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Editorial: Creating Connections Between Inquiry and Education

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Welcome to the first issue of Volume 9 of the *International Journal of Interpreter Education*. This issue offers a thought-provoking array of insights into the connection between research inquiry and interpreter education—which forms the very heart of this journal. IJIE's inaugural editor Jemina Napier (2009), in her first editorial, wrote, "[Interpreter education research] provides us with the opportunity to compare educational outcomes with real-world expectations. It presents us with the challenge of identifying what else we need to know about interpreting in order to improve the education of interpreters" (p. 1). Certainly in the last couple of decades we have learnt a lot more about the interpreter's role, for example, as an active participant in the co-construction of talk (e.g., Angelelli, 2004; Napier, 2007) and as a professional whose role inhabits different spaces depending on the demands and characteristics of different settings and interactions (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013). Contributions in this journal have explored innovative ways to bring new theory into to the interpreting classroom (both face-to-face and online). Nonetheless, there is still much to learn about what interpreters do in interaction, and about how best to bring this to the classroom and connect theory to practice in a clear and useful way. Each of the contributions in this volume presents some suggestions.

Volume 9(1) is the first since IJIE became an open-access journal, meaning that all volumes, past and present, are now accessible without any subscription or membership. This change is an important step forward for the journal and its status, as it will not only create opportunities for sharing scholarship in wider circles, but also lead to more citations of our articles. Please share this news and encourage your colleagues and students to go to the CIT website[2] to see some of the fabulous resources that are now freely available.

Contributions to this issue come from the United Kingdom, United States, New Zealand and Belgium. They tackle an array of topics, from social media to legal interpreting to a report on a recent symposium. All authors highlight the immense and practical value of making explicit links between research and education, demonstrating the ways educators can use those research findings to improve teaching or better engage interpreting students.

In the first research article in this issue, Brett Best explores the pervasive topic of social media, examining interpreters' use of Facebook and Twitter. Best held focus groups with signed language interpreters from the U.S., U.K. and Denmark. Participants reported on specific strategies for managing their 'professional' selves within this domain. The study uncovered interesting findings in terms of what participants felt is and is not permissible to share on social media, particularly related to posting about events or pictures of themselves working at events on

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[2] http://www.cit-asl.org/new/ijie/

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Facebook. Interpreter use of social media has received attention in recent years, including at the 2013 InterpretAmerica Summit, as well as in the StreetLeverage post by Wing Butler (2012)—who advises interpreters to "pause before you post". In our own experience, we see students generating questions, concerns, and ideas about how social media relates to their developing professional identities. Best's article will help spark discussion in professional development and interpreting classrooms.

Our next two research articles focus more closely on the interpreting classroom, in particular, on assessment of student interpreting. Lydia Ding's paper reports on two methods of interpreting quality assessment: the holistic method and the propositional analysis method. She describes the holistic method as a process for monitoring students' overall performance and progress, although she notes that there is always potential for subjectivity. Propositional analysis is a micro analysis with a strong focus on accuracy at a propositional level. Ding discusses the merits of each assessment method as well as how they can be used in tandem, and offers examples to illustrate the process in action.

The contribution by Jo Anna Burn and Ineke Crezee also reflects the connection between assessment and instruction: Their paper reports on a small study which set out to expose student legal interpreters to naturalistic language used in the New Zealand courtroom environment by way of audiovisual practice. They provide a brief overview of question types used by lawyers during (cross-) examination and then an analysis of student renditions of these question types. The authors argue the benefits of exposing trainee students to such naturalistic language in what they call a 'safe' (classroom) environment, which educators can now better achieve thanks to the VoiceThread modality on the Blackboard Learning Management system (see Webb & Ehrlich, 2016, for a detailed discussion of ways to use VoiceThread in the online interpreting classroom). Not only are students removed from the actual high-consequence legal setting, but as they work with the texts in VoiceThread, students can pause audiovisual clips when they reach 'tightrope' situations (Gile, 2009, as cited in Heydon & Lai, 2015) where cognitive overload threatens.

The research articles are followed by open forum contributions. We begin with Lori Whynot's reflection on the recent 2017 Symposium on Signed Language Interpretation and Translation Research (March 31–April 2, 2017), hosted by the Department of Interpretation and Translation at Gallaudet University and the Center for the Advancement of Interpreting and Translation Research. Practitioners and educators gained insights from presenters from the U.S. and Austria, Norway, China, the U.K., Hong Kong, Canada, Ghana, and Australia. Whynot offers an insightful summary of the overarching themes of this symposium, including details about interesting presentations and keynotes as well as the impact of these for the delegates from her perspective as a practitioner, researcher and educator. We are grateful to Lori Whynot for bringing a taste of the exciting programme to those of us who could not be there in person.

Next, in an interview, Debra Russell introduces Myriam Vermeerbergen, who joined the Editorial Board of IJIE in 2016. Vermeerbergen shares her interesting personal and professional journey, from an initial interest in signed languages to her role as coordinator of the interpreting programme at the Catholic University of Leuven in Belgium and her repute as a researcher in the fields of signed language and interpreting.

This issue also offers two reviews of recently published books, both more focused on signed language interpreting but nonetheless relevant also to spoken language interpreters and educators. Rachel McKee reviews a collection of papers from the first International Symposium on Signed Language Interpretation and Translation Research (that is, the forerunner to the symposium that Lori Whynot reflects on, also in this issue): *Signed Language Interpretation and Translation Research: Selected Papers from the First International Symposium,* edited by Brenda Nicodemus and Keith Cagle (2015). McKee describes the high calibre of studies selected for the volume, reflecting on this as evidence that signed language interpreting is becoming 'a subject of graduate level study, which develops practitioners equipped for critical enquiry' (p.67, this volume). She highlights the prevalence of 'practisearchers'—those who create connections between inquiry and education by formulating research questions that are relevant to practitioners, based on their insider knowledge. She also notes the increasing connections between sign language interpreting and scholars in the field of T&I and sociolinguistics.

Rachel Mapson reviews Jemina Napier's 2016 book *Linguistic Coping Strategies in Sign Language Interpreting,* based on her doctoral research published 15 years earlier. The research originally appeared at a time in which signed language interpreting research was starting to come into its own, and it focuses on two linguistic coping strategies in interpreting: translational styles and omissions. Mapson explains that the availability of Napier's thesis is beneficial to interpreter educators and student interpreters in two ways. It provides a useful guide to different types of omissions and some of the underlying factors, and it also demonstrates that when

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students are made aware of issues relating to interpreter style in training, they can learn to to strategically use style to best effect. Napier's work (a text we use with our own interpreting students in New Zealand) again strengthens the strong connection between inquiry and education.

The *International Journal of Interpreter Education* represents the voices of interpreter educators, interpreting practitioners and researchers from different countries around the world. We ask you to encourage your students to send in submissions for our Student Work section and to submit abstracts of completed dissertations (master's or PhD) so that we can revive the Dissertation Abstracts section in the next issue of the journal, and help disseminate new research relating to interpreter and translator education.

In addition to articles based on empirical research, we also welcome commentary and open forum submissions (book reviews, pedagogical ideas and observations, interviews, and reflections on relevant events such as conferences). For our next issue, we are particularly interested in submissions around the theme of situated learning—beyond the classroom. IJIE continues to be a platform for international scholars, practitioners, and educators to share insights about the connections between research and practice, inquiry and education, and critical reflection on these. In the words of well-known educator Paulo Freire (1998, p. 35):

> *There is no such thing as teaching without research and research without teaching.*

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'Look-at-me' Versus 'Look-at-this': Signed Language Interpreters' Perceptions of Promotion on Facebook

Brett Best[1]

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Abstract

This article reports on a study exploring signed language interpreters' perceptions of promotion on Facebook. Due to the global prevalence of Facebook, this study incorporated an international perspective by holding focus groups comprising 12 signed language interpreters from three nations: the United States, the United Kingdom, and Denmark. Facebook was perceived as a beneficial tool for promoting awareness and information about professional news and for implicit professional self-promotion. Specific strategies were reported for managing professional presentations of self on the social networking site. Interpreters promoting accessibility at events where their presence was requested was deemed acceptable, but further research is needed to conclusively determine common perspectives on an interpreter sharing information via Facebook about a public interpreting event after the fact. Participants in this study felt it was permissible for Deaf clients to post pictures or videos of working interpreters on Facebook but less so for the interpreters to post such media of themselves.

Keywords: Facebook, promotion, self-promotion, professionalism, e-professionalism, self-presentation

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Interpreters' perceptions of promotion on Facebook

'Look-at-me' Versus 'Look-at-this': Signed Language Interpreters' Perceptions of Promotion on Facebook

This article reports on an exploratory study into signed language interpreters'perceptions about promotion on Facebook. Facebook is the world's largest social networking platform, both in terms of active users and global reach (The Statistics Portal, 2015) and has been acknowledged as an effective medium for professional promotion, including both promotion of information and self-promotion (Lagenfeld, Cook, Sudbeck, Luers, & Schenarts, 2014). With new social and professional norms evolving in the online domain (Anderson & Rainie, 2010; Cain & Romanelli, 2009), it is interesting to explore how promotion may be manifesting in the interpreting profession and how professionals perceive these developments. Hence this research seeks insight into the question of how signed language interpreters perceive promotion on Facebook.

This issue is of particular relevance to interpreter trainers and interpreting students. Research (Anderson & Rainie, 2010; Fuchs, 2014) points to a new culture forming online and dissimilarities in how different generations use social media (Joiner et al., 2013; Lee & Ho, 2011; Qualman, 2013). Best (2016) asks if this new culture might impact perceptions of professional appropriateness of posts online and lead to differing expectations of more experienced and novice interpreters, such as interpreter educators and students. Generational differences of professional social media usage and expectations remain to be explored; this study was an initial inquiry into perceptions of one specific facet of online culture: online promotion. Greater insight into perceptions of professional expressions and utilization of social networking sites like Facebook for promotional purposes may enable interpreters, clients, educators, interpreting agencies and other stakeholders to proactively engage in constructive dialogue on how to leverage social media and share influence in evolving professional standards.

1.   Promotion

The issue of interpreters and self-promotion via social media has been explicitly addressed in published material, but scholarly research is lacking. However, important professional discussions are taking place around these issues, which may lead to further research. While this research study focuses on signed language interpreters, the following exploration of the available literature regarding social media and promotion encompasses both spoken and signed language interpreting, and general professional use of Facebook.

1.1. *Promotion via Facebook*

Researchers such as Lagenfeld et al. (2014) have identified benefits that professionals may gain from using Facebook, including information promotion, self-promotion and advertisement. Facebook allows its users to very quickly reach a large audience and share content in multiple formats such as text, pictures and video, making it an especially powerful medium for advertisement and promotion. In fact, research on professional use of Facebook (Jain et al., 2014) has shown that sharing pictures is one of the top reasons that people use the site. Social media skills on sites such as Facebook are also mentioned as important for personal branding, network building, credibility, attracting interest and other aspects of general professional self-promotion (Kleiman & Cooper, 2011). Professionals find Facebook useful for promotion of information and events; through Facebook practitioners can stay abreast of relevant developments in a professional field (Lawson & Cowling, 2015; Weber & Vincent, 2014).

Zweig (2014) examines what he refers to as the rising "look-at-me" culture of self-promotion on social media and argues that some professions are fundamentally at odds with this practice. In certain professions, the practitioner must enable or facilitate an objective beyond the practitioner and perform "anonymous work", and the better the job is performed, the less the professional is noticed. He identifies interpreting as among these professions, exploring spoken language interpreting in the United Nations, where the integrity of the work is prioritized over self-promotion and the practitioner's role in bringing about the service. Best (2016) considers anonymous work in community interpreting, in which practitioners may work on a freelance basis. Freelance practitioners in many professions, including interpreting, are often advised to engage in self-promotional tactics, such as personal branding (Downie, 2016), that enable them to stand out from the competition (Kleiman & Cooper, 2011). The codes of conduct for signed language interpreters in the countries included in this study do not mention self-promotion, nor are there any published works examining how signed language interpreters may or may not have promoted themselves prior to the advent of social media. This study explores manifestations and perceptions of online self-promotion by signed language interpreters on social media, which may help lead the profession toward agreed-upon standards and expectations of professional behaviour online.

1.1.1 Overt promotion via event presence.

The look-at-me culture of social media and ensuing type of self-promotion referenced by Zweig (2014) as being at odds with the interpreting profession is an overt form of promotion. Were an interpreter to engage in this type of self-promotion, bringing him/herself front and centre, it would distract from the primacy of the work at hand. Judd (2015) addressed this through the examples of broadcasting the presence of an interpreter for a particular event or with a notable individual (referred to in the article as "event presence"). Judd documented types of interpreters' Facebook posts, some of which posts are overt promotion:

- Posting photos of themselves or the venue explicitly or following the assignment
- Promoting interpreting assignment information, that is, sharing organization advertisements that outline the event that the individual has been hired to interpret
- Promoting that the individual will be interpreting at a particular event either via a status update, or in response to comments posted by other Facebook users
- Commenting and sharing individual experiences of the event
- Commenting on obituary notices of high-profile dignitaries, or other Deaf individuals and disclosing they had interpreted for them

Judd (2015) asks: "Is it appropriate for assigned interpreters to advertise the event they have been contracted to interpret?" The blog generated several diverse perspectives in the commentary.

The World Association of Sign Language Interpreters (WASLI) recently published a special-edition newsletter focusing on the topic of social media and eliciting viewpoints from practitioners. In its introduction, WASLI President Debra Russell (Russell, 2016) reminded interpreters that posting information about assignments may impinge on client confidentiality. Several respondents commented that some types of assignment-related information—specifically, the availability of an interpreter at an open, public event—may not necessarily distract from the primacy of the work by bringing attention to interpreters but rather promote accessibility, encouraging members of the Deaf community, who may not otherwise be informed of the event, to attend. There are evidently

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many questions about what types of promotional content are appropriate for interpreters to post on Facebook, and many varied responses, but no research to date has attempted to ascertain common perspectives.

1.2. Professional Presentations of Self on Facebook

Creating an online persona can be considered an important element of promotion. Presentation of self drives the creation of an online persona, and research has indicated that Facebook is an effective tool for self-presentation (Baraket-Bojmel, Moran, & Shahar, 2016). People choose how to portray themselves online and utilize strategies for self-presentation that they believe will garner them respect and "likes." (Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016; Ollier-Malaterre, Rothbard, & Berg, 2013). Researchers have reported that personal and professional identities converge on social media such as Facebook (Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013; Ramarajan & Reid, 2013), leading people to present themselves online in varied roles (Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016). Butler (2012) suggested that signed language interpreters bifurcate their personal and professional spheres by keeping content separate, so as not to inadvertently broadcast detrimental professional presentations. Best (2016) countered that signed language interpreters typically have personal involvement within the Deaf communities in which they work, in which the personal and professional spheres overlap and cannot be easily divided. Furthermore, Clyde, Rodriguez, and Geiser (2014) conducted research on perceptions of Facebook profiles and found that a strict division between professional and personal profiles may not necessarily portray a professional persona. In order to determine how profiles are perceived, one study created Facebook profiles for a fictional physician, with personal information and healthy (hiking, reading) or unhealthy behaviours (sleeping in, overeating), and professional content related only to the physician's training and ensuing practice (Clyde et al., 2014). The researchers hypothesized that the 250 study participants would deem the purely professional profile as the most professional, but they rated the personal–healthy profiles most professional; the personal–unhealthy profiles were judged as least professional. The researchers surmised that the personal–healthy profiles contained sufficient personal information for viewers to determine certain character traits of the physician, whereas the purely professional profiles contained no personal information, precluding viewers from making any inferences (Clyde et al., 2014).

Many Facebook users employ self-enhancement strategies when creating their profiles (Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016). In some cases this results in a "false Facebook self" in which an individual positively inflates his/her self-presentation to the point where the presentation deviates from the true self (Gil-Or, Levi-Belz, & Turel, 2015). Self-enhancement strategies in the context of a social network such as Facebook include selecting favourable information or events to post on the site and avoiding posting anything that may have negative implications (Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016). This type of self-promotion may particularly be displayed in profiles of individuals who "believe that ability is fixed" (as opposed to malleable and learned) and "are thus primarily concerned with demonstrating their competence relative to others" (Dweck, 1986; Elliot & Murayama, 2008, as cited in Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016, p. 789). However all individuals typically adjust their self-presentations to that which they think will elicit the best audience reaction, and self-enhancing posts are often associated with positive social feedback (Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016). These findings support Fuchs's (2014) assertion that modern humans are now living in an increasingly participatory online culture, in which content and norms are shaped by those who participate in it and influence its creation. Individuals' own cultures may also impact the frequency of positive self-presentation on Facebook; such posts are more common in some cultures than in others (Lee-Won, Shim, Joo, & Park, 2014).

2. Methodology

This qualitative study is based on the responses of focus-group discussions with a total of 12 interpreters. Given the global nature of Facebook, international perspectives were sought. Focus groups of four participants each were held with interpreters from the United States, the United Kingdom, and Denmark. Requisites for participation

were that an individual be a signed language interpreter and a current Facebook user (i.e., have an active Facebook account), and be proficient in spoken English. Calls for participants were disseminated via email to professional networks and by Facebook posts set to public viewing. Institutional review was sought and approved for this distribution by Heriot-Watt University. Participants completed a basic data form collecting demographic information and questions about their Facebook profile, such as whether or not they were Facebook friends with other interpreters; if they followed any agencies, associations or other professional organizations on Facebook, and how often they logged into the site.

Focus groups were chosen over other qualitative data collection methods such as interviews because of the benefits that focus groups confer toward creating a synergy of perspectives. As Napier and Hale (2013) explain, focus groups facilitate the exploring of an idea to its full significance, allowing more data to be collected from participants at the same time, and the "combined effort of the group can produce a wider range of information and ideas than a series of interviews" (p. 105). Focus groups were held via Skype to facilitate the international aspect of the study. Some semistructured prompt questions regarding Facebook usage guided discussion. Prompts addressed broad topics identified in the literature; specific interview questions included, for example: What are your thoughts about Facebook and promotion? Have you seen interpreters posting pictures of themselves interpreting at public events or next to famous people? What are your perceptions on agency promotion on Facebook?

