf people. This group was seen as a back-up group, but were not interviewed in this study. Also, all nine of these interpreters (the five interpreters who were selected by these Deaf people and the four back-up interpreters) were excluded from the list of randomly selected professional interpreters, most of whom were selected by two of the 15 Deaf people.

[29] The interpreters in the video study interpreted the "Support in the Job Search" video that is part of the video set *Interpreting in Vocational Rehabilitation Settings* (NCIEC, 2012).

[30] A total of 121 interpreters responded to this question.

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following: "It just feels really smooth. It's very -- this happens, this happens, and then all of a sudden, oh, my God, did half an hour just go by? It felt like five minutes. You're just kind of suspended in time."

An interpreter in the professional interpreter group stated that the interpretation does not work as well when there is a "break in the flow" and that when it is working, "It's a feeling, like when you are in the moment: okay, this is going good." Another interpreter in this group reported the following experience when she interprets performances on stage: "I have an out-of-body experience. My hands are the message, the body is the rhythm, my face is the tone. I am channeling the artists. I depend less on feedback in these moments."

The selected interpreters differed in some respects from the other two groups in that they primarily discussed the monitoring of their work when asked how they can tell if the interpretation is working. One interpreter in this group stated that she knew it was working based on "my own sense of how on top of it I feel" and mentioned her own metacognition (i.e., higher level cognition and monitoring of her work) that enabled this to happen. One selected interpreter described the experience this way:

> You know, it's like sometimes I feel like -- and I use this metaphor a lot because it's useful for me... It feels like painting or music for me, or writing, and those sorts of tasks, you know. Why did I decide to put green on the canvas right then? I don't know. There's a process of discovery that's sometimes happening. I decide to do that and it works, so my next decision gets guided by that, you know. Sometimes that's how my decision-making is happening: "Oh, that worked! Whew! Now, what's next? Oh, that worked? Okay, now I'm going to go this way a little bit or that way..." and it's really fluid that way for me.

There are two main take-home messages from the responses to this question. First, interpreters can be more externally referenced, more internally referenced, or mixtures of the two, but the interpreters in both studies appear to be more externally referenced overall. The selected interpreter group, however, was more internally referenced and had more meta-awareness of their tactics and decisions. It is important that interpreter educators attend to both internal experience as well as external experience when working with students and interpreters to help them increase their internal awareness of when an interpretation is working and when they are in the zone. The internal experience of being in the zone is an important feature of interpreting that requires attention and nurturing.

Second, interpreters with varying degrees of experience -- not just those who are more accomplished -- can have an in-the-zone experience. There is a sense of engagement that can be accomplished for interpreters of any level of skill and experience, but it can differ greatly for each person. Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 1991, 2008) explains that as long as new tennis players, for example, are content with their limited skills and can accomplish what they need to in the moment, they can have a meaningful, in-the-zone (flow) experience. However, if they become too anxious or -- conversely -- too bored, they may find themselves out of the zone. For new tennis players, having this experience of hitting the ball as best as they can and being content with that experience is key. Likewise, interpreters whose skills rise to the challenges before them and who know they are doing their best work (whether novice or more experienced) can have this optimal experience.[31] Csikszentmihalyi (1990, 1991, 2008) states,

> The self becomes complex as a result of experiencing flow.... When we choose a goal and invest ourselves in it to the limits of our concentration, whatever we do will be enjoyable. And once we have tasted this joy, we will redouble our efforts to taste it again. This is the way the self grows.... Flow is important both because it makes the present instant more enjoyable, and because it builds self-confidence that allows us to develop skills and make significant contributions... (p. 42)

In short, being in the zone is an experience one wants to repeat and having these successful in-the-zone experiences differ for different interpreters, but that level of successful work is important as one progresses as an interpreter.

[31] In the forthcoming book, I discuss the fact that interpreters can sometimes mistakenly think they are in the zone, but actually are not in the zone at all. However, given the constraints of this paper, I will not get into this topic here, but I do want to mention that sometimes interpreters can be in a "comfort zone" that is not as successful as being in the zone and yet deceive themselves into thinking they are in the zone.

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The Conscious and the Unconscious

Interpreting is a complex process. There are many considerations, decisions, and cognitive processes that are key to successful interpretation. At the same time, if interpreters had to consciously attend to all of these features of interpretation, they could not interpret (Gile, 2009; Hoza, forthcoming; Moser-Mercer, 1997). Moser-Mercer (1997) states "interpreting would be impossible if all of the mental processes were consciously controlled. Automation is essential to mastery of... interpreting skill as it allows the interpreter to bypass common processing limitations and to make optimal use of available processing capacity" (p. 259). Automation involves aspects of the interpreting process that are *unconscious*. Both studies explored how interpreters use their conscious awareness and their unconscious in their interpreting work, and it became clear that a careful balance and synergy between the two enables interpreters to do their best work.

The national survey asked interpreters what they tend to monitor most when interpreting and what they tend to monitor least, which gets to this question of the conscious and the unconscious.[32] The responses to the question about what tends to be monitored were split between monitoring *external* (target) features (50%) and monitoring *internal* (intrapersonal or process) features (44%), with a small percentage of respondents (6%) stating that they were unsure of what they monitor or that it depends on the situation. External (target) features include the target language output, feedback from the target audience, meaning/message equivalence, and the environment; and internal (intrapersonal or process) features include the concept/meaning, listening/attending, one's own internal self-talk, process management, and self-monitoring.

The responses to the question about what they tend to not monitor were more inconsistent. Nearly half (44%) identified external (target) features and about one-third (32%) identified internal features, and these external and internal features were similar to those identified in the previous question. In addition, 10% of the respondents stated that they were unsure about what is not monitored, which reveals a lack of awareness of what is unconscious in the interpreting process; 9% of the respondents stated that they monitored "everything"; and 7% of respondents stated that they do not monitor their work.

The responses to these two questions present both a contradiction in the overall responses and a feeling of uncertainty on the part of some respondents. First, some of the same elements that were identified as being monitored by some respondents were listed as elements that are not being monitored by others. This apparent contradiction may be due to the fact that interpreters may be more internally referenced or externally referenced, the fact that what is monitored at any given time varies, or the fact that what is not monitored may depend on the contexts in which one interprets regularly (with some processes being more automatic or assumed in certain familiar contexts). Second, respondents varied in their responses to the second question, with one out of ten respondents stating that they were unsure of what is not monitored, and other respondents stating that they either monitor everything or monitor nothing (9% and 7%, respectively). The responses that express uncertainty may result from interpreters' own conception of what happens when they interpret. One interpreter, for example, stated, "I monitor all aspects. There are none that I could ignore without impacting the quality of the interpretation," and another interpreter stated not monitoring anything and adding, "I don't think anymore very much about what I'm interpreting -- except being conceptual. I put my brain on autopilot... my clients like me, and I am still being referred by other interpreters, and being requested by many consumers." The first quotation reflects a very conscious approach to interpretation and the second reflects a

[32] A total of 106 respondents answered the question about what they tend to monitor and 94 respondents answered the question about what they tend to not monitor.

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very unconscious approach to interpretation, and the two quotations seem to represent two outlying perspectives on monitoring, as it is unlikely that monitoring one's work is an all or nothing enterprise.

The video study helped to clarify the interaction between the conscious and unconscious further, in that in the interviews, we talked about actual samples of their work and what they were conscious of and not conscious of at given moments in the interpretation. These interviews indicate, as has been reported elsewhere in the literature, that interpreters sometimes make conscious decisions that benefit the interpretation; are sometimes unaware that something went awry; and are sometimes conscious of something going awry, but do nothing about it (see, e.g., Napier, 2002; Napier and Barker, 2004). The video study also revealed ways in which interpreters shift their attention to focus on specific features of the interpreting process at various times.

There were major differences in how the novice, professional, and selected interpreters talked about their work. The novice interpreters tended to be quite conscious of many of their decisions during the interpretation, and most of these decisions were linguistic in nature (usually lexical, phrasal, or syntactic). While all three groups of interpreters talked about wanting to convey the intended meaning and goals of the speakers, it was clear from the way that novice interpreters talked about the excerpts that their primary focus was on conveying specific concepts (e.g., how do I sign that? what does that sign mean?). They seemed to see the interpreting task as a linguistic exercise and focused primarily on language equivalency.

The professional interpreter group was different from the other two groups in two ways. First, they seemed to have little meta-awareness of the discourse or speakers' overall goals, and the interpreting process tended to be either quite automatic or fairly controlled (conscious). Second, this group seemed more dependent on "rules of thumb" to guide their work, so when they did make conscious decisions, it consisted primarily of following pre-established notions. For example, the deaf person in the video was signing in an idiosyncratic way, in that she was switching from ASL to English-influenced signing at times, and this group in particular felt obligated to "match the deaf person's signing style," which is what interpreters have traditionally been taught to do.

The selected interpreters differed from the other two groups in two primary ways as well. First, they were more meta-aware of their work (regarding making decisions and considering what would work best at any given moment), and were more likely to strike a balance between conscious monitoring of their work and unconscious automaticity. They could monitor their overall work and yet trust some processes to be handled by the unconscious. Second, they also seemed to have greater insight into their work. They could step back from their work and reflectively discuss decisions and tactics, and, when asked, they were more likely to be able to talk about the conscious and unconscious aspects of their work. Their discussion focused primarily on the speakers' overall goals for the meeting and how those were accomplished in the alternate language. When it came to discussing the deaf woman's signing, for example, they did not see her language mix as something they needed to "match," but rather as something that they strove to understand in context, as they did with other aspects of their interpreting work. They tried to determine why she was signing in this way. None of them believed that this was her natural way of signing. They wondered if she was signing this way because of the context she was in and the impression she was hoping to have on the VR choose-to-work specialist, or if the fact that this was a role-play affected her output. This group of interpreters all decided to produce a coherent target language rendition that was based more on their experiences with ASL signers and what ASL signers may understand rather than on trying to "match" the deaf person's language mix, *per se*.

In sum, the novice interpreters mentioned conveying participants' meaning and goals, but they tended to primarily focus on vocabulary and syntactic structure in their discussion of their work. The professional interpreters did not seem very conscious of their decisions and tended to use "rules of thumb," which included "matching the deaf person's signing style." In contrast, the selected interpreters clearly monitored their work, struck a balance between conscious monitoring and trusting the unconscious to do its work overall, and focused on participants' overall goals in the context of this meeting.

Based on the interpreters' discussion of the excerpts, it became apparent that interpreters vary in the degree to which they use their conscious and unconscious when interpreting, and that there is a relationship between these two efforts when an interpreter is in the zone. Specifically, interpreters who are in the zone tend to have a low-to-mid level of conscious awareness (conscious monitoring) and a mid-to-high level of unconscious awareness (automaticity).

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Interpreters who are in the zone tend to make key decisions consciously and trust the unconscious to carry out many of these decisions. One novice interpreter, for example, experienced this when she was struggling with the target language rendition in ASL and then realized that using space was needed to convey what she wanted to convey. She reported, "Once I figured out I was going to use space, it just kind of worked." She further stated that, thereafter, she did not have to think about using space because it just naturally occurred as needed when she was interpreting into ASL.

When the interpretation was not working as well, the interpreters typically reported a high level of consciousness and a low level of unconsciousness. At these times there may well be a conscious effort to manage the interpreting process, but the unconscious is not prepared to take on the task, so the interpreter struggles. What I have discovered is that not only can one's conscious awareness range from low to mid to high and one's unconscious awareness range from low to mid to high, but there is also an inverse relationship between the two. When interpreters are highly conscious, they are not very unconscious, and when they are highly unconscious, they are not very conscious. In addition, there are also times when an aspect of the interpreting work is neither conscious nor monitored, as when an error or automatic process occurs that the interpreter is not aware of.

Interpreters can vary in their level of consciousness (monitoring) when in the zone; however, interpreters who are either too conscious (do not rely on their unconscious abilities enough) or too unconscious (do not monitor their work) cannot be in the zone. There needs to be a certain amount of unconscious ability for the interpreting process to work, and there cannot be an overconcentration on the conscious nor a lack of consciousness. Rather, there needs to be a careful balance between the conscious and the unconscious for interpreting to work. Interpreter educators, then, need to attend to the unconscious skills that are in place as well as the conscious management, monitoring, and decision-making of interpreters. Those that interpreter educators work with can benefit from exploring both aspects of their interpreting work (Hoza, 2013).

Two Types of Expertise

It became apparent during the interviews that although both the professional interpreters and the selected interpreters had been nationally certified for many years and had many years of interpreting experience, the way in which they approached their interpreting work and discussed their work differed greatly. The professional interpreters seemed to focus primarily on using "rules of thumb" to guide their work, such as "the target language should be equivalent to the source language" and "interpreters should match the language use of the deaf person." The selected interpreters seemed to focus more on the analysis and understanding of the contextual features of language usage, which include the overall goals of the people in the situation, the rapport and interaction between the speakers, how to best manage the interpreting process, and why the deaf person was signing the way she was in this context and how to respond to that. These differences in knowledge, skills, and thinking were evident throughout the interviews.

Jääskeläinen (2010) notes similar differences among experienced spoken language translators, and Hatano and Inagaki (1986) have proposed that there are two kinds of experts: routine experts and adaptive experts. These two types of expertise coincide with the two different types of expertise that were revealed in the interviews and that Jääskeläinen has observed. Hatano and Inagaki (1986) report that *routine experts* are efficient in terms of their speed, accuracy, and automaticity; however, they are less likely to adapt to new situations and new problems. In other words, like the interpreters in the professional interpreter group, routine experts become efficient at doing a task and become good at solving common problems in familiar environments. Hatano and Inagaki (1986) report that *adaptive experts* have these same abilities to be efficient and effective and to solve problems in stable environments, but, in addition, they have gained an ability to expand their expertise to varying situations, which is similar to what was observed with the selected interpreters. Adaptive experts have knowledge that "gives meaning to each step of the skill and provides criteria for selection of possible alternatives for each step within the procedure. It may even enable [them] to invent new procedures and/or make new predictions. We will call this conceptual knowledge" (p. 28). This conceptual

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knowledge, along with experience using such conceptual knowledge and considering how it may be realized differently in different situations, is a key feature of adaptive expertise, and it what enables adaptive experts to excel and to have more flexibility.

Schwartz, Bransford, and Sears (2005) propose that the difference between routine experts and adaptive experts relates to their relative *efficiency* and *innovation*. Routine experts are efficient in their "ability to apply previously acquired skills and schemas efficiently for routine problem solving" (p. 30). Adaptive experts are not only efficient in this respect, but are also innovative, in that they find they often have the ability to alter their thinking or the environment when confronted with special problems or situations. Schwartz, Bransford, and Sears (2005) state, "innovation and adaptability 'favor the prepared mind'... [and] innovation often requires a movement away from what is momentarily most efficient" (p. 30). Adaptive experts have put thought into their work and that better prepares them for applying their knowledge and skills to varying situations. By using conceptual frameworks, adaptive experts can step back from their work, use meta-analysis, consider alternatives, and look beyond the efficient response if needed. Conceptual frameworks include models, metaphors, and professional terminology (Hoza, 2010).

This distinction between routine and adaptive expertise clearly has implications for interpreter educators. Interpreting students and interpreters who seek to become adaptive experts can benefit from the following: increasing conceptual knowledge, applying natural language fluency and interpreting skills to real-life situations, and processing their work and decision-making in context with mentors and educators who are themselves adaptive experts and who have the ability to process and scaffold their learning. If students of interpretation and interpreters focus on either language acquisition or interpreting out of context, practice "keeping up" in order to be efficient, are overly dependent on rules of thumb, or become complacent and lack the desire to grow and learn, they are destined to be routine experts. Again, the primary difference between routine experts and adaptive experts is the *innovation* factor, and innovation can be cultivated.

Motivated learners can become adaptive experts if they set their minds to it and they have the type of support they need to move them forward. An ideal approach to fostering this type of growth is process mediation. *Process mediation* is "a practice of structured dialogue designed to address issues in interpreting. Developed by Colonomos and built on the Integrated Model of Interpreting (IMI) (Colonomos) and the work of Lev Vygotsky, Process Mediation is an investigation directed by the learner and supported by the mentor that identifies strategies for solving cognitive problems -- linguistic, ethical, cultural, and more" (Colonomos & Moccia, 2013, p. 85, citing Colonomos (1992) and Vygotsky (1978)). During process mediation, "the mediator is an involved listener who helps the mediated discover their internal states and processes" (Colonomos & Moccia, 2013, p. 88), especially as they relate to strategies and decisions. In process mediation, the mediator is someone who is comfortable with silence, which allows the mediated to talk freely about their work, and the mediator enters the process mediation session without an agenda, and, instead, asks questions to clarify and to reflect back what is being heard. This type of non-judgmental discussion enhances a process of discovery and scaffolds the ability of those being mediated to explore issues and their possible causes, and to discover options available to them. This approach supports adaptive expertise and can be used by interpreter educators in established programs, workshop presenters, and mentors.

Conclusion

This paper has highlighted three major findings from two studies on the interpreting process: a national survey and a video study. These findings indicate that interpreters with varying skills and experience can have in-the-zone experiences, but that these experiences vary in some respects. These findings also indicate the role that the conscious and the unconscious play in the interpreting process and in enabling someone to be in the zone. Finally, the findings indicate that experienced interpreters can have one of two kinds of expertise and the type of expertise can have a major impact on how an interpreter approaches and handles the interpreting process. All three of these findings have implications for interpreter educators.

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First, internally referenced experiences as well as externally referenced experiences are key to being in the zone. When interpreters are in the zone, they just *know* that the interpretation is working, so while external cues are important, interpreters may be too focused on these overall, and would benefit from a greater focus on internal (intrapersonal) cues and monitoring of their internal processes. Also, interpreters that have a sense of what it is like to interpret in the zone are more likely to try to recreate that experience, which is important for interpreting students and interpreters alike.

Second, the role of the unconscious is key to interpretation. A certain amount of knowledge and skills needs to be internalized at the unconscious level for interpretation to be effective, and processing one's level of unconscious aptitude, as well as one's conscious considerations, tactics, and decisions, (i.e., engaging in process mediation about *both* of these) is important. Both the conscious and the unconscious are at play in interpretation, so both need to be supported and mentored (Hoza, 2013). For students of interpretation and interpreters, it can be a relief to realize that certain knowledge, skills, and processes are "in place" in the unconscious and can be trusted to handle certain aspects of the interpreting process. This can be freeing and it allows interpreting students and interpreters to focus on areas that could benefit from more conscious consideration and processing with others. Also, this level of processing and increased understanding become part of the unconscious and increases one's ability to manage the interpreting process and to make effective decisions. Mentorship, then, is a key component of professional growth, and process mediation (Colonomos & Moccia, 2013), as discussed above, is an ideal vehicle for self-exploration and insight into one's work.

Third, interpreter educators can benefit from recognizing what kind of experts they are "training" interpreters to be: routine experts or adaptive experts. Too much of an emphasis on efficiency at the expense of innovation creates routine experts. Too much of a focus on language structure, step-by-step procedures, practice and analysis outside of real-world contexts, and practice "keeping up" can also create routine experts. More of a focus on managing the interpreting process, being mindful of one's knowledge and skills and the needs of the moment, making decisions in context, and fostering the effective use of conceptual frameworks and adaptability can create adaptive experts. Also, life-long learning is characteristic of adaptive experts, as adaptive experts are always learning and exploring new levels of understanding and new ways of approaching their work.

Interpreter educators, including Deaf and hearing mentors, can work with interpreting students and interpreters to increase their ability to interpret in the zone, to better understand how the conscious and unconscious work in successful interpreting work, and to understand the difference between routine and adaptive expertise. The field would benefit from having these as priorities and having these areas exist as themes throughout interpreting program curricula, in workshop/short-term trainings, and during mentorship.

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ASLTA forum

Keith Cagle[33]

Description

The ASLTA forum will provide an overview of ASLTA as a professional organization for ASL teachers. It will discuss several programs under the auspice of ASLTA: ASL Honor Society, evaluation and certification, and chapters. Afterward the participants in an audience will have an opportunity to ask some questions. Qualified ASL teachers are the foundation of many successful interpreting programs with ASL courses.

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Interpreting education for tomorrow

Cathy Cogen[34] and Dennis Cokely[35]

Description

Break out your crystal ball and join us for a conversation about the future of interpreting education! The National Interpreter Education Center (NIEC) has undertaken a forward-looking investigation with the goal of anticipating and planning for new challenges in interpreting education over the next decade. Carried out through surveys, interviews, and focus group sessions with Deaf community leaders, interpreters, interpreting educators, vocational rehabilitation professionals, and other key stakeholders, this effort seeks to understand the impact of changing demographics and technological innovation on the future interpreting needs of deaf children, youth, adults, and the aged. From there we consider possible implications of observable trends for preparation and credentialing of the next generation of interpreters. Come and share your own observations and the strategies your program might employ in teaching tomorrow's interpreting students.

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Effective interpreter feedback and instruction using GoREACT.com

Andrea Smith[36] and Sam Harris

University of South Florida and GoREACT

Abstract

New Internet-based technologies are solving many of the traditional challenges to effective instructor observation in interpreter training. The authors review how cloud-based video feedback and critique via the GoREACT software-as-a-service application can be used to improve student success, skill acquisition and development, including stimulus media synchronization and time-coded capture of written and video comments as part of ASL interpreter training curricula. Andrea Smith discusses how the use of GoREACT has helped the Interpreter Training Program at the University of South Florida improve the effectiveness of course instruction with minimal impact on the departmental budget. The use of web-based tools is providing a superior experience for tech savvy students over recordings on physical media, which are inherently bereft of any method for native feedback. This adoption of new technologies is allowing training programs to remain competitive and relevant. Specific improvements related to time-coded feedback and commentary between students and instructors and its incorporation are discussed.

Keywords: American Sign Language, education, interpreter training, video software, video feedback, software-as-a-Service, SaaS, improved student outcomes, GoREACT

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Effective interpreter feedback and instruction using GoREACT.com

Feedback is difficult. Effective feedback is even more so. In general, people do not like giving or receiving feedback. Regardless of the participants' feelings about feedback, it is an essential part of the learning process. It provides information to both the student and the instructor about the progress towards stated goals. For the student, it provides guidance in knowing the knowledge or skills they are attempting to develop, the progress towards accomplishing and attaining those skills, and what is required to complete the process. If done correctly, feedback from the instructor, peers, and even the student themselves can be very effective and an integral part of any program. If done incorrectly, it can lead to confusion, frustration, and possibility limited to no progress towards the desired knowledge or skill acquisition. In this paper, we will explore recent research regarding types of effective feedback, identify approaches to providing clear and constructive feedback, and finally how cloud-based video feedback and critique via the GoREACT software-as-a-service application can be used to improve student success and provide substantive feedback.

A long held belief and approach to feedback has been the "sandwich" method. Typically, a "negative" comment will be sandwiched between two "positive" comments thus making is easier for the student to receive and accept. This method functions under the premise that positive comments are better or more useful to the student than negative feedback. That is, the students should always leave the interaction feeling good about themselves and possibly their assigned task. Recent studies have found that this is not the case, at least not in every situation. In fact, students do not always desire positive feedback, especially by those with some level of competency in the subject area. A recent study in the Journal of Consumer Research concluded, "that as people gain expertise in pursuing a goal, they seek and respond more to negative feedback than to positive feedback" (Finkelstein & Fishbach, 2012, p. 23). For the purposes of this paper, positive feedback is constructive without being overly flattering and provides information to the student about their strengths, accomplishments and/or correct answers. Negative feedback should be clear and concise without being detrimental to the student and provides information to the student about their weaknesses and incorrect answers. This approach to tailoring student feedback to their skill level is fairly new and signals a paradigm shift in the perspective on feedback. The reason for the change in perspective is the understanding that a student's motivation affects the type of feedback they find beneficial. In general, when beginning language students receive positive feedback regarding their performance, they perceive that their goals are valid and valuable. In addition they are encouraged to continue to develop their skills and feel as though they can expect to attain the goals. Conversely, advanced students, those with some level of competency in the content, upon receiving positive feedback, perceive that they have made enough progress towards their stated goal and therefore have a reduction or cessation in motivation towards that goal. It actually stops progress towards their stated goal (Finkelstein & Fishbach, 2012, p. 23). With these results in mind, the natural progression of feedback within an interpreting program should be more positive and reinforcing feedback during the language acquisition phase such as beginning ASL courses, moving to more negative feedback during the interpreting skills development phase such as upper level interpreting and internship courses.

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Another frequent issue when providing feedback, especially to students, is the emotion that is typically tied to the process. Emotion can affect all participants in the feedback dynamic: instructors, peers, and student. Nobody enjoys being "the bad guy" or giving people a negative assessment. Nor do students enjoy receiving such feedback. As demonstrated above, an accurate assessment is beneficial to the student and any assessment must include an exploration of the student's deficits and weaknesses. Students must rely on faculty to provide constructive feedback, both positive and negative. The absence of such feedback causes the student to have a difficult time in determining how and what to improve. With feedback, the learning process is quicker and more effective, but it still stands that there is significant emotion involved in the process partially because the process is so personal for all the stakeholders. In general, when receiving feedback Cannon and Witherspoon's (2005) study states:

> People tend not to view themselves accurately, and they are not good at accurately perceiving how others are seeing them. Specifically, they see themselves more positively than others see them; thus critical feedback is likely to appear inaccurate, and receivers are likely to disagree with it. (p. 122)

Because of this, feedback is often perceived as a personal attack, especially if the information is related to the student's weaknesses or inaccuracies. When this happens, students are likely to experience stress, which in turn causes an increase in rigidity and a restriction in information processing (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). Given these findings, instructors should be careful in constructing feedback that will be beneficial but also in a style and format that leads to acceptance and integration by the student.

To this end, there are ways to improve the feedback that is provided to students and increase the potential for the feedback resulting in the intended purpose, that of changing the student's behavior and performance on a specific task. When giving feedback, especially that which is considered negative, it is important to ensure that the feedback focuses on the task as opposed to the person or self. Focusing on the person puts them immediately on the defensive and actually has an opposite effect on subsequent attempts. This is accomplished through the use of "I" statements instead of "you" statements. This also leads to the establishment of a constructive dialogue between the student and the instructor. Avoid vague or abstract feedback that can have multiple interpretations and can be difficult to understand. Vague feedback only encourages defensiveness and reinforces the assumption of the receiver that the giver is inaccurate and thus the student disregard the feedback altogether. Instead, instructor and peer feedback should be given with specific examples or illustrations of the observed errors. This assists the student in understanding the feedback and makes it more difficult to dismiss. Another key component to effective feedback is narrowing the applicability to issue. Too frequently, feedback is global without indication of when and under what conditions the problem occurs. When this happens, students often identify occurrences in times in which the problem does not occur and can therefore negate the feedback entirely. It does not promote a trusting relationship with the instructor and further encourages defensiveness of the student. Finally, instructors should remember to provide students with clear implications and impacts of the problem within the student's performance. Leaving this aspect of feedback unclear or unstated leaves the student unsure as to why the problem needs to be resolved or how to resolve it (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005).

With a clear understanding of the type of feedback that should be provided to students and pitfalls to avoid in giving feedback, it is important to understand how to give feedback that will be the most beneficial to students. First, research by Shute (2008) has concluded that feedback is more effective if it includes not only if the student was correct or incorrect, but also how to change or improve their performance. Moreover, if the feedback does not have sufficient specificity, students will perceive it as useless or frustrating. There are two types of information that feedback should provide in order for it to be considered effective: verification and elaboration. Verification simply provides the student with confirmation regarding whether an answer is correct or incorrect. Elaboration provides guidance to student about the course to take in order to correct any observed errors (Shute, 2008). In order for the feedback to be useful for a student to use to implement the desired change in behavior, the feedback must be specific enough to clearly demonstrate the error and provide direction for changing but not too complex or lengthy as to confuse or cause the student to lose interest. Finally, the timing of the feedback needs to be considered, whether to provide immediate feedback or delayed feedback. Immediate feedback is delivered to the student directly after the

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student has performed the requested task whereas delayed feedback occurs in a period of time after the student completes the performance. The research is mixed on this topic and there are supporters for each approach (Shute, 2008). There seems to be some research that suggests, "Low-achieving students may benefit from immediate feedback, whereas high-achieving students may prefer or benefit from delayed feedback" (Shute, 2008, p. 166). Regardless of which approach the instructor chooses to use, it is clear that feedback should be provided in a timeframe in which can be useful and allows for implementation. Put another way, feedback delayed too long, past the point where a student can internalize and apply it to future performances, becomes pointless and negatively affects a student's motivation. In this way, feedback can be compared to a good murder in that it requires "(a) *motive* (the student needs it), (b) *opportunity* (the student receives it in time to use it), and (c) *means* (the student is able and willing to use it)" (Shute, 2008, p. 175).

At this point an instructor may be wondering how to implement good feedback approaches within their individual classroom and how to apply this to an entire program while considering individual student needs and learning styles. The answer, like so many issues in American Sign Language and interpreting, is 'it varies depending on a number of factors.' What is important to understand is that there is no single approach or process that works with every student in every situation. It requires the instructor to tailor the feedback process to each situation and student, sometimes a feat easier said than done. According to Brookhart (2008), there are some general feedback principles that have varied strategies available to instructors (Feedback Strategies, Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1

Feedback Strategies	**Variations**	**Recommendations for Good Feedback**
Timing	• When given • How often	• Provide immediate feedback for knowledge of facts (right/wrong). • Delay feedback slightly for more comprehensive reviews of student thinking and processing. • Never delay feedback beyond when it would make a difference to students. • Provide feedback as often as is practical, for all major assignments.
Amount	• How many points made • How much about each point	• Prioritize—pick the most important points. • Choose points that relate to major learning goals. • Consider the student's developmental level.
Mode	• Oral • Written • Visual/demonstration	• Select the best mode for the message. Would a comment in passing the student's desk suffice? Is a conference needed? • Interactive feedback (talking with the student) is best when possible. • Give written feedback on written work or on assignment cover sheets. • Use demonstration if "how to do something" is an issue or if the student needs an example.
Audience	• Individual • Group/class	• Individual feedback says, "The teacher values my learning." • Group/class feedback works if most of the class missed the same concept on an assignment, which presents an opportunity for re-teaching.

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In order to provide effective feedback to students in a timely manner that fosters clarity and specificity, some instructors utilize various tools within ASL and interpreting instruction.

GoREACT is an elegant web-based software application for video feedback, grading and critique of speeches, presentations and performances. Because it was designed around videos and video feedback, it is ideal for remote, technology-enhanced formative feedback of videos captured on readily available webcams and handheld devices. Originally designed for public speaking coaches and university professors, GoREACT happened to be perfectly suited for the teaching of ASL and ASL Interpreter Training courses.

GoREACT is simple, easy to learn and implement, and cost-effective. Its pricing model makes it free for instructors and costs about the same per semester for students as buying lunch at the campus cafeteria ($15). Because it is cloud-based, any Internet-enabled classroom can easily adopt it. In short, GoREACT creates a low threshold for instructors who want a technology-enabled pedagogy at work in their classrooms, creating less time spent on administrative functions like managing various media, syncing feedback documents with that media and troubleshooting—instead spending time focused on teaching and student interactions.

A typical GoREACT setup is probably easier than creating a Facebook account. Instructors sign up for free, and create a course by inputting some very basic information. GoREACT then provides a link for instructors to share with students enrolled in the course. Students have a similarly straightforward online signup process, including paying a single fee for the duration of the course. With their respective login credentials, instructors and students are able to upload and critique videos (typically recorded via ubiquitous webcams or smartphone cameras).

Within the classroom

GoREACT allows for both feedback on recorded presentations and feedback on live presentations. For recorded presentations, students can upload videos of their presentation assignments. Instructors and/or peers can provide feedback in five ways: text, audio comments, video comments, ratings/scores, and evaluations based on customizable structured rubrics. All feedback is time-coded to the point in the uploaded recording, or the live recording where the comment is made. Comments can be replied to creating comment threads.

For example, instructors could give students an assignment to record themselves interpreting a speech. The speech could be live (as long as the student can record themselves), an instructor-provided presentation, or something as simple as a YouTube video. The student records their interpretation and uploads the video recording in GoREACT where it is attached to the specific assignment, course and instructor. Instructors then review the recordings and provide feedback, which is immediately available to the student.

Another example is a peer-review session. One student or group gives a presentation in ASL in front of the class. Classmates in the audience are logged in to GoREACT and can make comments on the presentation in real time. When an aspect of the presentation stimulates feedback, students simply begin entering it through any of the available methods and their comments are automatically time-coded to the moment in the presentation that is currently being recorded. This approach to feedback creates multiple student touch points and an enriching overall experience. By involving students in the feedback process, they get the benefits of experiencing presentations as instructors, enriching their experience with the content and reinforcing the learning at the heart of the course objectives. As they make their comments, they also enjoy the benefit of seeing the comments of others. Instructors can then add additional comments, effectively curating the feedback from the entire class. Students have access to their feedback by the time they take their seats.

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Homework

Because GoREACT is web-based, it is location-agnostic. Its use need not be limited to the classroom. Participants can upload videos and provide feedback anywhere they can access the Internet. That means the value of GoREACT does not end when students leave the classroom. Homework assignments can be made, videos uploaded and critiques made between classes as well. Students can create videos of themselves and then critique their own videos for self-assessment, and can seek out feedback from other students independently from the instructor's feedback.

Internship and Online Courses

As a web-based application, GoREACT not only extends beyond the classroom, it can be used with no classroom at all. Internships, special projects and online courses can all benefit from the feedback loop between teacher and learner, regardless of location.

Feedback continues to be an integral part of ASL and interpreter instruction. Instructors need to understand the function it serves and tailor the type of feedback to the specific type of learner in their class. By understanding the learner's feedback needs and the type of feedback that is most conducive, positive versus negative, as it relates to their language competency, the instructor can provide timely and effective feedback to students in a way the learner can readily access it. Using GoREACT as a vehicle for providing this feedback improves the amount and substance of the feedback and allows instructors a variety of avenues (written English, signed videos, peer feedback, etc.) to enrich the student learning experience.

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The essence of complexity lies in the individual elements

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Abstract

This paper aims to point out the pedagogical importance of making the complex interpreting process comprehensible to interpreter students when developing their interpreting skills. It suggests that Daniel Gile´s (2009) effort model can be used as a vehicle for this purpose. This theoretical framework will enhance the development of a common understanding of interpretation among students and educators. By scrutinizing the effort areas the students will be provided tools for understanding, analyzing, and practicing the individual elements of which the interpreting process consists. By using this approach consciously developed automatizations can be created making it possible to direct energy to areas of the interpreting process that cannot be automatized. The paper also suggests the above mentioned approach can be applied to in-service training and professional development. Parallels are also drawn to the world of sports where the mastery of individual elements of performance can be the difference between victory and defeat.

Keywords: Interpreting process, The effort model, teaching sign language interpreting, interpreter education, n-service training, professional development

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The essence of complexity lies in the individual elements

Over the years we have seen a great change in the concept of interpreting. From being regarded as something more or less one-dimensional, we know today, interpreting is something very complex, demanding and multi-faceted. We have moved away from "helpers" via conduits to a model where interpreters are seen as one of the constituents of the interaction in which they take part (Metzger, 1999; Napier, 2002; Wadensjö, 1998).

The deeper knowledge about interpreting gained does provide us with a number of components required for successful interpretations. Still there is an ongoing discussion about the "competence gap" between the knowledge and skills provided by interpreter education programs and the expectations from the field after graduation (Witter-Merithew & Johnson, 2005). In the article the gap between theory and practice is explained. It might be that gained knowledge has not yet fully influenced interpreter education. Other reasons for this gap are related to the escalated demands and raised expectations from society, consumers as well as interpreters themselves. Additionally the range and complexity of settings have increased, each with their unique demands regarding language, behavior and protocol.

From my experience, the knowledge about the complexity of interpreting is well integrated in interpreter education programs on a theoretical level but not so well from a practical and "hands-on" perspective. It seems the observations I have done in Sweden parallel those of Witter-Merithew and Johnson (2005) in the U.S.

