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Maintaining Our Resilience as Interpreters

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Welcome to what will be our final editorial as co-editors of the *International Journal of Interpreter Education* (*IJIE*). The title of this editorial focuses on resilience, which can be defined as "a universal capacity which allows a person, group or community to prevent, minimize or overcome the damaging effects of adversity" (Grotberg, 1995, p.7).

As we wrote in our 2020 editorial (Crezee & Major, 2020, p.1), the COVID-19 pandemic "has impacted interpreting in numerous ways," and it has affected many of us hugely. The immediate effects of the pandemic were reflected in the need to teach remotely, involving the stresses of having to suddenly redesign course delivery and student assessment. The need to work remotely has resulted in other types of stress, such as the need to work from home while also looking after young children or sick family members or having to deal with background noise and possible technological issues. On April 29, 2021, *The New Yorker* carried a piece written by emergency room resident Clifford Marks that focused on what he referred to as the "Lonely, Vital Work of Medical Interpretation." In it, the author reported on a conversation that he had with Lourdes Cerna, a medical interpreter, in November 2020. Cerna said she had interpreted many end-of-life discussions with patients whose lungs were failing or interpreted bad news for patients' relatives in faraway countries. Working in isolation, and with her own neighbors and relatives affected by the pandemic, she would log in to her computer at home to undertake interpreting assignments remotely, with many of the calls being COVID-related. But with a near endless succession of potentially traumatizing assignments, just how do Cerna and other interpreters take care of themselves and maintain their resilience? Some interpreters have told us that—looking back—what they also missed was "me time," the ability to leave responsibilities behind and spend some time recharging their batteries.

Early in 2021, Lisa Morris invited Ineke Crezee to present a keynote address at *Paving the Way to Health Care Access*, a 2-day educational conference sponsored by UMass Medical School's MassAHEC Network. Ineke was overjoyed to see the conference theme—"Interpreter Resilience: Growing and Adapting to Change as Essential Workers in the Healthcare Setting"—and dedicated her keynote address to "Interpreting Through Trauma: Selfcare and Resilience Among New Zealand–Based Interpreters." This involved sharing some of the experiences and self-care habits of those involved in interpreting in health and refugee settings as well as those involved in language access following the 2019 Christchurch mosque shootings. The conference took place entirely online, and the organizers hope that many more medical interpreters will attend the 2022 iteration.

Morris, from UMass Medical School and the director of Cross-Cultural Initiatives at Commonwealth Medicine, was the driving force behind this conference. When asked for a summary, she wrote:

> The Day 1 keynote speaker, Ryan Foley, spoke about the power and the messages of nonverbal communication and how to comprehend the meaning of common useful nonverbal messages as well as how to modify our own nonverbal behaviors to project approachability and competence. The message truly resonated for the audience of spoken language and American Sign Language interpreters [who] for the most part currently

> work in an "emboxed" virtual world where much of the body language disappears below the neck. There were a total of 27 workshops offered throughout the 2-day conference in addition to the brilliant keynote speakers. The workshops covered topics ranging from building and reinforcing professional interpreter skills such as listening and memory, managing in the triadic encounter, ethical challenges, standards of practice, and advocacy. [O]ther presentations included learning more about working in the remote environment, case studies, and specific topics such as HIV, Genetics, Palliative Care, Pharmacology, obtaining informed consent from Deaf clients, and interpreting humor, just to name a few." (Morris, personal communication, 2021)

The editors wish to thank Morris and her colleagues for devoting this conference to such an important and enduring topic, particularly in current challenging times. We hope to see more contributions on how interpreters, educators, and members of the deaf community and other users of interpreter services have coped in these unprecedented times. It would be great if our readers could share their challenges and controls (Dean & Pollard, 2011) and how the pandemic may have changed the way we deliver interpreter education and interpreter services.

Turning now to issue 13(1) of *IJIE*, we are pleased to share a bumper collection of contributions from around the globe. The first research article is titled "Knowledge-Oriented Training of Trainers: Feedback on a Seminar in Hybrid Mode," in which Barry S. Olsen and Franz Pöchhacker describe and evaluate a Training of Trainers Seminar organized by the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) in Washington, D.C., that pioneered a hybrid mode of delivery. The authors examine the hybrid-mode seminar for perceptual conditions, communicative presence, group interaction, and personal learning outcomes for onsite as well as remote participants.

In "Interprofessional Education for Interpreting and Social Work Students: Design and Evaluation," Jim Hlavac and Bernadette Saunders discuss interprofessional education sessions for interpreting and social work students conducted in the Australian setting over a period of 3 years.

Dawn Wessling and Suzanne Ehrlich examine unhealthy feedback practices in interpreter education in an article titled "A Survey of Language-Shaming Experiences in Interpreter Education." They also discuss implications for language and interpreting teachers in devising constructive feedback techniques that better support the learner.

Debra Russell, Colin Allen, and Abigail Gorman start the Open Forum section with an interview titled "Global Pride: Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion in Interpreting." Russell asks Allen, former president of the Word Federation of the Deaf and Visiting Lecturer at the National Technical Institute for the Deaf at the Rochester Institute of Technology (RIT), and Gorman, a human rights activist based in London, about their journey of involvement in the LGBTIQA+ community.

Kimberly Hale and Tara Stevens present a review of the book *Flipped Learning: A Guide for Higher Education Faculty*, written by Robert Talbert. The authors provide a detailed discussion of the book, its foundational principles, and uses and challenges for interpreter educators, particularly in the context of the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic and its consequences for educators globally.

Francesca Maria Frittella completes the Open Forum section with a review of *The Role of Technology in Conference Interpreter Training*, edited by María Dolores Rodríguez Melchor, Ildikó Horváth, and Kate Ferguson. She provides a detailed review of the chapters that make up the three parts of this volume and commends the editors and authors for their contributions to conference interpreter training in terms of knowledge, creativity, and innovation.

In the Commentary Section, well-known interpreting scholar and Professor Emeritus Daniel Gile discusses "Risk Management in Translation: How Much Does It Really Explain?" He examines the links between risk and translation effort, arguing among other things that risk is more often a constraint than a driver of decisions.

The Dissertation Abstract opens with Dawn Marie Wessling's doctoral dissertation, "Stories of Leaving: A Multiple Case Study of the Attrition of Novice American Sign Language-English Interpreters." It continues with Laurie R. Reinhardt's doctoral dissertation, titled "Swift Trust Formation: Experiences of Deaf Consumers and ASL-English Interpreters," completed at Gallaudet University. Folami Ford also completed her doctoral dissertation, titled "Interpreting While Black: A Phenomenological Study of the Lived Reality of African American ASL-English Interpreters," at Gallaudet University. The section finishes with the abstract of Agustina Marianacci's master's thesis, "Exploring the Exploitation of the Ally Model in Spoken-Language Interpreting From a Service-User Perspective."

As stated at the start, this is our final editorial as co-editors of the journal. We took the baton from Professor Jemina Napier in 2014 and have thoroughly enjoyed working with many interpreter educators, scholars, practitioners, and practisearchers to put together many issues of *IJIE* over the years. We would like to give credit first to the reviewers who have given their time to review manuscripts for this journal. Without their generosity and collegiality, academic colleagues would be unable to disseminate their research and share their perspectives. We also want to thank Debra Russell for unfailingly going out of her way to interview interpreters and interpreter educators whose often-groundbreaking work is of great value to others in the field. Doug Bowen-Bailey supported us for many years by working his digital magic, managing to get issues published with a very short turnaround time. Serena Krombach-Leigh has supported our work as copy editor extraordinaire for many years,

and we will miss working with her! Last, but not least, we would like to thank the Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT) for supporting us in our role as editors and for this opportunity.

A call for new co-editors will go out, and the publication of the journal will rest with Clemson University Press. We can recommend involvement in the journal as a challenging but most of all exciting journey that will help you connect with scholars, practitioners, trainee interpreters, and interpreter educators internationally. As co-editors, you will make a significant contribution to the international academic community by providing a platform for all those working on the interface between education, practice, and research in the field of signed or spoken language interpreting.

We finish this editorial with a quote, a tradition that we have continued as part of Napier's legacy. We would like to cite Lourdes Cerna, the interpreter interviewed by Clifford Marks for his piece in *The New Yorker*:

"We are trained as a profession to hold our emotions off to the side," she said. "But we are humans, too."

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Knowledge-Oriented Training of Trainers: Feedback on a Seminar in Hybrid Mode

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Abstract

We describe and evaluate a Training of Trainers seminar organized by the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) in Washington, D.C., that pioneered a hybrid mode of delivery. In one of two back-to-back events, each lasting 1-and-a-half days and including some 10 participants, videocon¬ferencing was used to allow online participation by seven interpreter educators together with a diverse group of on-site participants, including three signed language interpreters. After presenting the background and content of the course, we introduce the physical and technical setup and discuss the various challenges in ensuring communicative interaction among all participants. Drawing on a video recording of the sessions and a feedback survey administered online immediately after the event, we examine the hybrid-mode seminar for perceptual conditions, communicative presence, group interaction, and personal learning outcomes for on-site as well as remote participants. Our findings show that hybrid-mode delivery of this type of seminar is challenging but viable and offers new opportunities for Training of Trainers courses, particularly in times of restricted contacts and travel.

Keywords: training of trainers, AIIC, hybrid mode of delivery, remote participation

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Knowledge-Oriented Training of Trainers: Feedback on a Seminar in Hybrid Mode

Building on a tradition going back to the 1960s, the notion of a "training paradigm" for conference interpreting gained prominence by the 1990s (Mackintosh, 1995). While largely informed by the pioneering work of the "Paris School" (Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989), it was most actively promoted by the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) (e.g., Thiéry, 2015). Indeed, one of the basic tenets was that courses in consecutive and simultaneous interpreting should be "designed and taught by practicing conference interpreters, preferably AIIC members" (Mackintosh, 1995, p.124). Another paradigmatic assumption was that interpreter training should be positioned at the master's level, often within academic degree courses. In light of the progressive academization of such programs, it became increasingly debatable to view the requirement of professional experience and status as the key qualification for university-level teaching (see Sawyer, 2019). Following some pioneering initiatives, most notably by Barbara Moser-Mercer at the University of Geneva, AIIC had put the training of trainers on its agenda by the turn of the millennium and offered its first 2-day seminar, on *Teaching Strategies for Simultaneous Interpreting*, in Porto, Portugal, in 2003 (AIIC Training, 2002). Subsequent editions were held in Rome, and the practice became institutionalized over the course of 15 years. In addition to the annual event in Rome, typically offered as two back-to-back seminars lasting 1-and-a-half days each, such seminars on topics ranging from note-taking for consecutive interpreting to feedback have been run by other AIIC Regions, including South America, to accommodate demand from the organization's worldwide membership. The first such Training of Trainers (ToT) seminar in the United States was held in October 2018 and is the subject of this paper, in which we conduct a two-pronged analysis that relates to its content and, in particular, to the hybrid mode in which it was delivered.

Like the seminar offered by the second author in 2016 in Rome, the one held in Washington, D.C., focused on research-based knowledge about interpreting, whereas ToT seminars have typically centered on aspects of skills training. More exceptionally, though, the seminar was offered in hybrid mode, allowing participation on-site as well as in remote mode via a videoconference link. Our main purpose, therefore, was to investigate how the physical setup and perceptual conditions influenced participation and interaction and to what extent the hybrid mode permitted a satisfactory learning experience. To answer these research questions, we analyzed participants' responses to an anonymous online survey administered immediately after the event.

While the focus of our paper is thus on the "How?" of the seminar—that is, how it was experienced and perceived by the participants—the "What?" also requires some discussion. After all, the seminar's focus on research-based knowledge rather than on hands-on skills training was likely to shape the participants' ToT seminar experience. Nevertheless, our aim in this article is not a pedagogical evaluation. Rather than the instructional techniques used in the seminar, which are mentioned only in passing, our interest centers on the interactional dynamics in the hybrid-mode seminar, as observed and experienced by a diverse group of experienced interpreter educators and practitioners.

The Washington Seminar

Background

Leaving aside the fraught issue of theory courses in the MA-level curriculum for future conference interpreting professionals (see Setton & Dawrant, 2016, pp.466–468), it is now widely accepted that professionals who are called upon to teach need (to develop) pedagogical skills and a theoretical understanding (*knowledge*) of the task and its underlying cognitive, linguistic, and interactional processes (see, e.g., Orlando, 2019; Sawyer, 2019). The former have been the main object of AIIC ToT training seminars, whereas research-based knowledge about interpreting is presumably available through books, journal articles, and reference publications. But availability is not the same as accessibility, at least in epistemic terms. Interpreter trainers typically combining a busy professional agenda with part-time teaching assignments (see Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p.526f.) will find it difficult not only to immerse themselves in highly specialized reading but also to appreciate the relevance of small-scale methodical efforts at developing the state of the art. Some form of knowledge brokering would seem to be required, as reflected in the 2007 AIIC Seminar in Rome, where Ebru Diriker focused on "making interpreting studies research relevant to the classroom" (AIIC Training and Professional Development, 2006). The 2016 Rome seminar by the second author, and its Washington edition, had smaller and greater ambitions: Rather than prioritize the application of research findings to teaching, it sought to offer a panoramic view of knowledge about (conference) interpreting gained through academic study, as brought together in written form in the *Routledge Encyclopedia of Interpreting Studies* (Pöchhacker, 2015). In short, the seminar made a subtle distinction between "knowledge for training" and "knowledge for trainers."

In its original form and its subsequent edition in Washington, the seminar's focus on knowledge sharing within a group of professional peers made it a matter of course to adopt a social constructivist approach to learning (see, e.g., Kiraly, 2000). Rather than to provide mere lectures, the goal was to match available epistemic resources to participants' backgrounds and interests as well as to broker understanding and the co-construction of knowledge in a process of collaborative exchange. In this pedagogical approach, two dimensions of the learning process acquired special importance: (a) the characteristics of the participants and (b) the communicative dynamics over some 10 hours of group interaction. It is easy to see how the option of remote participation in the hybrid format would magnify any challenges in these two respects: Joining the seminar online from other parts of the world would make for even greater diversity of cultural backgrounds, experiences, and interests; and interacting via videoconference poses special perceptual, attentional, and proxemic challenges that are likely to affect the interactional dynamics among the group as a whole.

Course Content and Delivery

The seminar, titled "Interpreting: What We Know and How We Know It," was advertised on the AIIC website as an "overview of research" for "teachers of interpreting." It was described as comprising three main parts—the development of research, models of interpreting, and selected topics (bilingualism, memory, strategies, quality, and technology)—that were to be flexibly distributed over 3 half-days. Similar to the ToT events in Rome, the Washington seminar was offered twice, back to back, over 3 days (October 5–7): Seminar 1 took place all day on Friday and on Saturday morning, and Seminar 2 took place on Saturday afternoon and all day on Sunday. More than the different scheduling, the expectation of a unique mix of participants in each group makes it imprudent to consider these two seminar editions to be "identical." Indeed, despite being essentially similar in content, they turned out to be different with regard to the mix of topics discussed in depth and the interactional dynamics within the groups. This might have had something to do, at least in part, with the key factor that constitutes the focus of our analysis: Seminar 1 comprised 12 participants on-site as well as seven remote participants, whereas Seminar 2 was conducted on-site only, with 14 participants. The main motivation for trialing the hybrid mode for Seminar 1 arose from requests to the organizer from interested colleagues unable to make the trip to Washington. Initially, these were teaching staff at the Middlebury Institute of International Studies, the institution co-sponsoring the event by providing its meeting facilities in Washington, D.C. When the hybrid mode of delivery had been decided upon, a subsequent request from AIIC Brazil to allow several interpreter trainers to participate remotely was also accommodated.

Facilities and Technical Setup

On-site

The on-site meeting facilities used for both seminars consisted of a spacious conference room (21 ft x 38 ft / 798 ft2) equipped with a digital projector and screen for slide presentation, a 60-inch wall-mounted flat-screen monitor, a wall-mounted Polycom Eagle Eye pan tilt zoom camera, and ceiling-mounted omnidirectional microphones (see Figure 1). The instructor wore a wireless lavalier microphone that provided sound to the videoconferencing platform. A second video feed of the on-site participants was provided by a tripod-mounted video camera (Canon Vixia HF R82) connected to Zoom through an Epiphan AVio HD video grabber and laptop computer operated by the seminar organizer, who also served as moderator. This camera provided a wide-angle view as well as close-up shots of the participants when they made comments or asked questions.

The room was also equipped with a public address system consisting of ceiling-mounted speakers, which allowed all on-site participants to hear comments from the online participants. The ceiling-mounted microphones made it possible for all online participants to hear clearly any comments or questions from the on-site seminar participants.

The wall-mounted flat-screen monitor was used to show the individual video feeds of the remote participants to the instructor and the on-site participants in an effort to encourage connection and interaction between the two groups. This monitor was to the right of the instructor and easily visible to on-site attendees. The monitor location was not the most convenient for the instructor, who had to turn his head away from the participants in the room to see the remote participants.

Figure 1
Physical and Technical Setup

Note: Background (left to right): tripod-mounted camera to capture video of participants; slide projection screen; instructor; wall-mounted monitor to show remote attendees. Foreground: on-site participants in semicircle.

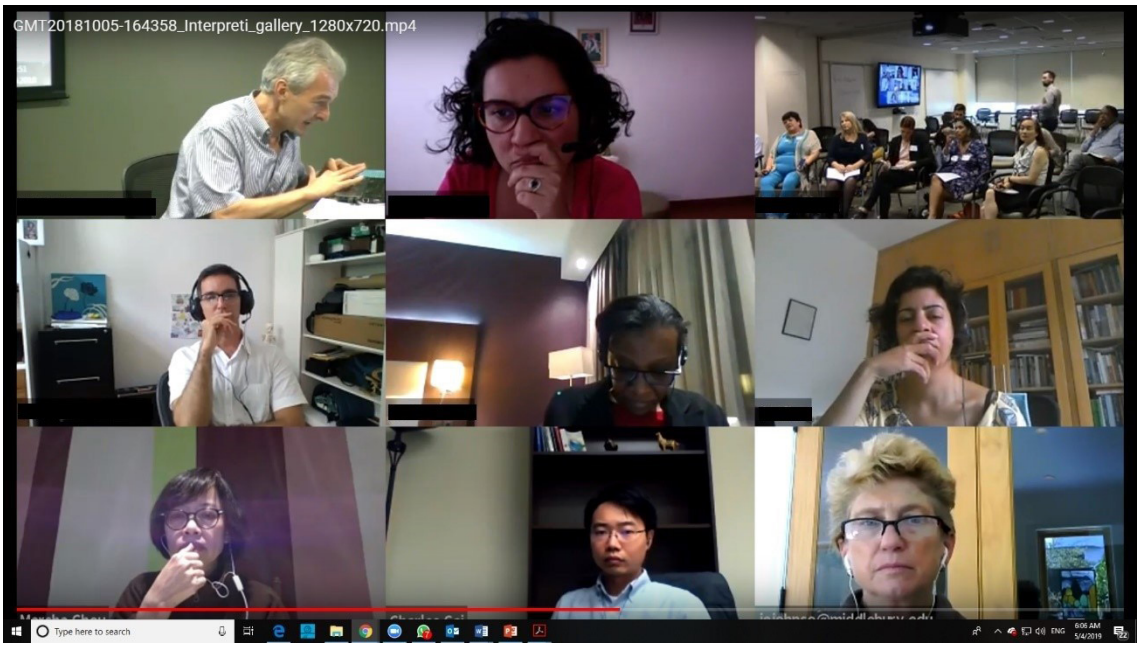
Off-site

All remote participants connected to the seminar by using the Zoom web conferencing platform (Zoom Video Communications, Inc.). Remote participants were responsible for their own technical setup. However, all remote participants received a list of recommendations for remote participation in the seminar. These included

- a stable broadband Internet connection (minimum of 5 Mbps download and 5 Mbps upload),
- a computer or tablet with a webcam,
- a comfortable headset (headphones and microphone) connected to the computer or tablet, and
- a quiet place where the remote attendee could participate in the seminar without interruption.

Remote participants were able to see the video feed of the instructor, a second video feed of the on-site participants, and each of the individual video feeds from the other remote participants. They could choose between "speaker view," which would display only the video feed of the person speaking on the entire screen, or the "gallery view" of all video feeds arranged in grid form.

Figure 2
Remote Participation Gallery View



Note. The room's second wall-mounted screen, visible in the video-feed image at top right, was not used in the seminar.

The presenter's slides were provided to the remote participants in an email attachment so they could follow along at their own pace. Remote participants also had access to the chat feature on Zoom, which was used throughout the seminar to communicate with the organizer and among the remote participants. Unlike a traditional webinar in which remote attendees are often limited to passively listening to a lecture or presentation, this seminar provided full participation and interaction opportunities between remote and on-site participants.

Evaluation

Given the novelty of the initiative, participants were informed at the beginning of the seminar that their feedback on content as well as course delivery would be solicited via an anonymous online survey after the event. While a more comprehensive evaluation would comprise a number of different data collection activities, as outlined, for instance, in the model proposed by Cook and Ellaway (2015), the survey instrument described below was designed to cover at least some of the suggested dimensions, including an account of decisions, an observation of implementation, and an assessment of participants' experience and satisfaction.

The following section describes the content and administration of the survey instrument(s) and presents the main findings, particularly for Seminar 1.

Material and Methods

Questionnaire

Three versions of a questionnaire were drafted by the second author and finalized with input from the first. The basic version, for participants in Seminar 2 (on-site only), comprised 16 questions, many of which contained multiple rating items. The first block of five questions elicited background information on participants' professional and teaching experience as well as educational achievements. The next question focused on personal expectations for the seminar, and respondents were asked to rate the relative importance of eight items on a 4-point ordinal scale (see the Appendix).

Moving on to evaluation, a 5-point scale with verbal end-points (from *1 = very poor* to 5 = *very good*) was used to assess the extent to which participants were satisfied with practical arrangements (such as meeting facilities, acoustics,

and visibility). Feedback on the degree of coverage of nine major topics was sought through a 3-point rating scale (*not enough*, *about right*, and *too much*), with an additional open-ended question about "other" topics that participants would have liked to see covered.

The three main questions designed to provide a detailed assessment of the seminar were based on sets of statements to be rated on a 4-point Likert-type scale (from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*). The various rating items came under the three main headings of structure and presentation (five items), modes of interaction and learning (seven items), and outcome variables (10 items). This was followed by a summary rating of the seminar experience as a whole on a 5-point ordinal scale (from *very bad* to *very good*) and two open-ended questions asking what respondents had liked best about the seminar and what they saw as its main weak points, as well as space for "any other comments."

The questionnaire for on-site participants in Seminar 1 (hybrid mode) was nearly identical to the one described above but contained four additional questions. Most importantly, respondents were presented with an additional Likert-type rating question and asked to express the extent of their agreement or disagreement with nine items relating to various aspects of the hybrid mode of delivery. Two open-ended questions toward the end asked what participants had liked most, and least, specifically about the hybrid-mode format. The last extra item asked whether, having experienced this seminar delivered in hybrid mode, they would recommend participation to their colleagues.

Finally, the questionnaire for remote participants contained the same 20 questions as the version for on-site participants in Seminar 1, with appropriate minor adjustments (e.g., *attending the seminar online* vs. *attending the seminar with the inclusion of online participants*; *interact with on-site participants* vs. *interact with online participants*). The three additional questions were an open-ended item, early on, asking about respondents' main motivation for attending the seminar online; an item asking about the extent of online participation (*throughout, more than 50 percent of the time, and less than 50 percent of the time*); and a yes/no question asking whether the seminar had provided "good value for the time and resources invested." Excerpts from the questionnaire version for online participants can be found in the Appendix.

Implementation

The three versions of the questionnaire were generated by using the open-source online survey tool LimeSurvey, a version of which (3.15.3 at the time) is hosted on a server of Vienna University's Center for Translation Studies. In each case, questions were organized into the same seven groups: "Background and Motivation," "Arrange-ments and Facilities," "Content and Presentation," "Interaction," "Personal Learning Outcomes," "Overall Satisfaction and Comments," and "Final Comments."

None of the questions in any of the three versions was made mandatory. While this choice posed the risk of missing values, it was believed that participants would have sufficient motivation, right after the seminar, to complete the questionnaire even in the absence of coercive settings.

Participants' email addresses, available from the registration procedure, were loaded into the survey administration tool, and a total of 28 invitations to participate were sent out on October 7, immediately after the end of Seminar 2. The survey invitations took the form of short email messages containing a link with a personalized access key to prevent multiple completions or sharing of the survey link. The fact that the survey was strictly anonymous was made very clear on the title page, which explained that access information would be used only to monitor completion and could not be matched with responses, which were stored in a separate database.

Most participants completed the questionnaire in the days following the event, but eight required a reminder, which was sent 11 days after the initial invitation. Only one participant (in Seminar 2) failed to complete the survey despite the reminder.

The three sets of survey responses were exported to SPSS Statistics (version 25) for descriptive analysis. Results, focusing largely on Seminar 1, are presented in the following section.

Results

Response rates for the feedback surveys were gratifyingly high. All 19 participants in Seminar 1 completed and submitted the questionnaire. Because one (on-site) participant answered only the background items, results reported for the on-site group of Seminar 1 were based on 11 valid responses. For Seminar 2 (all on-site), nine completed questionnaires were available for analysis.

Participants' Backgrounds and Motivations.

The professional profile of participants in Seminar 1 was relatively homogeneous. As one would expect in an AIIC seminar, their professional work was mostly—*often* or *(almost) always*—in conference settings (75% in the on-site group, 100% in the online group). Nevertheless, most respondents also worked *sometimes* in other settings, including diplomatic, legal, health care, and educational. The picture was similar for Seminar 2, with four out of nine respondents working *(almost) always* in conference settings, but some also specializing in diplomatic or legal settings. Working languages included Afrikaans, American Sign Language, Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Portuguese, Spanish, and Russian.