The focus-group sessions were recorded and transcribed verbatim. These transcriptions were then uploaded to QSR International's NVivo 10 qualitative data analysis computer software, which facilitated the "scissor-and-sort technique" (Stewart, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2006) for data analysis. The software identified sections relevant to the research question. Then a thematic framework (Rabiee, 2004) was identified for the major issues or topics, and the transcript divided into sections, with each specifically coded to delineate the corresponding related topic (Rabiee, 2004; Stewart et al., 2006). One coder was used to do this. Themes were identified when a topic was directly relevant to the literature and/or discussed by at least two groups. Attention was also directed toward identifying any country-specific themes. This was done by studying the transcript and by examining themes for expressed relevancy or irrelevancy to a single country and by noting when two groups (countries) discussed a theme and the other did not. or when only one group discussed a theme.

3.   Participants

Eleven of the 12 participants turned in basic data forms. All were active users of Facebook, with three signing into Facebook daily and eight logging into Facebook more than once a day. Ten of the focus-group contributors were female and two were male. Four of the participants were in the age range of 26–33; four were ages 34–41, and three were ages 42–49. All focus-group participants who submitted data forms were Facebook friends with other signed language interpreters, and all were Facebook friends with Deaf people or those with ties to the Deaf community. Nine were Facebook friends with clients; one was Facebook friends with past clients but not current clients; one was not Facebook friends with any clients. Ten of the 11 who completed data forms followed signed language interpreting agencies, associations, or regulatory bodies on Facebook.

4.   Results and Discussion

The themes discussed below include information promotion, implicit self-promotion, accessibility promotion of an event versus self-promotion, interpreting agency promotion, and photos and videos. Information promotion is directly relevant to the literature (Lagenfeld et al., 2014; Lawson & Cowling, 2015; Weber & Vincent, 2014) and a prompt question elicited perceptions regarding interpreting agency promotion. Implicit self-promotion,

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accessibility promotion of an event versus self-promotion, and issues surrounding photos and videos emerged from the data as each focus group engaged in discussion and differentiated these topics.

All groups stated the usefulness of Facebook for information promotion, but differences arose when interpreters self-reported on their use of Facebook for self-promotion. Best (2016) states that most signed language interpreters work on a freelance basis and hence may view promotional tactics as important for growing their business. The eight participants from the United States and United Kingdom were all freelance interpreters; on the other hand, all four of the Danish interpreter participants were staff interpreters with agencies. Implicit self-promotion as general professionalism was seen as something to leverage. More overt promotion related to interpreter and agency event presence was found to elicit complex and differing viewpoints, sometimes depending on the perceived intent of the post. The posting of photos and videos of interpreters engaged in the practice of interpreting also generated interesting comments.

4.1. Information promotion

All participants acknowledged Facebook as an effective platform for the promotion of professional information, as the literature has also found (Lagenfeld et al., 2014; Lawson & Cowling, 2015; Weber & Vincent, 2014). This included advertising upcoming events, opportunities to participate in research studies, new research findings, forthcoming conferences, workshops and Deaf community events.

4.2. Implicit self-promotion

All participants felt that it was possible to influence perceptions of professionalism based on one's Facebook profile. The Danish interpreters stated that although they had seen promotional posts from colleagues, they themselves did not feel a need to self-promote, perhaps because they were all agency staff and may not have needed to compete and promote themselves in the same way; indeed, the agencies' own promotions featured information about their staff interpreters. In contrast, the freelance interpreters in both the American and British groups explicitly stated the importance of Facebook as an avenue of self-promotion. The type of self-promotion advocated in this context can be understood as implicit self-promotion, an important element of which is managing one's professional online persona. The Danish interpreters, too, reported strategies for managing their professional presentation of self ; but they did not consider these efforts to be "self-promotion."

The signed language interpreters perceived an overlap of their online personal and professional realms, stemming from their involvement in the Deaf community offline. None of the interpreters in this study reported keeping separate personal and professional Facebook profiles, but all groups reported strategies for managing perceptions of professionalism via their Facebook profile postings. One participant reported only posting personal content and nothing about work; another participant took an opposite approach and focused only on professionally related material. All participants reported self-monitoring the content of their posts and refraining from expressing potentially divisive comments or polarizing viewpoints. Interpreters reported separating personal and professional content only within specific groups rather than on their general Facebook page (such as in groups composed only of interpreters) to prevent potential misinterpretations or misconstrued perceptions forming among individuals who were not members of that specific group.

Posting and sharing professional materials was an oft-cited strategy for fostering implicit self-promotion. Participant 10 in the British group explained this approach when describing Facebook as "a promotional tool":

> To some extent one of the reasons I share a lot of publications, conferences, events, things like that is because it reflects positively on me as a professional interpreter.

Projecting general professionalism was viewed as fostering implicit self-promotion:

> People reach out if you have a good presence, a good reputation and you're not acting an idiot online. Then people get in touch...They might not have my e-mail or phone number to text, so they are getting to me in the most accessible way. (American Participant 2)

The theme of implicit self-promotion identified in this research emerged through discussion. The strategic posting of content included posting certain content only within specific groups to manage any potentially unfavourable reactions or interpretations from outside the target audience as well as selecting content to post with the intent of influencing audience liking (indicating that they like the post via Facebook's interaction options) and respect (Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016; Ollier-Malaterre et al., 2013).

4.3. Event presence: Accessibility promotion versus self-promotion

While Russell (2016) states that posting assignment-related information may undermine client confidentiality, participants agreed that confidentiality concerns were largely inapplicable to public events.

Although some commentary exists suggesting a differentiation of type between event accessibility promotion and interpreter self-promotion (WASLI, 2016), this distinction was not drawn by the researcher. Participants were simply asked if they had seen posts or photos that an interpreter had posted themselves about their presence or planned presence at a notable public assignment, and, if so, how they perceived such posts. Nevertheless, a distinction surfaced in all focus groups between posts that promote event accessibility and those that an interpreter or agency posts about their presence at the event, particularly after the fact. All participants reported observing both types of posts on Facebook, and each type of post was associated with some corresponding viewpoints.

4.3.1 Accessibility promotion

Advertising on Facebook that a public event will be accessible because a signed language interpreter will be made available—even if that interpreter originated the post— was generally viewed to be an acceptable method of event accessibility promotion. Both the American and British groups gave examples of interpreters who had been contracted to interpret at music concerts and festivals and made posts on Facebook to promote the accessibility of the event. American Participant 1 explained:

> That is a way to let the community know that, "Hey, by the way, this event has interpreters. If you want to come and want to get tickets or something, the battle has already been won, because we are already interpreting and going to be there." Come one, come all.

British Participant 10 articulated the distinction and also saw it as a beneficial development:

> They're not necessarily self-promoting. They're promoting to some extent the accessibility of festivals, which is something that hasn't happened previously.

4.3.2 Interpreter self-promotion

To explore interpreter self-promotion, participants were asked if they had observed interpreters making posts on Facebook, including posting pictures of themselves alongside prominent figures at interpreting assignments or announcing assignments at high-level jobs or other notable public events, and if so, how they perceived these posts. All participants reported having seen posts made by an interpreter working at a public event and/or next to a famous person; however, posting about one's presence as an interpreter at an event and/or with a prominent individual, particularly after the fact, led to varying viewpoints. It was felt that this was generally done in an effort to create perceptions of professional competence and respect, as British Participant 12 expressed:

> Part of the reason people are on social media is not just to communicate and keep in touch with people, it's to build up a persona. To spin a story about who you are. Look at me. I'm an amazing interpreter. Here's me with [name of famous British person]. It's quite hard to avoid being sucked into that I think.

Although they did not deem them unethical or blatantly unprofessional, participants perceived this kind of post negatively, using adjectives such as "icky" and "uncomfortable" to describe their feelings. If the motivation

behind such posts aligns with the sentiments expressed by British Participant 12 above, then this may be understood as the type of self-promotion referenced by Zweig (2014) and argued to be incompatible with the interpreting profession. Some exceptions were suggested, however, depending on the perceived intent of the post. The American group, for example, posited that some of these types of posts may be coming less from an orientation of self-promotion and more from a feeling of awe: "*Isn't this cool?! I have the best job ever!,*" as described by American Participant 2.

The British group also mentioned possible perceptual differences depending on intent, illustrated by Participant 9 musing:

> I just wondered if we were saying, "I was interpreting for [name of famous British person] today. This man is erudite. I really respect him...it's an honour." Is it purely about the phraseology that gets used or would it still be self-promotion by putting that up? Would it just be more palatable? I'm trying to decide if whether there is a balance to be struck or if it's purely that it feels unpalatable come what may that you put in.

While it was suggested that some such posts may come from a different intent than conspicuous, look-at-me self-promotion, it was not clear if this difference in intent would make these posts more acceptable. Regardless of the intent, if the integrity of the work is not held paramount, then Zweig's (2014) theory arguably still applies. While posts of this type were perceived differently than what could be understood as event accessibility promotion and were generally viewed with reserve, the data on this particular topic were inconclusive as to perceived professional acceptability of such posts. Further research could delve more deeply into this issue.

4.3.3 Interpreting agency promotion

Ten of the 11 participants who filled in the basic data forms reported using Facebook to follow others in the interpreting community such as agencies, associations, or regulatory bodies. The Danish group said the agencies they worked for used Facebook mostly as a way of advertising, creating a company brand, sharing professional information and as a platform for introducing the Deaf community to their staff interpreters--should the interpreters choose to take part—via background information and videos of the interpreters. The Danish interpreters did not express negative sentiments toward agency promotion; in contrast, the American group in particular took issue with some agency approaches to Facebook posts. Two participants recounted incidents in which an agency announced via Facebook that it had provided interpretation coverage for a notable assignment, but failed to give the working interpreters any credit—which participants deemed an unfair marketing strategy. The American participants concurred that such posts by agencies could not be construed in any way other than self-promotion. Participant 1 explained: *With agencies it's not a geek out moment. It's a look at us.* Participants in this group viewed these posts as negative. Similar sentiments regarding agencies announcing that they provided interpreters at notable events were also expressed in the British group, until Participant 9 made the following point:

> I agree that there becomes a very fine line where we start to talk about jobs, but actually it's a business selling themselves...to get its name out there to get more contacts thru the door. It's just because it's in our world of interpreting that we find it uncomfortable...I think it would be... double standard of us to say that they can't promote themselves because they are technically a business doing what businesses will do these days, which is reaching out by social media.

The American and British groups conveyed some feelings of being held to different expectations on Facebook as interpreters than perhaps to what some agencies themselves adhere. This apparent difference in perception of agency versus individual interpreter event presence promotional posting is interesting given that Best (2016) states that many freelance interpreters can essentially be understood as entrepreneurs running their own small businesses. Further research could delve further into individual freelance interpreter expectations of promotion versus acceptable promotion for interpreting service provision entities.

4.4. Photos and video

Focus-group participants in this study acknowledged the advantages of Facebook technology for promotional purposes, but they also mentioned potential liabilities from the same features that conferred benefits. The fact that pictures or videos can be taken and disseminated on Facebook with the possibility of content going viral (i.e., becoming extremely popular via multiple shares) without the interpreter's knowledge or permission was seen as potentially detrimental to one's professional persona. It was discussed that although an interpreter may untag him/herself from a picture posted by another Facebook user so that the picture does not appear on his/her own Facebook wall, the photograph would still remain elsewhere on Facebook. This leaves public perceptions with professional ramifications out of one's complete control.

There was consensus by all groups that photos or videos posted by others, particularly Deaf clients, were acceptable; however, pictures or videos posted by the interpreter themselves were deemed less permissible. Participant 6 in the Danish group explained:

> If someone is taking pictures of what's going on to go on the page of the Deaf association [it's different than] if I ask someone else to take a picture of me and the person I'm interpreting for or with, and I put it up on my Facebook page.

A British contributor, Participant 9, offered additional insight:

> I think for me one of the biggest things I've noticed is where it starts creating power and control issues in my head, of figuring out who's putting what where, for what reason. If a Deaf person posts a picture of you while they have been working with you because they were necessarily in charge of the job, I don't struggle with that so much because actually that's them making the decision.

While it was generally perceived as less favourable for an interpreter to post pictures him/herself, both the American and Danish focus groups recounted examples of interpreters asking Deaf clients for permission to post photos before doing so; this was generally felt to make it acceptable. This tactic fails to address the fact that people viewing the post may be unaware that the Deaf client gave that permission, a consideration that was not discussed in any of the focus groups. There was, however, also sentiment expressed regarding uncertainty about the appropriate professional response to pictures that others had posted of the interpreter, as articulated by Danish Participant 8:

> If some person...takes a picture of me where I'm interpreting and shares it with me on my Facebook, I have to think about what I do about it. Some consumers comment on that. Should I comment on that or should I pretend I didn't see it or should I "like" it? If I "like" it does it mean that I like myself because I was interpreting? I think about it so much, and I just decided to "like" nothing.

While this study found that pictures posted by a Deaf client were more acceptable than those posted by an interpreter themselves and that asking a client for permission to post a picture was also deemed admissible, further research could delve into how commonly this view is held and elicit further insight into common rationale underpinning these perceptions. Additional research could also explore types of online responses typically employed in reaction to having photographic or videographic content of oneself posted on Facebook. Jain et al. (2014) found that sharing pictures was rated as a top reason for using Facebook. Hence issues surrounding photographs and videos of interpreters working at an assignment are important contemporary considerations of signed language interpreter professionalism, and worthy of further exploration.

5. Study Limitations

This exploratory study into interpreter perceptions of promotion on Facebook has some limitations. Although all participants reported having seen posts made by an interpreter working at a notable event and/or next to a famous

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person, some described having seen these types of posts more often than others. Hence while perceptions on different types of promotional posts on Facebook were sought, this research does not establish the prevalence of these types of posts.

The researcher did not ask participants if their Facebook viewing habits were more country-centric or international in nature. Regardless, all participants were from Western countries, so while an international viewpoint was gathered, generalizability of findings to non-Western countries and contexts may not hold. In this regard, it is also worth noting that the sample size for this research study was relatively small.

Rabiee (2004, p. 657) states, "It is important to acknowledge that regardless of the type of research…an extent of subjectivity exits." Though approaches were taken to reduce potential subjectivity by adhering to recognized methods for conducting focus groups and subsequent data analysis as described in the literature (Napier & Hale, 2013; Rabiee, 2004; Stewart et al., 2006;), all phases of this research were carried out by a single researcher, so some level of subjectivity may be present (Rabiee, 2004) regardless of efforts to guard against it.

6.   Conclusion

This research serves as a foundational inquiry into perceptions of promotional posts by interpreters on Facebook and may lay the groundwork for further discussion and exploration of the topic amongst educators, practitioners, students and researchers. This study found that interpreters perceived Facebook as helpful in promoting awareness of information and relevant events. The ability to engage in implicit self-promotion was also perceived as a professional benefit to leverage, a finding that can be incorporated into a broader teaching of maintaining a professional online persona.

This research also found that there was a difference in perception among the signed language interpreters in this study when a Facebook post was event-centric and promoted accessibility, compared with an interpreter-centric post, particularly when posted after the event took place. Further research could delve more deeply into how such posts are perceived. Photos and videos posted by the client rather than the interpreter were regarded as acceptable, but future research could explore perceptions of members of the Deaf community to posted pictures as well as strategies for interpreters managing photos and videos posted by others.

Several avenues of further research could expound further on the findings from this study. For example, although Lee-Won et al. (2014) found cultural differences in presentations of self on Facebook, in this research study there were no distinctions between the interpreters of different nationalities; but they all came from Western countries. Given the global pervasiveness of Facebook and social media in general, cultural differences in usage and perception of Facebook could be explored further. Other types of social media other than Facebook may also be examined to investigate promotion via other platforms.

Research has shown that social media users create posts expecting positive audience response (Baraket-Bojmel et al., 2016), offering support to the assertion that norms online are shaped via participant involvement (Fuchs, 2014). Zweig (2014) argues that the 'look-at-me' culture of social media is incompatible with the occupation of interpreting, but social media is becoming a part of everyday life. This necessitates awareness, forethought and ultimately guidance for professional online expectations of interpreting practitioners. Further research into how promotion in the interpreting field is manifesting and perceived by practitioners, clients and other stakeholders— as well as explicit dialogue and awareness-raising on the topic in workshops and training programs—will encourage the interpreting profession to proactively engage in shaping online expectations of professionalism.

Acknowledgments

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Using Propositional Analysis to Assess Interpreting Quality

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Abstract

This article compares two methods of assessing interpreting quality: the *holistic* method and the proposed *propositional analysis* method. The author first summarizes previous research on interpreting quality, from which quality criteria were selected for holistic assessment. Following that, Turner and Greene's (1978) proposition guideline is briefly introduced as a basis for propositional analysis. Third-year interpreting students were assigned an in-class interpreting task, and their interpreting outputs were recorded, transcribed, and assessed using both methods. Results showed that the two assessment methods agreed with each other in general; however, the propositional analysis method had a few advantages over the holistic assessment method. Propositional analysis gives educators and researchers a clearer overview of the difficulties student interpreters encounter during the interpreting process, by identifying the elements of the source text that were the most challenging for the students. Propositional analysis also facilitates metalinguistic analysis, such as the analysis of different types of propositions and specific language features, so that interpreter educators and researchers can be better informed about the cognitive process involved in interpreting process.

Keywords: interpreting quality, propositional analysis, holistic assessment, quality criteria

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Using Propositional Analysis to Assess Interpreting Quality

Assessing interpreting quality has long been a challenge for both interpreting educators and researchers. It is a time-consuming task, and there is no systematic and unified assessment method. As Reiss (2014, p. vi) comments, "The standards… are generally arbitrary". The situation has changed much since Newmark (1982, p. 46) made the assertion on credible translation quality assessment that "detailed schemes for assessing translation are … dead ducks—either too theoretical or too arbitrary". Assessors arbitrarily choose a set of criteria and mark the recorded interpretations (either in the form of transcripts or audio recordings, mostly the latter) against the preselected criteria. This widely adopted method introduces assessors' biases and intuitive judgements. On the one hand, the preselected criteria are, to a large extent, arbitrary and limited in scope; on the other hand, the assessors' holistic judgements are, without doubt, subjective in nature. Such *holistic assessment* generally results in an overall score which represents trainees' global performance, yet educators benefit little from this overall score. They gain little insight into, for example, which part of the source speech poses the most difficulty to trainees and why; so the assessment does not provide information that might help improve trainee competence. Compared with the traditional holistic method, objective *propositional analysis* may be more helpful to educators and researchers. Propositional analysis can detect specific language features, providing educators with valuable information for curriculum focus. It has to be noted, however, the propositional analysis performed in this study assessed the semantic content of students' interpretations only, not the linguistic aspect or delivery.