In the training of interpreters we still consider the interpretation process as a whole. When practicing and preparing students for the profession, the approach in exercises and analyses still focus on the interpreting process as a single event instead of a complex combination of individual elements. The same approach can also be seen when it comes to professional development. This paper focus on the pedagogical importance of addressing the individual elements of the interpreting process as a tool for students and for working interpreters to enhance and/or develop their own understanding and mastery of interpreting.

The Interpreting Process

As an educator, I have found it necessary to provide students with a theoretical framework when teaching interpreting. This shared theoretical framework becomes fundamental for students' understanding of interpretation on a conceptual level. It also contributes to developing a common language and mutual understanding when discussing and analyzing interpretations.

Cokely (1992) notes that:

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> There are certain difficulties in determining the range of possible miscues causes and then discovering a specific cause for a given miscue. Perhaps the major difficulty is that, since interpretation is a cognitive process, only the results of that process are observable. (p. 123)

One of the risks of not having an interpreting process model to rely on can be that too much focus is put on the final product, the production of the target language text. It is quite natural to focus on the only part of the interpreting process that is accessible and concrete to both the interpreter and others. A problem or error in the interpretation process will definitely appear in this final production phase but may typically be caused earlier in the process. When focusing too much on the production part while analyzing interpretations, it might lead to that the symptom is treated rather than the disease.

In this paper, as well as in my teaching, the basic theoretical framework I use to describe the interpreting process is Daniel Gile's (2009) effort model. The students find it comprehensible and comprehensive, which makes it a useful tool from the initial stage of education. It has a great advantage since it can be presented to students without too many details. As a part of the learning process, the students themselves can develop ancillaries of the four main areas that Gile's effort model is built upon.

As noted above, this model helps students move their focus from the production of a source text to involve the other parts of the interpreting process. This is an important step to incorporating a theoretical approach to interpreting. In the first stage, this is done by retrospection, using recordings as stimulated recall, and later as a part of the monitoring of an ongoing interpretation. This approach will also ensure the student will not regard the task of interpretation as a mechanical procedure, but as a cognitive process. Since development of reflection is one of the prerequisites for this approach, it becomes a powerful tool for continuing the learning process even after graduation.

Before presenting Gile's (2009) effort model, it is important to mention the two suppositions his model is based upon:

- Interpreting requires some sort of 'mental energy' that is only available in limited supply.
- Interpreting takes up almost all of this, mental energy, and sometimes requires more than is available, at which times performance deteriorates. (p. 159)

Having said that, Gile presents his model as consisting of four basic efforts required in interpreting: the listening and analysis effort, the memory effort, the production effort, and the coordination effort. Here follows a very brief explanation of these efforts.

In the *listening and analysis effort* all operations related to comprehension are taking place. It involves perception of sound or the visual input, linguistic structures and semantics, as well as social codes and cultural content. Even if the interpreting process cannot be regarded as linear, this part of the process must be considered as the starting point of the actual interpreting activity.

The *memory effort* is the short-term or working memory that plays an important role in simultaneous interpreting. Since there is always a lag time, or décalage, between the perception of the original utterance and the production of the target text, the memory effort is constantly engaged. During this lag the short-term memory stores the information it receives before the interpreter produces it. Except from the minimal time lag arising from reaction time between the perception and the production phase, short-term memory can be used as a tool for efficient interpretation.

The relationship between lag time and accurate renditions in interpretations is described by, among others, Dennis Cokely (1992). The short-term memory is the basic resource for storage of content units that cannot be instantly processed. This can be the case when the interpreter might require more information, for example lexical or contextual, before completely understanding an utterance. Short-term memory is also used for storing less dense units of source text that give way to more complex or heavy units as the needs shift, to avoid cognitive overload.

The *production effort* is used for the production of the target text. Here, the interpreter decides how to convey the content of the source text and the aims of the speaker into the target text produced. One could say that the *production effort* linguistically re-creates the concepts, the mental representations and the intentions of the source text in the language of the target text. This part of the interpreting process is, as previously mentioned, the only observable part.

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The *coordination effort,* the fourth and last effort, may be the one most complicated and difficult to understand. It has been described by Lorraine Leeson (2005) as "…the air-traffic controller for the interpretation that takes place." The *coordination effort* provides each of the efforts the amount of energy required when it is in line with the interpreter's capacity to conduct the task at hand (p. 57). Within the *coordination effort* also lies self-monitoring performed during interpretation, which provides the 'air-controller' with information about how to allocate the amount of energy available.

It is important to stress that the effort model is not static; the efforts may need differing amounts of energy from time to time or segment to segment. The *memory effort* will need more energy if a source text consists of many sub clauses. The *listening and analysis effort* will require more energy in a noisy environment. The *production effort* will be challenged if the interpreter is forced to use unfamiliar expressions during the interpretation. As Gile (2009) states,

> At each point in time, each Effort has specific processing capacity requirements that depend on the task(s) it is engaged in ... Due to high variability of requirements depending on the speech segments, processing capacity requirements of individual Efforts can vary rapidly over time, in seconds or fractions of seconds. (p. 169)

Gile gives a theoretical basis for how to make students and interpreters aware of the areas involved in the process in a practical way. Except for the coordination effort, the other three efforts are quite concrete and understandable for students as they are "natural" areas. I say natural because interpreters, together with practically everyone else, deal with these efforts on daily basis while communicating.

When analyzing an interpretation and discussing what actually happened during the task, the effort areas are easy to relate to and it makes the interpreting process understandable. However, to restrict the discussion to use only the labels mentioned will make this discussion and analysis a blunt pedagogical tool since the discussion will be too superficial. To create a deeper understanding of what really takes place in the process of interpreting, it is necessary to break down the effort areas into the categories' elements. This can be done by the students themselves which, again, becomes a pedagogical vehicle for their own development in interpreting. What is important to bear in mind is that these elements are and must be 'natural' features in order to be meaningful and possible to exercise.

Scrutinizing the interpreting process elements

Before a student enters the field of interpreting, it is desirable that he or she has a well-developed command of as many of the interpreting process elements as possible. An ideal teaching situation would be to have students who are fluent in at least the signed and the spoken language of the education program as well as their related cultures. But the Swedish structure of the educational system limits the opportunities to learn Swedish Sign Language as a second or foreign language. The limited time frame of interpreter education programs is a challenge as well. Equally difficult is the development of pedagogical methods for acquiring effective interpreting skills while continuing to develop language proficiency. In addition, it is necessary for students to be provided tools for continuous self-monitored development and life long learning skills.

As an educator (and a sports fan) I have many times found the world of sports a useful analogy to interpreting. Athletes do not develop their skills by playing the game; they spend more time in the gym preparing than on a field or a court actually competing. One sport in which precision and body control is very important is curling. An absolute requirement for being able to throw a stone on the ice with perfect precision is very good balance in the upper body. This balance will never be achieved by only playing the game. The prerequisite for such balance is very strong abdominal muscles that must be exercised separately in a gym. So, to be able to perform well in curling, as well as in other sports, the elements of the physical parts of the performance need to be isolated, examined and developed.

The task at hand for students and educators is to develop and strengthen the areas into which the efforts are directed. Even if students do not regard the interpreting process as a single event, the four areas are wide and consist

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of interrelated elements. In order to assist the student in strengthening an effort area the educator must break down this effort area into its smallest well-functioning part. From that point, the task is to challenge the student in strengthening and developing the particular skill. This is achieved trough a combination of theory and practice.

This approach is derived from Vygotsky's (1978) theory of the zone of proximal development (ZPD), which he defines as:

> ...the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers. (p. 86)

Within the ZPD, learning is effective and meaningful because it starts within an area of internal mastery and reaches out to a comprehensible but challenging field for the student.

The analogy to interpreter education is that the student might be able to master an element to a certain extent in a non-interpreting context, but not when interpreting. The fact is, as we will see later, performance deteriorates during interpretation. That means trying to develop the particular skill while struggling with the interpreting process in parallel is to work 'beyond' the ZPD.

The "adult guidance" mentioned by Vygotsky is in this case, represented by the educator's support in scrutinizing the students interpretations or exercises. The students' own reflections of the performance will be, when formulated in words, equivalent to a dialogue with "a more capable peer" since it is based on a theoretical framework.

In this dialogue, the student can identify problems, categorize them in terms of effort, and subsequently, delve deeper into their issues. By disaggregating the observations, the student will create a deeper understanding of the interpreting process in general and on a personal level as well. This is achieved when individual elements of one's own interpreting process are identified, analyzed and confirmed as either functional or areas for further improvement. Another advantage of putting more focus on analyzing is the creation of confidence in monitoring the ongoing interpretation. By noting the feeling accompanying the performance, the student will, when analyzing, calibrate the feeling with the performance. When entering the profession, a lot of wasted worry can be avoided when one can trust one's monitoring signals.

Combining the interpretation process components

Still, mastering the four effort areas is not enough for interpreting; the mastery of combining the elements is an additional, separate component.

Probably all interpreter educators have been in a class where simultaneous interpretation is introduced and have seen students unconsciously leave out chunks of information. When analyzing and discussing these omissions the student often claims the speaker never expressed the omitted chunk since the student could not recall it. When showing a recording from the interpretation it becomes obvious to the student that there was a cognitive overload. The mental energy available was not sufficient to fulfill the task. Unconsciously, the entire process "shut down" except for the ongoing production of the target text at that particular point in time. When the sentence or chunk is rendered, the *coordination effort* opens up the process again and the interpretation continues.

Another recurring trait in students' interpreting performance is the obvious deterioration of language proficiency. It is clear their command of language drops a level or two while interpreting as compared to a spontaneous conversation or presentation. This is not necessarily related to complex source texts; it occurs even when the source text is slow, not dense and the content is familiar to the interpreting student. This phenomenon is not only valid for students or new interpreters. It would be easy to refer to the deterioration as an insufficient mastery of target language, but Gile (2009) claims that even simple linguistic mistakes are made by experienced interpreters and therefore, such errors can not be explained by lack of understanding or command of the languages (p. 157).

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What students face during the above mentioned deterioration is not necessarily a problem within the effort areas. It might be related to the combination of the different elements involved.

Many writers and researchers describe the difficult and complex activity of interpreting. Jones (2002), for example, claims interpreting is abnormal. He states:

> ... cultivating split attention is an unnatural activity .... The way to cope with it is to maintain a maximum of concentration and very deliberately and very consciously address your attention to the two discourses in question. (p. 70)

Jones goes on to compare simultaneous interpreting to playing the piano. He claims both are unnatural behaviors. However, both are possible given that the effort required is provided and the activities are practiced. To learn how to play the piano it is necessary to do it step by step or "hand by hand" (Jones, 2002). By first playing a scale or a tune with one hand and then adding the other hand, playing the same melody, the step to play separate melodies or chords is not so great. The activity can become even more complicated and unnatural when the pianist is able to read sheet music while playing. The result, according to Jones, is an unnatural activity. But again, what is important to bear in mind is that this "unnatural activity" consists of "natural" elements practiced in isolation. It becomes unnatural when the activities involved are combined.

Athletes do what most of us non-athletes can do. They run, jump, swim or kick a ball. The difference between them and us is the speed, quality, precision, and of course, the conditions in which these activities are carried out. One can say athletes do natural things in an unnatural way, not unlike interpreters.

By regarding the interpreting process as a single event, it will remain an unnatural activity. By approaching the interpreting process as a multi layered activity, it will allow us to break it down into smaller comprehensible, manageable and natural units. When these units are identified they can be developed, enhanced, and combined to perform successful interpretations.

Automatization

Gile states that interpreting requires almost all mental energy available in the interpreter and sometimes more. Following this premise, an efficient way to develop interpreting skills must be focused on diminishing mental energy from some of the elements within the interpreting process.

It seems human beings tend to attempt to reduce the load of effort in all activities or operations that are highly energy-consuming. The development of "shortcuts" or automatization is an inevitable consequence of a tiresome complexity, as in the case of the interpretation task.

Here it is important to stress that operations performed during interpretation can be both automatic and non-automatic. This fact is stated by Gile (2009). He also refers to other sources claiming that distinction between automatic and non-automatic operations sometimes can be difficult since non-automatic operations after many repetitions can become automatic (p. 159).

In my teaching I have simplified this part by defining the four effort areas as non-automatic while the elements of the effort areas are possible to automatize. This automatization is a natural process but there is a risk that these shortcuts are not efficient, or even worse, not beneficial to the interpreting process – especially if developed by non-analyzed repetitions only. To ensure appropriate and effective automatizations, they must be developed consciously and be reflected on by the student. For this reason, it is important that exercises are designed to balance the mental energy available with the energy required for the task. This means during the exercise, students must be given the opportunity to carry out the task, focusing on the core element. Later, the student can analyze it allowing for adjustments made "on the go". Such an approach will support the creation of "pre-analyzed" conscious automatizations.

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If an exercise is performed without targeted efforts, the analysis of the task will not occur and the risk of non-beneficial automatizations will increase. This occurs when the exercise is designed, for example, as an actual interpretation. By changing the format or goal of the exercise, the expectations of the outcome will be different. This then can release mental energy from the production effort. The stress related to performance of an equivalent interpretation will be reduced and by doing that more energy can be directed to the specific target of the exercise.

As noted earlier, the complexity of performance lies in the individual elements, including the ability to combine them. But successful coordination of the elements will not be achieved if the elements themselves require too much effort to be carried out. In the same way, it will not be efficient to try to strengthen or develop individual elements if the main part of the effort cannot be directed to the specific 'natural' target element.

By example, here again, the parallel to the world of sports comes in handy. When an ice hockey team is struggling during a game with difficulties in box-play, the coach will address the issue during the match and give instructions to the players on how to improve that particular part of their playing. The real work of improvement, however, will be done during practices afterwards. Areas of improvement will be analyzed by reviewing recordings and notes from the game. Thereafter, on the ice, the players will practice how to play a man short. This is done in a situation where the players can focus only on their position on the ice, and how to think and develop their defensive skills without the pressure of looking out for their opponents. The risk of the other team scoring or the over all pressure that comes from being in a game setting is lessened. The breakdown of the improvement area will result in the development of conscious automatizations that will become natural elements to the players and be performed with less effort.

I have experienced the problems arising when it becomes necessary to change an element in an automatized behavior of interpreting. A good example is from the area of track and field hurdles. To be able to run faster, it can be necessary to alter the length of steps between the hurdles. The athlete has to practice the new elements of the technique step by step in order to implement the adjustment. In the initial phase of realigning automatized behavior, one small adjustment will cause deterioration in the performance. In these cases, the automatized technique has to be disaggregated and the new elements must be practiced in isolation. Then step-by-step, these will be exercised in combinations that, after a while, will require a lesser amount of energy. Often it is more difficult to change a technique than learn a new one. The automatized operation will take precedence over the new technique and the concentration it takes to avoid falling in to old patterns costs a lot of mental energy. By slowly increasing the level of complexity, the new automatized technique will develop without interference from other energy-consuming elements. Eventually the athlete will finally reach the solid stage where it is possible to master the new technique in competition.

Teaching working interpreters

As difficult as it is to learn and develop interpreting skills in students, it can be even more challenging to change patterns of interpreting processes and practices in professional interpreters. From the experience gained over the years working with in-service training and coaching, I have learned that a theoretical framework as a vehicle for discussing and developing new approaches to interpreting is crucial for professionals for the same reasons as for beginners. For both the student and the professional interpreter, the disaggregating of the interpreting process will result in individual, comprehensible and manageable elements.

As previously noted, it takes a lot of mental energy to resist the usual low energy consuming behavior of automatized interpreting. Because of this, again it is necessary to design exercises that assist the interpreter from falling into their usual pattern of behavior. The exercises must be something different from what is usually performed. Such design will help the interpreter focus on the target issue of the exercise. It will also create a greater awareness of the interpreting process and the elements that need to be reflected upon.

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A parallel to the gravitational model

Daniel Gile has also developed a gravitational model of linguistic availability (2009). The model is based on a description of an atom made by Bohr. Gile is using a figure where the center is a nucleus and in various distances from the nucleus the language constituents (LC) orbit like electrons. In brief, one could say the more frequent an LC is used or exposed, the closer to the nucleus it will orbit. By that, the LC will become more available with less effort than the ones further away from the nucleus. When stimulating an LC, it also brings related LCs closer to the nucleus.

This gravitational model could also be applied to the idea of identifying elements of students' individual effort areas. Scrutinizing and analyzing the elements will stimulate the elements and move them closer to nucleus. When this automatization process is completed, the operation becomes available with less effort. By then the automatization of the specific element will be completed through a conscious process. The closer to the nucleus the operations are, the more easily they can be controlled and used as an efficient, low-effort consuming element of the ongoing interpreting process.

The development of the effort area elements in a conscious process will give the individual interpreter better opportunities to evaluate the interpretation conducted. The more consciously developed elements the interpreting includes, the more likely the interpretation will be successful. And last but not least, the interpreter will be more confident knowing the interpretation consists of solid elements.

Exercises

After giving this more theoretical and pedagogical perspective on the interpreting process, it is time to be more practical. It is important to stress that what has been identified as an individual element in need of improvement cannot always be exercised in total isolation. If a student, for example, is speaking too fast when interpreting, it is not possible to exercise a slower production pace without speaking and have something to say. The reduction of effort in the exercise can be obtained by giving a planned speech in the first stage, then, summarize a stimuli text, first intralingually and then interlingually. Before it is applied in a simultaneous setting, it can be performed in a consecutive interpreting mode. The goal must be to reduce the number of energy consuming parts of the process during the exercise. The structure mentioned above is applicable for most exercises since it helps the students to focus on the main task of the exercise. The first stage of exercises should be as "natural" as possible, for example, giving a speech. Here I will not mention specific exercises but instead, give examples of a few that can be used in the next stage when individual elements are combined and of which a few also can be used as interpreting strategies later on. (It is important to stress that the main purpose of the exercises mentioned here is to strengthen and develop elements of the four effort areas. Examples of interpreting techniques (Jones, 2002) and interpreting strategies (Gile, 2009; Leeson, 2005) are not the target here.

An exercise related to the *listening and analysis effort* is to let the student watch or listen to a pre-recorded source text and, from a personal view, comment on it from a range of perspectives. For example, have students identify complicated linguistic patterns from a contrastive perspective, identify terminology in the text, comment on the overall idea of the text or the intention of the speaker. Russell and Winston (2014) have studied the latter from a different perspective. They found higher cognitive thinking skills beneficial to the interpreting process. In their study, the effective interpreters had broad world knowledge, which they were able to apply to the interpreting context. When commenting on a source text, which should later be interpreted, the interpreters who rendered the most successful interpretations had higher order reflections. For example, they did not focus on the source text on a lexical level but on a contextual level understanding the intent and purpose of the speaker's utterance (p. 118-120). The findings in their study give strong support for this kind of exercise.

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To enhance the *memory effort* and extend time lag, one exercise can be to start the rendition in a different way than the stimuli text is formulated. That is to change the word order, avoid an initial rhetorical question, etc. This can be done both in consecutive and later in simultaneous interpreting.

Another exercise, which is a more simultaneous approach, the stimuli text can be paused to help the student to detach from the stimuli text structure, i.e. paraphrasing. If possible a third language text can be used as the stimuli. In a Swedish setting, an English text can be a tool to avoid interference in the production of, for example, Swedish Sign language from the stimuli language structure. The benefit of using a third language is it helps the student to avoid unconscious interference and borrowings. The disadvantage is the listening and analysis process requires more effort, therefore the stimuli text has to be chosen very carefully. T his exercise can be based both on clauses and paragraphs of the source text. The first step of this exercise can give the student a pre-decided time lag to delay the start of the rendition. It is important to bear in mind when introducing an exercise like this that a time lag without an analysis activity is of no benefit to the interpreting process in the long run. The aim of the exercise is extension of time lag and to automatize parts of the memory storage in order to gain larger chunks of information to process. An extended lag without directing effort to the analyzing capacity will only serve to maintain the status quo.

To enhance control over the *production effort*, one exercise may have students only make renditions in main clauses. By doing this the production of the target text will be in focus and relationships between clauses have to be expressed explicitly. In order to reduce the effort load it is, in the beginning, very useful to give students the opportunity to control the stimuli text themselves. From experience I know it takes a lot of effort to interrupt the ongoing interpreting process and ask a speaker to pause, repeat or clarify. This switch of tasks or processes is very effort demanding. It can be compared to jumping off a bicycle in motion. By giving the students the opportunity to control the stimuli text it will help them later not only to pause the process but also enhance the monitoring capacity. It will give them an understanding of when to pause, initially the stimuli text and later a speaker, and how to do it properly.

To produce renditions in main clauses has been found very efficient in training of professionals because it forces them to break automatized behaviors of the interpreting process.

Other exercises, in brief, could be to avoid redundancy both in the students' own language production and later, in the renditions of the stimuli text. The activity can be designed to initially avoid one´s own produced reiterations and later on, subtler redundancy from the stimuli text. This task is related to monitoring one's work as a part of the *coordination effort*, the *production effort* as well as the *listening and analysis effort.* Another exercise related to the same efforts can be to identify and express only the main idea of the stimuli text. Names and numbers can be expressed as soon as possible in renditions since they often demand a lot of energy in the *memory effort.* In order to strengthen elements of the *memory and listening and analysis effort* students can, in renditions of stimuli texts, constantly use proper nouns instead of pronouns. As a final example of exercises recapitulation or summary can be used at different intervals in order to enhance the monitoring of the rendition.

Summary

To teach interpreting efficiently requires a theoretical framework to make students understand the abstract cognitive demanding process of interpreting. In this article it is suggested that Gile´s (2009) effort model is a very useful tool in making the process of interpreting comprehensible to students. Gile states that interpreting requires almost all mental energy available in the interpreter, and sometimes even more. Gile also divides the process into four *efforts* namely *the analyzing and listening effort,* the *memory effort,* the *production effort* and the *coordination effort.* The benefit of this effort model is that the four areas are comprehensible and makes the abstract interpreting process concrete. It also helps students and teachers develop a common language and understanding of interpretation when analyzing and discussing interpretations and exercises.

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If the interpreting process is considered as one single event, it will be incomprehensible for students and impossible to exercise and develop. From a pedagogical perspective, even the four effort areas are too complex to use on a basic level when it comes to practice and exercises since they consists of combinations of individual elements. The combination of elements requires effort to be performed and therefore, the effort areas must be scrutinized further. When single elements become concrete to the students, the elements and combinations can be developed and reflected upon. This allows mental energy to be directed to the evaluation of the exercise outcome. This approach will be a means to obtain effective and conscious operations within the interpreting process.

When scrutinizing the effort areas it is possible to design exercises within the students individual "zone of proximal development" (Vygotsky, 1980) and by lessening or increasing the required mental effort in to an exercise, students can develop conscious automatizations which then allows effort to be used in other parts of the interpreting process.

By realizing the complexity lies in the individual elements of the operations of the interpreting process, a more efficient and individually based development can be achieved, both among students and professionals. By being able to break down the interpreting process into individual elements, students and interpreters will have a structure for evaluating their own interpretations and tools for continuous development on their own.

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Faults and obscurities in this paper are all mine.

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Going forward, is interpreting a viable career?

Theresa Smith[38]

Description

Historically, as a field of interpreter educators, we have addressed how best to teach the language and skills necessary to perform well as interpreters in various venues and how to select and support students who will do well in our programs. This session, will take a *different tack*, to look at the element of compensation (financial and other) for those working in the field. Comparing the current compensation paid for Seattle interpreters, public school teachers and Registered Nurses, we find interpreters are compensated at a rate of 59% and 61% respectively. "What," we must ask, "keeps interpreters in the field today, and what would need to change in order to assure the field of interpreting will, going forward, draw and retain intelligent, competent and responsible practitioners? Given the current fiscal environment, how sustainable are the present conditions?" and "What are the implications for us as educators?"

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CCIE Forum

Len Robertson,[39] Phyllis Wilcox, Elisa Maroney, and Keith Cagle

Description

The Commission on Collegiate Interpreter Education (CCIE) has been the accrediting body for Interpreter Education Programs since 2006. The role of CCIE has become more significant as students become more savvy and rigorous in their pursuit of excellence in the interpreter education programs they select. While accrediting programs is CCIE's primary goal, another equally important charge is "the development and revision of interpreter education standards." Over the last 8 years, as CCIE has been actively involved in reviewing programs and committee work, gaining feedback from programs, raters, commissioners, and other stakeholders, the standards have been revised. The purpose of this presentation is to highlight the significance of accreditation and how it impacts our profession, IEP programs, and students, to highlight CCIE accredited programs, update the CIT membership on CCIE's activities, and to discuss the current standards and the process used in their revision.

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Teaching ASL in the flipped classroom

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Abstract

More and more instructors are encouraged to use the flipped classroom. However, there seems to be some confusion as to what it is and how it can benefit ASL instruction. This paper will provide an introduction to the flipped classroom model along with the four pillars (features) of the flipped classroom as well as explain the advantages and challenges of incorporating it in the ASL curriculum. In addition, this paper will provide examples of teaching ASL in the flipped classroom along with guidelines of how to teach ASL in the flipped classroom.

Keywords: Flipped classroom, ASL, ASL education

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Teaching ASL in the flipped classroom

More and more instructors are hearing about the flipped classroom. Many American Sign Language (ASL) instructors have often, more than not, deemed the flipped classroom as inappropriate for the ASL classroom. This paper attempts to explain the flipped classroom model and how it can be applied to the ASL classroom.

Background

The flipped classroom model has been around for ages (Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Colborn, 2012; Saban, 2013; Tucker, 2012). However, two Colorado high school educators, Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams, have been credited with its recent popularity (Boyer, 2013; Fulton, 2012; Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight, & Arfstrom, 2013; Horn, 2013; Schaffhauser, 2009). As chemistry educators, they knew that "lectures (were) necessary to convey content, but experiential learning (was) more effective at constructing and solidifying knowledge" (Bergmann & Sams, 2008, p. 22). They realized how important this was when their students missed classes due to illnesses or school competitions. They began by podcasting and vodcasting their lessons and eventually realized that they could reconfigure their classes so that the lectures were available to all students and their classes were reserved for lab activities, demonstrations, one-on-one assistance, and small group tutoring (Bergmann & Sams, 2008), all of which were student-centered activities that led to increased student interaction. Realizing the benefits of this model, Bergmann & Sams (2008) began flipping their classes and eventually wrote a book, *Flip Your Classroom: Reach Every Student in Every Class Every Day* (Bergmann & Sams, 2012) as well as established a not-for-profit Flipped Learning Network TM (FLN) to assist instructors with the knowledge, skills, and resources to successfully implement the flipped classroom model (Hamdan et al., 2013).

Definitions

In the flipped classroom, classwork and homework are reversed (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Du, Fu, & Wang, 2014; Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000). Saban (2013) explained, "instruction occurs at home while class time is used to work on applying the material with assistance from the instructor" (p. 2). He further explained that students review lectures, read articles, explore the material at home while the class time is reserved for students and educators to work together (Saban, 2013). This model actually attempts to fix the traditional lecture model of instruction by allowing students to

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use class time to absorb the material through problem solving and skill development with valuable one-on-one assistance from their instructors (Berrett, 2012; Loftus, 2014; McLachlin, 2013; Talbert, 2012).

Hamdan et al. (2013) explained that in the flipped classroom, educators "shift direct learning out of the large group learning space and move it into the individual learning space, with the help of one of several technologies" (p. 4). For example, they might create videos of themselves lecturing or compile video lessons from various websites such as TED-Ed and Khan Academy or record and narrate screencasts of work they do on their computer desktops (Hamdan et. al., 2013). Students then view and/or listen to the material on their own time and however as many times as needed to enable them to come to class better prepared (Houston & Lin, 2012). As Hamdan et al. (2013) explained, instructors are able to capitalize on the students' preparation, allowing them to devote more opportunities for integrating and applying their knowledge through student-centered activities. Thus, instructors become less a "presenter" and more a "learning coach" (Bergmann & Sams, 2012), forcing students to become active participants in their own learning (Lage et al., 2010).

Bergmann and Sams (2008) gave an example how their classes had changed before and after vodcasting.

Before vodcasting	
Warm-up activity	5 minutes
Go over previous night's homework	20 minutes
Lecture new content	30-45 minutes
Guided and independent practice or lab activity	20-35 minutes
After vodcasting	
Warm-up activity	5 minutes
Q & A time on podcast with chemical demonstration	10 minutes
Lecture new content	0 minutes
Guided and independent practice or lab activity	75 minutes

Although Bergmann and Sams (2008) used videos for their flipped classroom model, Colborn (2012) has explained that technologies, especially videos, are not required for the flipped classroom model and that course content can be delivered in a number of ways. For example, many professors require students to read the textbook or perhaps watch videos prior to coming to class. Law schools often use the Socratic method of questioning where students come to class prepared to answer questions after reading the material ahead of time. As Colborn (2012) summarized, "The ease of using video has brought 'flipping' to the forefront at this time, but good teachers have long used similar methods to achieve the same ends" (p. 8).

Nonetheless, the flipped classroom has been identified as similar to online, blended/hybrid, and distance learning courses. Online courses occur remotely and the educator and students never meet face-to-face (Oblinger & Oblinger, 2005). Often, the students would take courses entirely online through a course management website such as Blackboard, Desire2Learn (D2L), Litmos, or ANGEL Learning. They never meet with their professors or their classmates face-to-face. Blended/hybrid courses have both an online component and direct student-educator contact and this can take many forms (Allen, Seaman, & Garrett, 2007). For example, students might attend lectures face-to-face, but do their assignments on a course management system. Other blended courses might meet face-to-face every other week or perhaps once a month instead of the usual twice a week along with the online component. Distance learning is education that occurs without the physical presence of the assigned instructor (Keegan, 2006). Like blended/hybrid education, this can take many forms. For example, a group of students can meet in a classroom in a rural area while watching a Skype video of an educator lecturing for the course. There may be a facilitator present in the classroom to assist with technological issues and/or to collect homework assignments. Unlike the three, the flipped classroom occurs when classwork and homework are inverted and students become agents of their own

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learning rather than objects of instruction inside the classroom (Hamdan et al., 2013). The use of technologies does not necessarily guarantee that the flipped classroom model will be incorporated into the curriculum.

Four Pillars of the Flipped Classroom

A group of experienced instructors from the Flipped Learning Network along with Pearson's School Achievement Services identified the four key features, or pillars, of the flipped classroom model (Hamdan et al., 2013). The four pillars have been identified as F-L-I-P, flexible environment, learning culture shift, intentional content, and professional educator and they are elaborated below.

1. Flexible Environments – The flipped classroom model requires that students do their classwork at home and their homework in the classroom. Bringing homework or what is otherwise depicted as student-centered activities into the classroom can make for a chaotic and noisy environment, one that many instructors are not used to accommodating as opposed to the traditional lecture where students sit quietly and passively (Hamdan et al., 2013). Being flexible can allow for flexible environments that can lead to greater learning opportunities.
2. Learning Culture Shift – In the flipped classroom, educators are no longer the "sage on the stage" (King, 1993), but a facilitator, a learning coach, a tutor, and sometimes all at once (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). Not only that, students who are used to being passive learners are now having to do their homework and other activities in the classroom. For both of them, this requires a shift in the learning culture in both the classroom and at home (Hamdan et. al., 2013).
3. Intentional Content – The flipped classroom requires careful planning and determining what content will be taught and/or explored at home versus the content that will be taught and/or explored in the classroom through various student-centered activities (Hamdan et al., 2013). Students require sufficient preparation at home to be able to adequately participate in student-centered activities in the classroom. Without this planning, educators may very easily revert to the traditional lecture model.
4. Professional Educators – In the flipped classroom, the content is inverted by what is usually learned at home and what is usually explored in the classroom. With this approach, the learning environment often becomes chaotic and noisy. Students are also empowered to ask questions and to challenge themselves and, more often than not, their educators. This model requires professional educators who are able to adapt to needs of their students in this changing environment. They are no longer educators who control everything, but must continually observe their students, provide feedback, and continually assess their work. As Hamdan et al. (2013) stated, professional educators must be "reflective in their practice, connect with each other to improve their trade, accept constructive criticism, and tolerate controlled classroom chaos" (p. 6).

Advantages and Challenges of the Flipped Classroom

There are many advantages and challenges to the flipped classroom model that have been highlighted and discussed in the research. Below is an outline of some of the advantages of the flipped classroom model.

- While participating in student-centered activities, students are required to think critically as opposed to sitting passively during traditional lectures (Weimer, 2013). This also allows students to have more control over

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their learning and they can better articulate what they do and do not know, allowing them to engage in a "disciplined social process of inquiry" (Bruffee, 1995) while working with each other which, in turn, creates a collaborative learning environment (Pedersen & Liu, 2003).

- Educators have more one-on-one time with their students, allowing them to build stronger relationships (Du et al., 2014).
- The content that is predetermined by the professional educators is constantly available, not only in the classroom through the mouths of the educators, but on videos, in textbooks, and other materials, allowing students to review as needed and as many times as necessary (Du et al., 2014). This can also be shared with students' parents (Alvarez, 2012) along with other professional educators allowing for greater consistency between the classes (Bergmann & Sams, 2012).

Along with the advantages to this model, there are many challenges as well and they are outlined below.

- The flipped classroom model does not require videos, but if so, not all educators are appropriately equipped to handle the technology to make their classes effective (Ash, 2012). Nor do all students have access to the technology and/or materials (Nielsen, 2012). For some, this can exacerbate the digital divide (Nielsen, 2012). The videos can also be very time-consuming for educators, sometimes requiring hours of editing work (Talbert, 2012) and/or preparation that, if shared with students outside of the classroom, can lead to copyright/ownership issues. In addition, watching these videos, they spend more time in front of the screen instead of with people and/or places (Du et al., 2014).
- Even in the best flipped classrooms, this model may not be effective for students who do not work well in groups, but prefer one-on-one time with the educator or the traditional model (Strayer, 2012).
- The flipped classroom model requires a great deal of work beginning with careful planning, developing appropriate materials for the classroom and outside of the classroom (which students may or may not do), careful in-class monitoring and engagement, and flexible assessment plans as this model is not conducive to teaching to the test (Du et al., 2014).

These outlines are not meant to be comprehensive, but they do outline some of the biggest advantages and challenges to the flipped classroom model. One thing to consider, however, is that regardless of the model, the flipped classroom or the traditional model, both can be more efficient and bad pedagogy is still bad pedagogy (Ash, 2012; Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Nielsen, 2012; Ponners, 2013).

Guidelines for Designing an ASL Flipped Classroom

Many ASL students who are without access to an ASL lab, Deaf models, or study partners do not know how to study or practice at home. Nor are their textbooks adequately prepared to teach beyond the ASL vocabulary. For them, the ASL classroom is where they learn and practice. The flipped classroom model can provide greater opportunities to study and practice ASL beyond the classroom. Below are some guidelines for implementing the flipped model in the ASL classroom. These guidelines are modelled after the four pillars of F-L-I-P (Hamdan et al., 2013).

1. Flexible Environments – Educators, in general, will teach the way they were taught (Shrum & Gilsan, 2009). Many ASL educators are not taught using the flipped classroom model. This will be a new concept for them and their students. In addition, the use of ASL requires eye contract (Valli, Lucas, Mulrooney, & Villaneuva, 2011). Having a roomful of ASL students not making eye contact with the ASL educator can be very difficult, especially if the ASL educator feels he/she is the best and only ASL

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model in the ASL classroom. ASL educators will need to learn to adapt to the "chaotic & nosy" classroom without having all eyes on them.

