Multilingual Interpreter Education Curriculum Design and Evaluation

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Abstract

Australia, like many other signatories to the United Nations Convention on the Status of Refugees (1951) that have become the destination for asylum seekers, has recognised the importance of providing language services to support the successful settlement of new arrivals, migrants and humanitarian entrants to Australia, who don't speak the mainstream language. However, despite the promise held in the policy statements aimed at supporting settlement through the provision of language services, the quality and availability of interpreting and translation services have often fallen short of the minimum required. The fluctuation in service provision and quality is particularly a problem for rare and emerging languages due to an ever-evolving migrant demographic. The small number of speakers in some language communities renders the recruitment, training and testing of translators and interpreters problematic creating a gap in the provision of translation and interpreting services.

This thesis reports on a study that set out to design, trial and evaluate a multilingual curriculum model that would be suited to the education of interpreters from smaller language communities in Australia. Drawing on constructivist and transformationist models of education, the curriculum model was developed from a reflective and collaborative action research orientation. The interdisciplinary research design draws on Interpreting Studies, Education, Evaluation and Applied Linguistics to inform the design and evaluation processes.

The thesis situates the curriculum within its social, political and professional context and describes the collaborative processes set up for the design and evaluation of the model. The evolution of the curriculum is tracked through the different design, implementation and evaluation phases where data informed each step in the process. The final curriculum model reflects the needs of key stakeholders (interpreters, employers, educators and professional bodies) and the views of the participants in the study. A model for an integrated curriculum development and evaluation process is also proposed.

Key words: Interpreter education, Curriculum design, Curriculum evaluation

Certificate

This research is an original work; it has not been submitted for a higher degree to any other university or institution.

Ethics approval was granted by the Human Research Ethics Committee of Macquarie University in 2003, ref. no.: HE26SEP2003-R02624C (approval letter in Appendix 1)

A summary report of the research focusing on the multilingual aspects of interpreter education has been published as Slatyer, H. (2006). Researching curriculum innovation in interpreter education. The case of initial training for novice interpreters in languages of limited diffusion. In Roy, C (Ed.) *New Approaches to interpreter education*. Washington D.C.: Gallaudet University Press. (Copy in Appendix 2).

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List of abbreviations, acronyms and glossary

AIIC International Association of Conference Interpreters (Association Internationale d'Interprètes de Conférence)

AIMA Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs

ALLP Australian Languages and Literacy Policy

AR Action Research

AUSIT Australian Institute of Translators and Interpreters

CIUTI Conférence internationale permanente d'instituts universitaires de traducteurs et interprètes

COPQ Committee on Overseas Professional Qualifications

CRC Community Relations Commission

DEEWR Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations

DIAC Department of Immigration and Citizenship

DIMIA Department of Immigration, Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs

EAC Ethnic Affairs Commission

EPIC Evaluation Planning Incorporating Context

ETIS Emergency Telephone Interpreter Service

FaHCSIA Department of Families, Housing, Community Services and Indigenous Affairs

HCIS Health Care Interpreter Service

LLDI Languages of Limited Diffusion

LOTE Language(s) Other than English

NAATI National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters

NESB Non-English-Speaking Background

NLP National Language Policy

OMA Office of Multicultural Affairs

Primary participants: refers to the interpreters two clients

RRT Refugee Review Tribunal

STARTTS NSW Service for the Treatment and Rehabilitation of Torture and Trauma Survivors

TAFE Technical and Further Education

TIS Translation and Interpreting Service

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The project would not have been possible without the commitment of the participants in the trial: the student interpreters, the teachers and mentors who gave their time freely to ensure the success of the trial. In over thirty years of teaching, I have rarely experienced such a motivated and engaged group of students and teachers as those who signed up to participate in the trial of the curriculum.

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Chapter 1
Introduction and context

1.1 Introduction

> On a promise of a new life and the best medical care in the world, a family of
> African refugees took their chronically ill son Richard from a hospital bed in
> Kenya and flew to Australia. Met by a caseworker at Sydney Airport, the family
> stood clutching a detailed medical file which told how Richard, just 2½ years
> old, was suffering from sickle-cell anaemia. Once they handed it over, they say,
> they were transferred to a dingy first-floor flat in Fairfield and left on their
> own and told to dial 000 in case of emergency. But the family from Burundi
> spoke no English; they say they had never used a phone before. Eighteen hours
> later, on November 5, Richard was in convulsions. Under pressure, his father
> picked up the phone and heard only the steady beeping on the other end. He
> could not make it work. His son died, on his first night in Sydney, just
> kilometres from a large hospital, while the father Protais Ntiranyi desperately
> roamed the streets crying for help in his native tongue.
>
> <div align="right">(Ray, 2005, p. 29)</div>

The experience of the Ntiranyi family poignantly illustrates the potential for disaster
when people are unable to communicate effectively. Australia, like many other
signatories to the United Nations Convention on the Status of Refugees (1951) that
have become the destination for asylum seekers, has recognised the importance of
providing language services to support the successful settlement of new arrivals,
migrants and humanitarian entrants[1] who don't speak the mainstream language.

Language services have been enshrined in Australian government policy since the
1950s with the establishment of Australia's first Department of Immigration in 1945
(Martin, 1978) and the setting up of the Adult Migrant Education Service in 1948
(Martin, 1998) that provided free English language tuition to new arrivals.
Translating and interpreting services followed in the 1970s with the establishment of
the Emergency Telephone Interpreter Service (ETIS) and specialist interpreter
services in health (Chesher, 1997) with the aim of ensuring that non-native speakers
of English have access to essential services such as health, housing and legal advice
via the services of interpreters and translators. In parallel, new arrivals have been

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[1] The term "migrants and humanitarian entrants" will be used in this thesis to designate both categories of arrivals
in relation to the Australian Government's immigration policy (DIAC, 2007-2008). Both categories are relevant to
this study as they may be designated as new (emerging) or small language communities.

offered free English language instruction, on the assumption that migrants would quickly acquire English and therefore no longer require the services of interpreters and translators.

However, despite the promise held in the policy statements, the quality and availability of interpreting and translation services have often fallen short of the minimum required to ensure that families such as the Ntiranyis gain access to the services they need. The fluctuation in service provision and quality is particularly a problem for rare and emerging languages (also referred to as "languages of limited diffusion" or "languages of lesser demand") due to an ever-evolving migrant demographic as new groups of refugees arrive in Australia and apply for asylum. Australia also has a number of existing language communities with small numbers of speakers (such as the Scandinavian or Baltic communities).[2]

The small number of speakers in some language communities present in Australia such as the Scandinavian and Baltic communities as well as some language communities of the Pacific such as Cook Island Maori and communities that speak dialects such as Hakka, Nuer or Dinka, renders the recruitment, training and testing of translators and interpreters problematic. Firstly, speakers of the migrant language may not have the minimum level of language proficiency in English needed for interpreting or there may be no speakers interested in becoming an interpreter; secondly, the development of testing and training programmes is costly and institutions responsible for these programmes are reluctant to develop new tests and courses for small numbers of potential candidates (sometimes as low as one or two in the smallest language communities); and thirdly, there are seldom "expert" practitioners in these languages who have the potential to become educators, examiners or mentors. Consequently, there is a gap in the provision of translation and interpreting services that needs to be filled through the design and implementation of a model of education that caters specifically to training suitable candidates in the rare and emerging languages who wish to become interpreters (DIMIA, 2003).

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2 I have not separately addressed the provision of interpreters for indigenous languages in this thesis. Many of the difficulties relating to provision in migrant and refugee languages are evident in the indigenous language communities as well. These services are generally funded through the Attorney General's Department and FaHCSIA (personal Communication with Colleen Rosas, Manager Aboriginal Interpreter Service, Darwin, October 2011). The focus of this thesis is languages of immigration due to the nature of the research commission emanating from the migrant sector.

The education of interpreters in Australia has largely been undertaken by the tertiary education sector: the Technical and Further Education (TAFE) institutions or universities. Recent changes to the government funding models for this sector have led institutions to fix minimum numbers of students per programme to ensure financial viability. Since interpreter education is typically offered in specialised language streams to ensure that students are given detailed linguistic feedback on the quality of their interpreting in their language pair, it is usually only offered in languages of greater demand to ensure viability through recruitment of adequate numbers of students per stream. This streamed model does not work for the languages of lesser demand and consequently educational institutions providing professional interpreter education do not offer these languages.

The following overview of the policy and social background to the thesis constitutes the first stage of the evaluation project reported in this thesis and serves to assess the context in which the curriculum was developed. The overview includes both primary and secondary sources: parliamentary reports, policy statements, research papers on sociological investigations of the migrant experience and the relationship between social movements and policy development, reports documenting the evolution of language services and research reports on past and current practice in the provision of language services. The final section of this chapter includes an overview of the thesis chapters.

1.2   The political and social context of the development of community interpreting in Australia: an historical perspective

The provision of public sector translating and interpreting services in Australia falls principally within the framework of the Commonwealth Government's immigration policy[3]. The government's response to the needs of migrants during the process of settlement evolved slowly from the mid-20th century towards a policy of multiculturalism, reflecting a shift in public opinion and government ideology from xenophobia to one which, today, largely supports cultural and linguistic diversity in the Australian population. Policy documents from Commonwealth, State and

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[3] I refer here to the spoken language services provided in the context of immigration. The provision of Auslan interpreting evolved in a quite distinct way as it was linked to disability services (Bontempo & Levitzke-Gray, 2009). Aboriginal language services have also evolved along different trajectories, at times funded through the same channels as migrant languages (Ozolins, 1998). In parallel to the public provision of translating and interpreting services there is an extensive private market that is not included in the present overview.

Territory governments have committed to equity of access to all government services (DIMIA, 2003; Martin, 1978).

However, despite the stated commitment and the existence of a plethora of government reports and procedures to ensure a range of well-structured and extensive services in many sectors and languages, there are wide-ranging systemic failures that undermine the commitment to the principles of multiculturalism and the success of the access and equity strategy.

The following account is not intended to provide a detailed history of immigration and language policy development as this has been done comprehensively elsewhere (see, for example, DIMIA, 2003; Martin, 1978; Ozolins, 1991, 1998; York, 2003). The purpose of this chapter is rather to provide a brief account of the main trends in policy development that have directly impacted on the nature, quality and extent of interpreting services provided by Commonwealth, State and Territory governments with a particular focus on New South Wales, the locus of the research described in this thesis. This background information serves to situate the curriculum project within its social and political context.

The chapter starts with a description of the broader picture of the historical development of national immigration and language policies and then describes current policy at the State Government level in NSW. Institutionally-based policies and guidelines for working with interpreters (specifically legal and health, the main sites where interpreters are employed [Slatyer & Napier, 2010]) are briefly discussed in relation to the provision of service in NSW. This descriptive overview of the relevant policy frameworks provides the background for a brief overview of the development and current status of community interpreting in Australia.

In the first section of the chapter on immigration and language policy, both translating and interpreting are referred to as they both fall within the category of public language service provision and have followed parallel development in many respects. However, only interpreting will be discussed thereafter in the context of current professional practice as the chapter shifts into a narrower focus on the core constructs of the thesis.

1.2.1 Immigration and language policy in Australia

Immigration policy falls under the aegis of the Commonwealth Government of Australia and while policy development is essentially politically driven, it is also shaped by ideological stances and economic and social imperatives. Government Ministers are highly sensitive to public opinion, which in Australia, is often manipulated by the media (an example is the consistent use in the Australian media of the terms "illegal immigrant"/"queue jumper" when referring to "asylum seekers"/"refugees"). Immigration policy reflects xenophobic attitudes and issues of individual and group identity as Ozolins (1993) has demonstrated in his sociological study of the development of language policy in Australia and others such as Martin (1978), Burnett (1998) and Martin (1998) have documented.

Australia's history is one of linguistic and cultural diversity. Before the colonisation of Australia by the British in 1788, Australia's indigenous population was linguistically diverse, speaking an estimated 200 to 250 languages (Yallop, 1982) that qualified them as being "one of the most multilingual people in the world" by Flood (2006, p. 142). The Aborigines regularly interacted with other linguistic communities in the region. Early European settlement was, in the majority, made up of immigrants of British origin, principally convicts, the administrators of the colony and a small number of free settlers. From the 1830s successive waves of non-British migration arrived; firstly, individuals arriving as free settlers, then a large increase in the number of arrivals from Europe, Asia and the Americas notably after the discovery of gold in 1851 (Ozolins, 1993). This period of immigration further enriched Australia's linguistic and cultural make-up.

Racist attitudes, essentially towards Asian migrants in the gold fields (ibid.) and Pacific Islander workers in the sugar cane industry in Queensland (Martin, 1998), led to the first immigration "policy", the so-called "White Australia Policy", which limited immigration though the Immigration (Restriction) Act 1901 described as an Act "to place certain restrictions on immigration and to provide for the removal from the Commonwealth of prohibited immigrants" (DIAC, 2010). The implementation of the Act effectively restricted immigration to English speakers notably through the use of a notoriously difficult and subjective dictation test (Martin, 1978). The

Naturalisation Act 1903 that set the rules for Australian Citizenship soon followed and had provision for excluding applicants from Asia, Africa and the Pacific islands (except New Zealand). An amendment to the Act in 1917 further ensured that applicants for citizenship renounced their own nationality and could read and write English (Martin, 1998).

A shift in thinking came initially with the arrival of European Jews fleeing NAZI Germany prior to World War II when naturalisation policy was relaxed in order to accept these non-English speaking migrants as citizens after the war (Ozolins, 1993). Further weakening of the policy came with revisions to the Act in 1958 and again following a review in 1966 when the then Minister for Immigration, Hubert Opperman, announced that non-European migrants would be accepted into Australia (Martin, 1978).

The dismantling of the White Australia Policy, while essentially driven by public opinion and ideological changes, was also motivated by more pragmatic concerns; Australia's declining population from a low birth rate and the dramatic decline in British immigration during the depression of the 1930s (ibid.), brought an urgent need to find solutions to the population problem. Mass immigration was seen to be one of the few options available (Ozolins, 1993). The post-war economic recovery was dependent on finding manpower for resource exploitation, industry and the building boom that were under threat from a lack of available labour. There was also a fear of invasion following the Japanese bombing of Darwin and infiltration into the heart of Sydney during the war. Australia was a "vast, unpopulated continent" (Calwell, cited in Ozolins, 1993, p. 5) with an extensive, unprotected coastline. In order to redress the low population, an immigration programme was set up immediately after the war and the first Department of Immigration was established in 1945 for this purpose. Arthur Calwell, the first Minister for Immigration, was committed to large-scale, non-British immigration and had to convince the Australian parliament and public opinion that Australia's future prosperity depended on it.

> "Our first requirement is additional population. We need it for reasons of defence and for the fullest expansion of our economy"
>
> (Ozolins, 1993; Sherrington, 1990, p. 65)

The second half of the twentieth century saw a marked shift in policy related to immigration. Over the following four decades, a series of strategies was adopted in an attempt to manage the arrival of large numbers of migrants of non-English-speaking background (see Table 1 below for an overview of the different strategies in social and political development). Three main phases of settlement philosophy were:

- Assimilationism (1947-mid 1960s)

- Integrationism (transitional phase until 1972)

- Multiculturalism in various forms (1970s thereafter) (Burnett, 1998)

In assimilationist terms, successful settlement was seen as the achievement of invisibility where the immigrant was able to "adapt to existing cultural norms and become indistinguishable from the Australian-born population as quickly as possible" (DIMIA, 2003, p. 24). This view reflected an ideology of settlement that considered that immigrants would assimilate into Australian society without "undue strain … or radical change to society" and that the "smooth integration" of the individual would be threatened by association with immigrant groups (Martin, 1978, p. 4). A declining rate of immigrant arrivals and an increasing rate of departures forced the government to acknowledge that assimilationism was not working (Martin, 1978). Integrationism followed from the mid-1960s and was essentially maintenance of assimilationist goals with an acknowledgement that settlement would be more successful with the participation of ethnic support groups. However, despite a range of initiatives such as the "Good Neighbour Councils" established throughout Australia to foster good relations between the Australian community and new arrivals (ibid., p. 12), official policies from the late 1960s recognised that the assimilationist strategy (including integrationism) was not working and that assimilation was neither "possible nor desirable" (Burnett, 1998, p. 7). Migrant communities were clearly maintaining their identity and cohesiveness and Australia was becoming less attractive as a destination for migrants because of the lack of support for migrant communities.

Following these inauspicious beginnings for a multicultural Australia, thinking began to change dramatically during the 1970s. Multiculturalism was first mentioned in Government policy documents in 1972 and in 1973 the Whitlam Labor Government removed race as a factor in the selection of migrants.

Table 1   Chronology of social change and cultural transformation, Australia 1947-1993

1947-1964: Assimilation	
Post-war reconstruction; building up of economic infrastructure and manufacturing industries: full employment and growing affluence	Immigration programme begins, first from Britain, northern and eastern Europe, then from southern Europe; strict assimilationist policies and attitudes
1964-1972: Integration	
Slowing-down of growth in manufacturing industries; shift of employment of service industries and community services; growth of professional/white collar employment; married women enter the labour force	Immigration continues from southern Europe, extending to Middle-Eastern countries; English lessons for NESB children; ethnic community organisations become public and more active
1972-1975: Ethnic pluralism	
Election of Whitlam (Labor) Government; focus on social development and political participation; growth of the new middle class; oil crisis; rise of unemployment; free tertiary education and health insurance	Immigration slow-down; focus on settlement process; concept of 'the family of the nation'; first notions of multiculturalism; 'ethnic' radio introduced
1975-1983: Multiculturalism Stage 1	
Fraser Government (Conservative Liberal-NCP Coalition) comes to power; economic slow-down; decline of manufacturing industries; changes in social policy towards privatisation; reduction of public sector activities; further rise of unemployment	Galbally report on migrant programmes and services; cultural pluralism accepted as policy; 'ethnic' television; immigration from South-East Asia begins (including refugees - 'boat-people')
1983-1988: Multiculturalism Stage 2	
Hawke (Labor) Government; economic recovery; market deregulation; growth of employment, mainly for women; further growth of service and community industries	Reappraisal of multiculturalism; movement to 'access and equity'; ROMAMPAS report, criticism of policy of multiculturalism by the conservatives
1988-1993: Post-multiculturalism?	
Recession 1989, deepening in 1990; industry restructuring; unemployment accelerates; economic rationalism comes into question; Keating replaces Hawke as Prime Minister 1991; policy focus on Asia; pressure for republican Australia, signs of economic recovery	CAAIP report; National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia; conservative/economic rationalist attack on immigration and multiculturalism; immigration reduced; uncertain future but some signs of a more open society; multiculturalism again under discussion

(Jamrozik, Boland, & Urquhart, 1995, p. 113)

The Minister for Immigration in the new government was Al Grassby, of migrant descent himself and an influential actor in shifting thinking and implementing policies during the seventies that were to contribute to the demise of the "white, anglo hegemony in Australia" (Ozolins, 1993, p. 110). His delivery of "A Multi-Cultural Society for the Future" on 11th August, 1973, gave the first official endorsement to multiculturalism by a Minister for Immigration (Lopez, 2000, p. 249) since the

department was first set up in 1945. Grassby was also responsible for setting up State-based Task Forces to examine settlement problems. The recommendations from the Task Forces set the agenda for the Department of Immigration in the seventies (Burnett, 1998; Martin, 1978; Ozolins, 1993). During this period ethnic groups began to organise themselves into Ethnic Communities Councils set up in 1974-75 for the purpose of increasing their lobbying power with the Government (Chesher, 1997).

It was the activism of the ethnic communities challenging the Government for its poor performance in immigration and ethnic affairs that led the Fraser Liberal Government to set up a Committee led by criminal defence lawyer Frank Galbally to review services and programmes for migrants in 1978 (Ozolins, 1993). Widely regarded as a watershed in the understanding of the migrant experience, the Galbally report was symbolically tabled in Parliament in 10 languages. The report recognizes

> "the complex process of adjusting to a new environment following migration is a long process affecting all immigrants ... Its end point is the acceptance by and feeling of belonging to the receiving society. It implies change both in the individual migrant and the host society" (Galbally, 1978, p. 29).

The Galbally review was undertaken at a time when Australia was at a "critical point" in its development as a cohesive, multicultural nation. The Committee considered that a change in the Government approach to the provision of services for migrants was necessary in order for multiculturalism to continue to develop (Galbally, 1982, p. 7). In particular, Galbally emphasised the essential role of appropriate language services for successful settlement, particularly in the early stages ("post-arrival" services). Issues of equity and access to services were raised in the report and one of the basic premises was the recommendation that migrants and humanitarian entrants of non-English speaking background have equality in their access to mainstream services (those available to all Australians) and that their language and culture of origin be maintained. Discriminatory social welfare policy that limited access to services to Australian-born citizens was acknowledged and abandoned (DIMIA, 2003, p. 27). Equity of access to government services has remained a strong theme in immigration policy since the Galbally review and has become a cornerstone of the success of migrant settlement in Australia, reversing the politically,

economically and socially damaging departures of migrants who were unable to settle successfully in Australia.

However, despite the emphasis on multiculturalism in the 1970s and the setting up of the Australian Institute of Multicultural Affairs (AIMA) in 1979 under the Act of the same name as recommended by the Galbally report (Recommendation 49), the concept was not explicitly defined until 1989 in the National Agenda for a Multicultural Australia (OMA, 1989). Multiculturalism was defined as "simply a term which describes the cultural and ethnic diversity of contemporary Australia". Multicultural policy referred to "Government measures designed to respond to that diversity … managing the consequences of cultural diversity in the interests of the individual and society as a whole" (ibid., p. vii).

Three dimensions of multiculturalism were described:

- cultural identity: the right of all Australians within carefully defined limits, to express and share their individual cultural heritage, including their language and religion

- social justice: the right of all Australians to equality of treatment and opportunity and the removal of barriers of race, ethnicity, culture, religion, language, gender or place of birth

- economic efficiency: the need to maintain, develop and utilise the skills and talents of all Australians, regardless of background (OMA, 1989, p. 69)

The National Agenda provided a policy framework committed to the principles of multiculturalism within which future programmes and services to assist with settlement would be developed. In conjunction with the access and equity frameworks and strategies, the policy has laid the foundations for our current interpreting services leading to major changes in institutions and practices. The implications of a multicultural policy for settlement meant that there was greater acceptance of cultural diversity and an admission of the necessity of some (cultural) adjustment by Australian society (Morrissey, 1984). Grassby is widely credited with the ideological shift to multiculturalism, but Lopez notes that "The measures introduced in the early months of 1973, such as the Emergency Telephone Interpreter

Service had been previously developed and announced under (the previous conservative) government" (Lopez, 2000, p. 452).

In the context of the shift to multiculturalism, a greater focus on the linguistic rights of citizens led to Australia taking steps to develop a national policy on language in 1987, the *National Language Policy* (NLP), that later became the *Australian Language and Literacy Policy* (ALLP) under the direction of the National Institute for Language and Literacy. The NLP was quite a progressive document that recognised the status of English as the unofficial national language and the co-existence with indigenous and community languages: "Although English is the de facto national language of Australia its status as such has never been declared explicitly. It is the first and usually the only language of about 83% of the population as well as being the language of the major and powerful institutions of the society" (Lo Bianco, 1987, p. 7). In addition to English, the policy recognises the importance and value of indigenous and community languages and acknowledges Australia's inherent multilingualism and situates it within a pluralistic paradigm. The NLP adopted the four guiding principles of the Senate Standing Committee on the "Development and Implementation of a Coordinated Language Policy for Australia"; namely:

- competence in English

- maintenance and development of languages other than English

- provision of services in languages other than English

- opportunities for learning second languages

<div align="right">(ibid., pp. 2-3)</div>

The NLP's perspective on language policy identified language and linguistic diversity as an opportunity rather than as the means for "pleading" for support for disadvantage arising from that linguistic diversity. In the section on language services, translating and interpreting are explicitly mentioned as "an aspect of service provision in Australia rather than a welfarist programme for the disadvantaged" (ibid., p. 18) that also viewed the provision of translating and interpreting as the means to support the use and maintenance of languages other than English. The progressivism of the NLP was undermined in the next iteration of language policy,

the ALLP: "While the NLP symbolically positioned all Australians as both possessors and learners of languages, the ALLP works from the laborist and economic rationalist notions that those who lack English lie outside the mainstream of skills and democratic values - they are objects for assistance and shaping in the economistic national interest" (Moore, 1995, p. 13). The pluralism of the NLP gave way to a view of languages other than English as "foreign" languages.

Australia's language policy is an important component of multiculturalism, reflecting human linguistic rights and spelling out the key components of linguistic diversity, maintenance and language learning. However, the principal focus of the policy is on language recognition and learning, with the key recommendations for the advisory council going to funding for language research and implementation of language learning (both English and LOTE) rather than to support language maintenance, access and equity through the use of language services in interpreting and translation. The nexus between language learning (and support for migrants to learn languages rather than use language services) has rarely been either explored or discussed (Plimer & Candlin, 1996). However, research funding from the Department of Immigration has only ever been allocated to migrant language issues and never to translating and interpreting research and development.

From 1995 to 2006, the implementation of multicultural policy was framed by the Charter of Public Service in a Culturally Diverse Society (DIMIA, 2003). The philosophy of the Charter centred on access and equity in the provision of government services to all Australians. However, rather than a centralised provision of service being the responsibility of the Department of Immigration, the Charter aimed at developing culturally appropriate service provision within all government services in a "whole of government" approach (ibid., p. 109). Not only were government agencies required to demonstrate their implementation of the Charter; they were also required to pay for the services. However, the risk in this policy was that agencies and departments would avoid including interpreting and translation services in their budget and revert to the "bring a family member" practices of the past.

The most recent iteration of the Federal Government's policy on multiculturalism, at the time of writing, is "The People of Australia" (DIAC, 2011)[4]. The policy confirms a commitment to supporting cultural and linguistic diversity and the provision of interpreters and translators and ongoing support for access and equity in the provision of services (ibid.) through its four principles:

Principle 1: The Australian Government celebrates and values the benefits of cultural diversity for all Australians, within the broader aims of national unity, community harmony and maintenance of our democratic values.

Principle 2: The Australian Government is committed to a just, inclusive and socially cohesive society where everyone can participate in the opportunities that Australia offers and where government services are responsive to the needs of Australians from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

Principle 3: The Australian Government welcomes the economic, trade and investment benefits which arise from our successful multicultural nation.

Principle 4: The Australian Government will act to promote understanding and acceptance while responding to expressions of intolerance and discrimination with strength and where necessary, with the force of the law. (DIAC, 2011, p. 5)

The accompanying Access and Equity Framework maintains the support for linguistic and cultural diversity through the "principle and performance indicator" for "Communication", that stipulates the need to provide information in "appropriate languages" (Strategy i) and "using interpreters" (Strategy ii) (DIAC, 2011, p. 14). The Federal Government monitors compliance with the Strategy by State and Territory departments and agencies in an annual reporting process managed by the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC).

Little has changed fundamentally in the ideology of Australia's multicultural policy since it was first drafted in 1989. All versions since this time have included a

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[4] The Department of Immigration has changed its title over the period of reference in this thesis. The generic "Department of Immigration" has been used to refer to the immigration portfolio and the actual title of the Department (e.g., Department of Immigration, Multicultural and Indigenous Affairs) is used with reference to events during the different government mandates.

statement about inclusiveness in relation to linguistic and cultural diversity. The access and equity strategy has explicitly stated the necessity of ensuring that all residents of Australia have equal access to services. It is these two principles that have shaped Australia's response to language needs in the community and framed the nation's commitment to publicly-funded translating and interpreting services.

Individual States and Territories have developed their own policy frameworks to implement federally defined policy in response to the conditions that prevail locally. Ethnic Affairs Commissions (EACs) were set up in each State in the late 1970s to address local needs for the settlement of migrants. Much of the input into the Federal Government's policy and language service initiatives came from the State and Territory-based Task Forces that were monitoring the success or otherwise of different policies and frameworks (Martin, 1978). In terms of policy, the States and Territories have developed multicultural policies that are largely committed to supporting the implementation of the Federal Access and Equity Strategy. In contrast to the Federal response that, because it has remained within immigration (apart from a brief period in the Department of Social Security from 1974-1976), has been primarily concerned with migrant affairs and therefore with migrant languages, the EACs have encompassed indigenous languages as part of their portfolio and have continued (either as the EAC, Office of Multicultural Affairs or equivalent State or Territory body) to be the principal locus for implementation of the access and equity strategy with oversight of all government provided language services at the State and Territory level.

In New South Wales (NSW), it has been government policy since 1989 that individuals using NSW public sector services are not required to book or pay for interpreting services. The Ethnic Affairs Commission (now the Community Relations Commission [CRC]) has been the main provider of services to migrants for the purposes of settlement consistent with the "whole of government" approach adopted in the 1990s. The CRC's Principles of Multiculturalism Act 2000 frames policies relating to the provision of services to migrants in this State, identifying the objectives of the Community Relations Commission as:

- s12(b) access to government and community services that is equitable and that has regard to the linguistic, religious, racial and ethnic diversity of the people of New South Wales

- s12(c) the promotion of a cohesive and harmonious multicultural society with respect for and understanding of cultural diversity

- s13(i) to provide (whether within or outside New South Wales) interpreter or other services approved by the Minister (CRC, 2009)

The CRC has oversight of other public agencies and government departments (such as health, welfare and education) to ensure that they comply with the objectives stated above for equitable access to services, stipulating that staff must be "proficient in the application of the protocols, including the processes" (NSWHealth, 2006, p. 5).

The responsibility for payment of language services lies with the particular government agency or service provider with which the individual is dealing, consistent with the cost-recovery principle, including where these services are tendered out to private companies. Government departments and agencies are required to make resource allocations within their programmes to cover interpreting and translation costs.

1.2.2 Language service provision

Once large-scale immigration of people from non-English speaking backgrounds commenced in the 1950s, a government response to communication needs became necessary. In the context of assimilationist strategies, the priority in terms of language services targeted English language acquisition and the delivery of English language tuition through the Adult Migrant English Programme (AMEP) set up in 1948 (Martin, 1998). This strategy was based on the perception that little effort would be required for new arrivals to learn English and "blend in" to Australian society. It was also felt that it would be "contrary to egalitarian values" to provide any special support to migrants (ibid. p, 4). The Galbally report promulgated the notion that despite the provision of English tuition programmes, there would always be people who would not speak English well (Galbally, 1978, p. 236) leading to acceptance that

migrants needed assistance in the form of translating and interpreting if they were to successfully settle in Australia and ultimately become active participants in society.

Jamrozik et al (1995) describe the Commonwealth Government as a "slow learner" in relation to the lack of understanding of the migrant experience and the settlement support required to ensure that settlement was successful. As a result, settlement assistance to new arrivals was "variable and piecemeal" (DIMIA, 2003, p. 23). By the mid 1960s, institutions started experiencing difficulty in coping with their non-English-speaking immigrant clients without the aid of interpreters (Martin, 1978; Plimer & Candlin, 1996). The increased visibility of the migrant presence and the emergence of a literature on migrants as disadvantaged members of the community (Ozolins, 1998), combined with the concern for migrant rights to equal access to services, gradually led to awareness that better interpreting services were required. As policy frameworks evolved towards multiculturalism and the value of language and culture and the need to ensure access to government services for non-English speaking migrants through the provision of interpreting became evident, the emphasis shifted from one of welfare to a question of equity. It was becoming clear that successful settlement depended on successful communication (Plimer & Candlin, 1996).

The NSW Government set up the first government interpreter service in Australia in the 1950s, the Chief Government Interpreter and Translator, appointed in 1954 as a public servant under the NSW Attorney General's Department (Jakubowicz & Buckley, 1975). Interpreters employed by this service worked essentially for the courts but had no training in court procedure, legal terminology or the role of the interpreter and no specific qualifications were required to become a member of the interpreter panel. Not surprisingly, complaints about poor quality interpreting and unethical behaviour were common (ibid., pp.18-19). Meanwhile, other bodies including private organisations, recognised the need for translation and interpreting services and set up their own services. Some Federal initiatives such as the availability of grants made possible through the Galbally Review have stimulated State-based responses to the provision of language services, but it was not until the 1960s that a translation unit was finally set up by the Department of Immigration (Jamrozik et al., 1995, p. 82).

At this time, there was no formal training provided for interpreters who were most often bilinguals, generally migrants themselves who had taken on the role of interpreter or were asked to assist when an interpreter was required (Gentile, Ozolins, & Vasilakakis, 1996; Martin, 1998; Ozolins, 1998). The NSW Association of Mental Health first raised the question of the inadequacies of interpreter services in mental health in the 1960s. In the 1970s, the Australian Council of Social Services and a number of other bodies including the Department of Immigration also began questioning the adequacy of interpreting services (Martin, 1978). In response to these concerns and lobbying from different migrant groups the Federal Government set up the Emergency Telephone Interpreter Service (ETIS) in 1973 (Chesher, 1997).

The Translating and Interpreting Service (formerly ETIS) is still operating and provides services 24 hours, 7 days a week to residents of Australia who require the services of an interpreter. TIS is the major employer of interpreters in Australia with telephone interpreting representing around 50% of all interpreter service provision by the Federal Government (DIMIA, 2003). It currently covers more than 120 languages and dialects. In addition to TIS, Centrelink (the national provider of social services) has its own internal interpreting and translating service. In NSW, the CRC is the main provider of language services in all areas except health that has its own Health Care Interpreter Service. More recently, the CRC sub-contracts services from private translating and interpreting agencies. The Health Care Interpreter Service (HCIS), funded by the NSW Department of Health has been providing 24 hour, 7 day-a-week service within the public health system since the 1970s. Interpreting may be delivered face-to-face, by telephone or videoconference and is free to all public health patients. Private providers and other government departments can use the service for a fee ("cost-recovery"). TIS provides backup for these services when a particular language is not available through the State agency (NSWHealth, 2006).

Despite the fairly comprehensive service provision available through these Federal and State agencies, significant gaps in service provision still remain, in particular, in relation to small or emerging languages (DIAC, 2007-08; DIMIA, 2003) and in remote communities in Australia with the smaller states relying principally on TIS for their interpreting needs. There is also an acknowledged wide variation in the quality of these services.

1.2.3 Accreditation of interpreters

The quality of interpreting has been a constant concern since the early days of service provision and the object of a number of government enquiries and reports since the 1970s. In 1977, the Commission for Overseas Professional Qualifications (COPQ) issued a report that recommended, for this reason, the setting up of a national body to oversee the creation of appropriate standards for the translating and interpreting profession (COPQ, 1977). The National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI) was set up in 1977 leading to Australia's unique accreditation system that encompasses the credentialing of both translators and interpreters at a range of levels (Ozolins, 1998). At the time, the view was that the translating and interpreting profession must mirror the standards of professionalism that characterise other professions. Today, NAATI identifies its primary purpose as "to strengthen inclusion and participation in Australian society by assisting in meeting its diverse and changing communication needs and expectations, through:

- setting, maintaining and promoting high national standards in translating and interpreting and

- implementing a national quality-assurance system for credentialing practitioners who meet those standards.

NAATI credentialing provides quality assurance to the clients of translators and interpreters and gives credibility to agencies that employ practitioners who are credentialed appropriately" (NAATI, 2010).

NAATI's first task was to define the standards for the profession based on recommendations from the COPQ. The initial recommendation suggested two levels of language aide and three levels for interpreters. The language aide levels were later abandoned for fear of confusion with the interpreter levels and the potential for employers of interpreters to use lower paid language aids instead of properly qualified interpreters. The interpreter standards have evolved over the years and are now defined as below in Table 2. NAATI commenced its programme of testing in 1980 as the basis for granting accreditation (Martin, 1994).

Table 2   Levels of NAATI Accreditation for interpreters

Conference Interpreter (Senior) (formerly known as Level 5)	This is the highest level of NAATI interpreting accreditation. It reflects a level of excellence in conference interpreting, recognised through demonstrated extensive experience and international leadership. It encompasses and builds on the competencies of Conference Interpreter accreditation.
Conference Interpreter (formerly known as Level 4)	This represents the level of competence required to handle complex, technical and sophisticated interpreting, in both consecutive and simultaneous modes, in line with recognised international practice. Conference Interpreters operate in diverse situations, including at conferences, high-level negotiations and court proceedings and may choose to specialise in a particular area(s).
Professional Interpreter (formerly known as Level 3)	This represents the minimum level of competence for professional interpreting and is the minimum level recommended by NAATI for work in most settings, including banking, law, health and social and community services. Professional Interpreters are capable of interpreting across a wide range of semi-specialised situations and are capable of using the consecutive mode to interpret speeches or presentations.
Paraprofessional Interpreter (formerly known as Level 2)	This represents a level of competence in interpreting for the purpose of general conversations. Paraprofessional Interpreters generally undertake the interpretation of non-specialist dialogues. Practitioners at this level are encouraged to obtain Professional-Level accreditation.
Interpreter Recognition	This credential is an acknowledgement that at the time of the award the applicant has had recent and regular work experience as an interpreter, but no level of proficiency is specified. In order to be granted NAATI Recognition, the applicant must provide proof of English proficiency and complete an introductory NAATI workshop or related activity. There is no NAATI testing of a Recognition applicant. Recognised interpreters are encouraged to obtain accreditation as it becomes available.

(NAATI, 2010)

At the time testing was the principal means of gaining accreditation along with recognition of overseas qualifications. However, only Professional Interpreter and Paraprofessional levels were and still are available through the testing programme. The higher levels of Conference Interpreter and Conference Interpreter (Senior) have always been granted on the basis of qualifications and professional recognition by peers (notably through AIIC membership).

Currently, the five means of gaining accreditation are:

- passing a NAATI accreditation test

- successful completion of a course of studies in translation and/or interpreting at an Australian institution as approved by NAATI

- providing evidence of a specialised tertiary qualification in translation and/or interpreting obtained from a recognized educational institution overseas

- providing evidence of a membership of a recognised international translating and/or interpreting professional association (such as AIIC, AITC)

- providing evidence of advanced standing in translating or interpreting (NAATI, 2010.)

NAATI has reduced the scope of their annual testing programme in recent years to better cater to fluctuations in demand and budget constraints by administering more on-demand testing. The Authority commissioned a major review of its standards and testing formats (the second major review of NAATI's testing programme since the commencement of testing) leading to a collaborative research project in 2011 and 2012 (Hale et al., 2012). The report by Hale and her colleagues (ibid.) makes recommendations that, if adopted, will fundamentally change the way NAATI tests and accredits translators and interpreters. Some important changes recommended in the report relate to the duration of the lower levels of accreditation and the need for practitioners to improve the performance by moving up the levels. The report also recommends the introduction of specialisations (in health and legal) particularly for interpreters (ibid.). NAATI is currently preparing a second phase of research to prepare for the implementation of a first set of the recommendations.

For languages where there is no test available due to the small number of candidates, NAATI offers recognition based on evidence of workplace experience. However, the Authority explicitly states that recognition contains no guarantee of the ability of the interpreter (NAATI, 2010). Many of the interpreters from emerging or small language communities have no other option but to obtain recognition as there is there no NAATI test in their language, nor are there courses for studying interpreting available in their language.