1. Interpreting Quality

Interpreting quality is the central topic in interpreting studies. After discussing the topic for more than 40 years, researchers still do not agree on the key elements in assessing interpreting quality and on how to accurately measure it (Anderson, 1979; Barik, 1971; Grbić, 2008; Hansen, 2009; Macdonald, 2013; Moser-Mercer, 2008; Pöchhacker & Zwischenberger, 2010). The concept is "elusive" (e.g., Krämer, 2006; Shlesinger et al., 1997), and to some extent, subjective, with the judgement of "excellence" relying much on the assessors' subjective opinions. Nevertheless, researchers have agreed on a few core "linguistic aspects" (Kopczynski, 1994, p. 190), such as "equivalence", "fidelity", and "accuracy" (Pöchhacker, 2002, p. 96), when assessing interpreting quality. Others also propose pragmatic or contextual issues that need to be taken into consideration (Moser-Mercer, 1996).

1.1. Holistic assessment

Subjective assessment of interpreting quality can be reduced if the assessors are experts in the field who rely on their knowledge on a wide range of related domains, including morphosyntactical and microtextual analysis and environmental factors affecting the process. Subjectivity can be further reduced if the assessors apply a consistent set of standards and work in teams of two or more (Williams, 1989). It is natural that different user groups would

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have different expectations; that is, scholars and researchers (Mackintosh, 1983; Messina, 2002; Moser-Mercer, 1996; Pöchhacker, 2002; Pöchhacker & Zwischenberger, 2010; Riccardi, 2002; Zwischenberger, 2010) and interpreters and users (Cai & Fang, 2003; Cai & Zeng, 2004; Garzone, 2002; Garzone & Viezzi, 2002; Kopczynski, 1994; Kurz, 1989, 1993, 1994, 2001; Kurz, Basel, Chiba, Patels, & Wolfframm, 1996; Kurz, Pöchhacker, & Zwischenberger, 2008; Marrone, 1993; Pöchhacker, 2001; Rennert, 2010; Vuorikoski, 1993) have different criteria, and each criterion carries different weight.

Drawing on these studies, the following criteria and weight were selected as criteria for holistic assessment of this study. Delivery (accent, pleasant voice, etc.) is intentionally left out in the set of criteria, apart from fluency, which is embedded in linguistic performance. There are two reasons for this decision. First, according to Bühler's 1986 survey, for instance, although delivery is considered in users' or assessors' assessment, the weight assigned to delivery is generally low. Second, in this study, students interpreted from their B language into their A language, therefore, differences in delivery would be minimal. One might include delivery if the direction were from A language to B language, to reflect students' B language competence, a fundamental competence in interpreting. However, as interpreting courses are not linguistic courses, interpreting educators might expect students to have acquired the B language to a satisfactory, if not professional, level when they were admitted into the course.

Table 1. Criteria for holistic assessment.

Semantic Content (80%)	Linguistic performance (20%)
Sense consistency, accuracy (50%)	Grammatical correctness (25%)
Terminological adequacy (20%)	Adherence to target-language norms (25%)
Logic, coherence (10%)	Fluency (25%)
Clarity (10%)	Stylistic adequacy (25%)
Completeness (10%)	

1.2. Propositional analysis

Propositional analysis is a detailed, micro-assessment of discourse (Kintsch, 1972; Turner & Greene, 1978) that has a special focus on accuracy. When researchers focus on the accuracy of content, that is, when they conduct error counts (Anderson, 1979; Falbo, 2002; Gerver, 1971; Pym, 1992; Turner, Lai, & Huang, 2010; Vilar, Xu, Fernando D'Haro, & Ney, 2006), they face the issue of determining the meaning unit; this is where proposition comes into play. A *proposition* is the smallest unit that can express a complete meaning, which can be in the form of a word, a phrase, a clause or a sentence. There are three types of propositions: predicates, modifications and connectives (Turner & Greene, 1978). When conducted properly, propositional analysis can provide valuable information.

The holistic assessment approach has the advantage of including as many aspects of the interpreting as the researchers would like to embrace. A holistic score may reflect the comprehensive performance of an interpreter; however, it does not tell much about which part of the source speech causes interpreters the most trouble. The disadvantage of propositional analysis is that it ignores other aspects of the interpretation, such as delivery and presentation, yet it allows the researchers to study the local issues that interpreters might have during the interpreting process. In this study, I compared the two assessment methods and checked the congruity of the two methods in assessing interpreting quality..

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2. Method

I originally set out to test the effect of subject knowledge on student interpreters' performance. Interpreting students who had been provided different levels of background knowledge took part in the consecutive interpreting experiment, and their interpreting performance was recorded and analysed. The results of the study involve comparison of the two groups' interpreting quality and their actions taken in the interpreting process. During the analysis process, I found that propositional analysis not only assessed students' performance, by pinpointing the most frequent errors, it could support interpreting educators' teaching. Setting the effectiveness of prior knowledge aside, I instead examined the results of interpreting assessment using the two methods. However, because the raw data and analysis are taken from the experiment as originally designed, there are comparisons between the original two groups (terminology group and portfolio group) studied.

2.1. Participants

Participants were recruited from Beijing University of Foreign Studies. A questionnaire and the pretest of their subject knowledge preselected participants, so that their English competence, interpreting training, interpreting experience, and level of prior knowledge were relatively similar. The final selected participants were 22 native Chinese speakers (two male, 20 female), all undergraduate translation and interpreting majors in the third year of a 4-year BA program.

2.2. Procedure

The experiment followed the research design shown in Figure 1. Participants were randomly assigned to either of two groups, who received different levels of background information before the interpreting task. The terminology group (control group) received a list of terms related to the source speech topic, while the portfolio group (experimental group) received the same list of terms plus a portfolio of background articles.
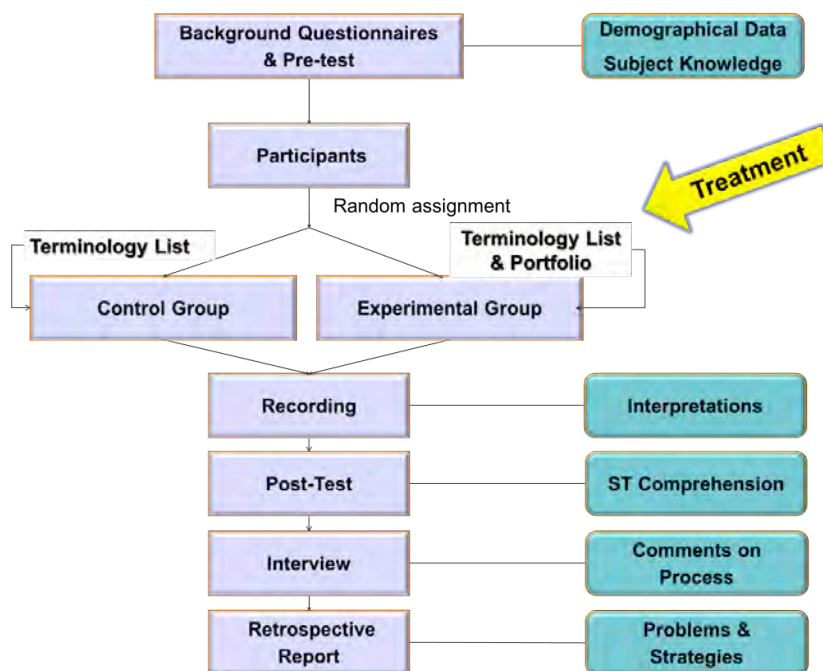
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Fig.1. Experiment Design

Participants' interpretations were recorded using the laboratory recording system. Immediately after the interpreting task, all the participants took a post-test, the same as the pretest, to assess whether they had gained more knowledge after interpreting the source speech. Then structured interviews were conducted, with participants invited to comment on the interpreting process. Finally, participants were asked to complete written reports, in which they reflected on their problems and strategies.

2.3. Material

The article chosen for the experiment was published in *The Economist*, titled "Catching a Few More Rays" (2012). It introduces a new type of solar panel and its working mechanism and describes the material used to make it.

Admittedly, written texts have features that are different from speech, such as complex grammar, long sentences, and special vocabulary. However, adopting written texts as source material for interpreting experiments is a common practice in interpreting studies (e.g., Liu & Chiu, 2009; Liu, Schallert, & Carroll, 2004). The source material was adjusted for this study to become more speechlike. Some sentence structures were adjusted, some words were replaced by more colloquial ones and extra connecters were added to be more natural and closer to spoken language. This revised text was manipulated in such a way that the text kept the original logical and structural features of a scientific technical article.

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2.4. Assessment

For holistic assessment, two interpreting instructors assessed the participants' interpreting recordings according to the criteria listed in Table 1. Students' recordings were also transcribed and divided into *propositions,* which, according to Turner and Greene (1978), consist of "two or more word concepts … forming a single idea" (p. 2). One hundred propositions were identified in the text. An independent assessor then examined the transcribed interpretations and compared the propositions in the interpretation with the those in the source text. If a proposition in the original text was correctly rendered in the transcribed interpretation, the participant was awarded one point. If the proposition was not adequately reproduced in the target speech, no point was awarded. This analysis allowed the researcher to trace the difficult segments of the source speeches.

3.   Results

3.1. Holistic assessment

The two assessors had very high interrater reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha of .898. Table 2 shows that, in general, Assessor 1 tended to give participants higher scores than Assessor 2. As expected, both assessors agreed that participants in the portfolio group performed better than participants in the terminology group. This difference is significant at $p = .01$ (independent-samples t test), and has a large effect size, tested by Cohen's d value.

Table 2. Mean (holistic assessment) of the two groups.

Holistic assessment	Terminology (control) group	Portfolio (experimental) group	*p*-value	Effect size (Cohen's *d* and effect-size correlation *r*)
Assessor 1	6.087	7.460	.000 **	*d* =1.79, *r* = .67
Assessor 2	4.544	6.655	.001 **	*d* = 1.66, *r* = .64
Mean	5.315	7.058	.000 **	*d* = 1.77, *r* = .66

** $p < .01$.

Participants in the experimental group obtained higher scores for all nine criteria, performing better than the control group in accuracy, coherence, clarity, completeness, fluency, and stylistic adequacy. Their accuracy in terminology adequacy, grammatical correctness, and target language norms also outperformed the control group, but not by as much. This indicates that reading the portfolio of bilingual background articles may have helped participants in the experimental group to better reproduce the source speech with more accurate, coherent, clear, complete, and fluent target speeches.

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Table 3. Scores for each assessed item.

Holistic assessment	Terminology	Portfolio	Difference	*p*-value	Effect size (Cohen's *d* and effect-size correlation *r*)
Semantic content					
Accuracy	4.5000	6.9091	2.4091	.000 **	*d* = 2.03, *r* = .71
Terminological adequacy	5.7045	6.8636	1.1591	.010 *	*d* = 1.21, *r* = .52
Coherence	5.6136	6.9318	1.3182	.007 **	*d* = 1.28, *r* = .54
Clarity	5.1591	6.8636	1.7045	.001 **	*d* = 1.75, *r* = .66
Completeness	5.8636	7.3182	1.4546	.003 **	*d* = 1.42, *r* = .58
Linguistic performance					
Grammatical correctness	6.9091	7.9773	1.0682	.012 *	*d* = 1.17, *r* = .50
Target-language norms	6.5455	7.4318	0.8863	.023 *	*d* = 1.05, *r* = .46
Fluency	5.2955	6.8636	1.5681	.001 **	*d* = 1.62, *r* = .63
Stylistic adequacy	6.6818	7.8636	1.1818	.003 **	*d* = 1.47, *r* = .59

* *p* < .05. ** *p* < .01.

While holistic assessment is a quick and easy way to assess the relative performance of student interpreters and compare the difference between two groups with different treatments (such as in the original experiment), it does not reveal detailed information such as, for example, which part of the source text poses difficulty to students and is hard to be reproduced accurately, or what language features would challenge student interpreters to produce a satisfactory performance. The result of holistic assessment may also be misleading. If students achieve high marks in terminology adequacy (as did the students in the control group), assessors may be misled into believing that students had mastered the terms quite well, and therefore focus their teaching effort on other aspects, for instance, coherence; yet, incoherence might be directly linked to students' inadequate understanding of terms.

Numerous examples from the control group showed that participants may not have fully understood the terms but nevertheless reproduced the correct equivalence of the terms in the target language.

ST1: For example, researchers have known for several years that infra-red light can have the same effect on carbon nanotubes.

TT1: 比如说，一些专家发现红外光可以通过碳纳米管传输。

"For example, some researchers found that infra-red light can be transferred through carbon nanotubes."

TT2: 比如说, 红外线已经被利用了碳纳米管来制作电池。

"For example, infra-red light has already been used carbon nanotubes to make batteries."

TT3: 如果将红外光照射在碳纳米管上的话，也能产生电流。

"If we beam infra-red light on carbon nanotubes, electric current can also be generated."

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These outputs shows that the terms were reproduced correctly; however, the meaning of the sentence is totally lost; some of the outputs do not make any sense at all. Such incorrect representations prevent educators from learning students' real obstacles in their studies and focusing their teaching accordingly.

Interpreters in the experimental group, by contrast, generated more meaningful and easy-to-understand target texts. They sometimes also provided explanations, or rephrased their own interpretations. For example:

TT4:
比如说，几年前我们就已经发现，如果将红外光照射在碳纳米管上的话，也能产生电流。

"For example, we have found several years ago, that if infra-red light shines on carbon nanotubes, it can also generate electrical current."

TT5:
而经过科学家的研究，其他的材料也可以做到同样的效果。例如说，太阳能光谱当中的红外光就可以通过碳纳米管来发电。

"For example, infra-red light in the sunlight's spectrum can be used to generate electricity through carbon nanotubes."

Propositional analysis highlights the differences in interpreters' terminological adequacy, as well as the fluency and accuracy of their target texts and can be a tool to supplement holistic assessment in identifying students' problems in understanding the source text and delivering the output. In this study, scores from holistic assessment and propositional analysis are in line with each other, cross-validating the two methods (see Table 4).

Table 4. Correlations between scoring of the two assessment methods.

		Holistic assessment	Propositional analysis
Holistic assessment	Pearson correlation	1	.823**
	Sig. (two-tailed)	.000	.000
Propositional analysis	Pearson correlation	.823**	1
	Sig. (two-tailed)	.000	.000

Note. Sig. = significance. ** $p < .01$ (two-tailed).

3.2. Propositional analysis

The source speech was divided into 100 propositions, 53 predicates, 31 connectives, and 16 modifications. Table 5 shows that participants in the experimental group achieved significantly higher scores than participants in the control group for all three types of propositions. In addition, participants in the experimental group achieved slightly higher scores for predicates and lower for connectives, whereas participants in the control group obtained higher scores for modifications and lower for connectives.

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Table 5. Proposition type and propositional scores.

Proposition type	Mean		Standard deviation		*p*-value	Effect size (Cohen's *d* and effect-size correlation *r*)
	Control	Experimental	Control	Experimental		
Predicate	6.019	8.403	3.184	2.107	.000**	*d* = 0.883, *r* = .404
Modification	6.765	8.323	3.276	2.495	.000**	*d* = 0.535, *r* = .258
Connective	5.714	8.071	3.361	2.731	.001**	*d* = 0.770, *r* = .359

** *p* < .01.

The common low score for connectives may indicate that, on a superficial level, these types of propositions were the most difficult for both groups to reproduce. Indeed, to successfully reproduce a connective proposition, one has to have a very good understanding of the preceding as well as the following propositions, so that one can grasp the logic between the sentences before reproducing it in the target language. This can be supported by participants' propositional scores for simple and complex propositions (similar concepts with simple and complex sentences), shown in Table 6.

For both the control and the experimental groups, participants achieved higher scores for the simple propositions than for the complex propositions. Yet this difference is significant for only the control group. This might mean that after reading the portfolio of background articles, participants in the experimental group had a better understanding of the subject matter, so that they could successfully interpret more complex sentences.

Table 6. Proposition type and interpreting quality.

Group	Simple	Complex	*p*-value	Effect size (Cohen's d and effect-size correlation r)
Control	6.809	5.243	.018 *	*d* = 0.5091, *r* = .2466
Experimental	8.556	7.946	.205	*d* = 0.2684, *r* = .1330
p-value	.001**	.000**		

* p < .05; ** *p* < .01.

Predicates

Appendix 2 lists the 53 predicates and the number of participants in both groups who successfully reproduced each proposition. The first column of the table shows the number of the proposition, which is also the order in which the proposition appeared in the source speech. The second column lists the actual propositions. The third column, labelled *embedment,* indicates whether the proposition contains embedded propositions as its arguments. The value 1 indicates that, yes, it does contain other propositions as its arguments (the number in the bracket in the proposition represents which proposition is embedded). The value 0 means it does not contain embedded propositions. The fourth and fifth columns show how many participants in each group successfully reproduced the corresponding proposition. The propositions listed in this table are arranged in order from easiest to most difficult, based primarily on the performance of participants in the control group.