8. Learning Culture Shift – Not only do ASL educators need to be prepared for the shift in the learning culture, but so do the ASL students. Students who are not prepared or accustomed to the flipped classroom model may be either open to the idea or resistant to it, especially if they have taken ASL courses in the past. In addition, many of these students may not understand the importance of homework (i.e. watching lectures) if the ASL educator does not appropriately utilize these videos/lectures in the flipped classroom. For example, if an ASL educator creates a lecture on video and repeatedly shows it in class, this may not be an effective use of the flipped classroom model. The classroom needs to reinforce the importance of watching lectures / doing homework at home.
9. Intentional Content – ASL educators will need to carefully determine what material will be taught at home and how and what activities will reinforce that material/education in the classroom. Not only are ASL educators not familiar with the flipped classroom model, many ASL educators have not gone through an educator preparation program in ASL and do not have the training to teach ASL without the curriculum. Nonetheless, this is true for most foreign language educators (Shrum & Gilsan, 2009). ASL educators will need to carefully evaluate the ASL curriculum to determine what can be taught outside of the classroom and what can be reinforced in the ASL classroom. ASL educators will need the background and knowledge to dissect their ASL curriculum to make the flipped classroom possible.
10. Professional Educators – For ASL educators to appropriately and effectively use the flipped classroom model, they must be professional educators. They must be able to adapt to the demands of the flipped classroom, including planning the content that may include additional research, constantly monitoring their courses, providing feedback to students, and continually assessing the effectiveness of the flipped classroom, all to meet the demands of their students functioning in a flipped classroom (Hamdan et al., 2013). For example, Shrum and Gilsan (2009) have noted that many foreign language educators are not able to teach foreign language grammar collaboratively. They either teach it directly from the foreign language textbook or they expect students to figure it out on their own. For many ASL educators, ASL just is, and they cannot explain how or why. The flipped classroom encourages students' questions along with its student-centered activities. If the ASL educator cannot adequately respond to their inquiry to the language, this model will not be effective. ASL educators need to be professional educators to respond to the various demands of the flipped classroom.

To be successful, the flipped classroom model requires the four pillars of F-L-I-P, flexible environments, learning culture shift, intentional content, and professional educators. If used appropriately, this can greatly enhance the ASL classroom.

Examples of ASL Flipped Classes

Below are three examples of ASL flipped classes that can be incorporated in the ASL classroom.

1. Many of the ASL curricula build their units/chapters on main themes. For example, Unit 16 of the Signing Naturally curriculum (Lentz, Mikos, & Smith, 2001) revolves around describing objects in ASL; unit 8 in the MASTER ASL curriculum revolves describing people in ASL (Zinza, 2006); unit 10 in ASL at Work curriculum revolves around describing the weather (Newell et al., 2010). For each of those units, a video can be made with or without captioning or embedded in PowerPoint with visual aids, explaining the rules behind the ASL grammatical rules and expectations of describing each. The same

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videos can be used repeatedly as assignments, but various in-class activities can be modified to fit the assignments/objectives of the course. For example, an ASL educator could make a 30 minute video on describing people in ASL. For the first class, she may ask the students to focus on the vocabulary and then follow up with in-class activities reinforcing the learned vocabulary. For the second class, she may ask the students to watch the same video for non-manual markers and then follow up with in-class activities focusing on non-manual markers. For the third class, she may ask the students to look at the grammatical order of describing people and then follow up with in-class activities emphasizing the grammatical order of describing people. The daily activities continue to build on the bits and pieces learned from watching the video, accumulating in the final product, which is being able to effectively describe people in ASL. This is something that can be applied to any unit/chapter with an overlying theme such as the three units mentioned here. If this is not preferable, ASL educators also have the option of producing different videos for each homework assignment.

2. Adair-Hauck and Donato (2002) recommend using a story-based approach, the PACE Approach, for teaching grammar through the use of authentic material in foreign language courses. With this approach, foreign language educators (P)resent the story, (A)ttend to a particular form, engage in (C)o-Construction with the students on understanding the attended form, and follow up with (E)xtension activities that reinforce the form attended and discussed (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2002). For example, Ben Bahan's story, "The Ball," and "One Fine Day," two ASL stories used in the Singing Naturally Curriculum (Lentz et al., 2001), uses a lot of repetition, allowing students to identify and focus on particular language forms. With both stories, if presented authentically, ASL educators can assist students with (A)ttending to particular language forms, (C)o-constructing the grammatical explanation by discovering and understanding patterns/consistent forms, and following up with (E)xtension activities to reinforce the learned grammatical form. As the ASL students become more knowledgeable and proficient in ASL, more difficult pieces where grammatical patterns are not so obvious can be used. As previously discussed, this requires professional ASL educators who can adequately address ASL grammar and respond to questions about the ASL grammar.

11. Shrum and Gilsan (2009) recommend using an interactive model for integrating three modes of communication (interpersonal, interpretive, and presentational). This model is presented in four stages: (1) interpretive – preparing students for the authentic material presented and helping them to beginning to understand it, (2) interpretive + interpersonal – students learn to interpret the authentic material through interpretation and course discussions, (3) interpersonal + presentation – students participate in presentational activities based on the authentic material learned, and finally, (4) interpretive – students follow up by analyzing and comparing the authentic material with other authentic material (Shrum & Gilsan, 2009). Shrum and Gilsan (2009) recommend using challenging authentic material that is above their comprehension level, provided that the material is supplemented with lots of activities helping them to understand the material. For example, letsgofly08 signed a story on YouTube about the "The Deaf Hulk" (http://www.youtube.com/watch?v=lZjAVRjxMHU). Rather than using this story for an advanced ASL course, this could be used for an intermediate level ASL course. In the preparation phase of the interactive model, the ASL educator could ask students to watch an old episode of the Hulk for homework and practice using classifiers to describe the Hulk in class. Other in-class activities could revolve around emotions, non-manual markers, various classifiers, and so forth. In the interpersonal and interpersonal stage, students could watch "The Deaf Hulk" at home, looking for various things that are then explored through in-class activities. These in-class activities along with the out of class activities assist the students understand the final product, in this case, "The Deaf Hulk." Naturally, this would not be taught in a limited number of days/classes, but over several weeks.

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These three are examples of how the ASL classroom can be flipped. These are not meant to be exclusive, but merely ideas how one might go about flipping his/her ASL classes.

Conclusion

To be effective at flipping the classroom, one must also consider the four pillars of the F-L-I-P – flexible environments, learning culture shift, intentional content, and professional educators. Through these four pillars, the learning in the ASL flipped classroom is bound to increase exponentially, especially as we involve students in their learning. After all, we cannot discount the famous Chinese proverb, "Show me, I see. Tell me, I hear. Involve me, I understand."

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Roots: Engaging the Deaf community as language mentors

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Abstract

Engaging deaf individuals rooted in the community to serve as language models and mentors to P-12 interpreters working in school districts located in rural/isolated districts was the focus of a pilot program to establish a pool of Deaf language mentors and cultural liaisons across underserved rural areas in our state. An overview of the program, recruitment activities and pay-it-forward stipends, training of first time mentors and perspectives of the mentor-in-training and lead mentor will be shared along with the challenges presented in this environment.

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Roots: Engaging the Deaf community as language mentors

History

In July 2003, Kentucky Statue (KRS 309.300 to 309.319)[40] established a law requiring interpreters to be licensed. The Kentucky Board of Interpreters for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing (KBI) was responsible for establishing the regulations and guidelines for meeting licensure requirements. Full licensure required national certification. Temporary licenses were permitted if specific standards were met and national certification was achieved within 5 years.

In 2004, the Kentucky Board of Education (KDE) approved a Five Year Implementation Plan to improve services for students with sensory loss. Part of the Five Year Plan was to increase the number and quality of interpreters that serve students who are deaf or hard of hearing. The overarching issue at hand was how to help temporarily licensed interpreters in P-12 settings achieve full license within the 5-year limit.

To implement that section of the KDE plan, an Interpreter Work Group (IWG) was formed from members from the Kentucky Department of Education, the Kentucky School for the Deaf, Eastern Kentucky University American Sign Language and Interpreter Education Program (ASLIE), and interpreters from P-12 settings. These individuals and other KDE partners made recommendations to the Kentucky Board of Education. These recommendations resulted in the 2008 Educational Interpreter Guidelines that aligned hiring practices with licensure requirements. In order to help temporary licensed P-12 interpreters become fully licensed, the IWG identified the need for these interpreters to have access to Deaf Language Models to improve their skills to meet the license standards.

In 2010, the ASLIE Interpreter Outreach Program conducted a longitudinal study that looked at the effects of licensing on educational interpreting in Kentucky. This study compared data from 2003, when licenses were initially required, with data from 2007-08, which was when the first wave of temporary licenses were targeted to expire[41]. Findings from the 2007-08 data indicated that within 2 years, a significant pool of P-12 interpreters could potentially lose their temporary license unless they achieved national certification. In Kentucky, there was, and continues to be, a shortage of qualified interpreters in various regions of the state. The projected loss of additional interpreters would

[40] Kentucky Administrative Regulations were revised in 2007, 2009, and 2013. Regulations amended in 2007 established a 5-year limit on holding temporary licenses. Those in the system at that time were granted extensions to reflect this amendment and their temporary license would expire on June 30, 2012. Those entering after July 1, 2007 would have a 5-year limit from date of issuance.

[41] Data was collected from surveys distributed to all K-12 interpreters statewide. Some of the findings from this study can be found in Hale, K. J. (2012) "Educational Interpreters' Salaries: Correlations with Demographic and Employment Characteristics," *Journal of Interpretation*: Vol. 20, Issue 1, Article 6. Also available at: http://digitalcommons.unf.edu/joi/vol20/iss1/6.

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exasperate this situation, particularly in these rural areas. KDE was very concerned with these projections and funded a "Deaf Language Mentor' program designed to assist those P-12 interpreters who were in jeopardy. Funding for the Deaf Language Mentor program, which was a priority previously identified by the KDE Interpreter Work Group, was granted to EKU's ASLIE's Interpreter Outreach Program. Objectives for this grant included:

a. Identifying potential "at-risk" P-12 interpreters
b. Identifying and training Deaf language mentors
c. Pairing language mentors with interpreters
d. Providing stipends to language mentors who work with P-12 interpreters
e. Providing resource materials
f. Serving as a resource to mentors-in-training

The grant was funded year by year and ran for a total of three years. While the initial focus of was on P-12 interpreters who held a temporary license and considered to be "at-risk," the Deaf language mentors were working with a wider range of interpreters, including those not working in P-12 settings.

Initially, the number of interpreters identified as "as risk" were those licensed prior to 2007 and who were granted extended time to meet the new requirements when new regulations went into effect. As regulation changes were enacted, this pool of "at-risk" was expanded. In July 2013, additional regulation revisions included passage of a written knowledge component (NIC or EIPA) in addition to demonstrating the minimum skill levels necessary for a temporary license.

The following will describe primary activities that occurred during Phase 1 and then later phases of this 3-year program.

Phase 1: Focusing on at-risk P-12 interpreters and developing a pool of Deaf language mentors

When the ASLIE program received funding for the Deaf Language Mentor Program, the first step was to expand the 2-person EKU Interpreter Outreach team and add a third person to carry out the goals. This individual, in addition to a 1 course teaching workload, would serve as a Lead Mentor for the mentors in training; a Deaf Language Mentor working with "at-risk" P-12 Interpreters, and help with the recruiting and training of Deaf language mentors throughout the state in conjunction with the Interpreter Outreach Team.

The second step involved identifying those P-12 interpreters who were at risk of loosing their license unless they passed the national certification within two years. Using KBI records, a list of 37 temporary licensed interpreters were determined to be "at risk" to lose their license effective June 30, 2012.

Seven (7) of the initial 37 identified agreed to participate in the first year of this program. Of the remaining 30, nine (9) declined to participate citing they were already working with a mentor[42] of record, three (3) determined they would leave the field once their extensions were exhausted, six (6) failed to respond, and 12 had incorrect addresses and were unreachable in spite of multiple attempts to find correct contact information through various other means.

[42] Kentucky Board of Interpreters requirements are that each temporary license individual have a Mentor of Record. The Mentor of Record must be a fully licensed Kentucky interpreter holding national certification for at least three years and have completed no less than 45 hours of continuing education hours. They must also submit a Plan of Supervision annually outlining their goals and how their mentor will support the plan. Additional mentors may be included as part of their plan.

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During the first year, the ASL Specialist/Lead Mentor worked with the participating 7 individual P-12 interpreters. The preliminary meetings were all face-to-face. To determine their skill levels, they were asked to send their SCPI results and submit a video that demonstrated their current skills. (SLPI scores of at least Intermediate Plus was one of the requirements to obtain temporary license, therefore we were aware these participants had taken this assessment.) Findings from SLPI feedback and the submitted video materials indicated the common areas that could be concentrated on were: appropriate discourse structures including prosody, grammar, and space; limited range of vocabulary, use of fingerspelling and numbers; and limited ability to represent salient aspects of the message.

While the ASL Specialist/Lead Mentor worked with the initial 7 participants, steps were in process to identify and train potential Deaf language mentors to serve each of the 11 educational cooperatives across the state and prepare them to work with both P-12 interpreters and interpreters at large.

Qualifications used to determine who would be invited to participate in the training for Deaf language mentors were: native or near native skills, prior work history, physical locale within a given educational cooperative region, willingness and ability to participate in the pilot training program; willingness to work a given number of hours with mentees on a consistent basis. During this recruiting period, potential Deaf language mentors were told of the ultimate goals of this project and requirements of working with P-12 interpreters to enhance their skills. The eventual goal was to have at least 20 individuals make up a Deaf language mentor pool.

The preliminary training session in May 2011 was also used as part of our screening process. The Mentor-to-Mentor training approach by Albert Walla was selected. This training expands upon the traditional classroom-based learning by helping signers to become fluent by conversing in ASL with native signers. A total of 20 deaf individuals were invited to participate in the preliminary training of which 13 attended.

As part of the Mentor-to-Mentor training approach, the mentors would apply the skills learned at the end of the 1 ½ day training session during a 3-hour mock mentor session. A group of 10 hearing individuals with a broad range of sign skills were contacted to participate in the mock mentoring session. Sign skills ranged from SLPI Survivor level skills to nationally certified interpreters. This gave the Deaf language mentors an opportunity to work with a broad range of signers with various skill levels. This mock session lasted approximately 30 - 60 minutes with each mentor working with two or more signers to experience the various skill levels they would potentially be working with in the field.

This would allow the 13 preliminary mentors to gain experience using the methods learned during the training. The "mock mentees" were told that KDE had awarded a grant to train Deaf language mentors using various mentoring models and approaches. They were also told this mentoring session would be at no cost to them. Following this experience they were told they could possibility participate in an ongoing mentor/mentee training for a period of one year at no cost to them. Following the training and Mock Mentoring session, a total of 11 individuals were selected to participate in the 1st year.

A "pay it forward" stipend was included in the grant. The stipend would offset the mentors' travel expenses and cover their time and travel to meet with mentees during the training period as they developed their language mentor skills. This stipend was put into place to support Deaf language mentors until they had developed sufficient skills to demand payment beyond the initial period of this grant and create a sustainable pool of Deaf language mentors beyond the grant period. A total of 9 stipends were awarded to the mentors that agreed to work with P-12 interpreters in mostly rural areas. The remaining two mentors were not eligible for stipends due to conflicts of interest (both worked for EKU) but were part of the mentor pool.

In addition to the mentor training preparation and stipends, fees to attend future EKU Outreach workshops were waived. Each mentor received the following resource materials:

- "Mentor to Mentor: Tips and Techniques for Deaf Mentors Working with Interpreters"
- "The Mentor's Companion: A Practical Guide to Mentoring"
- "Interpretation Skills: English to American Sign Language"
- "Interpretation Skills: American Sign Language to English Skills"

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The ASL Specialist, in addition to mentoring the "at-risk" group, served as the Lead Mentor pairing interpreters with the Deaf language mentors and serve as a guide to the Deaf language mentors allowing them to do observation of sessions provided by the Lead Mentor and in turn would observe the mentors in training and make recommendations as they were paired and began their mentoring experiences. The Lead Mentor also provided feedback and demonstrated how to use the provided resources and supplemental materials as needed.

Phase 2: Expanding the pool of interpreters being mentored, continued training for the Deaf Language Mentor Pool

The second phase of the project expanded the services of the Deaf language mentors to include both P-12 interpreters as well as community interpreters wanting to enhance their language skills. Mentors worked with 37 interpreters from both P-12 and community settings.

The Outreach Team continued to recruit Deaf language mentors to replace those who left the pool. In total, 27 potential Deaf language mentors received training over the course of this 3-year project. A total of 20 mentors were paired with at least 1 mentee over this same time period. Seven potential mentors were never paired due to schedule conflicts or leaving the pool before they were paired.

Year	Mentor Pool	Interpreter Pool
Year 1	• 1 Lead Mentor and 13 potential mentors attended initial training	• 10 individuals participate in mock mentoring sessions.
	• 11 mentors recruited and trained • 9 stipends awarded • 2 mentors left program in first year	• Lead mentor works with 7 interpreters in P-12 settings and 1 interpreter from community. Begins pairing with new mentors
Year 2	• 8 mentors continued	• 8 mentees
	• 10 stipends awarded • 7 new mentors recruited and trained • 2 mentors moved out of state • 1 mentor on medical leave • 1 mentor suspended until receives additional training	• 6 interpreters in P-12 continue • 1 interpreter in P-12 added • 2 interpreters in P-12 leave the field • 1 interpreter in community added • 1 interpreter in community leave
Year 3	• 11 mentors continued	• 10 mentees
	• 10 stipends awarded • 1 new mentor recruited • 1 mentor reinstated • 2 mentors left program • 3 mentors moved out of state	• 4 interpreters in P-12 continue • 1 interpreter in P-12 moves out of state • 5 interpreters in community added • 2 interpreters in community leave reasons unknown
Grant End	• 8 mentors continue	• 4 interpreters in P-12 continue ○ 2 improve SLPI scores • 1 interpreter in community continues • 4 community obtain certification

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		○ 3 continue in community ○ 1 now in P-12 setting

A refresher Mentor-to-Mentor course with Albert Walla and Jenny Stiner was provided in February 2012, and 7 additional recruits were added to replace two who had opted not to continue into the second year of the project.

In 2013, Betti Bonni and Ann Riefel offered mentors supplementary trainings on Prosody and Coherence Analysis of ASL with a Mentoring focus. In addition, a limited number of slots were made available to attend a 4-day SLPI training by Keith Cagle and Sharon Hurley Lott. Using the SLPI raters training as a platform, mentors learned skills related to language assessment and patterns to help identify areas needing focus or remediation. This was an option for those who wanted additional experience to see patterns in the mentee work. Additional trainings were available from Bluegrass ASLTA, KYRID and the EKU Outreach program. All fees were waived for the mentors attending trainings offered by the EKU Outreach Program as part of an ongoing support to establishing a pool of Deaf language mentors.

Challenges

The Lead Mentor reported challenges that hampered or hindered work in the first year included: a sense of being overwhelmed with the high demand for language mentoring and limited time to meet the needs the "at-risk" group; lack of and/or limited access to high speed internet especially noted in rural areas where majority of the "at-risk" interpreters worked or lived. While rural schools had technology in place for classroom use, school policy prevented access by interpreters. School firewalls limited access to websites such a You Tube, Skype, or other software programs. Most schools forbid webcam use over the Internet. Coordinating schedules between Lead mentor, mentors and interpreters was always an issue given travel time, school activities and work schedules for all parties. Lead Mentor also states continued turnover of mentors made for constant re-pairings.

Mentees reported they struggled using mentors when they were unfamiliar with for exampling they stated trust factors and ease of working with some mentors was better than with others. The Lead Mentor did attempt to "introduce" the new mentor by making all arrangements for meetings in a public location and would be present at most initial meetings. The mentees reported they preferred to be paired with mentors they were familiar with or who were known in the community from prior work history or by reputation. Another challenge appeared to be related to working knowledge of both the new mentors and the interpreters, some who were not familiar with linguistic terms to discuss the work. Most cited a major challenge were schedule conflicts as main reason for discontinuing sessions after the initial timeframe was completed.

Mentors also reported frustration with schedule conflicts, their own lack of or limited knowledge of linguistic terms, and inability to assess or identify problem areas in the interpreting work. Mentors lack of access to resources (iPad, video camera, etc.) to record and give feedback for the next session, not fully understanding how to use the resources provided.

Mentees who continued use of the mentors cited the mentor reputation and/or years of experience played a part in continuing the relationship, flexible schedule, experience working with or teaching students, familiar with linguistic terms or ability to work with and teach mentee these terms in order to discuss the work.

Of the three mentors who report they are now currently working as "for fee mentors," all had prior experiences beyond the training that this grant provided. All had work histories that included experience in sign language labs with university programs and were well known in the interpreting community.

Evaluation

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An evaluation tool to assess the effectiveness of the Deaf language mentor's progress with their mentee was distributed via survey to interpreters who participated in this program. A separate evaluation survey was also sent each Deaf Language Mentor to evaluate their progress and satisfaction working with the Lead mentor. Results are pending.

Conclusions

The Deaf Language Mentor program concluded on May 15, 2014 with the understanding that the current pool of Deaf language mentors will continue to serve the interpreting population. EKU ASLIE Interpreter Outreach will continue to serve as an ongoing resource It was our hope that the "pay it forward" concept will encourage use of more Deaf language mentors throughout the Commonwealth and that interpreters will see the benefits of utilizing a Deaf Language mentor in addition to their Mentor of Record as they work toward fulfilling their goal of obtaining national certification and/or full licensure.

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Breaking the mold of tokenism: Interpreter education program-community alliances through service learning

Eileen Forestal[43] and Sherry Shaw[44]

Description

This presentation addresses the role interpreter education programs play in emphasizing fundamental community values in their curricula. Presenters will discuss 'breaking the mold of tokenism' as it relates to re-centering the Deaf community within interpreter education programs and instilling a mindset of 'interpreter-as-ally' in future practitioners. We will explore the concept of 'boundary work' with interpreting students and provide strategies for programs and individuals to partner with the Deaf community to reach its goals. Participants in this session will learn how to prepare students for mapping the local Deaf community's assets as a form of strength-based assessment and joining forces with community partners to solve problems or meet needs that the community deems are valid. The presentation stresses key concepts of oppression and 'dysconscious audism' that must be avoided in community-interpreter alliances where the goal is to empower and build trust with community partners.

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The contribution of Deaf interpreters to GATEKEEPING within the interpreting profession: Reconnecting with our roots

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Abstract

The concept of *gatekeeping* within the interpreting profession has been mourned as the loss of a critical component in ensuring that practitioners enter the field by way of stakeholder induction. Historically, *gatekeeping* also served as a protective mechanism to ensure that the interpreters had a significant connection to the community. With the advent of legislation and interpreter education programs, the Deaf community's role in the selection of candidates to enter the field has diminished. We propose that one way in which the role of *gatekeeping* is currently evident is through the work of Deaf interpreters. This paper will provide an overview of data collected from the analysis of Deaf-hearing team interpretations. The data suggests that Deaf interpreters intervene in the interpreting process more frequently than their hearing counterparts in a number of ways. Ultimately, contributing to the *gatekeeping* function is an example of the unique role served by Deaf interpreters.

Keywords: Deaf Interpreters, gatekeepers

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The contribution of Deaf interpreters to GATEKEEPING within the interpreting profession: Reconnecting with our roots

Numerous authors have talked about the dramatic shift that has occurred relating to the process by which individuals who can hear become interpreters and the diminishing role of Deaf people in the vetting process (Cokely, 2011, 2012; Colonomos, 2013; Taylor, 2012; Suggs, 2012; Williamson, 2012). Concern regarding the absence of *Deaf heart* in new practitioners is a common topic among Deaf people and seasoned interpreters. Prior to the establishment of certification standards, laws requiring linguistic access or the proliferation of interpreter education programs, Deaf people led the process of vetting interpreters. This vetting served to protect the Deaf community and ensure that interpreters had a sufficient connection to the community (Cokely, 2011, 2012). Deaf individuals often directly recruited individuals to serve as interpreters and invested personal time and energy guiding their acquisition and mastery of ASL, their immersion into the Deaf-World, and their induction into interpreting (Witter-Merithew, 2013). Some of those who were recruited were CODAs and other family members. Some were individuals who worked with Deaf people in some professional capacity where their use of American Sign Language was a necessity. Others were individuals who demonstrated an interest in connecting to and communicating with Deaf people. The internal grapevine of the Deaf community was used to monitor which interpreters were most effective in advancing the interests of the Deaf Society and which interpreters should not be used. This is no longer the norm.

There is an increasing interest in finding ways to return Deaf people to the position of *Gatekeeper* they once held within the interpreting profession. We propose that one way in which the role of *gatekeeping* is currently evident is through the work of Deaf interpreters who work collaboratively with hearing interpreters.

This paper will provide an overview of data collected from the analysis of Deaf-hearing team interpretations rendered during court proceedings and in vocational rehabilitation (VR) settings. The data provides evidence that Deaf interpreters intervene in the interpreting process more frequently than their hearing counterparts for the purpose of (1) checking in with Deaf consumers to determine comfort level, ensure understanding, provide process information or seek clarification, (2) to verify the accuracy of the hearing interpreter's interpretation, and (3) to seek clarification regarding meaning and intention from the source speaker. Further, they provide more context-based information as part of their interpretations to Deaf consumers.

We also propose that this role of *gatekeeping* is not necessarily an intentional or conscious action on the part of Deaf interpreters, but rather a natural outcome of having Deaf natives involved in the interpreting process. We suggest that the Deaf interpreter serves as a buffer that protects the Deaf consumer and exhibits a protective feature of *gatekeeping*. It is our aim to give attention to the *gatekeeping* phenomena as it occurs in team interpreting and to promote further exploration of it for the purpose of deepening an understanding of it and fostering a more reflective

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and deliberate application. To this end, we will discuss the implications of the findings for interpreter education and ways in which interpreter education can introduce the work of Deaf interpreters to students of interpreting.

Gatekeeping as a protective cultural phenomenon

Historically, when interpreters were inducted into the profession, members of the Deaf community played a central role in the process. This involvement ensured that the interpreter had the appropriate skills, temperament, and character to serve the community. In essence, the selection process served to protect the community from outside interlopers. This vetting protected the interests of the community by ensuring that interpreters were skilled and compassionate and able to collaborate in the interpreting process. While that control mechanism is no longer the norm, the need to protect the community's interest in language access still exists. As suggested in the data, Deaf interpreters may serve as a critical link in the process of protecting the community's language access rights.

Gatekeeping is not a term unique to the signed language interpreting community. In the law, *gatekeeping* has been discussed primarily in regards to its protective function. The judge has a responsibility to protect the evidentiary integrity of a trial by vetting out 'junk science' offered by expert witnesses. A rich body of case law exists defining the type of experts who may be allowed to testify in a trial. Only experts who could demonstrate that their opinions had a valid and reliable basis are permitted to testify as to those opinions in court (*Daubert,* 1993).

Forestal (2014) discusses the role of Deaf experts who serve as gatekeepers within the community as those who contribute to the work of Deaf interpreters. The research participants in her study about Deaf interpreters indicated that, "only Deaf persons who have experienced interpreting, translating, or communicating for other Deaf people during their formative and adult years and have been supported in this endeavor by the gatekeepers of the Deaf community should consider interpreting as a career option" (p. 44). This underscores the importance of expert and native cultural and linguistic competence as a pre-requisite for effective Deaf interpreters—a level of expert competence not achievable by non-deaf individuals.

In terms of academic theory, a discussion of gatekeeping can be found in the literature of communication studies, journalism, political science, and sociology (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009). Kurt Lewin—a German psychologist and pioneer in social psychology—first coined the concept of a gatekeeper. Lewin (1947) describes the gatekeeper as the individual who ensures that information moves between individuals and/or groups, based on social and cultural norms and values. He argues that such gatekeepers exist at various levels of society—parents assume the vital role of deciding what information their children receive or should avoid based on their personal values and beliefs; a news medium editor decides what kind of news items will be published and what will not, based on the news organizations policy. Other authors have used Lewin's theory of gatekeeping to argue expanded applications—mostly relating to the role of gatekeeping in mass media (Barzilai-Nahon, 2009). The overarching goal of the gatekeeping process is to empower the recipients of communication by helping to filter the flow of information into the most efficient and useful form.

Davidson (2000) explored the role of interpreters as institutional gatekeepers by examining the social-linguistic role of interpreters in Spanish-English medical discourse. He concluded that interpreters were "acting, at least in part, as informational gatekeepers who keep the interview 'on track' and the physician on schedule. While the interpreters do in fact convey much of what is said, they also interpret selectively, and appear to do so in a patterned (non-random) fashion" (p. 400). Davidson further states that interpreters cannot be neutral machines of language conveyance (1) because they are faced with differences in how linguistic systems convey information contextually, and, (2) because, even though their role is unique, interpreters are also social agents and participants in the discourse event.

In this study, protection of a Deaf child's access to full linguistic inclusion is the primary focus—although other data is considered as well. The actions and practices of Deaf Interpreters during a meeting between a Guardian ad

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Litem and Deaf child who is at the center of a child custody action suggest that in order to ensure this inclusion, the Deaf Interpreter must incorporate a variety of interpreter-initiated utterances.

The purpose of gatekeeping

Deaf people who share their language with interpreters, both in the past and today, instil communicative and cultural competence in interpreters that cannot be learned solely within the classroom.

> Communicative competence includes not only the grammatical competence a speaker has but the knowledge of culturally appropriate "ways of speaking," such as how to ask for information, give praise, complain, joke, and so on. (Roy, 2000, p. 20).

An interpreter may have sufficient grammatical resources, but still be unable to use the language in a way that is natural and unaccented. Interpreter education students are admonished frequently that to attain this competence, they must socialize within the Deaf community. Traditionally, Deaf people personally have selected those whom they would impart this competence and endorse as interpreters. Padden and Humphries explain the protectiveness felt by Deaf community members and their hesitation to permit un-vetted access.

> Before sign language became so public, the language bonded the group together and kept alive rich channels of cultural circulation. Its unusual qualities kept away outsiders because Deaf people believed there was little interest in the language outside the group. They had been told by others that their language wasn't worth preserving. Yet part of their private use of sign language came from a desire to protect their private world, to have something that would insulate them from those who might do them emotional or physical harm. Coming to accept that ASL was an object of public interest and that it should be taught to others was a difficult transition. (Padden & Humphries, 2005, p. 157) (Emphasis added)

Padden and Humphries set forth several essential questions facing the Deaf community in deciding whether and with whom to share their language: "How did hearing people plan to use their knowledge of the language? Would they learn the language in order to communicate with Deaf people, or to dominate them?" (Padden & Humphries, 2005, p. 198). Hence, the *gatekeeping* function points not only to language skills or communicative competence, but to the attitude and character of the outsider as well.

In discussing the transition of interpreting from a model of community collaboration to a profession and/or model of business, Cokely (2011) emphasizes the consequences the Deaf Community has experienced as a result of legislatively mandated communication access. One significant consequence is the loss of the Deaf Community's ability to define the work of interpreters.

> Deaf people used to be the primary source of helping us learn their language and they did so by teaching it to us from birth, or because we had familial ties or because they extended opportunities for us to socialize with them. But now according to a national survey 49% of nationally credentialed sign language interpreters spend less than 10% of their time socializing with Deaf people; only 20% of us are members of NAD and only 8% of us are members of their state association of the Deaf. How then do we keep abreast of changes in the language or changes in the attitudes/perspectives of Deaf people? How do we justify learning their language and profiting from it without giving back? In becoming a "profession" have we simply become parasites? (Cokely, 2011)

Cokely (2012) also discusses the implication of the vanquished native voices in the field of interpreting. The diminishing role of hearing interpreters from Deaf families—Codas—represents a loss of a rich source of knowledge and insight. The more consistent inclusion of Deaf interpreters in the interpreting process—particularly when they are

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paired with interpreters who are non-native—offers a way in which this knowledge source can be regained and deepened.

Deaf interpreters and interaction patterns

It is widely accepted that interpreters are more than intermediaries who transmit language in a triadic exchange without any effect or interference on the interaction (Metzger, 2000). Rather, interpreters function as participants both in regard to interaction management, and, in crafting renditions to satisfy the participants' interactional goals (Metzger, 2000). Wadensjo describes interpreting as a two pronged task: interpreting and coordinating (Wadensjo, 1998). Interpreter's utterances outside of the act of interpreting can function in a number of ways, including, to influence the interaction's progress or substance, to regulate aspects of the interaction, to influence the mode of the interaction, and to generate a shared discourse, among other functions (Wadensjo, 1998, p. 105). The coordination aspect of interpreting typically serves to solve some problem either in the translation or in communication (Wadensjo, p. 108-09). Coordination activities include requests for clarification, requests for time, requests to stop or start talking, comments on the translation, and requests to observe turn-taking, among other items. In examining interpreter-mediated interactions, Wadensjo also discusses expanded and reduced renditions. A close rendition would include only that propositional content that was expressly stated in the original, including the style (Wadensjo, p 107). An expanded rendition would include more explicitly expressed information than was present in the original corresponding to the more common notion of contextualization. The questions examined in the data here include both the nature of the coordination activity when undertaken by the Deaf interpreter and the nature of the expanded renditions within the Deaf interpreter's work.

Deaf interpreters are often used in court and legal settings. When Deaf interpreters work in court, it may be because the Deaf participant does not use formal ASL. In those cases, the interactional involvement, particularly the coordinating aspect, of the interpreting team may be foregrounded. In *People v. Vasquez,* the defendant appealed a murder conviction on the grounds that his due process rights were violated because of a Deaf witness' inability to express herself through a team of Deaf and hearing interpreters (*Vasquez* 2004). The Deaf witness did not use ASL yet she was able to express herself to the Deaf-hearing interpreting team through gestures and some rudimentary sign. At numerous points in the witness' testimony, the interpreting team collaborated with each other on the most efficient rendition. The team frequently had to explain their difficulties to the court and to assist counsel in crafting questions that would be more effectively translatable. Hence, the nature of the consumer for whom the Deaf interpreter is working may have some impact on the Deaf interpreter's interactional coordinating activities. Even when working with Deaf consumers who use ASL, however, the data we examined showed a number of times when the participation and coordination by the Deaf interpreter were foregrounded within the interaction.

Legal interpreting data

The Mid-America Regional Interpreter Education ("MARIE") Center is housed within the University of Northern Colorado's Distance Opportunities for Interpreter Education ("DOIT") Center and is one of six entities that form the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers. UNC-MARIE is the center on excellence in legal interpretation, among other priorities, and hosts annual legal interpreter training events for practitioners. In preparation for the 2014 Institute on Legal Interpreting, which focused on examining the decisions and work of highly skilled teams of Deaf and hearing legal interpreters, the work of four Deaf interpreters was filmed interpreting various aspects of a civil custody trial. The Deaf interpreters selected the hearing interpreters with whom they worked. Three

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of the four Certified Deaf interpreters come from Deaf families. Two of the four Certified Hearing Interpreters selected also come from Deaf families. All of the interpreters are trained and experienced legal interpreters. The filming took place in October of 2013 in Denver, Colorado. The custody case involved Deaf parents and a Deaf child. Materials for preparation were provided to the participants included schematics of the physical layout of the courtroom, a report from the Guardian ad Litem ("GAL"), a summary of the issues in the trial and reports from a psychologist regarding custody recommendations. The interpreting team was filmed engaging in preparatory discussions regarding teaming agreements and process issues. While over twenty (20) hours of interpreting work was filmed in which the Deaf interpreters interpreted for parts of the custody trial for hearing witnesses in the simultaneous mode, the data for this paper derived mainly from the rich and robust work engaged in by the Deaf interpreters in the consecutive mode for the interview between the GAL and the Deaf child. All four teams interpreted the interview between the GAL and Deaf child—although the GAL and Deaf child differed for two of the interviews, the focus of the interview and subjects addressed was the same for all four. The Deaf interpreters and their hearing team did not observe each other interpreting the interview, but all did have access to a common case file and had the opportunity to meet briefly with the GAL and Deaf child prior to beginning the interpretation. All four of the Certified Deaf interpreters used consecutive interpretation. The four interpretations examined ranged from 24 to 40 minutes in length, depending on whether the Certified Hearing Interpreter used simultaneous or consecutive interpretation.

The interpretations were analyzed and all instances of interpreter-initiated utterances were recorded and later organized around the themes identified by Wadensjo (1998). Specifically, instances of coordinating activities and expanded renditions of the source language message were the primary focus. The instances for each team are represented in Table 1 and show both the number of instances by the Certified Deaf interpreter and their hearing counterpart. In this setting, outside of the court, the coordination aspect of the Deaf interpreters' work was most apparent. In court, there are strict rules governing the coordination aspect of interpreting, which must be transparent to and supervised by the judge. As a result, the coordination aspect of all interpreters' work is tempered in courtroom interpreting.