Due to the practical constraints of administering large-scale tests, the test formats exclude the interactive functions of the community interpreter's role. The test is administered via audio-cassette. Candidates therefore are not tested on their ability to manage the complex communicative, cross-cultural and interpersonal functions of the interpreter's role. Questions testing interpreter's knowledge of the AUSIT Code of

Ethics invite formulaic type responses to standard-scenario problems rather than integrating these components with the performance test of interpreting. In view of the effect of washback from testing, interpreters who enter the profession via an accreditation test risk not being equipped with the understanding they require to be able to respond to an infinite number of interpersonal, communicative and ethical problems encountered daily in the practice of their profession.

NAATI's tests and procedures are regularly subjected to criticism from the translating and interpreting community on the basis of their perceived lack of objectivity, validity and reliability and the absence of rigorous validation research (see Hale et al, 2012). NAATI's capacity for assessing overseas translation and interpreting qualifications is also limited and is generally undertaken by NAATI staff and members of the NAATI Qualifications Assessment Advisory Committee on the basis of personal knowledge of the field. There are perceptions that the process lacks rigour (Crezee, 2015 personal communication).

1.2.4 Creation of a national professional association

To further promote the professionalization of language services, NAATI was given the mission of setting up a national professional association for translators and interpreters (Ozolins, 1998). The Australian Institute of Interpreters and Translators (AUSIT) was created in 1988 at the instigation of NAATI and invited representatives of state based professional associations (McGilvray, 2012). One of the first tasks assigned to the fledgling association was the drafting of a Code of Ethics and Code of Practice. The AUSIT Code has since become the code of reference for NAATI testing (as mentioned above) and also for professional practice in Australia.

AUSIT became a member of the International Federation of Translators (FIT) in 1990 and has maintained close links with professional organisations nationally and internationally. AUSIT hosted the XIVth FIT World Congress in 1996 and will be hosting the 2017 World Congress (AUSIT, 2014). It was at the 1996 FIT World Congress that the Community Based Interpreting Committee of FIT was set up with Terry Chesher as the inaugural Chair (McGilvray), 2012) giving prominence to community interpreting as an emerging professional sector of the industry.

AUSIT has around 700 members at the time of writing and plays an important role in providing a forum for translators and interpreters to discuss professional issues, in setting up professional development seminars, in bringing together researchers, educators and practitioners at the national conference and in providing input to government language service policy.

1.2.5 Current status of community interpreting[5] as professional practice

The previous sections of this chapter have provided an overview of the political and social influences of the profession in the Australia context. In the next section, I evaluate the position of Australia as a provider of interpreter services to migrants. Community interpreters make up the largest group of translating and interpreting professionals working in Australia today. Of the 798 respondents to the Kaleidoscope survey of Australian translating and interpreting professionals, 44% nominated community interpreting as their main occupation with a further 34% stating that they did both translating and interpreting (Slatyer & Napier, 2010). This is predominantly a feminine profession (68.6% of respondents) and an ageing one with 32.2% falling into the 40-49 age group and only 7% under the age of 30 (ibid.).

For the purpose of evaluating the status quo, I use Ozolins' model of the spectrum of responsiveness to translating and interpreting needs (Ozolins, 2000, p. 22). Following his review of interpreting and translating services around the world, Ozolins proposed the model as a means for evaluating the status of translating and interpreting service provision by host countries (Fig. 1). The model describes the range of responses in evidence around the world and even though Ozolins stipulates that it is not intended to represent steps along a continuum, the model very neatly reflects the steps that have been taken in Australia: the evolution of services from the outset where there are no translating or interpreting services; the first services are ad hoc services using bilinguals in the community; followed by generic services (such as ETIS) and subsequently more specialised services set up in specific institutions such as hospitals, courts and social service agencies. The final stage is comprehensiveness

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[5] I refer here to "community interpreting" as it was known in Australia at the time of this study. Community interpreting refers to the type of interpreting undertaken for minority language speakers to access mainstream public services such as health, police, legal and social welfare. A discussion of the different terms and definitions is provided in section 2.2 of this thesis.

where translating and interpreting is provided across the board in conjunction with training and accreditation/certification systems.

Figure 1   Spectrum of responsiveness to need

Comprehensiveness, according to Ozolins, is based on the presence of three essential criteria:

- organised language services

- training and

- accreditation

In addition to these three main criteria, Ozolins identifies secondary criteria that are considered to be important to the development of comprehensive services:

- professional development

- training for users

- policy planning and

- inclusion of all languages

- private and public provision and

- development of a profession

Ozolins qualifies this last requirement as perhaps the most difficult to achieve in view of the institutionally-driven nature of community interpreting in most countries (Ozolins, 2000).

The growth of community interpreting in Australia started out as an ad hoc response to the needs of minority language populations or of mainstream institutions where no services previously existed. Before the setting up of specialised interpreter services in

the 1970s, it was often a member of the minority community who served as interpreter (Gentile et al., 1996). According to Gentile et al. this resulted in a "service provided by taxi drivers, kitchen hands, fruiterers and children" (ibid., p. 26). As an example of this practice, Ozolins describes an innovative arrangement between hospitals and taxi drivers; because many taxi drivers were of migrant origin, a hospital could "hire" a taxi driver of the right language background who would turn on his meter, come in and interpret and be paid by the hospital (Ozolins, 1998, p. 20).

Taking Ozolins' (ibid.) first criterion, "organised language services", Australia could be considered to have achieved comprehensiveness due to the existence of the Translation and Interpreter Service, Centrelink (the Australian Government agency that delivers social services) and other specialist services, such as the Health Care Interpreter Service in NSW, that provide 24-hour service in a broad range of languages to all public institutions and government agencies and fee paying services to private sector agencies. The second criterion, "training", could also be considered to have been achieved through the provision of a range of vocational and higher education programmes approved by NAATI and leading to accreditation at Paraprofessional and Professional level. The third criterion, "accreditation" has also been addressed in the Australian context. However, despite meeting these three criteria, there are still many instances where Australia has not met its goals in terms of comprehensiveness, particularly in relation to the provision of an acceptable quality of interpreting in all languages.

Over the years, there has been a plethora of government, institutional and research reports that have identified many problems encountered in the provision of quality interpreting services (Hale, 2004, 2011; Martin, 1978; Ozolins, 1998). These reports have been consistently reiterating the same findings: that there is a lack of interpreters for small and emerging language communities; interpreters are inadequately trained, service providers fail to respect the necessity of hiring properly qualified interpreters (NAATI Professional Level) and service providers are ill-informed about the use of interpreters and how to manage an interpreter-mediated meeting.

In 2009, a comprehensive report by the Commonwealth Ombudsman investigated the complaints received from clients indicating that interpreting services were not always compliant with the need to be provided in an "accessible, responsive and fair manner" (McMillan, 2009, p. 1). Complaints related to:

- failure to provide an interpreter

- using an interpreter of the wrong language or dialect

- problems with a family member being used as an interpreter

- lack of awareness by some agency staff about the need for an interpreter

- lack of awareness and training for agency staff in how to work effectively with interpreters (McMillan, 2009, pp. 2-3)

Four key agencies were implicated in the report: the Australian Federal Police, Centrelink, the Department of Education, Employment and Workplace Relations (DEEWR) and the Department of Immigration and Citizenship (DIAC). These agencies are the major Federal Government departments that implement policy at the national level and are the main providers of interpreter services in Australia. Only Centrelink was found to have implemented adequate practices for the training of users of interpreters, pre-service and in-service training of interpreters and the employment of the best-qualified interpreters available.

Hale's most recent report on a survey of language service provision in Australian courts and tribunals (Hale, 2011) corroborated these findings and gave credence to anecdotal evidence that the employment of interpreters is at times ad hoc, the courts and tribunals lack a consistent approach to the hiring and recognition of interpreters and there is a lack of adequate guidelines on the use of interpreters in courts and tribunals. In addition, Hale's results confirm "there is no uniformity across states or jurisdictions with regard to the type of guidelines available and their contents" (Hale, 2011, p. xii). Even when clear guidelines are available "most judicial officers and tribunal members are not familiar with these guidelines and hence they are not consistently implemented in practice" (ibid.).

This survey has explicitly identified the contradictions inherent in the system; on the one hand, professionals working with interpreters expect a high quality of

interpreting but don't ensure that the best qualified interpreters are employed; and interpreters complain about pay and conditions, but don't always accept that they must be suitably qualified to do the work by undertaking training or upgrading their skills (ibid., p. 1). On many occasions, having started with a lesser qualified interpreter it has been necessary to adjourn a hearing because the interpreter's skills were insufficient (ibid., p. 17).

Hale's (2011) survey offers insights into the failings of a system, that from the outside, would appear to be functioning adequately. Unfortunately, we don't have this sort of detailed and objective information about other institutions that rely on interpreters, in particular, the hospitals. Regular postings on the AUSIT eBulletin relate instances where health care interpreters are confronted by a lack of understanding about the need for an interpreter or how to work with an interpreter if one is booked. Anecdotally, it is still common for doctors to recommend that patients bring a family member to interpret. We don't have recent objective data from doctors, patients and interpreters on their views and attitudes towards interpreter services, but earlier reports such as Plimer and Candlin's (1996) report on access to health services for non-English-speaking women and Pardy's (1995) report on experiences of migrant women in a range of settings, would indicate that there are similar serious problems with the quality and comprehensiveness of services in a range of institutions.

To return to Ozolins' (1998) criteria, based on the reports outlined above, it would appear that it is in relation to the following secondary criteria that Australia's service provision falls down:

- training for users has been implemented in a piecemeal way rather than as systematic training for professionals both during their initial university education and as institutionally supported in-service training (Hale, 2004);

- policy planning: the lack of a coherent, national policy on the use of interpreters that is legally binding, means that recourse to employing unaccredited or not employing qualified interpreters at all is common (Plimer & Candlin, 1996);

- inclusion of all languages is perhaps the most difficult and enduring challenge for the profession, NAATI, policy-makers and service providers. Even though Ozolins refers only to the inequalities in status and conditions of interpreters across

languages, I[6] consider that the problems relating to representation of all languages goes well beyond questions of status and conditions.

Besides the above criteria, the relatively poor conditions of employment of interpreters in most public sectors, mean that interpreters state that they cannot make an adequate living from their interpreting activity alone and therefore cannot justify undertaking expensive tertiary education (Slatyer & Napier, 2010). Most interpreters and translators are now employed as independent contractors who don't have even the basic social benefits such as annual and sick leave or superannuation.

1.2.6 Principal challenges in implementing policy

Unlike other contexts of interpreting such as interpreting for international conferences, the demand for interpreters in specific community languages fluctuates widely in response to population movements. New language needs emerge as the result of political conflict, economic hardship or natural disasters leading migrants and refugees to seek asylum in host countries such as Australia that are signatories to the UN Convention on Refugees, or that have an open immigration policy. This fluctuation of need and the difficulty in finding adequate resources to respond to this need represents the most challenging problem for service providers and their clients and impacts on the provision of trained and qualified interpreters for emerging linguistic communities and for some of the older established community language groups with small populations (such as some central European communities, Scandinavians and indigenous Australians). In the words of one major service provider in Australia, the interpreters this provider had to use for emerging ethnic communities were simply people from the communities themselves with no interpreting experience or knowledge. This problem has been stated over and over again in various documents (DIAC, 2007-08; DIMIA, 2003; Hale, 1997, 2004, 2011), but as yet there don't appear to be any viable solutions.

Australia stopped actively recruiting immigrants from the mid-1970s and started being more selective about the intake. However, the family reunion category and refugee intake have remained strong and continue to bring a culturally and

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[6] Here, and throughout this thesis, I have used the first person singular pronoun "I" to refer to my own participation in the project and perspective as the author of this thesis. The use of the plural first person pronoun "we" refers to activities carried out and decisions made collectively by the research team, stakeholders or teaching team.

linguistically diverse population to Australia (DIAC, 2007-08; Ozolins, 1998). In particular, there has been a dramatic change in the proportion of immigrants from non-English speaking countries; increasing from only 17% in 1901 to 61% of arrivals in 2001 (DIMIA, 2003, p. 24). Currently, the profile of the overseas-born population is more diverse than at any other time in Australia's history. All geographic regions of the world are now represented and in contrast to the large migrant groups from specific countries, that was typical of early migration, the current population is made up of small numbers of people (<15,000) representing 66 different places of birth (DIAC, 2007-08). The migrant population is also older than the Australian average. There is now an urgent need to be able to provide interpreters and translators for communities of speakers with less than 15,000 members.

The most recent census data for Australia (2006) informs us that more than a quarter of Australia's population was born overseas (ABS, 2008) and figures from June 30, 2007 indicate that 47% were either born overseas or had one overseas-born parent (DIAC, 2007-08). Australians speak over 300 languages. Writing at the end of the 1990s, Gentile noted that 50% of interpreting assignments in Australia were in Spanish, Vietnamese, Cantonese, Mandarin and Arabic. French was the 22nd language behind Armenian, Romanian, Khmer, Japanese, Portuguese, Macedonian and Korean (Gentile, 1997, p. 115). The refugee languages of the highest interpreter demand reported by Centrelink in 2012 (in order of popularity) are: Arabic, Karen, Burmese, Persian, Dari, Chin, Chaldean, Assyrian, Dinka, Nepali and Kirundi. However, despite the urgent demand for interpreters in the emerging language communities, there still may not be a sufficient volume of work to sustain employment; a problem eloquently elucidated by Turner et al., in a study in the 1990s showing rates of demand for interpreters across a range of languages (Turner, 1994).

Besides the problem of finding interpreters who are qualified in the smaller language communities, many authors lament the lack of respect for the accreditation system by employers. Private agencies sub-contracted for government work and government agencies themselves persistently employ unaccredited interpreters or interpreters at Paraprofessional level when Professional level interpreters are available (Hale, 2011; Ozolins, 1998). In 1994, Martin considered that there was growing awareness and acceptance of Level 3 (now Professional level) as the minimum level needed for

official (i.e. government) work (Martin, 1994). However, Hale's (2011) report on interpreters working in the judicial system includes a scathing critique of the lack of respect for the NAATI Accreditation system.

1.2.7 Conclusions

In this overview of the social and political context of community interpreting in Australia, policy evolution has been described from an historical perspective because of the impact that past events have had on the nature of language service provision in Australia today. Australian authors, writing about the early development of innovative translating and interpreting services in Australia, were justifiably proud of the extent to which the Commonwealth, State and Territory Governments had invested in supporting multiculturalism over a 50-year period (Blewett, 1988; Chesher, 1997; Gentile, 1997; Gentile et al., 1996; Ozolins, 1993, 1998, 2000). In just 50 years Australian society evolved from a Euro-centric, racially-divided society that excluded migrants of Asian and Pacific Islander origin and marginalised its indigenous populations, to one that embraced diversity and celebrated multiculturalism. Multiculturalism has been the catalyst for change in the translating and interpreting profession.

However, as Chesher (1997) and others (Hale, 2004, 2011; Martin, 1978; Ozolins, 1993, 1998, 2000) have noted, the rhetoric has not been matched by the reality and the promising beginnings of innovative services such as TIS have hardly evolved since the early 1970s. It seems that as Spolsky suggested, the existence of an explicit language policy "does not guarantee that it will be implemented, nor does implementation guarantee success" (2004, p. 11). The "comprehensiveness" described by Ozolins has not yet been achieved (Ozolins, 2000).

The NAATI accreditation system could be considered to be a mixed blessing; on the one hand, it has given prominence to the need for standards in the profession and has provided minimum guarantees of the competence of interpreters through its testing programme. However, NAATI has been unable to address the problem of smaller language groups. The Recognition process is unreliable and carries no guarantees of competence. The washback from the tests and course approval process has negatively influenced educational programmes for interpreters, narrowing the construct to one

that can be measured by a one-off assessment that can be administered to a large number of candidates from a broad range of linguistic backgrounds (Slatyer, 2006).

The status of interpreters working in community settings has not progressed since the 1990s (Hale, 2011; Slatyer & Napier, 2010). At the recent Jill Blewett Memorial Lecture organised by AUSIT, (2011 University House, Canberra) invited speaker Senator Kate Lundy, the Federal Parliamentary Secretary for Immigration and Multicultural Affairs (and later Minister in a newly created Department of Multiculturalism) was asked why there is still such a discrepancy in the provision of language services and what the government intended to do to redress both the lack of provision in languages of limited diffusion and the appalling conditions and status of community interpreters. The question remained without a satisfactory response.

1.3 Overview of the thesis

1.3.1 My engagement and role in the project

In early 2003, I was approached by colleagues from the Australian Institute of Interpreters and Translators (AUSIT) who were following up on a request from the then Director of Centrelink NSW, one of the largest employers of interpreters in Australia. They asked if I could explore ways of resolving the lack of educational opportunities for interpreters from small and emerging linguistic communities. In the words of this major service provider, the interpreters he had to use for emerging ethnic communities were "simply people from the communities themselves with no interpreting experience or knowledge. They even need guidance on how to find their way around Sydney". There was nowhere *ad hoc* interpreters could go to learn the most basic techniques, strategies, ethical principles, how to conduct themselves or what to expect in an interpreting assignment (Personal communication with Barbara McGilvray & Terry Chesher, 2003). The challenges relating to the provision of education for interpreters from these communities have been discussed in depth in Chapter 1.

I was approached to undertake this project based on my research work in language testing and classroom assessment in the Adult Migrant English Programme. My career path has not been typical. According to Gile (2004), most research in

Interpreting Studies is undertaken by instructors who are themselves interpreters, as opposed to academics as is the case in Translation Studies. I started working as both a translator and interpreter in a range of settings (film, international organisations and business) following undergraduate study in language and linguistics. I later completed a Postgraduate Diploma in Teaching English as a Foreign Language and included TEFL teaching to my professional activity. I continued working in both fields but later took up additional postgraduate study to further my understanding of Linguistics. It was during my study for a Master of Applied Linguistics that I became interested in the interactional aspects of communication mediated by interpreters and I completed a Dissertation investigating the contextualised discourse of interpreting in a hospital setting. The MAppLing and in particular the research component re-focussed my interest in language learning and teaching, bilingualism and translating and interpreting, deepening my understanding of each of these fields and the links between them. On completion of the MAppLing I was employed as a research officer investigating the design of language tests and other projects on alternative assessment practices of teachers of adult learners from a range of migrant backgrounds including refugees. I became proficient in conducting research using a range of quantitative and qualitative methods (experimental, observational and survey) and combining them in mixed-methods research. This was mostly applied research that translated to concrete outcomes in terms of the development of resources and training for testers and teachers. The importance of translating research outcomes into practical applications has been an influence in my research. I subsequently took up an academic position in the postgraduate Applied Linguistics and Translating and Interpreting programmes in the Department of Linguistics at Macquarie University to teach a range of subjects and in particular to develop a unit in community interpreting based on the emerging research into the interactional aspects of interpreter-mediated communication. I therefore approached this research project from the perspective of a researcher, educator and practitioner.

In response to the request from AUSIT and Centrelink, I decided to undertake the project as a collaborative research study and apply for a research grant from

Macquarie University to fund the research[7]. The project became the topic of my PhD Dissertation.

1.3.2   Aim of the research

In order to address the gap in training described above by explicitly catering to candidates from the smaller language communities whether they be new or emerging languages or existing communities with small numbers, the broad aim of the research reported here was to design a curriculum model that would enable institutions to conduct preliminary training of interpreters. The research aim, therefore, was: "to design a curriculum model to meet the specific interpreter training needs of low demand language groups in a financially viable way".

Such a curriculum model should take into account the needs of the key stakeholders (service providers who are the potential employers of trainee interpreters, their clients and the interpreters themselves), incorporate pedagogies suitable for a short, intensive course for a culturally diverse group and, be cost effective (as service provision is a public sector domain). Since curriculum evaluation is an integral part of curriculum development the curriculum model was to be subjected to ongoing evaluation during the design and development process.

The expected outcomes of the research project were threefold:

- a curriculum model for interpreters in low demand languages;
- a model of evaluation for interpreter education; and
- a small cohort of trained interpreters in languages of limited diffusion.

1.3.3   Thesis structure

Following this introduction and background chapter, that provides a context and rationale for the research study, Chapter 2 of the thesis describes the development of community interpreting in Australia as professional practice and its status today. The status and employment conditions of community interpreters, that vary according to

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the working languages of the interpreter and the setting in which they work, impact on the attitude to and feasibility of interpreter education. Included here is also an overview of current theory in community interpreting practice. Naturalistic, discourse-based research has provided us with insights into how community interpreters manage the complex interaction of interpreter-mediated communication in multiple settings.

Chapter 3 provides the theoretical underpinning of the educational focus of the study by drawing on approaches to curriculum design derived from Education, Evaluation and Applied Linguistics. Curriculum evaluation is an integral component of curriculum design (Stenhouse, 1975), particularly when the curriculum challenges the norms of education. Approaches to educating community interpreters in Australia and overseas are described, including some of the more recent initiatives for multilingual interpreter training. These models are evaluated in relation to current curriculum theory and for their contribution to the curriculum design in this study. Lastly, an overview of available typologies of the skills and knowledge that make up the content of community interpreter education programmes is provided as the basis for the curriculum design component of the research.

Chapter 4 describes the methodological approaches relevant to this research study. The disciplinary perspectives and research methods are discussed and a description of the procedures adopted for the design and evaluation project is provided. Further discussion of the methods and procedures is provided in the three separate results chapters (Chapters 5, 6 and 7). One of the innovative features of the project was its collaborative nature. In order to successfully implement change in the form of a new concept of interpreter education, the curriculum design and development was embedded within a collaborative Action Research project involving the key stakeholders. Also integral to successful curriculum design and implementation is the process of evaluating the curriculum. Details of the methods and procedure of the design and evaluation process are provided in this Chapter.

Chapters 5, 6 and 7 present the results of the analysis of data collected during the process of design and evaluation of the curriculum. This includes the results of a screening process (involving a survey and interview) for candidates to be involved in

the trial run of the curriculum (Chapter 5), the consultative processes during the design phase of the curriculum and the data that was collected to inform curriculum decisions. This includes data from meetings of stakeholders and teachers and another round of interviews with the students (Chapter 6). Chapter 7 describes the trial of the curriculum with the cohort of screened interpreters. The focus of this chapter is evaluation; evaluation within and on the curriculum. In the section on evaluation within the curriculum, the results of a range of formative and summative assessments are provided. The final section of Chapter 7 presents the results of the different evaluations that were conducted during the study.

Finally, Chapter 8 concludes the thesis with a discussion of the research processes, results and outcomes of the study. I outline how the three outcomes have been achieved and propose two original models: a multilingual curriculum model for interpreters and an integrated model of curriculum design, development and evaluation. Limitations and implications of the study are also discussed as well as recommendations for further research.

Chapter 2
Theory and practice of dialogue interpreting in professional settings

2.1   Introduction

One of the difficulties for educators in the field of interpreting is the lack of an empirically supported, comprehensive theory of interpreter competence. This is particularly the case for the practice of dialogue interpreting in community settings. Ideally, educators should be able to draw on empirically-supported theories as the basis for defining the specifications that inform the design of a curriculum. The specifications define the learning objectives, curriculum content and instructional methods appropriate for future practitioners. While significant steps have been made in documenting what it is that interpreters[8] do in their practice through discourse-based research (Angelelli, 2004a; Hale, 2004; Napier, 2002; Roy, 1989, 2000b; Wadensjö, 1998), this is a relatively recent focus of research and we do not yet have a model of competence that relates cognitive processes to the linguistic features and complex interpersonal relations of this type of mediated, intercultural communication. The development of such a model is confounded by variability in the expectations and requirements of the work in different institutional settings, the complexity of the interpreter's role, the influence of the language and culture of the participants in the communication and the variability of interpreter profiles.

In this chapter, I explore current practice in dialogue interpreting in community settings largely informed by discourse-based research but also some survey research that has identified a very different set of practices than those that were assumed to be the norm in community interpreting. From this overview, I elaborate a sociolinguistic theory of dialogue interpreting for the purposes of curriculum design.

The review of the literature included in this section was obtained from an electronic search of research databases LLBA (Linguistics and Behaviour Abstracts), ERIC and ScienceDirect and an electronic and manual search of paper-based journals, books

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[8] The term 'interpreter' refers here to interpreters working in the dialogue mode in community settings.

and reports using search terms that targeted the interactional aspects of dialogue interpreting as mediated communication.

2.2   The practice of community interpreting

Community interpreting has been qualified at times as "any interpretation provided by non-professionals" (Pöchhacker, 2000, p. 51), or as "the least prestigious and the most misunderstood branch of the interpreting profession" (Mikkelson, 1996, p. 125) and has long suffered from a crisis of identity. It is variously called community interpreting (Pöchhacker & Shlesinger, 2002), community-based interpreting (Chesher, Slatyer, Doubine, Jaric, & Lazzari, 2003), dialogue interpreting (Wadensjö, 1998), liaison interpreting (Gentile, Ozolins, & Vasilakakis, 1996) or public-service interpreting (Cambridge, 2004; Corsellis, 2005) to specify a few of the names used to give emphasis to the particular characteristic of the interpreting that the author wishes to highlight. In this thesis I have chosen to use "dialogue interpreting in community settings" to give emphasis to the mode (dialogue) and the context (settings in the community).

2.2.1 Definitions

Definitions of interpreting that refer explicitly to community interpreting tend to give emphasis to the "community embeddedness" (cf. Beltran Avery, 2001) of this type of interpreting. The particular emphasis accorded to the context or settings in which the definition is operational is in evidence in the different definitions. See, for example, Mesa's definition:

> "Community-based interpreting is a particular type of interpreting that is carried out in face-to-face encounters or over the telephone between a service provider and their client (such as a doctor and patient, policeman and witness, employment agency and applicant or school principal and parents) often in situations of crisis" (Mesa, 1997, p. 44)

and that of Chesher and her colleagues:

> "Community Based Interpreting (CBI) encompasses interpreting which takes place in everyday or emergency situations in the community. Possible settings include health, education, social services, legal and business" (Chesher et al., 2003, p. 276)

For the purposes of the present study, I have taken the definition proposed by Pöchhacker and Shlesinger (2002) that describes interpreting in a setting and service provision-neutral way as our operational definition:

> "interlingual, intercultural, oral or signed mediation, enabling communication between individuals or groups who do not share or who do not choose to use, the same language(s)" (Pöchhacker & Shlesinger, 2002, pp. 2-3).

This definition takes the construct of interpreting beyond linguistic transfer to encompass cross-cultural communication and mediation, thereby reflecting the complexity of the task in its sociocultural context.

The social context of dialogue interpreting in community settings is one of the most salient features that distinguishes it from other types or contexts such as conference or court interpreting (Pöchhacker, 2007).

There is some debate about the usefulness of defining sub-categories of interpreting (such as court, conference or community) as opposed to a generic category "interpreting" (e.g. Garber, 2000; Gentile, 1997; Ozolins, 2000; Roberts, 1997). Gentile (1997) outlines an argument centred on the premise that the fundamental task of interpreting, the language transfer or translation function described by Wadensjö (1998) as "relaying talk", remains essentially the same (ie. involves the same skills and processes) whether the interpreting takes place in the simultaneous or consecutive mode in a courtroom, doctor's surgery or conference hall (Gentile, 1997).

Attempts to describe community interpreting as a distinct form of practice have drawn on related disciplines such as sociolinguistics for descriptions of interpreter-mediated communication in its social context (Anderson, 2002; Angelelli, 2004a, 2004b; Roy, 1989, 2000b; Wadensjö, 1998). Mason (1999) takes a systemic-functional perspective to describe interpreting according to Field (e.g. the institutional setting), Tenor (the interpersonal characteristics) and Mode (the interpreting modes used).

Some useful parameters identified by Gentile (1997) draw on the linguistic and sociolinguistic features of the interaction to highlight the variation according to different contexts. These are the:

- *setting* or environment where the interpreting takes place (e.g. doctor's surgery, conference centre);

- *interpreting mode* (i.e. simultaneous, consecutive or dialogue);

- language direction (bi-directional or uni-directional); and

- *social dynamics* of the interpreting setting (e.g. power relations between the participants, minority or majority language community, etc.).

The first, second and fourth of these parameters reflect Mason's Field, Tenor and Mode. Language direction is also associated with Mode. So there is some consensus that interpreting can be defined according to the setting, modes of interpreting and social dynamics of the particular instance of communication. While Gentile's thesis may underestimate the impact of the setting and the social dynamics, his parameters serve as a useful basis for a broadly defined construct of community interpreting as follows:

- setting: community settings (intra-social settings described by Pöchhacker [2004] e.g. legal, health, public service), though Rudvin and Tomassini (2011) include business interpreting in the range of settings to be taught in view of the similarities of practice and the greater potential for interpreter graduates to be employed in the business sector;

- mode: generally uses dialogue mode, although the simultaneous mode may also be used e.g. in psychiatric consultations or court interpreting. The turns in dialogue interpreting may be long, resembling consecutive for example in the context of telephone interpreting where turn coordination may be difficult (Lee, 2007; Oviatt & Cohen, 1992; Wadensjö, 1999;);

- language direction: interpreters work into and out of their two languages; Cambridge (2004) specifies that community interpreters do not have an A and B language the way conference interpreters do, but have two A languages because they generally work bi-directionally (i.e. into and out of each language);

- social dynamics: often occurs with one of the clients being a member of a minority language group of migrant origin and the other client a representative of a statutory service, thereby creating a potential power differential from two sources: client v service provider (Drew & Heritage, 1992) and majority v minority language group.

The last of these parameters, social dynamics, is reflected in Alexieva's (2002) typology of interpreting (Fig. 2) that represents "universality v culture-specificity" to reflect the range of practice across conference and non-conference contexts of interpreting. While these continua are intended to reflect the differences between practice in non-conference (community, or intra-social settings [Pöchhacker, 2004; 2007]) and conference settings, they could also be applied to differentiate the range of practice of interpreters in what are commonly considered to be community settings (court, doctor's surgery, social security office, for example). An interpreter working in court, for example, will face a high degree of formality, greater physical distance and less cooperativeness and directness than the interpreter working in a doctor's surgery

Figure 2   Universality vs culture-specificity

Physical proximity: distance ⇔ proximity

Relationship of interpreter to speakers: non-involvement ⇔ involvement

Status of speakers: quality ⇔ non-equality

Role of speaker and addressee: solidarity ⇔ power

Formality: formal ⇔ informal setting;

Type of discourse: literacy ⇔ orality

Negotiation strategies: cooperativeness ⇔ non-cooperativeness; directness ⇔ directness

Goals: shared ⇔ conflicting goals

(Alexieva, 2002)

where she is placed either between the doctor and the patient or directly behind the patient and becomes privy to intimate details about the patient. Alexieva's (2002) continua are particularly useful in shifting views of types/contexts away from a contrastive, dichotomous relationship. As soon as we try to pin down the features of different practices for the purpose of definition, we find that there are exceptions that make categorization difficult and even impossible. For instance a conference interpreter may be required to interpret a conversation over dinner between two

delegates. In this case, she will be interpreting in dialogue mode and may have to negotiate the associated interpersonal complexity of the relationship. An interpreter working in the hospital setting may be called upon to interpret between medical specialists at a formal meeting using long consecutive mode.

2.2.2 Roles and role metaphors

The social context of community interpreting not only defines the nature of the practice, it is also the potential source of difficulties for interpreters in negotiating and defining their role(s) (see e.g. Anderson, 2002; Mason, 1995; Swabey & Gajewski Mickelson, 2008; Valero-Garcés & Martin, 2008). Role has been considered an important focus for research since Roy's (1989) sociolinguistic study of an interpreter-mediated interaction between a student and his lecturer and it is still generally considered to be the most problematic aspect of practice (Pöchhacker, 2007).

Role metaphors and role prescriptions are prevalent in the literature representing a continuum ranging from a view in which the interpreter is likened to a machine that translates between the languages of her two clients (the "interpreter as conduit" metaphor [Angelelli, 2004b; Laster & Taylor, 1995; Roy, 2002]) to a view where the interpreter is a mediator acting on behalf of the minority language client (the "interpreter as advocate" [Barsky, 1996; Beltran Avery, 2001; Weiss & Stuker, 1998]). The conduit model has been particularly prominent in court interpreting where it was proposed as a "technical solution to avoid the enormous evidentiary problems associated with the exclusion of evidence as hearsay. Rather than treat the interpreter as a third party, the court constructed the exchange between the principals as if the interpreter had not been present" (Laster, 1990, p.18). The role of the legal interpreter was conceptualised as a mechanical service, not a complex human interaction (Laster & Taylor, 1995).

Roy, in her overview of common metaphors, links different historical phases in the evolution of community interpreting to the shift in thinking about interpreter role (Roy, 1993, 2002). Role metaphors based on "largely unexamined notions of the process of interpreting" have led to a belief system that has engendered prescriptive views of the interpreter's role in community-based interpreting (ibid,. p. 346). The

often voluntary nature of the work in the early days has reinforced a "helper" association. The clients of interpreters, generally immigrants and refugees or, in the case of Roy's work (ibid.), the deaf client, needed assistance in order to understand the society and culture in which they found themselves. In this context no distinction is made between "interpreter" and "helper". Helpers were free to offer advice and make decisions for the people they were helping. Definitions of community interpreting frequently include the word "assist", reinforcing the helper role (Roberts, 1997).

From the time when interpreters began to see themselves as professionals the helper/social worker aspect of community interpreting was no longer considered appropriate because the helper was not bound by any ethical code that limited their intervention. This was reinforced by some of the settings that interpreters were working in, such as courts, where the adversarial nature of the activity that took place there was seen to be inconsistent with the helper role. However, the interpreter's clients perceived interpreters who refuted the helper role as "cold and self-serving" (Roy, 2002, p. 350).

Other role metaphors, that prioritise the language-transfer function of the interpreter, derive from communication theory and the identification of a message, a sender and a receiver (ibid). The "communication facilitator" supports a role that is little more than a conduit between sender and receiver, again reinforcing the de-contextualised view of interpreting that ignores the social and discursive parameters of the interaction.

Some of the role metaphors that have emerged in recent times are derived from notions of bilingual communication as presenting linguistic and cultural barriers that the interpreter helps to overcome. These are the "communication" or "cultural bridge" metaphors (Roberts, 1997). Awareness that interpreters must mediate communication across cultures as well as across languages has led to the notion of interpreters as bilingual, bicultural specialists and terms such as "cultural broker", "cultural bridge" or "cultural mediator" have been prevalent in certain contexts. In Canada, the Ontario Ministry of Citizenship has taken the step to ratify the cultural

brokerage aspect of the interpreter's role. Interpreters are described as "cultural interpreters" (ibid).

The term "cultural interpreter", while clearly including the notion that the interpreter mediates between cultures, can also be taken to include the interpreter as the representative and advocate of the minority language client (Pöchhacker, 2000, p. 51). The view that the interpreter is ideally placed to act as advocate for their client is derived from the perceived power imbalance between the two client groups. Barsky (1996) takes the "interpreter as advocate" view to its extreme, proposing that the interpreter be engaged as an intercultural agent who can advise and represent applicants in the refugee review process. Barsky's view is based on his perception that refugee applicants are disadvantaged by their lack of cultural knowledge and inability to present their case in a favourable light. Interpreters, often with better education and understanding of the culture of the tribunal, that of the host country and an understanding of the background of the applicant, are ideally suited to advise applicants on the best way of presenting their case (Barsky, 1996). The "interpreter as advocate" view of role is the most controversial.

Role metaphors posing as role definitions can be represented on a continuum ranging from a conduit view to an advocacy view (Fig. 3).

Figure 3   The role continuum

Kaufert and Koolage (1984) describe the conflict between these different role definitions and the difficulties for interpreters in reconciling different roles in their practice. In their research data comprising video-recorded encounters with Native American interpreters working in health settings, they identified a range of roles from the "language translator" to "biomedical interpreter" and "cultural informant" roles. The interpreter becomes a cultural informant for the medical practitioner by describing cultural mismatch when this is perceived to undermine the provision of

care, but at the same time the expectation of the medical practitioner is for the interpreter to conform to the prescriptive "language translator" role (akin to the conduit model). In addition, conflict arises from the interpreter's dual role as a kinsman and advocate of the patient/client, on the one hand and language interpreter with its job-related loyalty on the other, reinforcing the interpreter's identity with the objectives of the health care system and consistent with the expectations of the health practitioner (Kaufert & Koolage, 1984). In fact, it is probable that interpreters may combine a number of elements from these different roles in any one interaction. The difficulty is finding a role definition that is adequate in allowing some latitude whilst still maintaining appropriate role boundaries that are consistent with client expectations and the expertise of the interpreter.

Roy sums up her feelings about the inadequacy of role metaphors and definitions as follows:

> "Unfortunately, these definitions and descriptions have limited the professional's own ability to understand the interpreting event itself and the role of the interpreter within the event. This has led to a belief system about interpreting which is based on the unexamined notion of the interpreter as a conduit" (Roy, 2002, p. 345).

2.2.3 A normatively-defined role model

It has often been noted that there is a discrepancy between the role definitions that are taught in interpreter training courses, on the one hand and the roles that interpreters are implementing or are expected to implement in their practice on the other (e.g., Angelelli, 2004a; Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013; Slatyer, 1998; Wadensjö, 1998). Poorly defined role definitions lead to ambiguity and latitude for the interpreter to establish her own hierarchy of obligations vis-à-vis her clients (Anderson, 2002).

Figure 4   Alternative role continuum

Conduit metaphor — Normatively-defined role — Interpreter as an active third party in the communication — Interpreter as advocate

Along the role continuum lies a "normatively-defined role" (Fig. 4). According to Llewellyn-Jones and Lee (2013), this is the role model that is most widely adopted in training and testing and that many interpreters aspire to as the ideal model for practice. This role definition focuses on the language transfer function of interpreting and draws heavily on ethical principles as they are defined in codes of ethics and codes of practice. It is also influenced by theoretical approaches and research paradigms from translation studies as well as psycholinguistic models of conference interpreting (Roy, 2002). A normatively-defined role model posits the interpreter as an uninvolved participant in the communication who relays talk. It is believed that by adhering to this normatively-defined role model, interpreters will be able to resolve the tensions that arise from different discursive and institutional practices and conflicting client expectations that they encounter in their work.