Participants had an impressive amount of professional experience: The mean number of years worked as an interpreter was 20 (min. 10, max. 34) for both groups of on-site participants, and 16 for the online participants in Seminar 1. Most of these experienced interpreters were also experienced trainers, particularly in Seminar 1: Six out of the seven online participants had at least *considerable*, if not extensive experience teaching interpreting, with a larger spread in the on-site group of Seminar 1 (from *very limited* to *very extensive*). With only one or two exceptions, all 28 seminar participants had themselves completed a higher-education course (master's, graduate, diploma) in interpreting.

The motivation for participating showed a highly similar pattern across all subgroups (Seminar 1 on-site; Seminar 1 online; Seminar 2 on-site). Participants mainly considered it *rather* or *very important* "to share professional experiences" (92%, 72%, and 100%, respectively) and "to share teaching experiences with colleagues" (92%, 85%, and 66%, respectively) as well as "to satisfy their intellectual curiosity" as professional interpreters (84%, 71%, and 78%, respectively). The latter, in particular, fully matched what had been advertised, while the strong motivation to exchange experiences with colleagues highlights the importance of group interaction rather than presentational instruction in these seminars. Given the high level of experience, it is unsurprising that few participants attended to earn professional development credits or to prepare for teaching a new course, although many considered it to be a (rather or very) important motivation to refine their current teaching, especially in Seminar 1 (75% on-site group, 85% online group).

Online participants in Seminar 1 were asked (in an open-ended question) to indicate their main motivation for attending remotely, and their responses ranged from cost issues and a lack of opportunity to travel all the way to a fondness for webinars as "an optimal solution for less practical/hands-on professional development courses" (#6).

Arrangements and Facilities.

Asked to rate various aspects of the practical arrangements on a 5-point scale (*1 = very poor*, *5 = very good*), all participants in Seminar 1 were very satisfied with the seminar description and schedule (mean 4.6) but evidently divided over issues of visibility. Whereas on-site participants, who found the meeting facilities very comfortable (4.64), were unanimous about the very good (5.0) visibility of the presentation slides, remote participants found this the least satisfactory (2.57) of all practical arrangements. Conversely, online participants were happier with their visual access to fellow participants (4.14), provided by the second (tripod-mounted) camera, than were the on-site participants (3.64), who were also not entirely happy (3.82) with the seating arrangement (i.e., two rows in a semicircle; see Figure 1). On the other hand, sound quality was deemed somewhat less satisfactory (3.86) by the remote participants than were the acoustics by participants on-site (4.73). (An item about the audibility of remote participants was included later in the questionnaire and revealed no problems; see Table 2.) In short, the on-site group had better listening conditions and full access to the slide projection, whereas remote participants had a better view of the other participants, both on-site and online (see Figure 2).

Content and Delivery.

Participants were invited to assess the structure of the seminar and the clarity and pace of the oral and visual presentation by indicating their level of agreement with five statements on a 4-point Likert-type scale (from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*). In the on-site group of Seminar 1, there was no disagreement that "the content of presentations was easy to follow," that "the slides were clear and helpful," and that "the oral delivery was clear" (82% *strongly agree*). One participant each rather disagreed with the statement that "the overall structure of seminar content was clear" and that "the presentations were well paced within the allotted time." In the online group, one participant each *rather disagreed* with the statements about easy-to-follow content, well-paced presentations, and clear/helpful slides, with all other responses indicating agreement. There was no disagreement about clearly structured content, and 100% *strongly agreed* that "the oral delivery was clear," which also indicates that acoustic perception via videoconference was satisfactory (as supported by the high sound-quality rating reported above).

Responses to the question seeking to ascertain whether the various seminar topics had received adequate coverage yielded a very clear pattern. For eight of the nine topics, most if not all respondents (as in the case of "Theory/Models" in the on-site group and "Memory" in the online group) believed that coverage had been *about right*. Typically, a majority (of between 55% and 85%) took this middle position, with the respective minority indicating a preference for more (*not enough*). Three topics received a single vote of *too much* in the on-site group, and two did in the online group. These coincided only on the topic of "Bilingualism," which a majority in both groups nevertheless considered adequately covered. The only clear-cut exception to this favorable assessment was "Technology," a topic that all but one person in each subgroup considered insufficiently covered. Because content delivery catered to the group and therefore varied somewhat between Seminar 1 and Seminar 2, a direct comparison for this questionnaire item does not seem warranted. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note that the feedback for Seminar 2 matched the prevalent pattern described above also for the topic of technology, which, with the same slide presentation, received the typical 55 to 45 split of responses between *about right* and *not enough*.

The open-ended question regarding other topics that participants would have liked to see covered drew few responses. In the on-site group, mention was made of teaching strategies (#4, #11) and curricular issues (#10), as opposed to cultural studies (#2), new technologies (#3), and testing (#7) in the online group.

Interaction.

The issue of interactional dynamics, which is at the heart of this evaluation, was addressed through rating items by using a 4-point Likert-type scale (see the Appendix). As a prerequisite, remote participants were asked to indicate their level of attendance, and five out of the seven confirmed that they were remotely present *throughout the seminar*. Another online attendee participated *more than 50% of the time*.

The first of two multi-item questions about participation in the hybrid-mode seminar contained seven identical items for on-site as well as remote participants. Responses to the first two assertions, which stand in opposition to each other, indicated that everyone had ample opportunity to participate without causing too much interruption (see Table 1). It is noteworthy, however, that the level of agreement or disagreement differed somewhat in the online group. Although the difference is small, it could plausibly reflect the difficulty for remote participants to signal their wish to take the floor. (As documented in Figure 1, the screen showing the remote participants was not in the seminar leader's view.)

The next two statements, about insights derived from the discussion rather than the presentations, clearly demonstrated participants' high appreciation for the contributions of their colleagues and, somewhat less, for the seminar leader's responses to questions and comments. As can be seen in Table 1, there was no strong sense among participants in Seminar 1 that "the level of participation was highly uneven" or that "there was not enough interaction between participants." It is worth noting that remote participants disagreed more clearly with these observations than did the on-site group.

Finally, the suggestion that "participants should have been engaged in group work" did not find favor. Respondents were uniformly against this option, not only for the hybrid-mode format (Seminar 1) but equally for Seminar 2.

Table 1
Assessment of participation

	ON-SITE (n = 11)				**ONLINE** (n = 7)				**SEM. 2** (n = 9)			
	strongly rather disagree		rather strongly agree		strongly rather disagree		rather strongly agree		strongly rather disagree		rather strongly agree	
All had opportunity to speak*	-	9	36	**55**	-	14	43	29	-	-	22	**78**
Too many questions/comments	36	27	36	-	-	57	29	-	**78**	11	-	11
Responses gave more insights	18	9	55	9	-	57	43	-	11	22	11	33
Insights from participants	9	-	45	**45**	-	14	71	14	-	11	22	**67**
Level of participation uneven	9	36	18	36	-	86	14	-	**56**	33	-	-
Not enough interaction between people	18	36	27	18	14	71	14	-	**67**	11	-	11
Should have done group work	**55**	27	18	-	29	43	29	-	**67**	22	-	-

**Note.* Items are listed in abbreviated form. For exact wording, see questionnaire excerpts in the Appendix.

The impact of the hybrid mode on interaction during Seminar 1 was probed more thoroughly in the second rating task, which had two items for on-site participants only in addition to seven matching assertions for both subgroups, with adjusted wording (see Table 2). On-site participants were quite clear in their disagreement with four statements about negative features of the hybrid format. They did not feel apprehensive about attending a seminar with online participants (73% *strongly disagree*), nor would they have preferred all participants to be on-site (64% *strongly disagree*). They did not see technical difficulties taking up valuable time (64% *strongly disagree*) and were even more adamant that having remote participants did not detract from their learning experience. The online group showed a similar pattern of responses, but with less clear-cut (dis)agreement. In other words, they had been slightly more concerned about attending online (29% *agree*) and seemed less certain that remote participation would enable them to fully focus on the material presented.

Somewhat surprisingly, on-site participants proved more doubtful about being "able to interact well" and to "interact easily" with remote participants (55% *rather disagree*) than the other way around. Indeed, remote participants mostly agreed with the former assertion (57% *rather agree*), even though they were undecided about this being "easy."

Unanimous agreement was found in both groups for the statement that "the seminar with a mix of on-site and online participants was an enriching experience." Similarly, with only one person doubting in each group, both on-site and remote participants in Seminar 1 expressed an interest in attending future seminars online.

Table 2

Impact of blended format

	ON-SITE (*n* = 11)				**ONLINE** (*n* = 7)				**SEM. 2** (*n* = 9)			
	strongly disagree	**rather disagree**	**rather agree**	**strongly agree**	**strongly disagree**	**rather disagree**	**rather agree**	**strongly agree**	**strongly disagree**	**rather disagree**	**rather agree**	**strongly agree**
All had opportunity to speak*	-	9	36	**55**	-	14	**43**	29	-	-	22	**78**
Too many questions/comments	36	27	36	-	-	57	29	-	**78**	11	-	11
Responses gave more insights	18	9	55	9	-	57	43	-	11	22	11	33
Insights from participants	9	-	45	**45**	-	14	**71**	14	-	11	22	**67**
Level of participation uneven	9	36	18	36	-	86	14	-	**56**	33	-	-
Not enough interaction between people	18	36	27	18	14	71	14	-	**67**	11	-	11
Should have done group work	**55**	27	18	-	29	43	29	-	**67**	22	-	-

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Table 2
Impact of blended format

	ON-SITE (n = 11)				ONLINE (n = 7)			
	strongly disagree	rather disagree	rather agree	strongly agree	strongly disagree	rather disagree	rather agree	strongly agree
Apprehensive about blended format/attending online	73	9	18	-	29	29	14	14
Able to interact well with online/on-site participants	9	55	27	9	-	29	57	14
Easy to interact with online/on-site participants	-	55	36	9	14	29	29	14
Remote participation distracting/difficult to focus	82	9	-	-	29	57	14	-
Technical difficulties with VC took up valuable time	64	36	-	-	29	71	-	-
Blended seminar was an enriching experience	-	-	64	36	-	-	71	29
Interested in attending future online seminars	9	-	18	73	-	14	29	57
Would prefer having all participants present on-site	64	27	9	-				
Sound quality of remote participants was adequate	-	-	55	45				

Outcome/Satisfaction.

To evaluate the overall outcome of the seminar, participants were asked to express the level of their (dis)agreement with 10 statements relating to their learning experience (see the Appendix), using the same symmetrical 4-point scale as for the previous items.

As can be seen in Table 3, several items drew a very clear-cut response in both subgroups of Seminar 1 (and, although not reported here, in Seminar 2). All 18 respondents agreed that their main expectations had been fulfilled, even though the level of agreement was somewhat higher in the on-site group. In line with the considerable importance that the respondents gave to sharing professional and teaching experiences with colleagues as a main motivational factor (see above), most of them agreed that they had "learned a lot from fellow participants in other professional domains." They were more divided over the tricky claim that "talking to colleagues brings more insights than listening to presentations," the preponderance of disagreement indicating appreciation for the seminar presentations without disregarding the value of collegial exchange. In fact, respondents were unanimous in agreeing that most of the seminar content was relevant to their professional work as well as to their teaching.

When confronted with potential points of criticism, such as the seminar's short duration or the diversity of participants, a clear majority of respondents did not share these concerns. Neither did they feel that most of the seminar content had already been familiar to them or that the insights provided "could have been gained equally well by reading." Thus, in the absence of any major perceived shortcomings, all participants but one (in the on-site group) indicated clearly that they would "recommend this seminar to colleagues with a similar background and motivation." This was fully reaffirmed in a subsequent questionnaire item that asked whether respondents in the on-site and online groups would recommend the hybrid-mode format (on-site) and remote participation, respectively, to their colleagues (100% *yes*).

Table 3
Outcome-Related Items

	ON-SITE (n = 11)				**ONLINE** (n = 7)			
	strongly disagree	**rather disagree**	**rather agree**	**strongly agree**	**strongly disagree**	**rather disagree**	**rather agree**	**strongly agree**
My main expectations have been fulfilled	-	-	18	**82**	-	-	71	29
Seminar was too short for any real learning	**46**	36	9	9	**43**	29	20	-
Group was too diverse to permit coherent learning	**64**	27	9	-	29	29	29	-
I learned a lot from fellow participants in other dom.	9	9	**46**	36	-	14	**86**	-
Most of seminar content was already familiar to me	**46**	27	27	-	14	7	-	29
Most content is relevant to my professional work	-	-	27	**73**	-	-	43	**57**
Most content is relevant to my teaching	-	-	27	**73**	-	-	29	**71**
Insights could have been gained equally by reading	**64**	36	-	-	29	**57**	-	-
Talking to colleagues brings more insights	9	64	18	9	29	14	29	14
I would recommend this seminar to colleagues	9	-	-	**82**	-	-	29	**71**

This favorable stance was also reflected in respondents' overall rating of the seminar (on a 5-point scale from *1 = very bad* to *5 = very good*): 10 out of the 11 on-site participants in Seminar 1 rated it as *very good* (91%), as did eight out of the nine participants in Seminar 2 (89%). Based on a calculation of means, these ratings correspond to 4.82 (out of 5) for Seminar 1 and 4.89 for Seminar 2. The fact that the ratings by remote participants in Seminar 1 comprised 57% *good* and only 43% *very good* responses indicates a more tempered assessment (4.43 out of 5) that may reflect some of the differences reported for other questionnaire items above.

Feedback on Hybrid-Mode Seminar.

Beyond their responses to the various rating items, most participants readily commented on their seminar experience in two pairs of open-ended questions in the last part of the questionnaire. The first pair was designed to elicit comments specifically on the hybrid-mode seminar format ("What did you like most/least...?"), whereas the final pair of questions was identical for all participants and concerned best-liked aspects and "main weak points" of the seminar. Some of the comments crossed this distinction and will be considered under the relevant heading. And because our interest here is in feedback on the hybrid-mode seminar format, respondents' abundant and gratifyingly favorable remarks about the content and delivery of the seminar are not presented in any detail. Suffice it to quote part of a comment by an on-site participant that aptly reflects the prevailing sentiment:

> I thought this would be a drier, lecture-type course that would go over my head in many instances, but I found it totally fascinating and engaging, leaving me eager for more of the same. (#4)

Indeed, several comments regarding the seminar's "main weak points" made reference to its short duration, and a couple of participants would at times have preferred more structure than participant-led discussion.

On-site participants' views on what they liked most about the hybrid-mode seminar format showed a striking convergence on a single point: the opportunity to link up with colleagues from different parts of the world. This was also phrased as "the ability to network with a variety of colleagues on an international level" (#8) and put most succinctly as "global participants—global perspective" (#6). Another on-site participant emphasized "that we could engage with the remote participants fairly easily" (#11), but this issue also featured prominently among the things that on-site participants liked least about their hybrid-mode seminar experience. Although some believed that "online participants were pretty much a part of the group—except for the coffee breaks, of course" (#10), most found that there was "not enough interaction" with the remote participants (#6), who "tended to remain silent and less engaged" (#5, #7). This was taken up by another on-site participant under "Any other

comments?": "Also I think online participants need to be asked for comments every now and again, because there were several comments from them that they feel awkward interjecting comments" (#1).

This constraint was indeed reflected in some of the criticisms by participants on the other side of the video link. Apart from the "time difference" (#1, #4) and "too many hours in front of the computer with headphones on" (#6), remote participants disliked the "limited interaction with other participants" (#2). Aside from the more obvious regret that they could not "interact informally face to face" (#3) or "physically" (#4), remote participants confirmed that "taking the floor was not as natural" (#2) and that "it was hard to get people to see we wanted to make a comment" (#5). Taken together, these limitations seemed to create a sense of disconnect that is aptly captured in the following remark about least-liked aspects of remote participation:

> Not being able to connect with in-person participants. Among the remote participants, we had some nice little side connections through Chat. That was great. Would have loved to connect with others, but there was no way to do that. (#3)

Although it is difficult to gauge the extent to which these constraints on interaction by remote participants resulted from perceptual conditions, the relationship between perception and interaction is obviously crucial. Aside from two on-site participants who found the audiovisual presence of remote participants somewhat "distracting" (#8, #11), the issue of visual perception was more acutely felt by the online group, some of whom complained that "remote participants had less visibility" (#2) and were "not always able to see/hear participants making comments" (#3).

The "lack of a direct video feed of the presentation slides" (#7), which was compensated for by sending remote participants a pdf copy of the slides via email, was noted as a problem, but also as an advantage. One respondent in the online group even thought it was "fantastic (even better!) getting the decks to follow along...and to be able to annotate" (#3). By the same token, visual access for remote participants was found superior by some thanks to the two video feeds: "great having the two camera views (audience/speaker)" (#3); "I liked that there were multiple cameras that allowed me to see the room from different perspectives" (#5).

Other favorable comments by remote participants also confirmed that they were "able to take part in/listen to the discussions" (#2) and "able to see and interact with everyone during the sessions: in-person participants, remote participants" (#3). In fact, for one respondent, the most-liked feature of remote participation was "equal access to on-site presentation and discussion" (#7). Going beyond perceptual access, though presumably based on it, was the compliment that "[the] course was designed as to allow remote participants to feel encouraged to really join the conversation, ask questions[,] and interact" (#6), and that "the interactive nature of the seminar is what made it possible to stay engaged for such long stretches" (#3).

Discussion and Conclusions

When the first AIIC ToT seminar to be offered in the United States was held in October 2018, the organizers' decision to enable online participation seemed like a bold move at the frontier of distance learning. More than 2 years later, after some regrettable delays in completing the data-based evaluation, most colleagues in the community of interpreting researchers and trainers will have had ample exposure to distance teaching and online learning as a result of on-site meeting restrictions imposed to contain the spread of COVID-19. While remote participation in a learning event is therefore anything but a novelty, the effort to assess its effectiveness in the context of a seminar catering to experienced interpreter educators is clearly relevant to all stakeholders. Indeed, the evaluation of educational web conferencing constitutes a major line of research. Gegenfurtner and Ebner (2019), for instance, reported a meta-analysis of 12 carefully screened randomized controlled trials, mainly in the medical and health sciences, in which learning outcomes (pretest-posttest) in synchronous webinars were compared to those in face-to-face teaching. Analyzing 15 data sources (involving a total of 1414 participants) with 36 effect sizes, they found webinars to be slightly more effective in promoting student achievement than face-to-face classroom environments.

Compared to such sophisticated quantitative analyses, the present evaluation of the AIIC ToT seminar(s) in Washington, D.C., is little more than a descriptive case study without any claim to generalizable findings. But considering the dearth of solid research on the training of trainers in translation and interpreting studies, which Massey, Kiraly, and Ehrensberger-Dow (2019, p.211) characterized as a "remarkably neglected field of inquiry," the present study should be of some value. What is more, the case that we describe makes a unique contribution to the broader theme of on-site versus online learning, given the seminar's hybrid delivery format with on-site and remote participants sharing the same educational process and environment.

In contrast to a standard webinar or lecture course, the Washington seminar, like previous AIIC ToT seminars, attracted highly experienced professionals whose motivation was as much to exchange experiences with peers as to acquire instructional content from a presenter. With peer-group interaction as a cornerstone of the knowledge-building process, the factors shaping and constraining participant interaction take center stage in the present evaluation.

As highlighted in the description of the technical setup as well as the survey findings, perceptual conditions proved crucially important, not only but mainly for remote participants, whose ability to see and be seen (and hear and be heard) in turn had a decisive impact on the interaction among participants. Although overall satisfaction, including content and delivery as well as meeting facilities, was very high among on-site and online participants (4.82/5 and 4.43/5, respectively), a number of limitations of the remote condition was noted by both groups in their qualitative feedback on the hybrid-mode seminar format. There was a shared sense that remote participants were less able to "connect" and less engaged in the discussion, partly because of reduced "visibility" and partly because of constraints on turn taking arising from acoustic and proxemic conditions, even though the moderator's efforts to monitor the online chat were gratefully acknowledged.

Despite these criticisms, however, the overwhelmingly positive feedback from participants (across all groups) shows that the hybrid mode of delivery not only is feasible for events of this kind but also offers unique advantages. Most obviously, it facilitated participation by colleagues in faraway locations, including the U.S. West Coast and even Brazil. The resulting diversity of cultural and professional backgrounds, working languages, and institutional environments was in turn perceived as one of the assets of the hybrid-mode seminar. As one on-site participant put it, "It connected participants from different locations, whose diversity of experience and insight enriched the learning experience" (#7).

Harnessing a diversity of experience to engage with multiple viewpoints seems a valuable goal, particularly for a seminar that is probing the methodological foundations of research-based knowledge, often revealing its contextual embeddedness and provisional nature. This kind of learning environment, populated by "reflective practitioners" (Schön, 1983) and experienced teachers, lends itself very well to an educational process that relies not so much on the transmission of information as on the interactive co-construction of knowledge. Individual experience, personality, motivation, and group dynamics are thus played out in a specific situational context in which such seemingly trivial matters as screen positions, video feeds, camera angles, and even on-site seating arrangements have an impact on the interaction.

A general lesson to be drawn from this evaluation must surely be that there is no single ideal arrangement for this type of integrated (hybrid) seminar. Aside from the roles of participants and their motivations and preferences (e.g., for peer-group exchange rather than lectures), choices will have to be made between alternative practical arrangements that may be more or less suitable for some but not others. These may include the number of remote participants, the video feeds available to them (e.g., room views vs. slides), microphone placement, and seating arrangements in relation to screen and camera positions. The premises and facilities used for the Washington seminar left little to be desired, and yet some of the practical choices could, with hindsight, have been different. The results of this evaluation reflect this hindsight and can serve others in developing their own hybrid-mode seminar designs. Furthermore, as online communications technologies continue to advance and remote participation becomes more common, technical shortcomings noted by remote and on-site participants (e.g., slide visualization or interjection by remote participants) may well be attenuated or resolved altogether.

As one might expect, the findings from our case study reaffirm the truism that remote participation is not the same as "being there." (And being present in person may never have been valued more highly than during the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic.) What an online presence cannot offer is an opportunity to "interact informally face to face around the edges of the sessions and during breaks" (#3). Admittedly, the hybrid-mode seminar format makes this difference even more acutely felt. While remote participants themselves sensed a certain disconnect, they also seemed remote to on-site participants, who found it as difficult to fully engage with the other group as vice versa. It would seem futile, though, to try to measure the added value of an on-site presence as long as the main goal of joint knowledge building is found to be achievable, as has been shown in the present evaluation. Unless such seminars are held in locations with a large catchment area of potential attendees, the fundamental trade-off remains between the need for physical translocation, with all the costs that this implies, and acceptance of a sensory disconnect resulting from the lack of unmediated contact.

As we have tried to show, however, this choice also offers plenty of opportunity, depending on individual needs and circumstances. After all, every one of the 18 respondents thankfully providing feedback on their hybrid-mode seminar experience affirmed that they would recommend this format to their colleagues, as on-site and remote participants alike. We may therefore claim that the hybrid-mode seminar format evaluated in this article is feasible and successful, and we would encourage others to adopt this technology-enhanced approach to the delivery of training of trainers events on future occasions.

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Appendix

Questionnaire Excerpts (Online Group)

Motivation

(Please rate the importance of the following options)

	Not important	Less important	Rather important	Very important
Satisfy my intellectual curiosity as a professional interpreter	○	○	○	○
Obtain professional development credits	○	○	○	○
Share professional experiences with colleagues	○	○	○	○
Share teaching experiences with colleagues	○	○	○	○
Prepare for teaching a (new) practical interpreting course	○	○	○	○
Refine current practical teaching	○	○	○	○
Prepare for teaching a (new) theory course	○	○	○	○
Refine current teaching of theory course	○	○	○	○

Interaction

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree	Rather disagree	Rather agree	Strongly agree
I was apprehensive about attending the seminar online.	○	○	○	○
I was able to interact well with on-site participants throughout the seminar.	○	○	○	○
The seminar with a mix of on-site and online participants was an enriching experience.	○	○	○	○
Attending this seminar remotely made it difficult for me to focus on the material being presented.	○	○	○	○
I found it easy to interact with on-site participants.	○	○	○	○
Technical difficulties with the videoconferencing took up valuable time.	○	○	○	○
I would be interested in attending more online training of trainers seminars in the future.	○	○	○	○

Interaction

Impact of hybrid mode of delivery

Outcome/Satisfaction

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

	Strongly disagree	Rather disagree	Rather agree	Strongly agree
My main expectations for this seminar have been fulfilled.	○	○	○	○
The seminar was too short for any real learning to take place.	○	○	○	○
The group was too diverse to permit a coherent learning experience.	○	○	○	○
I learned a lot from fellow participants who work in other professional domains.	○	○	○	○
Most of the seminar content was already familiar to me.	○	○	○	○
Most of the seminar content is relevant to my professional work.	○	○	○	○
Most of the seminar content is relevant to my teaching.	○	○	○	○
The insights provided by this seminar could have been gained equally well by reading.	○	○	○	○
Talking to colleagues brings more insights than listening to presentations.	○	○	○	○
I would recommend this seminar to colleagues with a similar background and motivation.	○	○	○	○

Interprofessional Education for Interpreting and Social Work Students—Desgin and Evaluation

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Abstract

Public service interpreters and social workers frequently work with each other. A training approach that seeks to bring learners from two professional areas together is interprofessional education. This paper describes and discusses interprofessional education sessions for interpreting and social work students conducted over 3 years. We report on how these were designed and delivered and on students' evaluation of learning outcomes. Evaluations from students were elicited via anonymous questionnaires in paper/ electronic form. Responses were gained from 218 of 442 participating students on the following: level of confidence to later work with professionals of the other disciplinary background; level of importance of pre-interactional activities; and self-awareness of performance skills when interacting with a member of the other professional group. Confidence levels are reported as high, and pre-interactional activities are rated as important. Responses on performance skills relate to emotional and verbal features as well as to content knowledge and terminology.