Checking in as coordinating activity

In all of the segments, Deaf interpreters engaged in coordination activity such as checking in, which took place in a variety of ways. Often, the Deaf interpreters checked in to keep the Deaf child apprised of the interpreting process. For example, because the hearing interpreter in one section used consecutive interpreting and note-taking for the English to ASL rendition, as a result, the Deaf child experienced lengthy silences when the GAL was speaking. The Deaf interpreter consistently would explain the process to the Deaf child during this down time. The Deaf interpreter would inform the child that the hearing interpreter was listening to the GAL and would convey the question once the GAL finished speaking. Likewise, when the hearing interpreter was rendering the English interpretation, the Deaf interpreter would inform the child what the hearing interpreter was doing. Further, at times, the Deaf interpreter would back-translate to the child the English interpretation being rendered by the hearing interpreter to the GAL. In one of the four interpretations, during the approximately twenty-four (24) minute segment, the Deaf interpreter intervened in this coordinating activity seventeen (17) times. Presumably, because the interpreting process was explained during the preparatory meeting with the Deaf child, this coordinating activity served to organize the interaction and keep the child in the loop of what was occurring. It functioned to provide a measure of comfort and to ensure that the child knew what was transpiring.

In another interpretation, one Deaf interpreter let the child know what the interpreting process would look like while the hearing interpreter was waiting for the GAL to complete the initial spoken English utterance. This Deaf interpreter informed the child that once the GAL was finished with her statement, the hearing interpreter would interpret it and then the Deaf interpreter would tell the child what the GAL had said. Additionally, after taking notes

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for the first time during the interview, the Deaf interpreter explained the purpose of the notes to the child. This seemed to function as a way to reinforce the child's understanding of the interpreting process.

When there was a coordinating issue such that the hearing interpreter had to interact with the GAL such as to obtain more time to complete the interpretation, one Deaf interpreter let the child know what was occurring. This type of communication occurred across several of the Deaf interpreter's work though not to the same extent. In another example, there was confusion regarding the meaning of the GAL's question, and the Deaf interpreter related to the child privately that the GAL seemed to be having some confusion. This comment seemed to situate the interpretation since the GAL's unintelligible question was simply dropped and the subject changed. The Deaf interpreter's coordinating remarks to the girl explained the reason for the abrupt change in topics. A common theme among most of the Deaf interpreters was to check in with the Deaf child to ensure they understood the process as it was happening.

Wadensjo reminds us that interpreter utterances can serve to bridge not only a linguistic gap, but also a social gap. (Wadensjo, 109). While the coordinating interpreter utterances are generally thought to organize the dialogue, they may also be thought of as utterances intended to assist the listener connect to the interaction, particularly if that is one of the speaker's goals. In the footage examined, several techniques were used by the Deaf interpreters to engage the Deaf child in the interaction and served to bridge the social gap. One mechanism used by at least one of the Deaf interpreters involved an express validation of the Deaf child's statement. This Deaf interpreter had a comforting head nod at the end of the child's utterance that seemed to function as an "I hear ya" or "I know" kind of rapport building statement reinforcing the child's right to make the statements she made. Other times this rapport building technique was expressly stated as a "yes" as the child completed her statement functioning to validate the child's statement. Another of these rapport building techniques that was evident in a number of the Deaf interpreters' work was the heavy use of discourse markers such as "WAVE-TO-GET-ATTENTION" to open the interpreted renditions and make other transitions as if the Deaf interpreter were talking directly with the Deaf child rather than interpreting. Again, the inclusion of these markers framed the discourse competently but also seemed to reinforce the idea that there was a bond between the Deaf child and the Deaf interpreter. While this is a hallmark of a competent interpretation, only the Deaf interpreters used these markers consistently.

Another Deaf interpreter used this bond forming technique in the interpretation when the GAL indicated that the child could not live with both parents even if she wanted. The Deaf interpreter included the concept that this was the court's decision and with a shrug of the shoulders and an apologetic eye roll, the interpreter indicated that the court had the power and neither the girl nor the interpreter did. This reinforced the bond between the Deaf interpreter and the Deaf child as if to say, "I wish it were not the case, but there is nothing we can do about it."

Checking in to verify accuracy or seek clarification as a coordinating activity

At times, the Deaf interpreters would check in with the Deaf consumers to verify the accuracy of the both of the interpreters' work or to seek clarification. Many times, the Deaf interpreters would check first with the Deaf consumer, in this case the child, rather than checking with the hearing team. In one instance, for example, while the hearing interpreter was providing the English interpretation, the Deaf interpreter reviewed her notes and realized that omissions had been made. The Deaf interpreter first checked her recollection with the Deaf child privately, confirmed the information had been omitted, and then rendered it to the hearing interpreter to add to the ASL to English interpretation. All of the Deaf interpreters checked in with the Deaf child more than once. At times the checking in was subtly indicated with simply an eye gaze to the child with a confirmatory head nod indicating, "was that a correct interpretation?"

Across the Deaf interpreters' renditions, when a clarification was made, all but one of the Deaf interpreters typically explained to the child what had happened. For example, when one hearing interpreter corrected the Deaf interpreter's rendition and a clarifying conference was held, the Deaf interpreter obtained clarification, then let the Deaf child know what had just happened, such as saying "sorry, I was not clear" to keep the Deaf child in the loop. Another time, after the clarification was provided, one Deaf interpreter thanked the Deaf child for their patience.

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Most of the time the hearing interpreters informed the GAL what was transpiring, but that was not the case in all of the interpretations. At least once, one Deaf interpreter expressly instructed the hearing interpreter to let the GAL know that the Deaf interpreter needed to interact more extensively with the Deaf child in order to render an accurate interpretation. In another team, each time the Deaf interpreter sought clarification from the Deaf child, the Deaf interpreter prefaced the comment with an instruction to inform the GAL that a clarification was happening. While there was no consistent practice, the need to let the Deaf child know what was transpiring during a clarification seemed to be important to the Deaf interpreters.

Providing expanded renditions including context

In examining interpreter-mediated interactions, Wadensjo discusses expanded and reduced renditions. In examining the data presented for this study, Deaf interpreters tended to provide expanded renditions at similar places in the texts indicating an inherent awareness of where the Deaf consumer could benefit from more context in the SL message. For example, in the interview between the GAL and the Deaf child, reference was made to the child being stranded on a desert island and having to choose a companion to accompany her. Across all four (4) Deaf interpreters, the decision was made to provide an expanded rendition of the physical context of the island. None of the hearing interpreters providing the original text for the Deaf interpreter included such an extensive descriptive physical context for the interpretation. When the GAL discussed that both parents wanted custody of the Deaf child, all of the interpreters expanded on the concept of what is meant by custody and emphasized that both parents deeply cared for the child. All the Deaf interpreters also stressed that joint custody, in this particular case, was not an option, although visitation would be liberal. In a segment where the GAL discussed with the child her thoughts about the possibility of relocating to a different house and neighbourhood as a result of her parent's pending divorce, all of the Deaf interpreters provided an expanded context of why such relocation might be necessary. Likewise, in another segment, the child asked whether she would be present in the courtroom for the custody hearing. Each of the Deaf interpreters provided an expanded rendition of the physical setting in which the custody trial would occur. Further, depending on the systems knowledge of the Deaf interpreter, the interpretation included a physical description of the child in a private conversation with the judge in chambers.

That each of the Deaf interpreters expanded the source message in similar places is significant, particularly given that none of the hearing interpreters with whom they teamed provided such expansions in conveying the source message to them. In each instance, it appeared such expansions were made based on ASL discourse patterns and perceived familiarity of the Deaf child with the procedural or physical context in which the information was situated.

Vocational Rehabilitation (VR) interpreting data

Data of a similar nature was also culled from interpretations generated by Deaf-hearing teams and Deaf or hearing interpreters engaged in providing interpretations in Vocational Rehabilitation settings. The UNC-MARIE Center, on behalf of the NCIEC, filmed a series of interpreter-mediated discourse events within the VR setting. Several of the scenarios included a Deaf interpreter either in collaboration with a hearing interpreter team or working alone. Other scenarios included a hearing interpreter working with another hearing interpreter team or alone. The 6-part DVD series, entitled *Interpreting in Vocational Rehabilitation Settings*, has been widely distributed by the NCIEC, including the provision of the series to all interpreter education programs in the United States.

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One of the Deaf interpreters whose work was recorded as part of the court interpreting footage was also involved in the VR setting project. He is from a Deaf family. A review of his interpreting performance in VR settings allowed for the exploration of the degree to which the use of interpreter-initiated interactions occurred when working with an adult consumer as opposed to working with a child.

Specifically, three scenarios were analyzed. The first scenario involved the Deaf interpreter working alone with a VR evaluator and a deaf VR client during a vocational evaluation. The VR evaluator was able to use sign language, although with limited competence. The Deaf interpreter had sufficient knowledge of the setting to be able to follow the limited signing of the evaluator, and when coupled with his speech-reading ability, was able to interpret the information to the Deaf client. The data from the analysis of this event is represented in Table 2. The second scenario involved the Deaf interpreter working with a hearing interpreter to team interpret a meeting between a hearing/non-signing VR counselor and a Deaf VR client engaged in setting a vocational goal and plan. The data from the analysis of this event is represented in Table 3. The third scenario involved a hearing interpreter working with a VR professional who is assisting a non-signing hard-of-hearing VR client during an intake interview. The data from the analysis of this event is represented in Table 4. The data collected provides additional evidence that Deaf interpreters intervene in the interpreting process more frequently than their hearing counterparts for the purpose of a variety of coordinating activities and to provide more context-based information as part of their interpretations to Deaf consumers.

Checking in as coordinating activity

In the scenario where the Deaf interpreter worked alone with the VR evaluator and Deaf VR client, represented in Table 2, the Deaf interpreter checked in with either the evaluator or client a total of 13 times within the 28 minutes of footage. For example, on at least four occasions, the Deaf interpreter would seek eye contact with the VR client with raised eyebrows and head titled slightly forward, as if to say, "Is everything OK?" He would look back and forth between the evaluator and the client, checking in with each, nodding in affirmation, and then while looking at the Deaf client, ask, "OK?" by using the F-handshape.

Checking in to verify accuracy or seek clarification as a coordinating activity

Several times the Deaf interpreter also indicated to the client that everything was on track in terms of the process. For example, in the same scenario, the Deaf interpreter watched the evaluator recording an answer made by the VR client, and indicated to the Deaf client the F-handshape for "OK," as if to let the VR client know that her response was being accurately recorded. In other segments, the Deaf interpreter would double check a question or response with the counselor or client before rending the interpretation to ensure accuracy.

Providing expanded renditions including context

On several occasions, the Deaf interpreter provided the VR client with an explanation of context as part of rendering the source message. For example, the VR evaluator states that he will ask questions and record the VR client's answers. The Deaf interpreter expands this statement with an explanation that what will happen is a question and answer process, where the evaluator will ask questions, and the client is to respond, while the evaluator writes down the answers, adding that the recorded answers will be kept as part of the client's file for reference later. After providing the explanation, the Deaf interpreter asks the VR client if the process is clear to her.

This process of providing expanded renditions occurred when conveying the source message to the counselor as well. For example, when the VR client responded to a question about who currently lived in her home, the Deaf interpreter added that the client's two daughters have grown and moved away and so it is only she and her husband currently living in the house.

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In several instances, the Deaf interpreter asks additional questions of the VR client. For example, when the evaluator asks if the client is currently taking medicine, and she confirms she is, the Deaf interpreter independently asks what is the name of the medicine and for what reason is it being taken. Another example of this occurs when the VR evaluator asks the VR client to describe her emotional well-being. The Deaf interpreter provides a series of examples that represent emotional states, and after receiving a response to each, follows up with the question of whether the VR client has ever seen a therapist or counselor or talked with the doctor about her emotional state. A third example occurred when the evaluator was asking questions about physical abilities. The question asked was whether the client could lift a box weighing 20 lbs. The client indicated some hesitancy and so the Deaf interpreter independently asked if she could lift a box weighing 10 lbs. The client responded, "10-15 lbs..... maybe 20 (tentatively)". These added questions appear to reinforce the findings of Davidson (2000) who concluded that interpreters were acting, at least in part, as informational gatekeepers who keep the interaction 'on track' and progressing efficiently within a limited timeframe. The Deaf interpreter anticipated the questions that were coming and proceeded to ask them without a prompt. In at least once instance of this, the VR evaluator, who was having difficulty expressing his questions in sign, thanked the Deaf interpreter and indicated he had planned to ask that question. It may have been because of the difficulty the VR evaluator had with signing that the Deaf interpreter assumed more of an informational gatekeeping role.

The most consistent way in which SL messages were expanded was by the Deaf interpreter making explicit what had been implied in the message. Again, this was done both when interpreting from the evaluator to the client and when interpreting from the client to the evaluator. An example of this is when the evaluator talked about filling out a mock application form and the Deaf interpreter added the implied context "as if you were going into a place of employment and had to fill this out."

Comparisons and differences across samples

The high number of instances of interpreter-initiated utterances in the VR scenario where the Deaf interpreter was working alone may be influenced by the fact that the interpreter was by himself and responsible for the two-way interaction without any assistance. However, the types of interpreter-initiated utterances that occurred are consistent with those observed in the team interpreted interactions, although perhaps to a differing degree.

As well, the number of instances of interpreter-initiated utterances in all of the team interpreted interactions is influenced, at least in part, by the fact that the interpreters need to interact with one another for intra-team purposes. However, there were number of instances of interpreter-initiated utterances that went beyond the intra-team functions and easily fit into the coordinating and expansion functions discussed by Wadensjo (1998).

In both the interpretations from the legal and VR settings, the Deaf interpreters had an overall higher number of instances of interpreter-initiated utterances than did their hearing counterparts. In the four examples of interpretations of the meeting between the GAL and Deaf child, the Certified Deaf Interpreters initiated a total of eighty-seven (87) utterances as compared to forty-seven (47) utterances by their hearing counterparts. In the VR team interpreted event represented by Table 3, the Deaf interpreter initiated twenty-three (23) utterances as compared to twelve (12) utterances by his hearing counterpart. When the Deaf interpreter worked alone in a VR setting, he initiated forty-one (41) utterances. In the VR scenario, represented in Table 4, where the certified hearing interpreter worked alone with a VR counselor and VR client, he initiated only four (4) utterances. Certainly, the content of the interaction and the communication patterns of the participants can contribute to the number of interpreter-initiated utterances, but is unlikely to account for all of them.

In fully appreciating the impact of the data, it is important to keep in mind that the primary purpose of the interpreter-initiated utterances by the Deaf interpreter were to solve some problem with communication, keep the interaction on track, and/or to keep the Deaf consumer as informed about what was transpiring as was possible.

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Conversely, the primary purpose of the interpreter-initiated utterances by the hearing interpreter was to ask for time or clarification, or to ask the speaker for further information.

In terms of the intra-team communication, it is interesting to note that the primary purpose of the utterance was to feed or clarify information. Of particular interest was the monitoring function of the hearing interpreter during team interpreting events. As an example, in Team 3, the hearing interpreter, who was a CODA, did a thorough job of monitoring the interpretation of her Deaf colleague and offering corrections where needed. Such corrections were offered at least six (6) times during the interaction. This function was evident in all the interpretations to some extent and serves an important role in ensuring message accuracy—one of the primary rationales interpreters offer for working in teams. Sometimes the corrections were minor—such as a time referent or detail, sometimes significant—such as an entire thought, cohesion-creating information, or a salient point. When corrections were offered it was evident that the intent was to remain accurate to the SL message.

However, in several instances, no intra-team clarification occurred when it was needed—meaning no monitoring function or other negotiations around meaning was evident between the team—and the accuracy of the Deaf interpreter's interpretation of the SL message was impacted. Sometimes, it can be seen that the error by the Deaf interpreter is directly related to an error or miscue in the hearing interpreter's interpretation. In other instances, it is unclear why no correction is offered. It may have been due to the inconsistent use of notes by the hearing interpreters, the intra-team dynamics of the Deaf-hearing team, a lack of identification of the error by the hearing interpreter, or other causes. Based on this limited sample, the role of intra-team monitoring during Deaf-hearing teams is a subject for further investigation.

Implications for Interpreting and Interpreter Education

This is a small study that offers unique insight because four teams interpreted the same event at different times and reflected similar outcomes. The types of interpreter-initiated utterances were common across all four samples, and evident in other samples within different settings. Certainly, engaging in additional studies of Deaf-hearing teams in similar and different settings are necessary to determine the full implication of these findings. However, the findings from this study do offer some important insights to be considered.

Students of interpreting and practitioners need to more fully appreciate the role and function of interpreter-initiated utterances so that (1) they become more aware of when such utterances occur and the function they serve, (2) they can learn how such utterances are managed in a native-like manner, and (3) they can reflect on their own performance to determine if there are instances where they are failing to initiate an action when an action is required. Further, continued exploration of interpreter-initiated utterances offers students and practitioners with the opportunity to consider the implications of such utterances for ethical decision-making and role application. Such discussions can increase awareness about the range of discretion that is available for practitioners during the act of interpreting.

Another important implication to be considered is the necessity for Deaf interpreters to be used in a broader range of settings to ensure that Deaf individuals are provided with the highest degree of communication access and inclusion as possible. If, in fact, it is Deaf interpreters who are best equipped in applying the coordinative and expansion functions as part of their interpretations, and these functions enhance the inclusion of Deaf consumers, then the more frequent and consistent use of Deaf interpreters is imperative. The fields of interpreting and interpreter education should therefore more fully explore the situations in which Deaf interpreters are both necessary and appropriate and advocate for this as standard practice.

As well, for well over a decade the "gap" in readiness of interpreters to work upon graduation from interpreter education programs has been documented. The field of interpreter education has only been moderately successful in reducing this gap—it is still prevalent in the majority of newly entering practitioners. Inclusion of more DIs addresses this gap. This will mean that students, and current practitioners, need to learn how to work collaboratively with Deaf

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interpreters, as well as how to incorporate and manage the intra-team communication that is central to an effective team interpreting relationship.

Achieving this standard of practice means several things. First, more Deaf interpreters need to be trained and the market needs to be cultivated that will provide for their sustained employment. Second, students of interpreting need to gain training and experience in working with Deaf interpreters, both as part of their classroom learning and internship/practicum experiences. And third, students, as well as current practitioners, need to become adept at providing persuasive rationale for why Deaf interpreters are needed and warranted. Providing opportunities for students and practitioners to practice making requests and explaining the rationale and need for Deaf interpreters can be integrated into pre-service and in-service programs. Such opportunities could include invitations to hiring entities from the community to engage in discussions about the demands and resources available for Deaf-hearing teams—educating the community-at-large about the work of Deaf interpreters is an important part of the process.

There are some new resources that can assist with these processes. The newly released Deaf Interpreter Curriculum produced by the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers (NCIEC) is an excellent resource for expanding the pool of Deaf interpreters. As well, exposing all interpreters to the content of this curriculum, and seeking ways to expand existing curriculum with information contained in the DI curriculum is essential. Further, the NIEC and NCIEC have created learning modules for use by interpreter education programs. One specific module relates to Deaf-hearing interpreter teams. These resources should be included in IEP curricula. The MARIE and NCIEC produced DVDs showing interpreting teams in legal and VR settings are also an excellent source of data that students and practitioners can engage in reviewing and analysing to increase their recognition and understanding of working in teams and the role of interpreter-initiated utterances in achieving effective interpretations. All of the NCIEC resources can be found at the NCIEC website at interpretereducation.org.

Also, as more Deaf interpreters enter the field, foster discussion between Deaf and hearing interpreters—as part of regular class processes, community forums, observation-supervision activities. Provide opportunities for observation of Deaf-hearing teams in action with discussions afterwards. Creating these observation events can occur using media, simulated events, and actual interpreting assignments.

Conclusions

Gatekeeping by Deaf interpreters as part of the interpreting process is a paradigm with crucial implications for the fields of interpreting and interpreter education. It potentially contributes to a greater degree of access and inclusion for Deaf consumers by providing more coordinating functions than are present in the work of hearing interpreters. As well, there is evidence that Deaf interpreters intuitively recognize the same linguistic constructs as requiring an expanded context and in providing such, Deaf interpreters offer a richer and more dynamic rendition of meaning than their hearing counterparts. This too creates greater linguistic access.

Given the native intuition and experiences of Deaf interpreters, it is highly unlikely that non-native users of ASL can gain sufficient bilingual competence to parallel the abilities of Deaf interpreters in creating linguistic access for those individuals within the Deaf society who benefit from the work of Deaf interpreters. Consequently, it is imperative that hearing interpreters know how to collaborate and work effectively with Deaf interpreters. As well, the consistent and/or increase of Deaf interpreters in certain settings—such as in all settings involving Deaf children—is critical. Since the need for inclusion of Deaf interpreters is often dependent on the hearing interpreter's expressed request, it is necessary that hearing interpreters know how to advocate for the inclusion of Deaf interpreters. Such skills can be acquired within the context of interpreter education programs and in-service training programs, as well as guidance and direction that is provided by Deaf interpreters themselves.

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Lewana Clark, SC:L- Massachusetts
Stephanie Clark, CDI, SC:L- Massachusetts
Jo Linda Greenfield, SC:L- Colorado
Trenton Marsh, CDI- Utah
Pasch McComb, SC:L- California
Sandy Peplinski, SC:L- Wisconsin
Jennifer Storrer, CI and CT- Utah
Christopher Tester, CDI- New York

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Table 1: Interpretation of Meeting between Guardian ad Litem and Deaf child
Coordinating activity analysis
(Interpreter-initiated utterances)

Team 1: Certified Deaf Interpreter-26:25 Duration • Clarification with child – 5 • Clarification with GAL – 4 • Intra- team clarification – 1 • Explanation to child- 2 • Asking child to respond – 1 • Expands SL message - 4	**Team 1: Certified Hearing Interpreter-** 26:25 Duration • Asking GAL for time – 2 • Asking GAL to continue – 9 • Clarification from GAL – 1 • Intra-team clarification- 2 • Intra-team feed- 3
Team 2: Certified Deaf Interpreter-29:42 Duration • Clarification with child – 5 • Clarification with GAL – 1 • Intra-team clarification – 3 • Explanation to child – 0 • Asking child to continue – 1 • Expands SL message – 5	**Team 2: Certified Hearing Interpreter-** 29:42 Duration • Asking GAL for time – 5 • Asking GAL to continue – 1 • Clarification from GAL – 3 • Intra-team clarification – 0 • Intra-team feed– 0
Team 3: Certified Deaf Interpreter- 40:47 Duration • Clarification with child – 10 • Clarification with GAL – 0 • Intra-team clarification– 5 • Explanation to child – 4 • Affirming head nod to child – 4 • Expands SL message – 4 • Miscellaneous (self-talk) – 4	**Team 3: Certified Hearing Interpreter-** 40:47 Duration • Asking GAL for more time – 1 • Asking GAL to continue – 1 • Clarification from GAL- 0 • Intra-team clarification – 10 • Intra-team feed– 4
Team 4: Certified Deaf Interpreter- 24:10 Duration • Clarification with child – 3	**Team 4: Certified Hearing Interpreter-** 24:10 Duration • Asking GAL for more time – 0

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• Clarification with GAL – 1 • Intra-team clarification – 3 • Explanation to child – 17 • Expands SL message – 5 • Index finger hold – 9 • Miscellaneous – 4	• Asking GAL to continue – 1 • Clarification from GAL- 1 • Intra-team clarification – 2 • Intra-team feeds – 2

NOTE: Certified Deaf Interpreters in Team 1, 2 and 3 come from Deaf families. Certified Hearing Interpreters in Team 1 and 3 come from Deaf families.

Table 2: Interpretation of Meeting between Vocational Rehabilitation Evaluator and Deaf VR client--Evaluation
Coordinating activity analysis
(Interpreter-initiated utterances)

Certified Deaf Interpreter (working alone)
28:03 Duration • Clarification with VR evaluator – 4 • Clarification with VR client – 5 • Explanation to VR evaluator – 3 • Explanation to client- 4 • Confirmation to client – 6 • Confirmation to VR evaluator - 7 • Asks additional questions of VR client – 4 • Expands SL message—8

NOTE: Certified Deaf Interpreter in this interaction is the same Deaf Interpreter as in Team 1 in Table 1.

Table 3: Interpretation of Meeting between Vocational Rehabilitation Counselor and Deaf VR client--Goal Setting
Coordinating activity analysis
(Interpreter-initiated utterances)

Team: Certified Deaf Interpreter	**Team: Certified Hearing Interpreter**
23:33 Duration • Clarification with VR counselor – 2 • Clarification with VR client – 4 • Intra- team clarification – 1 • Intra-team cue or confirmation – 6 • Confirmation to VR client – 5 • Asks additional questions to VR client – 2 • Expands SL message – 3	23:33 Duration • Asking VR counselor for time – 2 • Asking VR counselor to continue – 0 • Clarification from VR counselor – 0 • Intra-team clarification- 2 • Intra-team cuing or confirmation – 5 • Intra-team feed- 3

NOTE: Certified Deaf Interpreter in this interaction is the same Deaf Interpreter as in Team 1 in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 4: Interpretation of Meeting between Vocational Rehabilitation Evaluator and hard-of-hearing VR client--Intake

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Coordinating activity analysis
(Interpreter-initiated utterance

Certified Hearing Interpreter (working alone)

14:29 Duration

- Asking VR counselor for time – 0
- Asking VR counselor to continue – 2
- Clarification from VR counselor – 1
- Clarification from VR client – 0
- Explanation to VR counselor – 0
- Explanation to VR client - 0
- Expands SL Message – 0
- Laughs along with VR client after counselor makes joke – 1

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Tech talk: Navigating the CIT website

Jessica Bentley-Sassaman,[46] Doug Bowen, Kimberly Hale, and Wink Smith

Description

This presentation is focused on assisting members navigate the CIT website as well as the benefits to the membership. During this tech-talk workshop, participants will learn how to access and contribute to the members' only section, the International Journal of Interpreter Education, the membership directory, and more. CIT's website has a lot to offer its members and we want to make sure you have access to the videos, journals, and member benefits. The presenters will also take suggestions on how to improve the CIT website and functionality.

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Proficiency and depiction in ASL

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Abstract

In my presentation given at CIT, 2014, I describe and discuss a pilot study on depiction and proficiency in American Sign Language (ASL), *Examining the Use of Depiction across American Sign Language Proficiency Interview Assessment Levels*. This paper provides an overview of depiction and depiction types, and a description of a pilot study on depiction and proficiency in ASL. *Depiction* refers to "the ability to visually represent semantic components" (Dudis, 2007, p. 1) and is essential in ASL. Research has shown an average of 20 instances of depiction per minute in ASL as generated by native Deaf signers (Thumann, 2010). The high occurrence of depiction suggests that to achieve a higher level of competence in ASL it is necessary to incorporate depiction of varying types in language use. By comparing types and frequency of depiction usage at different levels of proficiency on the American Sign Language Proficiency Interview (ASLPI), we can gain insight about the type and occurrence of depiction by native signers with higher levels of proficiency and identify gaps and problems with producing depiction by those at lower levels of proficiency.

Keywords: depiction, American Sign Language, ASL proficiency

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Depiction and proficiency in ASL

Description of the Project

As a linguist and an interpreter educator I have had many discussions with members of the Deaf community, linguists, interpreter educators, and interpreting students about features of ASL, improving our understanding of ASL, what it means to be proficient in ASL, and ways to improve proficiency in ASL. Many of these discussions centered around depiction in ASL; one study has shown an average of 20 instances of depiction per minute in ASL in presentations by native Deaf signers (Thumann, 2010[48]); however, there is presently no research on patterns of depiction usage by first and second language users of ASL. Given that depiction is an obligatory linguistic feature of ASL discourse, we must develop a better understanding of depiction usage by native signers and signers at various levels of proficiency. This pilot study is aimed at addressing that gap by gaining information about depiction at various levels of proficiency which can be applied to developing focused language enhancement strategies for those who are acquiring ASL as their first language as well as for improving ASL proficiency of second language learners of ASL.

In this project, the research team will analyze depiction usage by at least ten individuals who have been assessed at varying levels of proficiency on the ASLPI, and will then compare depiction usage by groups of signers at each level. By comparing depiction usage between groups to find patterns, we can gain a better idea of the features of ASL and the types of depiction evidenced in the language use of signers assessed at various levels of proficiency. Using this information, we will then identify indicators of fluency in using depiction by skilled signers and problem areas of less skilled signers. This analysis will provide insight into the type and occurrence of depiction in language use at each of the levels of proficiency of the ASLPI. This pilot study will be replicated in a larger study that will include the development of strategies toward (1) designing effective curriculum for teaching ASL as a first or second language, (2) enhancing teaching in ASL education programs, teacher education programs and ASL-English interpreter education, and ultimately, (3) improving ASL education, Deaf education (by improving language use of educators using ASL), and ASL-English interpreting services.

Three groups may benefit from the information gained by the analysis of depiction in the language use of signers. These groups include first language users of ASL, children who are deaf and need access to a signed language, and second language learners of ASL. First language users of ASL include individuals who are Deaf or hearing with Deaf families who use ASL. This study may provide access to information about ASL structure and grammar in much the same way English speakers have access or education about English rules of grammar. The results from this study may also be used to teach features of ASL to the second group, those children who are deaf and need access to a signed language and for whom ASL would be considered their primary language. The third group, second language learners of ASL, encompasses interpreters, teachers, and other professionals working with Deaf people as well as those taking ASL as a second language for their own personal or professional development.

Although this study is intended to provide information that will be applied to work with all three groups, in this paper, I focus on the third group, second language learners of ASL who are interpreters or studying to be interpreters. According to the 2007 National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers' (NCIEC) report, there has been

[48] Portions of this paper originally appeared in my dissertation, Thumann (2010).

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increasing concern regarding the growing demand for interpreting services and the shortage in the supply of qualified interpreters. According to Winston and Cokely (2009), 85-90% of ASL-English interpreters are second language learners of ASL. The lack of qualified interpreters is directly related to gaps in language proficiency due, in part, to the fact that the majority of interpreters are second language learners of ASL (Taylor, 2002; Quinto-Pozos, 2005). Although ASL - English interpreters are assumed to have a high level of fluency in both languages, there are features of ASL that many second language learners have not mastered. This study focuses on one aspect of ASL, depiction, and seeks to provide information that will assist second language learners in improving their proficiency with the use of depiction.

Many signers have misconceptions about some of the features of ASL related to depiction, and many second language learners struggle with these features. Many problem areas in the language use of L2 signers involve critical elements of depiction, "the ability to visually represent semantic components" (Dudis, 2007, p. 1). Two examples of depiction that are familiar to signers are role shifting and classifiers, but there are more types of depiction as suggested in Liddell (2003) and Dudis (2007, 2011). Problem areas include the appropriate use of classifiers; using eye gaze and facial expression appropriately; use of body shifts; appropriately using locations in signing space; and appropriate production of nonmanual grammar (Jacobs, 1996; Locker, McKee, & McKee, 1992; Wilcox & Wilcox, 1997).

Based on observation and anecdotal information, depiction appears to be difficult for second language learners to acquire. For those who do incorporate depiction in their language use, their use of depiction may be different than the use of depiction by native signers. In order to help language learners achieve a higher level of competence in ASL, there should be detailed information about depiction usage at various levels of language fluency.

The study

This study was designed to analyze the use of depiction by signers assessed at various levels of proficiency in ASL. The aims of this study are twofold: (1) to gain insights into a critical linguistic feature in ASL and (2) to identify patterns of depiction in the language use of signers at various levels of proficiency. For this project, I obtained access to language samples from individuals who completed the American Sign Language Proficiency Interview (ASLPI) assessment and received a score of between 0 - 5. The samples are being analyzed for types and frequency of depiction.

This project is aimed at gaining information about the use of depiction at seven of the proficiency levels identified by the ASLPI. Following Thumann (2010), this study will use both qualitative and quantitative approaches in its examination of ASL depiction. Research questions guiding this study are:

- What types of depiction occur in the language use of signers at various levels of proficiency?
- What is the frequency of occurrence of these types of depiction in the language use of signers at various levels of proficiency on the ASLPI?
- How does depiction usage compare among signers of different ASLPI levels?

The data used for analysis comes from Gallaudet University's ASL Diagnostic and Evaluation Services (ASLDES). Videos of ASLPI participants who have granted permission for research on their language use in the ASLPI interviews will be analyzed for instances of depiction. There will be a minimum of 10 videos of individuals who have been assessed at proficiency levels between 0 – 5 on the ASLPI (see below for a description of each level). Additional videos may be examined if time and resources permit. The current study only examines the use of depiction in the language samples of each of these levels. This provides the opportunity to identify whether or not there are patterns of depiction usage at each level and if so, to identify some of the differences in the use of depiction by signers in each category.

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Using ELAN[49], a professional transcription tool, the research group, is analyzing the data for the presence or absence of depiction, types of depiction (Dudis 2011, 2007), and the differences in depiction usage. This analysis will provide insight into the types and occurrence of depiction in the language use of signers assessed at various levels of language fluency. The results will be compiled and used for work on a larger study, which will be designed to replicate this pilot study and be designed to develop strategies to improve curricula and focused strategies and materials for teachers of ASL as a second language, educators who use ASL, and those who assess ASL proficiency levels.

Depiction and Depiction Types

The depiction of an event is a representation of the event and involves the act of showing what something "*looks like* or *is like*" (Streeck, 2008, p. 289). This may be accomplished by the use of gestures, words, vocal intonation, or partial physical demonstrations. My definition of depiction draws from the work of Liddell (2003) and Dudis (2007, 2011) who analyzed various features of ASL and provided information on the use of depiction. In their examination of ASL, Liddell (2003) and Dudis (2007, 2011) provide an important foundation for understanding depiction and the use of signing space in ASL. They also provide insight into the spectrum of options available to the signer. In this study, I follow Dudis (2007, 2011) and identify depiction as occurring when signers utilize their articulators, their body, and the signing space around them to represent an entity, event, or abstract concept.

Depiction involves the visual representation of aspects of an entity, an event, or an abstract concept using components accessible in the immediate environment. Using depiction signers provide a partial demonstration of the event being described (Liddell, 2003). In a study about depiction in ASL presentations (Thumann 2010), 3,271 instances of depiction were identified in 160 minutes of video. These instances of depiction range in length from less than one tenth of a second to over five seconds and include list buoys, depicting verbs, token blends, and surrogate blends.

Several previous studies have noted various features of ASL that fall into the category of depiction. Role shifting in which the signer represents that actions or dialogue of another character, may be marked by changes in facial configuration, the direction of eye gaze and a shift in body position (Padden, 1986); constructed dialogue, a term introduced by Tannen in 1986, is marked by lexical introducers and nonmanual signals (Roy, 1989). Winston (1991a) reported that shifts in head, body, or eye gaze are the way a signer accomplishes constructed dialogue; she also introduced the concept of constructed action in ASL (Winston, 1991b). Additional findings, specific to narratives in ASL, involve signing space, constructed action or constructed dialogue (Metzger, 1995; Reilly, 2000), and referential shift or perspective shift (Janzen, 2004; Poulin & Miller 1995; Reilly, 2000). These features all fall into various categories of depiction type as identified by Dudis (2007). Dudis is currently revising the depiction identification flow chart (version 4.9.2), which provides questions and information that aid in categorizing various types of depiction (Dudis, personal communication, May 2014).

Categories of Depiction Type

[49] ELAN (Eudico Linguistic Annotator) is a professional transcription tool designed for analysis of audio or video and is available as a free download from the Max Planck Institute website (http://www.lat-mpi.eu/tools/elan).

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Dudis (2007) identified three major categories of depiction: abstract, setting, and event depiction. His current version of the flowchart (see Figure 1) presents a series of questions used to determine the depiction type of depiction. This chart (Figure 1) shows many of the options for depiction identified in ASL.