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Appendix 2 also presents the level of difficulty of each individual predicate. Predicates at the top of the table were the most difficult ones, with only a few participants able to correctly reproduce these, whereas the predicates at the bottom of the table were the easiest ones, and almost all the participants in both groups were able to reproduce them correctly. Most of the difficult predicates contain embedment, that is, one or several arguments of these predicates are propositions themselves. Predicates that use other propositions as their arguments increase the difficulty for participants to process information, because participants first need to comprehend the embedded propositions before they can comprehend the main ones (Kintsch & Keenan, 1973; McKoon & Ratcliff, 1980, 2008; Rindflesch & Fiszman, 2003). In addition, the embedded proposition may not be adjacent to the main predicate but a few sentences away, in which case participants would have to recall the earlier information, which increases their mental effort in memorization. Furthermore, the embedded proposition does not always appear in the main predicate as a complete proposition; it may be only a pronoun or another word that functions as a substitute of the embedded proposition. In these cases, participants would have to listen to the speech, comprehend the main and the embedded proposition, recall earlier information, and then create a logical link that connects the embedded proposition and the main predicate. Among these activities, creating logical links may be the most difficult task for participants in the control group, who did not have enough background knowledge on the topic of the source speech.

Modifications

Appendix 3 lists the 16 modifications contained in the source speech. The maximum total score achievable for participants in each group is 176 (16 x 11). However, participants only obtained scores of 103 (control group) and 136 (experimental group). This means participants in the control group reproduced only about 58% of the modifications, and participants in the experimental group reproduced about 77%. In other words, on average, a participant in the control group was able to correctly reproduce nine modifications out of the total 16, whereas a participant in the experimental group was able to reproduce 12. These reproduction rates were slightly higher than the reproduction rates for predicates, for both groups.

While some modifications were difficult to reproduce (for example, Propositions 74, 94, 47, 64, 66, and 58, which fewer than five participants in the control group and fewer than six participants in the experimental group were able to reproduce), other propositions were relatively easy for participants in both groups. The groups contrasted in their reproduction rates for Propositions 40 and 41: Only five participants in the control group correctly reproduced the two propositions, yet all 11 participants managed to reproduce the message accurately. In fact, these two propositions convey the key message in Paragraph 5:

> That discovery led to much experimentation, but little progress. Actually, the chief difficulty lies in the process used to make the **tubes. This process creates** a mixture of two different sorts of tubes: ones that have metal-like properties and ones that are semiconducting. Solar cells need the semiconducting variety. Metallic ones poison the process and must be removed before a cell can work properly.

These two propositions lay the foundation for comprehending the following paragraphs, especially Paragraph 7:

> Dr Strano, however, has exploited a new manufacturing process based on a polymer gel that has an affinity for semiconducting nanotubes, but not for metallic ones. He is thus able to extract large numbers of semiconducting tubes from a mixture…

One of the background articles in the portfolio introduced the two types of nanotubes and how they interact with polymer gels. Perhaps this explains why all participants in the experimental group managed to reproduce the information without effort, whereas participants in the control group were unable to grasp the key message and many failed to reproduce it in the target texts.

The difficult propositions have some common features: (a) they contain no technical terms, and (b) their sentence structures were relatively simple (apart from the fact that they contain embedded propositions). One tentative conclusion in terms of difficulty levels of propositions, therefore, might be that terminology and sentence structure are two factors that affect the difficulty level of individual propositions.

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Connectives

Connective propositions connect propositions and provide coherence to the text; therefore, the arguments of connectives are, most of the time, also individual propositions. Appendix 4 shows the 31 connectives contained in the source speech, all of which took other propositions as their arguments. Generally speaking, the connectives can be classified into five categories: (a) those such as *and,*" which connect two propositions and which do not have any actually meaning apart from their grammatical function; (b) those such as *but* and *however,* which indicate a contrastive relation; (c) those that express an explanation relation, such as *for example, actually,* and *...means...*; (d) those that express a temporal relation, such as *before, while,* and *after;* and those that express a causal relation, for example, Proposition 71, which indicates that one proposition is the cause of another. Appendix 4 shows that participants in the control group were able to reproduce 59% of all the connective propositions, or 18 connectives out of the total 31. Participants in the experimental group were able to reproduce 73% of all the connective propositions, or 22 connectives out of the total 31. Compared to the other two types of predicates, the difference between the two groups in reproduction rates is the lowest for connectives.

A closer look at Appendix 4 shows that most of incidences of *and* were incorrectly reproduced, meaning that the information was misinterpreted or was not interpreted at all. Yet most of the connectives that indicate comparative or contrastive relations were located at the bottom of the table, which means that most of the participants in both groups were able to reproduce such connectives. This is probably because Chinese texts prefer the use of contrastive conjunctions to connective conjunctions, usually expressed by the ordering of the clauses instead of words that have corresponding grammatical functions (Wen, 2012). Thus most of the participants in both groups chose to not to translate "and", although they translated contrastive connectives appropriately.

4.   Discussion and Conclusion

This study compared two methods to assess interpreting quality, holistic assessment and propositional analysis. The two assessment methods complement each other in reflecting students' interpreting products. In addition, the two methods agree with each other, validating each method. While the widely adopted holistic assessment method provides a less time-consuming solution for interpreting educators to monitor students' overall performance and progress, propositional analysis offers interpreting educators a reliable means to examine specific interpreting problems; the results can then be used to guide interpreting teaching.

Although it takes time and considers only the semantic but not the delivery aspect of interpretation, propositional analysis is nevertheless a helpful tool for interpreting educators. By dividing the source text used in the interpreting tasks into individual propositions and then assessing students' reproduction rate of each proposition, interpreting educators can have a direct and visual impression of which propositions were the most difficult ones for students to reproduce, and they can investigate the reasons for the difficulties. Guiding students to use propositional analysis to conduct peer review or self-assessment might save interpreting educators time in the evaluation process, so they can focus their efforts on the pedagogical aspects, for example, designing particular modules to tackle the specific difficulties suggested in the propositional analysis process.

The results of this study demonstrated that simple propositions were easier to reproduce than complex propositions, especially for participants in the control groups. As complex propositions entail complex sentence structures, to understand and reproduce such propositions requires interpreters to go beyond the sentence level and make connections across sentences. Yet, without enough domain knowledge, it may be very challenging for them to do so. Participants in the experimental group, on the other hand, could draw on their prior domain knowledge and "integrate this information into a more complete mental representation of the events [...] with minimal reliance on explicit text-based input" (Best, Rowe, Ozuru, & McNamara, 2005, pp. 67–68). In other words, having prior knowledge can help participants process information in a top-down manner, which is more efficient than processing information bottom-up. According to Hawkins (2004), the human brain is a memory-based predicative system that needs to be trained before it can make any inferences. After the brain is provided with information with which to make associated connections or inferences, retrieving information becomes quick and efficient.

Propositional analysis

Deeper propositional analysis, dividing the propositions by type into predicates, modifications and connectives, showed that in general, participants in the experimental groups had higher reproduction rates for predicates and modifications than for connectives. This result represents a direct effect of subject knowledge on information processing; subject knowledge helped participants to select more important information when they were engaged in comprehension. In scientific discourse, predicates (which express the basic ideas in describing action and states) may be the most important type of proposition in constructing ideas—the source speech contained 53 predicates out of a total 100 propositions. Modifications, which by definition "express various forms of restrictions or limitations of one concept by another" (Turner & Greene, 1978, p. 4), may express the logical relations between concepts. These may be less important to comprehension because their role is to modify the basic concepts (there are 16 modifications in the source speech). Finally, connectives (31 in the source speech), which represent the connections between sentences, are the most visible and direct structural signs in a discourse. Each type of proposition plays a different role in discourse, and each one's importance varies according to type of discourse. I argue that in scientific and technical texts, the role of predicates is the most fundamental for comprehension and effective interpreting.

Essential to effective interpreting is the ability to select the most important information in a source text (Liu, Schallert, & Carroll, 2004). The results of this study reflected that participants in the experimental group were able to recognize more important information in the discourse, that is, predicates, and pay less attention to the structural guidance as expressed by the connectives.

One of the reasons for the low reproduction rates of connectives might be that, English and Chinese linking words do not always have a one-to-one relationship. Where a linking word is needed in English discourse, it may be unnecessary in Chinese. The simplified method in assessing connectives the same way as other types of propositions is a limitation of this study, one that came to light only after the analysis was carried out. Future studies are encouraged consider the linguistic features of the two languages involved and optimize the assessment method in rating connectives. In addition, this study only looked at the direction from English to Chinese (B to A); a repetition of the other direction might generate other interesting results.

Propositional analysis makes it possible to detect some of the features in a proposition that made it difficult for participants to comprehend and reproduce. The first such feature is referents, that is, information that has been mentioned earlier in the speech and referred to later in the text, most of the time in the form of anaphora. As discussed, identifying and comprehending referents may be different from and more difficult than comprehending other simple and direct propositions (Burkhardt, 2008), because when trying to understand a referent, one would have to search "working memory for the referent; if [one] does not find the referent in working memory, then [one] searches LTM (long term memory) for an object known as a part of general knowledge" (Kieras, 1977, p. 263). The availability of relevant knowledge is indispensable to successfully understanding a referent, (Frank, Koppen, Vonk, & Noordman, 2007). Because previous research on referents focused on the lower, or lexical, level of the source text (Franceya & Caina, 2014; Nieuwland & Van Berkum, 2008; Pickering & Garrod, 2013; Van Berkuma, Koornneef, Ottena, & Nieuwlanda, 2007; Zwaan, 2014), rather than information processing at sentence and discourse levels, the results of this study can lead to only a tentative hypothesis . More research on referents is needed before any definitive conclusions can be drawn.

Acknowledgments

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Appendix 1

Source Text

Catching a Few More Rays

Good morning, ladies and gentlemen, today, I would like to talk about energy technology; in particular, I will discuss a new type of solar panel that can turn infra-red light into electricity.

Solar panels get better and cheaper with every passing year. In one way, though, they are still quite underdeveloped. They work only with light in the visible part of the spectrum. However, 40% of the sunshine that reaches the Earth is in, or very close to, the infra-red, which belongs to the invisible part of the spectrum.

A solar cell that could harvest infra-red light would be a benefit to the solar-power business, but building one has so far proved difficult. Now, however, a group of researchers led by Michael Strano at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology have worked out how to do it.

The most commonly used material to make solar cells is silicon. When sunlight strikes the silicon atoms in an ordinary solar cell, it knocks electrons loose and allows them to flow as an electrical current. Light of other frequencies can do the same trick with other materials. For example, researchers have known for several years that, infra-red light can have the same effect on carbon nanotubes.

That discovery led to much experimentation, but little progress. Actually, the chief difficulty lies in the process used to make the tubes. This process creates a mixture of two different sorts of tubes: ones that have metal-like properties and ones that are semiconducting. Solar cells need the semiconducting variety. Metallic ones poison the process and must be removed before a cell can work properly.

Until now, researchers wishing to do that have been forced to select the semiconducting nanotubes one by one and then sticking them in place with glue. It is possible to make a solar cell this way, but it is time-consuming and expensive. Worse, the chemical instability of the glue means such cells tend to break down rapidly.

Dr Strano, however, has exploited a new manufacturing process based on a polymer gel that has an affinity for semiconducting nanotubes, but not for metallic ones. He is thus able to extract large numbers of semiconducting tubes from a mixture. That done, he deposits them in a thick layer on top of a piece of glass. Their own weight will cause them to stick to the glass without the need for glue. The whole thing is then topped with a layer of buckminsterfullerene, a form of carbon in which the atoms are organized as spheres. This buckminsterfullerene layer acts as an electrode, and conducts away the electricity produced by the nanotubes

The result is not exactly efficient. The cell transforms only around 0.1% of the infra-red light thrown at it into electricity (compared with 20% for an ordinary solar cell). But Dr Strano and his colleagues are excited about the result. After all, 0.1% is a big step up from nothing at all, and most existing solar technologies began with similarly poor efficiencies that were improved gradually over the course of time.

Moreover, the new technology has one big benefit. Though the carbon nanotubes absorb infra-red light, they are almost totally transparent to the visible variety. This means that, if and when they become commercialized, they can be overlaid on traditional silicon cells. This new device will convert a larger fraction of the incoming sunlight into electricity. Thank you.

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Appendix 2

Predicates

No	Proposition	Emb[1]	Ctrl	Exp
81	throw (, infra-red light [80], at the cell)	1	0	3
78	produce (the nanotube, electricity [77])	1	0	4
67	is able to (Dr Strano, [68])	1	0	5
70	deposit ([68], the semiconducting tubes, in a thick layer on top of a piece of glass)	1	1	6
68	extract (Dr Strano, large numbers of semiconducting tubes from a mixture)	0	1	7
39	creates (this process [38], a mixture of two different sorts of tubes)	1	2	5
72	is topped with (the whole thing [70], a layer of buckminsterfullerene)	1	2	7
73	is (buckminsterfullerene, a form of carbon)	0	2	7
77	conducts away (buckminsterfullerene layer, the electricity [78])	1	2	7
26	knocks ([25], electrons, loose)	1	2	8
63	base ([62], a polymer gel)	1	3	5
98	can be overlaid on (new technology, traditional silicon cells)	1	3	7
43	poison (metallic tubes, the process [38])	1	4	4
75	acts as (this buckminsterfullerene layer, an electrode)	0	4	6
88	began with (most exciting solar technologies, similarly poor efficiencies)	0	4	7
45	remove (, metallic tubes)	0	4	8
32	can have (infra-red light, the same effect [26–28], on carbon nanotubes)	1	4	10
29	can do (light of other frequencies, the same trick [26–28], with other materials)	1	5	8
62	has exploited (Dr Strano, a new manufacturing process)	0	5	8
38	make (process, tubes)	0	5	9

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[1] Emb: embedment. The value of 0 means the proposition does not contain embedment, whereas the value of 1 means the proposition contains embedment, represented as the number in brackets.

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No	Proposition	Emb[1]	Ctrl	Exp
37	lies in (the chief difficulty, the process [38])	1	5	10
93	absorb (the carbon nanotubes, infra-red light)	0	5	10
21	lead (Michael Strano, a group of researchers)	0	6	6
100	Thank you.	0	6	7
25	strikes (sunlight, silicon atoms in an ordinary solar cell)	0	6	8
54	make (, a solar cell this way [50–52])	1	6	9
6	turn ([5], infra-red light, electricity)	1	6	10
31	have known (researchers, that [32])	1	6	10
80	transforms (the cell, 0.1% of the infra-red light, into electricity)	0	6	11
13	reach (sunshine [12], Earth)	1	7	8
99	will convert (this new device, a larger fraction of the incoming sunlight, into electricity)	0	7	9
15	would be ([16], benefit to the solar power business)	1	7	10
35	led to (that discovery [32], little progress)	1	7	11
97	become (the new technology, commercialized)	0	8	8
33	led to (that discovery [32], much experimentation)	1	8	9
49	have been forced to (researchers, [50–52])	1	8	9
12	is, or close to (40% sunshine, infra-red)	0	8	10
14	belongs (infra-red light, invisible part of the spectrum)	0	8	10
16	harvest (a solar cell, infra-red light)	0	8	10
28	allows (electrons, flow as an electrical current)	0	8	10
42	need (solar cells, semiconducting tubes)	0	8	10
91	has (the new technology, one big benefit)	0	8	10
22	belongs ([21], Massachusetts Institute of Technology)	1	9	8
50	select (researchers, the semiconducting nanotubes one by one)	0	9	8
89	improve (the poor efficiencies [88], gradually over the course of time)	1	9	11
52	stick (researchers, semiconducting nanotubes, in place with glue)	0	10	9
23	Is (the mostly commonly used material to make solar cells, silicon)	0	10	11
82	transforms (an ordinary solar cell, 20%)	0	10	11
10	work with (the [7], light in the visible part of the spectrum)	1	11	9
1	Good Morning, ladies and gentlemen	0	11	11
3	would like to talk about (I, Energy technology)	0	11	11

Propositional analysis

No	Proposition	Emb[1]	Ctrl	Exp
5	discuss (I, a new type of solar panel)	0	11	11
20	have worked out (a group of researchers, how to do it (building [16])	1	11	11
Total			317	447
Average number of propositions correctly reproduced per participant			28.8	40.6
Percentage of predicates correctly reproduced			54.3%	76.6%

Propositional analysis

Appendix 3

Modifications

No	Proposition	Emb	Ctrl	Exp
74	are organized as (the atoms of buckminsterfullerene [73], spheres)	1	1	5
94	are (they [93], totally transparent to the visible variety)	1	2	4
47	can work (a cell [16], properly)	1	3	6
64	has (a polymer gel [63], an affinity for semiconducting nanotubes)	1	3	6
66	has not (a polymer gel [63], an affinity for metallic nanotubes)	1	3	6
58	(the chemical instability of the glue [52]),	1	4	5
40	have (tubes, metal-like properties)	0	5	11
41	have (tubes, semiconducting properties)	0	5	11
60	tend to (such cells [54], break down rapidly)	1	8	9
18	has proved (building [16], difficult)	1	8	10
86	is (0.1% [80], a big step up from nothing at all)	1	9	10
7	get (solar panel, better and cheaper, with every passing year)	0	10	10
9	are (they [7], still quite underdeveloped)	1	10	10
56	is (it [54], time-consuming and expensive)	1	10	11
79	is not (the result, efficient, compared with [82])	1	11	11
84	are (Dr Strano and his colleagues, excited about the result [80])	1	11	11
Total			103	136
Average number of propositions correctly reproduced per participant			9.36	12.36
Percentage of modifications correctly reproduced			58.5%	77.2%

Propositional analysis

Appendix 4

Connectives

No	Proposition	Emb	Ctrl	Exp
44	And	1	2	2
92	though (93, 94)	1	2	3
69	after (68, 70)	1	2	5
27	And	1	2	8
36	Actually	1	3	5
65	But	1	3	5
76	And	1	3	5
61	however,	1	4	4
46	before (47, 45)	1	4	6
30	for example	1	4	7
87	And	1	4	8
71	will cause (their [68] own weight, tubes, to stick to the glass without the need for glue.)	1	4	9
95	means ([92], that [96])	1	4	9
53	Is (it, possible that [54])	1	6	7
59	means that (60)	1	6	9
24	when (25, 2628)	1	7	8
34	But	1	7	11
96	when (97, 98)	1	7	11
51	And	1	8	9
57	worse,	1	9	8
19	however,	1	9	9
90	Moreover	1	9	9
8	in one way though	1	10	10
11	however,	1	10	10
48	until now, wish to (researchers, [45])	1	10	10

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Propositional analysis

55	But		1	10	10
17	But		1	10	11
4	in particular,		1	11	10
85	after all		1	11	10
2	Today		1	11	11
83	But		1	11	11
Total				203	250
Average number of propositions correctly reproduced per participant				18.45455	22.72727
Percentage of predicates correctly reproduced				59.5%	73.3%

"That Is Not the Question I Put to You, Officer": An Analysis of Student Legal Interpreting Errors

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Abstract

Court interpreting is a challenging and highly skilled profession. Legal questions are designed to achieve a large variety of functions. Often the true function is not the most obvious, the meaning is not literal, or there is no direct lexical or grammatical equivalent in the target language. Preparing interpreting students for interpreting legal questioning is very difficult and best achieved by exposing learners to a wide range of question forms in a safe practice environment. In order to ascertain which question types are most difficult to interpret, the authors undertook an analysis of question forms extracted from courtroom discourse, had students interpret these questions, and then conducted an error analysis of the interpreted utterances. The extracts were taken from YouTube clips of televised New Zealand High Court murder trials and were interpreted by 17 student legal interpreters into eight different languages. Certain question forms proved more difficult to interpret accurately than others. Suggestions are provided for interpreter educators to best prepare students for courtroom interpreting.