Keywords: interprofessional education, interpreter pedagogy, social work pedagogy

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Interprofessional Education for Interpreting and Social Work Students—Design and Evaluation

Interpreters and social workers frequently work together. A recent study on the work practices of 2,281 interpreters in Australia reveals that "social welfare" is the second-most-frequent area in which interpreters work, ahead of other common areas of work, such as aged care, courts/legal domains, and education (Tobias, Hlavac, Sundin, & Avella Archila, 2020, p. 15). Going back more than 40 years, a number of guideline documents have been produced to advise social workers how to work with interpreters—for example, Baker and Briggs (1975); Jones (1985); Frey, Roberts-Smith, and Bessel-Browne (1990); Centre for Multicultural Youth (2011); and Department of Health and Human Services (2018). This suggests that, at least in Australia, many social workers frequently work with interpreters.

A key pedagogical development over the last 30 years, first trialed in the health sciences, is interprofessional education (IPE). IPE refers to learners from at least two occupational groups interacting with each other in a structured and supervised setting (real-life or simulated), where the desired outcomes are an increase in knowledge of how the other occupational group works and how to work with this group and an increase in subsequent confidence in future work with this group (Barr, Koppel, Reeves, Hammick, & Freeth, 2005; WHO, 2010). The positive outcomes are not restricted to the two occupational groups only: There can be "flow-on" effects from their augmented skill sets from which others, such as patients or service users, can benefit.

IPE has, in more recent years, expanded to social work and interpreter training. However, IPE sessions conducted for interpreting and social work students to learn and work together appear to be uncommon. This paper describes the design of IPE in joint sessions that were conducted over 3 consecutive years (2017–2019) and an evaluation of these sessions via participating students' survey responses. A feature of this paper is that it presents a dual perspective. We believe that it is insightful for interpreter trainers to see the responses and outcomes for interpreting students and social work students. Insights are gained through eliciting students' post-IPE reflections. IPE sessions also facilitate the "swapping of notes" and gaining feedback from peers of not only the same disciplinary background but also another disciplinary background. These, in turn, may be able to advance learners' self-efficacy strategies and, more generally, their notions of intersubjectivity in professional settings. Given this, this paper addresses the three research questions:

1. Do interpreting and social work students report that an IPE session enables them to work confidently with a member of the other professional group?
2. After the IPE session, do interpreting and social work students identify pre-interactional activities in which they need to engage?
3. Which skills or aspects of their own professional performance are interpreting students and social work students now aware of when working with a member of the other professional group?

This paper is structured in the following way. Section 2 provides a background to the areas of IPE and studies, that of interpreters and social workers working with each other. This, in turn, informed our approach to the design and delivery of the IPE sessions, which are presented in Section 3. Section 4 describes the methodology and details of the data sample. The results and discussion are presented in Section 5, and the findings and conclusion in Section 6.

Background Studies and Concepts

This section provides a definition of IPE and a description of it as a pedagogical activity in prequalification settings. In Sections 2.2 and 2.3, we provide cross-professional descriptions of each area of practice from the perspective of the other field.

Interprofessional Education

Interprofessional education (IPE) is a well-established teaching activity in the health sciences and is now becoming established as a feature of training in interpreting (Krystallidou et al., 2018; Ozolins, 2013) and in social work (Jones & Phillips, 2016; Rubin et al., 2018). IPE refers to educators and learners in either pre- or postqualification settings working together to "jointly create and foster a collaborative learning environment. The goal of these efforts is to develop knowledge, skills[,] and attitudes that result in interprofessional team behaviors and competence" (Buring et al., 2009, p. 2). This is congruent with the definition of

(and support for) IPE given by the World Health Organization (WHO, 2010, p. 55). Alongside the development of knowledge, skills, and attitudes, IPE also typically seeks to provide learners with "experience of interprofessional work…, knowledge of group dynamics, confidence in working with interprofessional groups[, and] flexibility" (Reeves, 2016, p.188). IPE is commonly employed as a postqualification learning activity in workplace settings. Employees from different professional backgrounds engage in IPE to "develop team members' competence and confidence…in their work settings" (Barr et al., 2005, p.88). In prequalification learning settings (for health care students), IPE is employed to enable "graduate[s] to enter the workplace with baseline competencies and confidence for interactions and communication skills that will improve practice" (Buring et al., 2009, p.4). The conceptual, cognitive, and affective changes that IPE can bring about are commonly subsumed under the descriptors *competency* and *confidence*.

The literature refers to IPE in various ways. For example, Ozolins used the phrase "interactive workshops with students from other professional faculties" (2013, p.34), while Krystallidou et al. (2018) employed the term "collaborative practice" alongside IPE. Other descriptions, such as "joint learning exercises" or "shared learning classes," are also commonly used.

While the notion of IPE may be encompassed under different labels, the calls for interpreting and social work trainees to learn more about each other have come from many quarters (Tipton, 2016; Westlake & Jones, 2018). For example, Berthold and Fischman (2014), who examined interpreter-mediated interactions of social workers working in mental health, advocated separate specialist training for each group to learn what the other group does and joint IPE sessions for social work and interpreting students to learn how to work together.

Cross-Professional Views—The Social Work Interaction From the Perspective of Interpreting

Despite the fact that many interpreters commonly work with social workers, especially in those countries in which public service (or community) interpreting is the major area of interpreters' work (Corsellis, 2008; Hale, 2007), relatively few studies have focused on interactions where interpreters work with a social worker (or a professional from related fields, such as youth work, housing, corrective services, child protection, and legal services) and an allophone service user. One study that does is Pöllabauer's (2012) examination of interpreters' interlingual transfer skills and of their general performance. Among some of the shortcomings that Pöllabauer (2012) identified are interpreters' misunderstanding of their role and the incidence of interventions that appear to inhibit social workers' capacity to work effectively with service users.

Tipton and Furmanek (2016, pp.203–236) presented the most comprehensive examination of social welfare from an interpreting perspective. They identified some key issues relevant to the training of interpreting students who will work in social work settings. The first issue is understanding the overall structure or sequence of most social work interventions—that is, the frames or dialogic turns that make up the *genre* of the social work interaction. Citing Potocky-Tripodi (2002), Tipton and Furmanek (2016, p.212) reported that a sequence of frames common in social work interventions is engagement, problem identification and assessment, goal setting and contracting, intervention implementation and monitoring, termination and evaluation, and follow-up.

Further, Tipton and Furmanek (2016) outlined six key features of specialist training in social work. The first one is *procedural*, referring to the social worker's initial and ongoing assessment of need and risk or the use of information-gathering tools, such as psychsocial assessment questionnaires or other instruments. The second feature is *situational*, with an example being a multiagency case conference that involves other parties, such as police officers, health care professionals, and service users' family members, which, for an interpreter, means that they need to ensure that "everything gets translated in all directions" (Tipton & Furmanek, 2016, p.211). The third feature is *security and hygiene*, such as the level of risk to one's personal safety and measures to minimize other health risks. The fourth is the *possibility of primary or secondary trauma*, where ensuring the provision of a briefing (and debriefing) can, at an immediate level, help avert some risk of the interpreter experiencing a high level of secondary stress when a service user reports violent or distressing events, or even of primary stress if the service user becomes violent or abusive toward the interpreter or the social worker. The fifth feature is *ethical issues*, such as the interpreter's belief or possession of information about a service user's circumstances acquired outside the interpreted interaction and its relevance to working with a social worker. The final feature is *thematic*, such that interpreters need to know that the referential content of interlocutors' talk could relate to any number of different areas, including employment, housing, family violence, alcohol or substance abuse, rehabilitation with regard to physical or mental health issues, court-ordered diversion programs, or parole conditions.

Drugan (2017) published a study of social work students' instruction related to working with interpreters, from an interpreting perspective. She outlined the steps that she followed to design, deliver, and evaluate two sessions. As a presession canvassing exercise, Drugan (2017, p.129) surveyed six Master of Social Work programs at UK universities in 2014 and found that none had a training component that included working with interpreters or translators, despite many

trainers' observations that "an increasing proportion of social work caseloads relied on interpreting and translation." Working in conjunction with social work programs, she then developed a 1-day course for 40 social work students that was based on real-world case studies and ethical issues.

Further to this, Drugan (2017) conducted a 1-day course for another 59 social work students with a postsession survey that collected students' impression of its usefulness. From 47 responses, Drugan (2017) reported that learners identified the following positive features: role-play as a learning activity, case studies based on real life, enhanced understanding of how to communicate with the other professional, training in judgment, increased confidence, and increased knowledge of logistics (for example, telephone interpreting). Drugan's (2017) postsession survey themes informed the selection of themes and questions in our elicitation of responses from IPE trainees in this paper's data sample (see Section 4).

The only study involving both social work and interpreting students in a joint session from an interpreting perspective is that of Ozolins (2013). He focused mainly on the ethical issues of participating in a role-play based on real events (in Melbourne, Australia) a few years previously. A number of features relevant to the design and delivery of IPE sessions are evident from Ozolins's (2013) study. The first is that, before the session, both groups of students received a briefing describing the scenarios and that they were required to consider the scenarios' logistic, situational, and linguistic as well as ethical issues. The second is that, after the session, students were required to engage in personal and group reflection about how they enacted their own role and how they learned to work with the other professional group through the other group's enactment of their role. These two elements also informed the design of the IPE session on which we report as well as the methodological instruments employed to measure trainees' responses.

Cross-Professional Views—Social Work's Perspective on the Interpreter-Mediated Interaction

From a social work perspective, a larger number of studies have focused on working with interpreters, including Baker and Briggs (1975), Glasser (1983), and Turner (1990). Freed (1988) examined clinical interviewing in social work and mental health services. It is perhaps no coincidence that this focus shed light on features of the relational dynamics that pertain when a third party, the interpreter, "joins the dyad," and Freed advised social workers and interpreters to be clear about their role as "neutral parties," emphasizing the importance of capturing the social worker's tone and intent:

> Because the art of social work interviewing requires rapport, an empathetic interchange[,] and an emotional connection, the interpreter must have the capacity to act exactly as the interviewer acts—express the same feelings, use the same intonations to the extent possible in another language, and through verbal and nonverbal means convey what the interviewer expresses on several levels. (Freed, 1988, p.316)

For trainee interpreters, these are insightful and guiding words, as trainees may tend to focus on the fidelity of their interlingual transfer rather than focus, to the same extent, on the intonational and interactional features that are specific and important to therapeutic or other interventionist interactions.

A number of social work studies have identified problematic issues that can occur in interpreter-mediated interactions that can affect social workers' ability to work effectively with service users (see Humphreys, Atkar, & Baldwin, 1999). Some studies have raised concerns about maintaining confidentiality (Brämberg & Sandman, 2012; Tribe & Raval, 2002) or that adding the interpreter can lead to a feeling of "disruption" in the practitioner–service user dynamic (Tribe & Morrissey, 2004), such that the social worker may report that they find it challenging to develop a sense of rapport with the service user (Brämberg & Sandman, 2012). Sawrikar, who recorded a child protection caseworker's grievance, highlighted a social worker's diminished sense of immediacy with service users:

> Are they [interpreters] able to interpret without having a backwards and forwards conversation between them and the client, and the caseworker just sitting there?... [Sometimes] I have to jump in and say, "Stop, tell me what just happened. And ask me the questions." (2015, p.402)

Westlake and Jones (2018, p.1390) similarly reported that social workers feel that they are receiving or sending "a distorted narrative" or even that they are "becoming invisible." To address these perceived concerns, Westlake and Jones (2018) advocated a number of strategies. First, they recommended that the interpreter's role be clarified, as some social workers perceived that the only party with linguistic needs was the service user, while at the same time, they expected the interpreter to share their same objectives in the interaction. Westlake and Jones (2018) suggested that the interpreter clearly explain their role to both parties and that the social worker use second-person, rather than third-person, forms of address.

Westlake and Jones (2018) also advised social workers to attend to rapport building in the same way that they attend to this with English-speaking service users—that is, by engaging in small talk or "chitchat" to establish rapport. They noted that the social worker might feel that the time length of a consecutively interpreted interaction means that this should be omitted but advised against it.

The third strategy they recommended is to be mindful that expressions of empathy, concern, or urgency not be lessened due to the "relayed" nature of communication. Along with the relayed nature of communicating and the perception of its being "delayed," Westlake and Jones (2018, p.1393) reminded social workers to endeavor to strive for a "depth of conversation" with their service users, posing open-ended questions that they would otherwise use with English-speaking service users, rather than believing that a closed questioning style is appropriate due to a fear of "going over time."

Other recommendations they made are that social workers be persistent in clarifying any misunderstandings rather than curtailing or abandoning these attempts, again due to a fear of going over time. Moreover, they called for social workers to attend to "conversation management" and to be proactive in ensuring that all of what they say is conveyed, even if they are compelled to interrupt or prompt the interpreter (Westlake & Jones, 2018, p.1402).

Moving now to how training can be offered to interpreters to learn about how to work with social workers, Berthold and Fischman (2014) argued that, as a separate exercise, interpreters learn about the importance of relationship building between social workers and service users and, in particular, how service users' narratives of their own needs and situation are key to effective social work. Distress and trauma may be integral to such narratives, and these traits can affect service users' coherent and cohesive expression. Social work therefore recommends that interpreters be made aware of this possibility as a key element of their knowledge of the other professional group.

In regard to specific social work students' education about how to work with interpreters, Berthold and Fischman (2014, p.105) suggested that the following points should be covered: how the addition of another person—that is, interpreter—changes the dynamics of an interaction; the interpreter's role and appropriate ways to work with them; and criteria to consider when requesting an interpreter, such as evidence of certification, clients' gender-specific needs, and their preferred language/specific dialect. Further, they identified linguistic and discourse features of interpreter-mediated interactions of which social workers should be mindful: the avoidance of jargon or complex terminology; pausing and "chunking" one's speech so that the interpreter interprets two to three sentences at a time, when working consecutively; touching base on the use of consecutive or simultaneous interpreting if a service user does not pause for the interpreter to interpret consecutively and whether the interpreter should switch to simultaneous mode. Additionally, they suggested that social workers maintain eye contact with service users and attend to their nonverbal signals, check the congruence between nonverbal messages and verbal messages that are interpreted, and ensure that interpreters maintain role boundaries between themselves and service users (Berthold & Fischman, 2014, p.105). In some social work education programs, these or elements thereof are typically imparted to learners (Felberg Radanović & Sagli, 2019, p.149).

The Design and Delivery of the IPE Sessions

Establishing IPE sessions required organizational support, in a hierarchical sense, and curriculum approval. With these secured, the authors aligned the IPE session into the curriculum of their teaching units (that is, "courses" in North America, or "subjects" in the UK). The disciplines and their units are MITS (Master in Interpreting and Translation Studies)—APG 5874 Global translation and interpreting professional practices; and MSW/BSW (Master of Social Work, Bachelor of Social Work)—SWM 5101 Human Rights, Law & Ethics: Contexts for Social Work Practice, SWK 4030 Human Rights, Legal and Ethics Knowledge for Social Work Practice.

There was considerable difference in the numbers of students from each disciplinary area. In the interpreting units, it was around 20, while for the social work units, it was around 140. The cohort of social work students included students mostly from the Master of Social Work (MSW) program and a small number of students from the third year of a Bachelor of Social Work (BSW) program. As a proportion of those social work students who participated in the questionnaire, the number of BSW students is small: 2017, 0 out of 29; 2018, 14 out of 66; and 2019, 2 out of 80. Their educational and skill-level profiles as third-year BSW students were congruent to those of the MSW students, who were all in their first semester. As their educational profiles were similar and congruent, we grouped all social work students within the acronym MSW and did not further distinguish social work students studying in the BSW program from those in the MSW program.

The structure of the IPE sessions over all 3 years was as follows:

Pre-IPE session activities

1. Research literature readings
   For interpreting students, two readings on interpreters working with social workers (Ozolins, 2013; Tipton & Furmanek, 2016)
   For social work students, two readings on social workers working with interpreters (Ozolins, 2018; Westlake & Jones, 2018)
2. Classroom activities
   For interpreting students, four 2-hour workshops where dialogue interpreting in social welfare interactions is practiced. Allocation of interpreting students to take on the role of the speaker speaking a language other than English. (See Appendix A.)
   For social work students, two 1-hour sessions were allocated, before the actual role-plays with interpreting students, to allow students to become very familiar with the case scenario and to practice role-playing it. Allocation of the situation and the role that the MSW students take on. (See Appendix B.)

In-class IPE session activities

1. Introductory address. Welcome, recap of desired learning outcomes for IPE session. Explanation of format of session and how the session is designed to enable the achievement of the desired learning outcomes.

2. How do interpreters work? A brief outline for social work students of the following: definition of interpreting; "interlingual transfer of meaning," not "word rescrambling"; modes of interpreting (consecutive vs. simultaneous); certification required for professional interpreters; briefing; ethical code and principles that apply to the conduct of interpreters (AUSIT, 2012); interpreters as cultural experts or mediators; chunking one's speech/signing; and making eye contact with the service user with limited English proficiency (LEP).

   How do social workers work? A brief outline for interpreting students with an outline of the following: definition of social work; multiple fields that social workers work in; interactional and relational nature of social work; reporting reporting and protocol maintaining; policy of respect, tolerance, and nondiscrimination when interacting with service users; personal safety and integrity; ethical code and principles that apply to social workers' professional conduct (AASW, 2010); and working with service users with LEP.

   Students break up into groups and go to the room allocated to their group.

3. Role-play 1
   Parole (two parole officers, one 25-year-old parolee servicer user with LEP, one interpreter, four to six observers from social work) (See Appendices A and B.)

4. Debriefing Q&A session between all participants and observers

5. Role-play 2

   Family violence (two child protection workers, one family violence victim service user with LEP, one interpreter, four to six observers from social work)

6. Debriefing Q&A session between all participants and observers
   Students leave their separate group rooms and reassemble in the auditorium.

7. Collective Q&A session. Instructors commence by giving a recap of the structure and the format and invite students to give impressions.

Conclusion of IPE session

Methodology

The research questions were derived from research on IPE in general (Barr et al. 2005; Reeves, 2016) and by research in the specific disciplines of interpreting (Ozolins, 2013) and social work (Freed, 1988). Regarding the selection of methodological instruments, there were logistical, capacity, and financial limitations on the use of those instruments available to us. A single written questionnaire was selected as the most amenable instrument to collect data from potential informants, the trainee participants of the IPE session. This is the methodological tool used in a large-scale IPE study of interpreting students working with medical students (Krystallidou et al., 2018). The approach taken in the collection and examination of data was qualitative—that is, responses from informants were sought in relation to opinions, reported experiences, and awareness of skill sets. All students from both disciplines received an explanatory statement in advance of the session, and participation in the questionnaire was voluntary.[2]

The questionnaire consisted of five questions to which participants could provide short answers of up to three lines and one question that had five statements to which participants gave responses along a 5-point Likert scale. The data presented in this paper were taken from responses to two of the short-answer questions and to one of the Likert-scale responses from four of the five statements. A presentation of all responses from all questions would go beyond the limitations of this paper. The questionnaires were made available after the IPE session via an electronic survey tool, Qualtrics, while paper copies were also distributed in an attempt to increase response rates. Usually, another staff member who did not teach or assess these students distributed and then collected the completed surveys. In some sessions, the authors distributed the questionnaires.

The data sample consisted of corpora from multiple IPE sessions. Responses were collected from three sessions conducted in May in consecutive years: 2017, 2018, and 2019. Table 1 presents data on the number of students attending and participating in the survey.

Table 1
Number of Interpreting and Social Work Students in the IPE Sessions

	2017		2018		2019		Total	
	Att.	Surv.	Att.	Surv.	Att.	Surv.	Att.	Surv.
MITS	21	15	26	16	16	12	63	43 (68%)
MSW	102	29	151	66	126	80	379	175 (46%)
Total	123	44	177	82	142	92	442	218 (49%)

The attendance numbers and survey participant numbers were commensurate to the number of students in the respective units. For the MITS cohort, this was between 16 and 26 students. For the MSW cohort, this was between 102 and 151 students. Attendance at the IPE sessions was compulsory for all students in both units.

Results and Discussion

The three research questions related to trainees' reported level of confidence at the end of the IPE session, identification of pre-interactional activities, and awareness of their own verbal and interactional performance during the IPE. The first question was addressed via elicitation of responses to a statement shown in Table 2. The statement was followed by a 5-point Likert-scale with ratings that had the following numerical values: *1 = definitely do not agree; 2 = do not agree; 3 = not sure; 4 = agree; and 5 = strongly agree.*

Table 2
Collated and Average Scores for Informants' Reported Confidence Level

"I feel confident now to undertake an interaction with a member of the other professional group."				
	2017	2018	2019	Ave. score
MITS only	4.43	4.38	4.17	4.33
MSW only	3.90	3.84	4.07	3.94
MITS & MSW	4.07	3.94	4.09	4.05

2 Approval to gain data from human informants was provided by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee: Project no. 5730 – A multi-perspective approach to translation pedagogy and practice (2016-2018); Project no. 21111 – Inter-professional sessions – Interpreting, Medical, Social Work and Nursing students (2019-present).

Table 2 shows informants' high level of agreement regarding their perceived level of confidence when interacting with a member of the other professional group. Over the 3 years, the responses averaged just over 4.0—that is, a response of agree. There was little variation between the years, but some variation between the informants according to discipline: MITS students recorded higher levels of confidence than did MSW students. This may be explained through all MITS students having had the chance to interact directly with the social worker via role-play, both as an interpreter and as a service user speaking a language other than English (LOTE). Among MSW students, the percentage of those who role-played once was around 65%. This means that approximately 35% of MSW students participated only as observers, which was likely to account for the lower level of agreement with perceived level of confidence in interacting with an interpreter.

We now examine data on pre-interactional activities. Informants were requested to first respond to a question with an affirmative or negative response. They were then requested to expand or provide further explanatory information—that is, "Yes. List what they are" or "No. Why not? Give reasons." Table 3 presents informants' responses to the first part of the question that elicited an affirmative or negative response. Those who did not provide an answer were classified as N/A.

Table 3
Informants' Level of Agreement Regarding the Need for Pre-Interactional Preparation

"Are there things you know that you need to do in preparation for a social work interaction that is linguistically mediated via an interpreter?"																
	2017				2018				2018				Total			
	Yes	No	N/A	Total	Yes	No	N/A	Total	Yes	No	N/A	Total	Yes	No	N/A	Total
MITS only	13	1	1	15	15	0	1	16	11	0	1	12	39	1	3	43
MSW only	22	4	3	29	57	2	7	66	70	1	9	80	149	7	19	175
MITS & MSW	35	5	4	44	72	2	8	82	81	1	10	92	188	8	22	218

Table 3 shows that students overwhelmingly responded affirmatively to the question of the need to prepare for the interaction. For the 2017 informants, the rate of agreement was 80%, while for the latter 2 years, it was 88%. There were slightly higher rates among MITS students compared to MSW students. We accounted for this through the fact that, in general, the interpreter comes to a social work interaction with less information available to them than the social worker, and this applied also to the simulated interactions in which the students engaged, as those allocated the role of the interpreter were not provided with information about the interaction beforehand. The wording used in the question was deliberately ambiguous: *preparation* could refer to a joint task, such as a briefing, which refers to an interaction at which only the social worker and the interpreter are present and exchange information to better prepared to work together in the interpreter-mediated interaction itself and with the LEP service user. However, *preparation* could also refer to activities that each trainee undertakes alone.

Below, we present MITS and MSW students' representative comments—that is, each comment represented not only the participant's position or sentiment but also that of at least one further participant who expressed a very similar response. All comments were from those who answered affirmatively. None of those who provided a negative response provided further comment. Comments were identified only by the year of the cohort; other than their disciplinary background, informants remained anonymous. Below are comments from MITS students in relation to preparation being a *pre-interactional briefing* with a social worker:

> *Arriving at the site 10–15 minutes earlier to get a briefing.* (2017)
>
> *Nature of interaction, general procedure of it.* (2018)
>
> *Background of service user, background and role of social worker.* (2017)
>
> *Preparing for the meeting/interaction by knowing at least background info on the case; knowing about sensitive terms that could be used.* (2018)
>
> *Talking with social workers about how they interact with their service users and the professional language they'll be using.* (2018)

Find out the structure of the SW interview. (2018)

Terminology, jargon, terms, topics to be discussed. (2019)

Below are comments from MITS students in relation to preparation that they undertook *alone*:

Find out the name of the relevant agencies and government organizations, go over social work specific terminology, e.g., corrections order. (2017)

Know how the specific service works, what their aim is (that I find through general research). That's when I feel confident that I can interpret to the best of my abilities in a (potentially) difficult interaction. (2019)

Practice how to ask questions in a manner that is used by social workers. (2018)

Preparing for vocab, especially in regard to social services/description of emotional states. (2018)

Going through the glossary of related scenarios. (2017)

Below are comments from MSW students in relation to preparation being a pre-interactional briefing with an interpreter:

To brief the interpreter about the session that they will go through. (2017)

Explain situation/intervention, i.e., pre-brief the interpreter to facilitate accuracy. (2018)

Have a pre-briefing of the session so that both parties have the agreement on how to interact and react in the communication with the service user. (2017)

Explain terminology and other specialist words likely to be used. (2019)

Discuss in an interview beforehand the words and language being used. (2018)

Protocols, give background information to the interpreters, cultural background of the service users, and things that needed to be taken into consideration when being in the interview. (2017)

Check cultural norms, e.g., greetings beforehand, check with interpreter on these. (2018)

Brief the interpreter on what they should know, for instance, service user's stability for interpreter's safety. (2019)

Check interpreter's qualifications and whether a good match, i.e., correct language/dialect. (2019)

Prepare the interpreter, ensure there is no pre-existing relationship with the service user. Make sure you have cultural awareness. If not, ask. (2019)

Below are comments from MSW students in relation to preparation they undertook alone:

Know the background of the service user, e.g., when working with women with domestic abuse, request a female interpreter. (2017)

Consider cultural and gender issues beforehand. (2018)

Have in mind that it'll be harder to observe the service user's emotions because of the break [that is, pausing for consecutive interpreting]. (2019)

Be ready to define jargon and acronyms. (2019)

Prepare simple questions, not rushed, remember to maintain good eye contact. (2019)

The MITS students identified the following types of preparation that involve interacting with the social worker: information gathering about context, situation, purpose, structure of interaction, and specialist terminology. Those MITS informants who listed preparatory steps that they undertook alone mentioned information gathering about the service provider, terms, and phrases that they located on the provider's website or elsewhere; practicing social welfare questioning techniques; and watching publicly available videos of social welfare interactions as a model for practicing them, such as YouTube (n.d.[a], n.d.[b]).