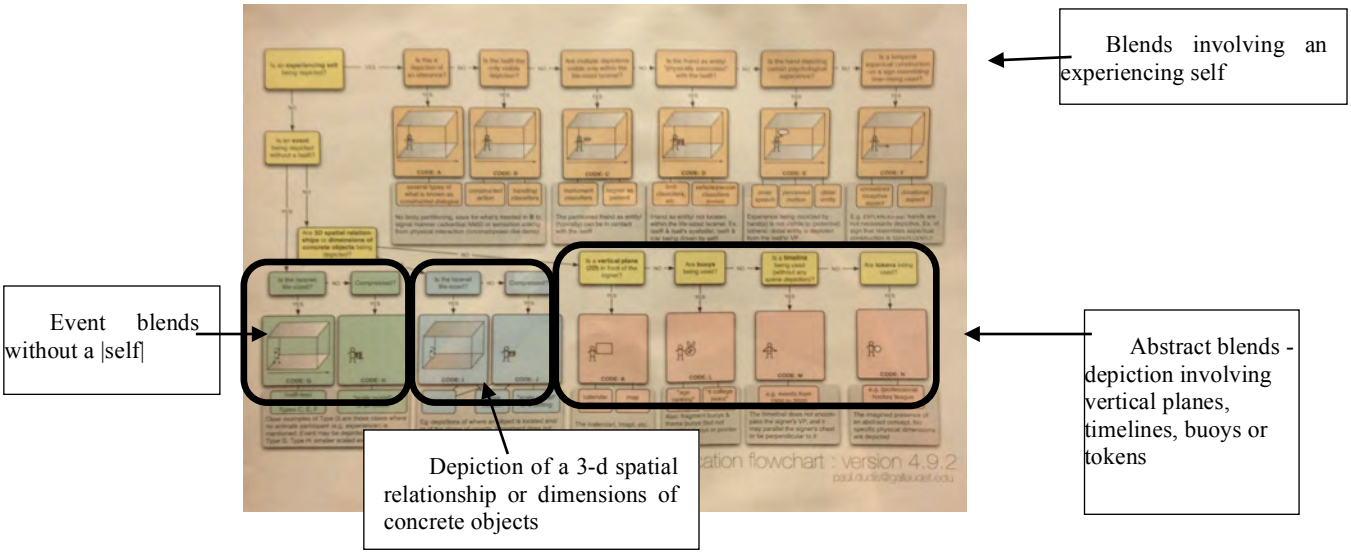

Figure 1: Depiction identification flowchart: version 4.9.2 (currently being revised) (Dudis, personal communication, August 2014)[50].

There are a number of specific types of depiction shown in this flowchart: blends involving an experiencing self (upper half of the chart), event depiction (lower left of the chart), setting depiction (lower center of the chart), and abstract depiction (lower right corner of the chart). In the flowchart above, depiction types are organized based on a series of questions which consider whether or not there is a visible |subject| in the depiction, whether the signer depicts a place or event, or whether timelines, buoys, tokens or vertical planes are utilized by the signer.

Depiction in Language Use

ASL requires the use of depiction. Using depiction, language users may provide information about things that are not physically present. When signers depict, they may use different parts of their bodies or various locations in their signing space to represent aspects of a variety of entities, events, and non-visible concepts (e.g., lists, objects, actions of others, goals, motivation); depiction allows signers to show elements of what an entity or event is like, what it looks like, or even what it acts like. Within the major categories discussed above, there are options for depiction including directing signs at locations in space, varying levels of iconicity, and varying degrees of metaphoric language use.

Depicting verbs, identified and analyzed by Liddell (2003), are often used when signers provide a representation of their conceptualization of entities, settings, or events. Liddell found that depicting verbs require the signer to depict elements of their meaning (2003). Three categories of depicting verbs are those "signifying the presence of an entity at a place," those that "signify the shape and extent of a surface or the extent of a linear arrangement of individual

[50] This chart is currently being revised however this is the version used for the identification of depiction in this study.

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entities," and those that "signify movements or actions" (Liddell, 2003, p. 262). When one of these verbs is utilized in discourse, this is, by definition, an instance of depiction.

Directing signs

In addition to depicting elements, signers can direct signs (indicating verbs and pronominals) toward locations in their signing space. An example of a signer directing signs toward things that are not physically present (Liddell, 2003). Liddell (2003) defines surrogates as blended mental spaces in which the signer or a location in signing space "become someone or something else" (p. 152). As signers conceptualize a situation or something they want to talk about, they may depict it using surrogate blends.

There are two categories of directing signs according to Liddell (2003). These two categories are locative signs, which have a "lexical requirement to be directed toward a location", and signs that are "produced in non-pointing citation forms" (Liddell, 2003, p. 176). An example of this would be if the signer produces the sign DIFFERENT+++ in the vertical plane ahead of him (see Figure 2 for an example).

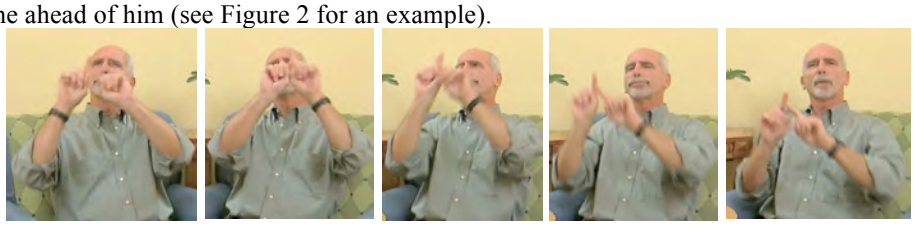

Figure 2: Lexical sign meaningfully directed on a vertical plane |map| (DIFFERENT+++)

By directing signs toward different locations in space, the signer is able to provide semantic information about things that are not physically present. The signer in the example in Figure 2 produces the sign DIFFERENT on a |map| of Europe as he comments on the fact that different languages are used throughout Europe.

Metaphor and iconicity

Other categories of signs that are depictive include signs that resemble their objects in some respects (iconicity) and signs that are metaphoric (Dudis, personal communication, May 2014). Mandel (1977) defines iconicity as "the existence of a perceived visual relationship between the gesture and the referent" (p. 62). He uses the term 'gesture' to mean "any motion of the body, or of a part of the body, that is used meaningfully in ASL discourse" (Mandel, 1977, p. 58). This term encompasses not only lexical items that are iconic signs, but also movements that represent a person or activity as well as spatial relationships.

Metaphors in signed languages provide a means of understanding abstract or difficult concepts. Many abstract concepts are represented by a visual image of a concrete entity or event (Taub, 2001). According to Taub (2001,) conceptual metaphors involve "the consistent use of one basic conceptual area to describe another, perhaps less self-evident area" (p. 3). Dudis (forthcoming) discusses iconicity and metaphor as they relate to depiction in ASL.

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Language Proficiency

Linguists do not agree on how to define proficiency in a language. Proficiency can refer to knowledge of the language, the ability to understand the language, and the ability to use the language (Butler & Hakutu 2006). Using a language proficiency scale, which involves a certain standard for assessment, allows a comparison of the language use of individual signers. There are numerous language proficiency assessments that measure different aspects and types of language proficiency. The assessment will not determine the performance level of all features of a language, and those who use language proficiency scales must keep in mind that the range of abilities of language users varies, even if they are native language users.

For this project, we used the ASL Proficiency Interview (ASLPI), which requires an interview designed to determine ASL proficiency. According to Gallaudet University's ASL Diagnostic and Evaluation Services (ASLDES) website:

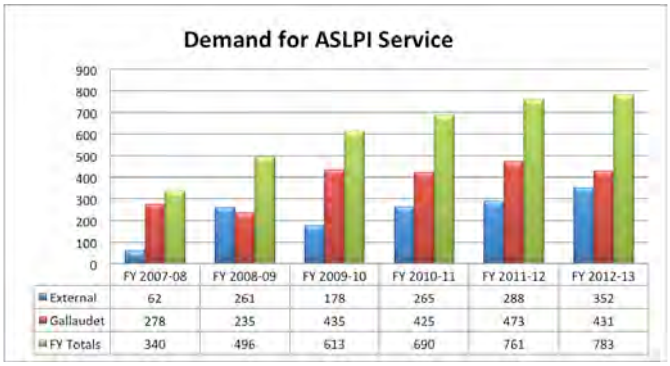
> The American Sign Language Proficiency Interview (ASLPI) is a holistic language evaluation used to determine global ASL proficiency. The basic precept in this type of evaluation is to find out through a face-to-face interview what an individual can do with the target language at a given point in time. The ASLPI is a 20-30 minute video recorded interactive dialogue between the examinee and the interviewer. (http://www.gallaudet.edu/asldes.html)

The ASL-DES website provides information about each of the various proficiency levels identified by their assessment.

ASLPI proficiency levels

Below is a brief overview, taken from the ASL-DES website, of what signers at various levels of proficiency are able to demonstrate in the ASLPI.

Gallaudet University, received the rights to the ASLPI in 2008. The ASLDES website provides information about the reliability and validity of the ASLPI as well as charts showing the number of people who have taken the ASLPI since 2007 and the distribution of ASL proficiency levels from the Fall of 2011 through the Summer of 2013 (see Figures 3 and 4).



	FY 2007-08	FY 2008-09	FY 2009-10	FY 2010-11	FY 2011-12	FY 2012-13
External	62	261	178	265	288	352
Gallaudet	278	235	435	425	473	431
FY Totals	340	496	613	690	761	783

Figure 3: Number of individuals who took the ASLPI between 2007 and 2013
(ASL Diagnostic and Evaluation Services) website: https://www.gallaudet.edu/asldes/aslpi/aslpi_research.html

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Figure 3 shows the number of individuals who completed the ASLPI interview between 2007 and 2013. Figure 4 below shows the distribution of proficiency levels during that time period.

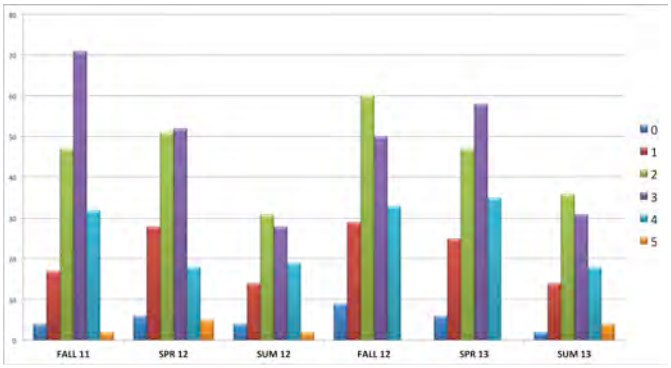

Figure 4: Nationwide Distribution of Proficiency Levels (ASL Diagnostic and Evaluation Services) website: https://www.gallaudet.edu/asldes/aslpi/aslpi_research.html

These charts provide an overview of the numbers of individuals who haven the ASLPI and the number of individuals assessed at each level.

The figure below provides excerpts from the information provided by the ASL-DES website on proficiency levels 0+ - 5. Note that the explanations provided by ASL Diagnostic and Evaluation Services do not include specific details about differences in the use of depiction. See Figure 5 below.

Proficiency Level 5	"Signers at the proficiency level of 5 are able to communicate with accuracy and fluency on a wide variety of topics, both formal and informal and from concrete and abstract perspectives…They demonstrate no pattern of error in the use of basic structures, although they may make sporadic errors, particularly in low-frequency structures and in complex high-frequency structures…"
Proficiency Level 4+	"Such discourse, while coherent, may be influenced by language patterns other than those of the target language. Even with this influence, they are consistently able to demonstrate all of the linguistic features required for high level proficiency…"
Proficiency Level 4	"Although they command a good number of grammatical features, they are deficient in some areas such as cohesion, non-manual signals (NMS), and depiction. They are able to present information with sufficient accuracy, clarity, and vocabulary selection to convey intended meaning without misrepresentation or confusion…"
Proficiency Level 3+	"When they attempt to perform tasks at the next proficiency level, they exhibit features of breakdown, such as shorter paragraph-level discourse, errors with mapping, cohesion, affect and non-manual signals (NMS) and incorporation of English mouthing…Despite noticeable imperfections, they are able to present broad vocabulary with sufficient accuracy and

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	clarity…"
Proficiency Level 3	"Signers at this proficiency level are able to express language with sufficient structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate in most familiar and unfamiliar topics about practical, social, and professional situations…Their language contains pauses and self-corrections as they search for adequate vocabulary and language forms."
Proficiency Level 2+	"Signers at this proficiency level demonstrate less structural accuracy and vocabulary to participate in familiar and unfamiliar topics. When they attempt to perform tasks at the next proficiency level, they exhibit breakdown in the demonstration of language features, such as a reduction in depth, breadth and accuracy of vocabulary, affect, and non-manual signals (NMS)…"
Proficiency Level 2	"Sentences are discrete and are influenced by language patterns other than those of the target language with noticeable errors, ranging from occasional to considerable, affecting clarity…"
Proficiency Level 1+	"Signers at this proficiency level are able to express personal meaning by combining and recombining what they know and what they receive from the interviewer. … While attempting to convey the message, their responses are filled with hesitancy and inaccuracies as they search for accurate linguistic forms and vocabulary..."
Proficiency Level 1	"Signers at this proficiency level are able to manage a number of uncomplicated communicative tasks in straightforward practical situations. … Limited vocabulary is apparent and memorized phrases at the elementary level are demonstrated (e.g., routine travel needs, minimum courtesy requirements, work, school, pets, hobbies)…"
Proficiency Level 0+	"Signers at this proficiency level … demonstrate limited communicative exchanges with short phrases and/or non-target language sentences with memorized vocabulary, and topics are limited to survival needs (e.g., work, school, pets, hobbies). They attempt to recombine known vocabulary or incorporate vocabulary used by the interviewer…"

Figure 5: ASLPI Proficiency levels 0 – 5
(https://www.gallaudet.edu/asldes/aslpi/aslpi_proficiency_levels.html)

The figure above provides excerpts from the descriptions of some of the features in the language use by signers at each proficiency level as assessed in the ASLPI. The dimensions assessed by the ASLPI include grammar, vocabulary, fluency, production/accent and comprehension. Each level provides a description of the features typically seen in the language use of signers assessed at that level, but only one (level 4) actually uses the term depiction.

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Looking Forward

The preliminary analysis of this study shows that depiction is used by signers rated at each level of proficiency of the ASLPI. The evidence of depiction produced by signers assessed at level 0 and level 1 appears to involve specific constructions learned in beginning ASL classes such as use of classifiers (depicting verbs) and use of role shifting.

Based on the information collected from this pilot project, ASL educators and interpreter educators should be able to develop a better understanding of the use of depiction which will aid in instruction and mentoring of second language learners of ASL. Eventually, the results of this study may lead to the development of new curriculum and assessments related to depiction in language use.

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My gratitude goes to Paul Dudis for his continued guidance and support and for his many conversations with me about depiction. Thank you to the individuals who allowed us to examine their ASLPI interviews. Thank you also to ASL-DES for their willingness to work with us and their support in providing data for this analysis. The *Examining the Use of Depiction across American Sign Language Proficiency Interview Assessment Levels* pilot project was approved by Gallaudet University's IRB. This project is funded by a Gallaudet University Priority Research Grant.

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Interpreting in Spanish-influenced settings: Preparing the next generation of trilingual interpreters

Arlene Narvaez[51] and Edwin Cancel[52]

Description

Both the demand for trilingual (ASL/Spanish/English) interpreter services and the supply of interpreters working in Spanish influenced settings is on the rise. However, training materials and opportunities struggle to keep up. This interactive session will start with an overview and historical look at the field of the trilingual interpreting movement. It will include discussion on competencies and skills identified in current research, identify instructor qualifications, demonstrate use of tools currently available, and highlight the need for pre-service interpreters to gain exposure before practice. Discussion will focus on the complexity of trilingual interpreter work and the competencies and skills required. Emphasis will be on targeting potential trilingual interpreters engaged in interpreter preparation programs.

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Field-based Induction: Creating the essential elements for building competence in specialized settings

Anna Witter-Merithew[53], Richard Laurion, Patty Gordon and Carla Mathers

University of Northern Colorado-MARIE Center

Abstract

Studies related to supervised induction in practice professions have shown to be an important contribution in reducing the turnover of newly entering practitioners and supporting the acquisition of coping skills (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Seago, 2006; Smith & Ingersoll, 2003; Wong, 2004). Supervision in induction programs is central to ensuring supportive communication, collaboration with others, engagement in planning, networking, and access to resources (Arends & Rigazio-DiGilio, 2000; Feiman-Nemser, Schwille, Carver, & Yusko, 1999; Fideler & Haselkorn, 1999). The National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers (NCIEC) has developed supervised induction programs to further the in-service training continuum for individuals seeking to specialize in healthcare and legal interpreting. The authors argue that supervised induction offers support and direction for practitioners seeking specialized standing. This paper will provide an overview of the two induction programs currently being implemented by the NCIEC in selected locations, and describe the structure, goals and processes associated with each.

Keywords: Supervised induction, system-thinking, relational autonomy

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Field-based induction: Creating the essential elements for building competence in specialized settings

As Americans we impact and are impacted by complex healthcare and legal systems at many stages of life. We are often consumers of these systems from birth until death. Despite these regular interactions, few of us feel that we have the expertise necessary to navigate these complex systems or even communicate our needs. This reality is evidenced in needs assessments of both Deaf consumers and interpreter practitioners. The National Interpreter Education Center (NIEC), as part of its work with the National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers (NCIEC), conducted a series of national needs assessments between the years of 2008-2012. They found that Deaf and Deaf-Blind consumers of healthcare and legal systems are often dependent on services of qualified interpreters for navigation support and often assume that the interpreter in these settings has the required knowledge for the task (Cokely & Winston, 2009). Around the same time, data collected by NIEC through needs assessments of sign language interpreters identified legal and healthcare settings as being two areas where specialization and enhanced training were sorely needed (Cokely & Winston, 2012).

In recent years the fields of interpreting and interpreter education have begun giving more attention to how practitioners gain specialized expertise. Domains and competencies associated with practicing in specialized settings like healthcare and legal, or within specialized functions, such as video remote, video relay, or trilingual interpreting, have been defined by experts through the 2005-2015 grant cycles of the NCIEC. As well, more formalized in-service training programs of scope and sequence are now available—such as the healthcare modules offered through the CATIE Center at St. Catherine University or the Legal Interpreting Training Program (LITP) offered through the MARIE Center at the University of Northern Colorado.

1. Forces Driving Specialization

There are a variety of factors that are driving specialization in the field of ASL-English interpreting, including legislative and market trends, changing consumer demographics, and practitioner interest, among others.

As laws related to linguistic access for Deaf, Deaf-Blind, and hard of hearing individuals are passed and regulations are developed, specific qualifications of interpreters are sometimes indicated, particularly in court or healthcare settings (Teitelbaum, Cartwright-Smith, & Rosenbaum, 2012). As more entities seek to provide linguistic access to Deaf, Deaf-Blind, and hard of hearing individuals, there has been an increase in full-time positions

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interpreting in healthcare and court systems. The expectation exists that interpreters hired into such positions bring or acquire a high degree of specialized competence.

Further, as Deaf and Deaf-Blind individuals are gaining more access and inclusion in broader society, the range of communication events in which they participate are expanding in frequency and complexity (Witter-Merithew & Nicodemus, 2010a, 2010b, 2011). For example, we see Deaf individuals moving into more technical and professional fields of work. As a result, Gallaudet University and the Rochester Institute of Technology commissioned the National Task Force on Healthcare Careers for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing. The final report identified multiple strategies for increasing the number of Deaf and hard of hearing healthcare providers (2012). The number of Deaf and hard of hearing individuals in legal professions are also expanding.

We also see an increase in the number of foreign-born deaf individuals with unique communication needs moving to the United States. Marian Hausladen, former social worker with St. Paul public schools indicated that 2/3 of all the Deaf students in her school district were Southeast Asians and either new Americans or first generation Americans (personal communication, March 13, 2010).

These dramatic changes are requiring sign language interpreters to have increased competence in a wide range of settings. The breadth and depth of subject matter addressed in many of these settings, as well as the diverse communication needs of consumers, requires greater degrees of specialized competence on the part of interpreter practitioners (Wilson-Stronks & Galvez, 2007).

Additionally, as part of natural career development, interpreter practitioners seek out opportunities to advance competence through specialization. It is not uncommon for interpreters to gain specialized expertise in one or more settings as they gain maturity in the field. All of these factors contribute to the need for more specialized training and supervised work opportunities.

2. Induction Programs as Part of the Training Continuum

An important element in the continuum of preparation of specialist practitioners is formal supervised induction. Induction offers practitioners the opportunity to work directly within the system in which they seek to specialize under the supervision of a qualified practitioner who can support their integration into the system (Arends & Rigazio-DiGilio, 2000; Huling-Austin, 1988; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Soder, 1990). Kasher (2005) argues self-governing professions must have a structured induction experience with outstanding practitioners providing supervision who can attest to the competence of new practitioners. As well, the supervising practitioner can facilitate the entering practitioner's opportunities to connect with system personnel and to learn how to best navigate the complexities of the system (Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Wong, 2004).

Historically, opportunities for ASL-English interpreters to receive supervised induction into specialized settings have been limited to non-existent. The lack of an induction system for transitioning practitioners into specialized practice is part of the market disorder that exists in the fields of interpreting and interpreter education and impacts the professionalization process (Witter-Merithew & Johnson, 2004). Current efforts to mentor and supervise new practitioners are inconsistent and often conducted by individuals who are not practitioners (e.g., language access program managers within the court system or ADA administrators in hospital settings). As well, participation in induction processes, although encouraged, is typically optional (e.g., working with a mentor upon completion of a training program). Regular and direct supervision of practitioners during the application of new skill sets by competent and experienced interpreters is rare.

Another barrier to offering structured induction programming is funding. Currently, most individuals who provide mentoring or support the induction of new practitioners do so on a voluntary basis. Yet, the commitment required to make the experience meaningful is significant. In addition, as new practitioners seek to gain practical work experience in a new area of specialization, they often must travel and/or give up other income to make time.

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Therefore, funding to cover the cost of induction for both the supervisor and the inductee is an important consideration.

The literature suggests that there is a growing shift towards a standards-oriented approach versus self-designation in a broad range of professions. This is primarily due to increasing complexities associated with the work of specialists and the increased liability associated with professional practice. The literature emphasizes the responsibility of the professions to regulate their specialties as a means of recognizing and promoting advanced knowledge and skills, and ensuring orderly development of the field (Cesna & Mosier, 2005; Lewis, 1989; MacDonald, 2002; Sandstrom, 2007; Seago, 2006).

In an effort to address the need for supervised work experience in a standards-oriented approach as suggested in the literature, the NCIEC has created a network of induction sites related to healthcare and legal settings, and designed a training program for induction supervisors. We argue that formal induction programs can offer valuable learning about systems standards associated with working in a specialized setting and in achieving specialized competence (Witter-Merithew & Nicodemus, 2010a, 2010b, 2011). As part of the system orientation, we are encouraging specialized practitioners to utilize a systems thinking approach to their induction process.

3. Systems Thinking as a Critical Part of Specialized Induction

One of the greatest assets a specialized interpreter brings to consumers of their work is the ability to navigate the system in which they are specializing. Therefore, acquiring system competence is a critical aspect of the induction process as envisioned by the NCIEC.

A system is a collection of parts that function together interdependently to achieve an overall goal (Meadows, 2008). Systems can be simple, such as the parts of a bicycle that function together so that the bike can be ridden; or complex, such as nature and the huge and dynamic parts that work together to sustain the environment (Ackoff, 2010). Systems thinking recognizes that if one of the parts of the system is not working right—such as the gear shift on a bike—the entire system will be affected. Interpreter practitioners often engage in a single part of a system in which they are working. As systems thinkers, specialist practitioners certainly look at the individual part of the system in which they find themselves and consider how it functions, but also seek to understand and appreciate how that part works together interdependently with other parts to achieve the overarching goal.

There are different types of systems (Meadows, 2008). The NCIEC is focused on human systems that are represented by organizations that are socio-political in nature. *Socio* meaning that they are systems that are part of our society and serve the interests of society; *political* meaning that the social systems in which our work occurs are often government regulated, and therefore must follow set standards. These socio-political systems include a myriad of social relationships that involve authority or power that impact consumers and interpreters. Examples of socio-political systems include educational systems, healthcare systems, legal systems and social service systems (Meadows, 2008).

Often interpreters enter a system expecting the system to adapt to accommodate them—to change its way of being in order to accommodate the rights of Deaf people for linguistic access. And certainly, the inclusion of interpreters and Deaf people in what would more regularly be direct communication events, does require some adjustment in how things might be done. But systems thinking enables the interpreter to more readily identify ways in which to better fit in and function within the system.

Because interpreters who think from this perspective are able to navigate entry into and through the system more seamlessly, they are able to create better collaboration with the individuals who work within the system and provide services to Deaf consumers. Systems thinking expands the controls available to an interpreter for resolving demands that arise during interpreted events (Dean & Pollard, 2001), and it does so by employing strategies that are inherent to the system. To illustrate, when interpreters in a courtroom incorporate standard courtroom behavior—such as applying

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recognized protocol used by attorneys for addressing the court—they become a more integral part of the system and are treated accordingly. When healthcare interpreters understand the importance of the doctor-patient relationship and function as a contributor to that relationship, they help to ensure that patients more actively participate in their healthcare towards the goal of receiving the highest quality of care possible (Nicodemus, Swabey, & Witter-Merithew, 2011).

Socio-political systems are comprised of three primary components (Ackoff, 2010). One component is that people who do specific jobs, hold specific responsibilities and have varying levels of authority. The structure that forms the overall organization of the system is another. This structure might include how personnel within the system are organized around certain tasks or functions, lines of authority and who can approve what things within the system, or how functions of the system are organized into parts (like departments). The third component is processes—the ways in which the work of the system is accomplished. Often, in socio-political systems, the processes are guided by rules and regulations. But the processes are also evident in the actions and practices of the people within the system. During the induction process, specialist interpreters should have the opportunity to gain insight into each of these components.

Understanding who has the authority, expertise, and knowledge to make decisions or convey information that an interpreter may need (like authorizing a team interpreter, accessing prep material, or explaining a procedure), can help practitioners and members of the system to save time. Also, one of the aspects of the structures within a system is how information flows between levels. Specialist practitioners pay attention to how data is collected because it gives important insight into this aspect of structures. For example, the role of paperwork, forms, and/or data that is entered into a computer is to create a record, and is central to how information flows from one aspect of the system to another. Understanding and appreciating the importance of record keeping and its role in relaying information about an individual as they move through a system encourages practitioners to give greater attention to forms or requests for data that they encounter as part of their work within the system.

The lines of authority within a system can be organized around a centralized approach or decentralized approach (Ackoff, 2010; Meadows, 2008). In a centralized approach, the ultimate authority or decision-making is concentrated at the top layer and tighter control is exercised over what departments or programs can do independently. In such systems, decisions may take longer because requests have to be passed up through the system for approval. So, as one example, the request for an interpreter by a Deaf consumer might have to go through several layers of management before the cost can be authorized. In other systems, the lines of authority are decentralized and the workers are able to make more autonomous decisions; in these systems, decision-making must still fall within the policies and procedures of the system, but who can make the decision is more flexible. So, for example, if a request for service involves approving costs, the individual, program, or department providing the service would be able to approve the cost as long as it was within the parameters of their budget. If not, then funds from another source outside their control would have to be sought. In all systems, even those that are decentralized, decisions made within one aspect of the system impact other aspects.

Each system has approved policies and procedures it must follow to remain in compliance with standards and regulations to which the system is accountable. Depending on the nature of the system, the standards and regulations can include those set by the government, accreditation agencies, laws, as well as other sources (Ackoff, 2010; Meadows, 2008). Understanding the processes that are essential within the systems in which they work, allows specialist interpreters to more fully appreciate why the personnel behave in certain ways or engage in certain acts and why certain structures exist. For example, even the simple act of a healthcare professional washing their hands before having contact with a patient or putting on and removing gloves each time they are in contact with a patient is driven by processes established to maintain the health and safety of both patients and practitioners.

So, acquiring systems thinking skills is an important part of the induction process. Because the work of specialty interpreters is socially constructed—meaning it occurs within the context of human interaction and is impacted by a broad range of factors that impact a particular context—then the more they know about the contexts in which they work and the way that context or system functions, the more effective they will be in managing the range of variables that arise (Witter-Merithew & Nicodemus, 2010a, 2010b, 2011). Systems thinking is a perspective that helps

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practitioners see the events and patterns in the systems in which we interpret in a new light—and respond to them in higher leverage ways versus in low-impact reactionary ways (Meadows, 2008). When practitioners understand what the personnel in the system do, how the system is organized, and what specific processes govern the way the system operates, it opens up a range of possible controls for interfacing more effectively with that system.

4. Autonomy as Relational

Another element to functioning from a systems thinking perspective is the way in which the specialist interpreter perceives their decision latitude—their level of autonomy and authority for decision-making. As a socially constructed phenomena, interpreting is relational and the authority or control an interpreter has over their work is also relational (Dean & Pollard, 2004; Witter-Merithew & Nicodemus, 2010a, 2010b, 2011). Much of the authority granted to an interpreter comes from the systems in which they work. For example, interpreters in the court setting are afforded a high degree of autonomy due to their standing as officers of the court. As well, staff interpreters in a hospital are afforded a high degree of autonomy due to their standing as part of the healthcare team. Conversely, interpreters working in the Video Relay Services (VRS) industry experience restrictions in the degree of decision latitude they can apply due to industry standards regulated by company policies and the Federal Communication Commission (FCC). These differences in professional standing and freedom to exercise decision latitude have significant implications for the work of interpreters, how they are trained, and their readiness to function as specialists. Therefore, understanding the systems in which they work and applying a system thinking approach allows specialist interpreters to exercise decision latitude more effectively.

With this foundation in mind, the remainder of this paper will provide a description of the induction programs being implemented by the NCIEC.

5. NCIEC Induction Programs

The NCIEC has continued its commitment to increasing the number and quality of specialized practitioners by launching two parallel programs providing supervised work experience in courtroom or healthcare settings. Both of these programs are open to Deaf and non-deaf certified practitioners who meet admission requirements specified for each area of specialization. The MARIE Center, in collaboration with administrative offices of the courts, commissions for the Deaf and interpreting agencies, has established five courtroom induction portals around the county for interpreters preparing to specialize in legal interpreting. On the healthcare side, the CATIE Center has partnered with staff interpreters to identify opportunities for supervised work within medical and mental health settings in the larger healthcare system.

5.1. Program development

The field induction model gives interpreter practitioners the opportunity to work in the specialized setting of their choice—legal or healthcare—and to do their work under the supervision of a skilled and experience interpreter practitioner. If one is seeking to become an interpreter in the healthcare setting she or he is paired with an experienced healthcare interpreter and assigned experiences in that setting. If one is looking for the same experience but from the legal setting, she or he is paired with an experienced SC:L and given the opportunity to work in the courts. Each program follows this basic philosophy of a supervised experience in the setting of their choice and thereby providing a structure for being inducted into setting-specific fieldwork.

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Selected applicants for either program are matched with a specific site and supervisor—ideally but not necessarily at a location near them. Applicants are required to commit to completing a number of hours of supervised interpreting practice as part of their program: for healthcare this is between 40-50 hours, for the legal program this is between 60-65 hours of supervised interpreting practice. At the time of this report, the inductions are taking between 6-10 weeks to complete. The actual time to complete each induction depends on several factors; the flexibility of both the participant and supervisor, ability to schedule the appropriate interpreting assignments at the specific site, the demand for interpreting services, and whether the planned assignment takes place, is cancelled or delayed.

Each site match between practitioner applicant and supervisor is initiated by a signed agreement that outlines what each participant is committing to do. It also specifies the site expectations, induction procedures, and practitioner and supervisor responsibilities. The supervisor may then begin working with the selected practitioner and the host site to identify and arrange the assignments to be interpreted. The supervisor, or their designated representative (who must also be an experienced and certified interpreter), will accompany the selected practitioner to all of their court dates or medical assignments.

An interpreting event may involve the practitioner interpreting the assignment alone, with a team interpreter (which can include a CDI for non-Deaf interpreters), or in collaboration with the supervisor. To a limited degree, it may also involve observing the work of more experienced interpreters; however, the thrust of this project is to give the practitioner actual work experience that is supervised.

Communication between the practitioner and supervisor is vital to the success of the project. To facilitate the teams' communication efforts, various forms have been created for evaluating and documenting the work performed. Each supervisor completes an observation form for each assignment. These forms serve as the foundation for the supervisor and practitioner's regular review and discussion of each interpreting performance. The supervisor offers suggestions for how to improve the performance and negotiates with the practitioner ways in which to use their suggestions. The practitioner can work to incorporate the feedback in future assignments and in this fashion, as appropriate, increase their competence interpreting in their chosen specialized setting.

In order to provide an incentive to applicants and an offset for income lost while participating in this program, the program is paying a nominal amount for each hour of approved induction (interpreting services) in which accepted practitioners participate. This fee allows practitioners to forgo other interpreting assignments in order to be available to accept their setting-specific assignments. The fee may not cover all associated costs, but will reflect a substantial contribution towards costs.

5.2. Training of supervisors

Since the primary focus of the induction program is to provide supervised work experience, the role of supervisor is critical. Individuals selected to be supervisors are those individuals with demonstrated system expertise, highly specialized interpreting competence, and access to the system in which individuals are being inducted.

In an effort to make sure that all the supervisors have a common framework from which to operate, the NCIEC has developed a self-guided induction supervisor training program. The program consists of a series of five modules addressing a common core of subjects relevant to all supervisors, regardless of settings. What follows is a description of each module.

- Module 1. Specialization: Defining a framework, processes and competencies. In this module, supervisors are exposed to a framework for specialization, as well as processes used to foster specialization in practitioners. Competencies of healthcare and legal interpreters, based on the expert findings of the NCIEC, are discussed as well. Supervisors completing this module will demonstrate an understanding of formal and informal processes associated with specialization, guiding principles for governing specialization within the field of interpreting, competencies associated with interpreting specialization in either the healthcare or legal setting, and strategies and recommendations for promoting specialized competence.

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- Module 2. Supervision: Guiding Practitioners Towards Specialized Competence. This module offers an introduction to different models of supervision, including peer mentoring and collaboration, and approaches that can be used in guiding and supporting practitioners into specialized practice. Supervisors completing this module will demonstrate an understanding of their unique communication style, be able to recognize different communication styles, demonstrate the ability to adapt their style for interaction with individuals who have a different style, and identify characteristics of different approaches to supervision of peers.
- Module 3. Systems Thinking for Interpreters. An overview of systems thinking and its application to interpreting is the focus of this module. Supervisors completing this module will be able to define system thinking, identify specific ways in which system thinking impacts the work of interpreters, and demonstrate the ability to apply system thinking to the analysis of interpreter-related case studies in either healthcare or legal settings.
- Module 4. Discussing the Work of Interpreters: Approaches and Resources. The primary focus of this module is the application of Demand-Control Schema (Dean & Pollard, 2001) as a dialogic tool for discussion the work of interpreters. Supervisors completing this module will demonstrate the ability to frame observations about the interpreting process using the language of DC-S and be able to apply the DC-S to observation-supervision interactions.
- Module 5. Performance Assessment: Approaches and Resources. In this module, supervisors will be introduced to several approaches for engaging in the analysis of interpreting performance, including miscue analysis (Cokely, 1992) and feature analysis (Taylor, 1993, 2002). Upon completion of the module, supervisors will be able to apply one or more approaches to frame observations about interpreting performance samples from either the healthcare or legal setting. In addition, supervisors will be able to discuss their observations regarding interpreting performance in an objective and descriptive manner that promotes professional growth and development.

Modules are designed for individual study that includes completion of readings, viewing of media, and completing a variety of application and assessment activities. In recognition of the fact that the supervisors selected for participation have high degrees of competence in their area of specialization, each supervisor has the option of testing out of a module, if it addresses information they already possess. Each module has a pre- and post-test. When a score of 85% or higher is achieved on the pre-test, the supervisor can opt out of the module. However, they are welcome to complete the module if desired and to receive continuing education units (CEUs) accordingly.

The modules are available online in recognition that the supervisors are located throughout the United States. Each module requires about 15-20 hours to complete, and supervisors have up to 45 days to complete each module. Discussing learning with a training facilitator and/or participants is also an option. The training seeks to recognize the limitations of time and availability of the individuals who have agreed to function as supervisors in the induction program.

Additional training activities may be implemented within the specific setting depending on the needs of that program. For example, the healthcare induction program involves more training opportunities related to case discussion than are offered in the legal induction program.

5.3. Program evaluation

As with the supervisor training, the CATIE and MARIE Centers are collaborating on program assessment and evaluation. A variety of tools and approaches will be used to assess the effectiveness of the legal induction program from the perspective of participants, supervisors, and the NCIEC.