The characteristics of a normatively-defined role are:

- The sole identified function of the interpreter is "message transfer"

- The interpreter is not an active participant in the social encounter

- The interpreter is unobtrusive and non-relational

- No interventions are initiated by the interpreter

- The interpreter is likened to a "linguistic instrument"

<div align="right">(Beltran Avery, 2001)</div>

The above characteristics describe the interpreter as a non-participant in the interaction whose role is to simply relay utterances between the two languages. In order to better understand how the interpreter might implement the normatively-defined role model in practice, the following is a translation of the above characteristics for practice:

- 3-cornered position

- Eye-contact maintained between the majority language professional and their client

- Primary participants address each other directly

- Use of 1st and 2nd person pronouns = no indirect speech

- Regular alternating turn-taking sequence (D → I → P → I)

- Literal translation style with utterances of equivalent length (L1=L2)

(Slatyer, 1998)

Figure 5   *Three party communication between a chiropractor and a patient with an interpreter*

(Interpreters Inc. 2012)

First, the physical position of the participants in relation to each other symbolises the relative status of each and reinforces the interpreter's neutrality (Gentile et al., 1996). The recommended arrangement, therefore, is where the participants are placed at the apices of an equilateral triangle (see Figs. 5 above and 6 below). The term "three-cornered interpreting" derives from this formation. Ginori and Scimone suggest that the interpreter try not to sit too close to their client so as not to encourage the client to "identify with the interpreter and at the same time not to encourage the interviewer to identify the interpreter with the client" (Ginori & Scimone, 1995, p. 53).

Figure 6   *Triangular model*

Interpreter

Client A   Client B
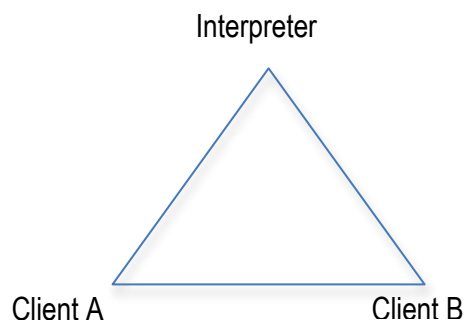
A key feature of this formation is that the two principal participants can maintain eye contact, thereby encouraging them to address each other directly through the interpreter (Ginori & Scimone, 1995). It also represents the ideal position for clear communication by allowing all the participants to see and hear each other and maintain eye contact (Gentile et al., 1996). The two primary participants in Figure 3 above are maintaining eye contact and speaking directly to each other. Communication is considered to be a diadic exchange between the two primary participants via the interpreter, whose presence should not affect the communication.

Second, the recommended turn design (the sequence of turns in an interaction) is where the interpreter takes every other turn in contrast to Sacks, Shegloff and Jefferson's (1978) principle of non-fixed speaker order in monolingual discourse. In a medical encounter the sequence would be expected to be, for example (Fig.7):

Figure 7   Turn design for interpreter-mediated communication in a medical context

Doctor/
Nurse

Interpreter   Interpreter

Patient
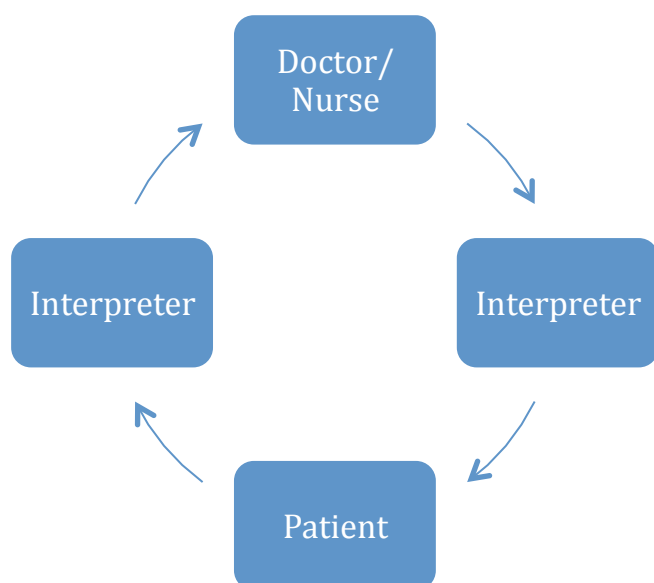
Wadensjö's representation of this sequence is as follows:

- P: Utterance 1 (in the majority (P's) language)

- DI: Utterance 1 (= rendition of U1 in the foreign language)

- F: Utterance 2 (in the foreign (F's) language)

- DI: Utterance 2 (= rendition of U2 in P's language)

- P: Utterance 3 (in P's language)

- DI: Utterance 3 (= rendition of U3 in F's language), etc.

(where P = majority language professional; F = the lay foreign language speaker and DI = the dialogue interpreter)

(Wadensjö, 2002, p. 357)

Here the interpreter's utterances are identified as versions of the source, rather than as new utterances consistent with the interpreter as an involved participant in the communication. Turn design reinforces the idea that the interpreter should not be an active participant in the encounter, but is simply a conduit through which the communication passes. This model of interpreted turns poses a problem in relation to the footing of the interpreter as a speaker/hearer in her own right. The interpreter is framed as *animator* rather than *author* or *principal* (Davidson, 2002; Goffman, 1959; Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013).

According to this schema, the interpreter does not take the floor out of turn, would not address either of the primary participants outside her interpreting turns and would not initiate any turns (Dimitrova, 1997). The interpreter is therefore not author of any utterances and is not a participant in the communication in her own right (Slatyer, 1998).

Third, according to this model the interpreter's turns are expected to be equivalent to the turns of the primary participants, following the principle that accuracy is maintained by "nothing added, nothing omitted". Primary participants are expected to address each other directly using the second person pronouns when referring to each other (e.g., "What is your name?" not "What is her name?") and first person

pronouns when referring to themselves (e.g., "I first experienced the pain"). The first person pronoun is to be maintained by the interpreter, since she is considered to be the voice of the patient, nurse or doctor, for example. Consequently, there shouldn't be any examples of indirect speech in the discourse.

Last, the view of cross-linguistic transfer that the model is based on presupposes that meaning is contained within the utterance and the task of the interpreter is to transfer the meaning into the target language using the lexico-grammatical resources of that language. This follows the *théorie de sens* developed by Seleskovitch and Lederer, in their model of training for conference interpreters (Angelelli, 2004b; Pöchhacker, 2004; Pöchhacker & Shlesinger, 2002; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1986). The view is that interpreters "translate" each short monolingual utterance as a unit of meaning, rather than engage in dialogic communication to develop a common understanding.

Like most constructs, the normatively-defined role model is subject to individual interpretation and undermined by the circumstances of practice.

2.2.4 Codes of ethics and role

The normatively-defined role is identified as best practice by dialogue interpreters (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013; Roy, 2002; Slatyer, 1998). They have gained an understanding of this model through their training and experience. As suggested in the previous section, the model is derived from definitions of the three key principles of the code of ethics (confidentiality, impartiality and accuracy). Confirming this premise, an international survey of interpreter's perceptions of their profession and practice, conducted by the Community-based Interpreting Committee of the International Federation of Translators between 1999 and 2002, found that interpreters overwhelmingly nominated ethical principles as the most important factors guiding their practice (Chesher et al., 2003). Knowledge of the code of ethics, common interpretations of the key principles and guidelines derived from these principles produced by educators, form the basis of this benchmark for practice.

The AUSIT code (AUSIT, 2012), that is the main code for interpreters in Australia, is a single code of ethics applicable to all sectors of the translating and interpreting

profession. The code is therefore a generalist one - required to be equally relevant to literary translators and conference interpreters as it is to community interpreters no matter in what setting their assignment takes place. The fact that the interpreter in community settings is placed strategically between the two (or more) clients in a face-to-face encounter brings interpersonal features into the interpreting process that are not a feature of translation to the same extent, for example. The perceived need by the profession of finding definitions of ethical principles that can cover all the types of translation and interpreting practice creates tensions for practitioners when they attempt to apply these principles in their work. As Llewellyn-Jones and Lee (2013) notes, most of the codes of ethics and codes of practice currently used as the main reference for interpreters today were developed over thirty years ago and have changed little since then.

While the literature on role frequently contains reference to ethical principles, the nature of the relationship between the two is rarely made explicit. Here I attempt to identify the links between interpretations of the three key principles (confidentiality, impartiality and accuracy) and how these translate into prescriptions for interpreting practice.

Confidentiality is the most unproblematic of the three principles to interpret and apply. It is defined in the AUSIT Code as follows:

Principle 2. CONFIDENTIALITY

Interpreters and translators maintain confidentiality and do not disclose information acquired in the course of their work.

Explanation

Interpreters and translators are bound by strict rules of confidentiality, as are the persons they work with in professional or business fields" (AUSIT, 2012, p.5).

Respect of confidentiality confirms the interpreter's position as a non-involved participant in the communication. Confidentiality is most challenged in small communities of speakers where the interpreter is well-known by members of the community and where there may be coercion to disclose the nature and content of

interpreting assignments (Plimer & Candlin, 1996). Familiarity with members of the community who become participants in the communication can become problematic if the interpreter is privy to information about her client gleaned from her personal interactions in the community. Occasionally this information becomes the focus of the interpreting assignment. If the nature of the information is likely to compromise the outcome of the communication, the interpreter has to assess the risks associated with non-disclosure.

The principle of impartiality, in relation to interpreting, is defined in the AUSIT Code of Ethics (ibid) as:

Principle 4. IMPARTIALITY

Interpreters and translators observe impartiality in all professional contacts. Interpreters remain unbiased throughout the communication exchanged between the participants in any interpreted encounter.

Explanation

Interpreters and translators play an important role in facilitating parties who do not share a common language to communicate effectively with each other. They aim to ensure that the full intent of the communication is conveyed. Interpreters and translators are not responsible for what the parties communicate, only for complete and accurate transfer of the message. They do not allow bias to influence their performance; likewise they do not soften, strengthen or alter the messages being conveyed" (ibid).

Underlying the principle of impartiality is what Anderson describes as the unique position of power of the interpreter as "man-in-the-middle". This power is inherent to the "possession of scarce resources", i.e. bilingual proficiency. Without the interpreter the two primary participants simply cannot communicate (Anderson, 2002, p. 212). In addition to enabling communication, the interpreter also enables the two primary interlocutors to establish the rapport necessary to achieving their communicative goals. Associated with the power of the interpreter's position is the lack of scrutiny by peers or other bilinguals (unlike conference interpreting where other booth partners share the same language combination) (Gentile, 1997).

Anderson also raises the question of linguistic dominance and its relation to the bilingual competence of the interpreter and their identification with and allegiance to, speakers of one or other of their languages. Bilinguals are rarely completely balanced in the knowledge and use of their languages. Patterns of acquisition vary considerably from simultaneous acquisition from birth to consecutive acquisition at any time over a lifetime (Hamers & Blanc, 2000). Anderson considers that the interpreter's bilingual and bicultural dominance may underpin capacity for impartiality (Anderson, 2002).

Accuracy is perhaps the most difficult of the principles to be defined. It is anchored in translation theory and views of and misconceptions about the nature of interlingual communication. The AUSIT Code defines accuracy as:

Principle 5. ACCURACY

Interpreters and translators use their best professional judgement in remaining faithful at all times to the meaning of texts and messages.

Explanation
> "Accuracy for the purpose of this Code means optimal and complete message transfer into the target language preserving the content and intent of the source message or text without omission or distortion"

> (AUSIT, 2012, p.5).

Ideas about accuracy of interpreting are also influenced by the belief that lexical and syntactic equivalence between source and target language can be achieved (Morris, 1995). Wadensjö cites Morris' description of the "legal fiction, that L1=L2" which leads to prescriptions of "literal" translation by legal professionals and the belief that accuracy through literalism is achievable (Wadensjö, 1997 p. 36). Contesting this belief, Hale stresses that equivalence of register is essential for accuracy and redefines equivalence as pragmatic and semantic equivalence. In courtrooms, the illocutionary force and implicature of utterances must be maintained (Hale, 1997). It is nevertheless difficult to find either a linguistically-based definition of accuracy that takes into account the higher linguistic levels (Slatyer, 1998) or one that satisfactorily and comprehensively takes the complexity of interlingual and intercultural communication into account. The lack of a practical and meaningful definition of

accuracy in the codes of ethics creates confusion for practitioners who have difficulty justifying the interactional adjustments they make to ensure effective communication.

The interrelation between impartiality and accuracy is brought to light by Anderson; the interpreter has the ability to translate selectively and therefore may choose to interpret all that is said or not and the monolingual interlocutors would be none the wiser (Anderson, 2002). Accuracy is therefore dependent on the interpreter's impartiality and perceived role {Slatyer, 2007 #320}. Angelelli's scale of interpreter agency and definition of visibility also recognises the relationship between role, impartiality and accuracy (Angelelli, 2004).

Recognising the difficulties interpreters have with understanding their role boundaries, the revised AUSIT code includes a new principle, Principle 6 Clarity of role boundaries, as follows:

Principle 6. CLARITY OF ROLE BOUNDARIES

Interpreters and translators maintain clear boundaries between their task as facilitators of communication through message transfer and any tasks that may be undertaken by other parties involved in the assignment.

Explanation

The focus of interpreters and translators is on message transfer. Practitioners do not, in the course of their interpreting or translation duties, engage in other tasks such as advocacy, guidance or advice. Even where such other tasks are mandated by particular employment arrangements, practitioners insist that a clear demarcation is agreed on between interpreting and translating and other tasks. For this purpose, interpreters and translators will, where the situation requires it, provide an explanation of their role in line with the principles of this Code" (AUSIT, 2012, p.5).

This new principle attempts to narrow the intervention of the interpreter to 'message transfer' potentially creating more confusion for interpreters about what 'tasks' might be inappropriate and how interpreting actually occurs.

The above analysis of the AUSIT Code demonstrates the articulation between the normatively defined role and ethical principles and how role is construed in relation to a code of ethics. The resulting role model engenders a rule-based, prescriptive culture around role (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013). Swabey and Mickelson (2008) comment on the way ethics is taught to student interpreters in the US that leads ethics to be perceived as a set of rules defining practice. Interpreters use "misguided phrases such as 'breaking the code of ethics'" (ibid., p. 53) or "stepping out of role" (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013, p.58). Codes have become dogma and have consequently lost their true value in guiding practitioner's actions from a moral stance (Soloman, 1997).

Consistent with a teleological approach to ethics, codes should provide the basis for reflective action in accordance with a set of identified "values, principles and beliefs" (Cokely, 2000, p. 28) rather than an approach based on implementing a deontological perspective. They are a statement of commitment to certain values that comes with membership to a professional grouping. It is important that they be interpreted and implemented in a meaningful way in order for the profession to move forward. While the ethical principles of confidentiality, impartiality and accuracy remain central to interpreting practice, simplistic interpretations of these ethical principles applied to role definitions don't reflect the complexity of community interpreting as situated social interaction. We might also wonder how the majority of interpreters working in Australia who are L1 speakers of the minority language interpret codes of ethics that are a representation of the "values, principles and beliefs" (ibid.) of the majority culture. Interpreters from minority cultures may adhere to their traditional values over and above the principles in their code (Penney & Sammons, 1997), in which case the code becomes irrelevant.

It is not surprising therefore that there are calls for revisions to the interpreters' codes (Cokely, 2000; Slatyer, 1998) and a number of revised codes of ethics and codes of practice have appeared that are either specific to community interpreting generally (e.g. Nathan Garber's code in Garber, 2000b) or specific to a setting (e.g., the CHIA code for health care interpreters published by the California Healthcare Interpreters Association, 2002). The revised AUSIT Code (AUSIT, 2012) allows some

latitude in relation to, for example, accuracy and the need for the interpreter to be able to fully understand her interlocutors in order to be able to interpret accurately.

However, perhaps more urgent than a revision of codes of ethics is a review of role and the way codes of ethics have been enshrined in the normatively-defined role definition. Roy called for better role definitions citing Fritsch-Rudser: "Interpreters don't have a problem with ethics, they have a problem with role" (Fritsch-Rudser cited in Roy, 2002 p. 347).

2.2.5 Roles in practice

In the previous section, I discussed the influence of codes of ethics in establishing the normatively-defined role model as the benchmark for community interpreters. A growing body of research has drawn attention to the shortcomings of this role model in serving as a guideline for practice.

A major challenge to a prescriptive role model comes from the different institutional settings in which the interpreting occurs. Each setting (hospital, tribunal, police station, etc.) contributes its own set of communicative features to the interpreter-mediated encounter (Drew & Heritage, 1992) and comprises culture, beliefs, procedures and artifacts that contribute to the particular discursive practices of the institution (Fig.8). Confusion about role in specific settings arises in part from the expectations of those working in institutions where interpreters are employed. Clients' experience of working with interpreters will inform their expectations of interpreters' behaviour in that institution. Interpreters need to be sensitive to and informed about how to adapt their role to these contexts. Views about role impact on the interpreter's understanding of other aspects of practice such as how to achieve an accurate interpretation (Slatyer & Chesher, 2005). Accuracy in the courtroom is hampered by the fact that court interpreters are given little latitude and this extends even to asking for clarification of utterances to enable better understanding and consequently accuracy (Fowler, 1997; Morris, 1995).

Figure 8   Influences on interpreted discourse in the healthcare context
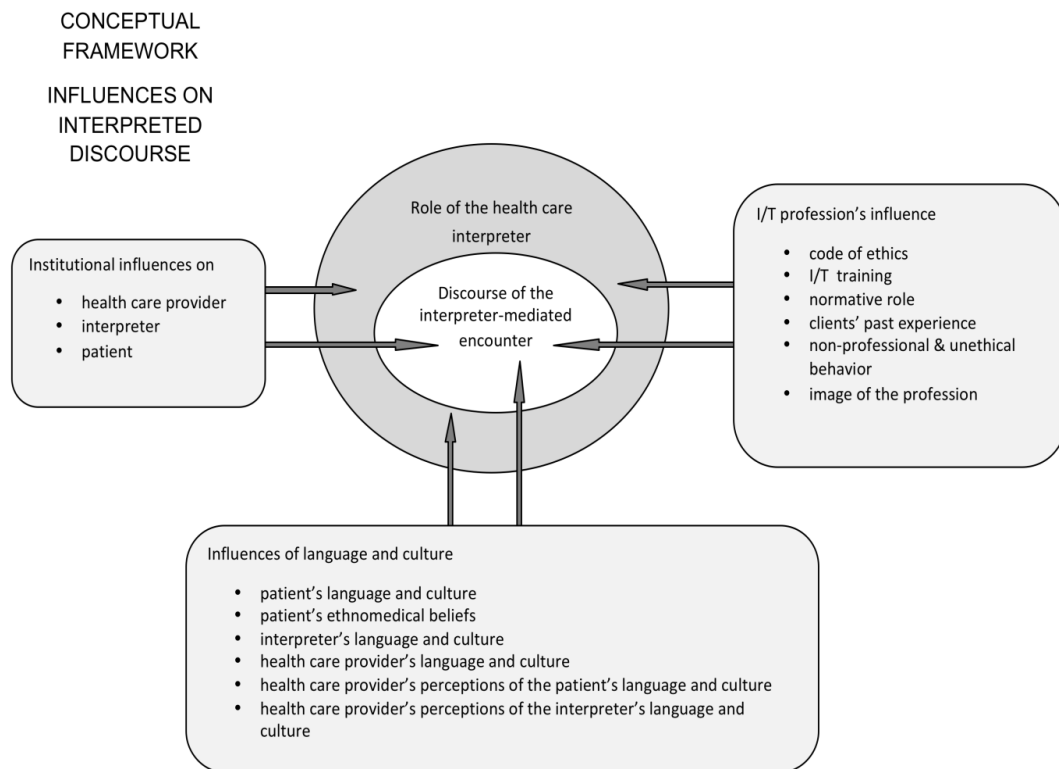
Findings from surveys, focus groups, workshops and seminars with interpreters' clients indicate that there is a number of concerns. These concerns relate to respect of confidentiality, the accuracy of interpreting, respect of role boundaries and above all the need to be able to trust the interpreter. For the minority language client the overriding concern would appear to be, above all, the need to trust the interpreter's respect of client confidentiality (Athanasiadis & Turner, 1994; Bowen, 2001; Hale & Luzardo, 1997; Plimer & Candlin, 1996) and for the service provider to trust the interpreter to respect their role boundaries and not take over the service provider role (Bot, 2003; Mesa, 1997). Secondary concerns relate to the accuracy of the interpretation (Mesa, 1997; Pöchhacker, 2000; Aranguri et al., 2006).

For the professional client, views of role and the latitude for the interpreter to adapt her role to the circumstances of the particular assignment would appear to some extent to be determined by the institutional context in which the encounter takes place. The contrast in views of role in legal and medical settings, for example, is reinforced by the stated beliefs of professionals working in those settings. In the Australian legal context, for example, the interpreter is expected to fulfill only the

translation function and must not be seen to be anything but completely impartial. The NSW Law Society's Guide to Best Practice for Lawyers Working with Interpreters makes their views on role explicit:

> "It should be made clear to a client that the interpreter's role is to interpret and not to give legal advice to clients. Emotional involvement with a client is to be avoided at all times"
>
> (The Law Society of New South Wales, 1996, p. 16).

The views expressed by a number of High Court judges in Australia draw on the conduit metaphor, some going so far as to describe the interpreter as a "translation machine" and a call for "word-for-word" or "literal translation" is common (Laster, 1990 p. 17). Laster describes the reluctance on the part of the legal profession to allow the court interpreter more latitude. This attitude is also prevalent in the UK courts. "The verbatim performance expected of court interpreters, an activity that lawyers call 'translation', is treated as a mere technical adjunct to the proceedings, which are not seen to be affected by it in any way" (Morris, 1995, p. 28). However, Fowler in her study of the Magistrates Courts in England and Wales found that the magistrates had considerable difficulty distinguishing between the impartiality that they expected of the interpreter and at the same time envisaging a "warm" and "helping" attitude towards the defendant (Fowler, 1997, p. 198).

Court interpreting is often undertaken by specially qualified and trained interpreters due to the highly formalised court procedures and language (Hale, 2004) and considered to be distinct type of interpreting. However, the professional reality in Australia is that many interpreters work in a range of settings including court (Slatyer & Napier, 2010) and may not have undertaken specialised training for this setting. In contrast to the limited role accorded to interpreters working in court, healthcare workers surveyed by Mesa in Quebec (Mesa, 1997), Pöchhaker in Vienna (Pöchhacker, 2000) and Bot in Holland (Bot, 2003) all considered that the interpreter should be a cultural bridge in the sense that they were providing "culturally appropriate interpreting" though the nature and extent of this aspect of role remains vague. Pöchhacker's survey of health professionals working with interpreters indicated that they expect the interpreter to perform a role that goes beyond the limitations of the normatively-defined role. Pöchhacker's findings could be considered to align the interpreter with Beltran Avery's classification of

incremental intervention where the interpreter role could include "designations such as 'clarifier', 'explainer', 'cultural mediator', 'helpmate' and 'agent'" (Pöchhacker, 2000, p. 63).

To date, there are very few reported studies that have investigated and documented the views of the minority-language client on role. Notable exceptions are Hale and Luzardo's survey of minority language clients from three different language backgrounds in Australia (Hale & Luzardo, 1997), Plimer and Candlin's (1996) survey of minority language women's access to language services in Australia, Mesa's study of the expectations of clients of the Banque d'interprètes in Quebec (Mesa, 1997) and Edwards, Temple and Alexander's study of user experiences in the UK (Edwards et al., 2005).

In the survey conducted by Hale and Luzardo (1997), respondents were asked to nominate role descriptions from a range including "an independent professional" and "a compatriot to help". "An independent professional" was chosen by 44% of respondents. All the other role descriptions placed the interpreter in a helping role, amounting to 53% of responses. These results indicate that more than half of those surveyed view the interpreter in a role that is in direct conflict with the normatively-defined role. Associations between the profile of the respondents and their views of role indicated that their language background, the setting in which they required the services of the interpreter, their level of education and their level of proficiency in English all influenced their views (Hale, 1997; Hale & Luzardo, 1997, p. 11). Surprisingly, when asked what defined a good interpreter, the majority of respondents indicated that it was "someone who introduces and explains their role and then interprets" (Hale & Luzardo, 1997, p. 13), a role definition that is more closely aligned with the normatively-defined role. The authors attribute clients' confusion over role to past experiences of using *ad hoc* interpreters who are unaware of the principles of the code of ethics and role boundaries. Once clients are accustomed to the behaviour of non-professional interpreters they become dissatisfied if a professional interpreter refuses to take on a similar role considering professionals to be aloof and uncooperative (cf Roy, 2002). Hale and Luzardo conclude that a significant percentage of minority language clients have expectations

of the interpreter's role that run contrary to the principles of the code of ethics, creating a dilemma for interpreters (Hale & Luzardo, 1997).

Women surveyed in Plimer and Candlin's study (1996) were concerned about the lack of respect for confidentiality by interpreters with the consequence that the women were reluctant to use interpreting services. Many of these women came from small language communities where respect of confidentiality is particularly important.

As well as identifying respect of confidentiality as the main concern for clients, Mesa found that accuracy was also a major preoccupation (Mesa, 1997, 2000). The clients surveyed expected the interpreter to lower the register and simplify terms when interpreting medical jargon and one client group also expected the interpreter to explain what the healthcare provider had said (Mesa, 1997, p. 24). However, the healthcare professionals in the survey stated that they would prefer that when clients have the expectation that interpreters clarify jargon that this request is passed on to *them* to make the clarification. The minority language respondents also had expectations of a broader role for interpreters expecting the interpreter to provide support over and above the interpreting function.

Survey findings showing that clients did not tolerate non-respect of accuracy (e.g., Bot, 2003; Mesa, 1997; Plimer & Candlin, 1996) have been corroborated by some of the discourse-based research, such as that by Aranguri et al. (2006), whose study of (presumably) untrained medical interpreters in the USA showed how interpreters consistently omitted vital information, revised the content and intent of utterances and reduced the volume of propositional content. Whether these omissions could be considered to be selective (ie. strategic omissions or simply interpreting errors) is unclear from the report as the interpreters' views were not sought. If they are not strategic, they would correspond to the accidental omissions in Napier's typology. The interpreter was usually unaware of making the omission and therefore this type of omission could be considered to be an interpreter error (Napier, 2002). Similarly, in Amato's (2007) study of health care interpreters selective interpreting resulted in fewer of the patient's utterances interpreted than those of the doctor and were probably unintended omissions. In the courtroom Hale (1997; 2004) has highlighted the problems interpreters encounter in rendering complex questioning in cross-

examination in the Australian courts. The pragmatic intent of questions is often lost impacting on the illocutionary force of utterances and therefore the strategic use of language by the cross-examiner.

Insensitivity to linguistic features of discourse such as pragmatics and in particular register affects the accuracy of interpreting. Diaz-Duque cites the example of miscommunication that can occur when the interpreter raises the register of the patient's description of their illness. The medical provider gets a false idea of the patient's perception of their illness and their knowledge of medical terminology. It also affects perceptions by the health provider of the patient's state of mind, educational background and attitudes to health, that are all important in diagnosis and choice of treatment. Many of the patients from low socio-economic backgrounds are not familiar with formal terms for body parts and functions. If the health provider wrongly assesses this through the use of a more formal register by the interpreter, the whole of the communication will be carried out at a register that the patient cannot understand. Lack of familiarity with the patient's ethno-medical system could also lead to miscommunication and ultimately mistreatment if the interpreter fails to communicate beliefs and fears about health and healing. Diaz-Duque's message is that interpreters must be aware of the need to interpret all the pragmatic and socio-cultural features of patient's language accurately if communication is to be successful in this type of encounter (Diaz-Duque, 1989). Hale also identified the register shift in interpreter renditions of witnesses' testimony with the potentially of undermining the credibility of the witness (1997; 2004).

Conflicting expectations from the interpreters' clients about role and an inherent tension when interpreters attempt to adhere to the normatively-defined role to resolve dilemmas that arise in the interpreter-mediated encounter can't all be attributed to setting, as the expectations of both client groups are not necessarily aligned with habitual institutional practice.

Impartiality, in particular, would appear to be more closely related to the interpreter's identity and alignment with one or other of the linguistic and cultural communities for which she interprets. In the context of healthcare interpreting in Australia, Hearn raises the issue of impartiality as a consequence of the status

differential of the two primary participants. Interpreters who were surveyed found they were being identified as having the same status as the minority language client, because of common language and culture: "An associated problem for the interpreters was the ambivalent situation of being expected to be 'neutral' yet at the same time being of lesser formal status (with the inference of being subordinate) to the established professionals" (Hearn, 1982). The difficulty in maintaining impartiality when lower status is accorded also appears to be a feature of legal interpreting (Laster, 1990; Morris, 1995). The problem being that the interpreter is identified with the minority language client and may be subjected to the same negative attitudes as the minority populations they are interpreting for. Awareness of these attitudes may influence the interpreter to become either an advocate for the client or on the contrary to distance themselves from the client by using a more formal register (e.g. Diaz-Duque, 1989; Hale, 2004). Because there are three participants competing for speaking space it is more difficult for the weakest participant to take a turn (Dimitrova, 1997; Takimoto, 2009). Takimoto found that this was a concern for interpreters who attempted to create that speaking space for Japanese clients in a business setting. Dimitrova's data from medical encounters indicates that the interpreter had to interrupt speakers to create her own speaking space in this crowded communicative space.

Impartiality appears difficult to achieve. Baker-Shenk (1991) considers there's no position of "neutrality" for interpreters and that interpreters do in fact make decisions that impact on interpreted encounters. She stated unequivocally that this role needed to be acknowledged, both in terms of making ethical decisions and taking responsibility for them.

We can conclude that both the interpreter's clients are principally concerned with confidentiality and accuracy when they communicate via an interpreter. Whether this reflects experience of past and current breaches of these ethical principles or awareness of the position of power of the interpreter and a resulting sense of vulnerability, it is clear that interpreters must respect patient confidentiality and prioritise the accuracy of their interpreting as well as build a relationship of trust with their clients.

2.3 Interpreting as mediated communication

The now substantial body of research drawing on naturalistic interpreter-mediated interaction and subjected to rigorous discourse analysis has provided a much-needed perspective on how interpreters manage the interactional features of communication. The seminal research by Metzger, Roy, Berk-Seligson and Wadensjö among others identified functions carried out by the interpreter as a means of ensuring that all parties to the interaction are able to achieve understanding. In addition to a *relaying function* (described below), researchers observed a *coordinating function* whereby the interpreter oversees and manages the communication (Roy, 1989, 2000b; Wadensjö, 1992, 1998).

Wadensjö's empirically derived model of interpreter intervention serves as a framework for understanding dialogic communication in interpreter-mediated interaction. By dialogic communication, I mean that which "implies that the meaning conveyed in and by talk is partly a joint product" (Wadensjö, 1998: p.8); the meaning is *co-constructed* by the participants including the interpreter (Angelelli, 2004b; Davidson, 2002; Hale, 2004; Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013; Roy, 1989, 2000b; Wadensjö, 1998).

Wadensjö likens interpreter-mediated communication to a discursive "pas de trois" fluctuating between diadic and triadic exchanges depending on the communicative goals of the encounter. She describes the interpreter's "ability to mediate and create and sustain a common focus of interaction, to keep alive the primary parties' illusion of taking part in a non-mediated interaction" (ibid., p. 51). Roy (1989, 2000a) talks of the regular "smooth" turn patterns in her data. As noted earlier, turn-taking rules that apply to monolingual discourse are violated in interpreter-mediated interaction (Dimitrova, 1997). Interpreters must be able to hear everything, understand everything and remember everything, so the principle of non-fixed speaker order cannot apply. In the coordinating function enables the interpreter to intervene to establish the common ground. Interpreters employ two types of coordination for this purpose: *implicit* and *explicit coordination*. The implicit coordinating contributions overlap with the different types of relaying. The interpreter implicitly coordinates the talk by adapting the target text according to the linguistic resources available

(reducing, expanding and summarizing, chunking and cutting in[9]). The explicit coordinating contributions such as requests for clarification or comments on content or form may require monolingual exchanges with one of the primary parties and are designed to solicit talk (Wadensjö, 2002) for the purpose of establishing common ground.

The recommended turn design of the normatively-defined interpreter-mediated interaction (described in 2.2.3) does not allow for the interpreter's coordinating interventions. Davidson's (2002) heuristic for interpreter-mediated communication specifically allows for this function for the establishment of common ground, an essential component of effective communication that recognises that interlocutors are not "passive recipients of meaningful utterances but rather agents actively involved in the co-construction of these meanings" (Davidson, 2002, p.1284). In interpreter-mediated communication, there are two sets of common ground related to the two speakers, their worldview, language and culture that are co-constructed (ibid). Any model of interpreted discourse should represent this.

Figure 9   Model of construction of common ground

Turn ➔	1	(2)	(3)	4	(5)	(6)	7	(8)	(9)	10
Speaker 1 Δ	A		(*)							
Interpreter Δ		(*)								B'
Interpreter Ω				A'		(*)		(*)		
Speaker 2 Ω					(*)		B		(*)	

Adapted from Davidson, 2002: p.1284)

Legend:

Δ = language Δ (of speaker 1); language Ω (of speaker 2)

A = Speaker 1's contribution

A' = Interpreter's rendition of Speaker 1's contribution

B = Speaker 2's contribution

B' = Interpreter's rendition of Speaker 2's contribution

(*) = optional turns; stretches of same language discourse for the purpose of establishing common ground. May also be extended to include additional turns.

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[9] I first became aware of the expressions 'jumping in' and 'cutting in' used by Dr Jennifer Lane in her teaching on the interpreter course described in this thesis. She uses it to describe an implicit coordination of talk when the interpreter needs to take a turn and is managed through volume, eye contact and body language.

The blue coloured cells represent the meta-turns; those turns allowed for in a normatively-defined model of turn-taking.

Davidson's model of turn-taking includes space (identified as (*) in the Fig.9 above) for optional diadic exchanges between speakers in their common language as well as the normative triadic exchanges for the purpose of relaying. Once the common ground has been established through the diadic exchanges, the interpreter is able to achieve an accurate rendition of an utterance by employing one of the devices provided for in Wadensjö's repertoire of renditions. However, one important aspect of successful communication that Davidson's model does not account or allow for is backchanneling to enable speakers to acknowledge each other's contribution and provide feedback to the speaker (Dimitrova, 1997; Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013). Dimitrova likens the role of the interpreter in terms of feedback to that of "deputy listener" to encourage the weaker participant, a component of normal talk that can lead interlocutors to believe that their interventions have not been attended to or understood if feedback is not provided (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013). However, the complexity of the interpreter-mediated interaction means that the interpreter also needs to maintain enough distance in giving feedback so as not to take on the role of primary listener and direct attention back to her alone. According to Dimitrova the interpreter's transfer of an utterance forms a sort of feedback function in itself. It would appear also that the feedback given by primary participants in their own language is perceived as such by the other participant (Dimitrova, 1997). Llewellyn-Jones and Lee (2013) also stresses the social role of backchanneling by the interpreter so that all participants' contributions to the interaction are acknowledged.

In addition to the coordinating function, interpreters relay talk. In doing so, they manage their interventions to achieve the best rendition of the participants' utterances. Wadensjö's typology of renditions that perform the relaying function includes 6 types: *close*, *expanded*, *reduced* and *substituting* renditions. In addition, there are also *summarising* renditions and *no* renditions (Wadensjö, 2002 p. 358). Each of these rendition types has a place in the interpreted repertoire. The close renditions are those that conform to the normatively-defined model, where the linguistic resources in the source language are close to those of the target language (existence of cognates in the two languages, close syntactic mapping, etc.). Expanded and reduced renditions occur when the interpreter includes more or less explicitly

verbalised information in the target text. The expanded renditions "typically specify and disambiguate the referential and interactional meaning in a given text" (ibid., p. 359). However, the outcome may be that by providing more explicit information, the rendition may open up a more complex understanding than that intended in the original (Wadensjö, 2002). Substituting and summarising renditions both entail changes to the discourse. Both involve attempts by the interpreter to disambiguate the original. These attempts may or may not be successful as Wadensjö demonstrates (ibid.). "No renditions" occur in interpreter-mediated interaction for a number of reasons. As mentioned earlier, both Dimitrova (1997) and Slatyer (1998) found that backchanneling and feedback signals, for example, are not necessarily interpreted. Other resources (such as nodding, or maintenance of eye-contact) are sometimes called upon to perform the same function. Verbalisation of agreement or disagreement may not be necessary if head nodding accompanies a yes/no response, or if interlocutors possess notions of the other language such as the nurse in Slatyer's (1998) data who had notions of French and therefore did not require and did not wait for renditions for "oui", "non", "merci". If a client is asked to state his or her name, there is usually no need for the interpreter to repeat this unless the pronunciation of the language is so different from that of the other participant that they will not recognize the name; in this case the interpreter repeats the name in such a way that it will be recognized.

Napier's study of linguistic coping strategies used by interpreters identified strategic omissions that clearly fall outside standard notions of accuracy (Napier, 2002) and correspond to the reduced renditions in Wadensjö's typology. Observed in the context of educational interpreting, the typology includes "intentional strategic omissions" used by the interpreter as a linguistic coping strategy for a more effective rendering of the source text, the interpreter selectively omits information in order to achieve "meaningful equivalence" (Napier, 2002, p. 172).

In contrast to the normatively-defined role model, the intervention of competent, professional interpreters highlights their understanding of their role and the need to coordinate and manage talk. Rather than being unobtrusive and non-relational, therefore, the interpreter engages with both interlocutors as a participant in her own right. An additional component of role explored by Angelelli (2004a; 2004b) is that

of visibility. Visibility is a feature of the monological communication common in the interpreting required at international conferences that has been transposed to dialogic settings. Interpreters working in the simultaneous mode at conferences or large international meetings have little social contact with the participants in the communicative event unlike the interpreter working in dialogic communication in community settings. Angelelli represents interpreter visibility as a continuum of strategies observed in her study of medical interpreters (Fig.10).

Figure 10   The visibility continuum at California Hope

Visibility by text ownership	Strategies for doing text ownership	Impact of text ownership on medical/personal information
High ↑↓ Low	Replacing the monolingual interlocutor Alignment/affect Brokering cultural references Expressing solidarity Expanding/summarizing Exploring answers Sliding up and down the register scale <openings/closing/positing of self>	Highly consequential ↕ Inconsequential/ highly ritualised

Angelelli, 2004b, p.78

This continuum represents the strategies that interpreters in Angelelli's (2004b) study implement as part of their social role. The consequences and risks associated with the more highly visible strategies such as 'replacing the monolingual interlocutor' may have significant consequences. At the other end of the continuum the lower risk and less visible strategies are part of the interpreter's repertoire and carry few consequences ('opening/closings/positioning of self'). It is essential that student interpreters be educated to understand the risks associated with the different strategies along this continuum and are able to distinguish between more and less visible ones and when they are appropriate. Interpreters working for the Health Care Interpreter Service in NSW are extensively trained to avoid the higher risk behaviours that the (mostly untrained) interpreters in Angelelli's study were seen to engage in. Many of the more visible strategies used by interpreters are consistent with the behaviour of untrained "*ad hoc*" interpreters. The majority of the participants in Angelelli's study had received no interpreter training.