The MSW students' comments about preparatory activities that include working with the interpreter included information exchange on the context, situation, purpose, structure of interaction, clarification of roles, protocols for turn taking, and specialist terminology. Information could be elicited from the interpreter about communication features characteristic of the service user's cultural background as well as the interpreter's language repertoire and qualifications. Safety factors, where relevant, could also be outlined. Those preparatory activities that MSW students identified that could be undertaken alone included checking preferred language, cultural or gender-specific needs, and logistic features, such as the type of terms/concepts that were likely to be used and reminders of rapport-building strategies, such as eye contact.

The final research question related to learners' awareness of aspects of their performance in the interaction—that is, when they were interacting with the other professional and the service user, which aspects of their verbal and nonverbal behavior they believed they needed to be mindful of. In the survey distributed, this question was asked in different ways according to the students' discipline. MITS students were asked to respond to the question, "What aspects about your own performance as an interpreter are you now more aware of when working with a social worker?" MSW students were asked to respond to the question, "What things about your speech (speed, volume, clarity), your interview and questioning techniques, or your inter-personal skills are you now more aware of in an interpreted interaction?" We first present a selection of MITS students' comments, grouped thematically:

Monitoring one's own emotional response, dealing with confronting/unexpected topics

The emotional aspect, the empathy of the social worker, and the anger/fear/desperation, etc., of the service user are important elements of the interaction that need to be conveyed. (2019)

The importance of some aspects to be interpreted, e.g., angry tone, sarcasm, side comments. (2019)

I worry if the case is really emotional, how I could as an interpreter manage my emotions and stay impartial. (2017)

While interpreters should act professionally all the time, it can be difficult sometimes when the service user is saying something ridiculous, e.g., "What if there will be ghosts out there?" "Are you saying I'm an alcoholic?" (2018)

Verbal features

The tone is important. It may make service users more open and more likely to elaborate when answering questions. (2018)

Voice projection and posture. (2017)

My voice/intonation. (2019).

Retaining/replicating exact tone and source speech. (2018)

Behavioral features, including ethical requirements

Importance of being prepared and keeping to your normative role when unsure what to do. (2018)

Remain calm, if there is a situation, deal with it. If there is confusion, ask for clarification. (2018)

Content knowledge about social work and subject-specific terminology

Appreciation of my own knowledge of areas to do with social work. (2017)

Need to build up more social work–related knowledge and vocab. (2019)

To study glossaries and learn about cases. (2018)

The following are selected responses from MSW students that are grouped according to themes:

Clarity of language, attending to verbal practices

We are taught to use simple sentences and to make it short, but actually when we talk to the service user, we also speak a lot, and then have to break. (2017)

Must be slower and clearer, but this does not mean it has to be basic. Break up thoughts and long sentences. (2018)

Speak at appropriate volume—not too loud or too soft. (2019)

Ensure message understood, being clear, no jargon. Clarify words that aren't understood, ensure don't speak too quickly, short sentences. (2019)

The social worker has to speak slower than usual and preferably in short sentences. Avoid colloquialisms and try to be as clear as possible in asking questions. (2017)

The rhythm of the conversation changes, as well as the speed of responses, and eye contact as well, that should be focused on the service user. But it is hard to follow the interpreter without looking at him/her. (2017)

You need to be coherent and cohesive enough for the interpreter to understand you because if they don't, then they would have a hard time interpreting. (2017)

In an interpreted interaction, we social workers need to be mindful about length of sentences. From the role-plays, I noticed that social workers began to use longer sentences toward the end of interview. (2017)

Relational features

Maintain eye contact with service users. (2018)

Sentences are shorter. I have to remember to speak directly to the service user, but the service user tends to talk to the interpreter, making it harder to make eye contact. (2017)

Questioning techniques, because sometimes a question could be a probe, but the interpreter may make it sound like, a bit more, a serious question. (2019)

Some of the "small talk," and also some of the technical words not easily translated. (2018)

Counseling micro-skills (verbal) are lost during the interaction. (2017)

Empathy is harder to express; body language and facial expressions are important. I speak slower and break down my sentence for the interpretation. I think the empathy is lessened because of the fact that there is a third person with me and the service user. (2019)

Words are more simple and short. Our empathetic tone of voice may not be conveyed through the interpretation. (2018)

Speech is slower. Everything is more straightforward and there is less sense of immediacy in the interaction and rapport. (2018)

It was very difficult to build rapport with the service user, as there is mediated conversation in between. So, I think we need to be aware of our body language and facial expressions more than we do. (2017)

There is a loss of rapport, I felt, because the interpreter has to give their translation, so there is a delay and then it comes back to you. I felt that I wasn't able to develop the same level of rapport or understanding with a service user as I would with an English-speaker. (2019)

Each respective group of students was asked questions that were congruent but also aligned to their specific role. We summarize and contextualize here the collected comments. Although the IPE session was centered around two simulated role-plays, the most recurrent response that came from MITS students was a concern about remaining composed and able to convey

to both parties the same emotional, empathetic, and intonational features of the source speech in their target speech realizations. This was somewhat surprising, as the emotional, empathetic, and intonational features of the social workers' and the service users' speech related to a simulated, not real situation. A shortcoming of role-plays is that all parties know that the affective content of their behavior is imitated and perhaps not representative of the affective content of real-life situations. Nevertheless, many MITS students perceived the (simulated) performance of others' affective behavior as a challenge, with many reporting uncertainty regarding whether they could respond and transfer well. Intonation, volume, and posture—features that make up part of a speaker's "presence"—were mentioned as features that attracted their attention. Another feature related to difficulties that arose and the capacity of MITS students to consider how procedural or ethical principles could guide them in a situation that was unfamiliar and in which they were unsure of what to do. The ability to recognize a difficult or unfamiliar situation and to then respond by applying practices that have been acquired is a characteristic of good (learning) practice. Finally, some MITS students expressed concern about inadequate content knowledge and social work's field-specific terms. This is a predictable concern among learners and is a universal characteristic of interpreting that compels interpreters to prepare for each assignment—the concern that the interpreter will not comprehend the content of source text messages and will not be familiar with certain forms used in the source text message.

MSW students commented in relation to their own speech or interpersonal skills but also about the interactions in general. In relation to MSW students' speech, the volume, pace, and length of sentences and turns were frequently mentioned, as MSW students were mindful to ensure that the interpreter could hear and process what they said and receive manageable "chunks" of two to three sentences before interpreting consecutively. They also observed that the use of colloquialisms and specialist terms ought to be avoided, where possible. The need to maintain eye contact, primarily with the LEP service user, was voiced by many, as was a concern that the LEP service user could be inclined to speak to the interpreter rather than to the social worker.

While most MSW students provided responses about their own speech, which was what the question asked them to do, some remarked on how the speech of the interpreter appeared to shape the interaction in a way that was not expected. Some MSW students noted how the illocutionary effect of their own messages appeared to change in the interpretations that MITS students provided. Phatic language, technical terms, and even the function of the speech act itself appeared to be altered. With an interpreter present, many MSW students believed that they were unable to establish the level of direct contact or rapport with the service user that they would typically establish with an English-speaking service user. There appeared to be a number of reasons for this. One reason given was situational: the need to "chunk" one's speech, avoidance of long turns, and the delay in message transfer through the to-ing and fro-ing of consecutive interpretation. Another reason was the presence of a third person—the interpreter. It appeared that their presence led some MSW students to believe that they had to monitor their speech or speak less freely than they would if they were in a private dyad. The third reason related to the competence or performance of the interpreter to replicate the implicature and the intention of the MSW students' source message (that is, the illocutionary force of it), where some MSW students believed that this was changed or leveled out in what they heard and witnessed being transferred to the service user. To address this perceived decreased ability to develop rapport, some MSW students suggested that they may need to use body language or facial expressions as a compensatory strategy to ensure that the intention of their messages could be conveyed to the service user.

The data and discussion presented relate to a data sample of 218 informants from two disciplines, with responses provided over a 3-year period. The consistency of responses from year to year suggests that if a similar intervention to introduce IPE in the training programs of two occupational groups were to be undertaken, it may yield similar and positive outcomes. We are cautious in making this claim, but we can point to such studies as Krystallidou et al. (2018) and Zhang, Crawford, Marshall, Bernard, and Walker-Smith (2020) that reported positive outcomes from trialing IPE. It is true that the elicitation of evaluative responses from trainees after an intervention can lead to them to provide positive responses on the basis of the intervention alone (cf. the "Hawthorne" effect), but pedagogically focused papers such as that of Ozolins (2013) and Crezee (2015) that focused not on IPE but on broader areas of training and where IPE was a component of this training still reported positively on IPE. Further research with different formats of IPE activities, pairing with different professional disciplines and with other methods of evaluation, is required before we can state conclusively whether the positive outcomes of this study are applicable to broader populations of students.

Findings and Conclusions

This paper set out to address three research questions regarding outcomes that learners reported from participation in an IPE session. Among the learning outcomes were level of confidence to engage with a member of the other professional group; ability to identify pre-interactional activities that serve the purpose of optimizing the way that the interpreter and social worker will

work together in the interpreter-mediated interaction; and reflection on one's own behavior when interacting with another professional and LEP speaker.

The first research question related to the IPE session as an activity that could enable learners to feel confident when working with those from the other professional group. Confidence level in working with other professionals is a feature commonly elicited in evaluations of IPE (Barr et al., 2005; Buring et al., 2009; Reeves, 2016). Responses from 218 informants from both disciplines over 3 years showed widespread levels of agreement that learners had self-reported confidence levels that enabled them to work with others. We accounted for this by their participation in two role-plays that enabled them to experience, or at least witness, how an interpreter-mediated social work interaction would be approached and enacted. Participation, even in a simulated situation, provided learners with a sense of familiarity and experience in this specific interaction where, previous to the IPE session, few if any participants had any direct knowledge of these interactions.

The second research question related to pre-interactional activities. More than 86% of informants responded that preparation activities were required before an interaction. More than 90% of MITS students and 85% of MSW students held this view. These could include activities that involve the interpreter and the social worker exchanging information with each other before interacting with the service user with LEP, or these could be activities that the interpreter and the social worker engage in alone, ahead of the interaction. Those activities that MITS students identified related to a briefing with the social worker to learn about the purpose and focus of the interaction, its structure, and the number of service users with whom they would be working. For interpreters, there was usually a larger information gap, as the social workers were typically the "custodians" of most information relating to the interaction. But for social workers as well, responses showed that the pre-interactional briefing allowed them to go over their own expectations of a mediated interaction, the interpreter's role, and agreed-upon protocols for (self-)introductions, interventions from the interpreter, and cultural, ethical, and safety-based issues. Content knowledge, use and meaning of specialist terms, and discourse-pragmatic features were also mentioned as topics in briefings. These responses aligned well with Berthold and Fischman's (2014) recommendations made to interpreters and social workers.

The third research question related to learners' awareness of aspects of their performance in the interaction. Informants from both disciplines reported that they attended to their own speech and were mindful that the recipient of their verbal messages could clearly hear and understand them—for the social work students, this was to the interpreting students, while for the interpreting students, this was to the social work students and the LEP service users. Some MITS students also reported on consciously enacting their role in a normative sense, where they were guided by descriptions of good practice when they felt otherwise unsure of what to do. This finding was congruent to Drugan's (2017) observations on unidirectional training for social work students in which students valued being required to exercise their judgment in managing interpreter-mediated constellations. Perhaps surprising for a simulated situation, many MITS students reported that they were challenged by the emotional and interpersonal impact of the situations. Normative descriptions were again mentioned as a model to follow in these instances.

Many MSW students listed features specific to the interpreter-mediated situation to optimize contact with the LEP service user, such as eye contact and chunking. Conspicuous were responses that related not to MSW students' reporting on their own performance but to the establishment of a working relationship with the LEP service user. An aim of IPE is for learners to (further) develop their intersubjectivity. However, for some, it may be that a notable aspect of the IPE session was that their own expectations of the "social worker–service user interaction" were not confirmed. The use of a LOTE by the service user and consecutively delivered interlingual transfer from the interpreter for some MSW students may have been the most noticeable feature that determined the way that they themselves spoke. Further, many MSW students reported a feeling of distance and a lack of immediacy and rapport. Some identified the consecutively interpreted nature of the interaction as the main cause for this, but others described a "leveling out" and even perceived loss of the illocutionary force of their source speech messages in some MITS students' interpretations. These comments were congruent with the observations of a number of social work researchers (Brämberg & Sandman, 2012; Sawrikar, 2015; Westlake & Jones, 2018) who have observed that social workers sometimes feel a sense of removal in interpreter-mediated interactions.

These findings bring us back to Freed's (1988) advice to interpreters: that rapport, empathy, and an emotional connection are integral features of social work practice and that interpreters need to attend to replicating speakers' feelings, providing appropriate intonational or prosodic features that match the illocutionary force of the source speech. Further, they need to be mindful of nonverbal features when interpreting the language of the LEP service user as well as the language of the social worker. The findings also bring to mind Berthold and Fischman's (2014) recommendations to social workers: that maintaining eye contact with the service user, attending to nonverbal signals, and checking congruence between the service users' verbal and nonverbal messages are key strategies to developing a connection and rapport when they cannot communicate directly in the same language.

Importantly, the IPE contributed to learners' confidence levels when interacting with the other professional group. Higher levels of confidence are one of the primary desired outcomes of IPE (Barr et al., 2005; Reeves, 2016). Further, the data sample showed that learners were able to develop an awareness that such interactions require pre-interactional steps—either preparation as an individual activity or as a shared one via a briefing. Feedback from others was a key characteristic of the sessions, and many learners' comments contained self-reflection and strategies of self-efficacy that appeared to be a consequence of the IPE session.

IPE sessions require a high level of cooperation and organizational coordination between educators in two different disciplines. They are, however, perhaps more likely to become a regular feature of various university-level courses as the acquisition of cross-disciplinary content and the development of collaborative learning environments that include simulated practice become more commonplace. This paper has shown that IPE sessions can lead to positive outcomes for both groups of learners. A desirable follow-up study from this paper would be to gain data from the same informants after they have commenced working as professional interpreters and social workers and to elicit responses from them on the value of IPE as a preparatory exercise to real-life practice working with the other professional group.

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Appendix A

Background information and directions for LOTE speaker (language other than English) with limited English proficiency (LEP) who has been released on parole:

Role: You are 25 years old and you were convicted of multiple accounts of assault against three former workmates and were sentenced to 12 months jail. Prior to this, you had been working full-time as a factory worker.

Context: You have been released after 8 months and are on parole. Community Correctional Services have attached certain conditions to the parole, which remain in place for 3 months:

- No contact with the victims of the assault or with their families
- Attendance at anger management counseling sessions

- Undertake an approved educational or training program, or undertake unpaid community work

Function/Purpose: You have been unable to enroll in a vocational education course and must undertake unpaid community work. The social worker will ask you a number of questions about your life in general, and about the conditions for your parole. You need to interact with the parole officer accordingly, as you wish to ensure that you will be able to stay on parole. You do not want to run the risk of breaking the parole conditions, in which case you could be returned to jail.

Appendix B

Background information and directions for social worker working with a person recently released on parole:

Role: You are a social worker working as a parole officer.

Context: A young Non-English-Speaking Background (NESB) person of 25 years old has been convicted of multiple accounts of assault against three former workmates and has been sentenced to 12 months jail. The NESB offender is released after 8 months and is on parole. There are conditions attached to the parole:

- No contact with the victims of the assault or with their families

- Attendance at anger management counseling sessions

- Undertake an approved educational or training program, or undertake unpaid community work

The NESB offender has been unable to enroll in a vocational education course and must undertake unpaid community work.

The NESB offender is released on parole but is still under sentence and must comply with the conditions of the parole order. Community Correctional Services have set certain conditions for the offender's parole and the offender has received specific intensive parole conditions for the first 3 months.

Function/purpose: You are a social worker working as a parole officer and need to discuss the following:

- Current living conditions and with whom the offender on parole is living

- Community Correctional Services Court Order and receiving a Justice Accused Identifier (JAID) number for community work

- Need to report at least twice a week to the supervising community corrections officer

- That the offender undertakes a community work program of graffiti removal and parks maintenance and beautifying a local cemetery

- Discuss attendance at anger management counseling

- Information on courses to become a security officer: https://www.kangan.edu.au/tafe-courses/certificate-ii-in-security-operations-2392

- Financial situation

- General state of health, risks to physical or mental health

- Drug or alcohol use

- Time to make next appointment

Your duty is to clearly explain the conditions of the parole order, including the conditions relating to no contact with the victims and requirement to contact the community corrections officer. You need to ensure that the parolee (the person released on parole) fully understands the conditions of the parole, and you need to work with the parolee to work toward his/her fulfilling the requirements of the parole order.

A Survey of Language Shaming Experiences in Interpreter Education

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Abstract

Problems of practice (Henriksen & Richardson, 2017) are the impetus for change across many disciplines and result in a myriad of solutions toward best practices. Teaching American Sign Language/English interpreting is no different than other genres in higher education in seeking continuous improvement. Signed language interpreters in teaming situations may engage in self- and peer critique in the process of creating an interpretation (Russell, 2011). As a result, interpreters are cognizant of corrections they may receive from their peers, whether new to the field or long-term practitioners. The action of being monitored by peers and the related behavior are not always exhibited in ways that are informed by best practices. Previous research has documented unhealthy feedback practices as a type of horizontal violence (Ott, 2012). The practice of negative behavior results in disrupted learning spaces and could be compounded by a lack of awareness by the participants. The current study examined language shaming in interpreter education from the perspective of the student who experienced the shaming behavior and who also may have engaged in shaming activities. The results have implications for both language and interpreting teachers in devising constructive feedback techniques that better support the learner.

Keywords: language shaming, interpreting, ASL, language learning, language prestige, interpreter education

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A Survey of Language Shaming Experiences in Interpreter Education

Language attitudes, language prestige, and ideologies exist in all dimensions of our lives and influence us whether we are interpreters, translators, or typical language users in a community (Dueñas González & Melis, 2000; Reagan, 2012; Ricento, 2006; Spolsky, 2004). Be it through print, online, or face-to-face, we study the world around us and the language used within various real and virtual spaces to determine accuracy, station, and any manner of categorizations that serve to identify others' place within an interaction. Language attitudes, including linguicism, have been at the center of linguistics research for decades (Skutnabb-Kangas, 2012). Often, pedagogy may be influenced by problems of practice in the classroom (Henriksen & Richardson, 2017). Point in fact, the impetus for this study was an observation during a classroom interaction with American Sign Language/English interpreting students. While lecturing in American Sign Language during a class with upper-level interpreting students, one of the authors was corrected in their use of a particular sign for a concept by a student. The use of the sign by the professor was done more as a "play on signs" rather than as any erroneous use or variation of American Sign Language. Nonetheless, the "correction" stuck with the professor and incited a period of reflection on student behaviors around corrective language behavior toward others. In a subsequent class meeting, the instructor disseminated an informal survey to this same group of students to gauge their understanding of shaming activities related to language proficiency. This was the first step toward opening dialogue with students and faculty around the idea of *language shaming*.

The emergence of digital environments and the proliferation of social media have brought more attention to language and provided new opportunities to interact and communicate. More specific to the field of interpreter education, students, faculty, and deaf community members are now connected in ways that did not exist in previous decades. Historically, people using signed languages were limited to face-to-face community events. With the advent of video-based technology, this is no longer the case, as people using signed language may now engage with others from around the globe.

With language acquisition and cultural values as two of the pillars of interpreting practice, this study explored how students perceived and experienced language in their learning experiences, and specifically how students may or may not have experienced language shaming in their language development. *Language shaming* is defined by the authors as the act of correcting language to assert power or superiority rather than for the sake of continuous improvement or constructive feedback. This definition was derived from the participant responses within this research study. Language shaming, which is not owned by the authors, is a new area of research, but the notion of speaking negatively about another's language based on power, prestige, and ideologies has been well documented (Dueñas González & Melis, 2000; Reagan, 2010; Ricento, 2006; Spolsky, 2004).

This study gathered data via a 12-question survey sent to students in interpreter education programs across the United States with the aim of identifying participants' perception of the concept of language shaming and motivating or influencing factors regarding this phenomenon (n = 118). This study sought to expand the concept of language shaming related to how ASL/English interpreting students described this term based on their observations and personal experiences. This research explored how these attitudes exist in this community of learners and expanded the ways in which language shaming may negatively affect learning environments among emerging signers of interpreting programs.

Literature Review

Language Policy

Reagan (2010) critically examined the need to develop language policy and planning for educational settings that use American Sign Language. Importantly, the decision to teach one language over another implies significance of the language being taught and, concurrently, prestige related to the language. While Reagan's study focused on the education of students who are deaf, it remains relevant in that it focused on the use of American Sign Language as the language to teach students and outlined the stages for development of a formal policy. The types of language planning outlined include status planning, corpus planning, acquisition planning, and attitude planning. *Status planning* typically creates a hierarchy of languages, with some being considered more correct than others. As an aside, status planning related to American Sign Language often includes efforts to "prove" that it is a natural language and to have it recognized as such in formal legislature. *Corpus planning* relates to standardized texts (print or video) that serve as a formal record of the language. *Acquisition planning* has two aspects that include possible variations for how the language will be taught to deaf and, conversely, to nondeaf signers. *Attitude planning* involves the development

or adjustment of the attitude that individuals or groups have about a language or toward multiple languages. This last type of planning also relates to the attitude that a community may have about a signed language, which can include incorrect and/or negative judgments (Hill, 2012). As Reagan described, all four of these planning types are often engaged in by administrators without the inclusion of those most affected by the planning: the deaf community. This is an example of how language planning and policy has much to do with exacting power (Ricento, 2009, p.19).

Language policy in the United States often centers on the use of English as the official language (Spolsky, 2004). While this is the assertion, English is not formally the official language of the United States. This suggests that individuals might be expected to only use English to communicate, but given the choice, the same individual may prefer to use another language. Therefore, the assumption is that the norm is using English. The language used while interacting with students in an interpreter training program is not standardized and may range from spoken English, to ASL, to a combination of both of these languages (Ehrlich & Wessling, 2017). According to Spolsky (2004), deciding which language that is to be considered the norm in response to a language problem is termed *status-planning*. Status-planning as it relates to signed languages has usually been applied to the design of curricula for the education of deaf children (Reagan, 2010; Spolsky, 2004). The selection or recognition of ASL in schools for the deaf is strongly linked to the communication method or philosophy that is adopted by the educator or institution (Horejes, 2011; Reagan, 2010). The teaching philosophy may range from oral-only methods, which ban signed languages, to manual communication methods, which may range from manually coded English to ASL. To further expand, additional factors regarding philosophical methods of education of deaf children range from total communication to the bilingual/bicultural method, which uses ASL as the base language with which to learn all other subject areas, including English. As such, language policies influence the ways in which languages are taught to students. In this case, the focus is on ASL/English interpreting students and how the various language policies may influence the student experience.

Language Ideology

Language ideology is not meant to be a negative categorization of how students view any language; rather, it is a means to identify "ideas, beliefs, principles[,] and values a person has" (Gee, 1990, p.3). In modern American society, the common ideology toward English is that it is the standard language and, therefore, the most prestigious and appropriate language for all speakers. Researchers and linguists suggest that speakers of any language are really speaking an idiolect, with each individual using a version of what is identified as the language (Gumperz, 1971; Reagan, 2010). In other words, language does not exist in one standard form and is in reality a combination of the language varieties of many different speakers (Reagan, 2010). Speakers of English in Kearny, New Jersey, can understand those speaking English in Tulsa, Oklahoma, although the dialects vary and will sound different to each of them.

Diverse ideologies pose challenges when taken in the context of elitism surrounding languages in America (Reagan, 2010; Spolsky, 2004). According to Reagan, "In the U.S. context, there is an unarticulated but nonetheless powerful hierarchy of languages and language varieties, with varieties of standard (or mainstream) English at the top of the hierarchy" (2010, p.93). Elitists do not typically embrace variation and may look down upon those who speak English differently. The same concept may be applied to those using ASL. The majority of hearing people may perceive English as being the most prestigious, while other languages are seen as being less prestigious. This linguistic concept might lead some hearing people unfamiliar with the deaf community to perceive ASL as less prestigious (Krausneker, 2015; C. Lucas & Valli, 2011).