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5.3.1 Formative evaluation tools and processes

- An observation form was developed and is used by site supervisors to observe inductees and provide feedback. This form is completed at regular intervals determined by the supervisor and inductee.
- Supervisors check in bi-weekly with the program coordinator to provide updates on progress of inductee in meeting induction hours and improving performance objectives.

5.3.2 Summative

- Participants complete a self-assessment at three designated points in the program (developed in collaboration with the CATIE Center).
- Upon entry into the program, participants complete the self-assessment and use this tool to assist in setting goals for the induction program.
- At the mid-point assessment, the inductee and supervisor together, complete the same tool and questions as initial assessment and discuss progress. Goals are revised accordingly.
- At the final assessment, the inductee and supervisor complete the same tool and questions as initial assessment and identify progress in achieving established goals. A plan for continuing professional development is discussed as needed.
- Both supervisors and inductees complete an NCIEC post-training program survey to assess the effectiveness of the program design and their learning experience.
- Participants in the legal induction program also take the RID SC:L performance examination by July 1, 2015 and report results to the MARIE Center.

5.3.3 Other sources of evaluation data

- The pre- and post-test outcomes for the five supervision modules will be used to revise the training package for broader distribution by the NCIEC.
- Recruitment, retention and completion statistics of both inductees and supervisors will be used to determine sustainability of the program.

In the next section, some of the specific aspects of each induction program will be discussed.

Interpreting in Courtroom Settings Induction Program

The NCIEC Court Interpreting Induction Program provides a pathway to the SC:L for certified interpreters, Deaf and non-Deaf, through supervised, supported work experience in the courts. The goal is to induct three to five interpreters from each of the NCIEC regions by September 2015, a total of approximately 15-20 practitioners.

5.4. Structure/design of program

In partnership with several state administrative offices of the courts, commissions for the Deaf, and court interpreter referral agencies in six states and the District of Columbia, the NCIEC will place selected inductees with experienced SC:L interpreters for 60-65 hours of courtroom interpreting practice over an extended period of time. The NCIEC will pay inductees a modest hourly fee for approved services provided. In turn, inductees agree to take the SC:L examination by July 1, 2015 and submit their results to the NCIEC for program evaluation purposes.

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Through the program, certified practitioners gain direct courtroom interpreting experience and regular and ongoing opportunities to reflect on their performance with full-time, experienced court interpreters.

At the time of this writing, nine individuals are being inducted in four different sites, and a waiting list of additional individuals continues to grow.

5.5. Participant qualifications

The program is limited to candidates who can provide verification of:

- RID certification
- BA degree (required to sit for the SC:L performance examination)
- Completion of at least 100 hours of legal and court interpreter training (e.g. RID CEU transcript or academic transcript)
- Prior legal interpreting experience (i.e. letter from interpreting agency, mentor, or court personnel).

Priority is given to individuals who can also verify successful passing of the written portion of the RID SC:L examination. As space is available, other qualified participants will be accepted into the program and have the opportunity to be inducted as well.

The application materials are available for download on the UNC-MARIE Center website at http://www.unco.edu/marie. Carla Mathers, Esq. manages the application process and questions regarding eligibility are directed to her.

5.6. Supervisor qualifications

All of the individuals selected to be supervisors are experienced RID SC:L certified interpreters, many of whom work as full-time staff for the Administrative Office of the Courts and/or agencies that provide interpreting services to the courts. Additionally, the supervisors are individuals who are either trained and experienced mentors and/or interpreter education teachers. This combination of qualifications makes them ideal candidates for the role of supervisor.

5.7. Sites

Currently, the approved sites are as follows. More sites will be developed as time and demand necessitate.

- Colorado Commission for the Deaf—Court Interpreter Program on behalf of the Colorado Administrative Office of the Courts and in collaboration with the Denver City Court
- Kentucky Administrative Office of the Courts in collaboration with Hallenross Associates that provides supervision on behalf of the Kentucky AOC
- Maricopa County Superior Court
- New Jersey Administrative Office of the Courts
- TCS Associates, providing access to courts in District of Columbia, Maryland and Virginia

One of the challenges in working with state agencies, such as AOCs, is the administrative processes associated with getting Memorandums of Understanding (MOUs) or other types of letters of agreement in place. This process is very time consuming and requires advance planning and negotiation. In terms of the existing sites, the length of time required to achieve agreement to implement the program ranged from 30 days to six months. The larger the system, the more layers of administrative review that are necessary.

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Every effort is made to place participants at the site that is most readily accessible to them. However, in some instances, availability of work is such that participants travel to regions outside of their own to engage in the induction program. In most instances, some travel is necessary in order to participate and in doing so, participants sacrifice other work and time to be involved.

6. Healthcare Interpreting Fellowship

Within the confines of the healthcare systems, the socio-political component of role hierarchy dominates. Accordingly, it became necessary to call the process of induction within this system by a name that acknowledges and dovetails with the roles common in healthcare education. The term "fellowship" was proposed by interpreters currently working in healthcare as a title that recognizes the interpreter participant as having a skill set beyond that of a student or resident but not yet a specialist in the area being studied. The NCIEC Healthcare Interpreting Fellowship provides a pathway for Deaf and non-Deaf certified interpreters to successful specialization in healthcare settings through supervised, supported work experience in clinical and inpatient medical and mental health settings. The goal is for three to five interpreters from each of the NCIEC regions to complete their fellowships by September 2015, for a total of approximately 15-20 practitioners.

6.1. Structure/design of program

In partnership with healthcare provider sites and interpreter referral agencies, fellowship sites have been established in three states with potential sites in four additional states as of this writing. The NCIEC will place selected inductees with experienced healthcare interpreters (primarily in staff positions) for 40-50 hours of healthcare interpreting practice over an extended period of time. The NCIEC will pay inductees a modest hourly fee for approved services provided. In turn, inductees agree to complete program evaluations and submit proof of hours completed.

At the time of this writing, six fellows are either in process or in negotiations for beginning their fellowships with applications continuing to be open and processed as sites become available.

6.2. Participant qualifications

Few undergraduate interpreter education programs offer a specialty focus on healthcare interpreting. Practitioners interested in working in healthcare settings pursue specialized training through workshops, online instruction, and mentorship. Without a standardized written test such as the RID SC:L for legal specialization, requirements for the fellowship need to remain somewhat broad. The fellowship program is open to candidates who have:

- RID certification
- At least three years experience working at least part of that time in community settings
- Experience, interest or previous training in working in healthcare settings
- Three references, with at least one being a Deaf person familiar with the interpreter's work.

At the time of this submission, almost all applicants were already providing some interpreting services in healthcare settings and were seeking additional opportunities to work under supervision and dialogue with a trusted colleague about this challenging work.

The application materials are available for download on the CATIE Center website at http://www.stkate.edu/catie. Patty Gordon manages the application process and questions regarding eligibility are directed to her.

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6.3. Supervisor qualifications

The partnership with each site requires the fellowship sites to identify a certified interpreter, preferably a staff interpreter, who will provide consistent supervision through the fellowship. Each site supervisor works with the project coordinator for support. Supervisors are expected to have experience in either mentoring or interpreter education and are responsible for managing the fellow's placement within their particular system.

6.4. Recruitment

Unlike the legal induction program, very few applicants were recruited by site supervisors; only two of the 15 original applications came from the sites initially listed as hosts for fellows. Instead, applications have come from interpreters in various regions seeking the opportunity of this unique specialized training, even when travel to a remote site is required. Because the fellowship structure is designed to take place over extended periods of time, distant travel for participation is impractical. In response to this demand, if no site is already in place the Healthcare Fellowship Program Director Richard Laurion will work to recruit an appropriate site and qualified interpreter to serve as host for the targeted fellow. Recruitment is still being encouraged for sites with supervisors already available with application acceptance remaining open until placement goals for the program have been reached.

6.5. Sites

Currently the approved sites are as follows:

- Boston Children's Hospital, Boston, MA
- Essentia Health Services, Duluth, MN
- HealthPartners (a managed care company in Minnesota)
- Hennepin County Medical Center, Minneapolis, MN
- Stratus Video Services (a video relay service provider used in healthcare settings), Tampa, FL
- University of Texas Health Services, San Antonio, TX
- University of South Florida, Tampa, FL

As mentioned in the recruitment section, additional sites are in negotiation based on the location of applicants. As of this writing, it appears the following sites will be added to the fellowship:

- Kaiser Permanente, Hayward, CA
- Memorial Hermann Medical Center, Houston, TX

Once the fellowship program notices were released, the CATIE Center was approached by potential sites interested in hosting fellows. These sites include:

- Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Boston, MA
- Services for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Columbia, SC
- Sign Language Network, Lexington, KY

There remain applicants in locations with no active sites. If they are not able to travel, efforts will continue to identify, recruit, and develop possible fellowship sites from healthcare facilities in their local areas. There also remain available sites and supervisors with no applicants. We are currently working to identify what barriers or disincentives potential participants perceive that are resulting in unused fellowship opportunities.

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One barrier for some sites, availability of assignments to satisfy the number of hours required to complete the program, was addressed in the Twin Cities through a collaborative approach. In this case, two site supervisors arranged for fellows to complete a portion of the fellowship program hours at each of their respective sites in order to broaden the experience of the fellows and satisfy the number of hours of supervised interpreting required by the fellowship.

Challenges in working with healthcare sites are usually related to the site's requirements for interns, residents, fellows or other healthcare professionals working temporarily onsite. Specific details vary across facilities but most involve obligations to facility policies, training needs, immunization and liability concerns. An additional challenge is helping the facility administrators understand how the fellowship project is different from hosting student interns: it has proven to be a bit of a perspective shift for some facilities to recognize that the fellowship applicants are already qualified by skill and certification to work in their site and that they are only seeking the supervision experience in order to expand their healthcare commitment.

The participants in the fellowship project may work in a variety of health care settings: hospitals, clinics, mental health and substance abuse facilities, private physicians' offices, rehabilitation centers, domestic violence programs, and nursing homes. In addition, one site has been specifically selected because it provides participants the opportunity to deliver healthcare interpreting via video remote interpreting services, while another site regularly has signed language interpreters working appointments side by side with spoken language interpreters serving a primarily immigrant and refugee population.

6.6. Additional supports

With no standardized training or assessment for healthcare interpreters currently in place, additional training materials for healthcare fellowship participants are made available online. All fellows and supervisors are given access to an online course that contains the content from all the CATIE Center's current healthcare courses. Course topics include interpreting healthcare discourse, separate modules focused on cardiovascular, digestive, respiratory and muscular and skeletal systems.

Current fellows are also connected via a Google Group in order to share questions, concerns and offer support to one another.

Benefits

The need for highly qualified interpreters to work in court and healthcare settings is well documented (Cokely & Winston, 2009, 2012). A survey of interpreters working in legal settings who have not yet taken the SC:L exam identified a lack of sufficient induction into courtroom interpreting as the primary reason for not taking the examination. In addition to the benefits of preparing a more qualified workforce to provide interpreting services to the courts and in healthcare settings, assisting practitioners in gaining higher degrees of qualifications and advancing their standing is another benefit of this induction program. The most important benefit is that supervised induction can be a significant contribution in reducing the turnover of newly entering practitioners and providing support for the acquisition of coping skills related to the various demands associated with the discipline (Smith & Ingersoll, 2003; Ingersoll & Smith, 2004; Seago, 2006; Wong, 2004). The role of supervision in induction programs is central to ensuring supportive communication, collaboration with others, engagement in planning activities, networking and access to resources (Arends & Rigazio-DiGilio, 2000; Feiman-Nemser, Schwille, Carver, & Yusko, 1999; Fideler & Haselkorn, 1999).

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Conclusion

In summary, the purpose of the NCIEC field induction program is to provide supervised work experiences for certified interpreters that will lead to increasing the quality and quantity of individuals specializing in healthcare and courtroom settings. Errors in communication can pose risks to the parties involved in these settings and lead to further complications and liability for the police, courts or healthcare providers. The field induction program is designed to give participants real experience while protecting the integrity of the work through the process of active supervision.

Supervision is an essential part of this program because of the high-risk nature of courtroom or healthcare interpreting. It is also an essential part of assisting new practitioners with learning how to navigate the system in which they work. This NCIEC induction project provides supervised work experience designed to:

1. increase one's practical experience,
2. provide individual opportunities to reflect on interpreting performance under the supervision of an experienced practitioner, and
3. improve one's confidence applying the skills, knowledge and attributes associated with the specific setting.

Hopefully this pilot project will serve as a model for healthcare systems and administrators of the court to establish sustainable induction programs as a means for preparing competent practitioners for these two critical areas of specialization.

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The essence of our future: Research studies in interpretation from Gallaudet's doctoral students

Joy Marks,[54] Laura Maddux[55], and Tamar Nelson

Abstract

This paper is a brief description of three research studies from Doctoral students at Gallaudet University's Department of Interpretation. Joy Marks examined accredited ASL/English bachelor degree programs to determine if cognitive skills are a component of their admissions screening. The study shows that only one program clearly demonstrated cognitive skills as a part of its screening. Laura Maddux conducted a study about a specific aspect of interactive discourse (Metzger 1999). A quasi-experimental design with a pretest/instruction/posttest, the results showed an increase in the specific aspect of interactive discourse used by the students post-instruction. Tamar Nelson investigated preparation methods used by two participants who interpreted two 10-minute formal conference lectures from English into ASL, with no preparation time, and with twenty minutes of preparation time. The analysis suggests that the interpretations for which the interpreters prepared had fewer affected propositions and that some preparation methods may work better than others.

Keywords: Admission screening, cognition, teaching methods, preparation

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The essence of our future: Research studies in interpretation from Gallaudet's doctoral students

Cognitive Measures in Interpreter Education: An Examination of Admissions Screening in ASL-English Interpreter Education Programs – Joy Marks

1.1 Introduction

This study investigates cognitive ability as a factor for determining admission to American Sign Language/English interpreter education programs. Cognition is of particular concern to interpreter education programs where abilities such as cognitive load, working memory and comprehension have been determined to play critical roles (Gile, 1997; Shreve & Diamond, 1997). I sought to learn if education programs have admission tests or screening tools that measure cognitive abilities and, if so, to investigate the satisfaction of program administrators with the screening instruments. Although a body of research has investigated the cognitive demands of interpretation, little is known about whether these studies have resulted in the use of screening instruments in interpreter education programs, specifically within ASL-English interpreting programs. The aim of this study was to determine the need for development of cognitive measures within ASL-English interpreter education programs, specifically for screening and admission.

1.2 Literature Review

The topic of entrance requirements for interpreter training was identified in the first textbook for signed language interpreter education in the United States (Quigley, 1965). The text did not identify the entrance requirements or how they should be implemented, but it did state that students must know ASL, be motivated, be intellectual, and have sufficient hearing to understand the speaker (Quigley, 1965). Thus, from the beginning of formalized interpreter education in the United States it was recognized that interpreting involves more than language competency. In recent years, Bontempo and Napier (2009) conducted a study of program admission testing of signed language interpreters in Australia. They found that admission testing has often been informal, subjective, and lacking a research base. They determined there was a need to develop admission testing that was more cognitively based and which used psychometrically valid tools. In hindsight, they realized that testing was based on pre-interpreting skills rather than individual aptitude. From reviewing literature and research from occupational studies and psychology they concluded that general intelligence testing has been found to be effective in other occupational fields and using them along with language proficiency evaluation would potentially be a better tool for screening.

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In a similar study, research was performed with participants from two different sign language interpreting programs in Spain by a group of researchers to determine possible factors that would predict success (Gomez, Molina, Benitez, & de Torres, 2007). Their results showed that perceptual-motor and cognitive abilities are more effective in predicting success than personality traits. These results seem to support the conclusions that Bontempo and Napier drew but did not test in their earlier study.

In a related study, Shaw and Hughes (2006) examined student and faculty perceptions of successful student profiles in interpreter education program in the U.S. They developed a survey to collect data from entry-level and advanced students as well as interpreting faculty on their perceptions of three domains of successful student profiles: (1) academic habits and skills, (2) information processing skills, and (3) personality characteristics. In the domain most related to the present study, information processing skills, students and faculty agreed that ability to distinguish figure-ground/critical message from context was important but disagreed on the other two characteristics. Both faculty and students agreed that mental mapping of information/organization was a weak area for students and disagreed on the other areas. Faculty and students were asked to suggest any other characteristics that were not evaluated by the survey for this domain. Student responses included memory and concentration, visualization, processing time, rapid lexical retrieval, and mental flexibility to switch languages. The faculty reported that memory, rapid lexical retrieval, and ability to synthesize message parts and abstract reasoning as additional needed skills.

These results of these three studies suggest a need to teach metacognitive skills in interpreter education programs since faculty indicate that critical thinking and self-monitoring are requiring development. Each of these researchers suggest that a survey such as this can not only help identify possible curricula needs, but also determine potential cognitive and personality traits that may be used as screening tools for programs. However, they recognize that many educators are apprehensive about this approach because it calls into question whether or not these traits can be taught.

Using the information gathered from the 2006 survey and review of related literature, Shaw (2011) developed a study of cognitive and motivational contributors to aptitude in European signed language interpreting students and European spoken language interpreting students. In this study, the researcher questioned differences based exist among students based on the language modalities used in interpreter education. Results indicate statistically significant differences between the two groups based on some of the items of the tests that were used, suggesting (a) signed language students have more highly developed visual memory skills in the presence of distracting information and retain visual information longer than spoken language students and (b) spoken language students are more vulnerable to distractions and are more likely than signed language students to believe that their successes are due to their own efforts (Shaw, 2011).

The review of the literature on signed language interpreter training programs suggests a desire and need for tools for screening students before entering the programs. A case can be made that there are cognitive skills that need to be present upon entry into programs and others that can and need to be taught.

1.3 Methodology

A two-part study was developed; the first part consisted of a detailed analysis of program website information, and the second used a semi-structured interview of program directors and faculty members. The program website analysis provided background knowledge of the programs and suggested potential questions for the interviews. The interviews were designed to clarify the website information. Because RID requires a bachelor's degree for the certification exam, nine bachelor degree programs accredited by the CCIE were the focus of this study. Four program directors were available and agreed to be interviewed by phone or by videoconference to further discuss their program's entry screening processes.

1.4 Results

Study 1: Website Examination

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Interpreter education programs typically do not control the initial entrance requirements; rather, requirements are frequently mandated by university admissions requirements. Some universities are very specific and detailed about the requirements while others indicate that several factors will be considered for admission. An additional factor in admission is whether a student is a recent high school graduate or is transferring from another institution of higher education. Of the nine program websites examined, no two programs had exactly the same entrance requirements.

Just as university admissions requirements varied, so did the requirements for majoring in interpreting; again, no two programs were alike. Some programs had specific online applications to be completed along with other requirements that measured ASL competency and knowledge. One third of the programs required ASL skills to be measured by an outside source, such as the ASLPI or the state-interpreting test. Several programs required an assessment of ASL fluency and clearly indicated that ASL and interpreting coursework would need to be evaluated specifically by the department to determine approval for transfer.

Most programs provided a list of the required major courses and only two programs had one course that met the criteria established for this research. One program had a course that met the criteria for cognitive skills, which was a prerequisite for entrance into the program. The same university with a prerequisite course that met the criteria for cognitive skills also had statements within its overall program information that indicated a focus on cognitive skills.

The focus on entrance requirements for the interpreter education programs suggests an emphasis on ASL skills along with GPA and pre-requisite course success. While the program websites were vague and/or lacked information regarding entrance requirements it does not mean that they do not have additional requirements that were not stated.

Study 2: Interviews

Four program directors of the nine education program websites were available for a one-hour interview. Three of the interviews were conducted by telephone and one was conducted by videoconferencing.

Two of the program directors indicated that their programs had changed their entrance requirements within the past year. All four program directors were satisfied with their process and did not foresee making any changes in the near future. However, when asked if they were to make changes what they would consider, three had ideas of possible improvements.

All four directors believe that their screening processes were good predictors of success. At the same time, they realized that not all students who entered the programs would successfully complete them. When asked about correlating entrance screening to program completion rates, most directors found students did not complete the program for various life and personal choices rather than success or failure in the program.

For all four of the programs, the interviews confirmed the information that was available on their websites regarding screening requirements. In all but the one program already mentioned, the focus of the additional evaluation is on ASL and English language skills and knowledge.

All four program directors stated that cognitive skills are an important part of the work of an interpreter and should be incorporated into interpreter education and possibly into screening. All four mentioned that cognitive skill development was a part of the coursework but was not necessarily a specific, separately identified focus area or goal. Only one program website had any indication that cognitive skills were a part of the program based on course descriptions. All the directors agreed that more research was needed regarding cognitive skills as part of screening and curriculum.

1.5 Conclusion

Based on the review of the websites and interviews with the program directors, cognition was not found to be a major part of ASL/English interpreter education program admission/screening design. Overwhelmingly, the emphasis for screening is on both ASL and English language skills and knowledge. The interviews revealed that while cognition

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was not clearly indicated on website information, one program did screen for those skills and all programs incorporated cognition in courses

While it is clear that the emphasis for screening is on language skills and knowledge, it is also clear that there is no standard tool used for this purpose. More importantly, very little information is available from the programs interviewed that correlate successfully passing entrance screening with successful completion of the program. With such varied entrance screening processes it is unclear what constitutes a valid predictor of success. An area that both the literature reviewed and this study did not explore is an examination of those applicants who do not successfully pass the screening. A recommended area for future research is to determine if cognitive factors are a possible explanation for lack of success on entrance screening.

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2. Interactive interpreting: Teaching and learning strategies – Laura Maddux

2.1 Introduction

To date, little research has been done on the effectiveness of teaching strategies within interpreter education (Hale & Napier, 2013). Related fields, such as second language acquisition (SLA), frequently test the relative success of their instruction methods using a pretest/instruction/posttest quasi-experimental design (Cho & Roger, 2010; Hale & Napier, 2013; Theodoridou, 2011).

2.2 Literature Review

ASL-English interpreters work between languages and cultures, as they process content, pragmatics, semantics, and a host of both linguistic and non-linguistic visual and auditory input, while in the presence of people ranging from a person at a homeless shelter, to the President of the United States. The work of interpreting is an understandably complex task, as the interpreter must account for the setting, purpose, goals, and participants in each of a multitude of interpreting situations they may encounter (Cokely, 1992; Roy, 2000). For approximately 45 years, research on signed language interpreting, both in the U.S., and abroad has addressed a number of different issues of concern or question including working conditions, role of the interpreter, cognitive processing, and situational interpreting (Metzger, 2006). As only a few studies have specifically focused on interpreter education (Gustason, 1985; Metzger, 2006), this wealth of knowledge about interpreting has been applied to interpreter education to create a number of research-based, and intuitively practical teaching methods (Roy, 2000: Roy, 2005; Roy, 2006). Nonetheless, there still exists a large gap between describing what interpreters do, and knowing how to teach them to do it effectively through empirically tested methods. Roy (2000) states, "Ever since the formal education of interpreters began, educators have been trying to determine what to teach in order to produce entry-level interpreters who achieve the minimum level of competence needed to perform their jobs successfully" (p. 1). In the 1990s interpreting research began to move away from a focus on errors to a description of interaction occurring during interpreted events (Harrington, 2005). Now researchers call for a move towards investigating how we *teach* those principals of interaction to interpreters-in-training.

2.3 Methods

This study used a pretest/instruction/posttest quasi-experimental design to test the instructional potential of one method* for teaching interpreters. The participants first take a pre-test, then receive new, or altered instruction (the treatment). At the conclusion of the treatment, they complete a posttest, which are compared with the pretests. If they perform significantly better after the focused instruction, the researcher can surmise that the differences between the performances may be due to the treatment (Johnson, 2005; Tomal, 2010).

Participants

Six participants, three males and three females, all juniors and seniors in bachelors programs were recruited. Five of the students were between 20-25 years of age, and one student was between 46-50. None of the students had Deaf

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parents. The students had all been working as interpreters for less than three years, and only two of them had attended another interpreter preparation program before transferring to Gallaudet University to complete their education.

Materials

The video used for testing purposes was publicly available on YouTube. Both pre-tests and post-tests were recorded using Quicktime software on Mac desktop computers. A PowerPoint presentation shown via a projector was used during workshop instruction, and ELAN transcription software was used for analysis of all tests.

Procedure

Participants met with the researcher individually prior to the workshop to record a pre-test, which the students recorded using a webcam on a Mac computer. This pre-test consisted of an English-to-English interaction in which two English speaking interlocutors interacted on a video and the student was recorded interpreting this interaction into ASL. The participants then attended a 3.5-hour workshop on the Gallaudet campus one Saturday morning, during which they were taught using a specific instruction method on interactive interpreting. The workshop began with introducing the participants to each other, then reminding them that they should create a safe space to give positive, constructive, and specific feedback while working with each other, before they moved on to go through the steps of the instruction. At the conclusion of the workshop the students recorded a post-test and filled out a post-survey.

Analysis

The taped interpretations from all participants were put into ELAN for data analysis. The pre- and post-tests were compared to see if improvement had occurred. The post-survey results are also included in the results and implication sections, as the participants' insights are beneficial when the topic of teaching is approached. Although this data is qualitative, it shows that the participants were invested in the results since they saw it as beneficial to them.

2.4 Results

The results show a substantial enhancement for interpreting performance following the instruction. Instances of the targeted interactive interpreting technique increased from a total of 85.5% of the possible available uses on the pre-test to 169.05% on the post-test as the participants learned to include multiple instances of the technique at each availability. As for the survey, all students believed they learned from the teaching method, had no suggestions for improving it, and desired to learn this way in the future. They believed the workshop would benefit their future interpreting by making them more aware of when the technique is needed, and by giving them the tools to be clear in their interpretations.

Implications

The present study has several implications for interpreting pedagogy. The results show a dramatic increase in skills related the interactive interpreting component included in this instruction method, indicating that it is beneficial for student acquisition of the technique, meaning that teachers can incorporate this method of teaching into their classrooms. Although more research should be done on using such a method to teach other techniques, skills or strategies, the findings of this study infer that other interpreting techniques could also be taught using this method.

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Limitations

This study functions well as a pilot attempt, but does contain some inherent limitations. These include the length of the training, and the limited number of participants. In a typical classroom setting, the training could be spread out over several class periods to allow for more skill building, in-depth practice, and synthesis. It would also be possible to mask the goal of the pre and post-tests so that the participants don't know the exact goal of the post-test. There would also be more participants if several intact classes were used, in addition to having the option for a control. Several of these limitations (control group, goal masking, length of training, etc.) are currently being implemented into an ongoing research study.

2.5 Conclusion

As more data becomes available, it is hoped that the school to work gap will be shortened until we are graduating entry-level interpreters from our interpreting programs on a regular basis. This will only be possible if Napier's (2005) advice is followed with interpreting researchers, educators, and practitioners working together to be sure that research and curriculum is distributed around the world. This dissemination of knowledge is especially crucial as many interpreter educators are adept at interpreting, but naïve as to teaching (Winston, 2005). As a whole, we must move beyond simply knowing what interpreters need to master, to finding ways to foster this knowledge in the next generation of interpreters (Winston, 2005). One way of doing this is by conducting further educational research on instruction methods as has been shown in this study of a pre-test/instruction/post-test design in testing a technique of teaching interactive interpreting.

*Due to ongoing research in this area, the specific interpreting skill that was investigated will not be disclosed in the paper. Future research will provide more details as to the method and results.

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3. Preparation methods of American Sign Language-English interpreters: Effectiveness and perceptions – Tamar Nelson

3.1 Introduction

This pilot study gathered quantitative and qualitative data in order to investigate three questions: (1) what, if any, is the difference in interpretations when preparation methods are employed versus when they are not, (2) what methods are used by ASL-English interpreters when preparing to interpret a formal conference lecture, and (3) how do the ASL-English interpreters perceive the effectiveness of their preparation methods? The goal of this study was to gather preliminary data regarding ASL-English interpreter preparation. This study was comprised of two small-scale studies, both of which utilized the same participants and materials. Research on interpreter preparation can serve to increase understanding of the benefits of preparation for interpretation. As a result, interpreter educators and professional interpreters can prepare and teach preparation using evidence-based that will assist in achieving a dynamically equivalent interpretation.

3.2 Literature Review

Signed and spoken language interpreters, researchers, scholars, and professional associations report that preparation results in rendering superior interpretations (Ala-Antti, 2003; Gentile, Ozolins & Vasilaakakos, 1996; Hale, 2007; Harrington, 2001; Herbert, 1952; International Association of Conference Interpreters, 2012; Mackenzie, 1998; Napier, 2002; Napier, McKee & Goswell, 2010; Quiqley, 1964; Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, Inc., 2007a; 2007b; Riccardi, 1998; Rudvin & Tomassini, 2011; Seal, 1998; Seleskovitch,1998, 2010;). However, to date, there is little empirical data regarding the impact of preparation and perceptions ASL-English interpreters have about their preparation methods **(**Anderson, 1994; Čeňková, 1998; Galaz, 2011; Russell & McLeod, 2009; Storey & Jamieson, 2004).

3.3 Methodology

Two interpreters participated in this study. Each participant had a minimum of three years of professional interpreting experience for conference-level presentations and lectures. Interpreter One is a Caucasian female interpreter who grew up in Ohio and now resides in Maryland. She has an AAS degree in interpretation and BA & MA in other fields and has been interpreting for 25 years. She has earned her CI, CT, NIC-M, SC:L national certifications. Interpreter Two is an Asian male interpreter who grew up in Texas and now resides in Maryland. He has an AAS degree in interpretation and has been interpreting for 21 years. He has earned his CI, CT and SC:L national certifications.

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The stimulus material was two different lectures delivered in spoken English by the same speaker, Mr. Tim Wise who is an antiracist essayist, author and educator ("Tim Wise antiracist," n.d.). Lecture 1 was titled, "Between Barack and a Hard Place" (Book TV, 2009), was recorded at the 2009 White Privilege Conference (WPC). The second lecture was an audiotaped speech titled, "Feeling No Pain - America's Deepening Culture of Indifference" ("Tim Wise Feeling," 2012). These materials were chosen because they were similar in length and contained similar semantic content (See Appendices A and B for full transcripts of the lectures).

The participants were video recorded as they interpreted the first 10 minutes of the 21-minute Lecture 1 while listening to it on a laptop computer and without any preparation. The participants were in a room alone, had no prior information about the lecture, and were instructed to "interpret" the presentation. When they finished, I interviewed the participants about what, if any, interpreting methods they employed during their interpretation and which methods they found successful or unsuccessful.

Then, the participants were then given a transcript of the second lecture and instructed to use 20 minutes to prepare for their interpretation. When the 20 minutes were done, the participants were videotaped as they interpreted the second lecture into ASL. I then interviewed the participants about their preparation methods, specifically which methods they thought were effective or not effective. In addition, they were asked to reflect on the outcome of their interpretation.

3.4 Results

In Study 1, I investigated the accuracy of the interpretations under conditions of no-preparation and with preparation. To assess accuracy, I compared propositions in the source language texts to those in the target language for number and accuracy of propositions rendered (Larson, 1998). Interpreter one had 11 total impacted propositions in Lecture 1 (no-prep) and 2 in Lecture 2 (prep). Interpreter two had 9 total impacted propositions in Lecture 1 (no-prep) and 6 in Lecture 2 (prep). These findings show that the lectures without preparation had more impacted propositions compared with those lectures for which the interpreters prepared. After the analyses of the propositions were completed the interpreters were interviewed regarding their interpreting strategies and preparation methods.

The analysis of the interpreters' narratives about their experiences entailed examining and categorizing the interpreting strategies and preparation methods used by ASL-English interpreters as they interpreted a formal conference lecture. Videotaped interview sessions were used to examine to what degree the ASL-English interpreters perceived the effectiveness of their interpreting strategies and preparation methods. Interpreters' comments were analyzed in terms of how they described which interpreting strategies and preparation methods were effective and why they were perceived as such. For most cases, I have summarized the interpreters' responses in Tables 1-2 below. I chose to quote text in instances when I felt the interpreters' choice of words was particularly interesting, informative, and/or impactful.

Participant	Did you feel your interpretation was dynamically equivalent?	Why was it or was it not dynamically equivalent?	What interpreting strategies were used?	Were the interpreting strategies successful?
Part. 1 – No Prep	No	- No sense of overall goal. - Many missing details.	- Trying to "keep the whole cohesive structure in my head." - "Trying to figure out, "What is the goal of this piece."	- No. - Wrong predictions, could not figure out the goal of the piece.
Part. 2 – No Prep	No	- Didn't know topic	- What should I	

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		before beginning. - Speakers' style was forceful and different from my personality…."	fingerspell? (e.g. fingerspelled capital and sign punishment because of time constraints.)	

Table 1. Participant 1 and 2: Dynamic equivalence and interpreting strategies during the lecture 1 (no-prep) interpretations [Partial report.]

Part.	Did you feel your interpretation was dynamically equivalent?	Why was it or was it not dynamically equivalent?	Preparation methods used?	Ramifications of the preparation?
Part. 1 – Prep	"Closer."	- Not fully because "I know there were pieces that I missed and there were parts I didn't set up the way I wanted to, or maybe some conceptually, conceptual ideas that maybe didn't realize as I thought they might." - Yes, because "having background" and the "goal."	- Read through the transcript - Made notes of names - Get a sense of the flow of the text - Looked up names on the internet - Looked up what happened in Binghamton, NY	- Able to predict, "he is coming up on those two questions," "then I can prepare myself." - "I have the story in my head." - "I know where he is going with this." - Can restructure. "I know the end of the sentence so I can put it first." - Able to communicate his point knowing his overall goal.
Part. 2 – Prep	"Definitely more effective."	- Yes, because "more prepared for the speaker's passion and energy level."	- Read through the transcript - Looked up name and location of Conference - Wrote down names and cities (help when it was time to spell them)	- Information "helped me frame the whole, um, interpretation more effectively." - Able to restructure. - Able to not have emotions impact interpretation. - Could envision the target language use of a conference attendee.

Table 2. Participant 1 and 2: Dynamic equivalence and preparation methods during the preparation interpretations [Partial report.]

The interview analysis includes three sections. First, the participant interviews after their interpretation without preparation are discussed. Second, common preparation methods utilized are shared. The third section enumerates methods that differed between the two participants. Here I share, only, the common preparation methods utilized.

Common preparation methods. There were several examples of preparation methods and plans that both interpreters utilized. Table 3 illustrates the methods used and their impact, as explained by the participants.

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Action	Impact	Impact	Impact	Impact	Impact	Impact
Reading the script	Provided an increased understanding of the "goal/setting."	Knew more about the speaker's personality, including his passion and energy level.*	Aware of what was "important" in context.	Aware of how he delivers his message.*	Able to predict	Able to restructure; new more about speakers timing
Using the internet to obtain more detailed information	White Privilege Conference – allowed for a deeper understanding of the context	Names – allowed interpreter to know the background of people and how to spell their names	Cities – allowed interpreter to learn more and see spelling	N/A	N/A	N/A

Table 3. Common preparation methods and impact [Partial report.]

*This may be, in part, due to the second speech being delivered by the same speaker.

3.5 Limitations and Strengths

There are several limitations and strengths of this research. The first limitation is that there were only two participants, which limits generalization to a larger population of interpreters. The findings would be strengthened by using a larger group of experienced, certified, conference interpreters. Second, I was the only one evaluating the propositions in the interpretations. My faculty advisor also reviewed the propositions, but no native ASL users were consulted regarding the propositions. A third limitation is the content of the source material, which may be have been perceived as sensitive as it discusses White Privilege, capital punishment, racial murders, and other provocative topics. The nature of these topics may have had an impact on the interpreters. Further, it seems as though one participant interpreted into ASL while one adopted a more literal style, which may have impacted the measurement of the propositions. In future studies, the participants will be instructed on what type of interpretation to create. Finally, both participants live and work in the same geographical area, which may limit the interpreting strategies and preparation methods used based on what is commonly used in that area.

One strength of the study is that my effect on the product being studied was minimal as the participants performed the task of interpreting privately. Second, the study is replicable and the instruments created could be used for future research. This study tests the theoretical and anecdotal presumptions, within the ASL-English interpreting community, that preparation allows for interpreting that is dynamically equivalent (Nida, 1964). In addition, the study adds valuable data to the literature by examining how two experienced, professional ASL-English interpreters chose to prepare for their interpretations.