In response to the need to clearly define role and move away from prescriptive, rule-based models, Llewellyn Jones and Lee (2013) proposes a role-space model that

allows the interpreter the latitude to make professionally informed strategic choices about role and behaviour according to the particular circumstances of an interpreting assignment. In the role-space model, three axes, representing 3 distinct but related continua, map the social and linguistic space interpreters may choose to inhabit in order to achieve effective communication as follows:

- x: the axis of participant/conversational alignment (sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic)

- y: the axis of interaction management

- z: the axis of "presentation of self"

Drawing on sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic theories of communication (accommodation theory, conversational principles, politeness theory), Axis x includes the range of options the interpreter may employ to establish bipartiality (as opposed to impartiality) and to align with both interlocutors to establish the trust necessary for effective dialogic communication. The extent of the participant and conversational alignment will depend on the setting and circumstances. The courtroom is one setting where alignment will be limited whereas the doctor's surgery may lend itself to participant and conversational alignment through the position of the interpreter, introductions to both parties and linguistic choices.

Axis y allows for the implicit and explicit interventions necessary to achieve effective communication through the *Coordinating Function* and accounts for the additional turns proposed by Davidson (2002). The interpreter's strategic management of the interaction varies from the implicit coordination possible in face-to-face conversation (through shifting eye gaze, cutting in and body position) to explicit coordination in situations where the intervention of the interpreter needs to be overtly requested (again, most commonly in a courtroom).

Axis z represents the range of possibilities for the presentation of self ranging from minimal presentation of self to actual, expected presentation of self in ways that are consistent with the situation (e.g. introducing oneself, referring to one's self in the first person, etc.) (Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, p.58). This axis reflects the degrees of visibility identified by Angelelli (2002, 2004b) where the interpreter may introduce herself to both parties using her name and her experience with both or either of the

parties, important in the establishment of trust (contrary to recommendations consistent with the normatively-defined role model where the interpreter does not not engage with either party).

Figure 11   The interpreter's role space
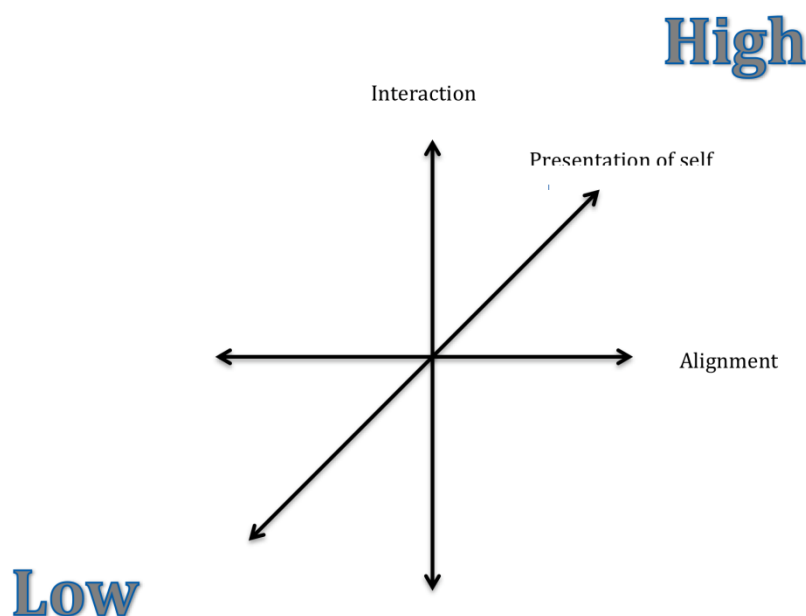
(Adapted from Llewellyn Jones & Lee, 2013, p. 67)

In this model (Fig.11), Llewellyn-Jones and Lee (2013) seeks to provide a 3-dimensional space that allows for the range of decisions interpreters make to achieve the best possible performance in a dynamic interactive context. The shape of the interpreter role space will change and evolve with the context; over the duration of any one communicative event and in relation to different settings, different participants and different communicative goals. Above all, they seek to normalise interpreter behaviour to the extent that the situation permits.

2.4   Conclusions

Central to any discussion about dialogue interpreting is the question of role. Described as "a complex set of skills and expectations practised within a setting that is socially, culturally and politically complex at both an interpersonal and institutional level" (Beltran Avery (2001, p. 11), role is best represented as a continuum of roles. "Subtle combinations of roles are required to accommodate the

demands of changing circumstances. No single prescriptive definition of role can overcome this" (Laster & Taylor, 1995, p.13). Expert interpreters navigate their way along this role continuum adopting whatever role construct is appropriate to the circumstances that arise in each of her assignments.

In this chapter, I have reviewed the literature on dialogue interpreting in professional settings in view of establishing some theoretical premises on which to base the curriculum described in this thesis. Conflicting views about both the nature of interpreter renditions and interpreter role have created uncertainty and confusion for interpreters leading them to adopt a limited view of their role.

Our understanding of the characteristics of successful interpreter-mediated communication is still incomplete. As Wadensjö concludes in her study of what happens to questioning strategies in an interpreter-mediated police interrogation: "one likes to think that a good interpreter should ensure a successful interrogation. In practice, however, criteria for quality in interpreting remain to be defined"; "we may sense intuitively bad or good quality, but our theoretical instruments to evaluate it are still quite blunt" (Wadensjö, 1997, pp. 49-50). Nevertheless, as the body of discourse-based research increases, pieces of the jigsaw are added. What is yet to be determined is to what extent the models of practice that have been observed in the discourse-based literature are the appropriate ones for practice - where do we draw the line on the interpreter's visibility and is setting a useful determinant of role?

Even without answers to these questions, the body of literature is substantial and comprehensive enough to inform curriculum content with empirically derived theoretical models. Rather than training interpreters in a role model that is inadequate for practice, we should be drawing on work that has explicitly described the different functions and roles that interpreters perform.

In conclusion, Herbert's words cited by Brian Harris in his introduction to the volume of papers from the second Critical Link Conference demonstrate that we shouldn't loose sight of the fundamental role of interpreters in assisting interlocutors to communicate effectively across boundaries of language and culture:

> "The mission of the interpreter is to help individuals and communities, to acquire a fuller knowledge and a deeper understanding of one another and,

what is still more important, a greater respect for one another. Also to come to an arrangement if they want to do so... The interpreter is an assistant whose intelligent contribution is an indispensable factor in any inter-community transaction"

<div align="right">(Herbert, cited in Harris, 2000, p. i).</div>

It is this understanding of role that underpinned the approach to interpreter education in the curriculum design project reported here. Our aim was to develop the students' awareness of the interactional sociolinguistic aspects of their role and to be able to make informed decisions about how to approach potentially challenging interpersonal situations.

Chapter 3

Principles of curriculum design and evaluation; current status of interpreter education

3.1   Introduction

In our field of Interpreting Studies, curriculum research is in its infancy and consequently there is little systematic research that has been published on interpreter education (Gentile et al., 1996; Gile, 2009; Pöchhacker, 2004; Sawyer, 2004) and little work explicitly linking curriculum design and evaluation for the education of interpreters to the large body of mainstream educational theory and practice. Sawyer finds this lack of a comprehensive discussion of curriculum issues grounded in educational theory surprising (Sawyer, 2004, p. 26), particularly so since training issues and aspects of pedagogy are popular topics at conferences (Wadensjö, 2007) and in the literature demonstrating an interest in the field. A number of specialised journals deal with interpreter education (The International Journal of Interpreter Education) or both translator and interpreter education (the Interpreter and Translator Trainer). Additionally, there is a growing number of universities around the world offer interpreting programmes with accompanying postgraduate and higher degree research programmes that one would assume would generate research on curriculum (Gile, 2009; Pöchhacker, 2004; Pöchhacker & Shlesinger, 2002; Sawyer, 2004).

In educational theory, philosophy is considered to be the starting point for curriculum development and subsequent decisions that are made about all aspects of curriculum implementation (Ornstein, 2011). A philosophical exploration of the nature of experience by John Dewey in the early 20th century spawned many influential theories of education: reflective practice, experiential learning, constructivism and learner-centredness to name a few of those relevant to our current study. Trends in educational psychology have confirmed what Dewey (1938) proposed from a philosophical perspective: that knowledge is constructed by learners (transformative learning) and not transmitted by teachers (Biggs & Tang, 2007; Kiraly, 2000; Sawyer, 2004). Traditional roles of authority, responsibility and control

in the classroom are challenged by these approaches to education, taking authority away from the teacher (Kiraly, 2000, p. 1).

Evaluation underpins much of the research on curriculum development. It is generally acknowledged that evaluation is an intrinsic part of curriculum development (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998; Tyler, 1949) and a key element in the practice of reflective teachers (Biggs & Tang, 2007; Brandt & Tyler, 2011; Schön, 1987; Tyler, 1949). Evaluation of learning, but also of the context and environment of education, examines whether the curriculum is meeting its objectives (Brandt & Tyler, 2011; Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005; Sawyer, 2004; Tyler, 1949). Evaluation of learning involves the integration of assessment and learning in the curriculum, considered to be an essential feature of good curriculum design. Integrated assessment and learning is characterised by inter-related cycles of assessment and learning (Kiely & Rea-Dickins, 2005), the setting of educational objectives (Biggs & Tang, 2007; Stenhouse, 1975, 1980) and the tasks that are used to assess them over the life of the curriculum. The distinction between formative and summative assessment is useful, both in relation to the assessment of learners and for the evaluation of the curriculum (Black, Harrison, Lee, Bethan, & Wiliam, 2004; Black & Wiliam, 1998; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998; Sawyer, 2004) to understand the purpose of different instances of assessment in the curriculum and how they relate to educational objectives through constructive alignment (Biggs & Tang, 2007). Like Sawyer, I draw on educational measurement and second language acquisition theory and research to inform decisions about curriculum design and the assessment of interpreters (Angelelli & Jacobson, 2009; Sawyer, 2004; Slatyer, Angelelli, Elder, & Hargreaves, 2008).

In this chapter, I first elaborate the educational philosophy that underpins our research and our theoretical approach to curriculum design. Secondly, I introduce my approach to evaluation, both of the curriculum and within the curriculum. Evaluation is closely linked to the education of reflective learners who become reflective practitioners. Lastly, I review the literature on dialogue interpreting education and identify the components of curricula reported in the literature.

3.2   Educational philosophy

"The belief that all genuine education comes about through experience does not mean that all experiences are genuinely or equally educative"

(Dewey, 1938, p. 25).

Much of the current philosophy, theory and practice of education derives from the seminal work of philosopher and educator John Dewey[10]. Writing in the late 19th and early 20th century, Dewey's philosophical writings spanned topics as diverse as the nature of inquiry, the experience of knowing and pedagogy. Experiential and constructivist models of education developed by educators such as Tyler, Stenhouse, Biggs, Kiraly and Ornstein have been inspired by Dewey's writings on the nature of experience. Likewise, Schön's work on the development of a model of reflection in professional practice and education that has been widely adopted in curriculum development, acknowledges the debt to Dewey.

Our starting point for defining our educational philosophy, therefore, is Dewey's philosophical perspective on the nature of experience (Dewey, 1938). Committed to a systematic approach to educational theory and practice as the basis for educational design, Dewey refused an "either/or" approach to education that pitted "traditionalist" approaches to education against "progressivism" that was largely defined by protagonists as being "experiential" learning. Dewey's main criticism of the progressivists was that they claimed an experiential model of education without having developed a philosophy or theory of experience (ibid.). He reminds us that traditional education was not bereft of experiences, it was that the experiences were of the "wrong sort", such as learning by drills that induced an automatic response to learnt situations rather than developing powers of judgement and the capacity to act intelligently in new situations (reflectively). From this premise, Dewey elaborates two aspects of quality in relation to experience: the immediate effect of the experience (that can be satisfying) and the influence of that experience on later experiences. This translates into two essential principles for a theory of experience: the first of these principles is the experiential continuum that is involved in discriminating between experiences that are worthwhile educationally and those that are not. The principle of continuity of experience means that every experience both takes up something from

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[10] Though Carr and Kemmis (1986) and McKernan (2008) and others trace the concept back to the Greek philosophers and in particular Aristotle and Plato.

those experiences that have gone before and modifies in some way the quality of those that come after (ibid. p. 35). The second chief principle for interpreting an educational experience in its educational function and force is interaction. Interaction assigns equal weight to the objective and internal conditions that make up any situation and refers to the interplay between the two. An experience is always what it is because of a transaction taking place between an individual and what constitutes his or her environment at the time of the experience, whether that consists of the people that one is talking to about some topic or event or the subject talked about, etc. The environment, in other words, interacts with "personal needs, desires, purposes and capacities" to create the experience (ibid., p. 44). The two principles of continuity and interaction intercept and unite. So, as an individual passes from one situation to another, what she or he has learned in the way of knowledge and skill from the earlier situation(s) becomes an instrument of understanding and dealing effectively with the situations that follow.

The task of the educator, then, is to select the type of experiences that are meaningful and engaging in the present and that "live fruitfully and creatively in subsequent experiences" (ibid., p. 28). The more convinced we are that education is a "development within, by and for experience" (ibid.), the more important it is that we have a clear conception of what experience is so that we can build on that conception to develop curriculum content and methods of instruction.

An additional element of Dewey's thesis on experience that is relevant here is the role of social relationships in learning. By defining educative experiences as interactive, Dewey qualifies education as a social process. Learners form a community group of which the teacher is a member. The teacher naturally has overarching responsibility for the conduct of the interactions and intercommunications that make up the life of the group (ibid.) as well as for selecting the tasks through which individuals will have the experiences that form the basis of their learning (Usher, 1985). This "transformationist" approach to learning is consistent with humanistic principles of learning and teaching as envisioned by the progressivists (Ornstein, Pajak, & Ornstein, 2011). Learning from this perspective is a "personal, holistic, intrinsically motivating and socially-effectuated construction process" Kiraly (2000, p. 17). Kiraly describes the transformationist classroom as one in which learning activities will be

marked by proactive students working in collaboration with each other and the teacher and a focus on situationally embedded, real-life or realistic projects (Kiraly, 2000, p. 23). The teacher in this context helps to create "complex, naturalistic learning environments in the classroom" and takes on roles as "guide, assistant, mentor and facilitator" in a collaborative learning process (ibid.).

Kiraly contrasts the transformationist approach with an objectivist perspective on learning. Qualified as "transmissionist", this approach views the teacher as possessor and distributor of knowledge (ibid., p. 15). Here the learner is a passive listener, a consumer of knowledge where "That which is taught is thought of as essentially static. It is taught as a finished product, with little regard either to the ways in which it was originally built up or to changes that will surely occur in the future" (Dewey, 1938, p. 19). In a transmissionist approach discrepancies in results on assessment are put down to the ability of the students, who are identified as "good students" or "bad students" and student ability is defined according to level of ability, motivation, prior education, ethnicity, etc. (Biggs & Tang, 2007, p. 19).

Constructivism, based on transformationist approaches, draws on research in cognitive psychology and emphasises the notion that learners construct knowledge with their own activities and through interaction with others in a learning community, building on what they already know (Biggs & Tang, 2007; Kiraly, 2000). From a constructivist perspective, meaning is imposed on the world by us, rather than existing in the world independently of us. Given that there are many ways to structure the world, there are many meanings or perspectives to any event or concept (Kiraly, 2000, p. 16). This view of how we make sense of reality relates to the Vygotskian perspective that an individual's thought processes are inextricably intertwined with that person's social history and interpersonal interaction (Vygotsky, 1999).

Effective learning changes the way we see the world, but the acquisition of information in itself does not bring about such a change, rather it is the way we structure that information and think with it that leads to change (ibid.). Students learn because they are interested in the task or the activity itself. Intrinsic motivation drives deep learning and the best academic work. It increases with continuing

successful engagement with a specific task. Social motivation, from a teacher who loves their subject and shows it, can be inspirational and similarly engender motivation. The key to motivation then is to ensure that academic activities are meaningful and worthwhile. According to Biggs and Tang learning takes place when:

- It is clear to both teachers and students what the intended outcomes of learning are, where all can see where they are supposed to be going. Outcomes-based teaching and learning requires this of teachers, whereas teaching in the form of "covering a topic" does not

- Students feel the need to learn. The art of good teaching is to communicate that need where it is initially lacking. "Motivation" is as much a product of good teaching as its prerequisite

- Students feel free to focus on the task, not on watching their backs. Attempts to create a felt need to learn by the use of ill-conceived and urgent assessments are counterproductive

- Students work collaboratively and in dialogue with others, both peers and teachers. Good dialogue elicits those activities that shape, elaborate and deepen understanding (ibid., p. 21).

These points link back to Dewey's theory of experience; incorporating continuity and interaction.

In an experiential model of learning such as I've described above, an element of reflection is necessary in order for learning to occur. Picking up on Dewey's work on the continuity of experience, Donald Schön explored the role of reflection in professional practice, coining the term "reflective practitioner" to describe the process by which professionals respond to problems not previously encountered or addressed in their training (Schön, 1983). Effective professionals need to reflect when faced with new problems or with difficulties for which they have not been specifically trained to cope. In Schön's words:

> "often a problematic situation presents itself as a unique case...Because the unique case falls outside categories of existing theory and technique, the practitioner cannot treat it as an instrumental problem to be solved by applying one of the rules in her store of professional knowledge. The case is not 'in the book'. If she is to deal with it competently, she must do so by a kind

of improvisation, inventing and testing in the situation strategies of her own devising"

<div align="right">(Schön, 1987:5).</div>

Schön's description of reflective practice incorporates three components:

- Knowledge-in-action which is the tacit knowledge which can't be described such as riding a bike

- Reflection-in-action which is the ability of a practitioner to "think on their feet"

- Reflection-on-action where the practitioner analyses their reaction to the situation and explores the reasons around and the consequences of, their actions after the event (ibid.)

Further interpretation of the steps in reflective practice by Kolb shows how information is transformed into knowledge. Learning takes place after the situation has occurred and entails a practitioner reflecting on the experience, gaining a general understanding of the concepts encountered during the experience and then testing these general understandings on a new situation. In this way the knowledge that is gained from a situation is continuously applied and reapplied building on a practitioner's prior experiences and knowledge (Kolb, 1984). Gibbs (1988) incorporated reflection on feelings, a process of evaluating what was good or bad about the experience and the meaning of the experience to his Model of Reflection (Fig.12). Conclusions are drawn first in a general way and then in relation to oneself. The final stage in Gibbs' cycle is an action stage where, as in Kolb's model, the learning is applied to future situations (if this situation arose again, what would you do differently?), thereby ensuring continuity of experience as defined by Dewey (1938).

Central to the development of reflective theory was interest in the integration of theory and practice, the cyclic pattern of experience and the conscious application of that learning experience. The role of theory in this process is that it makes us aware of a problem and helps generate a solution (Biggs & Tang, 2007, p. 43).

> "'Transformative reflection' is like the mirror in snow white, it uses theory to enable the transformation from unsatisfactory 'what-is' to the more effective 'what-might-be'" (ibid.).

Figure 12   Gibb's (1998) model of reflective practice
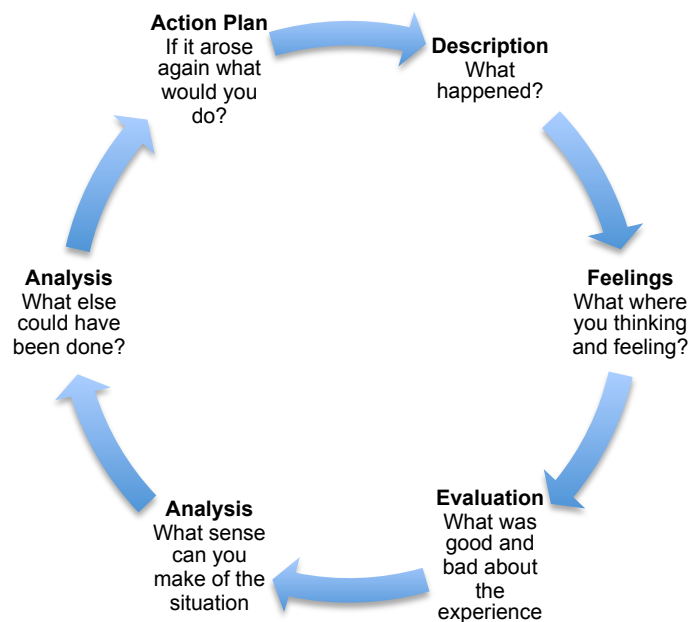
One of the keys to transformative reflection is motivation or engaging students with the task and for this there are two factors that make students want to learn something:

- it has to be important; it must have some value to the learner

- the learner needs to expect success when engaging in the learning task (ibid., p. 31)

However, a significant challenge for constructivist, and indeed experiential, models of education is the difficulty of understanding and implementing the "use of experience" in the classroom. Usher makes a distinction between learning from experience and learning through experience (Usher, 1985, p. 60). "Experience may be the raw material, but it has to be processed through reflection before it can emerge as learning" (ibid., p. 61). Both Kolb's and Gibb's models (Fig.12) of the learning cycle illustrate the link between concrete experience and reflection, but fail to describe how students can progress from experience to reflection. In Usher's view, the progression is impossible without considerable guidance from teachers, but he questions whether this is an appropriate strategy. Interventions by teachers will alter the nature of the reflection. The problems with experiential learning that Usher identified are that:

- not all experience can be a basis from which learning can be derived, learning must therefore involve a selection from experience (cf Dewey: all experiences are not equal);

- reflection is necessary in the processing of experience but does not happen spontaneously;

- experience must have personal meaning but needs to have features to which others can relate their own experience (ibid., ,).

Students do not necessarily see the value in experience, particularly if their expectations (and perhaps experience in the case of adult learners) of learning are that of a transmissionist approach. Both individual and group differences in learning styles can impact on the success of implementing different educational philosophies. It is difficult for students who do not see the potential for learning through an experiential paradigm to value their experience and, as Usher indicates in the first point above, to be able to select experiences that will form the basis of their learning. Though Usher sees this as part of the teacher's role, care needs to be taken to ensure that the teacher's guidance does not prevent students from being able to subsequently identify experience that is of personal significance to them. Similarly, teachers need to understand how reflection develops and be able to guide students in developing reflective skills.

Having outlined the principles underpinning my philosophical approach to education, I now turn to theories of curriculum design and evaluation as the means of putting those philosophical approaches into practice.

3.3   Curriculum development

The term curriculum can refer to a broad range of educational components. Definitions range from narrow to broad depending on how many of those components make their way into the definition. In this thesis, I adopt Tyler's (1949, p. 4) broad definition of curriculum as "an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice". It concerns "both the content and the method and in its widest application takes account of the

problem of implementation in the institutions of the educational system" (ibid.). As a minimum, a curriculum should provide a basis for planning a course, studying it empirically and considering the grounds of its justification.

Tyler (1949) translates these components into four fundamental questions to be asked at the outset of curriculum development:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?

2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?

3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organised?

4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained?

(ibid., pp. 1-3)

We can see in these four questions, the process of defining educational objectives, the translation of those objectives into learning tasks and teaching methods and an evaluation of learners and the curriculum to determine whether the objectives have been met.

The process of curriculum development is generally depicted as a linear process (see e.g. Sawyer, 2004; Tyler, 1949), starting with the definition of aims, then the learning objectives, then methods and assessments (that aim to assess learners against the stated learning objectives) and finally a process of evaluation to ensure that outcomes reflect the curriculum aims. While this, in our view, does not represent the reality of curriculum design that is more akin to a cyclical process of development, review and amendment (see revised model in Chapter 8), I adopt the linear view here for the purpose of describing discrete steps in the process. The process of development, according to Sawyer (2004), begins with a statement of the educational philosophy and finishes with an evaluation of the curriculum:

- Develop explicit statements of educational philosophy and the aims of instruction and programme goals based upon needs analysis

- Begin with aims and goals and working backwards, sequence skills and knowledge-building to meet these aims and goals; check against entry-level knowledge and skills

- Develop teaching objectives to enable participants to reach curriculum aims and goals

- Design instructional delivery formats that integrate all types of assessment (formative, summative, ipsative[11], traditional and alternative)

- Gather data on the appropriateness of the curriculum model and evidence of the validity and reliability of assessment practices (Sawyer, 2004, p. 91).

One of the difficulties in writing about curriculum theory and about curriculum generally, is the lack of standardisation of terms. Statements of intent appear in different forms and words such as goals, objectives, aims, ends, outcomes and purposes are often used interchangeably. Sawyer clarifies the distinction between aims and goals citing Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) and their definition of aims as having a visionary character; one that reflects the educational philosophy underpinning the programme (Sawyer, 2004, p. 55). Educational goals, objectives or learning outcomes are defined as learning to be acquired, though Sawyer uses "goals" to refer to programme goals and "objectives" to refer to learning outcomes. "Intended learning outcomes" (ILO) is the preferred term used by Biggs and Tang over "objectives" as they consider it emphasizes what the learner has to learn rather than what the teacher has to teach and clarifies what tasks the learner should be able to perform (Biggs & Tang, 2007). This is the term I shall be using here.

In vocational training in Australia, competency-based curricula, such as the national training package for interpreters that was implemented in 2011, are the norm. A competency is a particular type of goal defined by Brandt and Tyler as "the ability to perform a set of related tasks with a high degree of skill" (Brandt & Tyler, 2011, p. 13). The competency can be broken down into its component skills so that teachers and curriculum planners have both a broad statement of expected performance and an array of skills specific enough to be taught and measured that can be translated into learning objectives. Whatever terms are used, curriculum developers must have a clear idea of what they expect students to learn and establishing goals is a necessary step in that process (ibid.). The form and wording of goals and objectives should be appropriate for the way they are to be used. For example, in order to encourage a

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[11] Where performance on an assessment is compared against previous results.

deep approach to learning, higher order skills might be described as "reflecting", "hypothesizing", "relating to", "applying", "arguing". Skills that represent lower order skills might be described as: "memorizing", "identifying/naming", "paraphrasing" (Biggs & Tang, 2007, p. 21).

The criteria for judging goals and objectives are their usefulness in communicating educational purposes, their helpfulness to teachers in planning educational activities and to learners to understand the purpose of their learning (Brandt & Tyler, 2011).

3.4   Curriculum evaluation

As noted in the previous section, curriculum evaluation involves both evaluation *of* the curriculum and *within* the curriculum as two complementary and interconnected goals (cf Sawyer's Steps 4 and 5 respectively ([Sawyer, 2004, p. 91]). Evaluation, therefore, has a broad programme objective as well as a narrower individual or group learning one. I start this section with the second of the two types of evaluation in order to demonstrate the relationship between assessment, curriculum and learning outcomes. Subsequently, the question of evaluation of the curriculum will be discussed in Chapter 4 as a research focus in the context of curriculum development.

3.4.1 Aligning the curriculum

In the words of Stenhouse, "having an aim cannot lead to satisfaction unless it is possible to recognise its achievement" (Stenhouse, 1975). Assessment of learning takes many forms and achieves a range of purposes, but ultimately is the only means by which curriculum developers, teachers and learners themselves can make sense of the curriculum by determining whether learning has taken place.

The idea of aligning assessment tasks with learning objectives is not new. Drawing on constructivist theory of learning, constructive alignment explicitly connects intended learning outcomes, learning and teaching activities and assessment tasks (see Fig.13 below) with the aim of enhancing learning and teaching. The constructive alignment becomes the framework for reflection. It is a form of outcomes-based education using principles of criterion-referenced assessment such that learning and teaching

activities and assessment are systematically aligned to the intended learning outcomes as follows:

- the intended outcomes of teaching in a particular course or programme are stated

- teaching should be done in such a way as to increase the likelihood of most students achieving those outcomes

- assessment focusses on identifying how well the outcomes have been achieved (Biggs & Tang, 2007)

The learning activity, expressed as a verb in the ILO, needs to be present in the teaching activities if the outcome is to be achieved and in the assessment tasks as the means of checking that the outcome has in fact been achieved. Alignment in the context of interpreter education, for example, might take the verb "interpreting" as a focus for learning; students "interpret" (rather than listen to a teacher talk about interpreting).

Figure 13   Aligning intended learning outcomes, teaching and assessment

Teaching/Learning Activities	Intended Learning Outcomes	Assessment Tasks

• Designed to generate or elicit verbs in a range of activities with learners.
• Activities may be:
  • **teacher**-managed
  • **peer**-managed
  • **self**-managed
• as best suits the ILO
	• Incorporate *verbs* that students have to enact as appropriate to the context of the content
	• *The very best outcomes that could be reasonably expected* containing verbs such as hypothesize, reflect, apply to, etc.
	• *Highly satisfactory outcomes* containing verbs such as solve expected problems, explain complex ideas, apply to professional practice.
	• *Quite satisfactory outcomes* containing verbs such as solve basic problems, explain basic ideas, use standard procedures
	• Minimally acceptable outcomes
	• *and applications*; inadequate but salvageable higher level attempts
		• *Format* of tasks such that the target verbs are elicited and deployed in context
		• *Criteria* specified clearly to allow judgement as to student's performance

(Biggs & Tang, 2007, p. 59)

In this case the verb "interpreting" should be expressed in the ILO, describe the learning and teaching activity and be the object of assessment.

If people learn by constructing their own understanding from their experiences, assessment is not only part of learning, it is the critical component that allows the

learners and their teachers to check their understanding against the view of others. Embedded within this notion is the idea that assessment must include both a reflective and a social element. The alternative is for learners to be passive and uncritical recipients of disconnected (and often conflicting ideas), without the skills to challenge or judge for themselves (Tyler, 1949).

Assessment events can be mapped across the curriculum according to the purpose they serve. O'Malley and Valdez Pierce (1996) identify six purposes for assessment:

- screening and identification

- placement

- reclassification or exit

- monitoring student progress

- programme evaluation

- accountability (ibid., p. 3)

3.4.2 Forms of assessment

Each of the above purposes may be served by a number of different forms of assessment, generally identified as formative/summative and/or formal/informal. Building on the alignment of ILOs, a further step in the design of an embedded curriculum involves integrating assessment across the learning and teaching cycle. Performance-based education such as vocational training for interpreters provides a natural context for an embedded curriculum model (Brindley, 2001b) as ILOs are generally stated as observable skills (e.g., "Demonstrates ability to interpret dialogues"). Assessments across the curriculum align with specific purposes.

> "Much routine classroom teaching activity allows teachers to make decisions about their learners - e.g., how much a learner knows and how much progress a learner is making and may be influential in determining what is taught next and how that material is taught, thereby constituting an important core in classroom assessment practice"
>
> (Rea-Dickins, 2001, p. 434).

Assessments for a short vocational interpreting course might include the following for example:

Table 3   Assessment purposes and formats

Purpose	Stage	For
Screening/Selection	Pre-course	Interview Language test
Monitoring progress	Regular intervals during the learning/teaching cycle	Portfolio and conference Observations of performance on practical tasks (shadowing, glossary development, etc.)
Exit	End of the learning/teaching cycle	Roleplays of interpreting performance Portfolio evaluation
Accountability	End of the learning/teaching cycle	Roleplays of interpreting performance Portfolio evaluation

Assessment strategies associated with informal assessment opportunities are those routinely embedded within good classroom practice. These include teacher questioning and probing, small-group interaction between learners and their teacher, effective collaboration amongst learners themselves - whilst being observed by their teacher - as well as more formal feedback in terms of comments on learners' work (ibid.).

Literature on teachers' assessment practices has identified a difficult relationship between the summative and formative roles of assessment (Black & Wiliam, 1998). Often represented as a dichotomous relationship, the formative/summative distinction could be better represented as a continuum with summative assessment most likely to be used by (often) undetermined users for accountability purposes whereas the formative functions of assessment are more likely to be used for and by small groups of students or for particular individuals (students and teachers). Summative assessment has earned a poor reputation mainly from the abuse of large-scale, norm-referenced tests and exams testing surface knowledge, but this does not have to be so. Indeed, summative assessment can also be used for formative purposes and is not necessarily only administered at the end of a programme of study or cycle of learning and teaching, but may be administered throughout the curriculum following the conclusion of a topic or unit of learning or teaching. Nevertheless, most would argue that formative and summative assessments are so different in their purpose that they have to be kept apart (Black & Wiliam, 1998, p. 8). Formative

assessments are generally associated with less formal methods and summative with the more formal ones, but this also does not have to be the case. A summative judgement can be made on the basis of a portfolio of student's work accomplished over the semester or year. Formal assessments are often unsuitable for a number of reasons (for example, learners with a low level of literacy who cannot read task rubrics or those who experience heightened anxiety when faced with a formal examination) and in this case can be substituted with more informal methods. Shohamy (2001, p. 387) considers that test-takers have the right to be assessed via alternative forms of assessment - especially in the case of immigrants who are not familiar with the test formats in the new country. Recognition of difference corresponds to the range of needs in a multicultural classroom.

Despite the fact that teachers appear to prefer formative assessments, Black and Wiliam (1998) conclude from their meta-analysis of the literature on formative assessment, that:

- formative assessment is not well understood by teachers and is weak in practice;

- the context of national or local requirements for certification or accountability will exert a powerful influence on its practice; and

- its implementation calls for rather deep changes both in teacher's perception of their own role in relation to their students and in their classroom practice (ibid., p. 10)

These concerns are reflected by Brindley; accountability and reporting requirements imposed on teacher assessments create a tension between the learner-centredness of the formative assessments during the learning cycle and the summative assessments administered at the end of a learning and teaching cycle for the purposes of reporting outcomes. This tension can lead to a preoccupation with the consistency and reliability of the assessment procedures and the comparability of alternative methods of assessment (in particular self and peer assessment) with formal methods (Brindley, 2001a). However, Brindley questions whether the same measures for high-stakes, large-scale testing should be applied to classroom-based assessment and whether we should be seeking to reconcile alternative assessment with the exigencies of testing theory (ibid.). "Any deliberate, sustained and explicit reflection by teachers

and learners on the qualities of a learner's work can be thought of as a kind of assessment … teachers (and learners) can engage in systematic reflection on the characteristics of an individual performance as an aid to the formulation of learning goals in a variety of contexts" (McNamara, 2001, p. 343). This is done descriptively and qualitatively and does not lead obviously into questions of score comparison (ibid.).

A more appropriate approach may be to implement collaborative and shared models of assessment. Shohamy considers that the triangulation of different methods of assessment such as dialogues surrounding a portfolio of work (portfolio conferences) as well as observations over time, can serve to strengthen the validity and dependability of decisions based on assessment through the use of "multiple sources of evidence" (Shohamy, 2001, p. 380). This relates to and goes some way to addressing Brindley's concern about the reliability of basing reporting of outcomes on performance on a single instance, such as the administration of a single summative assessment task at the end of a cycle of teaching.

Collaboration between teachers and students and between students and their peers can produce a supportive environment in which students can explore their own ideas, hear alternative ideas in the language of their peers and evaluate them (Kiraly, 2000). "By communicating and negotiating with peers and more experienced (and thus more knowledgeable) others, we acquire a feel for correctness, appropriateness and accuracy, a feel that is grounded in our social experiences and bound up in the language we use and share with other people" (ibid., pp. 3-4).

Peer assessment is gaining credence as a means of developing reflective skills. Both peer assessment and self-assessment make distinct contributions to the development of students' learning; securing gains "that cannot be achieved in any other way" (Black et al., 2004, p. 6). However, many teachers who have tried to develop their students' self-assessment skills have found that the first and most difficult task is to get students to think of their work in terms of a set of goals. Insofar as they do so, they begin to develop an overview of that work that allows them to manage and control it for themselves. In other words students are developing the capacity to work at a metacognitive level.

In the context of interpreter education, the relevance of formative assessment is evident. Fowler (2007) recommends formative assessment (specifically peer and self-assessment) as a means of assisting interpreters to prepare for their future professional life. Given that most will probably work as freelancers, self-monitoring is an essential skill that the interpreter will use to evaluate her own performance. Fowler lists the steps required to implement self and peer assessment in the interpreting classroom. Trainees need

- to have a basic understanding of the interpreting process before they can begin to practice peer assessment in class

- practice in applying tutor-devised assessment criteria to their own and their peers' work

- to be briefed on how to give and receive oral and written feedback to and from peers

- training in the skill of assessing themselves and each other and need to understand the rationale of peer and self-assessment (Fowler, 2007, pp. 255-256).

In addition to the skills that peer assessment develops in students, Fowler (2007) notes that it will also increase the amount of feedback students obtain on their interpreting. She proposes a structured observation sheet so that students can focus their observation on specific aspects of the interpreting, for example:

1. Were introductions and statements of intent properly made?

2. Did the statement of intent contain all the elements indicated in the Code of Practice?

3. Were interventions handled according to the code?

4. Was direct speech used throughout? (ibid., p. 257)

This short list of observation questions can be contrasted with the list of 14 questions proposed by Corsellis (2005) that (apart from the same questions as those proposed by Fowler, 2007 above) includes questions such as "Did the interpreter appear to be sensitive to cultural differences/misunderstandings" or "Was the interpreter accurate"? (ibid., p. 172). Observation is a complex and difficult task and in order for students to manage the task well and provide useful feedback to their peers, it is

advisable to keep observation schedules simple and objective, as Black et al., (2004) recommend below.

To ensure that students are successful in their attempts at self and peer assessment, Black et al. (2004, p. 7) suggest that:

- the criteria for evaluating any learning achievements must be made transparent to students to enable them to have a clear overview both of the aims of their work and of what it means to complete it successfully

- students should be taught the habits and skills of collaboration in peer assessment, both because these are of intrinsic value and because peer assessment can help develop the objectivity required for effective self-assessment

- students should be encouraged to keep in mind the aims of their work and to assess their own progress toward meeting these aims as they proceed

As noted earlier in relation to the development of reflective skills, self-assessment will only be successful if teachers help their students to develop the skill.

Formative and informal classroom assessments have strong face validity, yet their effectiveness in enhancing learning is still to be supported empirically. In concluding their review of the research on the impact of formative assessment, Black and Wiliam (1998) note the many variables that are unreported in the research such as the perceptions and beliefs of learners and teachers about teaching and learning, the nature of the social setting in the classrooms and issues relating to race, class and gender. The existence of these unintended variables undermines the research to the extent that findings reporting the largely positive outcomes of formative assessment should be considered with caution.

3.5 Interpreter education

Following the overview of community interpreting in practice and a sketch of theoretical directions in Chapter 2, I turn to the question of curriculum content and questions concerning the practice of community interpreting in order to define the educational goals for students. In this discussion, I draw together the philosophy of

education outlined here and the construct definition of community interpreting in Chapter 2.

The review of the literature on interpreter education in this section focuses on theories that are of relevance to curriculum design and evaluation for community interpreters. Curriculum goals and objectives need to be based on the specific skills and knowledge required in the context of practice (Biggs & Tang, 2007) and our position is that these need to be based on what has emerged from the research on community interpreting (and also recommended in particular by Angelelli, 2004; Hale, 2007; Llewellyn-Jones & Lee, 2013). The majority of literature on curriculum for interpreters relates to conference interpreter education. In Australia and elsewhere this is primarily influenced by guidelines set out by AIIC (the international professional association of conference interpreters) that has been proactive in setting standards and CIUTI (a group of universities that offer conference interpreter training and that meet the standards set by the organization) (Thorquindt, 2008). However, little of the work undertaken for the education of conference interpreters is useful for the education of community interpreters (Pöchhacker, 2004) because of the different skills and techniques that are required by conference interpreters. Additionally, as Sawyer (2004) notes, much of the literature on conference interpreting pedagogy is instructional material rather than reports of research into educational models and their effectiveness that is the particular interest here. This review encompasses literature from curriculum studies and applied linguistics where these were seen to bring relevant theoretical insights to design and evaluation project.