Language Planning in Interpreter Education

Interpreter education does not typically include any systematic language planning beyond the course sequence for ASL learning prior to beginning interpreting skills courses. Furthermore, many of the interpreting courses are not designed in collaboration with signed language faculty (see Bowen, 2008; Monikowski, 2017; Sawyer, 2004). In the U.S., students typically learn ASL through a series of courses aimed at conversational fluency with a beginning, intermediate, and advanced level of curriculum. Ironically, interpreter educators continue to lament the lack of fluency in ASL of interpreting students, and students continue to enter the field without a practitioner level of readiness. There are two parts to the language-planning concept: the first includes the selection or support of a language, and the second is the implementation of that language within the learning environment. Applying the two-part system of language planning to the education of interpreting students may facilitate a renewed philosophy regarding interpreter pedagogy and the language of instruction.

Shaming Activities

Shame is a response by an individual as a result of an external judgment or pressure from an outside influence (Lo & Fung, 2011, p.170). In general, shaming behaviors have been linked to being punitive and educative and as something that individuals seek to avoid experiencing again or use as the catalyst for restructuring behavior (Leach & Cidam, 2015). Interpreting students may experience embarrassment in their perceived lack of fluency, especially when others observe their signing. Language shaming may occur in the students' environments from peers, their instructors, or the wider community. While not directed specifically toward interpreting, Leach and Cidam's (2015) meta-analysis of responses to shaming found that the level of reparability of a shame-causing event was positively correlated with a more constructivist approach. Individuals may attempt to adjust their own behavior to avoid performing in ways that caused them to feel shame. This is important in considering how and why students may continue to work to improve their competency in a language when they may have felt shamed by others for their lack of fluency.

Methodology

This article is derived from a 12-question online survey of ASL-English interpreting students distributed via Qualtrics (Qualtrics XM // The Leading Experience Management Software, 2017) to faculty contacts in ASL/English interpreter education programs (IEPs) among all education levels across the United States (see the Appendix). The survey first asked students to define language shaming and then to describe any experiences of language shaming they may have had. In addition to questions about language shaming, basic demographic information, such as age, language history, gender, and ethnicity/race, were also collected to determine variety in the sample population and to ensure that the population was diversified.

Survey Instrument

Convenience sampling resulted in a slight snowball effect for student responses from a variety of ASL/English IEPs. The survey incorporated three open-ended questions that related to the participants' definition of language shaming, the participants' personal reaction to language shaming, and reasons why participants may have engaged in language shaming toward others (see the Appendix, questions 2, 4, and 6). The survey may have been completed by students on their own in a private setting or may have been part of a larger class activity. The start of the survey asked students whether they had heard of the term *language shaming*, and a subsequent question asked students to describe what they thought the term meant. Finally, the survey asked the students to consider with whom and how language shaming had occurred in their own IEP and to describe how language shaming made them feel.

Table 1
Participant Demographics

Category	n	%
White	**97**	**82.91**
Black/African American	**7**	**5.98**
Native American	**3**	**2.56**
Asian American	**2**	**1.71**
Hispanic/Latino	**1**	**.85**
Other	**7**	**5.98**

Note. Participants could select *Other* but were not required to identify the category in terms of ethnic identity. Some participants entered *multiracial* or *biracial* for the category of *Other*.

Analysis

Aside from descriptive analysis of the participants' demographics, analysis of their responses to questions about language shaming were the primary focus of the data analysis and review. The open-ended responses from the survey were reviewed for emergent themes by using open-coding and identification of terms that related to the concept of language shaming. The rationale for our analysis method was due to the structure of the survey, which allowed participants to describe their understanding of language shaming. As such, we did not define the term but rather allowed the meaning to emerge from the participants' responses. One key piece of data that emerged was the commonality of participants' description of language shaming as an act of *language correction to assert power or superiority over another*. The participant-generated meaning was unlike other definitions of language shaming as defined in our literature review: to mean shaming someone for speaking a certain language or viewing particular languages as being less prestigious than others. Ideas that emerged across multiple participants were grouped into large categories and later combined when the categories were related. As a result of the data analysis, the primary themes that emerged related to language-shaming experiences were *defensive language*, *language prestige*, and *negative internalized emotions*.

Results

The study results suggested that nearly half of the students (n = 118) had experienced some form of language shaming during their experiences in an IEP, although most of them (69.49%) had never heard the term before seeing it in the survey. Some descriptive statistics that emerged related to the questions about shaming included the following:

- 48.31% had experienced shaming by others.
- 48.31% had engaged in shaming behaviors toward others.
- Only two respondents selected a signed language as their mother tongue, while the remainder identified English as their mother tongue.

None of these demographics suggested any more likelihood to engage in shaming behavior, as the participants did not reference gender or age when describing shaming activities; they were merely provided for informational purposes.

Themes

Three primary themes emerged from the narrative coding: (a) language prestige, (b) negative internalized emotions, and (c) defensive language. We describe the characteristics of each of the themes in the following sections, with the characteristics and frequency of responses shown in Table 2.

Language Prestige

Participants also described languages in terms that suggested there might be greater individual prestige or self-worth if one were more fluent in certain languages. Also, identifying some languages as being either superior or inferior was a common practice. Participants talked in fairly general terms about language and rarely identified ASL, English, or another language directly when discussing prestige. Participants implied in some of their responses that their fluency in ASL might be judged by others in a way that suggested a higher level of prestige for the language itself. They also talked about the judgment that occurred toward people based on the language they used, such as using spoken English when in the presence of signers or vice versa. Because the chosen language might be criticized, this suggests that certain languages resulted in individuals' feeling discriminated against or experiencing bullying behaviors beyond the initial shaming event.

Negative Internalized Emotions

Many of the participants described negative emotions in response to shaming behaviors. Another area of interest was participants' internalization of the response to shaming. Most of the participants had never used or heard the phrase *language shaming* prior to the survey, suggesting that it is a phenomenon that they were unable to articulate or receive support in confronting. The

participants had not used the term or discussed these behaviors in their IEPs prior to seeing it in the survey. This suggests that it may be a type of implicit or hidden curriculum, as described by McDermid (2009). Of participants who talked about negative internalized emotions (n = 44), 31 did not describe confronting the experience outwardly or directly with either the shamer or other supports in their IEP.

Defensive Language

When considering defensive language, participants' responses described engaging in external verbalization toward others who had shamed them or in trying to explain why the language (in this case, ASL) was valid. This suggested that some participants had been shamed for *using* ASL, not just for having less fluency in the language. Other responses around defensive language included specifically defending a sign choice, verbally disagreeing with a correction, and choosing a particular language to use in a given setting.

Table 2
Participant Narratives

Themes	Characteristics	Frequency
Language Prestige	Descriptions of languages as having a hierarchy of legitimacy in social engagements. Judgments about accents or dialects as being less acceptable. Decisions to use one language rather than another.	38
Negative internalized emotions	Descriptions that included such terms as *humiliated*, *embarassed*, *stupid*, *inadequate*, *upset*, *angry*, *anxious discouraged*, and *frustrated* in response to having been shamed.	33
Defensive language	Engaging in disagreements related to the correctness of a sign choice with others. Explaining why ASL is a valid language. Describing one's own knowledge of the language to another person.	14

Note. The themes emerged from participants' open-ended responses to survey questions about how they felt or responded when they had been language shamed by others.

Direction of Shaming

Although 57 respondents indicated in Question 3 that they had been language shamed, 72 later responded to Question 7 by identifying someone shaming them from one of five categories (see the Appendix). This disparity may have been due to the wording of the question. Nonetheless, the responses indicated that the shaming was most often done by peers and then secondly by educators and community members equally. Family and friends were the next group to engage in shaming, and finally strangers or co-workers. The last group was unrelated to respondents' IEP, while the majority of shaming activities happened in direct relation to the education program for interpreting or from the community. Participants were able to identify more than one category of person who shamed and could select any combination of peers, educators, community members, family/friends, and others. The responses for this area included 161 selections. Figure 1 identifies the categories of people engaging in shaming behaviors. Of particular note is that a majority of shaming behavior occurred in *educational interactions* with classmates and/or with educators, totaling 51 of the 72 responses. In other words, 70.8% of the shaming activity happening in educational settings.

Reasons for Shaming

Question 5 asked participants whether they had ever engaged in language-shaming behaviors. In their responses, 48.3% of the participants admitted that they had engaged in language-shaming behaviors toward others. A follow-up open-ended question asked participants to describe the reasons that they might have engaged in shaming behavior. From this open-ended response, five themes emerged: *social influence*, *judging behaviors*, *education*, *habitus*, and *rationalization*. Table 3 gives a summary of some of the types of responses from participants.

Figure 1
Identification of Shame Perpetrators

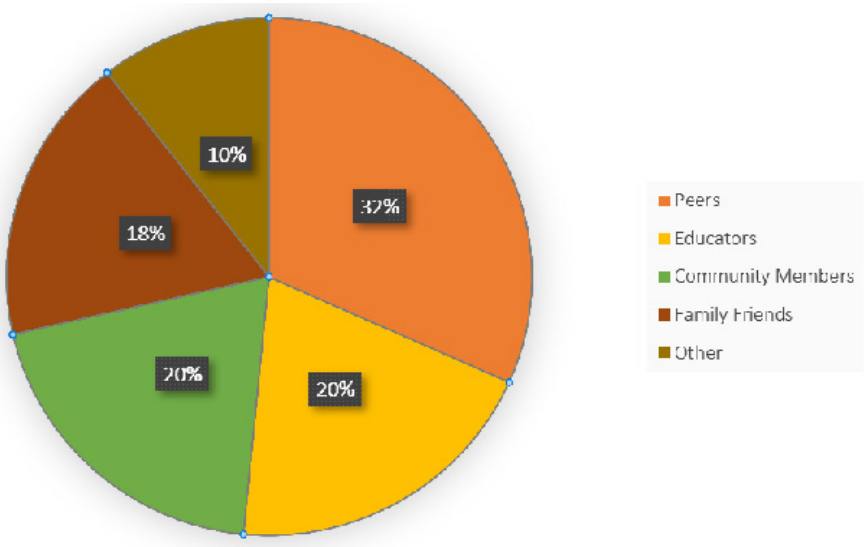

Table 3
Reasons for Shaming

Category	Example responses
Social behaviors	Peer pressure
	Absorbed from others
	Group-think
	Privilege
	Others did the same
Judging behaviors	ASL over signed English
	Evaluating others skill
	Improper use of grammar
	Not using language correctly
	Tell the correct sign
	Deaf people using their language improperly
	Correct English
Education	I mean to help
	Feedback
	Promote Awareness
Habitus	Seemed appropriate in this setting
	Adopted without thinking
	Imitating the behavior
	We are learning pure ASL
	To fit in
Rationalization	Ignorance
	Unaware
	I was young
	Learned from my family
	Was not intentional
	I was inexperienced
	I didn't do it consciously

Note. Participants often selected reasons across two or three themes, and individual narrative responses were coded to reflect more than one theme (n = 73).

Social Influence

Participants described instances when they had majority privilege and might have shamed because of discrimination as a majority-language member. They may have also engaged in lateral discrimination within their own language group. Some also suggested feeling peer pressure from others and adopting a group-think mentality (Janis, 2008) about how others use language in society. Participants described a tendency to undervalue the use of other languages and to emulate the shaming behaviors of others, with one student suggesting that they were "influenced by peers and majority culture into taking part in discriminatory behaviors" **in their educational program of study.**

Judging Behaviors

Somewhat related to the concepts of language prestige in Table 2, participants also identified making judgments about the fluency of others and to the prestige related to being perceived as having greater fluency in a language. Furthermore, they also described policing the language of others and criticizing peers' language use by directly correcting sign production or word pronunciation. One student talked about their behavior of "critically evaluating another's skills because some have been allowed to pass classes they should have failed." Another described learning "pure ASL and then seeing Deaf people use their own language improperly." This suggests that a certain degree of license has been given, either informally or formally, that encourages students to evaluate others' language proficiency despite not being experts themselves in language acquisition or linguistics.

To Educate

A third area of discussion by the participants was the idea that the corrections or shaming events were part of the wider community of learning practice. Obviously, in any language learning environment, feedback is an important component to increase student fluency. In some cases, the corrections may have been delivered with the intent to educate but were not perceived in the same way. One participant talked about the difficulty in discussing "others signing ability without involving language proficiency." Another talked about the desire to help another, "but that it does not always come out right."

Habitus

Another area of interest was the idea that the shaming behavior was considered to be appropriate for the setting and a somewhat embodied disposition of the IEP and possibly the community (see also Bourdieu, 1991). Participants described imitating the behaviors of those around them, and one identified shaming others, but that it "seemed like appropriate behavior." One other participant stated that they were "so used to being language shamed that I tend to exhibit the same behavior I notice others using towards me."

Rationalized

Finally, when confirming their own shaming activities, several participants rationalized the behavior by stating that it was something they were unaware of or had learned from others, and thus it was unconscious. Some stated that it was inadvertent or unintentional or that they did not consider the impact of their behavior on others. One participant confirmed that they had shamed others but also stated that "I would never have done so on purpose."

Discussion

While some questions have arisen in our analysis of these results, of certainty is that language shaming happened to approximately half of the interpreting students in this study in relation to their IEP. Language shaming, as self-reported and defined by the students, occurred from peer-to-peer, from educators, and, less often, from the community. More interesting, a definition of language shaming was not provided, but instead we asked students whether they had experienced language shaming. Haualand and Holmström (2019) defined *language shaming* in two ways (Pillar, 2017): to disparage or demean someone based on their

particular use of a language or limitations and lack of resources from the government based on language. The notion that students would be able to identify with this concept without a formal definition provided us with enough data to prototype our own definition. As a result of this study, we now define *language shaming* as a negative act or response by one person directed at another as a means of projecting approval or dislike for the other person's language production. Furthermore, the act of shaming may serve to exhibit power or superiority by the shamer over the one shamed.

While students reported a myriad of challenges related to language shaming, questions remain as to what language shaming means and how it may affect interpreting students and the pedagogy of language and interpreter education. This study provided a prototype for examining language shaming in the context of interpreter education and could be extended to better understand how these actions are perceived by all stakeholders. This study also provided an aspect of language interaction that must be further examined to identify its impact on the motivation, retention, and development of students in IEPs. The results of this study have brought to light more questions as a result of the responses. While not all questions can be answered, the following sections attempt to highlight some of the limitations and suggest areas of future research.

Limitations

This study had several limitations in that the results were derived via a self-report survey. Respondents may have answered in ways that were complimentary to their own behaviors rather than what might be witnessed in a live setting. The sample size, although not exceptionally small, might yield different results with a larger population of student participants. Additionally, the survey was only distributed in the U.S. Collecting data from a global context could add further interpretations and understanding to the themes proposed in the study. Furthermore, the study participants represented only nondeaf participants. Replication of the study with deaf interpreters could identify themes not identified in the current set of data.

After careful review, the authors considered the physical locations in which the surveys were distributed and the lack of diverse representation in the sample size (i.e., few BIPOC, LGBTQ, and deaf participants). The survey may have been distributed in classrooms by faculty, and, with this, marginalized students may have feared retribution for reporting shaming activity in the presence of instructors, thus influencing their responses. There is no known incidence of this occurring, only reflection of post-survey analysis that leads us to consider other, more anonymous, and equitable methods of distribution in future research studies.

Lastly, expanded qualitative research methods (e.g., interviews, reflections, and focus groups) would provide greater insight into the *why* and *how* of the data presented in this study. While open-ended questions provided rich data, the authors acknowledge the potential to expand the study even further.

Future Research

Several areas might be considered for future studies, include interpreter educator preparation, peer mentoring preparation, and incorporation of heritage signers who are deaf and nondeaf (Boeh, 2016). One of the notable questions and considerations from the researchers included ideas around the metalinguistics of language learning. At this time, there is a dearth of literature about language shaming and few ways to describe the experience.

Because the impetus for this study included teacher observations in a classroom setting where there was peer-to-peer shaming, the idea that students may not have the background or awareness to provide constructive guidance must be considered. The need to better prepare students to provide constructive feedback may be warranted. Furthermore, because students reported experiencing shaming behaviors from educators, the pedagogy of interpreter educators bears consideration for how they are prepared to teach the next generation of interpreters.

Peer mentoring practice should be evaluated in the case that it may perpetuate shaming behaviors as individuals move from the classroom into the interpreting field. For practitioners, the goal of any interpreted interaction is to produce a dynamically equivalent message (Nida, 1964). When the message is being produced by more than one interpreter working in partnership, the rapport between the interpreters must include a certain level of trust and respect. There remains a challenge in understanding how the interaction between a team of interpreters may support or, conversely, perpetuate shaming behaviors.

Another area that remains to be examined includes shaming behaviors that may be present in heritage signing populations that include children of deaf adults (CODAs) and the deaf community. This current study included a small population of heritage signers, so it would not be possible to draw conclusions from these limited responses. Future research should focus on this population and include hearing heritage signers and deaf people. Of interest would also be the experiences of deaf people learning a spoken/written language (in our case, English) to see whether they have parallel shaming events in their history of language learning. Further, it bears consideration that interpreters and consumers may also engage in shaming activities in their

interactions with one another. Finally, language shaming should be examined in terms of language modality and whether it is likely to elicit behaviors that rise to the level of shaming.

Lastly, with a rapid shift to digital lives, it would also be valuable to examine how the disinhibition effect (Best, 2016; Suler, 2004) may play a role in the development of language-shaming behaviors. With the increase in social media usage and online interactions via distance learning, language shaming may also be effectively reinforced via distancing through technology. By identifying and comparing these online events to classroom or face-to-face interactions, greater connections may be found that would further our understanding of when, where, and why language shaming may occur. Certainly, reducing negative associations with language learning will improve the experience of student interpreters and result in better teaching practices within IEPs.

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Book Review: *Flipped Learning: A Guide for Higher Education Faculty*

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Book Review: *Flipped Learning: A Guide for Higher Education Faculty*

The book *Flipped Learning: A Guide for Higher Education* Faculty by Robert Talbert (2017) provides a solid foundation for designing a course by using a flipped learning approach. Talbert, a mathematics professor and assistant department chair at Grand Valley State University, wrote this book to share effective practices in flipped learning design that he uncovered through trial, error, and research, both his and others'. Talbert's aim is to provide an understanding of what is meant by *flipped learning* and a roadmap to effectively implement this pedagogical approach. This review includes a description of the text, a comparison with similarly focused instructional resources, and an explanation of why this book is an excellent addition to the recommended readings of language instructors and interpretation/translation instructors.

Talbert provides a conceptual framework of flipped learning by describing the philosophical foundation for the approach, which is based on a collection of well-researched effective teaching/learning practices, not on a hunch about what will work well in a college course. The foundational principles are *self-determination theory, cognitive load theory*, and the framework of *self-regulated learning*. Talbert also discusses *backward design* and *integrated course design* as frameworks that can be used alongside the flipped learning approach. With the explanations and examples in the text, reader can easily grasp how this approach differs from the traditional "assignments and homework" model. Talbert's audience is tertiary teaching staff, not elementary and secondary teachers or workshop providers.

Three distinct sections compose the book. In "Part I: What Is Flipped Learning?" Talbert contrasts flipped learning with the traditional classroom approach and provides a clear explanation of how he created his understanding and definition of flipped learning. Talbert defines *flipped learning* as "a pedagogical approach in which first contact with new concepts moves from group learning space to the individual learning space in the form of structured activity, and the resulting group space is transformed into dynamic interactive learning environment where the educator guides students as they apply concepts and engage creatively in the subject matter" (p.20). This definition builds upon the Flipped Learning Network's definition, which focuses on where direct instruction occurs as opposed to first contact with content (https://flippedlearning.org/definition-of-flipped-learning/).

The imperative distinction that Talbert makes between flipped learning and other teaching/learning approaches is what occurs before, during, and after each class session. The distinction is demonstrated through the concepts of *group* and *individual space*. *Group space* is the learning environment where students and instructor are engaged with one another. In a traditional course, this is the classroom learning environment where the instructor and students come together each week. *Individual space* is where students independently complete work, traditionally homework and reading assignments. For flipped learning, Talbert encourages faculty to separate objectives and tasks into either group space or individual space activities, based on the most pedagogically effective use of each space. As opposed to a traditional approach, a flipped learning approach, according to Talbert, has students complete lower-level learning objectives in individual space to prepare for the group space activities. Group space should be designed to take the most advantage of having a faculty member present to guide students to higher levels of thinking and deeper engagement with the material. This is in contrast to traditional learning environments, where the student does some preparation for class and during the class session, the instructor helps students achieve lower-level objectives (i.e., knowledge and understanding) and then sends students off with homework to apply the learning. In flipped learning, students are expected to achieve lower-level objectives (i.e., knowledge and understanding) before attending the group space session, where the focus may be on application and evaluation.

"Part II: Flipped Learning Design," which is the bulk of the text, provides a step-by-step process for designing a flipped learning course (or redesigning an existing course to become a flipped environment). From determining learning objectives and ordering them from least to most complex to designing activities for individual and group spaces, Talbert's 7-step process provides a detailed roadmap of the entire flipped learning design process. Specific examples accompany the explanation of each step. In his discussion of Step 1: Determining the Learning Objectives, Talbert lays the groundwork for the foundation of the course structure. Step 2, ordering the objectives in the order of complexity, is guided by Bloom's taxonomy. In Step 3, Talbert guides the reader through outlining group space activities. This is at the organizational and structural levels of class design, not designing specific activities that will be completed. The linchpin of flipped learning design occurs in Step 4, the splitting of the learning objectives into basic and advanced. In this step, the instructor determines which learning objectives will be acquired during individual space, prior to group space, and which will be developed during and after group space. Step 5 is where the theoretical and organizational steps turn into actual class activities because this is when instructors flesh out and finish

the design of the group space activities. Talbert walks through designing individual space activities in Step 6 and provides a template for the guided practice model that he introduces. Finally, the post–group space activities are designed in Step 7.

In the final section, "Part III: Teaching and Learning in a Flipped Learning Environment," Talbert describes the approach as adaptable while providing suggestions and advice for implementing a flipped approach in alternative course designs (e.g., hybrid or online) and clarifications and suggestions for responding to common critiques of the approach. This section of the text was especially useful during the 2020 COVID-19 pandemic, which necessitated a sudden shift to an almost exclusive use of online and hybrid approaches to teaching for tertiary educators. Having student expectations and work clearly laid out via the guided practice documents created continuity for students and instructors during the transition.

Talbert's explicit steps for creating a flipped learning course make the process less daunting than other books on similar topics that provide the philosophy but do not offer explicit instructions to implement the approach. Certainly, educators may deviate from his model implementation, but having the process, structure, and sample documents available allows instructors to focus on the best ways of implementing the approach in their own courses rather than on the nuts and bolts of how to effectively implement flipped learning.

Talbert addresses the applicability of flipped learning to almost any situation despite variation in institutions, discipline, class size, course level, and learning/instructional format. Although language learning and interpreting are not specifically mentioned, the book provides case studies and examples of how the flipped approach to course design has been implemented in a myriad of disciplines (e.g., STEM, literature, and the classics). The authors of this review have successfully redesigned multiple courses, including beginning ASL courses and beginning through advanced interpreting courses, following the step-by-step approach that Talbert offers. The data reviewed thus far indicate that the transition has been effective for students as well; systematic investigation is ongoing and will be reported elsewhere.

Educators may face challenges with Talbert's approach in some cases. When attempting to effectively design a new course from the ground up, a faculty member must have a firm understanding of the learning outcomes and activities of the course and how to break them down into weekly and daily levels. Although Talbert provides a clear explanation for dividing basic and advanced learning outcomes for each class session, the text provides less structure for breaking course-level learning outcomes into weekly and daily chunks. This lack of structure may prove challenging for new instructors or those with limited experience in course design. Additionally, while extremely detailed and effective, the scripted formula for course design may prove to be overwhelming for instructors to implement each week, especially if they are attempting to implement this entire process during the semester as a course is being taught.

To combat these concerns, Talbert recommends that instructors select a course and begin working on the redesign (or initial design) 1 year in advance of teaching the flipped course. For instructors who have routine teaching loads, this approach would be feasible. However, for those who have unpredictable and fluctuating teaching loads, redesigning a course a year in advance may not be realistic. The effort required to create a flipped learning course a few months prior to teaching or during the term itself is likely more than many academics have to expend given the multitude of competing demands for teaching, service, and scholarship.

Talbert's work is in company with other guides to course development are that are currently available. One such text, *Understanding by Design* (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005) describes three stages of backward design: identifying goals and learning objectives, which are the results we want to see from the learning process; determining evidence of mastery and assessment strategies; and designing specific activities to guide day-to-day teaching and learning. This resource is similar to Talbert's in that it focuses on developing course activities aligned with the learning outcomes and objectives. Wiggins and McTighe (2005) look at overall course design, focusing on overarching goals, assessments, and day-to-day learning activities; however, its instructions are written for elementary and secondary educational settings. Talbert's book is better suited to tertiary instruction because that is his primary audience, and all the examples and details align with the structure of university courses.

Another resource currently on the market for course design is Fink's (2013) *Creating Significant Learning Experiences: An Integrated Approach to Designing College Courses*. Similarly to Wiggins and McTighe (2005), Fink provides a model that emphasizes integration of three major components: learning goals, feedback and assessment tools, and activities. Fink employs a 12-step model for integrating these three areas. Talbert acknowledges that Fink's model is "richly detailed…[and] takes the whole learning environment into consideration and provides an integrated and focused design" (p.91). Talbert's 7-step process differs from Fink's because Talbert is primarily focused on how to design the work for group and individual space activities rather than on how to design course-level outcomes and assessments.