3.6 Conclusion

This pilot study investigated ASL-English interpreter preparation using qualitative and quantitative methods. Results suggest that preparation had a positive impact on the interpretations due to fewer impacted propositions in the

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interpretation for which preparation was completed. Further, the participants described the most effective preparation methods, which included reading through the script and looking up names/information/symbolic language on the Internet. Interpreters and interpreter educators may focus on learning and incorporating the more effective methods into their work. In addition, the participants in this study were able to perceive if their preparation methods were or were not being effective. If interpreter practitioners or interpreting students notice what is or is not working when they prepare for interpreting work they may be able to shift their practices to those that are recognized as being effective. In sum, these findings hold implications for both interpreter preparation and interpreter education.

In 1964, the emerging profession of ASL-English interpreting began a discussion about the need for interpreters to receive copies of preparation materials as a necessity in order to provide appropriate interpreting services. Nearly half a century later the discussion continues. Future research regarding interpreter preparation is necessary. Duplication or expansion of this study would provide further data, which would be a significant contribution to the interpreting profession.

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ASL Essays – Improving ASL thinking and performance for millennials, elements and essentials

Steven Collins[56] and Christopher Stone[57]

Description

With limited opportunities for millennials to engage in traditional activities such as attending Deaf clubs, the training and development of recorded ASL genre (*ASLr*) supports their ability to engage with a variety of Deaf people in a variety of different contexts. This also enables learners to effectively engage in VLOGs and other virtual media—a staple of 21st century Deaf lives.

This presentation will demonstrate the use of ASL essays within Gallaudet's BAI and MAI programs. We will give examples of a style sheet for an ASL essay, an example of a 'how-to' supporting students in recording their ASL essays and providing ASL feedback to develop their knowledge and performance of *ASLr* amongst other registers (see Stone, 2011).

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Bridging the gap between ASL and interpreter education programs

Amy June Rowley[58] and Marika Kovacs-Houlihan[59]

Description

This workshop will look at a study done on four-year colleges producing ASL Studies (or a similar field) graduates. Of the programs studied, we will discuss the models of how ASL and Interpreter Education programs aligned and discuss expectations and attitudes between ASL and Interpreter Programs. Two areas of focus will be discussed in depth. Presenters will discuss ASL programs studied including curriculum design, environment including empowerment of ASL, and university structure of ASL programs. For the second topic we will focus more on how those programs differed between ASL and Interpreter Education.

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Creating Deaf hearts: Using popular education with interpreting students

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Abstract

Popular Education is a "series of principles that have their roots in the theories of Brazilian educator Paulo Freire" (Zerkel, 2001, p. 6). It is both a philosophy and methodology in which education is a collective effort and can serve as a model to create Deaf hearts in interpreting students that commonly come from an individualistic cultural background. It can provide an ongoing experience of a collectivist cultural lens, preparing interpreters to share decision-making with deaf people, who are the experts in their life experiences, during the interpreting process. It is proposed that Popular Education can be used for effective instruction in Interpreter Training Programs, in contrast to the pitfalls of the traditional, and proprietary, approaches to learning. Popular education has the ability to foster more collaborative partnerships between ASL interpreters and deaf people by normalizing and internalizing Deaf cultural behaviors throughout the training process.

Keywords: Deaf, popular education, American Sign Language, interpreting education, social justice, Freire

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Creating Deaf hearts: Using popular education with interpreting students

"If the structure does not permit dialogue, the structure must be changed" (Freire, 1970).

As explained by well-known interpreter and trainer Molly Wilson (2011), American Sign Language (ASL) interpreter education experienced a dramatic shift in the late 1970s. This shift saw the primary center of interpreter education become academic-based, rather than community-based. In essence, the shift "bypassed" the Deaf community as gatekeepers for the quality of their access. Nurturing and guiding a prospective interpreter to grow Deaf hearts, "stamping their passport" into the community, became lost when the focus overly shifted to linguistic and translational abilities. Essentially, respect for deaf people became a neglected or entirely unattended area of interpreter competence. Respect, in this context, entails understanding the deaf way of doing things, reciprocity across cultural lines, navigating various boundaries, sharing in the interpreting process, and especially utilizing deaf people as credible sources of their lives and language.

Language is the foundation of any cultural community, and yet ASL classes are often separated from Deaf culture classes. Frequently, ASL students are not adequately prepared to truly benefit from acculturation assignments that are created and done in a perfunctory manner. Students, who attend Deaf events in the spirit of acculturation, can inadvertently end up alienating the very people they are meant to interact with. Some describe the experience as being observed like animals in a zoo (Bridges, 2014).

Over the past four years, a national dialogue has been gradually building with a focus on the broken relationship between interpreters and deaf people; this dialogue has increasingly focused on what is wrong with interpreters. Various vlogs, presentations, articles, and letters have detailed negative experiences with interpreters, and a common thread of "attitude lousy" ties them together (Boudreault, 2014; Bridges, 2013; Forestal, 2014; Gerlis, 2014; Gray, 2014; Rashid, 2014; Solomon & Miller, 2014; Suggs, 2012; Taylor, 2014).

Despite many wonderful teachers modeling the right attitude, their students appear to struggle in internalizing it. An inherent pitfall of the academic model is teaching from an individualistic perspective, which is a fundamental mismatch with the collectivist nature of the Deaf community. Considering that interpreter education will not leave the Land of Credentials and Academia, how do we bring a collectivist attitude into the academic environment? How do we ensure its place within the higher education construct?

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Deaf Expert

Rather than use "client" or "consumer" to refer to deaf people using interpreting services, the term "deaf expert" is used throughout this paper. This is to acknowledge that deaf individuals bring their own expertise to the interpreting process. Deaf people are the experts on their own lives, whereas interpreters are always guests (welcome or unwelcome) in those lives. The life experiences of deaf people (personal life, language, and culture, etc.) should be seen as equal to, if not more important than, the interpreter's formal education on the conceptualization of the interpreting process. When the deaf perspective is valued in this way, interpreting becomes a collaborative process rather than an individually based service that is "delivered" without deaf input.

Referring to deaf people as experts represents a fundamental shift that is being called for across the spectrum in the deaf community. This shift is needed – to see deaf people as credible sources of information rather than "lay people," who lack the insider information that comes with formal education. The Deaf community, including Deaf professionals such as Certified Deaf Interpreters (CDIs), is beginning to demand that the definition of interpreting be shared. In a 2014 Street Leverage conference presentation, Eileen Forestal noted that historically only "hearing interpreters have defined interpreting," but called for that process to open up and allow deaf people to be involved in the very definition of interpreting. This shift can begin by recognizing the position of deaf people in the interpreting process, the legitimate experts.

Attitude

Perhaps the best place to start a discussion of attitude is with the Deaf community itself. The "real world" is where the interpreting process actually occurs. It appears that at times, Deaf individuals express a preference for attitude over skill i.e. that they prefer interpreters who others may see as less skilled, but having "attitude good." A recent study of Deaf professionals found that a majority of them developed a small cadre of three to four interpreters, chosen specifically based on their ability to accept feedback (Leeson et al., 2014). The ability to accept and internalize feedback implies the presence of a positive attitude, something that appears to be at the heart of not only good interpreting, but also good relationships with Deaf individuals, the very people that interpreters profess to serve.

Individual interpreter attitudes

A good attitude carries with it many subjective meanings that are likely unique to each individual you might ask. Instead, a catchall may be that "I know it when I see it." Despite the difficulty in expressing a concrete definition, this does not mean that it is not worth exploring what a good attitude entails. Several leaders in interpreter training have attempted to do this, contributing to a more structured and objective definition of what a good attitude means for interpreting students. In their 2002 article, Smith and Savidge explored attitude across domains of psychology, identity, culture, values, manners, and politics. Their overall conclusion was that a good attitude is a "complex of psychological health, cultural fluency, and an interest in striving for justice" (p. 30).

In a 2006 panel discussion at the Conference of Interpreter Trainers, representatives from three different programs (LaGuardia Community College, Ohlone College, and Kapi'olani Community College) shared their progress towards infusing the instruction of attitude in their curriculum, labeled as Interaction Competencies (IC). Rubrics were developed that measured among other things, communication and interpersonal skills, self-reflection with the goal of self-awareness, professionalism, and placement issues. All three programs worked collaboratively towards a definition of attitude, acknowledging the difficulty of finding a working definition.

Clearly, these are significant steps towards a greater explication of what is meant in terms of attitude within the interpreting process. For the purposes of this paper, attitude is intended to mean an understanding, a respect, and a willingness to participate in Deaf culture. A good attitude entails not participating in the oppression that deaf people experience on a too-often basis. So-called "rockstar" interpreters (detailed below) are frequently the primary offenders

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and seem to garner the most complaints. Interpreters with good attitudes, on the other hand, have a way of being "in sync" with deaf experts, accepting feedback graciously, and are comfortable ceding control. In particular, they display awareness of their status as a guest in the deaf expert's life. Humility and cultural competence are foundational cornerstones of a good interpreter.

"Rockstar" interpreters

The individualistic cultural norms of interpreters often appear to be a primary cause of conflicts. These norms have most prominently been seen as, what the community labels, "rockstar" interpreters. The term "rockstar" is meant to reflect when interpreters puts themselves first, making their use of the community's language their own vehicle for personal attention. This was highlighted especially by a very recent event in which multiple differences of opinion played out in public discourse.

Mr. Travis Painter was interpreting for Dr. Kahdijat Rashid and her economics student at a government event. After a video interview by the Wall Street Journal (WSJ) with Mr. Painter (Williamson, 2014), there were conflicting versions of what Dr. Rashid claimed to be ethical violations by Mr. Painter at the event (Rashid, 2014; Painter, 2014). What is especially highlighted in Mr. Painter (2014)'s response to Dr. Rashid was his own acknowledgement of his inexperience, and his request for the WSJ to find a more experienced interpreter, rather than the Doctor of Economics he was interpreting for. His cultural orientation was to the needs of the WSJ reporter who wanted the interpreter's perspective, rather than the deaf person's – that the hearing person's request superseded the Deaf Professional's expertise and ownership of her native language. Solomon and Miller (2014) highlight this point, elaborating that hearing individuals appear to view interpreting as performance art and make interpreters the focus of attention, frequently at the expense of deaf people.

Mr. Painter demonstrated a lack of humility in his public defense. He also failed to perform the needed "sorry," or mea culpa, that would normally come within this kind of disagreement framework – a violation of an expected interaction pattern within Deaf culture. This necessary affirmation, which could allow the relationship to be mended, never came (Elliott, 2013). He directly challenged the Deaf expert and professional (who has a Doctor of Philosophy in Economics), without naming names, in a public forum. He labeled the public discourse as "public shaming [and] personal bullying," (Painter, 2014), seeming to imply that any difference of opinion to his own is unacceptable. In this response and throughout the whole event, Mr. Painter appeared to demonstrate a lack of Deaf heart, with multiple failures of cultural sensitivity and awareness, at different points in time. This is just one very public example of multiple painful interactions that happen between interpreters and deaf experts everyday.

System attitude

The dramatic shift of interpreter education in the 1970s from community- to academic-based instruction meant that there was also a shift in stakeholders. This leads to a fundamental question – whose interests are the academic institutions bound to serve? When interpreters are educated in these environments, whose future, story, and interests do the schools represent? What connection do those institutions, at large, have with the deaf community?

Taking interpreter education into the academic world meant necessarily that the hearing systems of those institutions were the new de facto status quo. Almost 40 years later, the hearing structure of credentialing and credibility (a hearing way of seeing legitimacy) now permeates interpreter education – supplanting Deaf norms of credibility and collectivism. Deaf community credentials are not even considered as legitimate forms of "minimum requirements" to teach in academic environments. Instructors with Deaf hearts are either caught attempting to balance the values of the academic and Deaf worlds, or entirely blocked if they lack academic credentials regardless of the level of legitimacy they hold in the Deaf community.

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Regardless of the quality of instruction in community college programs, and the outcomes for interpreting students, their entry into the field is profoundly affected by credentialing from the hearing world by receiving an Associate's Degree. Deaf experts may view these "champ" interpreters as the highest quality but they are unqualified in the eyes of the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) to sit for the certification exam, which requires a minimum of a Bachelor's Degree (RID, 2012). Thus the RID also becomes part of this fragmented system, one that values hearing-based credentials over competency as judged by deaf experts. While the intent of the RID in raising standards is not in question, the method leaves deaf experts out of the equation.

Along the same vein, the framework of interpreter education is often proprietary, both in ownership and language access. Interpreting curriculums, often created by hearing individuals, are designed to meet the requirements of hearing-led review boards of their colleges or universities. They are frequently created, presented, and disseminated in written English, which is not always the first language of deaf experts. In this, deaf experts are blocked from having access or participation in the education process on multiple levels. Interpreters become possessors of proprietary knowledge, which often results in viewing themselves as having more elite status than deaf experts.

Where can our Deaf heart instructors find the tools and support to instill Deaf-based attitudes in their students? As was previously mentioned, programs like LaGuardia Community College (2006), Ohlone College, and Kapi'olani Community College have seen documented progress. Within the traditional hearing-based educational structure there has been progress, though certainly not across all programs. Is there a more comprehensive approach to interpreter education that supports these desired outcomes and infuses them throughout the entire curriculum? The educational philosophy of Popular Education, in which education is a collective effort requiring a high degree of participation in a dialogic framework, can provide the structure to bridge the cultural divide between the hearing-based, individualistic, academic environment and the introduction of interpreting students into a lifetime of work within a collectivist culture.

Popular Education and Teaching Collectivism

The subject of Popular Education has been covered in many texts, is the subject of entire graduate courses, and in some cases entire university programs. What follows is a partial summary of major points about Popular Education as it pertains to the potential for educating interpreters.

There may be as many definitions of Popular Education as there are Popular Educators; it is sometimes referred to as Critical Pedagogy or Critical Consciousness. Despite the heterogeneity of the definition, there are still common threads that they all share. The roots of popular education can be traced as far back as the works by Kant and Rousseau (Blake, Smeyers, Smith, & Standish, 2008), but is best known as the work of the Brazilian educator Paulo Freire. Freire wrote a number of texts about Popular Education, the most widely read being "Pedagogy of the Oppressed" (1970) and "Education for Critical Consciousness" (1973).

The term Popular Education is a translation of the Spanish phrase "educación popular." In this case, 'popular' means "of the people." Popular also refers to the societal classes with more individuals, usually not belonging to the upper classes. Popular Education is, first and foremost, concerned with social justice and social change. The purpose of "the education of the people" is for them to work together to solve common problems, especially the unequal distribution of wealth and power. This is a political stance, and Popular Education proponents are unapologetic for their politics. The intent is to confront oppression, typically by the holders of the wealth and the power. The fundamental goal is to develop a consciousness that allows the people to enact positive change in their world: in essence, social change through education of the masses.

Popular Education rejects the notion of education as the transmission of information. Freire referred to this as the "banking model" of education – in which learners are the "tabula rasa," or the empty vessels, into which we deposit information and wisdom. Instead, it views all participants as valuable to the learning process. Everyone is a teacher, and everyone is a student. This encourages learners to value their own knowledge and experience equally, with the knowledge and experience of others, and share it. This process highlights the dialogic nature of Popular Education.

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The Popular Education learning environment is inherently structured as a collectivist experience, one that can include deaf and Deaf values. In this environment, everyone is valued equally. Time is taken to create comfort and solidarity between all participants. Life experience is valued equally with formal education. Everyone present is encouraged, and expected, to be both a learner and teacher. In Popular Education, relationships are the key component in learning.

Applying Popular Education to Interpreter Education

As interpreting education is established right now, it appears difficult to teach collectivist values and behaviors within the context of an individualist learning environment, i.e., academic settings. In the classroom, students are in competition with one another. Success comes from attempting to, and successfully, standing out. Individualistic schooling creates experts; experts are people with specialized, and proprietary, knowledge that other people do not have. This can naturally create a "me and everyone else" mindset – the opposite of a collectivist culture.

Popular Education learning environments can create a community, where everyone practices responsibility for learning, through dialogue and relationships, similar to the Deaf community. The primary task of Popular Educators is twofold – (1) to create an atmosphere of trust and participation, and (2) introduce content in a way that engages everyone in the group.

Continuous interaction, again similar to the Deaf community, is the foundation of learning. While even the Popular Education classroom still differs from the community model of interpreters being groomed and trained within the Deaf community pre-1970s, the collectivist environment can be a daily internalization of some key Deaf cultural behaviors to replace what was lost in the educational shift.

Trust

For interpreters to be effective, they need to trust deaf people as the experts in their own lives. This means being partners in the interpreting process and to practice continual learning from deaf experts. Popular educators use specific tools to create an atmosphere of trust and participation. Students immersed in this environment learn to trust their co-learners as partners. Daily practice of this behavior throughout training reinforces the skill of trusting others, which can then be transferred to trusting deaf experts. Trust is also the precursor to negotiation.

Respect

"Respect means really seeing, really getting to know and understand what deaf people, ASL and we are all about" (Savidge & Smith, 2002).

In the Popular Education environment, respect is a skill that is cultivated and refined continually throughout the learning process. The goal is not only to curtail behaviors that might be disrespectful, but also to actively engage with other people to discover what is respectful to people from diverse backgrounds. This happens through dialogue and group exploration. Students learn to broaden their definition of respect beyond just their own cultural reference, and practice seeing respect from the cultural viewpoints of others. This more nuanced approach to respect can serve them well in the deaf community. Interpreters learn to question their own behaviors thoughtfully and critically, working to actively respect deaf people as experts in their own lives, language and culture.

Valuing deaf expertise

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A primary tenet is the understanding that life experience has equal value with formal education (Wiggins & Rios, 2007). It can reduce the perception of interpreters seeing themselves as experts solely by virtue of their formal education, which is usually more extensive than deaf experts. By practicing valuing experience in the classroom, interpreters can shift their perspective on expertise, and recognize that deaf experts are *more* knowledgeable than them, not less. Linguistic and cultural behaviors of deaf experts, which differs from the formal education interpreters have received, becomes a learning environment for interpreters to internalize. This shift, away from proprietary information as superior, opens the possibility for interpreters to partner with deaf experts, rather than distance from them.

Another example can be seen with Children of Deaf Adults (CODAs), who often become interpreters using their ASL nativity. For CODAs who grow up in the Deaf community, they can be made to sit through rudimentary explanations of their own lived experience. Sometimes they may feel the need to hide their cultural expertise, which could make formal interpreting education a painful experience. Cultural exercises, in this context for the CODAs, are rote tasks that are required for the credentials, a hearing expectation. When life experience has equal value to formal education, the CODA experience becomes an asset to the classroom and when that expertise is shared, it expands the knowledge base of everyone.

Reciprocity

> It is the obligation of every interpreter to exercise judgment, employ critical thinking, apply the benefits of practical experience, and reflect on past actions in the practice of their profession. The guiding principles in this document represent the concepts of confidentiality, linguistic and professional competence, impartiality, professional growth and development, ethical business practices, and the rights of participants in interpreted situations to informed choice. The driving force behind the guiding principles is the notion that the interpreter will do no harm. National Association of the Deaf – Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf, 2005

Much has been written about the central role of reciprocity in Deaf culture (Mindess, 2006), but many interpreters appear to still struggle with this behavior. In individualist cultures, participating as an equal, or a guest, means to cede the role of an expert. Some interpreters feel that participating in the community, in any way, could be a violation of the National Association of the Deaf – Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) Code of Professional Conduct (CPC). However, neither the current CPC nor the previous RID Code of Ethics forbids interpreters from being part of the Deaf community. While the current code mentions impartiality as part of its guiding principles, this, in no way, precludes interpreters from actively engaging in the Deaf community. In fact, it is possible that minimizing community involvement increases the likelihood of inadvertent harm occurring during the interpreting work. Other interpreters confine their community participation to volunteering their interpreting services at various events. However, Deaf community members do not necessarily view volunteer interpreting as participating in the sense of true reciprocity (Bridges, 2014b). Instead, it appears more likely that interpreters who choose to use the CPC as a means of separating themselves from the community are uncomfortable ceding what they feel to be their positions as self-perceived experts.

Within the context of the Popular Education classroom, everyone participates fully. Students practice a variety of leadership and follower roles. This practice, shifting between roles, gives interpreting students a chance to experience giving and receiving knowledge from others. It is possible that internalization of the giving and receiving experience, along with the recognition of lived experience, will give interpreters the social tools to be allies, instead of inadvertently becoming "rockstar" interpreters.

Learning through dialogue

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When interpreters experience learning in the "banking model" during their degree program or workshops to maintain certification, the chance to practice dialogue (a collective skill) is not available. This can reinforce the self-view of interpreters being the sole experts. This self-view can increase the experience of any dialogue about the interpreting work as personal criticism which threatens their expert status, rather than the constructive feedback it may be. Deaf experts, who attempt to give interpreters even benign feedback, can run the risk of being perceived as the "angry deaf person," or worse. Rather than risk that perception, many deaf experts may simply resign themselves to tolerating whatever level of skill interpreters have, and then do not attempt to share their expertise as they would with a member of the community.

Since the primary fabric of Popular Education is participation, engagement, and dialogue, students have daily practice in engaging different perspectives. In this environment of trust and respect, no one is attacked personally, and dialogue can be experienced as safe and enlightening. Popular Educators elicit diverse perspectives and work to unify differences, with the goal of students seeing the sum of knowledge in the room as a rich resource. In essence, it is an "acknowledgement that the community is the source of knowledge" (Hamilton & Cunningham, 1989, p. 443). This is parallel to the Deaf norm of feedback being a valuable gift, rather than a personal attack. Interpreters can learn from deaf experts sharing their knowledge, and realize that they are being offered something of value – something typically not available in the formal academic environment.

Sharing knowledge and roles

Individualist culture can limit the opportunity to experience subordinating one's needs for the good of the community, yet this is a critical skill for interpreters (Hills & Taylor, 2006). It is difficult to teach individualists in a way that allows them to internalize being a partner in the work. Interpreters, taught through Popular Education, can be exposed to daily opportunities of sharing control and power. In this way they can become collaborators and community members, rather than tolerated outsiders.

Humility

The role of interpreting is inherently not inclined towards humility. Interpreters have a highly visible role, performing their work in front of many people. There is a natural inclination for individuals, who enjoy the "limelight," to be attracted to the interpreting role. Putting this inclination in check, when assuming a collectivist role, requires practice of awareness. The lack of humility, the tendency towards "rockstar" behaviors, is a common complaint from deaf experts. The national dialogue, involving deaf experts and the role of interpreters, highlights this mismatch between interpreters' perception of their behavior and the perception of the Deaf community. Popular Education emphasizes that each person has something unique to contribute; together, we learn more than we do individually. The community, as a whole, has value and is engaged in a common struggle.

Working for the good of the community

"Washing one's hands of the conflict between the powerful and the powerless means to side with the powerful, not to be neutral" (Freire, 1970).

In their definition, Smith and Savidge (2002) highlight "striving for justice" as a key component of "good attitude." This may surprise interpreters, who see themselves as professionals providing a service, not as members of a community. In contrast, Deaf experts frequently express a preference for interpreters that they consider members of the community, those with a Deaf heart. It is especially crucial that interpreters be mindful of their work within a context of unequal power distribution, and make strides to compensate for this power distribution by acknowledging the deaf person's expertise. This makes it important to increase awareness of power systems and oppression if they are

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to avoid siding with the oppressor. Conflict between deaf experts and interpreters are likely to arise, and escalate, in situations where interpreters refuse to acknowledge this imbalance.

Confronting oppression is the primary aim of Popular Education. Popular Educators attempt to connect personal experiences with system issues, and contextualize learning. Acknowledgment and dialogue within the safe environment of the classroom allows individualists the opportunity to see larger systems, without feeling personally at fault if they have privilege within those oppressive systems. Without this type of exposure, individualists may feel personally exempt from acknowledging oppressive behaviors, and their own privilege. This leads to underlying conflicts that permeate many of the relationships between deaf experts and interpreters. Interpreters become "tolerated" because they are necessary, but cannot become allies when being oblivious, or turning a blind eye, to oppression where it exists.

When interpreters see their job as simply an act of translation, they can miss the deeper meanings around them – in particular, the connection between themselves and oppression. If they conceptualize their work solely as a duty to represent words, then the overall context of the world surrounding the words is also lost to the deaf expert. For example, an interpreter, working with a deaf expert that is buying a car, might know by the manner a car salesman is talking or specific word choices, that there is something suspicious about the transaction the salesman is trying to make. These aspects can be known to the interpreter from a hearing cultural perspective, but may not be clear to or already known by the deaf expert. This information may not be presented to the deaf expert during the interpreting process as it does not fit into a first-person translation, and also requires the interpreter to step out of the translating role. Contextual information may be left out by the choice of the interpreter, which may be felt as a breach of trust by the deaf expert if they learn of the information withholding.

When questioned about their stance on strictly translating versus providing context, interpreters in situations such as these often respond with a reference to their professional ethics, but may be seen by deaf experts as "hiding" behind the Code of Professional Conduct. To claim that one is not free to give all the information within an interpreting situation, because it would not be a neutral act or otherwise violate the code, clashes with the values of the deaf expert and community. Behaving as if they have no choice, in how they perform their work, allows interpreters to refuse ownership of their role in the continuous oppression of the deaf expert.

Continuous learning

The cycle of praxis - the understanding that learning is a cyclical experience of theory, application, evaluation, reflection, and then back to theory – is a primary feature of Popular Education that distinguishes it from other adult learning theories. Interpreters seeing learning as an on-going process, that does not end, is critical if they are going to continue to grow their competency and skills.

Interpreters with no prior exposure to the deaf world, by and large, graduate with advanced degrees but appear to have only a rudimentary understanding of ASL and Deaf culture. Many of them seem to be only ready, at best, to *begin* learning from the community. If they approach the community with the stance that they are now experts and their learning is complete, it can be very difficult for them to make use of the collectivist resources at their disposal. An open mind, an attitude of being teachable and of appreciating feedback, allows interpreters to become part of the deaf world's fabric. If they are able to make this cultural adjustment, the resources for continued learning are almost limitless. Interpreters that can "…accept that each Deaf person is a legitimate variant of sign language, just as each speaker of English is a legitimate variant of English, …are much more free to learn [from those people]" (Elliott, 2014). This understanding, that learning is never done, is fundamental to a good relationship with deaf experts and the expansion of both cultural and linguistic skills.

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Conclusion

"One cannot expect positive results from an educational or political action program which fails to respect the particular view of the world held by the people. Such a program constitutes cultural invasion, good intentions notwithstanding" (Freire, 1970).

When interpreter training left the Deaf community and entered the academic world in the late 1970s, the need for large numbers of interpreters, being produced in a short amount of time, appeared to be satisfied. At the same time, a crucial element of interpreter education seems to have been mostly lost in the process – internalizing the Deaf way. Many interpreters today do not seem to be acculturated, and do not have Deaf hearts. Large numbers of interpreters appear to see themselves as experts providing a service, rather than as community members. By and large, deaf people seem to be unhappy with having outside "experts" in their personal lives. While it is not possible to go backwards in time, when the community was the gatekeeper and primary source for nurturing and growing Deaf-hearted interpreters, but this makes the search for methods a critical one – methods that can incorporate Deaf values and norms in the academic world.

While it is difficult to define what deaf people mean by "attitude," it is important to try. Seeing deaf people as experts in their own lives is suggested as a good place to start. Popular Education may be able to bridge the gap because of its collectivist nature, which instills values that are in sync with Deaf culture. It is transformative, designed to create political and personal change – the kind of change deaf experts appear to be calling for in interpreters. As Smith and Savidge (2002) noted, "Learning is change, and learning a new and better attitude is a very personal kind of change. The curriculum and the instructors should be primed to support change that is deeper than simply learning vocabulary and grammar, deeper than the skills of interpretation" (p. 30). Many instructors appear ready to take on the task of teaching attitude – they simply need to be given effective tools, which can encourage and internalize Deaf hearts that creates the best interpreters.

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7. Appendix 1

A Suggested Reading List and Resources for Popular Educators

Books

Freire, P. (1973). *Education for critical consciousness.* New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.

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Articles

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Websites for Popular Education resources

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The following websites offer a variety of resources for both learning how to use Popular Education in the classroom and some excellent condensed resources for theory.

The Popular Education News continues to add resources. This is a comprehensive collection and a good place for new Popular Educators to begin:

http://www.popednews.org/resources.html

The Multnomah County Community Capacitation Center is a leader in using and teaching Popular Education. Handouts are available to download from this site that provide an excellent introduction to begin using Popular Education:

https://multco.us/health/public-health-practice/popular-education-workshops

The Freire Project provides links to events, publishers of Popular Education literature, and free downloads of back issues of the International Journal of Critical Pedagogy:

http://www.freireproject.org

Online courses in Popular Education and information on related conferences and journals:

http://www.freire.org

A collection of articles and resources connected to Popular Education YMCA George Williams College in London, England:

http://infed.org/mobi/popular-education/

Workshops, blog, a comprehensive list of tools, and publications for Popular Educators including a comprehensive list of Dinamicas:

http://www.trainingforchange.org, http://www.trainingforchange.org/tools/dynamicas-games-0

Workshops and general Popular Education information:

http://www.practicingfreedom.org/offerings/popular-education/

A list of related videos, a Popular Education syllabus, and a comprehensive bibliography at the Center for Popular Education and Participatory Action Research:

http://cpepr.wordpress.com/resources/

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Inclusive programs: LGBTQI interpreting students and consumers

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Abstract

The goal of this paper is to address critical issues of gender identities and sexual orientations within American society and specifically, in relation to ASL-English interpreter education and the provision of interpreting services. This study examines interview responses from people who identify as Deaf, deaf or Hard-of-Hearing (D/HH) and Lesbian, Gay, Bisexual, Transgender, Queer/Questioning, and/or Intersex (LGBTQI) about their preferred linguistic terms for identity.

Participants analyzed LGBTQI terminology and discussed how decisions about vocabulary choices could impact the outcome of the target language message. Results demonstrate that linguistic choices within the community vary and that they are important for consumers of interpreting services. This paper provides recommendations for practitioners and educators to assess their interpreting and teaching practices regarding language use surrounding marginalized communities.

Keywords: Gender binary, heteronormativity, gender identity, gay, lesbian, bisexual, transgender

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Inclusive programs: LGBTQI interpreting students and consumers

Inclusive Programs: LGBTQI Interpreting Students and Consumers

Gender binary and *heteronormativity* are terms used by social theorists to describe how gender and sexuality are separated into hierarchically organized categories (Gender and Education Association, 2011). The concepts of gender binary and heteronormativity are pervasive in American culture and within large societal structures, including institutions for post-secondary education. This way of dividing the world into two categories can hold severe and negative implications for students whose identities are discredited by the concepts binary and heteronormativity. Students who do not fit into these categories report feeling excluded and neglected within so-called "mainstream" structures, whether intentionally or unintentionally. Here I argue that key personnel in colleges and universities (professors, administrators, staff) must take a stand against gender and sexual discrimination, so that all students feel not only safe, but also welcome. Specifically, I suggest that students who are striving to become American Sign Language-English interpreters must be educated regarding how to provide services that are sensitive to consumers who identify as lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, queer, questioning and intersex (LGBTQI) or otherwise, and who function outside of the binary and heteronormativity found in American culture.

The Gender Binary and Heteronormativity in Higher Education

There is a lack of understanding, compassion, and inclusion of people who identify "beyond the binary" and/or as LGBTQI at most U.S. colleges and universities. In 2003 the Association of American Colleges and Universities (AACU) conducted a study involving a survey of 1,600 LGBT students, faculty, and staff at 14 colleges and universities across the U.S. The results overwhelmingly indicated that the majority of participants had either experienced harassment and discrimination, feared for their physical safety, and hid their sexual or gender identity on their campuses (Mintz, 2011). These results indicate the intolerance and harassment faced daily by those who do not find themselves on either end of the gender binary or who identify as LGBTQI, and the impact this has on their educational experience.

A critical first step in supporting and welcoming this population is to create understanding of terms used for self-identity. In fact, I suggest, it is the responsibility of each person in academia to become familiar with appropriate terms used by this population as a way of fostering a more safe and inclusive environment. Although not an exhaustive list of self-identity terms, a starting point is to become familiar with the following: sex vs. gender, gender identity, gay, lesbian, bisexual, and transgender. This paper is written to encourage instructors to educate themselves, and those they teach, especially in, American Sign Language-English interpreting, since these graduates will work with a variety of populations and their behaviors can impact the outcomes of people's lives.

Terms and ASL-English Interpreting

To begin, the terms "sex" and "gender" are often, and incorrectly, used interchangeably (Mintz, 2011). *Sex* is defined as the two major forms of individuals - female or male. Importantly, the determination of sex relates to

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biological anatomy and function. In contrast, *gender* is constructed through demonstration of cultural, psychological, and behavioral traits. Unlike sex, gender is subjective and determined by the characteristics that are often associated with sex. Gender is a social construct that in the United States is often conflated with biological sex. This distinction is important for interpreting students to understand as well as knowing appropriate sign options for each of these terms. Research conducted by Alex Jackson Nelson and Tamar Jackson Nelson (not yet published) revealed that there is not one agreed-upon sign for "sex" or "gender" among LGBTQI individuals, although there are reasons that underlie the use (or rejection) of certain signs. Some participants suggested that fingerspelling the terms SEX and GENDER is more neutral and clear than using a sign that the individual may not be accept.

Burdge (2007), cited in Mintz (2011), described "gender identity" as a reference to one's sense of being female, male, both genders, neither gender, or otherwise gendered. The term "transgender" has been used as an umbrella term for a broad range of gender non-conforming identities (Bildeau, 2007). A person who identifies as transgender may include individuals whose biological sex assignment and societal expectations for gender expression are in conflict with the individual's gender identity. In other words, individuals whose physical body (sex) does not match their gender identity. The term "gender identity" is often confused with "sexual orientation;" however, these are two distinct concepts and it is important that those in the education of interpreting students, and the students, understand the difference.

The website for Parents, Families and Friends of Lesbians and Gays (PFLAG) contains information from the Sylvia Rivera Law Project[61] which explains ways to make schools safer and gender affirming. Examples include (1) avoid perpetuating gender stereotypes, (2) think about the underlying messages in statements before speaking, and (3) pay close attention to discussions about gender norms. For example, avoid statements such as, "Men do A; while women do B." A respectful alternative is, "Some people do A; while some people do B." In addition, an important and often neglected recommendation is to "Always refer to transgender and gender nonconforming students appropriately" (PFLAG website). It follows that individuals who work as professors, staff, faculty, or administrators in the post-secondary settings should use students' preferred pronouns or neutral pronouns if preferred pronouns are unknown.

In American Sign Language (ASL), pronouns do not indicate a person's gender. Thus, the idea of gender identity compared with sex (biology) is not grammatically overt for ASL-English interpreters. When interpreting into English (which uses pronouns that indicate a person's gender) from ASL (which does not) it is imperative that interpreters have an understanding of sensitive choices to use when working with people who identify as LGBTQI and/or whose pronoun choice is not described correctly by the binary options. Some choices for interpreting from ASL to English without a gender-specific pronoun include "they," "the person," "Karen (the person's name)," or "the person in the red shirt." Additionally, interpreters should exercise caution about assigning a pronoun to a person simply because they think they know the correct one.

The terms "Gay," "Lesbian," and "Bisexual" refer to an individual's sexual orientation. In the study by Nelson and Nelson (not yet published), Deaf LGBTQI research participants provided numerous reasons why they would sign GAY (G handshape on chin) or fingerspell GAY. One person explained that instead of using the sign, he prefers to fingerspell the term because of the connotation that feminine signs are signed on the lower portion of the face (e.g., MOM, AUNT).

"Bisexual" is a complicated word to define and, as with all of these terms, its meaning depends on the person who is using it to self-identity. The term might be used in relation to attraction, behavior, or identity. The Bisexual Resource Center (n.d.) states that human sexuality is seen as a continuum, with same-sex attractions on one end and other-sex attractions on the other. According to the website, bisexuality is somewhere on the continuum though do not give a definitive answer as to where this identity falls. In the Nelson and Nelson (not yet published) study, several different signs for "bisexuality" were shared. One finding from those who are Deaf, deaf, Hard of Hearing, or users of ASL who identify as bisexual is that signs are preferred that do not make it look like they are undecided about who they love or signs that imply promiscuity. Therefore, the majority of participants stated fingerspelling of B-I as a preferred expression.