Much of what has been written about curriculum and evaluation in the first part of this chapter is derived from research and practice in general education, second language education and applied linguistics. Writing in the mid-1990s, Gentile qualified the stage of development of curriculum design in the context of the education of community interpreters as "embryonic" (Gentile, 1994, p. 20), stating that curriculum is based largely on practice in the hope that students will be able to perform successfully once in the real world (ibid.). Curriculum research in community interpreting has hardly evolved since then, though the work undertaken in the context of sign language interpreter education through the CIT (Conference of

Interpreter Trainers) and published in the Gallaudet University Press series edited by Roy is a notable exception.

Dedicated university-level courses are still the exception rather than the norm, so that despite a growing interest in community interpreting as the focus of research there is little work that focuses explicitly on a theoretical model of dialogue interpreting in community settings for pedagogical purposes. Despite the many calls for education to draw on research to better educate interpreters to cope with the exigencies of practice (Angelelli, 2004, 2006; Hale, 2004; 2007; Napier, 2002; Roy, 2002; Wadensjö, 1998) very few of the findings of the research reported in Chapter 2 have been translated into pedagogical models. The lack of research into the effectiveness of educational strategies is also problematic in that we don't really know what works best as Gile has noted more generally in interpreter and translator education (Gile, 2009).

In terms of curriculum design for interpreter education, the Australian context has the particularity of our accreditation system that has fostered NAATI approved, university-level courses in community interpreting and imposes the specifications for curriculum content and assessment of student interpreters. A NAATI approved curriculum for interpreting must include language studies, interpreting practice, ethics and social and cultural studies. As I noted in the previous chapter, interpreter education in Australia is typically offered at either the postgraduate level as a professional Masters or Postgraduate Diploma or alternatively in the vocational sector (TAFE), that is below Bachelor level.

Firstly, at the programme level, one of the major issues is the relationship between translation and interpreting. Arjona (1984, p. 10) describes five different curriculum models for translator and interpreter education based on Velleman's 1941 Geneva curriculum (Sawyer, 2004, p. 85). The models represent different articulations of the key components in conference interpreter education, principally the relationship between translation and interpreting, applied language arts and linguistic studies, practicum, area studies, subject specialisation and professional ethics.

According to these models, both translation and interpreter programmes commence with translation and/or interpreting competence on the assumption that the basic

transfer skills acquired in learning translation underpin interpreting competence. The Y-forked track model includes a core curriculum for all students after which students specialise in either translation or interpreting. This is the model that Macquarie University has adopted for its professional postgraduate translation and interpreting programmes.

Sawyer considers that evidence is needed to support different curriculum models currently used in conference interpreter education to determine whether:

- translation and interpretation are more similar or dissimilar to one another in terms of knowledge and skill acquisition processes (curriculum as process)

- whether training in translation and in interpretation should take place concurrently, sequentially or independently of one another (curriculum as process and curriculum as interaction)

- the skill level and language combination required for graduation (curriculum as interaction) (Sawyer, 2004, p. 92).

Concerning the relationship between translator training and interpreter training, Gile (2005) also notes the lack of research to confirm the usefulness of one skill in relation to learning the other, but considers that many of the difficulties and strategies involved in transfer between languages in the written or oral mode are common to each and therefore it makes sense to include both, particularly when translation is introduced in the first year of a 4-year undergraduate degree (Gile, 2009). However, in graduate conference interpreting programmes, translation is not generally taught since the main focus is on oral skills: mastering comprehension of speeches, mastering oral expression and mastering the ability to manage cognitive load due to the temporal synchronicity of the simultaneous interpreting mode (Gile, 2005, pp. 129-130). Perhaps there is also some scope for overlap between conference interpreter education and community interpreter education: "Some skills taught in conference interpreter training programmes, in particular consecutive interpreting, are also useful to community interpreters, court interpreters, etc." (ibid., p. 128). To this, I would add Gile's third component above: the ability to manage cognitive load, notably as described in the Effort Models (Gile, 2009). It is likely that community interpreters' performance is similarly affected by cognitive overload when input

conditions are challenging (e.g., difficult terminology, unfamiliar accents, long segments) or the context of the assignment raises particular difficulties (e.g., emotionally charged context, clients lacking experience of working with interpreters). Taking Gile's (2009) 2-phase model of consecutive interpreting and adapting it to dialogue interpreting I propose:

Interpreting = L + M + Rem + P + C

Where

L = listening and analysis

M = short-term memory operations

Rem = remembering

P = production

C = coordination

Unlike the model for consecutive interpreting, there is no note-taking component (though interpreters working in dialogue mode occasionally take notes it is not an essential component. Notes are more commonly used for dialogic interpreting over the phone). In this model, the Rem component is not supported by the interpreter's notes and therefore requires interpreters to hold utterances in their short-term memory for processing.

However, until we have some research to identify the particular difficulties that place a demand on the interpreter's processing capacity in this context, we are unable to integrate this factor into training.

In terms of the components of interpreter competence, those relating to interpreting from Gile's list of translator and interpreter competence that may be relevant to community interpreting are:

- good knowledge of both languages in their working pair. Dialogue interpreting requires use of both languages actively and passively. They therefore need to be

able to comprehend and convey utterances equally well in both languages in a range of target contexts, using the registers that are appropriate to that context

- sufficient knowledge of the themes and subject matter addressed in dialogues they interpret. Community interpreters generally work in a range of institutional settings from legalistic to the medical and require domain-specific knowledge of the subject matter

- declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge about interpreting. Interpreters require knowledge about interpreting (their role in different settings, preparation for assignments) and have the requisite skills and knowledge to perform their assignments (Gile, 2009).

Educational goals in conference interpreter education generally state that graduates will be ready to work immediately and reliably (Sawyer, 2004, p. 56). Arjona (1984, p. 4) lists four programme goals for interpreters:

- Understanding by the student of issues and problems he/she is called upon to address in real life situations

- Fluency or familiarity with the vocabulary, symbol system and traditions in the field

- Continuity of learning thus ensuring that the students will be able to continue to learn and develop professionally after exiting the programme

- Resourcefulness in the student, thereby training him/her in the manipulation of human and intellectual resources to ensure successful professional work

These goals describe an educational model encompassing reflective practice and sustainability and could apply equally well to curricula for community interpreters who may also be considered to be 'work ready' on completion of a professional programme.

With regard specifically to pedagogy in community interpreting, there is a small amount of literature (Angelelli, 2006; Corsellis, 2005; Fiola, 2003; Hale, 2007; Mikkelson & Minz, 1997; Niske, 2007; Penney & Sammons, 1997) that contains descriptive accounts of curricula for vocational training in relation to format and duration, target population, criteria for selection, course components and challenges

encountered. Rudvin and Tomassini (2011) have produced a comprehensive teaching guide for educators setting up or implementing programmes for community interpreters.

The duration of the courses described in the literature range from workshops of two days (Mikkelson & Minz, 1997) to full degree courses (Niske, 2007; Penney and Sammons, 1997), with consequent variation in goals, content and outcomes. Some of these courses are setting specific, such as the 2-day workshop for court interpreters described by Mikkelson and Minz (1997), or Angelelli's (2006) suggestions for healthcare interpreters and others are generic such as Penney and Sammons (1997) degree programmes for Inuit interpreters in Canada. Taxonomies of skills and knowledge, drawing on experience and some on empirical work are also proposed and draw on experience and/or empirical work (Hale, 2007; Angelelli, 2006).

The fact that programmes have been reported in the literature indicates that some evaluation is expected to have taken place. However, the evaluation aspect is rarely made explicit (apart from Mikkelson & Minz (1997) who report administering an evaluation survey to participants at the end of the programme) and as a consequence we don't always know to what extent the evaluation has been systematic or the object of more extensive reporting elsewhere for the purposes of accountability, for example.

The programmes and courses described serve a number of different purposes. The course reported by Mikkelson and Minz (1997) is designed for court interpreters who were already working in the courts but who had not passed the certification exam, either because it was not offered in their language or because they had failed the exam. Despite this main purpose, they note that in the end both practising and aspiring interpreters attended the workshops. It therefore could be perceived as essentially a preparatory course for the certification exam. Similarly, Fiola (2000) and Corsellis (2005) report on programmes for interpreters that have been set up because practicing interpreters were unable to pass the existing certification exams. Certification is often a challenge for community interpreters either because there is no exam in their language pair or they don't possess the requisite skills because of a lack of training.

Most authors comment on the process of selection. Mikkelson and Minz (1997) use the screening test of English language proficiency as a benchmark for the LOTE and would appear to be the basis for developing self-assessment skills of language proficiency. They also administer an ethics quiz. Penney and Sammons (1997) comment on the problems related to bilingual language proficiency and, as with the students in Fiola's course, the candidates have limited literacy in English (generally the second language) because the first language is an oral language. Additionally, the students may have had little or no formal education. Even though the desired profile of candidates for training may be "perfect knowledge of languages" (Niske, 2000: p. 137), it is generally acknowledged that this is rarely achievable. Niske goes on to say that the objective of the interpreter-training course in Sweden is to develop a level of proficiency equivalent to a secondary-school level (presumable of a native speaker) (ibid.). Corsellis (2005) also concedes that in terms of language proficiency "it should not be assumed that students are necessarily as competent as they should be in their language of habitual use" (ibid., p. 161). But Fiola (2000) adds that the lack of potential candidates for the course in reality means that all are accepted whether or not they actually possess the requisite skills. However, he considers that for candidates to succeed they should be familiar with both cultures, have a good memory, demonstrate impartiality and rigour and should be respected in their own linguistic community.

In terms of content, all the programmes combine theoretical and practical components and often include a practicum. The range of theoretical components in the above literature (both descriptions of programmes and suggestions for curriculum) cover:

- understanding of role,

- knowledge of ethics,

- interpreting techniques (dialogue and simultaneous),

- setting-specific knowledge

- terminology development

- linguistic theory (sociolinguistics, pragmatics, discourse analysis)

Each of the programmes gives priority to different components, but in general interpreting techniques (whether these extend to simultaneous or only cover dialogue) figure high on the list with ethics and setting-specific knowledge.

Practical skills focus on interpreting techniques and range from dialogue interpreting (also referred to as consecutive) to simultaneous mode, sight translation of forms and terminology development practice. Some (e.g., Corsellis, 2005) include written translation presumably on the assumption that the language-transfer skills developed through doing practical translation will transfer to the oral mode.

In terms of role, Penney and Sammons (1997) take a conservative stance because their main emphasis is on accurate interpreting. They do consider, though, that some training in managing advocacy is necessary given the complex social nature of the interpreting context. However, none of the programmes report explicitly on whether interpreting practice is based on empirically-explored models. Do units on interpreting techniques, for example, teach student interpreters about the different types of renditions identified by Wadensjö (2002) and allow them to explore these in their practical sessions? Is the discourse of different settings explored and used as the basis for exercises as suggested by Hale (2004, 2007) and Angelelli (2004a, 2006)? Similarly, are interpreters taught about pragmatics and how this impacts on notions of accuracy? We would also hope that instruction on role draws on empirical models and avoids the one-size-fits all approach of the normatively-defined role.

In terms of generic skills, a notable omission from the lists of skills and knowledge above, is the discourse-based approach to interpreter education employed by Roy (2000a) and Winston and Monikowski (2000). In order for interpreters to fully understand text in talk, they need to understand how discourse works in human communication. For this, Winston and Monikowski propose a discourse-mapping process whereby students map topics by drilling down from broad themes to the lexicogrammar of the discourse. The students then use these maps to understand interlingual transfer and notions of accuracy when they interpret (ibid.). This type of practical application of linguistic theory whereby students 'do' linguistics leads to a more profound understanding of the elements of communication.

There is little reference to reflective practice in the literature on the education of community interpreters with the exception of Fowler (2007). Yet, given the complexity of the tasks that interpreters are expected to carry out and the fact that many work in isolation as freelancers, it would seem almost essential that training include the development of skills in reflection.

The overview of education for community interpreters doesn't distinguish between language-streamed approaches and those that take a multilingual approach. While multilingual education is common in Australia and elsewhere (New Zealand has delivered multilingual education since the 1990s [Crezee, 2015 personal communication]), particularly for pre-service and in-service training and preparation for certification exams, there is no literature that explicitly reviews and evaluates this approach.

3.6   Conclusions

This broad-ranging discussion of theory and practice of curriculum design and evaluation serves to outline the premises on which the curriculum evaluation and design reported in this thesis is based. Three main disciplinary influences are at play here. Firstly, I take my educational philosophy from John Dewey, educator but perhaps primarily a philosopher. Dewey's rigour in refusing to adopt a key notion such as experience without an operational definition has provided educators with a much needed understanding of one of the most pervasive tenets of learner-based education – "experience". We see this applied in reflective practice and throughout the theoretical work on curriculum design.

Secondly, the overview of the theoretical relationship between curriculum design and evaluation provides a new perspective on the purposes, goals and processes of evaluation. Despite the existence of a literature on the role of evaluation in curriculum development, we see little application of this in our field of Translation and Interpreting Studies.

Thirdly, the practice of curriculum evaluation as applied to second language education in the field of applied linguistics, provides useful models for the evaluation implemented in the context of this thesis.

Lastly, the education of dialogue interpreters needs to draw on empirically derived and tested (where possible), theoretical models of interpreting such as those offered by Wadensjö, Davidson, Angelelli and Llewellyn-Jones and Lee. Current taxonomies of skills, techniques and knowledge in the literature on dialogue interpreter education still fall short of providing the comprehensive, theoretically based and empirically tested model that would provide educators with the basis for curriculum design.

This thesis fills a gap by proposing an empirically evaluated model of interpreter education that draws on current research to inform the curriculum design. It is also innovative in proposing a robust process of curriculum design for a multilingual cohort of students.

Chapter 4
Methodology, methods and procedure

4.1 Introduction

The preceding three chapters have provided a context and background for the study. In Chapter 1 dialogue interpreting in community settings is situated within its social, political and professional context. The focus on professional practice in interpreting is extended and developed in Chapter 2 and the expanding body of theoretical and empirical work that underpins current thinking about interpreting as mediated communication is discussed. The theoretical frameworks that are presented in this chapter provide a perspective for understanding the complexities of interpreter role and practice. The third chapter deals with the educational component of the study. It provides a philosophical perspective for the education of interpreters and outlines approaches to curriculum design and evaluation. The final section of Chapter 3 traces the evolution of interpreter education with a particular emphasis on dialogue interpreting in professional settings.

In this chapter, Chapter 4, the methodological approaches, methods and procedure for the study, which ran from July 2003 to March 2004, will be discussed. The research design draws on insights from four different disciplinary perspectives: language education and assessment in Applied Linguistics, curriculum design and evaluation (evaluation on and within the curriculum) in Education, curriculum evaluation in Evaluation and interpreting as situated practice in Interpreting Studies. The methodological approaches in the study are discussed in light of these multidisciplinary influences and the epistemological perspective taken. Secondly, an overview of the methods employed in curriculum and evaluation research is provided. The methods used in this study are then outlined, as is the research procedure, the aims and objectives, participants, budget and timeline for the project.

4.2 Disciplinary influences

The project relates to interpreting and specifically to interpreter education and sits in the Holmes-Toury map of Translation Studies (Toury, 1995) within both the

"applied" field under "Translator training" and the "pure" field under "medium-restricted" theoretical approaches (Fig.14). Medium-restricted in this context refers to whether the activity is carried out through an oral or written medium. Holmes did not identify Interpreting Studies as a distinct discipline or sub-discipline (Pöchhacker, 2004), but clearly considered it as a branch of Translation Studies as indicated in the map.

Figure 14   The Holmes-Toury Map (adapted from Toury, 1995)
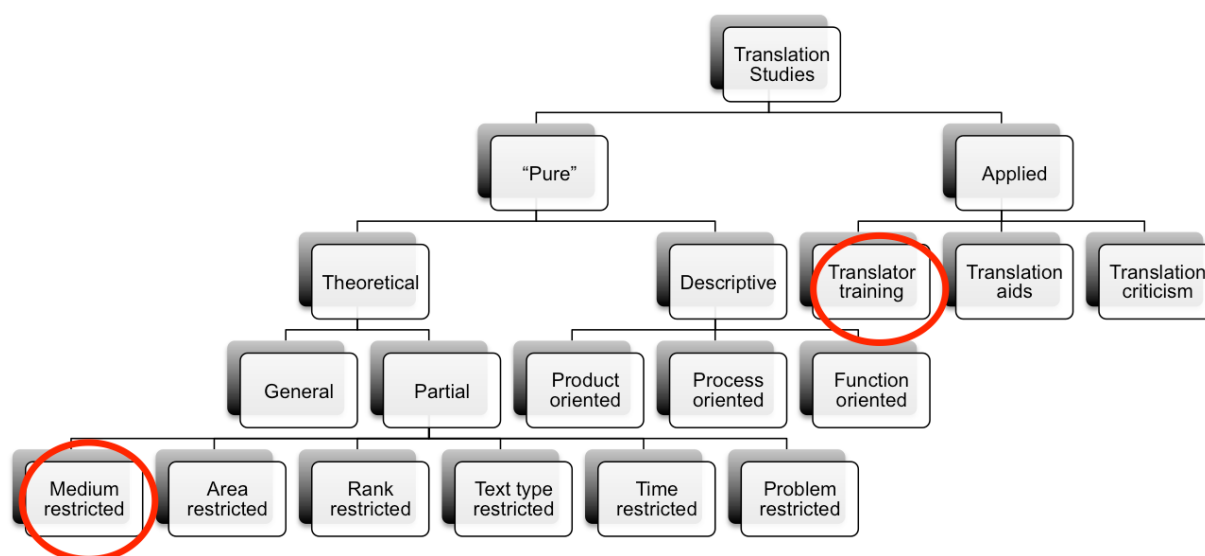
(Adapted from Toury, 1995)

Debate is ongoing about whether Interpreting Studies should be considered to be distinct from Translation Studies and one of the criteria that Shäffner proposes for making the distinction is whether the two disciplines share common goals, paradigms and methods (Shäffner, 2004). The term "Translation and Interpreting Studies" encompasses both the common ground and the specificities of each without having to resolve the differences in terms of the research paradigms and interdisciplinary relationships. Indeed, the vast range of research methodologies and tools makes the delimitation of the field difficult (Shlesinger, 2004).

The project is a multidisciplinary one in that it draws on associated disciplines to investigate a problem related to interpreting – rather than being a study of interpreting *per se*. Interpreting Studies is important to the project in informing

curriculum context and content and is particularly indebted to studies of dialogue interpreting in professional settings through discourse analysis of naturalistic interpreter-mediated interaction. Interpreting Studies, therefore, is one of the disciplinary influences.

A major focus of research and interest in the field of Applied Linguistics is that of language education (Lynch, 1996; Aronoff & Rees-Miller, 2002). In defining Applied Linguistics, it is in the practical value of applied approaches to research that the distinction between and inevitable contrast with "pure" or "basic" research lies (Sarangi & Candlin, 2003). It is this characteristic of Applied Linguistics that informs this project being an "application of knowledge and methods from a variety of disciplines ... to the range of issues concerning the development and use of language" (Lynch, 1996 p. 1). Methods commonly used in Applied Linguistics to understand the relationships between participants have been employed in the project. The influence of Education as a discipline comes through the sub-discipline of Curriculum Studies. Curriculum research sits across both the fields of Applied Linguistics and Education and encompasses a common epistemology and ontology.

Similarly, the field of Evaluation traditionally draws on measurement theory (Worthen, 1990; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998) but has evolved to encompass a philosophy of understanding that is common to all three fields (Interpreting Studies, Applied Linguistics and Education) when it is applied to the evaluation of curricula (such as Alkin, 2013; Rea-Dickins, 1998; Holden & Zimmerman, 2009, and in particular Schön, 1987; Stenhouse, 1975 and Tyler, 1949 as discussed in Chapter 3). Evaluation can be considered to be a distinct field of inquiry with its own theories and knowledge base (Alkin, 2013). The scope of evaluation practice is broad ranging from public and private sector evaluation of social programmes such as health-related interventions (ibid.) to evaluations of the media (Evans, Davis and Farrelly, 2009). However, it is also a strong component of curriculum research (Lynch, 1996; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998).

The relationship between the four disciplinary influences and the interpreter curriculum research is represented in Figure 15 with all four disciplines intersecting with interpreting curriculum research.

Figure 15   Disciplinary influences on the target of study
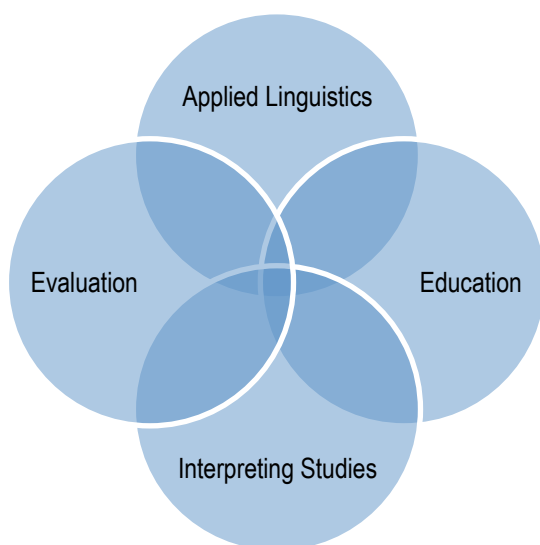
Curriculum evaluation is a discrete object of study in three of the above disciplines (Kemmis & Stake, 1988; Lynch, 1996; Worthen, 1990): Applied Linguistics, Education and Evaluation, but in terms of knowledge and methods, a disciplinary hierarchy is apparent in the literature (Evaluation ➔ Education ➔ Applied Linguistics), with evaluation in language curricula being the most specialised focus of evaluation in education (Kemmis & Stake, 1988).

4.3   Methodology in curriculum research

Curriculum research is viewed from a range of perspectives, in particular Dewey's (1916, 1938) philosophical perspective, Tyler's behavioural perspective (1949), Stenhouse's process-inquiry model (1975) and Carr and Kemmis' critical action theory (1983). Current models of curriculum research suggest that it is typically qualitative, multimethod, case study research (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998; Stake & Easley, 1979); the 'case' being an educational programme, institution, classroom or cohort of students.

Many researchers would also describe their curriculum research as ethnographic (Scott & Morrison, 2007). In a general sense, ethnographers are interested in everyday events and situations with an emphasis on insider's accounts (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Silverman, 2013). The participant observer is interested in the subjective reality of the programme

constructed from the experiences of the individuals involved (principally students, teachers and researchers but could extend to the local community, funding bodies, government institutions, etc.). The primary focus is on situated meaning and contextualised experiences (Scott & Morrison, 2007, p. 90) accessed through a naturalistic approach (Pole & Morrison, 2003).

Many of the characteristics of ethnography outlined by Pole and Morrison (2003, p. 3) apply equally to a bounded, qualitative case study such as our curriculum project using mixed methods:

- a focus on a discrete location, event(s), or setting

- a concern with the full range of social behaviour within that setting

- the use of a range of different research methods that may combine qualitative and quantitative approaches but where the emphasis is upon understanding the social behaviour from inside the discrete location, event or setting in order to produce what is often described as "thick" or "rich" data (Gertz, 1973)

- an emphasis on data and analysis that moves from detailed description to the identification of concepts and theories that are grounded in the data collected within the location, event or setting

- an emphasis on rigorous or thorough research, where the complexities of the singular are of greater significance than overarching trends or generalities

Brewer refers to ethnography as both methodology and method (Brewer, 2000), to make a distinction between the characterization of ethnography as a collection of research methods or as a theoretical and philosophical approach to research. While I could qualify the evaluation described here as ethnography, I hesitate to do so without embedding the research in the social, cultural theory that normally accompanies ethnography. Indeed Roberts (1998) warns against tokenism with its inherent risk of being a-theoretical.

The study takes an ethnographic approach to the methodology in the sense that it aims to provide an insider's view of the curriculum as a social practice embedded within a discrete setting (Scott & Morrison, 2007) through detailed observation of the curriculum design and implementation processes.

4.3.1 Case study

The object of curriculum research is often a case study of a programme or elements of a programme of education (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998). Reflecting the epistemological perspective of ethnographic research (Stenhouse, 1975), case study according to Yin (2014) is "an empirical inquiry that

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon (the 'case') in depth and within its real-world context, especially when

- the boundaries between the phenomenon and context many not be clearly evident" (Yin, 2014, p.16)

Case study is an appropriate method where the researcher has little or no control over behavioural events (Yin, 2014) ruling out using positivistic paradigms. While not all case studies are qualitative (Stake, 2000), case study research is most suited to the interpretive and subjective paradigm where the researchers seek to understand and interpret the case from the perspective of its participants (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Qualitative case studies can penetrate situations that quantitative methods cannot (ibid.). Stake's (2000) view is that the case study is not a methodological choice but a choice of object to be studied. This is in contradiction with Yin's (2014) perspective where case study is a methodology in its own right.

Researchers doing case studies routinely provide information on such topics as the nature of the case, its historical background and its relation to its contexts and other cases as well as to the informants who have provided information (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) satisfying the first part of Yin's (2014) definition. Individuals who have intrinsic interest in the case do the bulk of case study work; their designs aim the inquiry toward understanding of what is important about that case within in its own world (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). The case study researcher aims to develop conceptual categories inductively in order to examine and evaluate initial assumptions (Merriam, 1988). The object (or case) in our study is the curriculum for the multilingual education of dialogue interpreters.

4.3.2 Action research

Curriculum research is also often undertaken within an action research framework that describes an inductive research process (Silverman, 2013). Action research is a means of organising the research process – an *orientation* to the research process in the words of Reason and Bradbury (2006).

The origins of action research lie in philosophical explorations into knowledge acquisition and experience (in particular the work of John Dewey) and the interaction between knowledge and action (originating with the Greek philosophers, notably Aristotle and Plato) on the one hand and the Frankfurt School's Critical Theory of Habermas on the other (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). These philosophical influences have engendered two main, but distinct, epistemological approaches to action research: reflective practice (Elliot, 1991; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1992) and critical theory (Carr & Kemmis, 1983; Reason & Bradbury, 2006; Zuber-Skerritt, 1996).

Current models of the action research orientation are derived from the work of social psychologist Kurt Lewin who represented the action research model as repetitive cycles of planning, information gathering/data collection and implementation known as the action research "spiral" (Lewin, 1947; Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988). The two established essential properties of action research are the cyclical process of planning, acting, monitoring and evaluating and the participatory component. A third but more contested characteristic is the collaborative component of action research (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). The debate over whether action research can be an individualistic endeavour or not relates to epistemological perspectives. The Critical theory perspective sees action research as an emancipatory process aimed at improving the social condition of the participant group (Zuber-Skerrit, 1996). In this context the collaborative component is essential and inevitably involves a range of stakeholders in the research (Reason & Bradbury, 2009; Burns, 1999). Individualistic applications such as the improvement of professional practice or personal professional development (Bradbury & Reason, 2006; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000; McKernan, 2008) are related to the reflexive processes of action research.

Recent interpretations of the model tend to be less prescriptive about the sequence and relationship between the different phases of the process (Burns, 1999).

Burns (1999) stresses the importance of the collaborative nature of action research consistent with Lewin's (1948) work and considers that the individualistic interpretations applied more recently in education are not consistent with the broader goal of social change advocated by Lewin (Burns, 1999). The collaborative aspect of action research is also consistent with the recommendations of Fullan (2001) for implementing educational change and innovation (Tyler, 1949; Fullan, 2001; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998). Consistent with this view is the idea that change should be proposed in consultation with all stakeholders in the educational context: teachers, pupils, administrators and the local community (in the case of public education institutions) (ibid.).

As action research is research *with* rather than *on* practitioners, who in many instances become co-researchers themselves, in effect action research bypasses the traditional, constructed separation between research and application (Reason & Bradbury, 2006) and roles may become blurred (students as informants, teachers as researchers, etc.). In our study, the researchers were participant observers, teachers and evaluators.

The action research cycles (Fig.16) model and structure the process of reflection on the evolving curriculum. Action research (or action learning) involves changing the curriculum systematically, using the on-the-ground evidence that is available to determine whether the changes are moving in the right direction. The implementation of action research follows a reflexive model of practice by establishing a cyclical process of planning, acting, monitoring and evaluating. Each stage of the process can be subjected to review and revision producing cycles within cycles (McKernan, 2008).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) have produced a more evolved description of action research in eight stages, demonstrating a collaborative project model where researchers and teachers (or practitioners in any field) work together on the problem and its resolution:

Figure 16   The action research process
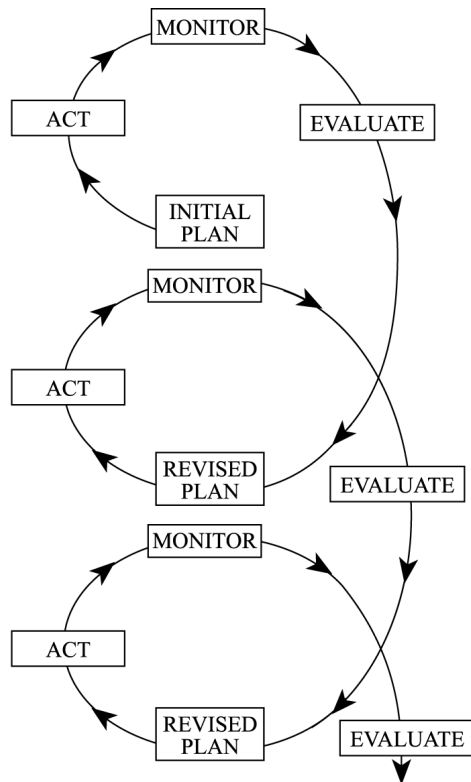
Source: Kemmis (1983)

- identification, evaluation and formulation of the 'problem'

- preliminary discussion and negotiations among the interested parties: e.g. teachers, researchers, advisors, sponsors. This stage may include a statement of the questions to be answered. The researchers in their capacity as consultants may draw upon their expertise to bring the problem more into focus

- review of the research literature to find out what can be learned from comparable studies, their objectives, procedures and problems encountered

- may involve a modification or redefinition of the initial statement of the problem at stage 1. May now emerge as a testable hypothesis; or as a set of guiding objectives. Sometimes change agents deliberately decide against the use of objectives on the grounds that they have a constraining effete on the process itself. Assumptions underlying the project are made explicit at this stage (e.g. in order to effect curriculum changes, the attitudes, values, skills and objectives of the teachers must be changed).

- concerned with the selection of research procedures - sampling, administration,, choice of materials, methods of teaching and learning, allocation of resources and tasks, deployment of staff, etc.

- choice of the evaluation procedures to be used and will need to take into consideration that evaluation in this context will be continuous.

- embraces the implementation of the project itself: it will include the conditions and methods of data collation (e.g. fortnightly meetings, the keeping of records, interim reports, final reports, the submission of self-evaluation and group-evaluation reports, etc); the monitoring of tasks and the transmission of feedback to the research team; the classification and analysis of data.

- interpretation of the data; inferences drawn; and overall evaluation of the project. (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000, p.235).

This model should be seen as representing a cyclical process rather than a linear one. At any stage of the process, the researchers may choose to return to an earlier stage to review and revise the direction of the project. The stages described by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) informed and directed the action research processes employed in the project.

4.3.3 Evaluation as research

According to a range of commentators (Candlin, 1998; Lynch, 1996; McKernan, 2008; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998; Scott & Morrison, 2000; Stenhouse, 1975) evaluation should lead curriculum development and be integrated with it allowing for the development and evaluation functions to merge. As Stenhouse (1975, p. 122) puts it, "Curriculum research must itself be illuminative rather than recommendatory as in the earlier tradition of curriculum development".

Evaluation can be directed at a range of objects; at planning and policy decision-making, at programmes, products, resources, activities, participants and their interactions, curricula and at the organisational structures themselves within which the evaluation takes place (Candlin, 1998) and can encompass all of these. The particular focus will depend on the purpose of the evaluation. In order to determine

what the focus might be, Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998) identify four potential functions of evaluation:

- judgmental mostly related to a requirement for accountability. They note that this is not a straightforward relationship and that, particularly in the context of project work, outcomes are not necessarily a straight linear process. They suggest that a formative approach integrated into projects and involving stakeholders serves the necessary accountability demands as well as the usual developmental ones.

- developmental evaluation for the purposes of curricular development (current or future). Undertaken by main stakeholders (teachers and curriculum developers) and used as a developmental tool. Data serves to improve the curriculum and the evaluation may be action-oriented and supportive of curriculum development goals.

- awareness by the profession of the educational context. Engagement with professional contexts enhances awareness of what goes on in the classroom and enables a deeper understanding of professional tasks and stimulates professional involvement and development.

- management activity draws on the regular information provided by the evaluation data in order for key staff and managers to plan strategically (ibid., p. 14).

In our study, it is particularly the developmental function that is at work as the evaluation is undertaken for the purpose of curriculum development. To a lesser extent, the awareness function is engaged through the involvement of the profession in the steering committee and by informing curriculum decisions in part from the professional experience of the students.

Evaluation of the curriculum overlaps with the assessment of learning (evaluation *within* the curriculum). This relationship is made explicit by Tyler (1949, pp. 104-105).: "It should be clear that evaluation becomes a process for finding out how far the learning experiences as developed and organised are actually producing the desired results and the process of evaluation will involve identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the plans"

Changes in goals for evaluation have also been accompanied by a shift in methodology away from the empiricist tradition towards "a paradigm of choices emphasising multiple methods, alternative approaches and … the matching of evaluation methods to specific evaluation situations and questions" (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998, pp. 18-19). The so-called "paradigm wars" (Gage, 1989) have also played out in the sphere of educational evaluation (Lynch, 1996), opposing the positivistic and naturalistic paradigms. Early evaluation models in schools generally required that an "evaluator" carry out the evaluation extrinsically. This tradition focused on measurable outcomes in relation to pre-ordained objectives and implied a positivistic approach that was more interested in measuring behavioural change in students. Evaluation researchers started moving away from positivistic methods and the tracking of student outcomes from the 1960s (Alkin, 2013). The emergence of "naturalistic", "responsive" and "utilisation-focused" evaluation advocated flexibility in methodology with choice of paradigm sensitive to the particular information requirements of the stakeholders (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998). This methodological shift tends to favour multiple methods in evaluation, away from sole reliance on test results (for the purposes of accountability, for example), to triangulation of data sources via tests, performance tasks, classroom observation, questionnaires and interviews (Scott & Morrison, 2007). An influential voice in the field of educational evaluation is that of Cronbach, psychometrician, developer of the Cronbach Alpha and contributor to the development of generalisability theory (Greene, 2013). Cronbach advocated a pluralistic methodological approach to evaluation, recommending that researchers not subscribe to either paradigm, but to "launch a small fleet of studies [rather] than to put all the [evaluation] resources into a single approach" (Cronbach & Associates, 1980, p.7).

Another dimension of evaluation represents the work of Fullan (2001) that promotes inclusive and collaborative approaches, involving stakeholders wherever possible. In our study, the stakeholders are the interpreters, their employers, regulatory bodies and the educational institution. As research, evaluation has a contribution to make to a theory of implementation to inform pedagogical practice and practitioner decision-making (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998).

Curriculum planning is a continuous process and as materials and procedures are developed, they are tried out, their results appraised, their inadequacies identified, suggested improvements indicated. Stenhouse describes curriculum development as "replanning, redevelopment and then re-appraisal", describing curriculum planning and development as a continuing cycle as a means to develop increasingly more effective educational programmes rather than depending on "hit and miss" judgments as a basis for curriculum and development (Stenhouse, 1975, p. 123).

Curriculum evaluation, therefore, is to be viewed as a series of contextualised events describing each stage, in our case, of the design and development process. The contributions of each of the different participants should be integrated into the evaluation at each stage of the process. From this perspective, all participants are involved in a learning cycle (Kolb, 1984) enhancing their knowledge not only of the evaluation itself but also that of the innovation, programme or project and its context. Experiential knowledge is thus seen as important to enhancing the validity of evaluations and is derived through dialogue with and the involvement of, stakeholders in the evaluation process (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998, p. 14). This view is in opposition to earlier, rather restricted views of stakeholder contributions via a small number of interviews with key informants or surveys of participants (ibid.). The range of participants in the evaluation is broader than in previous conceptions leading to a greater democratisation of the evaluation and greater involvement of many of those affected by the innovation being evaluated (ibid., p. 15). Tyler (1949) also stressed the importance of stakeholder participation as a means of strengthening the validity of an evaluation that aims to promote developments in pedagogy. But this participation should extend beyond completing a questionnaire or being interviewed (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998). For the educational value of an evaluation to be achieved, it requires the active involvement, critical reflection and engagement on the part of all those involved by, for example, taking a qualitative case study approach and listening closely to the key participants in the programme, i.e. the teachers and their students (ibid., p. 24).

In this study, evaluation aimed at involving the key stakeholders at all stages of the curriculum design and implementation through their active collaboration in decision-making and involvement in the trial in an integrated process of design, development

and evaluation. The evaluation process served two functions: a developmental function in the validation of the design and content by stakeholders and a post hoc function of determining the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum for future implementation. The collaboration extended to a broad range of stakeholders: student interpreters, major public service providers, representatives of the profession, AUSIT and the standards body NAATI. The active participation of stakeholders served to validate the curriculum model and instigate a reflective process.

4.3.4 Planning the evaluation: the EPIC Model

Holden and Zimmerman's EPIC (Evaluation Planning Incorporating Context) model for evaluation planning describes the stages in the planning process leading to the implementation of the evaluation project. Evaluation planning serves to situate the evaluation within its political and social context to better understand the purpose and underlying factors influencing the programme to be assessed. The EPIC model (Fig.17) describes 5 steps in the planning, though these steps need not be implemented in the order that they appear in the model.

Step 1:   Assessing context: serves to gain an understanding of the people involved in the programme and the environment in which it takes place.

Step 2:   Gather reconnaissance: seeks to gain an understanding of the political context of the evaluation and how the evaluation will be used

Step 3:   Identification of potential stakeholders in the evaluation: who are the stakeholders and what are their roles in the evaluation?

Step 4:   Describing the programme: Involves learning about the programme and identifying the goals of the programme.

Step 5:   Focus of the evaluation: finalization of the evaluation plan

Figure 17   The EPIC model

Converging toward evaluation implementation

Assess context
- Understand organizational and political environment
- Define relationships
- Determine level of evaluation

Gather reconnaissance
- Specify evaluation users
- Validate perspectives

Engage stakeholders
- Identify and invite stakeholders
- Define roles and establish group processes

Describe program
- Understand program theory, history, and evolution

Focus evaluation
- Complete list of evaluation questions, assess feasibility, and prioritize

Holden & Zimmerman, 2009, p.9

Because our evaluation took place at the same time as the curriculum development, many of these steps were not able to be implemented prior to commencing the project, but were taken up when relevant and as needed consistent with the reflection that takes place within the Action Research framework (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000). Stavropoulou and Stroubouki (2014) note that the EPIC model is particularly helpful in providing guidelines for planning evaluation.