Some academics may be accustomed to employing the *gradual release of responsibility* (GRR), as explained in detail by Fisher and Frey (2013) in *Better Learning Through Structured Teaching: A Framework for the Gradual Release of Responsibility*. Those using this approach to course design may wonder how the flipped learning approach that Talbert describes fits with

that method. Talbert classifies GRR as a partially flipped approach and explains in his book how to integrate the two approaches; however, Talbert cautions that this partial approach may confuse students because flipped learning challenges preconceived ideas of teacher and student roles. Adjusting the roles throughout the course may not proceed smoothly.

Talbert's *Flipped Learning: A Guide for Higher Education Faculty* can be used in conjunction with the approaches described above by faculty who are familiar with them. For faculty unfamiliar with those resources, Talbert's book provides an alternative way to implement effective course and lesson design. While Fink's approach is excellent for addressing the development of the broad objectives and activities for a course, Talbert's method assists instructors in daily implementation of the larger framework. With the 7-step process, faculty identify the learning objectives and then develop learning activities that are directly aligned with these objectives.

The primary benefit of Flipped Learning: A Guide for Higher Education Faculty is the ease with which tertiary educators can implement a flipped learning approach based on principles of effective teaching and learning. Because the focus is to engender rich learning experiences and activities during the group sessions when the instructor is available to provide assistance through the process, the prep-work becomes a critical piece to the learning environment that students complete because they see the benefit of being ready for the group class sessions. When using this framework, the prep work for class sessions is clearly designed to provide students with a foundation that will be built upon instead of work to be completed and then reiterated during the group sessions. Instead of saying, "Read p. 57–60," instructors can explicitly state the learning objectives and a means to measure their attainment prior to the group space session, such as "Identify and define the 5 steps of the interpreting process as defined on p. 57–60." When students know the minimum expectations of learning prior to group space, they can make meaningful connections between assigned work, learning, and class preparedness, and, more importantly, they may be better able to manage their own learning.

Talbert's well-designed plan reflects characteristics of effective design for learning. Following this plan allows instructors to self-monitor that they are providing just enough preparation to make the group sessions effective without assigning unnecessary busy work. More importantly, instructors can make conscious choices about which learning outcomes are best completed in individual space versus group space and which teaching methods or activities are best suited to supporting student achievement on each outcome. And, finally, it provides a framework for highlighting the key learning points and a feedback system for students to learn from trial and error.

Book Review: *The Role of Technology in Conference Interpreter Training*

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Book Review:
The Role of Technology in Conference Interpreter Training

Technologies are now ubiquitous and all the more relevant in light of the current COVID-19 pandemic that has forced most worldwide education (including conference interpreter training) into the virtual realm. But information and communication technologies (ICTs) began to radically transform the way interpreters work and are trained well before this unprecedented global emergency. Technologies are now fundamental to interpreter training in two ways: as a training objective, to prepare students for the requirements of professional practice; and as a training tool, to support effective learning processes.

In the present volume, *The Role of Technology in Conference Interpreter Training*, editors María Dolores Rodríguez Melchor, Ildikó Horváth, and Kate Ferguson have collected the works of 22 authors from universities across Europe belonging to the European Masters in Conference Interpreting (EMCI) Consortium with the aim to leverage new technologies in interpreter training.

Despite the ever-increasing relevance of ICTs to interpreter training, this is, to the knowledge of the reviewer, the first edited book in Europe entirely dedicated to the topic. The volume may hence be regarded as a first attempt to unify a broad, fragmented research field. One of the main contributions of this volume may lie in the examples provided for future ICT-related pedagogical projects. In this sense, this book is a must-read for faculties already working with or wanting to introduce technologies into their teaching practice. The volume also provides a snapshot of the field's current understanding of effective technology-mediated interpreter training. Scholars may therefore find it helpful to formulate research questions, identify knowledge gaps, and detect assumptions needing empirical validation.

The volume comprises 10 chapters — all of them very clearly and professionally written — arranged into three parts. Part I comprises two chapters dedicated to new approaches in interpreter training assistance. The four chapters in Part II are centered on online resources and VLEs in interpreter training. The concluding four chapters in Part III address the topic of new methodologies and technological applications in interpreter training.

The present review attempts to highlight the value of this work and the potential benefits of incorporating ICTs into interpreter training that emerge from each chapter. It also discusses possible limitations of the studies constituting the volume. Because the main interest of the reviewer is in the research-based design and scientific evaluation of instruction, most of the critique inevitably addresses these aspects.

Part I

The two chapters in Part I address new approaches in interpreter training assistance. Such framework provides the reader with background knowledge about the topic and perspective over the case studies following later in the volume. Both chapters point to the potential benefits of technological tools for interpreter training and shed light on the challenges to their effective integration in the interpreting classroom.

Considering the sheer abundance of technological tools and resources available for conference interpreter training and the continuous development of new ones, the editors make a strategic choice opening the book with a chapter titled "Survey of the Use of New Technologies in Conference Interpreting Courses" by Alessandra Riccardi, Ivana Čeňková, Małgorzata Tryuk, Amalija Maček, and Alina Pelea. This chapter provides an overview of currently available technologies dedicated to interpreting, which are grouped into four categories: websites, general technologies, available and desirable equipment, and other ICTs. To show patterns and preferences in the use of such tools, the authors administered a survey to the 15 institutions in the EMCI Consortium, gathering the responses of 62 trainers. Two patterns emerging from the authors' comprehensive analysis may have particularly powerful implications for teaching practice. The first is trainers' inclination to underuse available resources, with the most frequent reason being "I haven't needed them in class yet"—although previous research has convincingly presented the potential benefits of such training tools. An example is the smartpen for consecutive interpreting training (Orlando, 2015), used only by 9 of 60 survey respondents. The second interesting pattern is the evident mismatch between the primary function of the tool and its actual use during classroom instruction. Such is the case for learning modules (like SCICtrain) aiming to support the trainer's theoretical introduction to new interpreting techniques through videos showing the skill in action or discussing

its practical implementation. Contrary to the expectations, only 31% of the respondents have used the videos in their classes before, while the remaining 69% have assigned them for individual self-study.

Chapter 2, "The Speech Repository: Challenges and New Projects" by Fernando Leitão, presents one of the most well-known technological resources dedicated to conference interpreter training and developed by the DG Interpretation (SCIC) at the European Commission. The Speech Repository (SR) is a collection of speeches, partly original ones and partly created by E.U. staff interpreters, categorized by difficulty according to a refined grading system. My Speech Repository (MySR) is a version with additional functionalities accessible only to partner universities. In this chapter, the author discusses the challenges in running the project, such as ensuring a consistent grading system and recruiting busy E.U. staff interpreters to record videos. The author also presents the newly launched feature "My Collection" as a potential solution to the shortage of contributors. Among other advantages, this new feature gives trainers the possibility to create and share instructional materials across educational institutions. Potential challenges are quality assurance, consistency, and, again, the incorporation of the tool into instruction. The author reports that MySR is underused by partner universities and that, in some cases, students are even prevented access to MySR, as trainers keep the speeches private to use them as classroom or even test materials—another example of a mismatch between the tool's intended and actual uses.

Part II

Part II comprises four chapters addressing the topic of online resources and VLEs in interpreter training. Each chapter presents a case study of technology-enhanced interpreter training, unveils the theoretical underpinning of the teaching intervention, and discusses the observations made during its implementation. One aspect that future contributions should add to the discussions is the scientific empirical investigation of proposed pedagogical methods and interventions.

The project presented in Chapter 3, "Meeting the Challenge of Adapting Interpreter Training and Assessment to Blended Learning Environment" by María Dolores Rodríguez Melchor, highlights the potential of VLEs to help achieve a coherent curriculum and support students' learning through ongoing formative evaluation. In this chapter, the author describes the observations made during a 3-year experience designing a VLE in Moodle on consecutive and simultaneous interpreting techniques. The design of the modules focused on establishing a coherent and gradual progression along with clearly defined learning objectives. Several instruments, such as learning diaries, trainers' logbooks, and rubrics, were embedded in the learning activities to facilitate the monitoring of students' progress and enhance their self-assessment skills. At the end of the chapter, the author shares prescriptive recommendations on how to design similar e-learning modules based on the observed student interaction with the materials and the qualitative data generated from the assessment activities on Moodle. Regrettably, no information is provided about how data were collected and analyzed or how much evidence was gathered and processed. This prevents the reader from gauging the extent to which the recommendations can be transferred to other learning contexts.

Chapter 4 is titled "The Collaborative Multilingual Multimedia Project ORCIT (Online Resources in Conference Interpreter Training): Sharing Pedagogical Good Practice and Enhancing Learner Experience" and is authored by Svetlana Carsten, Nijolė Maskaliūnienė, and Matthew Perret. It highlights another major potential benefit of the use of VLEs: pooling the expertise of high-level professionals and making it accessible without temporal and geographic restrictions. ORCIT—another EC-funded project of great breadth and popularity—was designed to be a self-paced resource for students to fill their skill gaps through the help of exercises and, above all, introductory videos in which a "virtual coach" (an E.U. interpreter) explains in an accessible, colloquial manner the fundamental principles of interpreting and situates them in the context of high-level professional practice. The positive feedback gathered through user satisfaction surveys as well as the growing number of users and languages in which ORCIT has been localized show the popularity of the project 13 years after its launch. At the end of the chapter, the authors touch upon the challenges in conducting an objective evaluation of technology-mediated educational interventions. According to them, such difficulties have so far prevented a systematic analysis of the learning gains following the use of ORCIT.

Offering varied, authentic, and practice-relevant training opportunities, VLEs may help prepare students for the diverse settings and demands of professional practice. This potential benefit of technology is shown by Şeyda Eraslan, Mehmet Şahin, Gazihan Alankuş, Özge Altıntaş, and Damla Kaleş in Chapter 5, titled "Virtual Worlds as a Contribution to Content and Variety in Interpreter Training: The Case of Turkey." The authors present the ÇEV-VİR Project, a 3D virtual world simulating real interpreting scenarios. The authors also report the findings of a study aimed at learning more about users' perception of VLEs in interpreter training and the impact of VLEs on interpreting quality. The authors administered a survey to 20 senior-year translation and interpretation students from Izmir University of Economics and Dokuz Eylül University and 26 professional conference interpreters before and after the design of the virtual course. They also conducted a test with 17 students and five professionals to ascertain whether the virtual setting had an impact on their simultaneous interpreting performance (from

English to Turkish). The quality parameter used for the evaluation was the fluency of the delivery, defined as the number of pauses and repairs. The authors find no correlation between the interpreting setting and delivery fluency. They also register a generally positive attitude toward the VLE and optimism that it may benefit training. The authors stress the need for further improvement for the VLE to become an effective complement to in-person interpreting practice. From the perspective of the reviewer, a rigorous evaluation process would be helpful to define effective training principles and maximize the benefits of this virtual world, justifying its costly and time-consuming development.

Chapter 6 concludes Part II with an example of a training module offering students the opportunity to learn skills that are needed for professional practice but are not systematically covered in traditional training curricula. The authors are Kilian G. Seeber and Carmen Delgado Luchner, and the title of the chapter is "Simulating Simultaneous Interpreting with Text: From Training Model to Training Module SimTextSim (Simultaneous With Text Simulation)." The authors designed an online training module to help students better deal with simultaneous interpreting with text (SimText). Based on research findings on the impact of multimodality on interpreting and an operational definition of SimText, the authors created a skill-based model of this task, including the strategies needed to overcome recurring challenges. They then developed a training unit for each learning objective comprising a theoretical introduction using multimedia materials, such as videos and whiteboards, and a corresponding learning activity. Another innovative aspect of the training module is the interactive design with nonlinear navigation, which allows the student to choose in which order to study the materials. Such strategies are adopted with the aim to increase students' interest and engagement, countering the notorious learner's tendency to skip theoretical introductions and engage with the concepts only on a superficial level. It would be interesting to study the actual effectiveness of the training module on the whole and of the individual design strategies. For instance, do the innovative strategies chosen by the authors (such as the intensive use of multimedia and the nonlinear navigation) succeed in eliciting the desired learning processes? Are the types and quantity of practical activities suitable to effectively facilitate skill acquisition and transfer to contexts other than that of training? Future studies are encouraged to address these and other related questions.

Part III

Part III comprises four chapters centered on "New Methodologies and Technological Applications in Interpreter Training." These contributions show how ICTs can facilitate the implementation of innovative teaching approaches in the interpreting classroom and enhance students' learning experience, although their learning impact is not rigorously explored.

Looking at the potential benefits of ICTs emerging from the chapters, it seems that technology can create opportunities for students to receive external feedback and put their current competence level into perspective. This is shown by Ildikó Horváth and Márta Seresi in Chapter 7, "Virtual Classes: Students' and Trainers' Perspectives." The study was carried out during virtual classes (VCs) organized in cooperation with E.U. institutions and ELTE University, Budapest, between 2012 and 2014. The authors administered a survey to 49 students who participated in the VCs. The trainers' view on VCs derives from the findings of an international online survey. The authors received 60 answers from 18 universities, 10 of which were not EMCI members, and four of which were outside Europe. The findings suggest that the students generally appreciated the in-depth feedback obtained during the VCs and gained awareness of the requirements of professional practice. The analysis also points to issues that may jeopardize the potential benefits of VCs: the need for training material and assessment criteria to match students' current level of skill development, methods to help students interpret and incorporate VC feedback in a meaningful way, and applications of the feedback in students' subsequent training. All these issues are, to date, unexplored.

The inclusion of technologies into the interpreting classroom can help build students' B-language skills and introduce them to lifelong learning habits. This topic is the contribution of Özüm Arzık Erzurumlu in Chapter 8, "Employing Podcasts as a Learning Tool in Interpreter Training: A Case Study." The author presents the action research study that she conducted at Istanbul 29 Mayıs University with three senior students of conference interpreting. The students were all female, age 22, and native speakers of Turkish, with English as their B-language. For 10 weeks, 20 minutes of each class were dedicated to podcast-related activities, such as listening to podcasts or completing knowledge tests (quizzes or presentations) related to podcasts previously assigned to the students. As students got familiar with this practice, they were allowed to choose their podcasts and design the related quizzes. To the reviewer, this seems to represent an interesting form of scaffolding, which could help strengthen students' self-regulation skills. After 10 weeks, the author gathered data on students' perception through a survey and a focus group; she reports positive feedback. Given the limited number of participants, the findings must be confined to the case study considered. It must also be stressed that the design of the study was only adequate to investigate students' attitude but not to measure actual learning gains (Kirschner & van Merriënboer, 2013). Unfortunately, the author's reporting of the findings

does not seem to take stock of these restrictions—for example, "It was found that lifelong learning is another skill supported by this activity" (p.194)—which may negatively affect readers' perception of the trustworthiness of the study.

Technologies can facilitate the implementation of interactive, learner-centered teaching methods, as presented by Elena Aguirre Fernández Bravo in Chapter 9, "The Impact of ICT on Interpreting Students' Self-Perceived Learning: A Flipped Learning Experience." The chapter presents the results of a survey conducted with 108 undergraduate students in T&I, who completed two introductory interpreting courses (six European Credit Transfer System points each) taught with the flipped learning teaching methodology during the academic years 2016–2018 and 2017–2018 at the Universidad Pontificia Comillas. These modules are Interpreting I: Oral Communication and Discourse Analysis and Interpreting II: Intercultural Mediation Techniques. Each module combines a theoretical introduction (in the form of written and audiovisual content partly developed by the authors) and practical learning activities. The analysis of survey data seems to point to an improvement in students' perceived learning experience following the proposed methodology. However, the discussion does not clearly distinguish between the benefits following the use of technology and the approach itself. Furthermore, by the author's own admission, the confidence in the effectiveness of the intervention may have introduced some elements of bias in the study: "[S]ince we were interested in verifying whether students agreed with the potential benefits of the methodology outlined by the original authors, we presented the statements as positive affirmations. Providing a space for students to point out negative aspects of FL would probably contribute to further enriching the debate on the issue" (p.217).

Finally, technologies can make interpreter training more inclusive. This is shown in Chapter 10, "New Technologies in Teaching Interpreting to Students With Visual Impairments" by Wojciech Figiel, a blind interpreter trainer himself. The chapter is based on a research project carried out in Poland in 2014–2016. Because no previous account of visually impaired interpreters' and translators' learning experience was available, the study has an exploratory nature, and a qualitative methodology was adopted. The author conducted 15 in-depth interviews with visually impaired translators and interpreters from or working in Poland. The interviews were recorded, transcribed, and anonymized. Three of the 15 participants were more than 60 years old, which gives a bit of a longer dimension to the reconstruction. The chapter provides a humbling account of the difficulties encountered by visually impaired translators and interpreters during training and professional practice, how they dealt with such difficulties in the past, and how technology can now better serve them in training and professional practice.

Conclusion

Overall, the book provides plenty of food for thought and is worth the time and attention of readers. All contributions in this book add some elements of knowledge to our understanding of the technological solutions currently available for interpreter training and underscore the potential gains following the successful integration of technologies into classroom instruction and self-learning. The proposed interventions, such as new approaches and training modules, address an existing pedagogical gap and may represent a starting point for further innovative initiatives. The editors of this volume and the individual authors are to be strongly commended for their contribution in knowledge, creativity, and innovation to conference interpreter training.

The most significant potential benefits of the inclusion of ICTs in interpreter training emerging from the review are (a) increasing the internal consistency of the curriculum, (b) making the expertise of high-level professionals accessible to students around the world without temporal and geographical restrictions, (c) supporting students' self-study, and (d) enhancing students' learning experience by making classrooms more interactive and training more realistic and relevant. A further potential benefit that is not explicitly discussed in the book but that may be regarded as both its premise and its aim is the possibility to leverage inter-institutional synergies. Technology has opened the opportunity to collaborate without geographical restrictions, which has the potential to become a major factor in promoting educational excellence.

The shortage of scientific empirical evaluation must be noted as a limitation of the volume, which constrains the application of proposed methods and interventions to other educational contexts and the abstraction of general principles from the particular case studies presented. Evaluation is the means through which we can identify how specific characteristics of our instructional design, interacting with variables related to the educational context, successfully support learning processes conducive to desired training objectives. In other words, evaluation provides an explanation—a "theory"—of how a certain intervention should be designed and implemented to achieve our pedagogical goals. The aim of evaluation is not simply to "prove" that an intervention works but rather to unveil the conditions and constraints of its successful implementation. It should make it possible to identify ways to monitor the effectiveness of the intervention and adjust it to students' progress. The relevance of scientific evaluation is, hence, in generating reliable knowledge informing the continuous improvement of

the intervention, the development of new solutions, and the appropriate implementation of proposed interventions by other trainers. In a way, we could say that evaluation is a means to put our individual pedagogical experiences to a larger use.

Some authors argue that, to date, conference interpreter training is still heavily reliant on trainers' intuition and rarely incorporates research outputs (Seeber & Arbona, 2020, p.2). In the view of the reviewer, evaluation assumes a particularly important role in the present stage of the development of conference interpreter training. The inclusion of technology into our training practices is prompting the field to innovate and enhance its methods, as the contributors to *The Role of Technology in Conference Interpreter Training* have done. A synergy between educational practice and research in this decisive moment may contribute to the field's development of a common body of pedagogical knowledge, helping the field reap the benefits of ICTs while advancing the state of conference interpreting pedagogy.

Risk Management in Translation: How Much Does It Really Explain?

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Abstract

While risk has always been part of translation, it was taken up as a distinct topic recently, with some confusion as to what the term actually covers and some problematic claims about its central role as a determinant of translation behavior and the links between risk and translation effort. It is argued that risk is more often a constraint than a driver of decisions, that the correlation between the magnitude of risk-associated loss and the number of problem-solving efforts can be weak, and that achievement-oriented decision making explains translatorial behavior better than risk management and is more compatible with professional ethics. However, there are interesting nontrivial cases where risk is salient, and the topic deserves more conceptual and empirical exploration.

Keywords: decision making, knowledge risk, cognitive risk, non-compliance risk, decision driver, decision modulator

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Risk Management in Translation: How Much Does It Really Explain?

In human Translation (*Translation* is used as a hypernym for translation and interpreting, *Translator* for translators and interpreters, and *Text* for written texts and speeches), the importance of decision making has been salient to practitioners, trainers, and researchers for a long time—Bible translation choices being a striking example—and underlies much of the reflection, research, and discussion activity reflected in contemporary Translation and Interpreting Studies (TIS) literature, from interventionism or the lack thereof in community and signed language interpreting (Roy, 2000; Wadensjö, 2004) to tactics and strategies in translation and conference interpreting (e.g., Baker, 1992; Chesterman, 1997, for translation; Kalina, 2015, for a review in conference interpreting; Levý, 1967), to cite just a few highly visible topics in which the translators' and interpreters' decisions are central (also see Schwieter & Ferreira, 2017, for numerous references to decision making in the more recent focus on Translation cognition).

Many decisions can be explained by the influence of prevailing professional and cultural norms that Translators may follow (Toury, 1995), subconsciously or not, but many others are more personal.

In human decision making, choices are naturally associated with concerns about their expected outcomes, which are more or less favorable or adverse, and thus with concerns about risk—namely, the possibility of a decision's outcome being less favorable than expected or less favorable than the outcome of a different decision. This self-evident principle was formalized at least as early as the 17th century with Blaise Pascal's *Wager*. In the context of translator training, in view of linguistic and cultural differences between Japanese and French, Gile (1984) considered it particularly useful to highlight it to students of Japanese-into-French translation to help them understand that by staying very "close" to Japanese original sentences, they were taking the risk of writing unclear or even incorrect French target texts, and that by making decisions involving bold interpretation of the source text and bold reformulation options, they could hope to have better outcomes in terms of not only linguistic acceptability but also transmission of the author's message to readers. He later formalized this, including the risk aspect, in a "Sequential Model of Written Translation" and in hypotheses about what motivates the selection of interpreting tactics (Gile, 1995, 2005), but he did not elaborate beyond general principles.

More recently, Pym developed a strong interest in risk and risk management in decision making in translation (Pym, 2005, 2011, 2020). In his wake, other researchers (e.g., Akbari, 2009; Hui, 2012; Matsushita, 2019) conducted studies on the topic. Regarding the business aspect of translation, viewed from an "industrial" viewpoint (Akbari, 2009), and also regarding large collective translation activities in administrations and international organizations, it makes sense to look at how risk-management theory and practices developed in business environments also apply to translation companies. However, their extrapolation to individual Translation methods is more challenging. Pym (2020, p.446) criticized the most influential models of translation competence for not relying on bottom-up process research. This essay analyzes risk in Translation from a bottom-up perspective and looks at how and to what extent Pym's top-down ideas about risk and risk management apply.

What is *Risk*?

In everyday language, the word *risk* is associated with an adverse event. This is the meaning adopted by Gile (1984, 1995) and also most often by Pym, judging by his definition of risk as "the probability of an undesired outcome as a consequence of an action" (2005), and by various examples of risk that he has given in other publications (loss of credibility, risk to one's life, etc.). However, in other contexts, such as insurance and finance (e.g., Knight, 1921), the same term has a wider meaning that encompasses desired and undesired outcomes. In her doctoral dissertation, Hui (2012) explained the origin of the term as well as the conceptual evolution of risk analysis. In addressing risk management, she nevertheless reverted to the "negative" meaning of risk when referring to risk managers who can estimate their risk exposure in terms of "risk probability, i.e.[,] the likelihood of negative consequences" and "risk impact, i.e.[,] the severity of negative consequences if they really happen" (Hui, 2012, p.15). She later explained that she had "come to understand the term risk as the probability of a desired or undesired outcome of a (translatorial) action" (p.36). This inconsistency cropped up again, on the same page, when she considered "risk-averse behavior" to be an attempt to reduce negative consequences, which refer to the "negative" meaning of *risk*, and "risk taking" to be an attempt to "obtain potential benefits," which refer to the "positive" meaning of risk; as for "risk transfer," it is an attempt to share the positive or negative outcomes of the relevant translation decision and thus refers to both positive and negative potential outcomes.

For the sake of consistency, in this paper, risk is taken to refer to potential adverse outcomes only, and *risk management* refers to the part of decision making that addresses them.

Another ambiguity that needs to be cleared up is that between risk as the probability of an adverse outcome, as defined by Pym (2005), and risk as the outcome itself, such as "damage by fire" or "damage by water" (Pym & Matsushita, 2018, p.4). When referring to "high-risk," "mid-risk," or "low-risk," Pym (e.g., 2015) seems to merge both interpretations into a single construct: It would not make sense to view high probability of occurrence of a minor negative outcome as "high risk" (for instance, the high probability that one out of many readers of a translation will dislike a particular choice of wording by the translator in a sentence); neither would it make sense to view as "high risk" a major negative outcome with very low probability of occurrence (say, in a document explaining the operation of a life-critical medical device, the probability that the author made an error that will make the device deadly if used according to instructions).

In a (highly) simplified mathematical form, the risk associated with a particular translation decision d_1 as compared to the risk associated with another translation decision d_2 can be expressed as follows:

(1) $\text{risk}(d_1) = \text{loss}_1 \text{ x probability (of loss}_1\text{)}$
(2) $\text{risk}(d_2) = \text{loss}_2 \text{ x probability (of loss}_2\text{)}$

> Assuming that Translators can quantify the respective losses and probabilities—which they can only do roughly most of the time—if loss_1 is 100 and its probability is .2 (2 chances out of 10), the risk has the value 50. If loss_2 is 90 and its probability is .7 (7 chances out of 10), the risk has the value 63. In other words, statistically speaking, it would make sense to opt for d_1 in spite of the fact that it entails a potentially higher loss.