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"That Is Not the Question I Put to You, Officer": An Analysis of Student Legal Interpreting Errors

Court interpreters need a variety of skills, including an understanding of the different discourse genres they may be asked to interpret and in-depth knowledge of sociopragmatic norms, especially if they are to achieve some measure of pragmatic equivalence (Hale, 2014). A social constructivist approach to interpreter education (Kiraly, 2000) has at its heart the concept of learning through action or practice. Student legal interpreters likewise need to be exposed to actual court discourse in genuine settings as part of their training. They also need to receive feedback on how they interpret such authentic discourse. The justice system requires high levels of accuracy from court interpreters, but little work has been undertaken to assess student court interpreter accuracy in practice in the New Zealand setting.

This article reports on a study undertaken in a language-neutral undergraduate interpreting classroom with English as the medium of instruction. Students were taking a 3 contact hours a week, 12-week introductory course in legal interpreting as part of either a BA in Translation or Interpreting, or a Graduate Diploma in Arts (Interpreting). None was a practicing courtroom interpreter and most had only minimal awareness of legal discourse other than that gained through exposure to televised courtroom drama and news items.

The first aim of this research was to see if having students interpret audiovisual material from actual trials and giving them individualized feedback would address some of the limitations inherent in current pedagogical practice, including the lack of opportunity for student observation of expert performance and exposure only to simulated, audio-only interpreting course material. The second aim of the research was to conduct a discourse analysis of the lawyers' language in the audiovisual clips, with a focus on question types. The third and final aim of the study was to analyse student interpretations to identify areas of difficulty for student interpreters, as reflected in their renditions of various question forms.

The current legal interpreting course requires that students write a reflective journal on their observation of authentic interpreter-mediated courtroom interactions; however, students do not have the opportunity to interpret such exchanges in the court setting. We therefore decided to take the courtroom to the students, bringing them audiovisual clips of lawyers examining and cross examining witnesses in real trials. Our study combines what Hale and Napier (2013) describe as an experimental design with a discourse analysis approach. Schäffner (2002, p. 2) holds that "understanding a text is a prerequisite for translating it," and the same applies to interpreted renditions. Using video clips provides students with an extra visual component to their usual audio practice, while fitting within a situated learning approach by introducing a 'virtual' courtroom into the learning setting. We surveyed students before and after their participation in the study to assess their reactions to the audiovisual practice, and students reported high levels of satisfaction (Crezee, Burn & Gailani, 2015).

Student court interpreters need to develop in-depth knowledge of the underlying meaning and illocutionary intent (Morris, 1999) of the discourse they will be required to interpret in practice. In this article, we offer an analysis of courtroom discourse with a focus on question forms, along with a brief evaluation of the questions that proved most difficult for students to interpret accurately. (Additional research findings have been discussed elsewhere [Crezee, Burn & Gailani, 2015].) We feel that students cannot be taught legal discourse until they have gained a grounding in the legal process, which must in turn be preceded by an awareness of basic legal theory.

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The audiovisual practice reported on here served the additional purpose of making students aware of the level of difficulty of interpreting courtroom interactions and the importance to their practice of attending court to observe expert performance by experienced legal interpreters.

1.   Background

In recent decades New Zealand has experienced a large influx of migrants and refugees. Many of these settle in Auckland, the country's largest city. Interpreting services report a need for interpreters in over 90 different languages (Magill & De Jong, 2016); over 180 different languages were identified in the 2013 census (Statistics New Zealand, 2013). In view of this demand, AUT University, Auckland, offers language-neutral interpreter education (cf. Hale & Ozolins, 2014), in which classes are taught through the English medium, rather than in the languages they will be working with. During practice, students mostly interpret from English into their other languages, informally assessing and evaluating their own and their language peers' interpreting performance.

There is significant demand for interpreters in the justice system. The New Zealand legal system derives from the Common Law system as introduced by British migrants, although it has since evolved to take on a distinctly New Zealand flavour. The increasing number of limited English proficient (LEP) migrants (Statistics New Zealand, 2013) has resulted in a growing demand for court interpreters in a number of community languages, especially in Auckland, In our experience, the language of court proceedings offers a particular challenge to (novice) interpreters.

The discourse used in New Zealand judicial settings is similar to that used in Australian courts (Hale, 2004, p. 29), which itself is similar to that of the United Kingdom: Trials largely consist of monologues addressed to the jury or judge by counsel in opening and closing addresses, followed by question-and-answer turns initiated by legal counsel and regulated by the presiding judge. Questioning witnesses is key to the legal process, and accurate interpretation is paramount. The consequences of inaccurate renditions of question forms can range from miscommunication and confusion to mistrial. The speech style of the witness must also be effectively contained in the interpretation to allow the fact finder to assess the character of the speaker (Erickson, Liond, Johnson, & O'Barr, 1978). Lawyers may not realize how their own idiomatic speech style can challenge an interpreter confronting the already gargantuan task of hearing complex language, understanding its meaning, and reprocessing it into a different language—one that often does not contain direct lexical equivalents of the most common legal terms and may use a completely different grammatical structure altogether.

Court language also includes a certain amount of legal jargon and procedural technicalities, the basics of which are covered in the course material we provide to our legal interpreting. However, because law covers the whole rich gamut of the human experience, vast amounts of incidental nonlegal vocabulary can also appear in any given case. Karton, (2008) cites the example of the highly educated Nuremberg war trial interpreter who was baffled by the concept of eyes in potatoes. Preparing students for all this is very difficult, and we feel it can best be achieved by exposing learners to a large variety of language in a safe practice environment. This means that we encourage students to gain a depth and breadth of language experience outside the classroom (through the media and personal interactions), and focus on the legal aspects of language in the practice environment. Until now, this has been achieved by providing audio scripts written by the lecturers and loosely based on real-life legal cases. This has proved a successful learning strategy in scaffolding learners to improve their skills, as evidenced by students' responses when asked about their perception of the usefulness of audio-only resources for interpreting practice (Author, Author and Author, Redacted). In the present study, we aimed to take this one step further by having students engage with fully authentic trial discourse in an audiovisual format, and to obtain expert language feedback on their interpreting errors.

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2.   Literature review

This literature review will briefly focus on situated learning approaches in interpreter education, followed by an overview of the discursive features of the adversarial courtroom language used during examination and cross examination in order to provide a context for our study.

2.1.   Pedagogical approaches

Lave and Wenger (1991), Kiraly (1995, 1997, 2000), Mann (2011), Onda, (2012) and González Davies (2004, 2012) have all advocated situated learning approaches. Feng et al. (2013) point out:

> Situated learning provides the learner a specific context representing real practice. Based on social-cultural learning theory, situated learning is scenario-based learning embedded within a particular social and physical environment. (p. 175)

We sought a situated learning approach that would prepare learners for real-life courtroom challenges, realizing that this would be challenging. As Pérez-Sanagustín, Muñoz-Merino, Alario-Hoyos, Soldani, and Kloos (2015) state:

> The main characteristics of situated learning environments (SLEs) are: to provide authentic contexts, activities, expert performances and integrated assessment; to support multiple roles and perspectives, collaborative knowledge construction, coaching and scaffolding; and to promote reflection and articulation. However. . . not all of these characteristics are included, particularly lacking collaborative knowledge construction, in most cases. (p. 70)

Indeed, the situated learning activities in our study did not include expert performances, integrated assessment or collaborative knowledge construction. Liu's (2001) comparative analysis of the performances of expert versus novice interpreters likewise demonstrated the importance of real-world experience in gaining interpreting expertise, through the acquisition of domain specific skills. We elected to use innovative situated learning technologies to enable both our classroom and online student cohorts to practice interpreting in virtual contexts, using authentic materials. Before we undertook this study, our pedagogical approach had already involved student legal interpreters observing expert performances by practicing interpreters in courtroom settings, but students did not themselves practice interpreting in these settings. Furthermore, although lecturers provided naturalistic audio recorded material based on real-life legal cases, students in our language-neutral classroom did not receive expert language-specific feedback on their interpretation. Rather they relied on self-assessment and feedback from language peers. The data used for this study was derived from YouTube clips of televised authentic courtroom interactions of High Court Trials and manipulated for use in the interpreting classroom (Author, Author and Author, Redacted).

2.2.   Court interpreting discourse: The language of examination and cross examination

We chose to focus our analysis on how lawyers' questions are interpreted, because questions are key weapons in the lawyer's armory. Court language is a unique form of discourse which employs the questioning of witness narratives to establish versions of the truth. New Zealand, as other common law jurisdictions, uses an adversarial system for the resolution of criminal matters. This involves defence and prosecution lawyers attempting to convince the fact finder judge, (or jury, in more serious criminal cases) of the veracity of their version of events. The lawyer must 'tell the story' through a combination of physical evidence and witness testimony. Lawyers first question their own witnesses through examination-in-chief, and the witness is then cross examined by the opposing lawyer in an attempt to draw out testimony that may damage or discredit the other party. Lawyers use a variety of carefully framed question types. As Russell (2004²) states, "Questioning techniques are used to solicit the narrative of the speaker … and have them retell events from a particular perspective" (p. 2). Opposing lawyers then cross examine the witness in an attempt to expose inconsistencies in the narrative. A number of researchers

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have focused on the role of questions within the legal process (Berk-Seligson, 1999; Danet, 1980; Harris, 1995; Matoesian, 1993; Woodbury, 1984). Woodbury (1984) ordered questions across a continuum according to the lesser or greater degree of coercion over the questioned, with 'wh-' questions exerting lesser control, and tag questions at the opposite end of the continuum. Questions may also act as "weapons to test or challenge claims, and vehicles to make accusations" as well as "cues for witnesses to speak their lines" (Danet, 1980, p. 524). Declaratives, polar interrogatives, and tag questions in particular are used in the cross examination phase to pose challenges to the witness (Innes, 2001; Luchjenbroers, 1997) or as coercive and confrontational devices (Danet, 1980; Hale 2001). Previous studies by Berk-Seligson (2002), Lee (2009), Rigney (1999), and Hale and Campbell (2002) have shown that questions are often not interpreted accurately in court. Hale's (2004) study of Australian interpreter testimony found that, in particular, "there was a tendency on the part of the interpreter to omit certain [question] types" (p. 59).

Berk-Seligson (1999) found that 49.6% of leading questions were inaccurately interpreted because either the tag was omitted or the nature of the question was changed to alter the leading portion of the question (illocutionary force). This may be because the interpreter fails to recognize the subtleties of the speaker's intent, or simply lacks the linguistic skills to render an accurate interpretation. Hale (2004, p. 35), describes legal questions as exhibiting three basic characteristics: (a) a level of control over the addressee, (b) tone (politeness or hostility), and (c) illocutionary point and force. Matching all three functions with an alternative in another language is tremendously taxing, especially when there is no direct lexical equivalent of a word or phrase. For example the New Zealand practice of "diversion" does not exist in many other legal jurisdictions and has no equivalence in Mandarin, Korean, Tongan, or Samoan, to name just a few languages. This idea must be paraphrased, which can be a lengthy process. Lawyers also use linguistic features such as discourse markers (*well, so, again*) to exert very tight situational control over the witness (Lakoff, 1985; Luchjenbroers, 1993). Hale (2004) found that these markers were omitted by court interpreters "almost systematically" (p. 86).

González, Vasquez and Mikkelson (1991, p. 272) comment that the court interpreter

> has a duty to conserve not only the precise meaning of the Source Language (SL) message, but also the precise register, style and tone. Thus the interpreter faces the formidable task, first in deciphering the meaning of sometimes obscure, convoluted or deliberately vague language, and secondly in conveying that language in exactly the same manner as it was spoken.

If interpreters fail to do this they are giving the judge or jury "an inaccurate verbal portrait of that person" (de Jongh, 1992, p. 92). Students in the current study were tasked with deciphering and rendering these linguistically convoluted, multiclaused and often unfinished questions into the target language in a safe learning environment in which language assessors provided language-specific feedback. The term 'safe learning environment' here refers to one in which the consequences of an actual trial do not attach. We chose trial extracts from examination-in-chief and cross examination to reflect the different question types, tone and illocutionary force which typically arise in these situations.

Hale (2004, p. 38) describes three basic question types which fall into the grammatical categories of interrogatories, declaratives and imperatives. These in turn are divided into a number of subtypes. Although Hale's examples come from Australia, very similar legal language and lawyers' questions are used in the New Zealand courtroom. Cross examination involves an increased use of the more assertive aggressive declaratives and tag type questions, for example, *And you observe those symptoms, you manage them and you report them, correct?* Similar question patterns were also observed in our murder trial excerpts. Hale (2004, p. 43) also points out that there is no one-to-one correspondence between commonly used question types in English-to-Spanish court interpreting; Spanish interpreters found English tag and declarative questions particularly hard to translate because there were no direct grammatical or lexical equivalents (2004, pp. 45-48). Because the students in our cohort interpreted into eight very different languages, we similarly expected grammatical and other linguistic differences to have an impact on the students' ability to correctly interpret some of the lawyers' discourse. The question types found in our study are shown in Table 1.

In summary, questions can be deliberately designed by lawyers to guide, coerce, upset and confuse the witness and are a key component of the lawyer's strategy. If they are not interpreted accurately the witness will not be able to respond to the actual question and the judge and jury will not receive an accurate picture of the witness's response under pressure. Untrained and inadequate interpreting has resulted in well-publicised difficulties and mistrials in New Zealand (*Chala Sani Abdula v The Queen,* 2011; *Young Jin Bae v The Queen,* 2012) and

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elsewhere (*The State v Oscar Pistorius,* 2014; Hayes & Hale, 2010). Given the importance of questions in legal discourse, and because the participants in this study were relatively inexperienced interpreters and unfamiliar with much legal terminology, we focused our study on the interpreting of question types rather than on errors of individual lexical items. Therefore, our untrained students gained valuable court interpreting experience without risking misinterpreting real-life court proceedings.

3. Methodology

The main aim of our study was to explore students' responses to audiovisual interpreting practice material. We chose to use a mixed-methods approach, involving assessment of interpreting performance using audiovisual recordings of authentic discourse in context which had been manipulated to allow for consecutive interpreting. Pre- and post-intervention surveys were used to gauge students' awareness of the type of discourse they were about to interpret, and their response to practicing with unscripted audiovisual rather than audio-only recordings scripted and recorded by their lecturers. The surveys are discussed in detail in another paper (Crezee, Burn, & Gailani, 2015).

3.1. Participants

Participants in the study were second-language (L2) English student interpreters at undergraduate level representing the following eight languages: Mandarin, Cantonese, Korean, Samoan, Spanish, Farsi, Japanese and Guajarati. Seventeen students took part in the intervention, although not all of them completed all three of the clips.

3.2. Procedure

Study participants completed one audiovisual task in each of Weeks 3, 6 and 9 of the semester. Once students had interpreted the audiovisual tasks, the scripts, with the anonymised student recordings and associated audiovisual clips were posted online using the Blackboard learning management system used at the university. This material was accessed by the anonymous language assessors who are already familiar with the grading rubric through their work as external examiners. Assessors were asked to watch the audiovisual clips, listen to the student recordings and indicate on the script what sort of interpreting choices the learner had made. In line with Barik's (1969) approach to analysis of interpreted discourse, markers were asked to focus on a limited number of features such as change, omission or addition. Language assessors were asked to write a back-translation in English of the students' translations. Individual assessor feedback was anonymised and emailed to participating students as well as used for the interpreting analysis. Pre- and postintervention surveys were conducted (findings reported elsewhere [Crezee, Burn & Gailani, 2015]).

3.2.1 Selection of audiovisual material and nature of clips

The researchers chose excerpts from three recordings of courtroom interaction taken from New Zealand cases which had appeared in televised news reports and were posted on YouTube. All excerpts showed lawyers examining or cross examining witnesses. The clips ranged from 3 to 5 minutes and consisted of question-and-answer turns between defence or prosecution counsel and witness. Students interpreted the clips in consecutive

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mode under supervision of the tutor, to ensure that the recoding was made on the first attempt. This prevented practise opportunities and therefore made the interpreting process more authentic.

Our study involved a shorter sample than Hale's (2004, p. 38), so not all question types were found in the clips students were asked to interpret. The question types in our study are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Question types (and examples) found in the three courtroom extracts.

Interrogatives	Declaratives	Imperatives
a. Polar interrogative (*Did you go with him from scene to scene as he examined the bodies?*)	**a. Positive or negative declarative** (*We know that the fire engine from Fielding was at the fire at precisely midnight.*)	**a. Imperative** (*Tell us about that.*)
b. Modal interrogative (*At any point can you remember going down to the scene to have a look?*)	**b. Positive declarative with rising intonation** (*And go down that little corridor?*)	
c. Wh- interrogative (*Who prompted that discussion. Who raised it?*)	**c. Positive declarative with negative tag** (*Yes, and your training with respect is to manage symptoms isn't it?*)	
d. Forced-choice interrogative (*But as far as the entry of any of these rooms and going up to the body, did you go right up to the body, or did you observe him from the doorway?*)	**d. Negative declarative with positive tag** (*Yes but you cannot say to the court that you are qualified to make a diagnosis, are you?*)	

We decided that it would be best pedagogically to post the least challenging clip first and the most challenging one last, so that students could build confidence and expertise before moving on to more difficult tasks. The level of challenge was based first on the type of examination witnesses were being subjected to, with cross examination considered more challenging for student interpreters to work with (Hale, 2004, p. 58-59). A second criterion for deciding on the level of challenge was the proportion of legal terminology with which beginning student interpreters should be familiar. Clips are described in more detail below, together with some background information and some salient details. We decided to give the participants only minimal explanation of the background to the clips. This lack of preparation was authentic in that it reflected the working reality of the court interpreter in New Zealand; as Lee (2009) states, "The court interpreter does not have full and equal access to a body of knowledge shared by other participants in the court proceedings" (p. 94).