In our study, the action research model commences with an initial cycle of planning, acting, monitoring and evaluation. The second cycle starts with a revised plan based on the initial implementation of the plan. The first two steps of the EPIC model were implemented prior to commencement. The identification of stakeholders and definition of their roles (Step 3) was undertaken in the first phase of the project consistent with the recommendations in the literature for the introduction of an

educational innovation (e.g. Fullan 2001; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998; Tyler, 1949).

The different methodological influences on the research design for this study (ethnography, action research, case study, curriculum research and evaluation, reflective practice) promote a cyclical, reflective approach where all aspects of the research process can be reviewed and adapted based on new information or new insights arising from observations or data analysis for example (Reason & Bradbury, 2006; Yin, 2014). This enables a deeper examination of the object of study.

4.4   Methods

The approach to researching the design and evaluation of the curriculum was consistent with Reason and Bradbury's view that action research is a living, emergent process that evolves as the participants in the project deepen their understanding of the issues to be addressed and develop their capacity as co-enquirers (Reason & Bradbury, 2006, p. xxii). Research questions emerge inductively as the project evolves and understanding deepens. The collaborative work assists individuals and the group to move forward and is therefore central to the project design. The research design incorporated an approach to undertaking the design and evaluation project rather than deciding on pre-determined research questions, methods, data sources and analyses as recommended by Cronbach and Associates (1980), Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998), Scott and Morrison (2007) and Alkin (2013).

Stenhouse (1975, p.114) warns that "the construction of evaluation instruments can be a difficult task if the purpose is to get a highly refined instrument and suggests collecting evidence in rather simple ways", such as those promulgated by Scott and Morrison (2007), relating to various educational objectives. Many scholars warn against data overload (Rea-Dickins & Germain, 1998; Yin, 2014). However, whatever methods are used, according to Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998) evaluation must be principled and systematic.

4.4.1 Aims and outcomes of the research

As stated in Chapter 1 of this thesis the main aim of the research project was: "to design a curriculum model to meet the specific interpreter training needs of low demand language groups in a financially viable way".

Given that evaluation of the curriculum accompanies the design and development process the evaluation model became an important part of the research. Similarly, the naturalistic, observational research methods used necessitated observing the curriculum in action with a target population of students. Our research outcomes reflect these two important components of the research project:

- a curriculum model for interpreters in low demand languages;

- a model of evaluation for interpreter education; and

- a small cohort of trained interpreters.

4.4.2 Participants

The project involved two cohorts of participants; those who were involved in the research component and those who were involved in the trial. Of course, due to the reflective and collaborative processes employed, the two groups merged. The participants in this project included:

- members of the Steering Committee (stakeholders in the project) (n = 14)

- candidates for the trial nominated by stakeholders and screened (n = 18)

- students participating in the trial (n = 15)

- teachers recruited to teach the trial (n = 12)

- the research team (n = 3) who not only participated in the design and delivery of the trial but who were also teachers in the course

Participants were recruited as follows:

Members of the Steering Committee

Representatives of the stakeholders identified by the research team were contacted and invited to attend an initial meeting on August 13, 2003. Those present at that meeting decided to set up a Steering Committee to formalise the collaboration of stakeholders in the project. All the stakeholders present at the initial meeting were invited to participate in the Steering Committee.

Candidates for the trial

Following the first meeting of the stakeholder group, the two major employers contacted potential candidates for the trial according to the profiles discussed at the meeting.

Students participating in the trial

The 20 candidates who attended the screening interviews on 31st October and 4th November, 2003 were invited to attend the trial by letter from the research team.

Teachers recruited to teach the trial

An invitation was sent out to staff members in the Department of Linguistics to participate in the team of teachers. External teaching staff were recruited via the HCIS who recommended teachers employed in their professional development programme. The teaching team consisted of specialists in interpreting, cross-cultural communication, phonology and second-language acquisition. External teachers were specialists in domain-specific areas of practice (legal and medical)[12].

Research team

Two colleagues were employed as research officers on the project making a team of three with me as the Chief Investigator.

4.4.3 Methods of data collection

As an observational study of the processes and models involved in the design and evaluation of the curriculum, a range of data collection and analytical methods were

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[12] Details of the teachers' involvement in the curriculum have been provided in 6.2 below.

incorporated as a mixed methods approach to the research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2012). The mixed methods approach was chosen because it enables the researcher to triangulate sources and perspectives and leads to a thick description of the case (Yin, 2014). First hand data obtained through observation, interviewing, surveys, journals, naturalistic data from the classroom and recordings and minutes from stakeholder meetings were collected. Secondary data such as assessment outcomes and sampling of student work (to avoid collecting all the work produced by students [Tyler, 1949]) were also used, providing a data rich context for informing input to the curriculum. This approach is consistent with Pole and Morrison's distinction of "pluralism of methods" (2003, p. 8) and Cronbach and Associates (1980, p.7) suggestion of launching a "small fleet of studies" to encompass the range of methods that should be employed to gain a proper understanding of the intervention. Methods can include those normally associated with positivistic research paradigms as long as they contribute to the epistemological principles of naturalism (Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998). A data matrix showing the range of data collected and the method used for analysis is included in Table 4 below.

The data collection methods for each type of information were: surveys (Candidate information sheets, course evaluation surveys), individual interviews with students (Screening and Phase 2) and meeting recordings and documents (teachers' meetings, Steering Committee meetings), student logs and notes (from the student portfolios), classroom observations and assessment materials (scores on summative assessment, self-assessment results). Students were taken in for a portfolio conference at the end of Phase 2. The purpose of the conference was to review the reflective components of the students' work and to set them up for further work during Phase 3. Each student presented their portfolio and each component of the portfolio was reviewed with the student providing explanations of their perspective. This approach is consistent with Shohamy's (2001) notion of shared and collaborative assessment where assessment practices are developed collaboratively (teacher-student, student-student) in order to come to a common understanding about the purpose and nature of the assessment. This is particularly relevant for students from diverse educational cultures who may have difficulty adapting to the model of education that is proposed (Shohamy, 2001) and therefore have difficulty understanding the purpose of assessment and how to do it.

Steering Committee Minutes

A member of the research team took the minutes by hand during the Steering Committee meetings. The minutes were sent to Steering Committee members for modification/correction and approval. They were uploaded to NVivo (see Section 4.4.4 for a description of NVivo) as data and content relating to decisions made by Committee members was coded. Steering Committee meetings were not audio-recorded.

Candidate Information sheet

The candidate's responses were collated and entered into a data reduction matrix. They were also included as Person attributes in NVivo for the purpose of establishing links between candidate attributes and their views and beliefs.

Screening interviews

The audio files of the screening interviews were transcribed by a professional transcription company that provided a working transcription. I reviewed and corrected the scripts from the audio files and uploaded them with the audio files as MP3 files to NVivo. The interviews lasted between 15 and 32.6 minutes and there were 20 candidates. Rater reliability coefficients for the intra-rater reliability of the two interviewers were calculated using the statistical software SPSS. Scores on the rating scales were entered into SPSS and Pearson Correlation coefficients calculated.

Teachers meetings

Three of the teachers' meetings were audio-recorded and transcribed. This amounted to 4.6 hours of meeting time. They were recorded and transcribed and uploaded to NVivo for thematic analysis. The records of discussions were coded to identify input to and feedback on the curriculum.

Classroom observations

A sample of classroom observations was undertaken during Phase 1. These were hand written observation notes on a template that contained three categories: activity type, description and observations/comments. Two members of the research team undertook observations on each week day during Phase 1. There was one observation

by one of the service providers on their own presentation and one of the Linguistics lecturers did a self-evaluation. Observations on the pedagogical approach and the dynamics were also noted.

Table 4   Data matrix

Curriculum Phase	Description of data	Approach to analysis
Planning	Minutes from Steering Committee	Content analysis
Screening	Interviews with students	Thematic analysis
	Evaluation data	Quantification
	Responses to Candidate information sheet	Quantification
Phase 1	Course evaluation (by students)	Quantification
	Student self-assessments	Quantification
	Classroom observation	Thematic analysis
	Teachers feedback on curriculum	Thematic analysis
Phase 2	Interviews with students	Thematic analysis
	Student log book	Thematic analysis
	Student journal	Thematic analysis
Phase 3	Interviews with students	Thematic analysis
	Course evaluation (by students)	Quantification
	Student self-assessments	Quantification
	Summative assessments	Quantification

4.4.4 Methods of analysis

Audio recordings of interviews, teachers' meetings and classroom data were first transcribed and then analysed using the NVivo 10 qualitative research software (QSR International, 2014). NVivo operates as a project management system enabling links to be made between different data sets. It is particularly useful for the typically large and unmanageable data sets arising from qualitative research. The analysis aimed for content and thematic analysis with some discourse analysis when the way in which respondents talked about an issue became relevant rather than what they were saying. Survey responses containing factual data were quantified and included in a

data reduction table and also included as case attributes in the NVivo analysis for the purpose of establishing relationships between the different themes emerging in the data and the respondent profiles (case nodes and coding nodes in NVivo terms).

4.4.5 Transcription of audio files

To assist with the process of analysis all the audio files were transcribed. Transcription aimed at capturing as many features of the spoken discourse as possible and with respect to the type of analysis (thematic and discourse) to be undertaken and in order to reflect the spontaneity of the talk. Mindful of the loss of information from the actual event (face-to-face interviews) to the audio recording to the transcript (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000) the transcripts were used as a convenient means of accessing the data for analysis. The audio recordings accompanied the process of analysis and were listened to on a number of occasions to gain a better understanding of the data.

The transcription therefore did not aim to include all the communicative features of the talk as these were present on the recordings. The transcripts include false starts, repetitions, fillers, pauses, hesitations and silences, overlaps and paralinguistic and non-verbal information where considered relevant to the understanding of the accompanying discourse. The language is represented as spoken by a second language speaker of English and the grammar has not been corrected in any way. Inaudible segments are indicated; as are guesses made by the transcriber. The transcription key from Eggins and Slade (1997) was chosen as it was developed for conversational discourse such as the discourse typical of the interviews that we conducted (see transcription key in Appendix 3).

The audio files were first transcribed by a professional transcription service, then checked and revised for accuracy and also to gain familiarity with the interviews and transcripts. MP3 files were uploaded to NVivo and listened to during analysis for a more accurate reading of the data.

4.4.6 Data coding

Documents gathered during the design and trial phases (minutes from meetings, student portfolios, written feedback from mentors) were analysed for content that could make processes, decisions and outcomes explicit. This process was more descriptive and factual rather than analytical. Transcriptions of audio data were coded for thematic analysis using NVivo. The coding was an inductive process incorporating firstly, "broad brush" coding to identify the major themes in responses to interview questions, then subsequent finer grained coding was carried out to determine the more subjective views expressed in the data. *A priori* coding was derived from interview questions. On-coding then set up *in vivo* codes and child nodes derived from the first parent set of codes.

4.4.7 Addressing validity and reliability in the project

Internal validity in qualitative research can be achieved through ensuring that claims are plausible and credible (Hammersley, 1992) through obtaining evidence from multiple sources (triangulation), peer debriefing and 'thick' description (Miles & Huberman, 1992). The collaborative team work in the project provided regular peer feedback and multiple perspectives on the curriculum. The dual role of researcher and teacher can be both an aid (by potentially reducing the Hawthorn effect) and a threat to validity (by being too close to the participants and losing objectivity). Triangulating the multiple perspectives from team members on events, decisions and outputs enhances internal validity. External validity can be achieved by ensuring that the description of the research is detailed enough for replication.

Reliability in qualitative research can be addressed by the methods for enhancing validity: triangulation of data sources and peer debriefing during meetings (Denzin, 1997). Intra-reliability of the oral data from interviews and meetings is a potential threat to the reliability of the data analysis. This has to some extent been addressed by the coding method described in 4.5.3 above. The reflective, developmental cycle for the researcher (Kolb, 1984) is also an important component in building the reliability of the study. As our knowledge and understanding grew with the project our conceptualisation of the processes and products were reviewed and revised (Stenhouse, 1975).

One of the main criticisms levelled at qualitative research and in particular case study research, is that it remains anecdotal and fails to produce results that can be generalised beyond the particular location, event or setting that it has sought to describe (Scott & Morrison, 2007). However, this view misses the point. Case study research does not set out to provide generalisable findings in the sense that positivistic research does, it is about understanding the case within in its own context. Generalisations can be made, though, to other occurrences of the case at other times and in other situations. Even intrinsic case study can be seen as a small step towards grand generalisation, especially in the case that "runs counter to the existing rule" (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 372).

4.5   Budget

The project was financed by a Macquarie University Curriculum Innovation Grant that was approved on May 31st 2003. AUD$5,000.00 was awarded for research assistance for 1 day per week for 5 months (Total: AUD4,920.90). This amount was split between the two research assistants for 0.5 days per week for 6 months from June, 2003 to December, 2003. Both the research assistants were separately employed as teachers during the trial. As the Chief Investigator of the project my time was allocated from my workload as a full-time member of the academic staff of the University.

Support in kind for delivery of the project and course was provided by Macquarie University (Department of Linguistics) and included:

• Administrative support

• Use of lecture rooms and language laboratories

• Course materials and stationery

• Catering for face-to-face teaching modules on campus

The cost of employing specialist teaching staff for the face-to-face modules was split between the two partners (HCIS and Centrelink). The breakdown and total of costs for the lecturers are as follows:

- Lecturer fee (\$106.53 x hour) + on-costs[13] (20%) = \$127.84 per hour of tuition.

- Total for 2 weeks = \$5,113.60 (per stakeholder = \$2,556.80)

Expected costs to participants to be born by participants themselves or stakeholders:

- Travel expenses to and from Macquarie University

- Childcare costs

- Lunch

- Loss of income while attending

The representatives of the two partners agreed to contribute to the teaching costs following the first stakeholder meeting on August 13th 2003. At this meeting both offered to cover any additional costs of the project.

4.6   Timeline

The project commenced in early 2003 with the submission of an application for a Macquarie University Strategic Curriculum Development Grant on May 2nd, 2003. The budget included research assistance, release time from teaching and conference attendance for dissemination. Subsequent to approval of the grant on 31st May 2003 an application for ethics approval was submitted to the Macquarie University Human Ethics Committee. Final ethics approval (see Appendix 1) was granted in February 2004, with an interim approval allowing us to commence data collection during the first phase of implementation of the curriculum in October 2003.

The project was planned over five phases as follows:

Phase 1: July and August 2003

- Identification of potential participants by industry partners including numbers to be trained, language profile, degree of literacy and bilingualism.

- Design of the action research project covering all phases of the design and implementation of the curriculum.

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[13] On costs are the government taxes and levies on payments to casual staff

- Application for ethics approval for the research process from the Ethics Review Committee of Macquarie University.

- Identification and invitation for participation in stakeholder group

- Needs analysis with stakeholders

Phase 2: September and October 2003

- Preparation of the curriculum

- 2nd and 3rd Steering Committee meetings

- 1st and 2nd Teachers' meetings

- Preparation of research instruments for evaluation within and of the curriculum

Phase 3: November 2003

- Screening of candidates for the trial

- Implementation of Phase 1 of the curriculum with the first group of participants, evaluation and feedback 17th-21st November.

- Set up on-going evaluation in the workplace

- 3rd Teachers' meeting

Phase 4: December 2003 and January 2004

- Placement of participants in the workplace with identification of mentors and supervisors and elaboration of their role.

- Monitoring methods and workplace tasks evaluated and modified as part of the action research process.

- 4th Teachers' meeting

- Preparation of final course outline and course materials

Phase 5: February and March 2004

- Implementation of Phase 3 of the curriculum, evaluation and feedback drawing on the results of the workplace experience February 9th-13th

- Phase 2 interviews with students

- Completion of evaluation process and reporting to stakeholders

- Final Steering Committee meeting March 13th 2004

The first stages of the project were dedicated to a literature search on Action Research, interpreter training, community interpreting, role of the interpreter and cross-cultural communication. Additional contextual information was sought on the political and social context of community interpreting in Australia. Following completion of the literature review, a call for expressions of interest was sent out to public institutions employing interpreters. We were seeking industry partners to form a stakeholders committee. The stakeholders' committee later became the Steering Committee for the project to ensure active collaboration of the industry partners and other stakeholders in the research (EPIC step 3). Another call for expressions of interest was sent out within the Department of Linguistics for participation in the teaching team. This first phase was also used to develop the first draft of the curriculum model (EPIC step 4) that was presented to the Steering Committee at its first meeting for feedback.

Phases two, three and four incorporated the three phases of the curriculum trial (two phases of intensive face-to-face tuition separated by a period of mentored workplace experience). In Phase two of the research, the ethics application, revisions to the curriculum model and preparation for the trial were completed. At this point the project was delayed by one and half months to allow industry partners to identify potential candidates for the trial.

The final phase of the research, Phase five, encompassed completion of the trial, preparation of a further revised curriculum model and preparation of the report to stakeholders. The final Steering Committee meeting was held on 24th March 2004.

4.7   Conclusions

In this chapter, I have described the research project as a case study of curriculum design and development and explored the methodological, disciplinary and paradigmatic stances taken in designing the research. The case is situated within its social, political and professional context in order to better understand the influences acting on the curriculum. Collaboration, as a characteristic of the action research

orientation, was developed through the inclusion of stakeholders in decision-making. Taking Fullan's (2001) broad view of stakeholders, I have included students and teachers as well as the more generally acknowledged industry and professional partners in the collaborative structure.

The methods selected for this study favour a flexible, multi-method approach to research within a pluralistic methodological perspective consistent with the recommendations in the literature for evaluation research (Cronbach & Associates, 1980; Pole & Morrison, 2003; Rea-Dickins & Germaine, 1998). The action research orientation enhances the integration of the evaluation, curriculum design and development processes that are most commonly represented as linear processes (Tyler, 1949; Sawyer, 2004). A cyclical model more accurately represents the methodological approaches recommended for evaluation research (Carr & Kemmis, 1988; Cronbach & Associates, 1980;). By collecting data from multiple sources, I have strengthened the validity and reliability of the study though triangulation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 1994).

In the following chapter (Chapter 5), the design, administration and results of the screening process will be discussed including a detailed profile of the candidates for the curriculum trial.

Chapter 5
Course candidate profiles, their interpreting experience and views

5.1   Introduction

In this section of the thesis I discuss the results from the analysis of data collected for the purpose of screening the candidates. The aim of this chapter is to provide a detailed profile of the candidates including both demographic data (gender, age, country of origin, languages, length of residence in Australia, level of education) as well as information about the candidates' experience, attitudes and beliefs about interpreting and language competence. The primary purpose of the screening was to assess the candidates on the criteria defined as a minimum requirement for acceptance into the pilot course. This information also contributes to fulfilling the requirements of Step 2 in the EPIC model: "Engage stakeholders", "Identify and invite stakeholders" and "Define roles and establish group processes" (Holden and Zimmerman, 2009, p.9). Holden and Zimmerman (2009) include programme participants as stakeholders that is consistent with the participatory and collaborative processes established for the project and consistent with Fullan's recommendations for educational change (Fullan, 2001). The description of expected learner profiles also contributes to Step 4 "Describe programme", "Understand programme theory, history and evolution" (ibid.). In relation to the development of the curriculum, information about the candidates is important for a number of reasons: to create a meaningful learning experience (Dewey, 1938), to select activities that match the levels of development individuals are at and to create appropriate activities for the background of the learners (Stenhouse, 1980). Meaningful experiences rest upon the selection of relevant tasks (Usher, 1985) that contribute to building on the student interpreters' existing knowledge and skills (Biggs and Tang, 2007). This step in the curriculum design process therefore serves to inform curriculum decisions and is also part of the evaluative process. As stated in Chapter 4, the evaluation of curriculum comprises both the evaluation of learning and the evaluation of the programme. An understanding of the students' prior knowledge situates the learning and assessment tasks and helps to align them in the curriculum (Biggs & Tang, 2007). The

appropriateness of these tasks can be evaluated as one of the indicators of the success of the curriculum.

5.2   The screening process

At the first meeting of invited stakeholders on August 13th 2003, participants collaboratively defined the criteria for selection of the candidates for the pilot course. The service providers' drew on their experience of interpreters working in their institutions to identify the strengths and weaknesses of potential candidates for interpreting work.

The following characteristics were identified as being typical of the profile of expected candidates based on:

1) Functional bilingualism: English foreign language/native LOTE

The majority of interpreters working in small and emerging languages have English as their second (or additional) language (Ozolins, 1998). Most are recent arrivals in Australia. Many have had little schooling and may have arrived in Australia with very limited English proficiency. The minimum requirement for future interpreters is to have functional English proficiency enabling them to carry out interpreting in dialogic communicative situations. Many acquire functional English in the free ESL classes provided by the Australian government through the Adult Migrant English Programme and through their immersion in the English mainstream community.

2) Literacy: High oracy/low literacy

In the experience of the employers of interpreters, new arrivals may not have strong literacy skills. Many of the dialects spoken by the most recent arrivals to Australia are oral tradition languages with no orthography (Burns & Hood, 1997). AMEP classes provide literacy education for adult learners enabling new arrivals to acquire the basics of English literacy (DIMIA, 2003).

3) Level of education: low levels of education

Employers reported that their interpreters have often not been able to pursue basic education. Many have spent years in refugee camps where educational opportunities

were limited or inexistent. Their expectation was that many would not have completed secondary education.

Employers perceived functional bilingualism and particularly the ability to understand and speak English sufficiently well to interpret specialist language (such as medical terminology used in doctor-patient communication) as an essential criterion for selection. The educators and representatives from NAATI were also particularly aware of the need for adequate language ability for students undertaking educational programmes in translating and interpreting. Entry requirements for the Postgraduate Diploma and Masters of Translating and Interpreting at Macquarie University at the time of the project were IELTS 6.5 or equivalent overall on the Academic English test with a minimum of IELTS 6 in the sub-skills. This was later increased to 7 minimum overall with 6.5 for the sub-skills for the Masters. 6.5 overall has been retained for the Postgraduate Diploma with a minimum of 6 on the sub-skills. Postgraduate programmes in Translating and Interpreting in Australia generally require these levels of IELTS as entry requirements (Hale et al, 2012). Language competence is also a sub-skill of the NAATI Accreditation tests (Slatyer et al., 2008) for Interpreters and has also been the object of research following complaints about the poor language skills from institutions working with interpreters (Turner & Ozolins, 2007).

Based on this profile and the priorities of the other stakeholders (educators and representatives of the profession and accreditation authority), the following 6 criteria were defined for the purpose of selecting candidates.

Table 5   Screening criteria and priority

OBLIGATORY	DESIRABLE	POSSIBLE
1. Adequate level of English proficient for interpreting	4. Completion of secondary education	6. Candidates with NAATI accredited language
2. Adequate level of literacy in L1 (for sight translation)	5. At least two participants from each language group ("buddies")	
3. Highly motivated		

Three levels of priority were discussed and decided at the August 13th meeting of stakeholders: Obligatory, Desirable and Possible. The Obligatory criteria are those

that all stakeholders considered to be *essential* for successful delivery of the pilot programme. Criteria 1 and 2 are fundamental requirements for interpreting practice (Pöchhacker, 2004; Hale, 2007; Rudvin & Tomassini, 2011;) and also for the ability to understand and engage with the content of the course delivered in English and requiring tasks to be completed through the medium of spoken and written English. The pilot course was demanding in terms of time and effort with a financial commitment in relation to loss of income during attendance and candidates would therefore need to be motivated (Criterion 3) to complete the course.

Desirable criteria are criteria that would assist with the successful delivery of the programme: Criterion 4, Completion of secondary education, as an indicator of experience of learning and Criterion 5 for the purpose of peer review of learning and performance in interpreting tasks. The Possible criterion of NAATI Accreditation was included as an indicator that some candidates may already be accredited and were not taking the course as a pathway to preparing for accreditation but as a means of improving their skills and knowledge in the practice of interpreting. Candidates with NAATI Accreditation may be more likely to have a prescriptive view of role as it is defined by Llewellyn-Jones and Lee (2013) due to the potential washback from the tests (Slatyer et al., 2008).

Candidates for the pilot course were proposed by the two major employers and project partners: the Health Care Interpreter Service and Centrelink. Firstly, each identified candidates who they considered would be suitable for the course and provided us with a list of 44 candidate's names, their languages and contact details. All of these candidates were contacted and invited to attend a screening session to be held over one and a half days in October and November, 2003 at the Healthcare Interpreter Service at a Sydney hospital.

Candidate Information Sheet

Prior to being interviewed, the candidates were asked to complete a Candidate Information Sheet (see Appendix 5). Questions included name, DOB, contact details, gender, languages, country of origin, highest level of education and employment experience (Criterion 4). A secondary purpose of the Candidate Information sheet was to determine whether the candidates had sufficient literacy to complete the

course (Criterion 2). The candidates brought the completed sheet into the interview with them.

Screening interviews

Three interviewers (the three members of the research team) conducted the screening interviews: Interviewers 1 and 2 were assigned to candidates 1-15 on day 1 and Interviewers 2 and 3 to candidates 16 – 24 on day 2.

The screening interviews had the following objectives:

- To collect additional information about the candidates for the purpose of deciding whether they were suitable for the course. This included a sample of spoken language (Criterion 1), an assessment of their motivation for the course (Criterion 3) and their experience of and commitment to interpreting (Criterion 3);

- To collection information about the profile of the candidates for the purposes of curriculum design

The interviews were semi-structured using the interview schedule included in Appendix 4. Interview questions were aimed at firstly obtaining factual information about the candidates to corroborate the information from the candidate information sheet and to further explore questions such as interpreting experience (Criteria 3 and 6), level of education (Criterion 4) and professional background. Secondly, candidates were invited to expand on the information for the purpose of obtaining a sample of their spoken language for assessment (Criterion 1) and to assess their level of motivation for the course (Criterion 3). The approach to interviewing was to allow the candidates free reign to expand their responses to the questions. The interviewers then probed to elicit more detail where relevant. This method enabled us to collect an extended sample of discourse for the language assessments.

Rating process

Both interviewers scored the candidates for the criteria of accuracy, fluency and motivation on a 5-point Likert scale during the interview. These were holistic, subjective ratings aimed at giving a notional score to the candidate's response/performance. Because the ratings were done at the same time as the

interviews they needed to be done with a minimum of effort in order to manage the interview at the same time. The scoring sheet was modified to improve the formatting for easier completion between Day 1 and Day 2 based on feedback from the interviewing team. The revised format included a series of scales for each criterion with the analytic information included under each scale. (see Appendix 4 for the revised scoring sheet). Ratings were consensus ratings, that is, once the interviews for each half day were concluded, the raters discussed the scores allocated for each criterion and for each candidate and came to an agreement about the outcome of the screening, i.e. whether to accept a candidate or not.

5.3   Data analysis

The screening process generated well-rounded data (demographic data, professional experience, views about interpreting and life experience) on each of the candidates creating individual cases within the broader case study (Yin, 2014).

Candidate Information sheet

The candidate's responses have been collated and entered into a data reduction matrix (Table 10 below). They have also been included as Person attributes in NVivo for the purpose of establishing links between candidate attributes and their views and beliefs.

Screening interviews

The audio files of the screening interviews were transcribed by a professional transcription company that provided a working transcription. I reviewed and corrected the scripts from the audio files and uploaded them with the audio files as MP3 files to NVivo 10 for thematic analysis (Miles & Huberman, 1996). The broad aim of the analysis was descriptive. All transcripts were coded using *a priori* codes (Richards, 2005) that were set up from the rating criteria and additional *in vivo* codes were added as they arose during analysis. After the first 'broad brush' coding was carried out to identify the main themes in the interview data, on-coding to further probe those themes was carried out (Richards, 2005; Bazeley, 2007). The constant reviewing of the data in this way adds to the intra-rater reliability of the coding process in the absence of a second coder (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000).

5.4 Screening results

In this discussion, the results of the screening are situated against the assumptions about a typical profile derived from the needs analysis and profiling process that took place during the August 13ᵗʰ stakeholder meeting.

5.4.1 Overview of results

Of the 44 people who were invited to attend the screening sessions, 24 accepted the invitation and were allocated a date and time. 4 people did not turn up and the remaining 20 participated in the screening. A place on the course was offered to all and of those, 15 accepted the offer and arrived to attend the first week. 12 of those completed the course. The report that follows refers to the 20 candidates who were screened. These are small numbers, but charts have been provided to give a visual representation of the data in addition to the discursive overview.

Table 6   Candidate code and attendance at screening and trial

Candidate code	Language	Attendance at screening and pilot course	Recommended by
1	Somali	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS, WSAHS
2	Sudanese Arabic	Attended screening only	HCIS, WSAHS
3	Somali	Attended screening, commenced but did not complete	HCIS, WSAHS
4	Dinka	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS, WSAHS
5	Dinka	Did not attend screening	Centrelink
6	Amharic, Oromo, Somali, Sidamic	Attended screening, completed course	Centrelink
7	Dinka, Shuluk, Arabic	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS, WSAHS
8	Arabic: Sudanese and Egyptian	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS, WSAHS
9	Burmese	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS, WSAHS
10	Arabic, Russian, Dinka	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS, Hunter AHS
11	Mon	Did not attend screening	Centrelink
12	Chaldean	Did not attend screening	Centrelink
13	Arabic	Attended screening, completed course	Centrelink

Candidate code	Language	Attendance at screening and pilot course	Recommended by
14	Armenian	Did not attend screening	Centrelink
15	Tongan	Attended screening, commenced but did not complete	HCIS, WSAHS
16	Estonian	Attended screening, completed course	Centrelink
17	Amharic, Oromo	Attended screening only	HCIS
18	Cook Islands Maori	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS
19	Arabic, Nuba	Attended screening only	HCIS, SWAHS
20	Albanian	Attended screening only	Centrelink
21	Mandarin, Hokkien, Teochew, Canotonese	Attended screening only	Centrelink
22	Dinka, Arabic	Attended screening, completed course	Centrelink
23	Dinka, Arabic	Attended screening, completed course	HCIS,CS and SEH Illawarra
24	Bengali	Attended screening, commenced but did not complete	HCIS,CS and SEH

The Health Care Interpreter Service recommended 12 of the candidates for screening and Centrelink recommended the other 8. Centrelink had nominated all of the candidates who failed to turn up for the screening. This raises questions about the internal processes within each of the institutions for identifying prospective interpreter candidates. However, this was not the responsibility of the research team. The candidates represented 22 different languages and their ages ranged from 29 to 71 years of age. 14 of the 24 candidates were between 31 and 50 years of age. The largest group fell in the 31 - 40 age range with the second largest 41 - 50. This is a slightly younger cohort than the national data that reflected a slightly older profile (Slatyer & Napier, 2010). The male/female ratio was slightly female dominant (11 females to 09 males); again this is different from the national profile that is distinctly female dominant (Slatyer & Napier, 2010). 8 of the students were from the Sudan and of these 5 were older males in their 40s and the other three were younger women in their 30s. All the Sudanese were multilingual, speaking between 1 and 3 local languages plus Arabic, either Sudanese Arabic or Standard Arabic. There were 2 candidates from Somalia and 2 from Ethiopia. For all the other languages there was only one candidate from each despite our aim to recruit at least two from each

language background. The institutions had recommended more than 1 candidate in most of the languages but many of the language pairs did not take up the offer to attend the screening. All were bilingual with English and their LOTE with varying degrees of proficiency in English. 2 of the candidates had been resident in Australia for more than 10 years and would have benefited from assessment of their LOTE. 14 had completed tertiary education and 6 had completed secondary level education.

Figure 18   Age range of the candidates
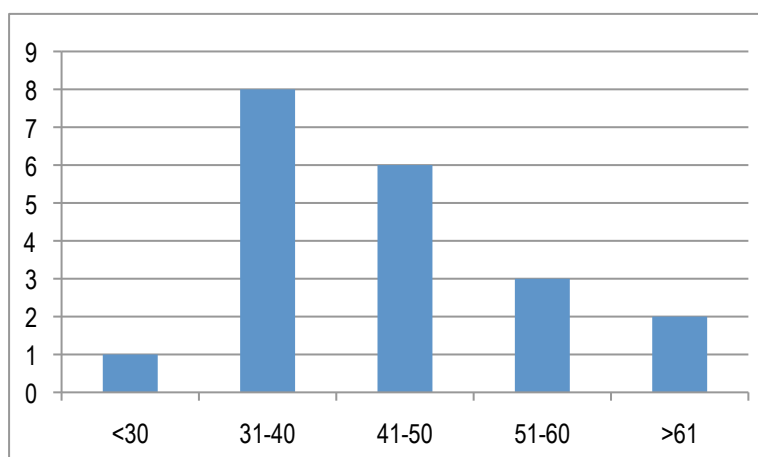
Most were from refugee backgrounds and had started interpreting in refugee camps on their way to Australia, others had become interpreters after arriving in Australia, either in detention or settlement centres or later once they had obtained their permanent residence visas. All had some professional experience in a field other than interpreting and all except 4 (Seisha, Samir, Beliyu and Bassim) had experience as interpreters, many had started as a volunteer interpreter in different community or refugee organisations.

Rater reliability

In order to gain a measure of inter-rater reliability, scores for each criterion were entered into SPSS and Pearson correlation coefficients calculated. Scores for accuracy (r=.87) and motivation (r=.82) were highly correlated indicating a high degree of rater agreement (Brown, 2005) in the scoring process for these two criteria. However, the scores for fluency were less highly correlated (r= .64) indicating a median level of agreement between the two raters (Brown, 2005). While this is a lower level of inter-rater reliability than I would have liked, Brown (2005) reminds us that small numbers of scores (candidates) can lead to unstable statistics. For this reason these

correlations are more an indication of the validity of the screening criteria rather than a robust indicator of the reliability of the process.

Figure 19   Pearson correlations for fluency rating

		FLUR1	FLUR2
FLUR1	Pearson Correlation	1	,640**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,002
	N	20	20
FLUR2	Pearson Correlation	,640**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,002	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 20   Pearson correlation for accuracy rating

		ACCR1	ACCR2
ACCR1	Pearson Correlation	1	,868**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	20	20
ACCR2	Pearson Correlation	,868**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Figure 21   Pearson correlations for motivation rating

		MOTR1	MOTR2
MOTR1	Pearson Correlation	1	,823**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,000
	N	20	20
MOTR2	Pearson Correlation	,823**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

5.4.2 Profiles

An overview of the candidate profiles is presented in Table 7 below. The candidate group did not represent a homogeneous population and on a number of criteria (specifically level of education and level of literacy) differed from the expected profile that the stakeholders had outlined and that had contributed to defining the criteria for the assessment of candidates during the screening.

Fourteen of the candidates had completed tertiary education in a field other than interpreting and had practiced their profession in their country of origin. Of those who had only completed secondary education, two (Jackie and Fara)[14] nominated interpreting as their profession.

5.4.3 Language competence

The degree of bilingualism in the cohort was highly variable, though only English was assessed on the assumption that the candidates were new arrivals to Australia. The newest arrivals had effectively only been in Australia for a few months (Bakri 1.5 months, Samir 2 months and Yared 4 months – though he had spent 7 years in South Africa prior to being granted asylum in Australia). Four of the candidates were long-term residents of Australia (Maia 53 years; Fara 27 years, Petina 20 years and Jackie 17 years) and had native-like English. Under the circumstances, it would have been more appropriate to assess the LOTE proficiency of these candidates, though it would have been difficult and costly to undertake this it would have given a more accurate assessment of their bilingual language competence. The difficulty relates to finding suitable language assessments would most probably require an examiner or interviewer to undertake the assessment in that language.

The language competence[15] of candidates was assessed using two criteria: fluency and accuracy. Fluency was defined as "Ability to speak without hesitation" and Accuracy was broken down into "Grammar, Vocabulary and Pragmatic Appropriateness". Accuracy relates to the use of English as a second language. Each criterion was assessed on a Likert scale with a range of 0-5.

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[14] A pseudonym has been allocated to all candidates to protect the candidate's anonymity
[15] I have chosen to refer to language competence rather than proficiency in order to prioritise the communicative functions over grammatical accuracy and vocabulary size.

Table 7 Candidate profiles

Name	Age	Language	Country of origin	Male/ Female	Level of education	Professional background	Interpreting experience
Amina	31	Somali	Somalia	F	Secondary	Nursing assistant	Yes
Violet	39	Sudanese Arabic	Sudan	F	Tertiary	Nursing	Yes
Nadifa	38	Somali	Somalia	F	Tertiary	Accounting	Yes
Yaya	34	Dinka, Arabic, Nuer	Sudan	F	Secondary	Nursing	Yes
Yared	39	Amharic, Oromo, Somali, Sidamic	Ethiopia	M	Tertiary	Journalism	Yes
Saeisha	35	Dinka, Arabic, Shilluk, Sudanese	Sudan	F	Tertiary	Theology	No
Bakri	45	Arabic, Sudanese Egyptian, Dinka, Nuer, Shiluk	Sudan	M	Tertiary	Agronomy	Yes
Mya	46	Burmese	Burma	F	Tertiary	Medicine	Yes
Samir	43	Arabic, Russian, Dinka	Sudan	M	Tertiary	Law/Teaching	No
Fara	47	Arabic	Israel	F	Secondary	Interpreting	Yes
Petina	56	Tongan	Tonga	F	Secondary	Teaching	Yes
Maia	71	Estonian	Estonia	F	Secondary	Nursing/Interpreting	Yes
Beliyu	29	Amharic, Oromo	Ethiopia	F	Tertiary	Nursing	No
Haki	59	Cook Islands Maori	Cook Islands	M	Tertiary	Self-employed	Yes
Bassim	40	Arabic, Nuba	Sudan	M	Tertiary	Teaching	No
Jackie	50	Albanian	Kosovo	M	Secondary	Interpreting	Yes
Lily	61	Mandarin, Hokkein, Teochew, Cantonese	Singapore	M	Tertiary	Teaching	Yes
Nijam	45	Dinka, Arabic, Sudanese Arabic	Sudan	M	Tertiary	Law/Teaching	Yes
Malusi	51	Dinka. Arabic	Sudan	M	Tertiary	Teaching	Yes
Madhur	35	Bengali	Bangladesh	F	Tertiary	Biology	Yes

Fluency

Figure 22 shows the scores awarded for fluency. Scores from the two raters were averaged consistent with consensus rating. As indicated by the chart below, all candidates scored relatively well for fluency with the majority falling between three and four points out of five. Four scored between four and five points. One scored five; this was Maia, who has lived in Australia since 1948. The lowest score (Saeisha) was still above the median. All of the candidates spoke with ease and with few hesitations during the interviews. However, a number of the candidates (three in all) mentioned that a reason for taking the course was to improve their English and for Jackie it was to improve her written English despite having lived in Australia for 17 years.