Every decision d_i also entails a potential gain, and, when acting rationally, the difference between the two determines the desirability of a decision:

(3) $\text{Expected outcome } (d_i) = [\text{gain}_i \text{ x probab. (of gain}_i\text{)}] - [\text{loss}_i \text{ x probab. (of loss}_i\text{)}]$

Translators acting rationally would only opt for d_i if its expected outcome is positive (> 0). Actually, they generally consider not one but several different courses of action and compare (sometimes subconsciously) the expected outcomes before choosing the most positive value.

Going one step further, the cost of each decision in time and effort may also be considered, consciously or not. Translators may also opt for a decision with a suboptimal expected outcome because they have run out of motivation or energy.

The main question that is addressed in this paper is whether the recent focus on risk and risk management in Translation has contributed significantly to understanding Translational behavior so far and what potential exploration avenues are likely to be most productive.

Risks and Quality in the Practice of Translation

Pym defined three categories of risk. For him (Pym, 2015), "risk in translation is first and foremost risk of losing credibility." In Pym (2020, p.448), he explained that in practical terms, this means the risk of losing trusting relationships with the other parties involved in the communicative act. The second category is "uncertainty risk," or the risk of handling "inadequately" a source-text item, such a term or a sentence. The third type of risk is "communicative risk," or the risk of the translation's not fulfilling the desired communicative function.

Conceptually speaking, the definitions of credibility risk and communicative risk are clear enough. "Uncertainty risk" is more problematic: How does one determine whether source-text items are handled adequately?

Proximal and Distal Components of Translation

For the purposes of this discussion, it is convenient to make a distinction between two parts of Translation work. There is a "proximal" part, in which source-text segments are processed and target texts are produced, including ad hoc use of information sources as well as revision. But translation also involves contacts with potential clients, negotiations over prices, deadlines, delivery modalities, and so forth before and after work on the text. In a freelance environment, this upstream and downstream "distal" part of the work can be just as important as the technical, proximal work. In corporate translation or interpreting departments or divisions and in international organizations, it is mostly the concern of the head of the translation or interpreting unit, while individual translators give all their attention to their proximal work.

Risks and Quality in Proximal Translation Work

The risk of handling "inadequately" a source-text item or a sentence is naturally associated with proximal Translation—but whether the parties concerned will consider a Translation to be "inadequate" also depends on distal factors. What Pym referred to as "uncertainty risk" arises partly from failure to understand source-text segments, either because of lacunae in the Translator's linguistic or extralinguistic knowledge (including terminological, phraseological, and signing preferences as well as normative preferences) or because of cognitive issues, such as lapses of attention or, in the case of interpreting (see Section 5), cognitive saturation. This "comprehension risk" often leads to errors, omissions, and/or infelicities (EOIs) in the production of the target text. "Uncertainty risk" can also arise from the same lacunae and cognitive factors in the target-text production stage even if comprehension upstream is satisfactory. Such weaknesses can result in communicative failure, provided that the EOIs are significant enough. They can also lead to credibility loss if other stakeholders, such as the commissioners of the translation or its intended recipients, detect them and react strongly to them. However, credibility risk can also materialize without any communicative failure or errors or omissions of source-text items: Stakeholders may dislike the Translator's textual style and choices or the Translator's extra-textual behavior, including insufficient punctuality, unpleasant human contacts, what they perceive as insufficient commitment toward an ethnic or deaf community in the case of community interpreting and signed language interpreting, personal appearance, and so forth.

In other words, "uncertainty risk" seems to amount to the risk of providing what is perceived by some or all stakeholders, including authors, recipients of the target text, and clients, as unsatisfactory Translation because of either subjectively or intersubjectively perceived EOIs or other aspects of the Translator's work, attitude, or behavior. "Uncertainty risk" is therefore the risk of non-compliance with norms and preferences—established professional and cultural norms and the personal preferences of stakeholders.

At this more fine-grained level of analysis, one major difference between translation and interpreting is that cognitive risk is more salient in the latter. Another is that knowledge risk (EOIs and noncompliance with the stakeholders' preferences resulting from the Translator's insufficient linguistic and/or relevant extralinguistic knowledge) can be mitigated in translation by consulting relevant sources to acquire more information even during proximal work, whereas in interpreting, under the pressure of time, this can be markedly more difficult.

The Case of Organizations

Risk for individual Translators is strongly (albeit not exclusively) linked to the quality of the proximal part of their work.

Translation businesses are first and foremost interested in having and keeping clients. In other words, their priority lies in credibility risk as defined by Pym, which depends to some extent on the quality of their Translators' proximal work, but also on their business practices, including human resource management, project management, public relations, pricing policy, and so forth. They tend not to manage directly noncompliance risk after they have communicated a brief to the Translators, and they are not concerned about communicative risk as long as their client is satisfied with their service.

Translation organizations, such as translation and interpreting departments in companies or in international organizations, operate in generally smaller and more stable "client" environments. For them, credibility risk is far more dependent on knowledge risk and cognitive risk.

Risk Management as a Focus in the Study of Translatorial Decision Making?

In Translation, codes of professional conduct as well as clients' expectations and the action of trainers all converge to suggest that individual Translatorial behavior is by default achievement-oriented: Translators aim first and foremost to achieve compliance with applicable norms and with the preferences of stakeholders and to contribute to communication through their decisions. As explained earlier, risk comes in when facing uncertainty due to knowledge gaps and cognitive problems, and for individual Translators, in proximal work, risk management consists mainly in acquiring the necessary knowledge if they can and in assessing the risks associated with reformulation decisions against expected achievement. In other words, risk management in proximal Translation is an integral part of strategic and tactical decision making (on the distinction between tactics and strategies, see the editorial of *CIRIN Bulletin*, 50, July 2015).

In a number of examples that Pym cited repeatedly, a simple gain/loss assessment provides a satisfactory explanation of the translator's behavior, and further theoretical elaboration on risk management seems to be overkill.

For instance, Matsushita (2019) discussed the case of Japanese "journalators" (journalists *cum* translators) tampering with their Japanese translations of foreigners' statements when presenting the Japanese versions as direct citations in violation of a fundamental norm in journalism. She argued that they believed they could afford to do so because the risk of someone checking the accuracy of the Japanese translations against the original was low—actually, the probability was low, not necessarily the stakes in terms of journalistic credibility, but, according to Matsushita, they tampered with the citations while still presenting them as direct citations to maximize the journalistic impact of their news reports. Risk was only a potential modulator of their action, not a driver.

Pym's repeatedly cited example of translations of Pakistani birth certificates not carrying the names of midwives and reporting officers in hospitals (e.g., Pym, 2004) suggests that here again, risk is low enough to have little weight in the translators' decisions.

Pym (2008) reinterpreted Gile's findings in an experiment involving two successive interpretations of the same speech by the same interpreters (Gile, 1999): Some speech items that were reformulated in the target speech the first time were omitted the second time. This was interpreted by Gile as supporting the idea that these omissions were due to cognitive saturation, but Pym believed that the explanation lies in the interpreters' prioritizing "high-risk segments" in their second rendition. It is not clear that those speech segments that Pym qualified as "high risk" were indeed associated with high risk or high stakes, especially in an overtly experimental setting where no communication goals were involved. And if they were and the interpreters chose to prioritize them during the second pass, why not during the first pass, and why were other speech segments that were omitted in the second pass not omitted in the first pass? In all these examples, focusing on risk and risk management seems to offer no significant contribution to the analysis of translatorial behavior.

There are, however, cases where risk deserves closer scrutiny, such as when stakes are high and suboptimal decisions can lead to major loss. This can happen in the translation of contracts, treaties, and political and diplomatic statements or when, despite their best efforts, translators cannot make sense of an important source-language text segment and need to decide what to do about it after having determined that they will not be able to come up with a satisfactory reformulation. A comment informing the client or reader is risky for the translator's credibility and future business, and omissions and guesswork involve risks for the author, the client, and readers.

Risk in Interpreting

In conference interpreting, it is widely accepted that constant cognitive pressure puts interpreters at risk of making errors and omissions whenever difficulties come up and whenever they make an error in the management of their attentional resources (Barranco-Droege, 2015; Gile, 1995; Mankauskienė, 2018). This risk has given rise to practical recommendations, such as note-taking during consecutive translating or using coping tactics when interpreting from syntactically very different languages. In consecutive interpreting, most authors recommend not using many symbols (e.g., Rozan, 1956, which has been a standard reference for more than 60 years) because until they are fully mastered, retrieving them from memory for note-taking may take too much time and jeopardize comprehension of the unfolding speech, and interpreting their meaning when reformulating the speech is also hazardous (see examples in Tang, 2018).

The risk of cognitive interference has also been theorized as one of the "rules" that determine the choice of coping tactics by interpreters. Because some are more costly in time and/or processing capacity than others, when selecting tactics to cope with difficult comprehension or reformulation of a (short) speech segment, all other things being equal, it would be rational for interpreters to prefer the less costly tactics because of the risk of cognitive interference affecting the processing of neighboring speech segments (Gile, 1995). Language interference is another cognitive risk that has been strongly stressed by the so-called Paris school and that is one of the reasons why dissociating the linguistic form of source texts from its intended content ("sense") before reformulating the "message" in the target language is so central in Interpretive Theory (e.g., Seleskovitch, 1975; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1989; also see Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

Cognitive risk and associated tactics are present at virtually every moment in interpreting and can be considered a regular part of the interpreter's decision making rather than a distinct risk-management issue.

Risk Avoidance?

If in some branches of Translation, high risk is intrinsic to the exercise, how often is risk avoidance or risk-associated loss mitigation the main determinant of Translators' decisions? Setting aside some extreme cases, in translators' day-to-day work, the author's professional experience as a Translator and as a trainer of translators and interpreters on one hand and the literature on

Translation, including studies of the Translators' strategies and tactics, on the other suggest that it is reasonable to consider that most of the time, in their proximal work, risk is a decision modulator rather than a decision driver.

One striking example is literary translation, especially the translation of poetry: Having to juggle with images, syntax, and rhymes across languages and cultures inevitably entails high risks of failing to overcome all the obstacles successfully in the eyes of all readers—including those of the translator. It is difficult to imagine how a translated poem would look and read if it were determined to a large extent by risk management.

Another example is simultaneous interpreting, where, as explained earlier, due to cognitive pressure, there is a constantly high risk of being unable to Translate adequately all the relevant information in source-speech utterances. This is especially true under present working conditions, with many speakers reading written texts at top speed without having provided them in advance to the interpreters to give them a chance to prepare for the task (Seeber, 2017). A systematic major risk-avoidance or risk-reduction component in an interpreter's decision-making behavior would not be compatible with an interpreting career.

A third example can be found in community interpreting in spoken language and signed language settings. Interventionism by interpreters, who are often reported to add explanations, even when doing so goes against the rules of professional codes of conduct, is difficult to explain by risk management as a determinant. It makes more sense to assume that the main driver of such behavior is the wish to help the mediated event unfold successfully and sometimes, as in the case of signed language interpreting, to help a community achieve better recognition and status.

Decision Making, Risk Management, and Effort

Do translators tend to invest as little effort as possible to achieve maximum effect, as postulated by Levý (1967)—without an accompanying explanatory rationale or empirical evidence? According to the law of least effort in human behavior (Zipf, 1949), they would invest as little effort as possible to achieve an acceptable effect, but would they always seek *maximum* effect or even an optimum balance between the amount of effort invested and the effect? This postulate is somewhat paradoxical: To decide which decision will produce a maximum effect, all options need to be considered, which requires significant effort, perhaps more than would be required to only consider options until one is deemed satisfactory, as in Gile's "Sequential Model of Translation." The theory becomes more attractive if it is interpreted not literally but as meaning that translators seek some balance between effort and outcome.

Pym (2015) did not take a position regarding the minimax principle, but he did believe that Translators do and should devote more effort to "high-risk" decisions than to "low-risk" decisions. Presumably, this is a shortcut referring to the stakes.

In his 2015 paper, he looked at translation effort in terms of information gathering. Indeed, when looking for the best translation of a technical term or for adequate phraseology in a particular sociolect in the target language, the main endeavor generally consists of finding adequate documentary and/or human resources and then mining them for information and assessing the information found. Such effort can be measured in hours of work and sometimes in financial cost, but this is not the only type of effort involved. Cognitive effort is also present in proximal translation work, when assessing the plausibility of one's initial understanding of a source-text segment or the linguistic and cultural acceptability and informational fidelity of one's target text in written translation, and—very intensely so—when interpreting, in the simultaneous or consecutive mode. In both these cases, and especially when interpreting, this effort occurs over a short time span for every Translation problem or uncertainty and cannot be measured in hours or financial expenditure. Another effort that has to do with the Translator's mind but is distinct from evaluation-based comparisons of options is the "psychological" effort involved in forcing oneself to adopt a norm-compliant or client preferences–compliant attitude when interpreting in court settings and other public service settings and to resist reactions generated by empathy or antipathy, which might lead to unprofessional behavior. In this case, the effort can be continuous, made over the whole interpreting event, but again cannot be measured in hours of work or financial expenditure.

Another point is that a Translation model that only considers effort in terms of cost does not sufficiently take on ethical principles or even individual psychological factors. Many translators and interpreters take pride in producing good translations, even if high workload, poor working conditions, lack of consideration from employers and other stakeholders, and uninteresting texts and speeches make them less conscientious at times. For them, finding good solutions to translation problems can be a source of satisfaction, even when they entail significant efforts. In conference interpreting, in particular, constant cognitive effort is required to produce reasonably faithful and linguistically acceptable output speeches, to pass tests when applying for positions in international organizations, and to be considered good enough to be hired in the private market. In a recent survey (Zwischenberger, 2017), the main source of satisfaction/dissatisfaction mentioned by conference interpreters was their feeling that their performance was up to their personal standards—or not. Such an attitude is not compatible with a model of decision

making that minimizes one's translation effort on the basis of risk-reduction economics. It may apply in some specific situations but seems hardly appropriate as a general descriptor of Translation behavior.

When Pym said that high-risk segments deserve more effort than low-risk segments, he probably meant that when facing source-speech segments that are difficult to translate, it is reasonable to devote more effort to them when they represent high stakes. But this interpretation applies to potentially high loss and potentially high gain and puts us back in a traditional gain versus loss decision-making perspective.

Moreover, this idea is a reasonable generalization when available "fuel" for efforts—typically, time, financial resources, or attentional resources—is limited to the extent that devoting efforts to one segment will take away resources from another. How often is this the case in written translation? Are translators not frequently in a situation where they have enough time and resources to find satisfactory solutions to most translation problems with reasonable effort expenditure and will be unable to find good solutions to other translation problems even if they devote considerable effort to them, regardless of the level of risk (including losses) they entail?

The parameters and variables involved in effort investment during decision making, including risk-related considerations, are numerous and can arguably be assumed to interact in complex ways. One point that should be kept in mind before making any attempt to generalize is that there are circumstances in which Translators typically devote much effort to producing "good work," circumstances where they are more likely to succumb to the temptation of doing as little as possible to obtain acceptable results, and many cases in between. Examples of the first case are interpreting highly visible speeches by international personalities for TV (see Matsushita, 2019), translating in a competitive environment, interpreting under salient quality control, and translating or interpreting with affective involvement in the outcome of the mediated encounter or publication of a translated text. Examples of the second case can be found in highly repetitive translation of official documents (such as birth certificates). In the first case, it seems reasonable to assume that more than minimum effort will be invested in decisions, even if the potential risk associated with each of them is low. In the second case, it is more likely that Translators will devote markedly more effort to decisions entailing high stakes—provided that their baseline knowledge of relevant information and the source and target languages is sufficient to identify them. This cannot be taken for granted.

The amount of effort invested in decision making in Translation may also depend on the Translator's state of fatigue, which in turn may depend on one's health, general resilience, or even one's biological clock.

A Few Nontrivial Examples of Risk in Interpreting

Much Translation is partly automated, especially with regard to standard or very frequent terms and expressions. In written translation, first drafts are often produced spontaneously on the basis of more or less automated translinguistic mappings and self-revision decisions tend to result from comparative assessments of stylistic and terminological options. There is always the "risk" that one's final choice may be disliked by the reviser or an end reader, but in terms of risk management, this is trivial and does not call for a translation-specific theory. What might be more useful is to explore the frequency of and reasons for less than systematic assessment of various translation solutions by translators: fatigue, insufficient motivation associated with working conditions, insufficient awareness of the cognitive phenomenon of linguistic interference, and so forth.

One interesting case of nontrivial risk is found in a statement by an Arab female conference interpreter collected for a doctoral dissertation (Alhalaki, 2018). In formal conferences, speakers and interpreters are supposed to use formal modern Arabic, in which nouns and adjectives have declensions. One female student interpreter reported that teachers advised her not to vocalize declensions, because if she did, listeners would think "she is in a state of sexual excitation." According to Alhalaki, the explanation lay in the "music" of Arabic when declensions are pronounced, which may sound "sensual." Other Arab interpreters reported feeling hesitant to speak in formal Modern Literary Arabic for fear of sounding pedantic and being laughed at. In both these cases, complying with formal norms is believed to be face-threatening for the interpreters (see also Biagini, Boyd, & Monacelli, 2017).

A somewhat related case is that of signed language interpreters who, when interpreting into a sign language and encountering lexical gaps, select iconic solutions ("visual," in the spirit of sign languages) that can be costly in terms of time and attentional resources and thus interfere with the processing of neighboring segments and cause errors and omissions downstream, whereas less risky solutions, such as mouthing or fingerspelling the spoken language word or an abbreviated version thereof, would be more efficient informationally speaking—but might lead to rejection of the interpreter by deaf people because such methods are associated with the language of the "oppressor" (Pointurier-Pournin, 2014).

What Has the Risk-Management Construct Contributed to Understanding Translation So Far?

Cases of nontrivial risks in Translation are interesting per se and could perhaps be analyzed as a sociolinguistic phenomenon. But do they call for distinct theoretical elaboration? More generally, what is the potential contribution of studies on risk management in TIS?

In translation project management, as addressed by such authors as Akbari (2009), if sufficient reliable data were available, insights could perhaps be gained into potential idiosyncrasies of the behavior of Translation markets and translation actors, in particular clients. On this basis, valuable lessons might be learned beyond existing risk-management theories and practices in business. This would be mostly relevant to the distal part of the Translation process.

As for the proximal part of the process, coordinating the work of the Translators selected to participate in the project with appropriate guidelines, resources, and controls is a matter of quality management aiming at optimal Translation more than a matter of risk management. But in the case of individual translation—on which the discussion by Pym and other authors has focused—the evidence presented so far has not demonstrated convincingly that more effort is devoted to high-stakes translation segments.

Beyond doubts as to the power of risk management to explain translation behavior, there is also an ethical issue. Do professionals not have an ethical obligation to seek satisfactory solutions to all translation problems and only give up after trying hard? In most prescriptive texts on translation found in the literature, especially didactic texts, this is at least implied and should be included as a factor when modeling translation, even though reality can be different, as indeed tends to be the case in all occupations when fatigue and other interfering factors set in.

It is not clear that the concept of risk management has contributed much so far, but it did draw the attention of Translation scholars to a potentially productive research focus. The existing literature on the topic could even have counterproductive effects by favoring "defensive" risk avoidance and risk mitigation that put the Translator's interests first, not the "consumer's" (e.g., Turner & Best, 2017), as opposed to a (positive) achievement-oriented Translation approach. I would argue that this aspect deserves particular attention in Translator training, which should put the focus on achievement, not risk, for at least two reasons:

1. Ethically, it is in the interest of all to maximize quality, even if finding solutions to some translation problems involving low stakes requires effort.
2. Achievement-oriented effort by trainees is an investment that can be expected to improve their knowledge and skills—and to reduce the effort required for future translations with similar challenges.

Conclusion: Operationalizing Research on Risk Management in Decision Making in Translation

The reservations formulated in this paper about the present contributions of risk and risk management should not be interpreted as a claim that risk management is unimportant in Translation. When discussing (and criticizing) "defensive interpreting," Turner and Best (2017) referred to some behavior patterns in community interpreting in spoken and signed language settings that are clearly the result of risk avoidance. Other examples were presented earlier. When this is the case, it would be interesting to find out what effects this has on the Translator's decision and behavior and what the implications are for the users of Translation services.

It would also be useful to analyze risk-related decisions against professional and social norms and ethical considerations.

The very concept of "risk" deserves more solid conceptual reflection. It also deserves empirical investigation, especially regarding the link between the perceived magnitude of potential loss associated with risk and its influence in decision making.

In such exploration, it is necessary to go beyond speculative interpretations of behavior patterns to look for satisfactory indicators. These can come from introspection and retrospection, verbal reports in ethnographic studies, and the comparison of translation decisions in experiments where the level of risk is manipulated because risk may affect decisions without translators' being aware of it (see the enlightening work by Kahneman, 2011, on factors that influence decisions subconsciously, although Kahneman did not mention risk as one of them).

As for the question of how much effort is actually devoted to solving Translation problems, answers can sometimes be quantified with such indicators as the number of documentary sources consulted, the number of self-revisions of one's translation, the time spent gazing at a particular text segment, the expansion of the diameter of one's pupils while processing a text segment, or even brain-imaging techniques, and an increasing number of technological tools offer the possibility of accurate measurements with high time resolution that can be analyzed with statistical processing techniques.

The recent interest in the role of risk in Translation behavior is therefore not unwelcome—provided that it gives rise to rigorous research, with critical reading of existing publications and inferences based on cautious assessment of available data.

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Global Pride: Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion in Interpreting

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Abstract

This open-forum article highlights an interview conducted with Colin Allen, a Visiting Lecturer from the National Technical Institute for the Deaf at Rochester Institute of Technology and Abigail Gorman, an activist and graduate student at Birkbeck College, University of London, in the UK. In this interview, they highlight their experiences while coordinating International Sign interpreters for Global Pride, a virtual international global event that took place in June 2020. This was the first time that Global Pride has provided communication access to the international deaf LGBTIQA+ Community via sign interpreting services. (For the purposes of this article, LGBTQIA+ refers to lesbian, gay, bisexual, trans, intersex, queer, and asexual. The plus sign allows for the inclusion of different subsects, such as allies, polyamorous, androgynous, and pansexual.) Providing sign language access across multiple time zones for a 24-hour livestreamed event was a "first" for both Global Pride organizers and the two deaf interpreter coordinators. Their experiences offer interpreters and educators a glimpse in some of the many exciting developments of a world that has had to pivot a number of conferences and events to online platforms amid a global pandemic.

Keywords: interpreters and interpreter education; International Sign; accredited interpreters; deaf interpreters; online access and equity; policy frameworks, LGBTIQA+; human rights

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Global Pride: Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion in Interpreting

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Deb: Thanks so much for taking time to talk with me about your experiences working with the Global Pride 24- hour event held in June 2020. Can you tell us a little about your journey of involvement in the LGBTIQA+ community?

Colin: As a gay man, I've been involved in the LGBTIQA+ community for many years in Sydney, Australia. I was previously on the board for the Australian Deaf Gay and Lesbian Association. I have also been very active at the international level throughout my involvement in the World Federation of the Deaf (WFD) [and] so have attended events in many countries. As well, I used to work with an HIV and AIDS project, which was designed to raise awareness of HIV for the deaf community. I've also been involved with Sydney Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras, which is a festival that's held during the month of February every year in Sydney. And at the end of Mardi Gras, there's a large parade and then a dance that has probably five or six different shows that take place throughout the night—it starts at 10 p.m. and runs all night to 10 a.m. In the early years, my former partner and I would go, and there were no interpreters for any of those shows, so we lobbied the organizers to provide access for the deaf LGBTIQA+ community, which they agreed to do, so my first experience was very positive. And we were able to involve the deaf and hearing community members to take their place on the stage, and as time has gone on, we've had over 25 years of having interpreting services for those events in our community in Sydney.

Deb: So, why was it important to have International Sign included in Global Pride?

Abigail: As I mentioned in my introduction, inclusivity is important. When you organize an event, it's important to ensure that it's an event where people feel valued and respected and have the same access as others do. For years, the LGBTIQA+ community has fought to gain equal standing in society. To ensure that everyone is truly equal, there must be equitable opportunities for all.

Colin: Why is this important? As I said previously, I've had a great deal of involvement with Sydney Gay and Lesbian Mardi Gras. I've been involved in a number of different pride celebrations throughout the world, be it parades, parties, festivals, and so on. And many of those involve their own country's sign language interpreters being present and making access possible. And then our world was hit with COVID-19. That meant many of the parades and festivals had to be canceled around the world. So, a group of organizers then came to the idea that they could host a global Pride celebration by livestreaming it, as one way to still celebrate in the midst of the pandemic—and make it a 24-hour event beginning June 27. So, about 2 weeks before, around June 11, I saw the Twitter feed that advertised the 24-hour World Pride event, so I responded on Twitter asking if they were providing International Sign interpreting and captioning services. They responded to me and indicated that they were not providing that service. That didn't sit well for me, so I reached out to Abigail, and she began engaging with them on Twitter, too, so both of us were putting pressure on them, to which they said they were providing sign language interpreting. Abigail then asked them the pointed question—which sign language were they providing?

We moved from Twitter to engaging in email correspondences with them, only to realize that they were planning to offer American Sign Language interpreting. The two of us took on the task of trying to educate them. We used a lot of information from the WFD[2] and the World Association of Sign Language Interpreters (WASLI) regarding International Sign. We then requested a Zoom meeting. So, from the initial Twitter engagement on Sunday, to the subsequent emails, within 2 days, we were able to have a virtual meeting. Our conversation meant that Abigail and I could spend a great deal of time talking to them about the fact that, given their goal of hosting a world Pride event, using American Sign Language (ASL) is great, but that doesn't provide access to the rest of the world who don't understand ASL.