4. Analysis of legal discourse and student performance

4.1. Clip 1

Clip 1 was interpreted by 17 students. Overall, this clip contained good introductory material for students as it contained legal questioning without much legal jargon and with relatively simple lexical items. It revolves around a defendant referred to as EM who is standing trial for the murder of his brother in law. His wife, AG, is being questioned by the prosecution lawyer with question types which closely resembled those described by Hale (2004) as typical of an examination-in-chief. In her study of 17 interpreted local court hearings from New South Wales,

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Hale found that the yes/no positive polar interrogative (e.g., *Did you take the children with you?*)[1] and the declarative (*We know that the fire engine from Fielding was at the fire at precisely midnight*) are favoured by lawyers in examination-in-chief as they allow tight control over witness testimony. This also closely matches the findings of Woodbury (1984) who found wh- questions and yes/no polar interrogatives to be the most frequent question types. Lexical items in this clip include mainly everyday terms, although the examining lawyer asks AG several multiclause questions full of reiterations and false starts, for example, *Was there any change in his behaviour either immediately after the arson that you can… have you since recalled or have since thought about or has since struck you*? An analysis of the question types used in Clip 1 (see Table 2) showed that 14 of the 21 questions are multiclause questions while one is an unfinished question. (Table 3 shows the distribution of question types and the number of students who omitted or changed part of the questions. It should be noted that some students committed several errors of omission or misinterpretation in relation to the same question)

Table 2: Question types used by the QC (defence counsel) in Audiovisual Clip 1

Question type	Number of questions in clip
Polar interrogative	10
Wh- interrogative	4
Positive declarative	3
Positive declarative with negative tag	1
Modal interrogative	2
Imperative	1
Total questions	21

The preponderance of yes/no polar interrogatives indicate that the lawyer is exercising tight situational control over the witness: *Did you hear the fire engines going down the road at all, at night?* But the more open-ended wh-interrogatives (*who went?*) and the modal interrogatives (*At any point can you remember going down to the scene to have a look?*) indicate that the lawyer is working with a 'friendly' witness whose testimony on the whole tends to collaborate the lawyer's version of events. The use of the imperative *tell us about that* encourages free narrative which, according to O'Barr (1982), makes juries more likely to view the witness in a positive light.

The lawyer's speech style is reasonably slow paced, but false starts and mistakes often make the questions confusing (*As you know Mr MacDonald has admitted the arson of this home, this house and the, and the trailers, right?*) This declarative tag question type was identified by Hale (2004, p. 39) as being one of the forms most likely to cause problems, and be omitted by Spanish and other interpreters. Hale also identified as most difficult to interpret the modal interrogative (*At any point can you remember going down to the scene to have a look?*). English modal verbs contain slight and subtle shades of meaning that cannot be easily interpreted. *Can you remember?* is different from *Do you remember?* and *Do you remember clearly?* adds an altogether more forceful and accusatory connotation to the question, implying that the witness does not have full and accurate recall of events). Table 3 shows the percentage of correct interpretations by question type.

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[1] Examples are from the New Zealand courtroom extracts used in this study

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Table 3: Question types used by the QC (defence counsel) in Audiovisual Clip 1.

Question type	Number of questions	% correct
Polar interrogative	10	91%
Wh- interrogative	**4**	83%
Modal interrogative	2	65%
Positive declarative	3	75%
Positive declarative with negative tag	1	18%
Imperative	1	47%
Total questions	21	**80%**

The greatest accuracy in interpreting (measured using Barik's [1969]] simple error analysis system) was achieved on the interrogatives, with modal interrogatives being the hardest interrogative type to interpret accurately. Lowest accuracy was achieved on the positive declarative with a positive tag, *As you know Mr MacDonald has admitted the arson of this home, this house and the, and the trailers, right?* (18%), and the imperative, *Tell us about that.* (47%). This fits in with Hale's (2004, pp. 44-55; 221-226) identification of the tag as a problematic lexical device for interpreters working between English and Spanish. The imperative is a relatively noncomplex structure, but three students failed to interpret it at all. Could those students simply have failed to identify it as a question form and chose instead to ignore it, treating it as an extended discourse marker? This is an interesting question for which we found no evidence from survey results, and that would therefore need further research.

4.2. Clip 2

Clip 2 was interpreted by 14 students and involved the cross examination of a police detective who had accompanied the police doctor while the latter examined the bodies at a multiple fatality crime scene. This clip shows the defence lawyer taking the police officer on a virtual tour of the house. At first glance, the language used appeared fairly simple, with multiple references to crime scenes and bodies, but again, the extract contains a number of long, complex multiclause questions. Berk-Seligson (2002) hypothesized that lengthier questions were more difficult to render accurately. One example was the forced-choice question, *And when he continued to film is that in the same way as you described in Scene A from the doorway or did he go into the room on this occasion*? Table 4 shows the breakdown of question types and the percentage of questions interpreted correctly.

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Table 4: Question types used by the QC in Audiovisual Clip 2.

Question type	Number of questions	% correct
Polar interrogative	13	93%
Wh- interrogative	9	91%
Positive declarative	5	80%
Positive declarative with rising intonation	3	69%
Forced-choice interrogative	4	77%
Total questions	34	87%

Again, polar and wh- interrogatives predominate, indicating that the witness, at this stage of the proceedings at least, is not considered hostile to the lawyer's interpretation of events. Highest accuracy was achieved in these question forms. There are, however, a number of false starts and unfinished questions which were difficult to interpret accurately. It is impossible to tell whether this is a deliberate device used by the lawyer, or merely idiosyncratic usage, for example, *Are you, er, leaving aside, er David's room for the moment, are you able to remember as far as any of the scenes where there were dead bodies, whether the light, any light was on in any of those rooms?* Despite this, 12 out of the 14 students managed to interpret the key portion about the light, thus substantially maintaining the message according to the assessment criteria (see Appendix). The lawyer also uses vague language and ellipsis which can cause significant problems for interpreters, for example, *When you say light thing, was it on top of it, or part of the equipment itself?*

The question type which resulted in lowest percentage of accuracy was the positive declarative with rising intonation (69%), *And go down that little corridor?* Again, we could speculate that the students failed to recognize the illocutionary purpose of this as a question. Or perhaps they made a value judgement that it contributed little to the proceedings and therefore decided to ignore it. The time constraints on the study did not allow us to ask students such questions, which would have provided more in-depth information regarding the reasoning for their chosen renditions. The clip itself is characterized by a marked absence of the problematic tag questions, which may account for students achieving the highest overall level of accuracy with this clip (87%). It may also be that students were getting a little more used to interpreting examination-in-chief, this being their second attempt at interpreting such an interaction. In addition, the tone used by the lawyer is neutral, rather than aggressive—in contrast to the final clip.

4.3. Clip 3

This clip was interpreted by 14 students and showed the cross examination of the ambulance officer who examined the defendant in the murder trial (also featured in Clip 2). The ambulance officer testifies that he thought the defendant was pretending to have fainted, and this became the subject of intense and aggressive questioning by one of the defence lawyers, in an attempt to undermine the credibility of the witness. The tone is dramatically more hostile than in previous clips. Ten of the 14 questions were tag type questions of positive declaration, with a positive tag (7) predominating, for example, *Alright. Well I come back and I'm giving you an opportunity again. If a medical specialist says that's what this was, you would be disagreeing with him would you?* The conditional form and repeated modals in that question seem designed to confuse the witness and trap him into making a contradictory statement (citation). Table 5 shows questions types used in Clip 3.

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Table 5: Question types used by the QC in Audiovisual Clip 3.

Question type	Number of questions	% correct
Positive declarative with positive tag	7	87%
Positive declarative	1	7%
Negative declarative with positive tag	2	61%
Negative declarative with negative tag	1	21%
Wh- interrogative	1	14%
Reported speech polar interrogative	1	7%
Modal interrogative	1	36%
Total questions	14	58%

Table 5 shows that 11 of the 14 questions are declaratives, with 10 also involving some kind of tag. The majority of questions are positive declaratives with positive tag. The long, multiclause negative declarative with positive tag question is in a particularly convoluted form that participants found difficult. Only six out of 14 students were able to successfully interpret the question below is in its entirety.

> *So, if medical evidence is given by a medical specialist that all of these symptoms and what is being described is consistent with someone fainting and recovering from a faint, you wouldn't disagree with that would you?*

This utterance is prefaced by the discourse marker 'so', and begins as a conditional '*if medical evidence is give*n' and ends as a negative declarative '*you wouldn't disagree with that*' with a positive tag '*would you*?' The grammatical complexity of the question makes it extremely difficult to interpret accurately. To render an accurate translation the function of the tag needs to limit the possible answers to a yes/no response. Additionally, the question itself has a pragmatically face-challenging function which must be conveyed into the target language. This can present significant difficulties in cultures that are mindful of maintaining the face of the interlocutors; in effect, the interpreter must overcome deeply ingrained social programming. The reversing polarities are also a rhetorical device used by the lawyer to confuse the witness into offering a contradictory or uncertain response. Twelve of the 14 questions asked by the QC in Clip 3 involve multiple clauses, and one question is unfinished.

The lawyer's aggressive tactics reach a peak with *That is not the question I put to you officer. Not choose. I didn't put it as a choice. I have asked you, is it consistent that a person who does not respond may be suffering from shock or trauma?* This four-sentence construction contains three declaratives before a forced-choice, two clause interrogative. Note also the repeated use of "I" as an assertive device to reinforce dominance. It is unsurprising that questions with these degrees of lexical and pragmatic complexity should result in the lowest level of accurate interpreting at 58%. This means that 42% of the examination-in-chief questions were misinterpreted by our student interpreters. Clearly this is an issue of concern and indicates that students require more practice in interpreting this phase of trials in general, and tag questions in particular. A more detailed analysis is forthcoming (Authors).

5.   Summary and Discussion

The three short audiovisual clips, of courtroom language contained a wide range of question types that court interpreters may be required to convey in practice. Our comparison of question types used by defence lawyers during examination-in-chief compared to cross examination corroborated the findings of previous studies of trial

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discourse (e.g. Berk-Seligson 2002; Hale 2004, p. 45): The greater use of tag questions during cross examination seemed designed to coerce the witness into answering yes or no to suit the lawyers' purposes. In the clips discussed here, tag questions appear to be used to control or limit the flow of information from the witness, when compared to the greater use of polar interrogatives and wh- interrogatives in examination-in-chief which give the witnesses greater flexibility in their answers. This confirms the findings of Hale (2004) and Thomson and Martinet (1983) that tags are used to obtain agreement rather than information. Our study reveals that student interpreters typically find it difficult to accurately render longer, more complex and multiclause question forms. Other challenges for student interpreters included accurately rendering modals and recognizing declaratives and imperatives as 'questions in disguise'. Students performed significantly when confronted with aggressive face-challenging cross examination discourse.

Student interpreters preparing for the courtroom environment clearly need to be explicitly taught the question forms prevalent in legal discourse, and the pragmatic purpose of 'questions in disguise' such as the imperative and the declarative. Educators must give students opportunities to practice interpreting interactions from all phases of the trial, including the more aggressive stage of cross examination. They must remind students to avoid altering the illocutionary force of the questioning, thereby eroding the accuracy of the interpreting and distorting the testimony of the witness.

6.   Conclusion and Recommendations

In this study, a group of students practiced interpreting audiovisual clips of New Zealand courtroom interactions, in which witness responses were elicited through the use of complex questioning modes. During the examination phase of a nonhostile witness, polar and wh- interrogatives predominate, whereas the more adversarial nature of cross examination in the last audiovisual clip is associated with a high use of declarative forms and tag questions. These corresponded with significantly less accurate renditions by students. Other issues of interest to interpreter educators included the large number of false starts and complex muticlaused questions at all stages of the examination process, which students found particularly hard to interpret. Errors such as leaving out the interpreting of particular questions or changing the questions could cause major problems in the courtroom where accuracy of meaning is essential. We suggest that to minimize errors trainee interpreters must spend time becoming familiar with all of the question types used in the courtroom, learning which types of questions predominate at different phases of examination and practicing and reflecting on how to accurately interpret them. Educators might want to focus on the question types that appear most frequently in this study.

Limitations of the study included small student numbers and the fact that the language-neutral approach to interpreter education resulted in students recording their interpreting in a range of languages. Colleague educators in other settings may be able to replicate the situated learning approach described here but include a comparative discourse analysis of A > B language and B > A language interpreting performance (e.g., Hale, 2004). The fact that students were unable to practice interpreting in a real courtroom setting was a distinct limitation; however, the study did reflect a situated learning approach by introducing the setting (audiovisually) and the type of discourse used by legal practitioners in examination and cross examination. Because it had proved impossible for the lecturers to get funding or permission to recreate a mock courtroom trial in the actual courtroom setting, this was the most realistic way of 'taking' the setting to the students. Likewise, the audiovisual material we used did not allow for requests for clarification by student interpreters. On the positive side, the funding obtained for the study enabled lecturers to ensure that students *were* provided with additional expert feedback to reflect on their interpreting performances.

Findings of the pre- and post-test surveys (Crezee, Burn & Gailani, 2015) suggest that working with the audiovisual clips enhanced students' awareness of the real nature of courtroom language (Crezee, Burn, & Gailani, 2015), which fits in with the situated learning approach. Hence we recommend such authentic clips as a useful tool in courtroom interpreting education. We hope that future research with trainee legal interpreters in similar situated learning environments will further contribute to our understanding of the 'best practice' for these students.

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Appendix 1

English to LOTE and LOTE to English Interpreting Assessment Criteria

Category	D	C	B	A
Message Content	● Many essential elements of meaning incorrect ● Several serious changes in meaning ● Several omissions ● Several unnecessary additions ● Message substantially lost	● Most essential elements correct ● Only minor changes in meaning that do not detract from the main message ● A few omissions, but not much essential elements omitted ● Some additions ● Message substantially maintained	● Most essential elements correct ● Only very minor changes in meaning that do not detract from the main message ● Very few omissions, and no essential elements omitted ● Some minor additions ● Message well maintained	● All essential elements correct ● No omissions/ one or two minor insubstantial omissions ● No Additions ● Message completely maintained
Essential Terminology	● Correct equivalents often not used ● Paraphrase used but with incorrect meaning ● Little use of required technical terms	● Correct equivalents used in most cases ● Paraphrase used adequately when equivalent in TL not available ● Paraphrase often used when equivalent TL term available ● Mostly appropriate use of technical terms; occasional misuse does not prevent comprehension	● Correct equivalents used in most cases ● Paraphrase well used when equivalent in TL not available ● Paraphrase sometimes used when equivalent TL term available ● Appropriate use of technical terms; <u>very</u> occasional misuse does not prevent comprehension	● Correct equivalents used ● Paraphrase correctly used when Target Language (TL) equivalent term not available ● Accurate and appropriate use of technical terms
Pronunciation	● TL pronunciation often incorrect ● Added or omitted sounds in words ● Tone units too short ● Incorrect word and/or sentence stress	● Pronunciation sufficiently accurate to relay message adequately with occasional mispronunciation ● Most sounds correctly pronounced ● Adequate word and sentence stress	● Pronunciation sufficiently accurate to relay message clearly ● Most sounds correctly pronounced ● Good word and sentence stress	● Good pronunciation with appropriate flow of language
Grammar	● Grammar mistakes make message unclear	● Grammar sufficiently accurate to relay message correctly but	● Grammar sufficiently accurate to relay message correctly	● Grammar accurate ● Tense correct

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	● Tense mistakes change message ● Numerical items, (e.g. some, many, both, neither) often incorrect, and verbs do not agree ● Word order often incorrect	occasional errors in grammar ● Tense mostly correct – with occasional errors which do not cause misunderstanding. ● Word order usually correct with occasional errors which do not cause misunderstanding.	● Tense correct ● Word order usually correct	● Message relayed clearly and appropriately ● Word order accurate
Register	● Message misrepresented through inaccurate register use ● Wrong tenor	● Register is usually appropriate ● Tenor usually correct, with occasional errors which do not cause misunderstanding.	● Register is mostly appropriate ● Tenor mostly correct	● Appropriate use of register at all times according to the subject matter

The Benefits of Research on Learning and Practice: Thoughts from the 2017 Symposium on Interpretation and Translation

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The IJIE editors prompted this reflection on the recent 2017 Symposium on Signed Language Interpretation and Translation Research (March 31–April 2, 2017) at an opportune time: I had just wrapped up my involvement at the 3-day event, where I served on the organizing committee registration team, volunteered alongside my fellow colleagues and students, attended many sessions, and presented again.

The Symposium was the second event of its type hosted by the Department of Interpretation and Translation (DOIT) at Gallaudet University and the Center for the Advancement of Interpreting and Translation Research (CAITR). The first was offered in 2014 on the historic Washington, DC, campus that has championed higher education of Deaf and hard of hearing people for over 150 years. As a first-year faculty in the DOIT, I recently have been pondering ways for students to connect with research in order to understand how it shapes practice, as well as identify avenues for my own research engagement to inform my teaching and my freelance interpreting practice.

Varied disciplines make different connections between inquiry and education, and they value such research linkages differently. Research is typically connected to lecture content and reading, or in practice communities by active learning or inquiry-based learning (Healey, 2005). When compared to spoken language translation practice, sign language interpreting and translation is a relatively young profession, emerging only within the past 50 years (Scott-Gibson, 1991). As Napier (2004) predicted, new relationships among research and teaching, learning and practice are taking shape. This second Symposium exemplified the forward thrust of research activity on the work, as current and next generations of signed language interpreters and translators benefit from research-led practice.