Figure 22   Screening: evaluation of language fluency
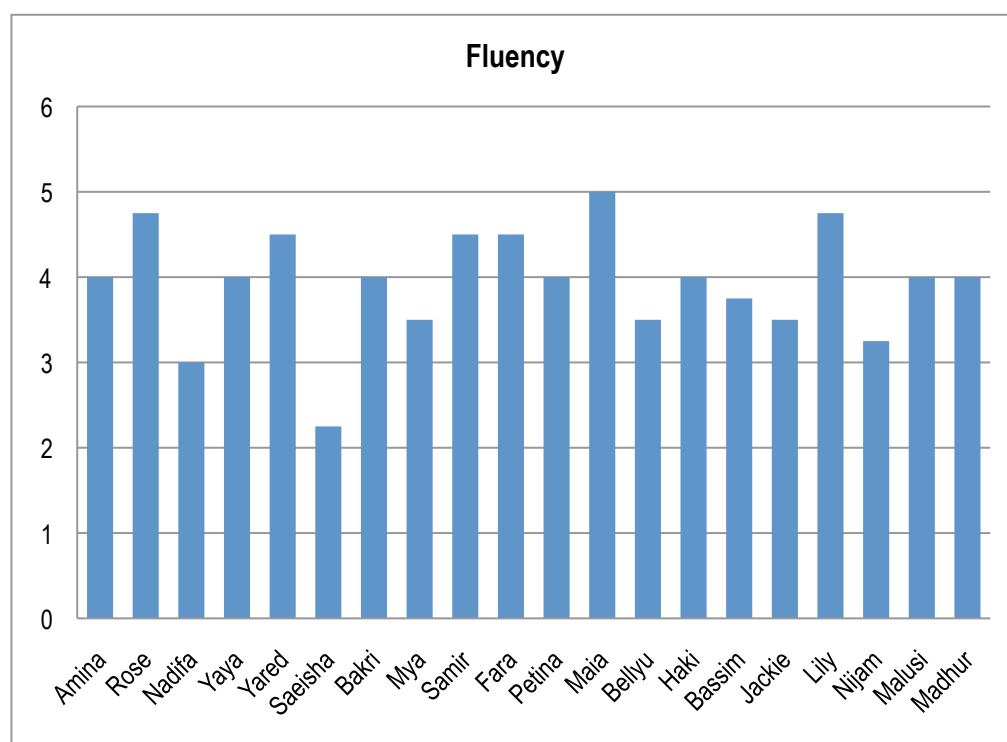
Accuracy

Accuracy of language use (grammar, vocabulary and pragmatic appropriateness) was also scored quite highly (Fig.23), though scores were not as high as for fluency. Two candidates (Nadifa and Saeisha) fell below the median and the majority ($n = 7$) were between three and four on the scale. Grammatical

appropriateness was typical of second language learners of English. The candidate's language contained misuse of articles, incorrect verb conjugations, omissions of final plural 's'. Pragmatic competence is one of the most difficult sub-competences for learners of a second or foreign language to acquire (Kasper, 1997), but essential for the success of interpreter-mediated communication (Davidson, 2002; Hale, 2007).

Figure 23   Screening: evaluation of accuracy
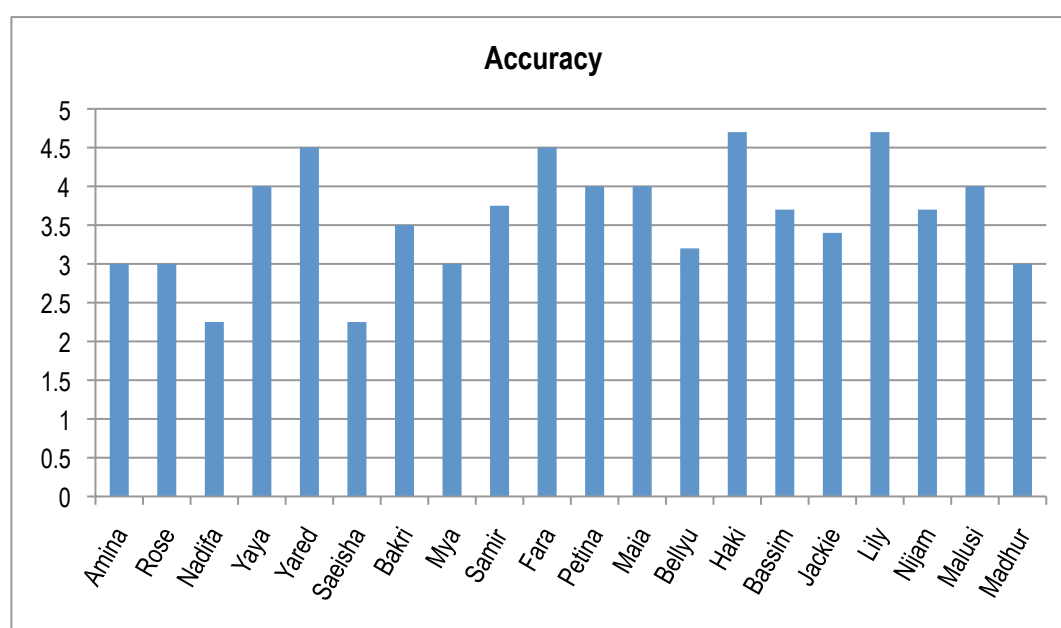
These scores indicated that the raters were somewhat lenient given the range and number of errors picked up subsequently in the data during transcription and checking. However, the errors did not appear to impede communicative ability. There were no instances of communication breakdown during the interviews that could be attributed to incorrect language use; there were also very few long pauses and hesitations that could have indicated that the candidates had inadequate linguistic resources.

Even though many of the candidates referred to their desire to improve their English as being one of the motivating factors for taking the course, Seisha was the only one who spoke candidly of her struggle with English. She spoke of her dismay at finding herself in a country where she couldn't communicate, notably with the people who came to help her settle in:

> "I feel sad some friends they come to me ...(to) help us to settle in. They want to talk to me or they want to ask me (something) ...I (can't) communicate with them and this is really make(s) me very upset" (Seisha).

She described the effort she had put into studying English over the 5 years that she had been in Australia, resorting to exploiting the materials and tasks that her children had been given at school to try to improve her English.

However, competence in English did not appear to be related to the length of residence in Australia. Seisha had been in Australia for 5 years and scored the lowest for language (2.3/5) whereas Bakri, for example, had only been in Australia for a few months but was a more competent communicator scoring 3.5/5.

5.4.4 Motivation

The remaining score was for motivation (Fig.24). Since the course was free to the students and places were limited, the Steering Committee requested that motivation be included as one of the criteria. However, motivation is a complex notion that is notoriously difficult to assess (Dörnyei, 2001). The stakeholders defined the following criteria to be used as the basis for assessing the candidates' motivation:

- the reasons for wanting to do the course

- awareness of what community interpreting is

- ability to relate experience of interpreting either as a practitioner or client (if relevant)

- enthusiasm for interpreting as a professional occupation

Scores for motivation ranged from 5 (Yared, who had been working as a court interpreter in South Africa and Madhur) to two (Fara and Samir) with 4 of the candidates rated below the median. These included Bakri, an agronomist, who was intending to apply for work in his field and Maia who had been working as an interpreter for 35 years and had already completed training but indicated that she could probably learn something by doing the course. Samir was also aiming to

find employment in his field of law once his language proficiency had improved and Fara had already worked as an interpreter for 7 years but stated that her interest in doing the course was to improve her English. She had also worked as a secretary and had been applying for work where she could use her secretarial skills. Petina who was given a score of three for motivation indicated that it was her husband and family who encouraged her to take the course since she had been working as a volunteer interpreter for a number of years.

> "my husband and the family they('re) really happy when I talk to them about this course. They force me! [laughter] they did not force me but they encourage me to come and do the course" (Petina).

Figure 24   Screening: evaluation of motivation
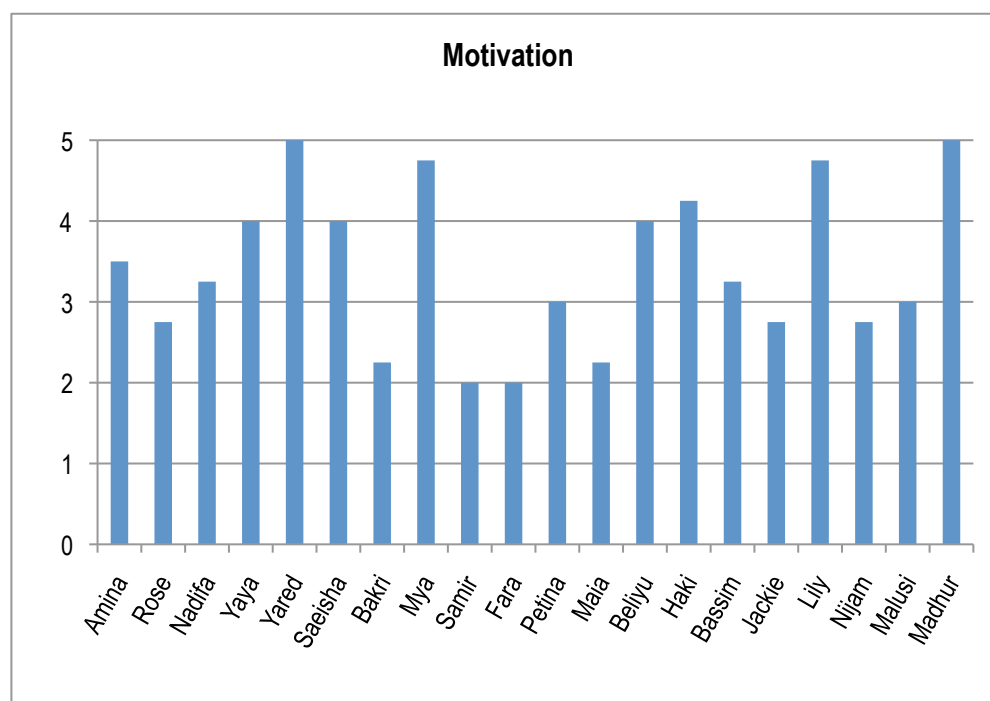
Reasons for doing the course

The main reasons provided for wanting to do the course were to upgrade interpreting skills (*n* =11), 4 said it was to improve their English skills. Surprisingly this included Fara, who had lived in Australia for 26 years, and Jackie for 17 years. Jackie specifically mentioned her desire to improve her written English. Three said that they wanted to do the course to gain more experience in interpreting (Amina, Bakri and Beliyu), three wanted to gain a qualification in interpreting (Beliyu, Jackie and Samir) and three of the candidates were approached by their employer with the suggestion that they

might consider taking the course and expressed some surprise at being (Fara, Beliyu and Maia). Fara and Maia had already taken many of the pre and in-service training seminars and workshops offered by employers and Beliyu was committed to pursuing her career as a nurse.

Experience of interpreting

For the candidates who had experience as interpreters (*n* = 16), all worked for one or more of the public institutions (Centrelink, TIS, Health Care Interpreter Service, Community Relations Commission) in health, legal and social services. Two worked exclusively in health (Violet and Yaya). Experience was in both face-to-face assignments and telephone interpreting with TIS, the Health Care Interpreter Service or private agencies.

Nine of the candidates had had experience of interpreting in a voluntary capacity. The voluntary work had often occurred in refugee camps or, once in Australia, with community organisations or NGOs that assist refugees and new migrants with settlement.

Enthusiasm for interpreting as a professional occupation

Eleven candidates spoke about the positive aspects of interpreting as a profession. These ranged from interpreting being a means to meet people, including other professional interpreters, to the flexibility of freelance interpreting work when one had young children at home (Fara) to the income (Amina). Capacity to help people in their community was also a strong theme in the interviews that reflected positively on interpreting. Amina mentioned that by working as an interpreter in her community, she was assisting Australia to meet its international obligations towards refugees. Fara indicated that she found the work interesting and Haki, informative. Haki expanded on this idea by referring to the knowledge about health that he had gained from the in-service training and his practice as an interpreter working in the health system.

> "Well I see what the health issues are and er, it's helped me to understand more about health and the body you know" (Haki).

Only three of the candidates mentioned negative aspects and these included some of the interpersonal aspects of interpreting such as having to deal with aggressive clients (Yaya). Violet also talked about managing aggressive and rude clients and Samir talked about the difficulty of conveying emotions when he sensed that people were upset by the questions being asked. Other negative aspects of interpreting included the travelling. Yaya found that she spent a lot of time travelling from one assignment to the other and Violet commented that she often had difficulty finding the locations where her assignments were. The low pay was another negative aspect of the work and Beliyu indicated that she was better paid for her nursing work than for interpreting. Fara mentioned that interpreting could be frustrating, but did not elaborate preferring to focus on the positive aspects.

5.4.5 Other themes emerging from the interviews

During the screening interviews, a number of additional themes emerged, particularly related to beliefs about interpreting and in particular views of role even though we did not explicitly seek those views in our interviewing.

Notable in the conversations about motivation to undertake interpreting as a profession were comments about having the capacity to help the community. Jackie's comments were quite typical:

> "I've been working for about 2 or 3 months unpaid as a volunteer. Just to help refugees".

Fourteen of the candidates mentioned helping as being a positive attribute of interpreting. This view aligns with Roy's description of the helper metaphor (Roy, 2002) and the need to shift thinking about interpreting from being a volunteer helping activity to professional practice. Two of those who did not mention the helping aspect of interpreting were Yared and Maia. Yared had been working as a court interpreter after completing a training course in South Africa and considered that interpreting was now his profession since he had not been successful in pursuing his career in journalism. Maia had been working as a professional interpreter for 11 years for the Community Relations Commission, TIS, Centrelink and for the New South Wales Health Care Interpreter Service and

had undertaken many training courses in these institutions. In addition, according to Maia, the Estonian community in Australia is an ageing community of long-term residents. The helper role is less likely to be expected or required under the circumstances.

Other views about role came from Mya who suggested that as a doctor she could help with intercultural understanding about health issues while interpreting and therefore saw her role as an intercultural mediator.

Only one candidate explicitly referred to the normative role model and how it could be difficult to uphold a strictly normative role model in practice (Yared). He also spoke about the importance of maintaining confidentiality. This is a particularly important aspect of role when interpreters come from small language communities where the likelihood of knowing the clients is greater.

5.5   Conclusions

There were two major objectives in conducting the screening: to assess candidates' readiness for the course and to gain information to inform curriculum decisions.

In fulfilling the first objective, the above profiles were somewhat contrary to our expectations from what we had learned from the stakeholders. Overall, in terms of meeting the criteria, all candidates were judged to have the minimum level of English proficiency for interpreting (Criterion 1), this was higher than we expected with all candidates able to communicate effectively about a range of topics during the interview. Levels of literacy (Criterion 2) were also higher than expected and adequate for the course requirements. None had difficulty in completing the Candidate Information Sheet, though some responses were more concise than others that may indicate a lack of facility with writing.

All expressed motivation to do the course (Criterion 3), though there were some reservations from those who were committed to other professions (Bakri and Samir) and from those who had not expressed an interest in training initially (Maia and Fara).

The level of education (Criterion 4) was much higher than expected with the majority having tertiary qualifications and all having a professional career path (either interpreting or another professional activity). The remainder had completed secondary level education.

We had planned for two people per language to benchmark language work and interpreting (Criterion 5). Amongst the candidates in the screening, there were 3 groups with at least 2 speakers, but this was reduced to 2 for the course since not all the candidates who were screened attended the trial.

How has this process informed the curriculum? The screening process provided us with information about the interpreters' experience (or lack of experience) in interpreting. We learned about the range of institutions and amount of experience and training in those institutional contexts. This information was useful in planning institution-specific roleplays and reflective tasks. We were better informed about the language proficiency, both oral and written, of the candidates and the focus of language support components of the curriculum.

Beliefs and attitudes towards interpreting helped us to plan the units around role, such as the need to manage difficult clients and how to manage cultural information.

Chapter 6
Curriculum design and development

6.1   Introduction

In Chapter 5, I described the results of the screening process that provided the research team with detailed information about the profile of the student interpreters who were invited to participate in the trial of the curriculum. This information contributed to the design of the curriculum by providing us with information about the amount and type of interpreting experience the candidates had as well as their attitudes to and beliefs about interpreting as a professional practice. The process of curriculum design commenced in June 2003 with a literature review, a review of Translating and Interpreting programmes and the NAATI Course Approval manual (NAATI, 2010). During this phase, the project team prepared a draft of the curriculum to be presented to the stakeholders and teachers for feedback and input over the period of July to November before implementing the curriculum with students on 17th November 2003 for a trial.

Consistent with the action research orientation (Carr & Kemmis, 1983; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2000), the process was collaborative and reflective and sought to gain as wide a range of input as possible. The collaborative processes were built into the study design. This phase of the project corresponds to Steps 1 (Assessing context), 3 (Identification of potential stakeholders) and, 4 (Describing the programme) of the EPIC model (Holden & Zimmerman, 2009) described in Chapter 4.

The curriculum design sought to reflect the educational philosophy outlined in Chapter 3, following constructivist (Kiraly, 2000), experiential (Dewey, 1938; Stenhouse, 1975) and transformational models (Biggs & Tang, 2007) of learning where the tasks focussed the learners on relevant, real-world tasks (Biggs & Tang, 2007) in a collaborative learning environment (Kiraly, 2000) and fostered reflexivity (Schön, 1985).

In this chapter I describe how we went about designing the curriculum and the different influences on curriculum structure and content. I discuss how collaborative work processes were set up to incorporate stakeholder input to the curriculum. A detailed reporting of the evolution of the curriculum is provided as well as the final curriculum model.

6.2   Preparation for curriculum development

Consistent with the collaborative action research orientation in the study, a cyclical model of planning, acting, monitoring and evaluating as defined by Carr and Kemmis (1988) and others, was implemented for the curriculum design phase of the project. The processes were also reflective where the research team incorporated theory (from the literature) and new input (from collaborators and experts) to resolve problems as they arose. The different types of collaboration are described below in addition to a description of how input to the curriculum model was sought and integrated.

Research Team

The research team was responsible for decisions relating to how the project was implemented: building collaborative relationships (with stakeholders from the profession and industry, teachers and the institution), seeking input to the first draft of the curriculum, organisation of the trial (screening and pilot course), organising the mentoring component, Phase 2 fieldwork and visits and organisation of the data collection. The three members of the team worked in close collaboration. Collaboration and decision-making occurred both during formal meetings (3 in total) and informally over the life of the project in day-to-day conversations about the work. Documents and materials were shared, co-edited and discussed.

The research team started work as soon as the grant had been approved at the end of May, 2003.

Steering Committee

A stakeholder group was set up to ensure that the curriculum met the expectations of employers, interpreters and the profession (Fullan, 2001). Calls for expressions of interest for membership of the stakeholder group were sent out to the research teams' contacts in the public institutions employing interpreters and to colleagues from AUSIT, NAATI and the profession. We were seeking partners to provide input to and feedback on the curriculum as it was developed and also to assist with teaching, mentoring and recruitment of interpreter students to participate in the trial of the curriculum. We had 8 confirmations for the first meeting on 13th August.

During this first meeting of the group of stakeholders, they suggested setting up a Steering Committee for the project to ensure active collaboration of the industry partners and other stakeholders in the research. The Steering Committee included representatives from the main stakeholders: Centrelink and the Health Care Interpreter Service (the two principal employers of interpreters in NSW and partners in the project), the professional association AUSIT, the translation and interpreting programme at Macquarie University and the NAATI QAAC (NAATI's Qualifications Assessment Advisory Committee). In addition to these regular members, a number of observers representing the Community Relations Commission, Migrant Resource Centres, STARTTS and Refugee Health requested to be able to attend meetings. All participants contributed to debate and were active collaborators.

The purpose of the Steering Committee was to provide information on relevant existing interpreter training programmes and feedback on the draft curriculum and competencies, to advise on course content suitable for different settings and, to advise on cross-cultural issues likely to impact on course design and implementation.

In view of the needs-based focus of the curriculum, the Steering Committee performed an essential role in firstly identifying the needs of both the industry and the interpreters, secondly in determining whether these needs were being

met by the proposed curriculum and lastly, evaluating whether the implementation of the curriculum satisfied the aims of the project.

In addition to the needs analysis and provision of advice and information for the curriculum design from the stakeholder group, the two main providers (Health Care Interpreter Service and Centrelink) were asked to also:

- nominate potential participants to be screened for inclusion in the pilot course;

- provide information on candidates to facilitate selection (linguistic profile, level of education, interpreting experience and motivation);

- organise and supervise work placements including compliance with ethical requirements for observation; and

- provide feedback on the success of the work placement to the project team.

The Steering Committee met for four three-hour meetings over the life of the project on 13th August and 24th September 2003, 22nd October 2003 and 24th March 2004. These dates corresponded to an introductory phase where the design and aims of the research were discussed, needs analysis was conducted and the draft curriculum was presented for feedback, two meetings prior to the trial to decide on the version of the curriculum to be implemented in the trial; and a final evaluation and wrap up.

A process was set up to incorporate feedback from the stakeholders and to ensure that decision-making was inclusive (Fig.25)

Figure 25   Decision-making process in the stakeholder group

| Research team prepares draft proposal & indetifies issues for consultation and decision | → | Proposal presented to stakeholders and discussion invited | → | Discussion summarised and concluded with sum up from the research team on decisions made | → | Decisions reported in minutes for approval | → | Proposals modfied to include outcomes of decisions and email to members for confirmation |

Teaching team

In order to recruit teaching staff for the project, an email was sent to staff in the Department of Linguistics to invite them to an information meeting. 5 staff members expressed an interest in participating. These included an interpreting lecturer (Jane[16]), a phonologist (Annette), a second language acquisition specialist with a particular interest in interpreter-mediated communication in speech pathology (Paul) and a cross-cultural communication specialist (Fiona). Other teachers included the research team members who had expertise in teaching a range of topics in interpreting (Terry), a specialist teacher in medical interpreting and 3 staff members from the Health Care Interpreter Service with experience in the delivery of training for interpreters who were recruited through the industry partners.

Members of the teaching team met 5 times (on August 27th, September 22nd, October 21st, December 2nd, 2003 and in mid-February following the Phase 3 intensive week) to discuss the draft curriculum, to provide feedback on the first phase of the trial and to comment on the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum. They also met to discuss the outcomes of the course in terms of student achievement. The teaching team worked collaboratively and closely, often teaching together in pairs.

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[16] Teachers' names have been changed to protect their identity. Only those teachers whose data is included in the thesis have been given a name.

6.3   The curriculum design process

The first step in designing the curriculum (Fig.26) focussed on preparing a first draft of the curriculum to be disseminated for comment. The first draft was presented at the August 13th meeting of the stakeholders and comments and discussion invited. The curriculum was then modified and sent to the participants in the meeting for approval and confirmation that the modified curriculum accurately reflected their input. A second draft was prepared and presented to the teachers at the first teachers meeting on September 22nd. Again the teachers' input was included and sent back to the teachers for confirmation. The revised draft was presented at the September 24th meeting of the Steering Committee. This third draft was implemented during Phase 1 of the curriculum trial. Further modifications were proposed for Phase 3 of the curriculum following implementation of Phases 1 and 2 of the trial. A final model of the curriculum was presented to the final Steering Committee meeting on 24th March, 2004 with the of students assessments and outcomes of the course.

Figure 26   Steps in the curriculum design process
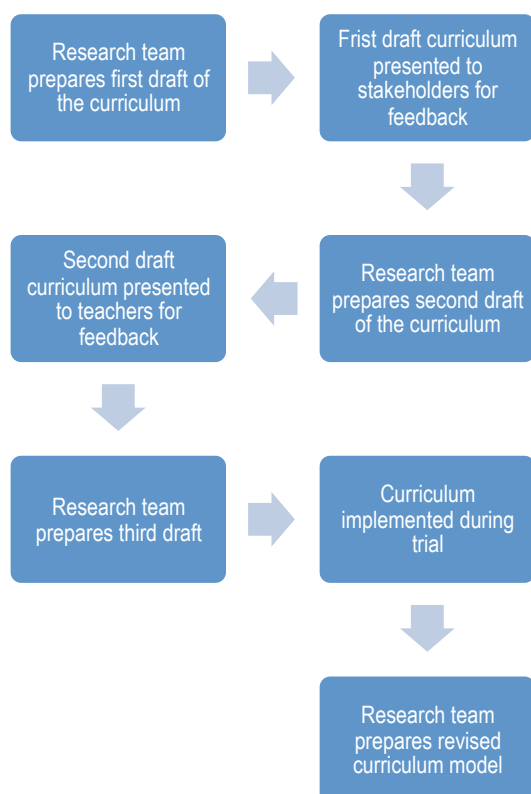
The first version of the curriculum was informed by the literature on interpreter education, input from international experts, the Macquarie University Translating and Interpreting curriculum and relevant components of the NAATI Course Approval specifications. The literature review is reported above in Chapters 2 and 3. An email was sent to prominent international scholars specialised in the education of interpreters, particularly those with experience of dialogue interpreter education. The range of input is shown in Figure 27 below.

Figure 27   Influences on and input to the curriculum
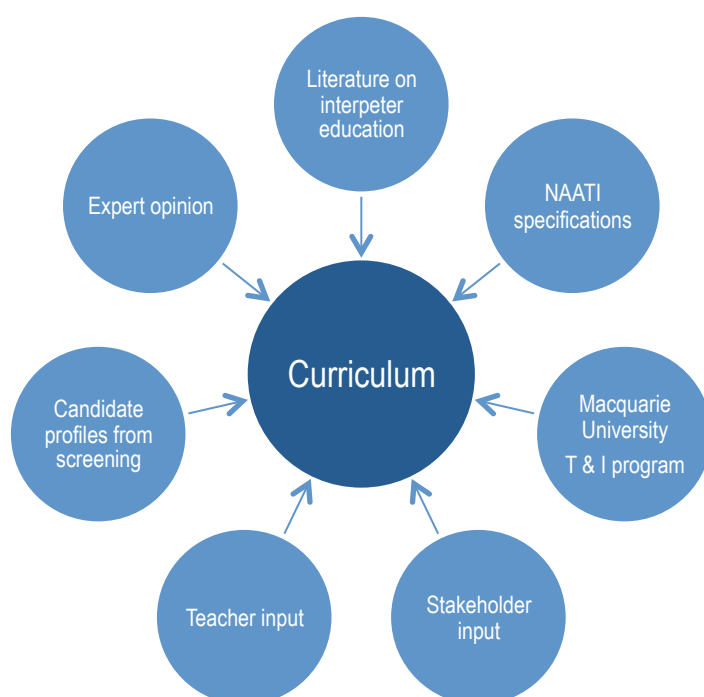
In view of the weight of NAATI Accreditation in the Australian context, it was essential to take note of the main recommendations for course approval. NAATI's guidelines centre on three core components of interpreter education: language studies, professional studies and cultural and social studies. The following were incorporated into the curriculum:

1. Language studies

- Extend students' command of vocabulary in specialised areas and more advanced command of syntax

- Heighten students' awareness of idiomatic and dialectic usage

- Improving students' understanding of different styles of expression

2. Professional studies

- Development of students' practical interpreting skills at the generalist level

- Maximised opportunity for practical training in realistic conditions

- Teaching of principles of interpersonal and intercultural communication

3. Cultural and social studies

- Familiarise students with the cultural and socio-economic background of the country and relevant institutions

- Provide an introduction to the political, legal, economic and administrative system of Australia

Expertise from the interpreting arm of the Translating and Interpreting programme at Macquarie University was also incorporated into the curriculum. The following course units were reviewed and elements appropriate to the curriculum were adapted for the model:

- Interpreting Techniques

- Interpreting Practice

- Community Interpreting

- Languages and Cultures in Contact

- Cross-cultural pragmatics

- Practicum

Expert feedback

There were 4 responses to the request for feedback on the project from respected scholars and interpreting specialists. Those approached were asked to comment on the project overview. The project was well received as an excellent initiative. The feedback was also positive in relation to the collaborative model of Action Research to inform the curriculum design and evaluation. The creation of a

partnership with stakeholders was also strongly commended including the recruitment of participants in the trial and the financial support for the delivery. A considerable amount of advice was also offered in relation to:

1) screening: it was highly recommended that we conduct the screening ourselves as only we would really knew what we were looking for in terms of profile

2) language competence: likely to be most problematic in either English or LOTE

3) pedagogical approaches: suggested that we require students to set their own learning goals and teach them to assess their progress on those; peer and self-assessment valuable learning strategies

4) content: students must be well-versed in ethics and knowing what it means in relation to their own practice

5) experience with short courses is that it is vastly preferable to make these multilingual rather than language specific otherwise they are unviable. Students always want more training in any case.

6) students may be quite vulnerable having lived through recent traumatic migrant or refugee experiences; feedback needs to be very sensitively given.

At its first meeting in August 2003, the Steering Committee was asked to identify desired outcomes for the training and provide a typical profile of the candidates for the purposes of conducting the needs analysis. The following criteria were identified by the stakeholders as key components of the training. None of the components were given any particular significance in relation to the others:

- Interpreting skills
- Ethics e.g. professional conduct (commitment, punctuality), role (setting specific roles, community participation and conflict with community status, trust), confidentiality (trust)
- Telephone interpreting (Centrelink)
- Awareness of working conditions

- Cross-cultural awareness training

- Terminology work

- Setting-specific glossary development

- Sight translation

The first draft of the curriculum and rationale was presented at the August 13th meeting of the Steering Committee. Feedback and the results of the needs analysis were incorporated into the model. A second version of the curriculum was prepared for the trial and presented to the Steering Committee at the second meeting on 24th September for approval.

6.3.2 Curriculum objectives

As recommended by Tyler (1949) and Stenhouse (1975, 1980) the second step in curriculum development concerns the identification of curriculum objectives. In the case of our curriculum these were defined as:

- Development of a multilingual course for interpreters from the smaller language communities who will be interpreting in the community

- Main focus on building the foundation of interpreting skills to equip students for the workplace (less focus on development of language skills, more focus on development of interpreting skills)

- To educate reflective practitioners

- Needs-based to best meet the profile of the interpreters and requirements for employers.

The curriculum design was subject to a certain number of practical constraints that introduced an additional challenge. These included the number of hours we could expect the students to attend as while they were studying they had no income; some had family commitments making attendance difficult and our budget for teachers was limited by the resources available in the budgets of the two main funding institutions: HCIS and Centrelink.

6.3.3 Structure of the curriculum

The curriculum was designed to cover three broad phases:

- Phase 1: Face-to-face training

- Phase 2: Field experience and evaluation

- Phase 3: Face-to-face training

The two face-to-face training components consisted of an intensive 40-hour week of learning and teaching activities. These intensive weeks were important for delivering content intensively, establishing modalities for interpreting practice and building a strong community of learning. In Phase 1 students were introduced to the course and were guided in setting learning goals for the 3 phases. They were introduced to basic concepts in community interpreting (setting-specific practice, role and ethics), cross-cultural communication and practical tasks in the afternoons. The practical tasks enabled the teaching team to determine the students' level of competence and consolidate strengths and build on areas of weakness.

Between the two intensive face-to-face weeks a period of workplace experience was built in as a means of continuing the learning experience and offering the opportunity for the students to implement what they had learned in the first week and for us to evaluate learning in the workplace and further modify the curriculum in view of the uptake of skills learned and the identification of skills and knowledge required for the final face-to-face session. A number of targeted learning activities were also planned during the Phase 2 workplace experience module. These included visits to institutions where interpreters frequently work to observe interpreters working. These institutions also provided presentations on their institutions and their approach to working with interpreters and guidelines for interpreters working in that institution. A number set up simulated practice (for example, Refugee Review Tribunal, NSW Courts) for the students to gain experience of work in that setting.

In order to maximise their contextualised learning during Phase 2 students were linked to a mentor for their workplace interpreting experience during this phase

and were encouraged to undertake as much practice and observation of interpreters as possible. Of course, many were working as professional interpreters during this time, but the essential role of the mentor was to assist them to undertake this work in a reflective way to develop those skills for the sustainability of their learning during the course.

Phase 3 was designed to enable students to draw on the skills and knowledge gained from the course and their interpreting experience, to identify their strengths and weaknesses and target their learning to further build their interpreting skills. The focus was placed on practical skills rather than theory building. Any theory that was felt to be necessary was integrated into practical tasks.

Consistent with Gibbs (1988) model of reflective practice, we aimed to draw on the interpreters' experience in the workplace, introduce theory to enable transformative learning to take place and incorporate learning tasks that would enable to the students to transform their experience into learning. The shifts in awareness were to be implemented in classroom practice and in mentored workplace experience as outlined in Schön's (1985) concept of the practicum.

Given the potential for learning from formative assessments (Black & Wiliam, 1998), the curriculum allowed for regular informal assessment in the classroom. For these assessments to be meaningful, constructive alignment (Biggs & Tang, 2000) was implemented in the curriculum design as follows:

- needs analysis conducted during the first Steering Committee meeting informed curriculum design

- screening criteria drew on the results of the needs analysis and enabled the research team to establish baseline levels of competence

- competency definitions were reflected in teaching components and formed the basis of observational and self-assessment criteria

- formative and summative assessment drew on competency definitions

6.3.4 Evolution of the curriculum model

In this section, I will describe the first draft of the curriculum model and then describe how the model evolved in response to feedback. The first draft of the curriculum in three phases was presented to the August 13th meeting of the Steering Committee for initial feedback. The first draft included the content, learning objectives and timetable for the three phases.

Three versions of the curriculum were produced in all after the three major stages of review and revision: the first stakeholder and teacher meetings prior to Phase 1 of the trial; following feedback and evaluation and the second teachers' meeting at the end of Phase 2 of the trial; and a final version at the end of the project incorporating input from the final phase, final stakeholder and teachers' meetings. The following discussion of the curriculum design will identify the modifications of each of the three versions and present the first and final version.

Constructive alignment in the curriculum

Constructive alignment (Biggs & Tang, 2007) ensures that a curriculum has integrity across learning outcomes, learning and teaching tasks and assessments. Given the potential for learning from formative assessments, the curriculum allowed for regular informal assessment in the classroom. For these assessments to be meaningful, constructive alignment was implemented in the curriculum design as follows:

- needs analysis conducted during the first Steering Committee meeting informed learning outcomes

- screening criteria drew on the results of the needs analysis and enabled the research team to establish baseline levels of competence

- competency definitions were reflected in teaching components and formed the basis of observational and self-assessment criteria

- formative and summative assessments drew on competency definitions

Learning objectives (Bloom, Engelhart, Furst, Hill, & Krathwohl, 1956; Biggs & Tang, 2007) for each of the phases were developed from the needs analysis and

reviewed at the teachers' meeting on August 27th. Learning objectives reflected the curriculum goals (Tyler, 1949; Stenhouse, 1975; 1980), content and pedagogies as well as the profile of the students obtained from screening. From the learning objectives we were able to define competency descriptors that guided the reflective components of the course by providing the assessment criteria for self, peer and teacher assessments.

An example of how alignment has been incorporated into the curriculum is shown below in Biggs and Tang's (2007) model of alignment. In this example, the learning and teaching activities are teacher-managed (interpreting practice, case study reviews and glossary development). They correspond to the learning outcomes: "demonstrate professional approach to interpreting" and "English/LOTE vocabulary" and "select appropriate LOTE/English words" and are assessed through the self-assessment of the competencies and in the final summative assessment. These learning outcomes could be considered to be "Quite satisfactory outcomes" (Biggs & Tang, 2007).

Figure 28   Aligning intended learning outcomes, teaching and assessment
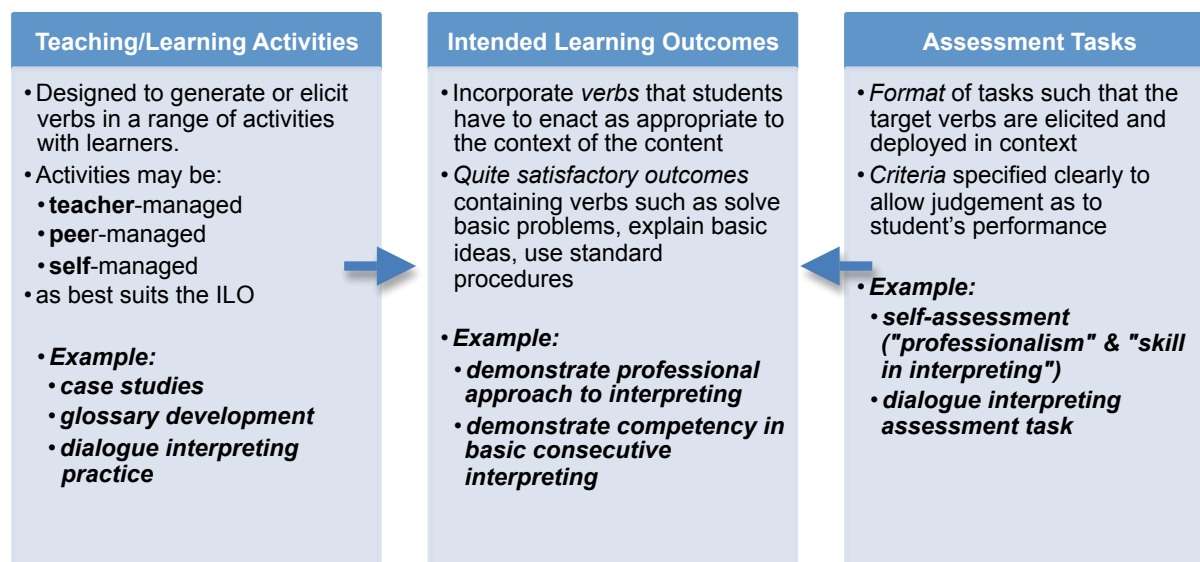
(Adapted from Biggs & Tang, 2007, p. 59)

Competency descriptors

In implementing Biggs and Tang's (2007) model of curriculum alignment (in Figure 28 above), we sought to translate the Learning Outcomes into competency

descriptors that could be used for the purpose of assessing learner progress and achievement. The competency descriptors translate each Learning Outcome into observable skills or techniques, for example, "Skill in Eng>LOTE Interpreting" is unpacked into interpreting skills and techniques such as: "Select appropriate LOTE words", "Present message using clear articulation". The more concrete statements of learning objectives and outcomes are easier for both teachers and learners to use for both assessment and learning tasks. The HCIS was keen for us to use the competency descriptors that they have used in assessing their interpreters. Further discussion of how the competency descriptors were implemented in the assessment of the learners during the trial of the curriculum is provided in Chapter 7 (see also Appendix 7 for the full list of competencies used in the Phase 3 assessments).

Learning objectives for Phase 1

- demonstrate competency in basic consecutive (dialogue) interpreting techniques
- participate in interpreting role plays using different interpreting techniques
- identify cross-cultural communication issues
- explain the importance of cultural-specific knowledge in interpreting
- discuss ethical practices of interpreters in the form of case studies
- distinguish between different interpreting contexts

Content

- interpreting techniques
- interpreting practice
- cross-cultural communication
- the importance of culturally specific knowledge in interpreting
- the ethics of interpreting
- workplace specific knowledge and practices

Learning objectives for Phase 2

- develop understanding of ethical and professional aspects of interpreting practice.

- introduce students to the concept of professional role and the specific aspects of the role of the professional interpreter.

- to provide students with an ethical and professional framework within which they can carry out their interpreting and translation practice and make informed professional decisions in the workplace.