Conclusion

[61] "The Sylvia Rivera Law Project works to guarantee that all people are free to self-determine gender identity and expression, regardless of income or race, and without facing harassment, discrimination or violence" (Sylvia Rivera Law Project, n.d.).

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Educators and administrators have the power to make individual and systematic changes that can support gender variant, and LGBTQI students in higher education settings. It is therefore incumbent on post-secondary personnel to examine and take action for all students, and to serve as catalysts for positive change. Schrader and Wells (2011) summarized it well, when they wrote: "Ethical and professional responsibility requires more than neutrality" (p. 101). The difference positive action can make in the lives and education for gender variant and LGBTQI students is undeniable. Participating in examining the impact of gender binary and heteronormativity can result in positive change. Barzarsky and Sanlo (2011) support this goal when they state, "Regardless and inclusive of sexual and gender identity, all students, faculty, and staff deserve to feel they belong" (p. 136). Interpreters and interpreting students, of course, have the right to their own opinions about people who identify outside the gender binary and/or as LGBTQI. At the same time, if students aspire to work as an ASL-English interpreter, it is imperative that those feelings (whether positive or negative) do not influence their work as interpreters. Higher education faculty and staff must remind themselves, and teach students, how to successfully accomplish this fundamental human right.

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The BIG essential we all love to hate: Teaching fingerspelled word recognition. Let's learn to love it!

Carol Patrie[62]

Description

Many errors in ASL-to-English interpretation are due to weaknesses in comprehending lexical items in ASL including fingerspelled word recognition (Taylor, 2002). This difficulty leads to misunderstanding and frustration and can delay students from developing entry level interpreting skills. Each year interpreter education programs graduate students who have deficiencies in reading fingerspelled words. This gap in an essential aspect of ASL comprehension leads to anxiety, wasted energy, and poor interpreting performance. Interpreter educators are often at a loss as to how to teach this essential aspect of ASL comprehension. This presentation stresses the importance of providing students with accurate, researched based information that reliably leads to improved fingerspelled word recognition through a combination of information, practice, and application, all carefully integrated and designed to lead to success in fingerspelled word recognition.

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The teaming model and transparency for Deaf and hearing team interpreters: Who owns the interpretation?

Eileen Forestal[63] and Stephanie Clark[64]

Description

As Deaf interpreters, we have been utilizing team processes that allow dialogues within teams of Deaf, Deaf-parented, and hearing interpreters in specific settings, such as medical, mental health, and legal venues, for the past several years. The team processes includes interactive dialogues, also known as the open process model, which seem to enable transparency for the consumers/stakeholders. The open process model also enables rapport with all parties, especially Deaf consumers. We will make a case that there is a need to move away from current teaming practices that are not transparent and thereby closed to the stakeholders. Perspectives from our empirical observations, research, and a preliminary study with Deaf interpreters and hearing or Deaf-parented interpreters in interviews, using this process as opposed to the closed process model, will be discussed. Research-based examples will demonstrate the open process model as an effective practice for teams in specific settings.

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Fostering and supporting a bi-cultural leadership environment

Marty Taylor[65]

Description

Leadership is deliberate and conscious. It includes civility, fairness, self-control, emotional intelligence, and social intelligence. In interpreting, leadership is an essential practice, including: (1) leading oneself, (2) leading individuals, (3) leading groups, and (4) leading organizations, communities, and societies. Interpreters at the most fundamental level must lead themselves. This presentation will provide application of the findings of a qualitative research study examining leadership from the perspectives of 50 Deaf leaders and interpreter leaders from Canada and the United States. Implications and applications will be discussed in terms of providing learning environments that are conducive to effective leadership practices. Application of the most frequently reported themes among the research participants, respect and communication, will be highlighted. In addition, strategies will be offered to provide learning environments to incorporate practice related to the five themes Deaf leaders and interpreter leaders reported when asked about the differences and similarities between each group.

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Strong voicer: Deaf individuals vs. interpreter perspectives

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Abstract

When interpreter agencies or Deaf consumers request a 'strong voicer,' what is really being requested? An interpreter with a good English vocabulary base and high register discourse ability? Or an interpreter who will not interrupt the Deaf speaker to ask for clarification? This pilot project led by a Deaf-hearing team investigates this fundamental and well-used term by interviewing Deaf individuals and interpreters. The pragmatic choices of the interpreter - in the usage of nonmanual markers while backchannelling, lexical choices in discourse regulators, and posing questions/clarifications all combine to create an 'accent' that impacts the total impression of a 'good' vs. 'poor' voicer regardless of actual voicing performance. "Fluency is not a cognitive operation in and of itself but, rather, a feeling of ease associated with a cognitive operation" (Oppenheimer, 2008, p. 237). Perception vs. performance is explored in this analysis of contrastive factors from Deaf people and signed language interpreters to produce a clearer connection between projected, perceived, and actual voicing abilities.

Keywords: Deaf-hearing interpreting, interpreting, accent, believability, trust, credible, relationship

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Strong voicer: Deaf individuals vs. interpreter perspectives

Introduction

The motivation for this study comes from a comparison of our experiences and perspectives. We are both consumers of interpreting services and certified interpreters. We have also worked together in a Deaf-interpreter relationship and we have both studied linguistics. Because of our backgrounds, experiences, and knowledge, any time that we work together leads to discussions on cultural and linguistic novelties.

Our first Deaf-interpreter interactions happened in graduate linguistics classes, where because of the topics covered, every interaction, expectation, and assumption became fertile ground for analysis. We played with linguistic theories, testing it against our knowledge of ASL, English, and our communities leading to in-depth discussions before class, during breaks and afterward.

One day, it was decided that for some classes, a team interpreter was needed. The question came up, whom to request? While we easily agreed on the skills and knowledge needed to handle the content and fast-paced discussions of the graduate classes, we found we could not agree on whom. In naming interpreters in our area that we felt would be a good fit, we found we had differing perspectives. It turned out that we had very dissimilar ideas when it came to identifying 'strong voice' interpreters.

After lengthy discussions and analysis of our judgment criteria, we realized that we were working from two different definitions of 'strong voicer.' We then wanted to know if this occurrence was just in our personal definitions or were they different when the Deaf or interpreting communities used this term. Through past experiences and anecdotal information from colleagues and community members, we came to believe the Deaf community operates on one definition of 'strong voicer' and the interpreting community another, very different definition. This project analyses the reasoning behind these judgments.

Perspectives on 'Strong Voicer'

Through questioning each other's perspectives, some things became apparent. Several of the interpreters identified by the Deaf individual as 'strong voicers,' in fact were not very skilled in producing good English interpretations; their vocabulary choices, register, pacing, and syntax were not at the level appropriate for graduate classrooms. And several of those interpreters that the Deaf individual felt looked less than confident while interpreting were some of

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the strongest voicers around from the perspective of the interpreter. As our discussions continued, a second conclusion became apparent: the Deaf community appeared not aware that the ASL to English skills of some interpreters that many identified as 'strong voicers,' were less than optimal.

Within the Deaf community, the 'strong voicer' and 'good voicer' labels are familiarly used (anecdotally). A good number of the interpreters that the Deaf individual identified as 'strong voicers' were in fact competent and even talented in their voiced interpretations. So while her instincts were generally sound, what was it about those certain few interpreters that looked like good voicers, but were in fact not?

Turning to the Interpreting field, the terms are used commonly as well. Interpreter agencies regularly send out job requests specifying the need for 'strong voicers.' The following examples are real requests copied from emails and Facebook.

> THIS Thursday 6/28 1pm-? (guessing this won't run more than an hour or two) – 1 interpreter (a "strong voicer" has been requested)

> July 10, 2013 - Time: 10:15am, Situation: discuss overpayment ***strong voicer has been requested***

> July 25 – We have just gotten a request for strong voicer today; ASAP 5:00pm, tomorrow 8am-5pm and Friday 12pm-5pm. It would be for training over at ISD. Please let us know ASAP.

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All but one request came from a Deaf person through an interpreting agency. While there are several requests used for this study, it did lead us to question if hearing people request strong voicers? If hearing people do not make this specific request, or not make this request as much as Deaf people, what does that mean? What does this say, and not say? Within the requests listed, we identified the following themes within the requests:

1) They are time sensitive
    - only for an hour
    - ASAP
    - THIS Thursday
2) The assignments seem to be viewed as high-risk assignments.
    - Overpayment
    - ISD (Indiana School for the Deaf)
    - Theatre
3) The term 'strong voicer' is in parenthesis or quotes.
    - By marking this term a special way gives it more attention.

When interpreters get requests such as the above, they decide to accept or decline the assignment based on a constellation of demands, one being their own perspective of their skills. We can get insights from a nationwide self-ranking survey of 664 interpreters conducted by Nicodemus in 2009, which shows most interpreters prefer to work from English to ASL, especially novice interpreters.

Interpreters stated, via the survey, that they rated their English to ASL skills at a three times greater proficiency level than their ASL to English skills. When comparing interpreting proficiencies in ASL and English their comprehension and production of English was much greater than ASL. Possible explanations for this are that interpreters work more often from English to ASL so feel out of their depth more often or that they may feel they are not able to effectively monitor their signing as they cannot see themselves sign. This survey does show that the more experienced interpreters are, they were more likely to express no preference between English to ASL or ASL to English interpreting (Nicodemus, 2009).

While a self-ranking on how interpreters view their skills can be helpful in different ways, it does not explain what actually happens, or how an interpreter really understands and knows her skill sets in both ASL and English. However, it does help us understand how interpreters rank their skills. Working together, the interpreting community becomes aware of each other's strengths and preferences. Interpreters who are good at and like voicing usually take the lead when the job calls for voicing. Those more comfortable voicing in specific settings or for specific Deaf individuals usually make their preferences known.

This sharing of interpreter's strengths and preferences does not extend to the Deaf community. Through community interactions, it is apparent that Deaf people are identifying who the strong voicers are based on factors other than the interpreter's skills in spoken English interpreting.

The paradox is apparent. Are the factors used by Deaf people to determine what qualifies an interpreter as a 'strong voicer' the same as those used by interpreters themselves? Does this perspective reflect their actual interpreting performance? The hearing non-signers at those events have their own judgments as well, likely based on if the interpretation seems 'off .' As cultural anthropologists, we are motivated to figure out the individual factors that form those judgments. Looking at linguistic scholarship and theories in other disciplines, we start to see the basis for these assumptions.

Literature Review

This pilot study investigates how both the Deaf community and interpreters come to their differing interpretations of 'strong voicer'. In investigating this, we interviewed interpreters and Deaf individuals on their perspective. In compiling data from the interviews, it became clear that the interpreters' idea of a 'strong voicer' centers on the

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technical aspects of voicing while Deaf people emphasized the working relationship and level of trust between the Deaf person and the interpreter.

In examining theories on relationships and trust from different disciplines we begin to see justification for the different perspectives. This literature review touches on research from within the interpreting field as well as linguistics and psychology.

Accent in ASL

Compared to other languages of the world, ASL has been described as "not an easy language to master for the adult learner" (Quinto-Pozos, 2005, p. 160). Jacobs (1996) evaluated the difficulty of learning ASL by using the Foreign Service Institute and Defense Language Institute standards. Results show that ASL is a category 4 language, one of the more difficult languages to learn, comparative to learning Arabic, Chinese, or Japanese.

Because most ASL interpreters learn ASL as college students or adults, it is no surprise that L2 learners of ASL have an accent, sometimes described as a "hearing accent." Flege, Munro, and MacKay (1995) found that the speech of late second language learners (of spoken languages) inevitably is accented, even after being immersed in the L2 environment for many years. Even after many years of exposure to a second language, using the language on a daily basis, and interacting with native users, L2 individuals will continue to exhibit a strong foreign accent, have grammatical errors, and exhibit non-native intuitions about the interpretation of specific sentences (Towell, 1994).

For the purpose of this study, we have adopted the term of *accentedness* as referring to how strong an individual's "foreign accent is perceived to be" (Munro & Derwing, 1995, p. 289). While there may be some argument for the difference of "hearing accent" and "foreign accent", we are combing the two and are referring to L2 individuals as having an accent or foreign accent, i.e., not being a native signer of ASL.

"Non-native speech is harder to understand than native speech. (T)his processing difficulty causes non native speakers to sound less credible (to native audiences)…" because "the ease of processing…" affects the way the speaker is judged (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2010, p. 1). Because most interpreters have an accent, they are potentially harder to understand and, according to Lev-Ari & Keysar's theory, may be measured as less credible than a native signer. The interpreter's accentedness directly correlates to not only how hard their deaf audience has to work to understand them but also how believable they find the message.

When interpreters deliver a message that is authored by another individual, even a very credible individual (i.e. doctor, lawyer, professor, etc.), the message (the interpretation) may be viewed as less truthful because of the accent of the interpreter. The credibility of the interpreter and the credibility of the message may be challenged because of the interpreter's accentedness. From the data we collected, it follows that Deaf individuals find the accent of the interpreter, their expression of prosodic cues and ability to backchannel, to directly correlate with the interpreter's ability. It also seems that Deaf individuals measure the credibility of the interpreter's voicing skills through the interpreter's comfort level in interacting with ASL users and ASL fluency, not their spoken English abilities.

Levi-Ari and Keysar (2010) found that accent was negatively correlated with truth rating. In their study, statements spoken by non-native speakers were rated "as significantly less true when said with a heavy accent" (p. 1095). They also found through a particular exercise in their study, statements made by speakers with a mild accent were rated just as truthful as native speakers. It follows that if an ASL interpreter can minimize her accent, native signers might view her interpretations as being more credible. When the listeners struggle with the accent and have to work harder to understand the non-native speech of the L2 interpreter, this appears to trigger a natural resistance to the message being conveyed. The accented speech interferes with the *processing fluency*, and non-native speakers are seen as less believable. Even when listeners were forewarned about the accent and credibility of non-native speakers, they continued to discredit those speakers with a heavy accent (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2010). Consequently, even when Deaf individuals know that an interpreter has an accent and are overtly aware of the accent, it still may interfere with their perception of the credibility of the message.

Native speakers have been seen to quickly catch on that a non-native speaker is an outsider and this in turn conjures stereotypes (Dixon, Mahoney, & Cocks, 2002). Displaying a prejudice towards non-native speakers is not a

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novice theory. In fact, a number of researchers have found "irritation, a downgrading of attitudes towards speakers, or outright discrimination because of a non-native accent or non-standard dialect" (Munro & Derwing, 1995, p. 290). While there may be a host of stereotypes that are associated with being an L2 user of ASL, it is plausible to assume that these stereotypes could impact the credibility of the interpreter.

Believability of the message

For non-native speakers of spoken languages, accented speech can drastically interfere with the overall believability of the message (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2010). Even when conveying a message from one native speaker to another, when it was the non-native speakers who were communicating the message, listeners found the message less credible. Not only do listeners discredit the information from non-native speakers when they are speaking on their own behalf, but also when speakers are delivering the message from others. "In general, then, even when speakers just deliver information from others, people perceive this information as less truthful when the speaker has an accent" (Lev-Ari & Keysar, 2010, p. 1094).

Considering that interpreters are working as "messengers" of another individual's message, this non-native effect no doubt applies. While the process of interpreting is cognitively much different than directly relaying another individual's message, the Deaf audience of the interpreter will be dealing with their natural inclination to discount non-native speech as being untruthful. This would definitely interfere with their overall processing and understanding of the message.

Lev-Ari and Keysar (2010) found that two main reasons why non-native speakers are viewed as less credible when compared to native speakers: (1) the accent is viewed as a signal and (2) the accent impacts the speech making it harder to process. Native ASL users quickly pick up on the non-native cues of L2 signers. When we look at this effect in an ASL interpreted situation, we can gauge the actual performance of the perceived 'strong voicer' by surveying Deaf consumers on their impressions of the interpreter's performance based on the native-like prosodic features used and hearing participants on their perception of the actual voiced situation. The pragmatic choices of the interpreter - in the usage of nonmanual markers while backchannelling, lexical choices in discourse regulators, and posing questions/clarifications - all combine to create an 'accent' that impacts the total impression of a 'good' vs. 'poor' voicer, regardless of actual voicing performance. "Fluency is not a cognitive operation in and of itself but, rather, a feeling of ease associated with a cognitive operation" (Oppenheimer, 2008, p. 237).

Prosodic cues

L2 interpreters try to balance their proper use of the language with the demands of the interpreting job. Often this causes their interpretation to go against the usual pragmatics of communication exchanges, whether spoken or signed. In endeavouring to get as much of the message as possible before conveying it in spoken English, the L2 interpreter will often allow an:

> …artificially long time-lag before interpreting an utterance. The deaf interlocutor starts to sign but nothing happens; the interpreter is simply watching and the hearing interlocutor is left, uncomfortably, 'out of the loop'. When the interpreter does eventually start, the overlong time-lag will mean that he or she must continue speaking long after the Deaf person has stopped signing. Now the Deaf interlocutor is out of the loop, wondering what is being said by the interpreter and whether it matches what was originally signed. (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2009, p. 2)

Not only do long time lags go against the usual communication dynamics in signed (and spoken) conversations, constant backchanneling is an essential component of any signed interaction. Backchanneling communicates a wealth of information to the speaker, communicating that the audience is following along, agrees/disagrees with what is being said, has a question, is interested in further information, or needs clarification. This ability is intuitive to native

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speakers and improper backchanneling or a lack thereof immediately signals to the native speaker that the interpreter is a non-native user. (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2009, p. 3).

Llewellyn-Jones and Lee (2009) found that with student L2 interpreters, the student interpreters were trained that they should not react to what is being said or signed, which conflicts with the pragmatics of backchanneling. The student's lack of backchanneling would instead block the Deaf person from knowing if the interpreter was following along on with his signed messages. Communication then breaks down and the interpreter ends up asking the Deaf person to repeat the message, causing the Deaf person to become increasingly frustrated. This backchanneling is so crucial that one of their subjects, a Deaf professional, would lose confidence in the interpreter if three or more breakdowns occur.

"There are different cultural expectations regarding what linguistic devices to use in the mitigation of speech acts…," Hoza discusses, in his comparison of ASL politeness norms with those of other language communities. In examining discourse patterns of different language communities, scholars have found that different cultures mark the level of importance of things based on where they are expressed in a discourse. The example given in this book states that in America, if you say something first, it is marked as important; while in China, if one states something last, it receives the mark of importance (Hoza, 2007, p. 25-27). So people from different language communities can come away from a shared conversation with totally different perspectives on what is being said simply because of the placement of that information in the discourse. This kind of difference can show up between Deaf people and L2 interpreters, both in conversations and during interpreted interactions.

Hoza (2007) emphasizes that politeness strategies are learned as part of one's acquisition of a language, and discourse flows naturally when people know how to interpret levels of meaning and discern social messages occurring during communication. Our ways of speaking identify us as outsiders or insiders with the identifying judgments made quickly, often without conscious thought.

> When interlocutors' politeness strategies differ, there may be one of three results. First, the addressee may misinterpret the speaker by interpreting the speaker's meaning (social or otherwise) based on the addressee's way of speaking. Second, the addressee may judge the speaker harshly and may reject the speaker as being either too forward or too evasive. Third, the addressee may recognize the speaker as an outsider who has a different way of speaking, and either attempt to understand communicative differences or discount the speaker as a deviant who does not know how to interact well with others. (Hoza 2007, p. 203)

One cultural linguistic expectation held by the Deaf community regarding 'straight talk' is discussed in-depth by Mindess (2006, p. 83-88). She finds that Deaf people, as compared to hearing Americans, are significantly more direct in expressing the situation at hand. So from this information, we may conjure that during interactions, if a L2 hearing interpreter misses a portion of a signed conversation and tries to use American spoken English methods to get the missed information, the Deaf person may get frustrated with indirect questioning and dismiss the L2 interpreter as not understanding entirely.

Mindess brings up another point about the value of information in the Deaf community. Members of the Deaf community feel obligated to share information, from updates on medical conditions to warnings about danger or recommendations on where to get good service or good deals. Withholding information is taboo, even when the information is about a specific person, whereas this sharing of news is considered in direct conflict with the American spoken English community bias against "talking about someone behind their back" (2006, p. 83,89-93).

When the topic comes up, Deaf people will share their experiences with other Deaf individuals, recommending or warning against using certain interpreters. It is understandable that interpreters, with their knowledge of Deaf community group communication norms albeit "not-quite-insider but not-outsider" status in the Deaf community, are not consistent with sharing similar information about other interpreters' skills with Deaf individuals (Mindess, 2006, p. 81). The interpreters are still hearing Americans and are compelled to follow those communication norms; plus, they may often work with the interpreters, so the respect for colleagues and desire to maintain a good working

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relationship is an important value. Yet if interpreters know Deaf people are working with an interpreter and counting on that interpreter's skill in voicing, it is a conflict of Deaf community group norms to withhold that information.

Considering all these views on Deaf community expectations and one's accent being directly tied to their appearance of truthfulness and its possible impact on the Deaf-interpreter working relationship, we now take a direct look at this phenomenon through interviewing Deaf individuals and interpreters.

Methodology

With IRB approval, we sent out recruitment emails to Deaf individuals and hearing interpreters for volunteer participation in the study; the individuals we recruited were people we know. With our participants' signed consent, we each individually video-recorded ten interviews: five Deaf individuals and five hearing interpreters. The Deaf investigator interviewed the Deaf individuals; the hearing investigator interviewed the interpreters.

We ignored sociolinguistic variables such as ethnicity, age, educational background, and age of language acquisition. We did ask the participants about their first language. Two of the Deaf participants had Deaf parents and used ASL from birth, three had parents who could hear who used spoken English from birth (in the home). The background on the interpreters is similar in that two came from Deaf families, using ASL from birth, and three from hearing families. We were interested in their credentials and working knowledge the participants had in regards to interpreting. All of the interpreters hold a national certification from the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID). Two of the Deaf individuals are RID certified, two work as Deaf interpreters, three work as ASL instructors, and three work in jobs supporting video relay service interpreters. The interpreters have worked as community interpreters in a wide-range of venues including post-secondary, theatre, mental health, medical, and video relay services.

There were no other individuals present during the interviews. The questions from the interviews were the same for both groups. Follow up questions and discussion prompted by one or more of the questions was permitted. The questions were as follows:

1. What does 'strong voicer' mean to you?
2. When you think of an interpreter that is a strong voicer, what specific qualities does she have?
3. When you think of an interpreter that is not a strong voicer, what specific qualities does she have?
4. When teaming (or working with a team), what qualities make the team a strong voicing team?
5. What qualities from a team make you nervous or uncertain about the work?

All 10 of the interviews were conducted in ASL. The pertinent information from the interviews was then transcribed into ASL gloss with a written English translation. The investigators tracked similarly expressed concepts in order to analyse patterns through the descriptions and language. Patterns quickly showed common themes for each group of interviewees.

Findings

After viewing and transcribing the interviews, themes began to emerge. Results from the interviews revealed a very different understanding of "strong voicer" from Deaf individuals and interpreters. The hearing interpreters emphasized the mechanics of voicing while the Deaf individuals emphasized the need for a connection; if they feel there is a good connection between themselves and the interpreter, they have more confidence in the interpreter's voicing abilities. We further analysed the interview data to look for crucial elements of that critical 'connection.'

Following these themes with analysis, our findings correlate with the literature review in that having a native or near-native accent is critical when considering the notion of a strong voicer. Native or near native accent lends itself to ease in processing the message which in turn leads to credibility and believability.

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The following emergent themes were discovered with both groups: (1) the interpreter's skill presentation – both voicing and signing, (2) the voicing process, (3) language (ASL and English) abilities, and (4) relationship between the Deaf individual and interpreter. We will discuss each group individually and then reveal any overlap of ideas followed by suggestions for future research and discussion. The following table shows the emergent themes from interpreters.

Emergent themes from interpreters

Participant	**How interpreters sound while voicing**	**English language abilities**	**ASL language abilities**	**Relationship with Deaf**
#1	Strong, clear voice	**Vocabulary**	You **cannot** miss a concept	Express with confidence; if you sound unsure, people will think it's the Deaf person who is unsure;
#2	**Flow**; timing	**Vocabulary**	Must have good receptive skills; You **cannot miss a concept;** you must understand concepts; must catch **fingerspelling**	The Deaf person needs to have a presence at the table; full access
#3	**Flow**	**Vocabulary**	You **cannot miss information**; must catch **fingerspelling**	
#4	Smooth		**Cannot miss info**; you must catch everything	You **must** match the Deaf person; you **must** match the Culture/setting/register/person
#5	Smooth, **flow**, not choppy; not a gloss	**Vocabulary**; strong first language; native user of English	Receptive skills are important	Feedback from the Deaf consumer during and after the assignment

English Prosody

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All five of the interpreters made comments about some prosodic features of English. Four out of five of the interpreters commented specifically on the *smoothness* or *flow* of the message. To be a strong voicer, they claim that the English should flow, not be choppy, sound smooth and not be a glossed representation of what was signed. It seems that the prosodic comments are about sounding like a native speaker. The importance of sociolinguistic competence is emphasized in Gonzalez et al (1991) quoted in Patrie (2005, p. 21), and is described as the ability to "appropriately use register, or levels of formality or informality, and appropriate speech style for a given setting, such as court or an informal meeting. This competency assumes a deep understanding of both cultures and bilingual competence".

In addition to the prosodic comments, four of the interpreters made specific comments about vocabulary. They stated that the right vocabulary for the assignment is important and that you need to have a "strong first language; a native user of English."

ASL receptive skills

Not only do the interpreters comment about English skills, they also describe how important an interpreter's ASL receptive skills need to be. All five interpreters make some reference to being able to understand the Deaf individual's message. Four out of the five interpreters state that one cannot miss any of the signed information. It appears that the interpreters feel that if a signed concept is misunderstood or "not caught," the interpreter is not a strong voicer. In reference to not missing any of the signed information, two of the interpreters added that an interpreter must catch everything conceptually. In addition to not missing anything, literally – not missing anything signed, the strong voicer will also be able to grasp everything conceptually. Two of the five interpreters specifically make reference to not missing fingerspelled words. They both state that it is imperative that an interpreter "catches everything, even all of the fingerspelling".

Concern about Deaf presence in the interpreted encounter

All but one of the interpreters makes comments about how the Deaf individual appears to others at the interpreted event. The comments were about concern for the Deaf person's accessibility, "presence at the table", and representing appropriate culture and linguistic information. One interpreter makes a comment that if the interpreter sounds unsure, then the Deaf person will sound unsure. In other words, she was concerned that the Deaf person be represented accurately through her interpretation; if her voicing projects confidence, the Deaf person will be viewed as a strong and confident participant. This shows concern for the Deaf person and his/her relationship with the other participants at the assignment and how others perceive the Deaf person.

Another interpreter comments that it is important that the interpreter and Deaf person prepare for and debrief about the assignment. The focus of the interpreter's comments about this preparation seem to center around others' perception of their voicing skills. The concern does not seem to include the Deaf individual, but others who are listening to the interpretation. They want to make sure that the Deaf person is represented (the "interpretation sounds right") to the other hearing people present.

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Emergent themes from Deaf individuals

Participant	ASL Prosody	Language abilities	Relationship, Interaction, and Communication
#1	Non manual cues on face If no expression, no connection	Equally match my level, my register, my vocabulary choice	Work together as team, partnership Good vibes If no expression, no connection Signal each other that we understand each other
#2		All elements combine, make good voicer Word choice	Relationship, know, trust, know their mind process, personal philosophies Can't be just anyone, will struggle, break-down Integrated & working with me Energy matches mine
#3	Nodding, eye contact, specific questions so I can clarify		Show interest and care about presenter, develop relationship Work together, feel connected, make both of us look great!
#4	Confidence, no hesitation Expression – can see confidence in her fluency	Clear, "high level" English Know language, fluent	If interrupt, ask a lot, means they're weak, FINISH
#5	Catch nuances of ASL	English vocab Strong ASL = strong voicer in English,	Collaborate and be an ally, acculturated When teaming, should be two way partnership, not one dominant interpreter Understand in head, understand in heart, understand in gut (instinct)

ASL prosody of interpreters

Three of the Deaf individuals make reference to an interpreter's proficiency in ASL prosody. They specified appropriate head nodding, manual cues, eye contact, and fluency. These are integral features of ASL prosody and grammar. One Deaf individual states that eye contact is important so that if there are questions she and the interpreter will have accessible communication. This seems to support the idea of having a connection with the interpreter and

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not necessarily about the prosodic features of the eyes. It seems that there is an expectation for the interpreter who is voicing to have these skills in ASL and be able to appropriately use these skills with the Deaf individual. If the interpreter cannot negotiate these features, she might be identified as a weak voicer. In addition to these nonmanual cues, one Deaf individual mentions that she wants to see confidence and no hesitation.

It seems that a 'strong voicer' has certain visual characteristics that a Deaf individual will use to measure an interpreter's voicing skills. If the interpreter does not look confident and hesitates, she might be viewed as a weak voicer. The last Deaf individual on the table makes another comment about relationship. She mentions that she wants to see cooperation and support among the team of interpreters. She does not want to see one of the interpreters dominating the other interpreter. Camaraderie and teamwork among the interpreters seems to support the notion of 'strong voicer' among some Deaf individuals.

Language abilities

Four of the Deaf individuals make comments about the interpreters' ASL or English language abilities. Three of the four make a specific reference to English vocabulary. It seems that using the right vocabulary and 'matching' the Deaf individual will identify an interpreter as a strong voicer. In addition to having specific English language abilities, a strong voicer also needs to have strong ASL abilities. While the Deaf individuals give a fairly vague description of ASL skills, one possible interpretation of this is that good skills are assumed; it is essential for the interpreter to be fluent in ASL.

One could argue that all of the interpreters working in an ASL to English assignment are bilingual; however, upon further investigation of this notion, we believe that the Deaf individuals are referring to native-like fluency with minimal to no accent. With the comments made about language abilities and prosodic features of ASL, it seems that Deaf individuals are referring to a level of fluency that is near native. One Deaf person stated that she wants to see the interpreter's confidence in her own ASL fluency. Further interpretation of these comments could mean that the interpreter needs to have a strong command of both languages.

Relationship, interaction and communication

Our most significant finding is that all of the Deaf individuals make several comments about their direct relationship with the interpreter. It seems that this is the dominating characteristic that identifies a strong voicer to a Deaf individual; it is about the connection and relationship, rather than about the interpreting process or skills. The comments about relationship are different than the interpreters' comments about relationship. While the interpreters are concerned about the Deaf individual's relationship with others, the Deaf individuals are concerned about their relationship with the interpreter.

None of the Deaf individuals make a comment about the relationship with others in the room where the interpreting is taking place. It seems that their focus is on the relationship between the Deaf person and the interpreter. Two of the Deaf individuals make a comment about knowing the interpreter and her personal philosophies, and that the interpreter "can't just be anyone." The Deaf individuals want a partnership, they want to feel connected, and want the interpreter working directly with them. Through the partnership, the Deaf individuals want and seem to need to see native-like backchanneling and interaction for them to have confidence in the interpreter's voicing abilities. Two different Deaf individuals make reference to the interpreter having "good vibes" and "energy that matches mine." Again, this is about the relationship with the interpreter and no one else.

The following pictures are from one Deaf individual explaining her understanding of a strong voicer.

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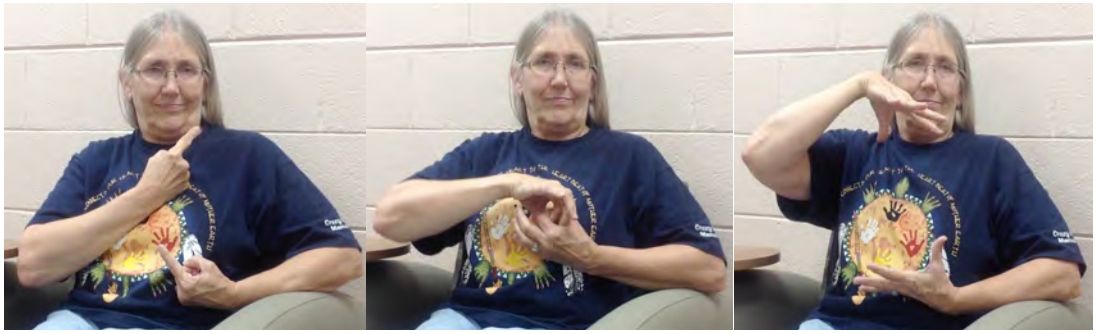
Example from Deaf individual



ASL gloss:

UNDERSTAND (at heart and gut) CONNECT COMPLETE

Conclusion

From the 10 interviews with the five Deaf individuals and five interpreters for this study, it is evident that these individuals are operating under different definitions of 'strong voicer.' After evaluating the interviews, there was some overlap in themes, or an overlap in some features within each group's definition. For example, both groups commented that having good English vocabulary and matching register were important.

Both groups also commented on language abilities, both in ASL and English. It seems that a particular level of fluency is needed in both languages to be considered a strong voicer. Several of the interpreters comment on not missing anything signed by the Deaf individual. This assumes that the interpreter must have excellent receptive skills. These interpreters add that not missing anything fingerspelled is also very important for a strong voicer. This might infer a particular level of ASL fluency. The Deaf individuals comment on ASL fluency by directly mentioning fluency while emphasizing use of several ASL prosodic and grammatical features.

While this study has focused mostly on the impediment of having an accent, this by no means implies that L2 ASL interpreters are doomed. With knowledge and understanding of how one's accent can interfere with the message, specifically relating to an assignment that is mostly working from ASL to English, interpreters can implement strategies that will foster credibility, trust, and believeability with the Deaf audience member(s). Munro and Derwing (1995) state that having an accent does not necessarily mean it will be an obstruction to communication.

If an interpreter's goal is to have better communicative competence, attention can be given to the specific aspects that are associated with accent. A foreign accent is not necessarily an obstruction to communication if the interpreter is aware of this effect and works to mitigate it through working toward a good partnership with the Deaf individual and a concentrated effort to use native-like conversational cues.

In addition to appreciating how accent is understood by native speakers/signers, we also found that the definition of strong voicer used by Deaf individuals and interpreters is drastically different. By understanding this difference, we can improve the outcome of an interpreted assignment. If Deaf people understand what this term means within the interpreting community and interpreters understand what Deaf people mean by this term.

One interpretation of this could be that the Deaf individual is signing for and to the interpreter rather than the hearing audience members. Just as most hearing interpreters dread interpreting when they know there are no Deaf individuals in the audience, Deaf individuals dread having an interpreter who is not visually present, not connecting and shows no interest of having a Deaf-hearing relationship (while the interpretation is happening).

As the literature and our interviews show, an interpreter's accent is a strong component for how Deaf individuals identify them as a strong voicer. Having an overt 'hearing' accent interferes with the believeability of the interpreter,

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whether or not the interpreter can be trusted, and how Deaf individuals measure an interpreter's voicing skills. Our evidence supports the conclusion that the interpreter's accent in ASL and her lack of acknowledging and understanding of native prosodic cues from Deaf individuals interferes with how Deaf individuals measure that interpreter's English voicing skills. Only if interpreters are fluent with the subtle and nuanced backchanneling and prosodic cues from their Deaf audiences will they be identified by Deaf people as strong voicer.

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Endnote Presentation

Growing our roots in a new ground: Deepening our social consciousness

Abstract

This paper aims to examine the needs for intrapersonal and interpersonal dialogues and conscious efforts to develop and maintain social consciousness within the profession of sign language interpreting. The dialogues must include an ongoing reflective practice for the interpreters to be aware of their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors in their relationships with their consumers, colleagues, and students or mentees. Moreover, the social, educational, technological, and commercial trends have affected the preparation and continuing education trainings in a way that fundamentally change the relationships between the interpreters and the members of the deaf and hard of hearing community. Collectively, the trends are a new ground for interpreters, educators, and mentors in which they can find old and new opportunities to engage as the allies with the deaf and hard of hearing community and as the agents of social consciousness in their personal and professional lives.

Keywords: Allyship, positionalities, millenials, social justice, diversity, attitudes.

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