The opening-day keynote by Beppie van den Bogaerde set the tone by describing a case of student engagement in research and inquiry. van den Bogaerde elaborated on the practice of embedded research in sign

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language interpreting education in the Netherlands, from the introductory vocational level through to bachelor's and master's level training. I observed several of our Gallaudet interpreting and translation students (BA, MA and PhD) actively involved and learning while engaged in different volunteering capacities at the Symposium, which showed that students can become excited by current research when they have different ways of engaging with it, beyond class readings and their own research or inquiry projects. Bachelor's and master's students were part of the conference support team, and doctoral students were engaged as moderators for concurring session tracks. During one of the breaks, I heard how much one of my master's students enjoyed attending presentations and meeting authors of familiar literature or of readings that were required in their studies. The opportunity to attend presentations about theory, methods, discussions, and conclusions also provided students the chance to critically evaluate others' research as well as identify interests and hone their own research thoughts and skills.

Practitioners and educators gained insights from the Symposium's varied innovative research by presenters doing work in the United States and in numerous countries such as Austria, Norway, China, the United Kingdom, Hong Kong, Canada, Ghana, and Australia. It is impossible to mention all of the rich information shared in 36 presentations, 32 posters, and three international keynote speakers. The concurrent sessions limited my attendance at all sessions; however, a few key themes came to light. New research topics and findings emerged that are highly relevant to training and practice for signed language interpreters and translators, as well as for our spoken language interpreter peers.

As was evidenced by several Symposium presentations, the practice of signed language translation takes on unique meaning and forms. Cross-modal challenges emerge when working with written text, spoken text and visual-gestural signed text. Although signed language translation has occurred for many decades, research on the practice is an even younger line of inquiry accompanying the increased need for accessible television broadcasting and website-based video technology. Historically, Deaf people have had a significant yet overlooked role in signed language interpreting and translating (Stone, 2009). The evolving and increasingly visible work of Deaf colleagues (often who are native signed language users), among the majority of second-language signed language users, was a complementary theme at this second Symposium. In fact, "Translation" was a new addition to the Symposium title, absent from the 2014 Symposium event title. This change aligned with the host department's recent name change to Gallaudet's Department of Interpretation and Translation (DOIT).

The topic of translation between written language and fixed, recorded signed language or television–based sign language texts recurred in several presentations. Svenja Wurm, a British Signed Language–English researcher from Heriot-Watt University, Scotland, described the challenges presented by the potentials and limits of different kinds of texts (written versus signed modalities). Wurm's presentation connected well with the work of my own Australian research team (Hodge, Goswell, Whynot, Linder, & Clark, 2015), which I presented, about best practice production guidelines for effective website (video) sign language translations–which were derived from Deaf community members and practicing translators focus groups.

Another overarching theme pertained to Deaf community perspectives, involvement, and representation. The lived experience that Deaf translators and interpreters bring to the profession is a valued one that several presentations and posters brought to light. Laurie Reinhardt described trust building between Deaf–hearing interpreter teams, and Eileen Forestal showed that Deaf interpreters' cultural brokering skill is a tool for effective team interpreting. Anne Leahy reported on historical cases of Deaf interpreters and Deaf expert witnesses in US and UK courts in the nineteenth century. In keeping with the legal theme, Napier, Hale, and colleagues' presentation reported on improved levels of participation in juror deliberations that a Deaf juror gains via interpreting services. Naomi Sheneman offered insights into ethical decision making and training needs of Deaf interpreters in light of the unique collective cultural challenges that they may face as community insiders.

The value of community and consumer engagement was evidenced in several presentations and it aligned well with the 2-day Deaf Translators Summit event that preceded the Symposium. For this event, Deaf interpreters from numerous countries had been invited to share research and discuss amongst themselves the practices and nomenclature of 'translation' and 'interpretation' work done by Deaf people. Both events benefited from the expertise of Robert Adam from University College, London, who during keynote speeches brought his insights as a practitioner, researcher and educator to attendees at the two events. My on-site dialogues with Deaf colleagues indicated that many more discussions will likely emerge regarding how the work of Deaf practitioners and hearing practitioners can be mutually supportive, and that inquiry into practice will no doubt shape the next decade or more of the unique work of signed language interpreters and translators.

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The second day's morning keynote was given by Xiaoyan Xiao, a Chinese researcher, practitioner, and educator from Xiamen University. Xiao presented about highly visible, high-impact broadcast news interpreting and shared her research team's findings of low comprehension rates of television signed news by Deaf viewers. The conclusions showed a need for training and research to improve practice in China (and, by implication, perhaps in other countries as well).

The theme of training and education emerged in several presentations and posters. Tobias Haug, Lorraine Leeson and Christine Monikowski surveyed linguistics course content used and available in European training programs, while Jihong Wang explored effective conference interpreting strategies employed by signed–to–spoken language interpreters in Australia. Technology was another theme, with research on interpreter-initiated communication in video relay service (VRS) interpreting, and another poster about engaging students in asynchronous online interpreter training courses.

Research was also shared about the linguistic features of interpreted interaction and social justice education in interpreter training. Many of the new research presented aligns with increased global mobility, as well as with the social and technological changes that interpreters and Deaf communities are facing. Multiculturalism and multilingual trends in signed language interpreting were also seen in presentations such as Cat Fung's report on her research team's development of training materials for multilingual interpreters in Hong Kong.

The final endnote presentation, by Robert Adam, emphasized the gap in research on the work of Deaf people who work as translators and interpreters. This area is emerging and despite new 'qualifications' and recognition, there are still large inequities in training opportunities, as well as gaps in exploration and learning about best practice in this specialized area. Many points in Adam's presentation resonated with me, as I have recently been involved in Australia's process of recognizing the work of interpreters who are Deaf. In British Sign Language, Adam shared his wealth of knowledge and experience, and his provocative thoughts; for example, he questioned why Deaf interpreters are not simply just called 'interpreters' like everyone else. During the presentation I appreciated the complex effort and skill of the Deaf–hearing interpreter teams working between two different signed languages (as an alternative to reliance on International Sign–a limited, contact sign language). It was an exemplar for professional practice in internationally attended conferences pertaining to signed language interpreting research, aligning with spoken language interpreting and translation standards at international conferences.

Credit is due to the Symposium organizing committee and scientific committee members. Particular kudos are owed to the convenor, Brenda Nicodemus, director of Gallaudet University's Center for the Advancement of Interpreting and Translation Research, for a brilliant take-home research resource. Registrants departed with not only the souvenir conference program, but also a compiled reference list of literature cited by all Symposium presentation and poster abstracts. Having a rich list on hand of sign language interpretation and translation research resources will remind me of the exciting research shared by colleagues at the second Symposium, and will enable me to revisit and implement current research inquiry into my teaching, learning, and practice.

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Interview with Dr. Myriam Vermeerbergen: Flemish Sign Language

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Abstract

Myriam Vermeerbergen is one of the newest researchers and educators to join the Editorial Board of the *IJIE*. Professor Vermeerbergen is the chair of the Flemish Sign Language group at KU Leuven, Arts Faculty, Campus Antwerp, and the coordinator of the Master in Interpreting programme. She is also a Research Associate with the Department of Dutch and Afrikaans, Stellenbosch University. In the early 1990s she pioneered sign language research in Flanders, Belgium, and in 1996 obtained a PhD with a dissertation on morphosyntactic aspects of Flemish Sign Language (VGT). From 1997 until 2007 she was a Postdoctoral Research Fellow, continuing her work on the grammar of VGT and studying the similarities between the grammars of different signed languages and between signed languages and other forms of gestural communication. In 2007, Myriam was funded to spend several months in South Africa initiating research on home sign. Dr. Vermeerbergen shares insights while describing her journey as a signed language researcher and now the Coordinator of the interpreting programme. This interview took place while she was attending the International Symposium on Translation and Interpreting at Gallaudet University.

Keywords: Signed interpreter education, linguistics, Flemish Sign Language

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Interview with Dr. Myriam Vermeerbergen

Debra: Let's start by telling our readers about your journey to become an interpreter educator and researcher in Belgium.

Myriam: I am from the northern part of Belgium, which has Dutch as its spoken language and the signed language is called Vlaamse Gebarentaal (VGT, or Flemish Sign Language), which was the name the Flemish deaf community decided upon in 2000. During the mid 1980s I studied Germanic languages at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel. Prof. Dr. Sera De Vriendt was one of the inspiring professors I had at the time—he was more into general linguistics and I found that linguistics was more my passion than literature, although I had started off by studying Germanic languages because of an interest in Dutch and English literature. When it came time to write my master's thesis I approached him to become my supervisor. I wanted to explore a topic that had not been done before, and I also wanted to work with real data. He had several suggestions, and one of the topics he suggested was "deaf people and communication," which intrigued me. I didn't know any deaf people other than a nephew of a friend of a friend.

To me "deaf people and communication" automatically made me think of signed languages, and I started to read. There wasn't a lot available in Flanders at that time but I did manage to get hold of a copy of Klima and Bellugi's early work and of course, Stokoe's book, as well as the work of Christian Cuxac, a French researcher, who has been very important for my work. I decided to keep it very simple as there were very few studies on the grammar of the signed language used in Flanders. I chose to look at the functions of prepositions in Dutch and then analyse how those functions were expressed in the signed language used by Flemish adult signers. I was really naïve—I wrote a letter to all the schools for the deaf as I assumed that was where signed language could be found. I got a letter back from two schools: One said there is no such thing as signed language in Flanders; it is there in America, but not in Flanders! The other school said that it was an oral school and that for children who could not use spoken language, they would use signs, but only to support spoken Dutch. They said that if I wanted to videotape a signed language I would not find it in the deaf schools. So then I wrote to the Flemish Deaf Association, Fevlado, which at that time was officially promoting "Nederlands met Gebaren", literally " Dutch with Signs" or Signed Dutch. They were not keen to work with me if I wanted to study sign language proper. They said I was basically turning the clock back, as they were modern now and no longer using the "primitive form of signing".

Eventually I found a deaf couple willing to collaborate. I organized a data collection session, for which the couple completed several tasks like describing pictures, discussing what they would do if they won the lottery, and so on. I didn't sign at the time, so then I had to find an interpreter who could help me transcribe the data. I found a trained interpreter who was willing to help but when we started to look at the recordings, she said, "Oh, but that's not signed language!" She was trained in Signed Dutch, Nederlands met Gebaren, and not in what she called *"Deaf language"*. So I went back to the deaf couple I had on tape, explaining my experiences with the interpreter, writing back and forth with them, and they recommended involving a hard of hearing friend who was fluent in Flemish Sign Language and had good Dutch, who could help me access the data.

So to cut a long story short, the result was good, and my professor recognized the effort that it had taken me, as a person who didn't know sign language, to provide a linguistic description of a part of the language that had barely been documented before based on an analyses of "real data". He suggested I continue to do research and to apply for a 4-year PhD scholarship. This allowed me to conduct the first study of Flemish Sign Language grammar based on a corpus of data produced by adult signers. Filip Loncke was the first to look at "signs" and "signing" in Flanders (see Loncke 1990), but he mainly concentrated on phonology, so on individual signs and on deaf childrens' signs and signing. My study was the first larger-scale project that looked at how deaf adults used the language in Flanders. After obtaining the PhD, I did postdoctoral research, continuing work on the grammar of Flemish Sign Language, but I also became interested in cross-linguistic work, comparing Flemish Sign Language to other signed languages. I was particularly interested in how signed languages that were not related could be so similar in certain aspects of their grammar. That took me to South Africa, and there I became interested in home signing. However in 2007, my postdoc research funding opportunities with the Flemish Research Foundation ended. At that time, there was no academic program related to sign language in Flanders; the only course related to VGT was at the Vrije Universiteit Brussel where I was based, and it only was a three-credit "Introduction to Flemish Sign Language" elective course.

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So it seemed that there were no opportunities for me in Flanders to continue my research; I was faced with either moving abroad, or something else. Several years before that I and my colleague Mieke Van Herreweghe had visited several institutions that trained interpreters to see if they were open to training Flemish Sign Language interpreters in their program, but at the time we weren't successful. So in 2007 we decided to give it one more go, returning to the institution that had been the most positive about the idea, Lessius University College. The head of the department, Prof. Dr. Frieda Steurs, liked the idea, and the board of the college decided that in 2008–2009 they would introduce Flemish Sign Language into their programs. And I was hired to do that, together with one deaf colleague. Our department offers a three-year bachelor program of Applied Language Studies, in which students study three languages: Dutch as their mother tongue; a second language to be chosen from French, German or English, which students have already had in secondary school, and a third "exotic" language such as Italian, Spanish, Russian, or Arabic. In 2008 Flemish Sign Language became another option.

We also offer four master's programs, including a master's in interpretation, and several postgrad programs. Because of the Bologna Process[1] and changes to education in Europe, Lessius was integrated into KU Leuven, and we became part of the university's Arts Faculty. So our programs now are academic programs, meaning we offer the first academic Flemish Sign Language interpreting training in Flanders.

Debra: Have you been a signed language interpreter as well as a researcher?

Myriam: I was never trained as a signed language interpreter, but in the past, I did do some sign language interpreting. This was at a time when there still were no interpreters trained to work to and from Flemish Sign Language because programs offered Signed Dutch. There were also very few interpreters who could go between English and Flemish Sign Language, and so I was also sometimes asked to do that. In the second half of the 1990s the Flemish Deaf Association had a new board that rejected Signed Dutch in favour of Flemish Sign Language, and we began collaborating. Probably the most important outcome of that change in attitude was that in 2006 Flemish Sign Language was officially recognized by the Flemish Parliament as the language of the Flemish Deaf community. I like to believe my research played a minor role in that.

In 2008 we integrated Flemish Sign Language into the first year of the bachelor's in Applied Language Studies, which meant that three years later we had to start training sign language interpreters in the Master in Interpreting program. As said, I had some practice, but limited, working as an interpreter, but I didn't know much about how to train signed language interpreters. Fortunately, this was the time when the European Forum of Sign Language Interpreters (efsli) was working towards a model curriculum for SLI training. I already knew several colleagues involved in efsli, like Lorraine Leeson and Beppie van den Bogaerde, who encouraged me to be part of it all. Interestingly, many signed language interpreter trainers are often trained as (sign) linguists, and they combine sign linguistics with being professional signed language interpreters and/or training sign language interpreters. So people like Lorraine, Barbara Shaffer, Terry Janzen, Adam Schembri, to new just a few— they are all signed-language linguists and also trained as interpreters. Colleagues were most generous with their knowledge and I learned a lot from the efsli meetings. I remember asking very naïve questions, like why do you start with consecutive interpreting when the market mostly demands simultaneous interpreting? I also attended the classes of colleagues in my department who teach spoken language interpreters, and I combined learning and reading in order to shape our 2011–2012 program, when we had our very first signed language interpreting student in the master's in interpreting program. I taught with a deaf colleague, Carolien Doggen, who has now graduated from EUMASLI[2]. This was another challenge—we didn't have any training in Flanders for Flemish Sign Language

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[1] The Bologna Process is a series of ministerial meetings and agreements between European countries to ensure comparability in the standards and quality of higher-education qualifications.

[2] EUMASLI is an International master study programme that is intended to contribute to the development of the professional field of interpreting between deaf and hearing people in Europe. The master programme is collaboration between Heriot-Watt University (Scotland), Magdeburg-Stendal University of Applied Sciences (Germany) and Humak University of Applied Sciences (Finland).

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teachers, but fortunately both of my deaf colleagues were and are eager to learn. My other deaf colleague is now studying in one of the part-time sign language interpreter programs.

As time went along we quickly realized that 4 years training wasn't enough, so we now have a postgrad program, a 5th year focused on simultaneous interpreting and an internship. Because our students train both as interpreters between Dutch and a second spoken language (e.g. English), and between Dutch and Flemish Sign Language, it's not easy to arrange placements, and on top of that they have to write their master thesis. So the fifth year part-time program is structured with two mornings of instruction from professional sign language interpreters in the first semester, and a placement with an assigned mentor, as well as work with a variety of interpreters, in the second semester . One of our teachers in the postgraduate program is Isabelle Heyerick, who is secretary of the World Association of Sign Language Interpreters (WASLI) and a PhD student with us.

Deb: How many students do you take into the program?

Myriam: Each year we admit new students, and we usually have around 15 students in the Bachelor 1 who select Flemish Sign Language as their third language. Students come with zero knowledge of Flemish Sign Language. Because Flemish Sign Language is not offered in secondary schools, we cannot require a certain level of proficiency. That is why it's a challenge for a 4-year program, and it resulted in us adding more hours of teaching for sign language acquisition and interpreter training. The number of credits are identical for those studying Spanish, for example, and those studying Flemish Sign Language, however our students have more teaching contact hours and it's still not enough. In Bachelor 3 we also have ERASMUS[3] exchanges, and while a student studying Spanish can go to Spain and improve their Spanish, our students may also travel to a foreign country, like Ireland and study with Lorraine Leeson and her team, which is great, but it doesn't improve their Flemish Sign Language skills. Fortunately, my deaf colleague organizes distance learning for our students who are abroad, so that they can keep up their sign language skills.

Deb: Anything you wish you could change about your program?

Myriam: One thing that is difficult in Flanders today is to engage deaf teachers to teach in academic programs. Also it's very difficult for deaf students to be in our program because of the requirement that they study a second spoken language. This is something that we might try and change, offering an opportunity to only study Dutch and Flemish Signed Language. We also need formal training for Flemish Sign Language teachers.

Deb: You have had a role in several research projects as well as managing this program, like Justisigns. Can you comment on the significance of some of your research?

Myriam: I am still in love with signed language linguistics and Flemish Sign Language remains underdescribed and underdocumented, so I want to continue to contribute to that body of literature. I am not actively engaged in my own individual research projects on sign language interpreting but I do supervise both master's and PhD students who are exploring topics of importance, like Isabelle Heyerick, who is looking at linguistic interpreting strategies. I also am involved in European projects with colleagues, and I learn a lot from those experiences. We were involved with the Justisigns project, the Signall 3 project, and we are currently a partner in the SignTeach project, developing materials that can support deaf sign language teachers. One project a master's student is working on right now is examining what deaf children think and feel about sign language interpreters—it's really fascinating.