2 See: http://wfdeaf.org/our-work/wfd-wasli-international-sign-interpreter-accreditation/wfd-wasli-accredited-is-interpreter/

Abigail: If people from various countries do not share a common language, International Sign (IS) can be used to ensure smooth communication by using various methods, such as iconic signs and loan signs from various countries. The main reason for deciding to use IS instead of ASL lies in the name of the event…Global Pride! This will be seen from many countries all over the world, and it was noted that not everyone will have had the opportunity to learn ASL, so IS was deemed appropriate for this event.

Colin: Right! So, we talked about sign language, how there are approximately 300 different sign languages in the world, and that there is International Sign. I have had the privilege of being involved with WFD, and I have had a great working relationship with WASLI, so we talked about where IS interpreting is used—for example, at WFD congresses, WASLI conferences, Deaflympics, and so on. The whole conversation was a huge eye-opener for them, and they made the decision at that moment to change from ASL to using International Sign. So, in the back of my mind, I thought, "Can they actually pull all of this together in just a couple of weeks?" So, then Abigail and I realized we would need to support them in a huge way and take on the task of bringing International Sign to this event. So, why this is so important is that because it is Global Pride, it's livestreamed. If we didn't take a stand on this, the global deaf LGBTIQA+ community would have no access to the livestream event. So, we're talking about equal access and inclusion—it's a human rights approach.

Deb: So, how did you determine the criteria for the team? How many deaf and nondeaf interpreters were part of the team?

Abigail: Initially, IS interpreters accredited by the World Federation of the Deaf and World Association of the Sign Language Interpreters were contacted. As a result, nine of the 29 accredited IS interpreters submitted an expression of interest. As this was insufficient to meet the need, nonaccredited IS interpreters were headhunted based on their past experience of interpreting in informal settings. To ensure standards were maintained within this group, people who had completed the European Master in Sign Language Interpreting (EUMASLI) degree were also approached and included, as they had all studied in International Sign and were viewed as potential IS interpreters. Of the 27 nonaccredited International Sign interpreters contacted, 11 indicated interest, meaning that, in total, there were 20 IS interpreters to facilitate interpreting for Global Pride 2020. We ha[d] interpreters from Canada, Scotland, USA, France, Australia, Argentina, Fiji, New Zealand, Italy, Austria, Spain, and the Netherlands.

Colin: Our email provided all the information and asked them to respond quickly, within 48 hours, understanding that this was volunteer service. Given the event was going to cover a full 24-hour period, across multiple time zones, we asked if the interpreters would provide an hour or two of service. So, we started to get responses back, and we had nine accredited interpreters confirm. We quickly realized that we didn't have sufficient capacity within that accredited group. Then, we identified names of deaf and hearing nonaccredited interpreters that we felt met the experience criteria and emailed all of them, and this group had only 24 hours to reply to us. In the end, we were able to get over 20 interpreters in just a matter of 4 days—that was amazing, and I think speaks to the commitment of the interpreters to ensure access for the LGBTIQA+ community. It was interesting because 14 out of the 20 were deaf interpreters, and of these, seven were WFD-WASLI–accredited deaf interpreters. They also worked with a co-interpreter who could feed them in a national sign language[3], or the deaf interpreter could choose to work from the captioning; however, the majority of them worked with feed interpreters.

Deb: It seems phenomenal that you were able to pull together that many IS interpreters in just a few days. So, then the event took place—what were the challenges in coordinating once the event launched?

Abigail: There were various challenges: timing, technology, preparation, and scheduling. The organization from our side was done in such a short time, and if we had more time, we would've been able to use it to source more qualified interpreters, ensure that they had enough time to prepare their materials, and have appropriate time to discuss with their co-workers. The interpreters received the prep materials the day before, and for some, it was hours! The schedule continued to change throughout the event, which meant our interpreters worked for longer than they were supposed to and were not able to prepare for those materials, but they took it in their stride and did well.

Colin: That's a great summary. I would add that, fortunately, Abigail and I had experience working together previously for WFD congresses. Abigail is a strong lobbyist, and she is great with social media. Abigail knows the U.K. context, and I know

3 For further description of deaf and hearing interpreters working in a model of co-interpreting, see Russell & Stone (2011); the concept is similar to spoken language interpreters relying on another interpreters' interpretation (pivot interpreter) to construct their target language interpretation.

the Australian picture, plus both of us are very familiar with the international deaf and the deaf LGBTIQA+ community. One of the first challenges was to think about how to get the interpreters on the livestream because the organizers had already made 26 hours, not 24 hours, of prefilmed content to stream. So, the organizers used Zoom to embed the sign language interpreting on the screen.

We asked the organizers to create some guidelines or instructions for the interpreters, and when we received them, we had to edit them and add to them, in order to have it explicit for the interpreters. We were fortunate to have Alex Jones work with us, as he was very familiar with the technology required to do the Picture in Picture with the interpreters, so in the end, we had the logistics sorted, and the interpreters received that information just 3 hours before the event launched. Global Pride in San Francisco, USA, had two people splitting the responsibility for managing all the technical aspects. Our next challenge was the time zones; between San Francisco, Abigail in London, and me in Rochester, New York, there was 5 hours between us. In terms of the launch, it was 1 a.m. for me and 6 a.m. for Abigail—and she was the lead on the implementation. We had direct access to the technicians in San Francisco through text. Given that the interpreters got the technical specification so last minute, one of the additional challenges was to make sure that the interpreters understood the technology.

When the Global Pride content was being played, there was one interpreter on screen. But there were unanticipated problems with that in that the interpreters were placed in the bottom-right-hand corner versus the top-right-hand corner. Sometimes the captioning and/or the Global Pride logo blocked the image of interpreter.

Abigail: With clear communication, patience, and a good attitude, we resolved most of the issues. Everyone was aware that this was all done at the last minute, but it also had the potential to reach so many people around the world, and they were understanding and supportive when things didn't go as expected, which bolstered us all even more.

Colin: We set up a WhatsApp group for all of the interpreters, and then we had separate groups, organized per the four different time shifts. So, we kept feeding information to the team especially so that the teams had the live current schedule changes, knew when to switch, and we could agree upon signs tht were effective and so on. We had also asked for and received a run of show which had over 800 different names, but the timing was not identified. And we received that 2 days before, which meant that Abigail and I had very little time to try and figure out which language each speaker was using, in an attempt to match interpreters with those languages.

The organizers said that 90% of the content was captioned in English; however, they were streaming through YouTube, which has auto-captioning that conflicted. However, the technicians were able to solve that problem. We had other glitches in that some of the interpreters were working with Wi-Fi that wasn't stable, or there were times when the Spanish speaker was spotlighted, and the interpreter was not visible, and there was no captioning for the speech. Other times, the interpreting was significantly behind the speaker, or the interpreting was choppy, so next time, we know the interpreters need to be plugged in to the Internet and not using a Wi-Fi network, as it doesn't provide the stability needed for quality interpretation. Finally, Abigail and I worked for over 25 hours straight with no sleep in order to coordinate this event, so it would have been great to have a larger coordinating team.

The communication through WhatsApp with the interpreters was one solution to time zones. Getting the technical descriptions is important, and the Picture in Picture worked well for the prerecorded content; however, the picture size was small. Again, we were late to the game—receiving the information 1 week in advance would have given us time to realize that it was better to have the interpreter higher on the screen. Next time, we will need to be clearer about the feed interpreter processes—for example, it would be better for the co-interpreters to be in the same room as the deaf interpreter; some of them were working from a distance, which also created some challenges.

Deb: Despite the challenges, it sounds like there were a number of aspects that worked really well.

Colin: The fact that the interpreters stepped forward to do this work with very little notice was just great, and they were so flexible. So, it was a privilege for the two of us to provide support to them. We had asked them to evaluate the event, and we got a huge response, which was great, and that information can inform the organizers as they continue to offer online events. Obviously, there are some things that would increase the quality of interpretation, including the timing of getting information, more clear scheduling, and detailed run of show time frames, ensuring the interpreters could preview the videos, and so on, but overall, this event was viewed as a huge success—the Twitter and Facebook messaging was incredibly positive from our global deaf LGBTIQA+ community and our allies.

We had a meeting 1 day before with the team to talk about some of the terminology for LGBTIQA+ in International Sign, and it was very helpful to agree upon appropriate terms. The WhatsApp group really was a successful piece of being able to communicate behind the scenes.

Abigail: I would say it would be the attitudes of the interpreters. They all supported each other and provided encouragement and praise. From the audience, they said it was amazing to be able to access it at any time during the day, just like everyone else did.

Deb: Would you do it again, and if so, what would you do differently?

Colin: Would I do it again? Absolutely—I would do it differently, of course. What I would do differently, obviously, is to have much more advanced planning and form a larger coordinating team. There was only two of us, and we needed a coordinating team of four, so that we could have each taken a 6-hour shift. I think those are two things. The run of show timing in advance would have been helpful, and getting the lyrics to the songs in advance would have been very helpful. One of the interesting pieces was that several of those interpreters were uncomfortable interpreting songs, leaving a much smaller group willing to do music. Despite having a program, it appeared to keep changing, and we would have no advance notice of that change. For example, one interpreter from Fiji was prepared to do the "YMCA" song, and the technician didn't switch to him, so the first interpreter that hadn't prepared for the music was left to do it. The interpreters demonstrated a great deal of flexibility throughout their shifts.

One of the learnings was working with the interpreters who were not yet accredited. They were nervous about being on the international platform and were very open to feedback. Many of them acknowledged that they felt like they defaulted to interpreting into American Sign Language, especially when they struggled to represent the concepts in full visual International Sign. It's really important that we have a strong cadre of International Sign interpreters. Obviously, they need training, and how and where to get that training is challenging. Many of those interpreters that we watched had a great deal of potential. Potentially, nine out of the 11 should seriously think about applying for the accreditation process, as they're very close. But the training for this specialized area is key—we had one interpreter that used a sign that may be accepted in the Asia Pacific but was offensive and perceived very negatively by [the] global deaf community. So, it would be good to have a group that really ha[s] a solid understanding of the terminology and the philosophies that frame this work.

Abigail: It is necessary to receive the running sheet showing the sequencing of performances and including confirmed songs with videos in sufficient time so that interpreters can be scheduled appropriately and logistics worked out, in advance of its release to the interpreters. It is vital that all interpreters have access to all videos with captions. Receipt of videos via Dropbox proved challenging for some interpreters who may have been unfamiliar with some of the computer applications used [almost all the interpreters were not able to access the full 2-hour video segments via their laptop, although it was available via iPad]. To alleviate concerns about redistribution of videos, videos sent to interpreters could have a watermark stating "Not intended for public use" on them. There needs to be further dialogue about what is reasonable in terms of size of the Picture in Picture (PIP) on screen, as there were a number of occasions when the PIP appeared to block the open captions or organizational logos during the event. It would be ideal to have training for the technical team so that basic signs could be shared so there was no confusion as to when the switch between interpreters should occur and to cover other relevant issues. Finally, the key coordinator(s) should be notified of any changes to the running sheet, delays experienced during screening, or decisions made to replace songs because the interpreters undertook significant preparation prior to their appearance and needed to be aware if last-minute changes occurred.

Ideally, the coordination team should have at least four coordinators, with each to be responsible for 7 hours of performances during the 26-hour event. The coordinators need to be involved from the start of the planning for the event, with a representative from this group to attend meetings with the executive production team. The members of the coordination team need to ensure effective communication with each other, including understanding the challenges involved, the commitment required, and the need to regularly check messages received via the WhatsApp Group to ensure the next coordinator is fully aware of any changes. All of the coordinators should be included in all email correspondence, which would assist all coordinators to know what had been discussed or any changes which arise throughout the event.

Deb: What is one takeaway that you think educators, interpreters, and organizers need to pay attention to?

Colin: So, when we think about Global Pride, it is so key that interpreting services be provided in the most universally accepted manner, and they had absolutely no problem with the concept of providing access—they were 100% in. They had just a fabulous attitude towards it. I would say that in my experience working at the global level with the LGBTIQA+ community, this was one of the most positive experiences. These organizers really understood the significance of quality and inclusion for the deaf community, and especially the deaf LGBTIQA+ group.

Ironically, there are times within organizations in the deaf community where we have to really fight for access. But within this minority group, it was the LGBTIQA+ community who understood the significance of being able to accommodate us from a human rights and linguistic rights point of view. Contrast that with national deaf associations, who can have a negative attitude towards access and make the argument that it always comes down to money. Now, in this situation, we had 20 volunteers, and maybe that's why it was successful. If it had to be a paid issue, maybe the organizers would have been less interested in providing access.

Abigail: Our advice to those training IS interpreters is to ensure that you have a mix of deaf and hearing people who have experience in interpreting. Bring in deaf people to practice with. As mentioned before, IS is quickly evolving, and young people are using technology to communicate with each other more than before. This means their IS will be at a faster pace than what is used at conferences—interpreters should have training with people of all ages to learn how to adapt to speed and registers.

Create a survey to ask deaf people what they would like to see from IS interpreters, how to work together, and what they think is good practice and implement the feedback in your training.

Actively seek out people from a variety of backgrounds and encourage them to get into IS interpreting. The current WFD/WASLI accreditation list is hearing-/White-/male-heavy. Work with associations to create more pathways for IS interpreters.

Colin: My advice to educators training interpreters for international work is this: The International Sign needs to be taught by deaf instructors that are familiar with the global use of International Sign. While there are some hearing instructors who may also have international experience, they will typically have a sign language accent based on their national sign language, be that ASL, BSL, Auslan, etc. Work with qualified and experienced deaf instructors. The specific lexicon expected in the event needs to be discussed during training, so in this context, terminology related to the LGBTIQA+ community, what is visually appropriate and acceptable for a global audience, and how to work with feed interpreters to achieve the best interpretation. The training can happen in face-to-face training and/or remotely. We have seen several countries train interpreters using instructors from outside the country by employing technology like Zoom.

Abigail: For organizers, accessibility should not be an afterthought—seek out guidelines for accessibility and bring in people with adequate knowledge and skills to work together to provide access. There's nothing about us without us; bring deaf people into the team to work with you. We will be able to identify blind spots and come up with solutions. We're able to offer insights and ideas that you may have not previously thought of. We have experience in this area and have a network of contacts, as proven with Global Pride. Some additional points for conference organizers based on our final evaluation: There should be a balance between gender, race, sexuality, age, region, and individuals who are deaf or can hear within the interpreting team. Interpreters should undertake a test run prior to the event to ensure that lighting and dress code is appropriate. There should be representation of differing genders within each team. All of the interpreters should be required to be available for at least 2 hours instead of just 1 hour during an event, if at all possible, as interpreters tend to perform better after "warming up" and in case of mishaps or time overruns so that substitutions can be made, if necessary. When performances are not available in English or with English captions, the key coordinator(s) need to be notified so that interpreters can be organized and slots can be allocated to those who have the required language proficiency. Interpreters need to be sure that their Internet connections are sufficiently robust for both plug-in connections and Wi-Fi. Feeds should use Zoom to feed their deaf interpreter partners so that the IS interpreters are able to interpret simultaneously rather than relying on the delayed coverage via YouTube or the specific host organization's website. The key coordinator should organize a meeting with all interpreters prior to an event to address any issues and confirm relevant signs at least 1 week prior to an event. The interpreters should arrange time to meet their co-interpreters, to facilitate rotation arrangements, and to discuss other relevant issues prior to an event.

Colin: For conference organizers, our advice is this: If you are planning an international event, plan for and, if possible, budget accordingly, to hire accredited International Sign interpreters. The WFD-WASLI list is public, and that represents the most qualified interpreters. We saw through this experience that there is a place for using nonaccredited interpreters, *if* there is sufficient support prior to and during an event. However, the risk is that many of them defaulted to using AS, so ensuring the nonaccredited interpreters have some training and have some international experience is helpful. So, work with a deaf-led interpreter coordinating team from the beginning of the planning process and accept their advice, as they will know how to make the event successful.

Abigail: For interpreters wanting to provide IS, our advice is this: to attend more international events. IS is evolving at a quick pace, and there are many different contexts as to where it is used. The formal style is used at events such as WFD, WFD Youth Section (WFDYS), EUD, EUDY, and so on, whereas the informal style is used in sports, Clin d'Oeil, and so on. Interpreters should be able to pick up various registers and speeds and be able to match the signers. This is best done when you assimilate yourself within the community. Accept bookings that you are suitable for. Recognize the importance of power relationships—do not monopolize bookings, especially if there is already a known issue between you and the client.

Deb: What should I have asked you and I haven't?

Abigail: Perhaps a question about how we felt about the diversity of the interpreters and whether it has an influence on their performance. For example, in this situation, our preference was obviously LGBTIQA+ interpreters—but because we wanted qualified IS interpreters, we approached the accredited interpreters first. I think it would also be good to consider the idea of setting up, not necessarily working groups but, rather, specialized groups that people can go to for bookings. It would've been good if we could send a request to a group of LGBTIQA interpreters. Some interpreters did not understand or know LGBTIQA+ culture and used inappropriate signs—for example, one straight interpreter used gay penetrative sex for one sign. This is not to say that they were being intentionally offensive, but if it was a LGBTIQA+ interpreter, another choice of sign would have been used.

For future events, it would be ideal if prerecorded videos of the interpretation of each performance could be finalized and submitted to the host organization at least 2 weeks prior to the event. These videos could then be embedded on the "master" prerecorded video, which would alleviate a number of challenges which occurred because the interpreting was performed live. Consideration should be given to offering a variety of language caption options (such as French, Arabic, Russian, Chinese, Spanish) to enable everyone to enjoy the performances in their preferred language (particularly if they are not fluent in English)— this would not only benefit deaf and hard-of-hearing people but, more broadly, the wider audience.

Deb: Thank you so much for taking time to speak with me and for your activism that brought the deaf world full access to Global Pride. What you pulled off in just days speaks to your amazing leadership at the international level and your ability to mobilize interpreters in the call of service.

Colin and Abigail: Thank you so much for your interest.

Additional Reading

Michaels, P., & Gorman, A. (2020). Two communities, one family: Experiences of young deaf LGBT+ people living in a minority within a minority. In A. Toft & A. Franklin (Eds.), *Young, disabled and LGBT+: Voices, identities and intersections* (pp. 125–141). New York: Routledge.

Stone, C., & Russell, D. (2011). Interpreting in International Sign: Decisions of deaf and non-deaf interpreters. In B. Costello, M. Thumann, & R. Shaw (Eds.), *Proceedings of the 4th Conference of the World Association of Sign Language Interpreters, Durban, South Africa, July 14–16* (pp. 100–118). WASLI 2011 Conference Proceedings.

Dissertation Abstracts

In this section, we feature abstracts of recently completed doctoral or master's theses. If you have recently completed a master's or PhD thesis in the field of interpreter or translator education and would like it to be included, please send an abstract of 200–300 words to citjournaleditor@gmail.com. We urge all academic supervisors to encourage their students to submit abstracts of their completed dissertations for inclusion in the next issue of the journal to help disseminate new research and to support the next generation of academic researchers.

Stories of Leaving: A Multiple Case Study of the Attrition of Novice American Sign Language-English Interpreters

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Degree: PhD thesis, Gallaudet University

Abstract

Communication access is a legislated right for deaf people in many settings in the United States; however, the number of professional signed language interpreters does not meet the demand for services (NCIEC, 2009b; NIEC, 2015). One factor of the demand-supply imbalance may be attributed to the number of individuals who exit the interpreting profession at an early stage in their career while still novice interpreters. Using the theoretical framework of attraction, selection, and attrition (ASA) from applied and organizational psychology (Schneider, 1987), along with person-organization fit (PO Fit), as described by Caplan (2011), I examine attrition of individuals from early professional interpreting practice. I surmise that throughout the cycle of ASA, individuals and the profession are continuously examining dimensions of PO Fit, and, for some, disruptions arise in the conceptualization of fit. The results of this multiple case study will increase understanding of attrition in the signed language interpreting profession and may lead to a set of strategies to help individuals assess their fit with the profession. Further, the findings may assist members of the interpreting profession to develop ways to address issues of fit when barriers arise. Critically, retention of signed language interpreters may result in a greater number of available practitioners to provide communication access for the deaf community.

Keywords: attrition, signed language interpreters, attraction-selection-attrition (ASA), person-organization fit

Swift Trust Formation: Experiences of Deaf Consumers and ASL-English Interpreters

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Abstract

Deaf individuals and nondeaf signed language interpreters have experienced a complex symbiotic relationship complicated by the initial move toward professionalization in the 1970s. As a result of this shift from an ad hoc endeavor to a professional one, the need to develop trusting relationships among the members of both communities has increased importance. Using the framework of swift trust formation (Meyerson et al., 1996), this study examines six communication dyads made up of deaf consumers and nondeaf ASL-English interpreters unfamiliar to one another ahead of an authentic interpreter-mediated setting. Findings suggest that when interpreters initiated a two-phase preparation process that included independent preparation before the dyad's initial meeting, the likelihood increased that the deaf consumer would make a positive trustworthiness determination of the interpreter. Recommendations for interpreter educators and practitioners provide tangible means to implement effective swift trust-building strategies in rapidly developing settings, thereby enhancing the deaf consumer's experience.

Keywords: deaf individuals, nondeaf signed language interpreters, communication dyads, swift trust formation, deaf consumer's experience

Interpreting While Black: A Phenomenological Study of the Lived Reality of African American ASL-English Interpreters

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Abstract

This study illuminates the lived reality of African American ASL-English interpreters through the lens of hermeneutic phenomenology. Five participants engaged in a three-part interview protocol, and data were analyzed by using a thematic approach. Results reveal the resiliency that African American interpreters exhibit when confronting the pernicious effects of racism in their personal and professional lives by drawing upon their cultural heritage and community connections. For African American interpreters, the phenomenon of interpreting while Black suggests that when on an interpreting assignment, race can be an asset and a liability. The data further illustrate that spaces of, by, and for people of color are essential in individual and collective liberation. This study adds to an emerging literature about the lived experience of African American signed language interpreters.

Keywords: African American signed language interpreters, racism, resilience, phenomenological study, lived experience

Exploring the Exploitation of the Ally Model in Spoken-Language Interpreting From a Service-User Perspective

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Abstract

Community interpreting—performed to assist immigrants who are not native speakers of a language and facilitate their access to statutory services (Collard-Abbas, 1989)—involves members of the dominant culture who can speak the dominant language and immigrants or refugees who cannot. Because of this, power differences are always at play in interpreting, and a critical analysis of the role of the interpreter makes society's marginalization and oppression dynamics visible. Unlike the conduit model, the ally model of interpreting, which arose together with the deaf civil-rights movement in the United States, acknowledges the power differentials at play during any interpreted event, focusing on the consumers of interpreting services. Interpreters working within this model consciously choose to act in ways that will actively help empower the party who cannot speak the majority language, offering greater equality of access.

The majority of the research on allyship in relation to interpreting exists within the field of signed languages, where power imbalances are more readily identified, given that deafness is often understood as a disability (Baker-Shenk, 1986; Doe, 2004). In the field of spoken-language interpreting, allyship has been overlooked and often condemned by researchers as problematic (Hsieh et al., 2013). Moreover, there is limited research into "users' experiences of interpreters, both professional and informal, from their own point of view" (Edwards et al., 2005, p. 78). Because interpreting is a social service, the voices of the oppressed immigrant and refugee communities in need of these services must become key drivers of change in interpreting theory and practice so that interpreting can meet the expectations of those who need this service the most. Informed by a horizontal methodology, my research employs one-on-one dialogues with interpreting service users and a group dialogue involving users, interpreters, and community representatives to study whether there is room for the application of ally theory to spoken-language interpreting.

Keywords: community interpreting, ally model, ally theory, oppressed migrant and refugee communities, horizontal methodology, interpreting service users, spoken-language interpreters

La interpretación sanitaria en los hospitales públicos de la isla de Gran Canaria: situación actual y protocolo de actuación / Health Care Interpreting in Public Hospitals of Gran Canaria: Current Situation and Action Protocol

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Abstract

The main objective of this study is to find out how the health care staff from the two public hospitals in Gran Canaria communicate with foreign patients and which solutions are carried out to solve communication problems when they appear. With this study, I would like to help raise awareness about the need to have an interpreting service in the public hospitals in Gran Canaria. This thesis is divided into three main sections. First, I present the theoretical framework that consists of seven chapters going from general to specific content, explaining what interpreting is and framing health care interpreting. The second large section is devoted to the empirical study. Before presenting the data of the final study, I focus on the preliminary study that was part of my MA dissertation, carried out during the academic year 2016–2017. The information gathered then

gave me an insight into what I would later develop in 2018–2019 as the core chapter of this thesis. By interviewing health care professionals, I aimed to find out how health care staff in Gran Canaria communicate with those foreign patients who do not speak Spanish. This study finds that health care professionals are sure to have communication problems and try to solve them by devising solutions to communicate with the foreign patient due to the absence of an interpreting service. Some of the participants use nonverbal communication with the patients, others call a colleague who knows the foreign language, and some even call an external person (usually relatives of the patients) to be able to communicate appropriately with these users who do not speak the local language. The last section of my thesis focuses on designing and explaining an action protocol. This protocol includes the development of different proposals, including a face-to-face interpreting service, a telephone and videoconference interpreting service, or a combination of both. One of the proposals that I suggest follows the interpreting model that is currently working in Auckland, New Zealand.

Keywords: public service interpreting, navigation and interpreting services, health care interpreter, communication with patient