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[3] European Region Action Scheme for the Mobility of University Students. ERASMUS was established in 1987 by the European Community.

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Debra: Given that we are at this international conference, let's talk about things that you think our international community needs to address in sign language interpreting. What gaps do you see?

Myriam: I think one gap is a further exploration of the relationship between simultaneous and consecutive interpreting and how this impacts our teaching. What I mean is that today we often teach consecutive interpreting first and simultaneous after, and consecutive is sometimes seen as some kind of stepping-stone towards simultaneous interpreting—but I think more research and thinking is needed about this approach. And, especially for Flemish Sign Language and other signed languages, we need better documentation of the languages so that we can train interpreters more effectively.

Debra: What are you taking away from the conference?

Myriam: Some of the work presented here I am familiar with but there is also a lot of work that is new to me. This is also giving me ideas for future master's or PhD student work, and it is very inspiring to be here. I enjoyed Beppie's keynote very much, as we have had a similar evolution with regard to research, evolving from a program in a university college to being integrated into a university. I also appreciated Dr. Xiao's presentation on interpreting on television in China, as I am not very happy with the approach we have in our country.

I think many signed languages are currently going through a phase of rapid transition because of how the language is being used and who is using it. Think, for example, about the impact of cochlear implementation and mainstream education. Also, until recently signed languages were used by people to communicate when in the same place at the same time, so they were strictly face-to-face languages, but that is no longer the case. Today people can record themselves for someone else to see their message at a later stage when they are not there. I think this might impact on the structure of signed languages. This is very challenging for those of us who train sign language interpreters because there is going to be this whole new generation of younger deaf people who will be using the language in a different way, or might use a different form, and our interpreters have to keep up. So we are back to the need of documenting the language and the evolution of the language, and that description and research needs to feed into our teaching—and how do we do this with so few researchers in this area and only 24 hours in the day?!

Debra: Thank you for your time. It has been a pleasure talking with you.

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Book Review: Signed Language Interpretation and Translation Research. Selected papers from the first International Symposium

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Nicodemus, B. & Cagle, K. (Eds). (2015). *Signed Language Interpretation and Translation Research. Selected papers from the first International Symposium.* Washington DC: Gallaudet University Press. (250 pages).

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Kudos to Brenda Nicodemus of Gallaudet University for convening a symposium that promotes research on sign language interpreting, and for co-editing this volume of selected papers with Keith Cagle to disseminate some of the scholarship that is advancing theory and practice in the field. The 2013 symposium spanned interpreting and translation research, but nine of the 10 chapters address interpreting, seven presenting work on ASL–English, with a chapter each from Italy and Brazil, and one on ASL–Spanish interpreting in the United States. Author bios are not included, but most contributors appear to be 'practisearchers' – bringing insider knowledge of interpreting to formulate the kinds of research questions that concern practitioners. The calibre of studies selected for this volume reflects the cumulative impact of sign language interpreting becoming a subject of graduate level study, which develops practitioners equipped for critical enquiry. The engagement with theory in this volume also demonstrates that sign language interpreting research is forging deeper and wider links with scholarship in translation and interpretation studies and sociolinguistics, and is a growing presence in these spaces.

Eileen Forestal, a deaf scholar, opens the volume with a call for hearing interpreters and researchers to proactively partner with deaf people in the conception and execution of interpreting research, arguing that the professionalization of interpreting has effectively excluded the deaf community from shaping professional practice paradigms. This is a polemic piece in which Forestal issues a strong reminder about the fundamental relevance of diverse deaf perspectives to researchers, trainers, practitioners: "How deaf people talk about interpreters and other hearing people who have an impact on them and their lives demands our attention". At the other end of the book, Annette Miner's study of relationships between deaf professionals and designated interpreters demonstrates the value of interrogating complementary perspectives of deaf people and interpreters who work together. Both groups highlight the relational work that effective designated interpreters do, such as passing on overheard information, or conveying side comments or tone. 'Community of practice' would be a relevant concept here to explain designated interpreters' efforts to adopt workplace discourse norms when mediating a Deaf person's membership of that community. Interviews with Deaf professionals note how subtleties of interpreter positioning (proxemics) and personality can impact their connection with work associates. Miner notes that the expectation for a designated interpreter to be socially embedded with extended responsibility for mediation of relationships, and to remain on task at all hours differs from typical practice in community interpreting situations. To my mind, this begs a question: Why is our profession comfortable with an overtly 'supportive' relationship and scope of responsibility for interpreters working for relatively empowered deaf professionals, but wary of extending role responsibilities to provide relational and informational 'support' to the least empowered deaf individuals in welfare, healthcare and legal contexts? Perhaps because these clients have less social capital at stake, are not in a position to demand that interpreters meet these interactional needs, or because these institutional encounters impose constraints (actual or assumed)? A topic for the next symposium, perhaps (and see Brunson, this volume).

Three chapters focus on the sources and effects of interpreters becoming visible as participants. Del Vecchio, Cardarelli, De Simone and Petitta ask whether interactions with an interpreter around the edges of the translation task help or hinder communication among parties. Specifically, they consider interpreter-directed talk within the macro-context for interpreting in Italy, wherein weak recognition of sign language and the professional role of interpreters can serve to disrupt normative interaction between interpreters and deaf and hearing interlocutors. Common disruptions are questions, apologies and suggestions addressed directly to the interpreter by hearing and deaf participants, and the authors consider whether these acts compromise role boundaries, or should rather be considered a form of 'co-translation' (such as a request for clarification or suggestion of a more apposite sign). The authors extensively review theoretical work on the interpreter as a visible participant and their discussion categorises observed types of participant-generated acts that impact interpreters' construction of role. I would have liked more detail about how the authors mined the large corpus of data described at the outset, and more examples from the data to exemplify their points.

On a similar theme, Annie Marks examines interpreter-initiated footing shifts in simulated interpreted video/phone calls, finding that interpreter 'authored' contributions tend to be prompted by technological demands which require the interpreter to insert pauses or explanation. Marks notes that caller perceptions of these regulating moves is yet unstudied: When the interpreter's own 'voice' intrudes into the interaction, does this clarify or confuse? This study illustrates the complexity of the multimodal task in technology-mediated interpreting, offering useful material for pre- and in-service training.

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Stephanie Feyne reports an empirical study that investigates how discourse features of voiced interpretations affect a hearing listener's assessment of a deaf speaker's professional identity. Hearing professionals' commentary on a series of alternate interpretations of the same ASL content revealed that they perceive interpreting as a 'verbatim' act, and attribute flaws or style in the interpretation directly to the deaf person, and assess their expertise accordingly. Feyne identifies teaching points from the findings, commenting that gaining familiarity with theories of identity construction may enable interpreters to critically monitor the likely effects of their interpretation decisions in any setting.

Two chapters offer perspectives on conceptualising the task of interpreting: Campbell McDermid zooms in to look at literal and pragmatic meaning in utterances and how interpreters render these, while Jeremy Brunson pans out to a wider view of social processes and power relations that frame the whole activity of interpreting. Brunson's piece shifts focus away from the product of interpretation, to highlight that interaction among deaf, hearing and interpreter interlocutors is embedded in larger social systems that affect how interpreted encounters proceed. The chapter reviews fundamental sociological concepts—social relations (e.g., power, gender, race), institutions, structures, and personal agency—and exemplifies how these factors play out in interpreting scenarios. Brunson does not claim to present a coherent 'theory of interpretation' but raises awareness of how sociological factors are implicit in motives, constraints, actions, practices and outcomes in interpreted situations. Recognizing these underlying factors can at least give interpreters critical perspective on their responses to the dynamics in a given situation.

McDermid's chapter, "A Pragmatic Multidimensional Model of the Interpreting Process", summarises important concepts in pragmatic meaning, and reminds us that interpreters choose the extent to which they transfer literal, pragmatically enriched, and implied meaning from a source message into the target language. These three levels of meaning are richly illustrated by data from his study which applied this framework to analysing a set of parallel interpretations, showing that levels of meaning conveyed in a target text can be differentiated and measured; overall, only 50% of utterances in the English source text were pragmatically enriched or disambiguated beyond a literal level in interpreters' ASL renditions. The framework and evidence in this paper suggest a valuable resource for teaching interpreters to attend to differences in the way that pragmatic meaning is encoded and understood by spoken and signed language users, and to nudge them to work beyond the literal level.

Three chapters in the volume address dilemmas of equivalence. Quinto-Pozos, Alley, Casanova de Canales and Treviño investigate how trilingual interpreters working in a videophone interpreting context bridge grammatical and pragmatic differences between ASL and Spanish—specifically, how they approach the problem of selecting Spanish gendered nouns and pronouns that mark gender and social distance when the relevant person information is not available in ASL morphology, nor in visible cues about a speaker on the phone. Their study of mock VRS calls found that in the absence of contextual or linguistic clues, interpreters defaulted to masculine noun forms, but varied in their selection of formal/informal addressee pronouns, although they used similar strategies to make their decision. Beyond the challenges of working in a language pair that is morphologically mismatched, Quinto-Pozos et al. point out that the study illustrates how interpreters constantly make decisions that "involve careful consideration of context, interpersonal dynamics between speakers and addresses, and sociocultural norms of communication".

Linguistic and technical challenges in translating subject-specific university entrance exams into Libras (Brazilian Sign Language), as supported by policy in a Brazilian university, are described by Müller de Quadros, Oliveira, Nunes de Sousa and Dutra Vargas. Their detailed account of steps and strategies to produce a viable 'intermodal translation' (from print to video) will be a useful reference for others translating standardised tests or exams. A key challenge was rendering technical subject vocabulary in Libras; solutions included fingerspelling followed by explanation, a technical (low frequency) sign, or a neologism. These strategies reflect spontaneous practices by signers in new domains, but suggest additional cognitive load for a deaf test-taker in processing novel linguistic forms as well as the content and intent of questions. Deaf test-taker perspectives and outcomes from the translated exams would be worth investigating.

Interpreters' decisions and views about using English idioms in ASL-to-English interpretation is the subject of a chapter by Santiago, Barrick and Jennings. They report results of an experimental interpreting task (ASL–English) and exploration of interpreter metacognition about when and why they use or avoid idioms in their English output, revealing some interesting perceptions about register and relational effects of idioms. I had a question mark around the ASL source text including borrowed English idioms, which would seem to prompt

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transfer of those idioms into the target-language text, as opposed to examining interpreters' spontaneous use of English idioms for other reasons. Nevertheless, these authors present an innovative treatment of this topic.

A strength across the studies is the use of multiple methods to address research questions: Most studies included objective analysis of interpreted texts complemented by participant reflection on interpreting process or impacts, or they include perspectives from more than one set of participants. In each case this enriches insight on the topic, informing readers about not only about conditions and products of interpreting/translating, but also about processes of interpreter metacognition and how contextual factors (outside of texts) contribute to interpretation outcomes.

Sign language and interpreting researchers should have this volume, as a solid collection of contemporary research that suggests further questions, including studies that describe methodologies which could be replicated. Interpreting educators will find material here that can be applied in class to stimulate thinking about interactional dimensions of interpreting, as well as experimental evidence that demonstrates how experienced interpreters deal with specific challenges. Because the studies mainly originate from practitioners who are motivated to unpack interpreting to improve professional competence, many chapters will be of interest to advanced students of interpreting who have had some exposure to practice realities. The volume is an excellent resource for interpreters seeking material for professional development activities, such as a research reading circle; working interpreters will find jumping-off points for self-reflection and action research throughout this book. I look forward to a second volume in the series.

Book Review: Linguistic Coping Strategies in Sign Language Interpreting

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The republication of Napier's influential doctoral thesis ensures the continued availability of this detailed version of her original study. Her research focused on two linguistic coping strategies used by signed language interpreters in educational settings: *translational style* and *omissions*. The study additionally examined whether the interpreters' own educational backgrounds impacted their use of these strategies, a relevant issue given that many interpreters working within higher education at the time were not university educated.

Omissions have traditionally been considered errors, but Napier argues that they can be used intentionally as linguistic coping strategies. Like Wadensjö (1998), she adopts an interactional perspective on interpreting, but she develops her own omissions taxonomy that provides valuable distinctions between conscious and deliberate use of omissions and those made unconsciously. However, it is her exploration of interpreters' metacognitive awareness about their omissions, and the analysis of omission frequency, that provides the main substance of this work.

The Prologue outlines the key concepts, and Chapter 1 provides further scene setting, with detail on the various models of interpreting and a focus on interpreting between signed and spoken language. Chapter 2 introduces the notion of *coping strategies,* broadly defined as ways in which interpreters ensure the fluidity of their work. Napier's was one of the earlier doctoral studies into signed language interpreting, when there was a scarcity of similar literature to draw upon. Nevertheless, she provides extensive description of studies on turn-taking (Roy, 2000) and interpreter neutrality (Metzger, 1999), in which she identifies useful parallels in relation to the consciousness of interpreters' decision making. Chapter 3 continues the literature review with an exploration of interpreting in educational and conference settings, both environments involving similar use of formal register and specialized lexicon.

Napier outlines her research questions and method in Chapter 4. The study involved 10 interpreters who each produced an Australian Sign Language (Auslan) interpretation from a recording of a university lecture. The participants were then involved in a task review and interview, to gauge their degree of awareness of the challenges they encountered. Napier reports the study's findings in Chapter 5, which contains rather dense and lengthy passages of text that might have been broken up by subheadings for greater accessibility. Given the small sample size and the varied demographics of the participants, the numerical reporting of the data has its limitations; of far greater value is the qualitative analysis of the relationship between the omissions and the source text.

Napier continues this analysis in Chapter 6. Her data illustrate how interpreters strategically switch between free and literal interpretation styles, a combination particularly suited to the higher education context, where fingerspelling can be an important element for conveying subject-specific terminology in signed language. However, incorporating the perspective of D/deaf students, Napier discovered a variety of preferences and expectations about interpretation style. Most students preferred that interpreters working in this context be university educated, and they valued interpreters' subject knowledge and ability to develop rapport. These attributes have recently gained attention across a range of interpreting contexts (e.g., Dickinson, 2014; Hauser & Hauser, 2008; Hlavac, Xu, & Yong, 2015; Hsieh, Ju, & Kong, 2010; Major, 2013; Schofield & Mapson, 2014). Napier's study also reveals useful detail about the differences in interpreting in university lectures and tutorials, and the impact of translation style on students' ability to take notes.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, the rate of omissions was highest among interpreters who were unfamiliar with the subject matter. The breakdown of different omission types will interest student interpreters and more experienced practitioners working in new contexts. Seven lines within the source text proved the most challenging to all participants, and Napier identifies five problematic textual feature types: (a) unfamiliar or subject-specific terms, (b) idiomatic expressions, (c) proper nouns, (d) repetition and (e) ambiguity. Most omissions occurred within lexically dense text that was often grammatically complex and highly subject-specific; challenges were greater for interpreters unfamiliar with the topic. The discussion about interpreters' metalinguistic awareness of omissions could have included more of participants' own comments, but the data provide valuable evidence of interpreters' metacognitive processing and the need for dynamic decision making.

Although Napier's analysis does not identify any relationship between omissions and interpreters' educational background, her participants made these connections explicit. They commented on how familiarity with the topic area and the discourse environment, gained through their own educational experience, gave them greater confidence in their interpreting ability. However, during interviews, D/deaf consumers revealed a rather uneasy attitude towards omissions; only one of the four participants considered strategic omissions to be appropriate.

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Napier astutely relates this to a perception of omissions as errors, and to deeper concerns around consumer–interpreter trust.

From the different categories of conscious omissions, Napier describes only *strategic conscious omissions* as a linguistic coping strategy. This may be because their strategic use was successful, but of course not all coping strategies, or *controls* (Dean & Pollard, 2001), are employed to good effect. It would therefore be valuable in any future extension or replication of this study to also evaluate the effectiveness of the interpretations produced. A similar complication surrounds discussion about the influence of educational background and subject familiarity, as the two interpreters without a university background were also unfamiliar with the subject area. This is perhaps a missed opportunity to demonstrate the value of university education, and an update on the current proportion of university-trained interpreters would have been a useful addition to the introduction of this second edition.

The brief Introduction to the second edition, which follows the Prologue, situates the study 15 years on from the original publication. Interpreting studies, particularly in the field of signed language interpreting, has grown significantly in the intervening period, and it is something of a hard task to reflect this in any detail within six pages. Napier's thesis led to many subsequent studies by Napier herself, often with a common thread of ascertaining the perspectives of D/deaf consumers. It has also informed the work of other researchers, who have adopted her omission taxonomy as well as her concept of strategic omission.

Although the study focuses on sociolinguistic influences, Napier might have made more explicit connections between interpreting and the growing focus on *intersectionality* within sociolinguistics. That is, while educational background and familiarity with the subject matter are both valuable considerations, it would be helpful to situate them within the plethora of sociolinguistic factors that impact on each interpreter and their practice.

Linguistic Coping Strategies in Sign Language Interpreting is generally an accessible read, and the second edition provides a valuable resource to student and novice interpreters. It is particularly useful for signed language interpreters as they reflect on their work in higher education. Interpreter trainers can use the book in several ways. First, the book is a useful guide to different omission types and their causes. Second, Napier details issues of interpreting style, which she recommends incorporating into interpreter training to educate students on how to use these styles strategically to best effect. Third, the use of metalinguistic reviews adopted in the study can be employed in training situations to help students develop metacognitive awareness and facilitate evaluations of their own practice. Fourth, Napier's analysis will help students develop an awareness of the different omission types and relate them to the five problematic types of textual feature. Thus students can then develop their own strategic use of omissions, and reduce the number of unconscious omissions made. Finally, for interpreters of every experiential level, the study reinforces the value of familiarity with style of discourse, subject matter and terminology.

Read today, the findings from this early doctoral study into signed language interpreting may be less surprising than they were when the study was originally conducted, but at that time they provided fresh insight into translation style and omissions in the university context. Gallaudet University Press has done interpreters, interpreter trainers, and student interpreters a great service by continuing to make this book available.

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