- to introduce students to a range of professional interpreting practice issues in the Australian context.

Content

- course participants placed with one of the industry partners with a mentor (expert interpreter) and under supervision of a team leader in the workplace.

- students' interpreting monitored and evaluated

- identification of further training needs

Learning objectives for Phase 3

- demonstrate consolidation of interpreting skills

- demonstrate competency in consecutive and simultaneous interpreting techniques

- demonstrate professional approach to interpreting

- demonstrate ethical interpreting practice

- demonstrate incorporation of cross-cultural dynamics into interpretations

- demonstrate understanding of contextual influences on interpreting

Pedagogy

The curriculum model did not aim to include information about pedagogical approaches or content in the teaching components. For this thesis I have identified pedagogy as a component of syllabus rather than curriculum. Therefore, once the educational philosophy was established, the teachers were encouraged to implement this philosophy in their teaching.

Draft curriculum version 1

The first draft of Phase 1 allowed for a balance of theory and practice, with a stronger emphasis on practice over theory (in terms of contact hours). The reflective skills were introduced on the first morning in the goal setting exercise. Phase 2 was left open at this early stage as the potential sites needed to be contacted and the observations and activities set up. Phase 3 was designed to allow for reflection on the skills and techniques covered in in Phase 1 and reflection on workplace experience in Phase 2.

Table 8   First draft Phase 1 August 12th 2003

	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9.00	Welcome and introductions	Cross-cultural communication	Code of ethics	Interpreting techniques	CBI techniques
10.00	Orientation and goal setting	Cross-cultural communication	Code of ethics	Interpreting techniques	CBI techniques
11.00	Community interpreting	Role of the interpreter	Interpreting theory	Interpreting practice	CBI practice
12.00	CBI contexts	Role of the interpreter	Interpreting theory	Interpreting practice	CBI practice
1.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
2.00 – 5.00	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks

Table 9   First draft Phase 3 August 12th 2003

	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9.00	Review of Phase 1	Issues raised in Phase 2	Cross-cultural comm'n	Cross-cultural comm'n	Cross-cultural comm'n
10.00			Interpreter role and ethics	Interpreter role and ethics	Interpreter role and ethics
11.00			Interpreting techniques	Interpreting techniques	Interpreting techniques
12.00			Interpreting practice	Interpreting practice	Interpreting practice
1.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
2.00 – 5.00	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Review of whole course

6.4   Results of analysis of feedback

In their feedback on Phase 1 stakeholders recommended including a session each morning to foster reflection on learning and consolidate skills, knowledge and techniques that were learned the previous day. Other feedback stressed the need to make sessions as practical as possible, to make the focus on consecutive interpreting techniques (short consecutive or dialogue interpreting) and the skills required for coordinating talk discussed in Chapter 2 in relation to the coordinating function of dialogue interpreting (Wadensjö, 1998). Suggestions on alternative pedagogical approaches consisted of introducing case studies for reflection, panel discussions on issues related to ethics and professionalism. Suggestions for content included introducing the notion of advocacy in sessions on role, to discuss conflict and political issues as well as cultural mediation. Additional context-specific techniques included telephone interpreting and sight translation. Stakeholders also suggested including sessions on terminology and glossary building. This component is particularly important when equivalent terms don't exist in one of the languages, such as the names of medical techniques, body parts and functions in medical interpreting or legal procedures in court interpreting. They also recommended building in fixed breaks to avoid overload.

Feedback on Phase 2 suggested that the length of this phase be extended to at least 6 weeks if not more. The stakeholders suggested working with students to establish personal goals to be achieved during this phase. It was also recommended that we build in mentor training for the interpreters who would be mentoring the students in the workplace. It was also suggested that the students be paid for the work they do during this phase.

Phase 3 feedback included the recommendation to intensify the Suggestions to include additional content on how to obtain work with different institutions, information about income tax, professional indemnity insurance and working conditions as well as a session by AUSIT on professional solidarity (one of the principles of the AUSIT Code of Ethics (AUSIT, 2002). The stakeholders also suggested adding two more phases: a Phase 4 immersion in workplaces and a Phase 5 consolidation during a final face-to-face session.

All the recommendations were carefully considered and incorporated into the model except the suggestion to include two more phases. This was financially unfeasible and impractical for the research and teaching team. It would also have had an impact on the students financially as time spent in the classroom represented lost income.

The teaching team provided feedback on the revised version of the model at the first meeting on August 27th. Feedback on Phase 1 included to stipulate "basic" in the Learning objectives for Phase 1 and to take out "simultaneous". The teachers considered that the Learning objectives should be more about awareness raising about dialogue interpreting and the skills and techniques that were required than the acquisition of higher level skills such as the simultaneous mode that is considered to the domain of the conference interpreter. The inclusion, or not, of the simultaneous mode for psychiatry and court (as chuchotage) was the object of extended discussion during the teachers' meeting as was the question of note-taking:

> Jane: "There's a big difference, when you're so busy...it's the eye contact thing. You know there you are with your two people, **if you then get out a pad a pen and go like that you've lost your eye contact, you know you've lost your immediacy there**. I do take the point with psychotic patients but often the interesting part of psychosis is the speech patterns. So if the person says (bla bla bla). The healthcare practitioner needs the bla bla bla (and that does not usually get noted)."
>
> Teacher's meeting 09/09/2003

The teachers stressed that they thought it preferable to maintain as much flexibility as possible in the curriculum. They also recommended that to avoid saturation and overload there should be as much group work and task-based learning as possible as opposed to teacher-centred delivery of content.

The feedback on Phase 2 included a list of potential sites for fieldwork and observations, and the research team followed these up. Feedback on Phase 3 included the suggestion to include an introduction to *chuchotage* as a way of introducing the simultaneous mode in a technique that is used by dialogue interpreters in the court or medical setting. The teachers also suggested including a session about the importance of professional development for lifelong learning in the final session on professional practice that was suggested by the stakeholders.

All the teachers' feedback was incorporated into the model and presented at the September stakeholders' meeting. No further feedback was received at this stage and this version of the model (Tables 10 & 11) was implemented during the trial. Further feedback came from the teachers after implementation of Phase 1 of the trial at their December, 2nd meeting and during the assessment-related meeting after the completion of the trial in February. The teachers' meetings involved extensive discussion about the students, the pedagogical approaches, curriculum content and professional issues. Here I will report only the analysis of data that is relevant to curriculum and pedagogical issues. Data that informs other questions about the trial and students will be discussed in Chapters 7 and 8.

There was a number of strong and recurrent themes in the teachers' discussions of the curriculum after having delivered Phase 1. These related to the candidates' profile, particularly language competence, the range of skills and techniques to be taught/acquired, pedagogical matters relating to the best means of working with the students and how to get more face-to-face time with the students. The curriculum model specified broad topics to be covered. The teachers were able to narrow these down once they had met the students and had observed their interpreting ability. They also suggested ways in which skills could be integrated in the delivery of the curriculum.

Specific interpreting skills and techniques that were discussed were the management of time lag or chunking of the source (the amount of talk that can be memorised before the interpreter needs to intervene and take a turn), use of 1st and 2nd person and when it is appropriate to use 3rd person, managing the relationship between interpreting technique, memory and note-taking, managing eye contact, finding equivalence through use of synonyms and paraphrase, role and when it is appropriate to add cultural information, how to achieve the appropriate speed of delivery and understanding accuracy and equivalence. In terms of the pedagogical approaches, the teachers were concerned about allowing space in the curriculum to adequately model interpreting.

A focus on language skills was also a major topic in the discussions. The teachers were particularly concerned about how to best work on pronunciation given the limited time available. Work on pronunciation concerned both support for comprehension of English and also oral expression including on stress and

intonation. The other aspect of language that was discussed related to vocabulary and the ability to achieve accuracy in interpreting, finding synonyms and paraphrasing.

Suggestions on how to best work these elements into the curriculum focussed on integrating the skills across language and interpreting sessions. For example, the work on intonation and stress can be demonstrated in relation to identifying semantic units that can assist with the chunking of segments and understanding turn-taking.

The feedback from this meeting contributed to modifications to the Phase 3 curriculum to be delivered in February. In order to have more intensive sessions on language and interpreting skills, the students were split into three smaller groups of 5 students per group for the afternoon sessions.

Jane: "This would be great if we could divide them and you could work on their English skills and I could work on their you know the actual shadowing and the paraphrasing ?[29.35]."

Annette: "Fiona can work on language skills too".

Jane: "Yes. Fantastic. They love the English skills work. It's really valuable for them. It's also, with a view to interpreting, really important that they understand the semantic units so that they can jump in, so if they - you know, as you were doing with both eye contact and emphasis if you can encourage them to use that, then when I have to take over... my work's done".

Fiona: "Pronunciation is a big thing".

The teachers felt they needed more one on one (small group) time to work on the student language and interpreting skills as discussed in the extract from the December meeting above. The smaller groups were also seen to be useful to enable the less vocal and dominant students to express their views:

Annette: "What about the idea of when we're doing individual work or small group work therefore that some could approach Fran and talk to her about cross-cultural issues privately. I mean as in, you know...that they may have concerns that they don't really want to express in a bigger group or =="

Helen: "==Sure. Yeah, I think that's a good suggestion actually because I think there are probably issues that - particularly for the=== -"

Fiona: "(Sudanese) in particular".

Helen: "Well, I'm thinking because of the - because of the - Sudanese group, you know, there's a definite hierarchy there.

Fiona: "Yes, there is=="

> Helen: "==And you know there's - Malusi is a spokesperson for all of them and I don't know whether there's sort of approval for the others to actually you know air any issues that they've got, particularly the women, so I think that's a good idea".
>
> Annette: "That's what I'm thinking, the women may not be so keen to speak about those problems in a big group".
>
> Helen: "They may defer to Malusi".

As indicated in Chapter 5, there was a large Sudanese group with two older male community leaders. We observed during the classes that the younger women deferred to their community leaders and were reluctant to express their opinion. This was another reason to schedule smaller group work in the final week.

The analysis of the classroom observations did not produce any suggestions in relation to curriculum content. Much of the observation focussed on the evaluation of pedagogical approaches and this will be discussed in Chapter 7.

6.5   Curriculum changes

Following the analysis of the feedback about the curriculum the curriculum model was updated. In the Tables 10 and 11 below, the final versions of the curriculum are presented. Modifications from v1 are shown in blue. In terms of the timetabling, a 30 minute break was inserted to ensure that the morning breaks were maintained and the afternoon session was split into two sessions for the practical tasks to allow for a break if needed. The first morning session was reduced to 30 minutes to allow for a review of practical tasks from the previous day. In addition, the first goal-setting activity on Monday was included with the introductory session and a follow up assessment task was included. The sessions on Tuesday and Wednesday on the Code of Ethics and Cross-cultural communication were swapped. This was to enable a better scaffolding of role building from the revision of the Code of Ethics. The session following that was a seminar on how the Code of Ethics informs role. The final new session in that series was a workshop on role and professionalism. As suggested by the teaching team, more detail was included in the description of the interpreting practice tasks and a session on telephone interpreting was included following the needs analysis and suggestion from the stakeholders.

Table 10   Second draft September 12th 2003, Phase 1 v2

	Mond	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9.00	Welcome and introductions Goal setting	Review of practical tasks	Review of practical tasks	Review of practical tasks	Review of practical tasks
9.30	Initial task oriented assessment	Code of ethics	Cross-cultural comm'n	CBI techniques (consecutive)	CBI techniques (consecutive)
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Community interpreting	Code of ethics and interpreter role	Interpreting theory	Dialogue interpreting	CBI techniques (telephone)
12.00	CBI contexts	Interpreter role and professionalism	Interpreting theory	Telephone interpreting	CBI practice
1.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
2.00-3.30	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks
4.00-5.00	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Preparation for fieldwork

Table 11   Phase 3 v2

	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9.oo	Welcome and overview of week's programme HS	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies Jane	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies Jane	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies Jane	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies Jane
9.30	Review of Phase 1 and 2 Learning and skills development T and H	Interpreting practice: English equivalence Jane	Interpreting practice: Memory and lag Jane	Interpreting practice: Memory and lag Jane	Assessments Jane and Annette
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Practical response to problems identified in Phase 2/Overview of interpreting practice Jane	2 parallel sessions: gp 1: Cultural awareness raising Fiona gp 2:Paralinguistic and oral production work Annette	2 parallel sessions: gp1: Medical interpreting exercises E gp2: interpreting practice Memory and lag Jane	2 parallel sessions: gp1: Social service interpreting exercises E gp2: interpreting practice Memory and lag Jane	Assessments cont'd Jane and Annette
1.oo	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
2.oo (5.oo pm finish)	3 parallel sessions: Paraphrasing Jane/Annette/Fiona	Glossary development	3 parallel sessions: Legal interpreting E interpreting practice Jane/ lab work	Telephone interpreting exercises E and T	Professional practice: working as an interpreter Party

The Phase 2 timetable was left open again pending invitations and suggestions from institutions and to allow for mentored workplace experience.

Table 11 shows the final version of Phase 3 after delivery of the Phase 1 trial and the December teacher's meeting and incorporates feedback from that meeting. Notable modifications are the inclusion of the case studies in the first session of each day and the re-structuring to allow for 2 or 3 parallel sessions for practical work (for example, memory and lag-time, English/LOTE equivalence, paraphrasing, telephone interpreting). A glossary session was included on Tuesday afternoon and setting-specific practice was introduced as one of the parallel sessions with language work and interpreting practice. Two full sessions for summative assessments were included on the Friday and a final session on professional matters to prepare students for their return to the workplace. The Steering Committee suggested having a party in the final session.

6.6 Pedagogies

As mentioned above, pedagogical approaches were not explicitly include in the curriculum design and were not considered to be a focus of this study as I consider that level of detail to be more relevant to syllabus design. Implementation of our educational philosophy was encouraged through the curriculum design (making time for reflective sessions and practical language, cross-cultural and interpreting sessions) and selection of teaching staff. The curriculum model allows for learner-centred experiential learning by including sessions on review and intensive practice.

Pedagogical approach was nevertheless a focus of some of the classroom observations in Phase 1 and of the discussion in the teachers' meetings.

The teachers were committed to using experiential learning approaches such as roleplaying interpreting techniques rather than just talking about them. They were concerned that the guest teachers from the institutional partners were using more interactive lecture type learning that was not consistent with the educational philosophy.

> Jane: I found that glossary work in the afternoon …that was just looking up a dictionary, and it began on the basis of plonking the dictionary down, 'cause this is how you learn language right we're going back to the dictionary, so here's a – terms you look up… three hours I couldn't believe that. I mean..
>
> Fiona: I think it sends the wrong message and 'cause I think a glossary is a very good idea, and how you elaborate a glossary and how you categorise, and how everyone had different ways of how you dealt
>
> Helen: That wasn't dealt with at all.

The teachers expressed their concern that the students were not learning the skills that they would need in the workplace and their concerns mainly related to the pedagogical approaches, in particular the lack of exploitation of real-life learning experiences.

6.7   Conclusions

In this chapter I have reported on the processes for the design and development of the curriculum model. I have demonstrated how through the collaborative relationships set up in the design of the action research project input was provided for the initial draft and how feedback contributed to the final modifications for implementation during the trial.

The final curriculum model included much more detail on the content of sessions and was better structured in relation to the scaffolding of skills and techniques in a more developmental approach to learning (McKernan, 2008). The collaboration of the stakeholder group/Steering Committee focussed more on the broader elements of the curriculum such as the range of components to satisfy industry needs, while the teachers tended to focus more on the detail of each component, such as what interpreting skills and techniques should be taught in the interpreting practice components.

The action research orientation was valuable in enabling further revisions based on data from the screening interviews and survey of candidates and from the implementation of Phase 1. The first draft for Phase 3 of the trial lacked detail and did not adequately scaffold learning and we were able to modify those aspects of the curriculum and develop a more refined model for the implementation of Phase 3.

This process also demonstrates the reflexivity for us as teachers and curriculum designers. As we collected input to the curriculum and observed how it was implemented we learned more about the interaction between the curriculum and the students and teachers and what components of curriculum are important and how they function in practice.

In the next chapter, I will be providing a more targeted view of the curriculum in action from the trial. The perspective will be evaluation and how it informed both our understanding of the students' learning and our assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of the curriculum for future implementation.

Chapter 7
Evaluation within and on the curriculum

7.1   Introduction

In the previous chapter, I have shown how the early design of the curriculum was informed by the literature on interpreter education (such as Fowler, 2007; Gile, 2005; Hale, 2007; Rudven & Tomassini, 2009) and by education more broadly (such as Biggs & Tang, 2007; Dewey, 1938; Ornstein, Pajak & Ornstein, 2011; Schön, 1985). Further input came from the results of the screening of candidates, from consultations with the stakeholder group and experts in the field and from a series of reviews by the teaching team. The process was consistent with recommendations for the implementation of an educational innovation (Fullan, 2001; Slatyer, 2005) by seeking input and consultation from those who are most likely to be impacted by the innovation and with the EPIC model of planning for evaluation (Holden & Zimmerman, 2009). The collaborative action research orientation framed this process and encouraged a reflective stance from the research team (McKernan, 2008; Carr & Kemmis, 1988) that enabled us to critically evaluate both the processes and products of our work and to improve them as our understanding deepened.

The next step in the curriculum design and development process was a trial of the curriculum with the cohort of screened interpreter candidates. The trial took place between November 2003 and February 2004 with the 3-phase structure described in Chapter 6. I have already reported on the evolution of the curriculum model as a result of observations during the implementation of Phase 1 of the trial. In this chapter, I will describe how evaluation *within* and *of* the curriculum (Tyler, 1949) was conceived and then implemented during the trial. I will then report on the results of data analysis of the assessments, the Phase 2 interviews with the students and evaluations of the curriculum by the students. I will also report the evaluations made by two members of the research team from observations done during the implementation of Phase 1. The Phase 2 interviews with students had three main objectives: to gain further qualitative information about their evaluation surveys of Phase 1, to discuss their experiences of Phase 2 of the curriculum and to undertake a portfolio conference with them in a collaborative approach to learning and

assessment as suggested by Shohamy (2001) when students may not be familiar with assessment practices. The portfolio conference helped students to track their learning, discuss their personal learning goals and to give input to the reflective components of the curriculum. There are also elements of evaluation that occurred during the classroom observations and teachers' meetings that will be reported in this chapter. The results of analysis of aspects of these data sets that informed the curriculum model have previously been reported in Chapter 6.

7.2   The curriculum trial

7.2.1 Overview

The curriculum trial started on November 17th, 2003 with the 15 student interpreters recruited from the screening process. Of those 15, 12 completed the course (see Table 37 below). The three students who did not complete were Nadifa, Petina and Madhur. All three completed Phase 1. Petina and Nadifa undertook some site visits in Phase 2 but were not present for the Phase 2 interviews and did not complete any fieldwork and did not continue to Phase 3. Nadifa and Petina withdrew for family reasons and Madhur was delayed overseas and missed Phases II and III completely.

Phase 1 was delivered intensively over one week from November 17th to 21st 2003 on campus at Macquarie University. Phase 2 took place off-campus in a range of institutions over a 10-week period from November 24th to February 6th 2004. Phase 3 was delivered over one week from February 9th to 13th 2004.

During the face-to-face intensive weeks, the students were engaged and motivated learners despite managing family and work commitments and often travelling long hours to attend the classes. We had organised for catered morning and afternoon breaks in accordance with the recommendation from the Steering Committee. The morning breaks were scheduled into the curriculum and the afternoon breaks were left flexible to allow for tasks to be completed during the afternoon practical sessions before breaking. The breaks assisted with creating a strong community of learning (Schön, 1985; 1989) in the group as staff and students mingled over tea and chatted informally about their experiences of interpreting and learning.

Table 12   Completions

Name	Completion	Notes
Amina	Completed	
Nadifa	Withdrew	Nadifa completed Phase 1. Withdrew for family reasons during Phase 2.
Yaya	Completed	
Yared	Completed	
Saeisha	Completed	
Bakri	Completed	
Mya	Completed	
Samira	Completed	
Fara	Completed	
Petina	Withdrew	Petina completed Phase 1, but cited family commitments as the reason she needed to withdraw.
Maia	Completed	
Haki	Completed	
Nijam	Completed	
Malusi	Completed	
Madhur	Withdrew	Madhur completed Phase 1. She intended to complete the course but was unable to attend Phase 3 as airline industrial action prevented her return from overseas in time.

During Phase 2, visits to institutions (such as STARRTS, HCIS, RRT, Police, different courts and tribunals) were organised by a member of the research team. During these sessions the institutions gave an overview of the activity of the institution and the role of the interpreter within that institution. They also organised a role-play with the professional staff and students acting as the interpreter. Where feasible, observations of interpreters working in the institutions were organised and this depended largely on the activity of the institution as to whether public presence is acceptable or not; for example, some courts and tribunals have a public gallery and they issue a list of current hearings. It is usually possible to request information about the presence of an interpreter and the language that will be used. For medical settings, it is usually only possible to arrange simulated observations except on the rare occasions when the patient and doctor agree to have an observer present.

The other component of Phase 2 was mentored fieldwork. The students were expected to complete on average 6 hours of work per week over the 10-week period. The period had originally been defined as 6 weeks, but since the trial took place near

the summer holiday period, Steering Committee members suggested that it would be more prudent to extend the period to 10 weeks to allow for people to take leave. During this period, some of the students returned to their usual work as interpreters and others required their mentors to organise supervision of interpreters working and to set up fieldwork experiences for them.

The research team was responsible for the visits to institutions and the two partner institutions were responsible for the fieldwork component. One of the research partners provided a very structured programme of mentoring and supervision that enabled students to observe their (where available) same language supervisors in action and undertake supervised practice themselves. If they were able to do supervised practice they were evaluated on their work and received feedback and guidance from their mentors. However, the other partner institution failed to organise the fieldwork in a satisfactory way and despite repeated attempts to contact the mentors and supervisors by both the research team and the students, no supervised or mentored fieldwork appeared to take place. This was a frustrating and disappointing experience for the students who were to undertake their fieldwork in that institution.

7.2.2 Reflective practice in the curriculum

We had identified reflective practice as an important component of our philosophy of education (Dewey, 1938) that had two implications: the sustainability of learning by preparing students to pursue their learning beyond the classroom and into the workforce and, as a means of enhancing the experiential approach to learning adopted by the teachers (Dewey, 1938; Usher, 1985). Reflective practice was, therefore, built into the curriculum model as one of the imperatives for raising the students' level of awareness about their interpreting ability and their linguistic readiness. Reflection-on-action (Schön, 1985) was implemented in the practical sessions and more explicitly in the case studies that the students developed and shared. In terms of the curriculum design, reflection-on-action (ibid.) was a learning objective of the self-assessments that required the students to understand each competency and evaluate their skills and knowledge for each.

Reflective practice was also encouraged through pedagogies that guided students to reflect on their interpreting practice as they undertook practical tasks and case study work in Phases 1 and 3 and during the fieldwork components in Phase 2. During Phase 2, reflection on learning and reflection on practice was encouraged through the completion of a learning journal (Appendix 11). The students were guided in completing targeted self-assessments that were included in the first two sessions of Phase 1 (Goal setting and task-oriented assessment) and at the completion of Phase 1 and again in Phase 3. In addition, detailed individual feedback on interpreting and language provided to the students at the end of the course served a formative purpose in providing teacher feedback to assist with their ongoing reflective practice once in the workforce. This feedback will be presented later in the chapter.

Central to the development of reflective evaluations is the creation of a framework to guide the students' analysis of their work. As mentioned in Chapter 3, competency descriptors are commonly used in the vocational training sector in Australia. These competency descriptors can be used as criteria that teachers, students and mentors use for assessment. In this case, the competency descriptors must be formulated in such a way that students can understand them and see how they apply to samples of their interpreting practice (Sindel & Slatyer, 2003). It is also essential that students be guided in their use of competency descriptors. Throughout Phase 1, guided practice in using the competency descriptors and feedback on the students' self-assessment was embedded into the curriculum where possible, but it occurred largely independently of the practical interpreting and language sessions in sessions set aside specifically for that purpose (Day 1 and Day 5 in Phase 1). As Jane reminded me recently (personal communication, July 22nd 2014), the curriculum was so tight with so much to be covered in the short face-to-face sessions, that she did not feel that she could spend time building self-assessment skills in the practical interpreting sessions. However, even though self-assessment was not formally conducted in these sessions, the reflective activities supported the self-assessment by guiding students to reflect on their interpreting and language work. More guidance was provided during the Phase 2 interviews via explicit feedback on the students' self-assessment.

7.2.3 Goal setting

The students were asked to set learning goals for the course during the first session in Phase 1. They recorded these goals in their portfolio. We had already asked them about their reasons for wanting to the do the course during the screening interviews (reported in Chapter 5). Here we asked them to set specific goals in relation to what they perceived as their strengths and weaknesses as interpreters and what they hoped to achieve from the course.

The goals the students identified were very varied and reflected their experience of learning, their experience as interpreters and their self-awareness. Maia, for example, who had the most experience in the group, stated quite explicit goals (Fig.29) as she clearly had good awareness of her strengths and weaknesses. During the screening interview, Maia indicated that she had not requested to do the course and was surprised at being recommended for it since she had undertaken many in-service training courses in the past. She nevertheless identified two goals, one that related to technique and the other an interpersonal one.

Figure 29   Maia's goals

Maia's goals reflect her self-awareness as an interpreter and her perception that her interpreting skills and techniques were largely competent.

Mya, on the other hand, shows her acknowledgement of her status as a novice interpreter (though she does not include improving interpreting ability as one of her goals) and demonstrates her awareness of her lack of experience of different settings. Mya also shows awareness of her weakness in English and the need for greater cross-cultural understanding required in interpreting.

Figure 30   Mya's goals

Goals:
I like to be a professional interpreter. I would like to improve my English skill, to identify cross-cultural communication issues. I am expecting to make friends with other interpreters. I also would like to learn interpreting in different settings like medical, legal, social services.

Further goal setting took place in Phase 2. Students were asked to set goals in relation to each of the workplace assignments that they were given and to write these in their learning journal. The manner in which these goals were formulated was the focus of much of the discussion in the Phase 2 interviews. In general, goals were expressed in too broad a way such as "to improve my English skills" (Mya), "building vocabulary" (Maia) or "to help officer and client to communicate effectively" (Fara). These goals were unachievable in a single fieldwork session and needed to be narrowed down to an achievable goal. Together we worked towards an understanding of what a suitable goal might be:

Excerpt from Phase 2 interview with Yaya

> Helen: Let's get back to the idea of a goal then – so what might be a goal that you might focus on? To identify a goal you might try and think about any problems you've had in your interpreting-
>
> Yaya: OK. So it will be my goal-
>
> Helen: That could be your goal to actually improve on that- okay (…)
>
> Yaya: Yeah something that was a bit hard (for) me and then I improve it… will be my goal ?
>
> Helen: Yes, make that your goal.

Excerpt from Phase 2 interview with Nijam

> Nijam: Well the [4:59] simultaneous interpreting which I was not familiar with. That was the first time that I did it.
>
> Helen: Right.
>
> Nijam: Yeah.
>
> Helen: So that might be a goal for example to practice-- ?

Nijam: Simultaneous ?

Helen: Simultaneous interpreting so you feel more confident about it, yeah?

Niam: Yeah.

The goal setting activity started the students' on the path to being able to self-assess by building their capacity to identify their strengths and weaknesses, to help them understand what competencies they were aiming to achieve in their learning and to formulate a manageable goal as the focus of their learning.

7.3   Evaluation within the curriculum

7.3.1 Overview of assessments

As Tyler (1949), Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998) and others have noted, evaluation within the curriculum is integral to the design of the curriculum model for the purpose of identifying the students' progress and it additionally fulfils the requirements for constructive alignment (Biggs & Tang, 2007) whereby learning objectives are aligned with learning and teaching activities and assessment tasks. As outlined in Chapter 3, evaluation can take the form of formative or summative assessment depending on the purpose of the assessment. The final Phase 3 assessment consisted of a summative assessment of learning over the course. The purpose of the other assessments carried out during the trial was to build reflective skills and provide formative feedback, whereas the summative test aimed at obtaining an objective measure of learners' interpreting ability for the stakeholders and future employers. In this sense it was a high stakes assessment. Despite being a summative assessment, the teachers nevertheless provided formative feedback from assessments undertaken during the final phase and from the summative interpreting assessment so the students could continue their reflective practice once they were back in the workforce. Continual informal assessment, that is a fundamental part of everyday learning and teaching activities (Black & Wiliam, 1998; Rea-Dickins, 2001), occurred regularly throughout the course as students reflected on their performance in class exercises and small-group activities and were given peer and teacher feedback. The value of the informal feedback was noted in the teachers' meetings and evidenced by the following quote from the December 2nd meeting while the teachers were

discussing how the language laboratory could be used to support the students' learning:

> Jane: And that's not a bad way to assess them, just listening in on them when they're doing their shadowing exercises, right. If you're just listening to them and you know you can - you can assess them in that way.

A number of the students mentioned their interest in obtaining NAATI Accreditation during their screening interviews (Yared, Saeisha, Mya, Haki, Nijam). At the teacher's meeting on December 2nd when planning for the Phase 3 assessment tasks, the teachers decided to align the final summative assessment for interpreting on the NAATI Professional level Accreditation test (dialogue component). NAATI Accreditation is the benchmark for interpreter competence in Australia. Our preferred method of assessment was a holistic and authentic performance assessment that could simulate real-world practice and allow the students to demonstrate their ability to manage the interaction and coordinate talk. However, since resources were scarce (both the financial means to pay roleplayers and assessors in each of the students' languages and the lack of individuals who could perform these roles) the teachers decided to set up a controlled NAATI style test that could be delivered in the language laboratory. This final interpreting assessment was administered according to the NAATI model as discussed at the December 2nd teachers' meeting. This assessment model had the added advantage of providing practice on a NAATI style test for those students who intended to sit for a NAATI test in the future (provided that NAATI was testing in their language). A number of students had indicated their interest in obtaining Accreditation and the results of our summative assessment of their interpreting and of their knowledge and understanding of ethics would give them a sense of their preparedness for the NAATI Accreditation test.

7.3.2 Formative assessments

The competency criteria used for the assessments were based on our initial search of the literature and 3 sets of competencies in use: one set was provided by the representatives of the Health Care Interpreter Service on the Steering Committee, another set from the interpreting diploma at one of the local Colleges and the third set from the Macquarie University postgraduate interpreting programmes. From

these three competency documents and the education literature, the research team drafted an initial set of competencies for the course that aligned with the draft learning outcomes and that reflected the content of the curriculum as explained in Chapter 6. The draft competency descriptors were vetted by the Steering Committee to arrive at a final set to be used in the trial. The competencies covered the broad criteria of Professionalism, Attitude, Skill in English>LOTE interpreting, Skill in LOTE>English interpreting, Communication and interpreting management skills and Ethical skills. Each of these criteria was broken down into a set of descriptors (see Phase 3 self-assessment criteria in 7 for the full set of competencies); for example, "Skill in English>LOTE interpreting" had the following descriptors:

- Comprehend LOTE vocabulary

- Select appropriate English word/phrase

- Use appropriate time lag so that complete thoughts are conveyed

- Inflect voice to reflect mood and intent

- Present message usage adequate volume

- Present message using clear articulation

- Present message in correct grammatical structure

- Produce equivalent interpretation appropriate to context

In Phase 1, ratings used a three-point scale: "Yes", "No", "Almost". This three-point scale drew on the scale used in the vocational training sector in Australia: Achieved, Working towards achievement, Not Achieved. The first administration yielded "Yes" on nearly all of the criteria with some "Almost" and two "No"s. Some students (*n*=3: Amina, Seisha and Bakri) chose to include a finer rating by adding a rating between "Yes" and "Almost". For this reason the rating scale was changed for Phase 3 to a 4-point scale to give the students more options in their rating and a more nuanced assessment of their learning. The ratings for the final self assessment became "Hardly ever" (1), "Sometimes" (2), "Most of the time" (3) and "Always" (4) (as opposed to ("Yes", "No" and "Almost").

The competencies for Phase 1 self-assessment were included in the student portfolio. For Phase 3, the revised set was handed out separately. The students' portfolios and

Phase 3 competency assessments were collected and scanned for analysis at the end of Phase 3. 5 students' portfolios were not able to be collected for scanning and analysis (Nadifa, Petina, Madhur, Fara and Yaya). Three of these students were those who did not return to the course after Phase 2 and two (Fara and Yaya) were absent when the data collection was made.

Self-assessment

During Phase 1, we undertook to commence developing the students' skills in self-assessment. Guided, formal self-assessments were carried out during the second session in Phase 1. In these sessions, we firstly explained the meaning of the different competency descriptors and responded to any questions the students had about them. The students then completed their self-assessment and we provided individual feedback to them. The students revised their assessments based on this feedback. The first attempt yielded "Yes" on many of the criteria with some "Almost", and very few "No"s. Each criterion and the scale was explained to the students and they were guided through the process of completing sample self-assessments. The aim of this first self-assessment was to start to raise students' awareness of the competencies they would be aiming to achieve as professional interpreters and to start them thinking about where they stood in relation to those competencies. The students undertook a second guided self-assessment at the end of Phase 1 following the same format as above and compared their ratings with the initial self-assessment. The most salient results are shown in a series of charts below with an analysis of the ratings.

The re-administration of the competencies at the end of Phase 1 yielded more differentiated results. Even Maia who was fairly confident about her interpreting skills downgraded her assessment of her management of her lag time after a week of classes (Figs.33 & 34).

Figure 31   Maia self-assessment beginning of Phase 1

Figure 32 Maia self-assessment end Phase 1

| Use appropriate time lag so that complete thoughts are conveyed | YES | NO | ~~ALMOST~~ |
| Inflect voice to reflect mood and intent | YES | NO | (ALMOST) |

The same assessment was administered again at the end of Phase 3 and I am reporting the students' self-assessments overall in the series of charts below (Figs.33 to 40), showing a selection of criteria and the scores that the students awarded themselves. Only 10 students' records were available for the reason stated above that we were unable to collect the data for 5 students: Nadifa, Petina, Madhur, Fara and Yaya.

Self-assessments of "Professionalism" (Figs.33 and 34) show the students' confidence in performing their work with a professional manner. The majority scored themselves as "Yes" on all these criteria. All believed they had a "pleasant and positive demeanour" and this is most probably a fair assessment for this criterion. Interestingly, Malusi rated himself as "Almost" on three criteria and "Yes" on three others, yet the teaching team found him to be very professional and responsible. As mentioned earlier he was one of the community leaders and showed great commitment in his work. Seisha chose to include a "Yes"/"Almost" for this one. Nijam did not complete this first set of competencies giving rise to the "No response" category.

Figure 33   Phase 1 (beginning) self-assessment "Professionalism"

If we compare these assessments from the beginning with those from the end of Phase 3 (Fig.34), a few shifts in the ratings are evident. Two students did not respond to one of the criteria yielding a "no response" in the Phase 3 assessments (Nijam and Maia for "have a pleasant and positive demeanour"). Haki decided that he did not always dress appropriately and professionally compared to the first assessment. For "Manage my time well", Amina and Malusi upgraded their ratings from 2/3 to 4/4, but Haki, Mya and Maia downgraded to a 3/4 for the Phase 3 after having rated themselves 3/3 in Phase 1.

Figure 34   Phase 3 self-assessment "Professionalism"
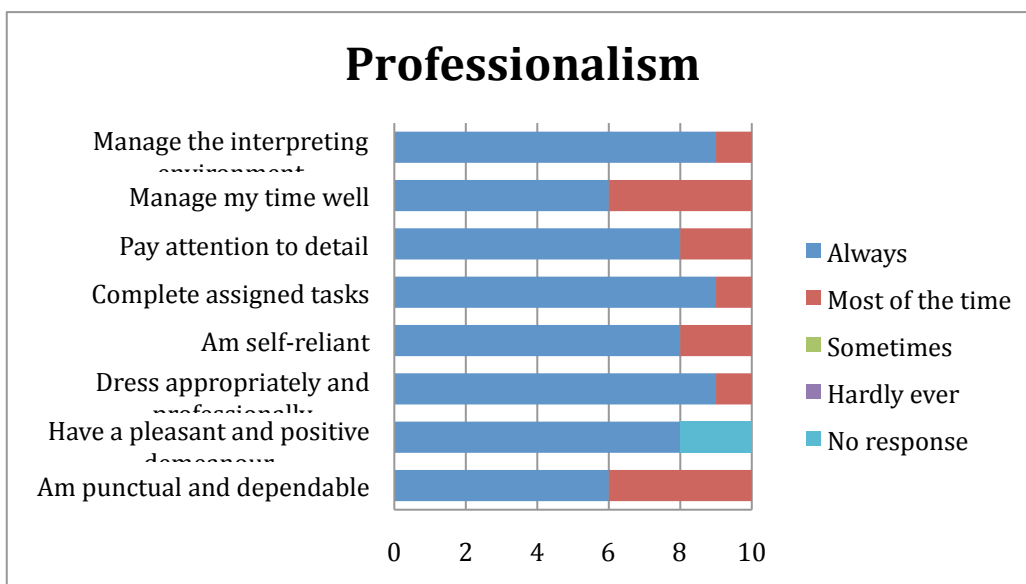
The following two competencies refer to relaying skills in interpreting. These reflect the core learning objectives in the course and the main focus of the curriculum. Figures 35 and 36 show the results for English to LOTE interpreting in Phase 1 and Phase 3 respectively and Figures 37 and 38 those for LOTE to English. The Phase 3 ratings show more cautious evaluations of the Eng>LOTE interpreting skills. "Select appropriate LOTE word/equivalent" and "Inflect voice to reflect mood and intent" had the lowest number of "Always" (n=4). "Use appropriate time lag" was the next lowest with 5 students selecting "Always" and 5 "Most of the time". For the skills in LOTE>Eng interpreting, the ratings were slightly lower in Phase 1 than in Phase 3. The criteria that attracted the lowest ratings (n=6 for "Yes") were "Present messages with correct grammatical structure" "Inflect voice to reflect mood and intent" and "Comprehend LOTE vocabulary". Apart from good awareness for these 3 criteria, the students appeared to have more awareness of their weaknesses in the self-assessments for English>LOTE interpreting than for LOTE>English interpreting. None of the students gave themselves a "No" in either of the sets of interpreting skills criteria even Saeisha who had had no previous professional experience as an interpreter. Amina and Bakri chose to include a rating of "Yes"/"Almost" for one of the criteria ("Comprehend English vocabulary" for Amina and "Inflect voice to reflect mood and intent" for Bakri). "Produce equivalent interpretation appropriate to context" had the most "Yes" ratings (n=9) for the first assessments. This shifted slightly for the Phase 3 ratings with Saeisha giving herself 4/4 (where she had rated this criterion as 2/3 in Phase 1) and Haki and Mya downgrading from 3/3 in Phase 1 to 3/4 in Phase 3. These shifts indicate growing awareness of the difficulty of establishing equivalence for the sometimes specialised contexts in which the students undertook their interpreting practice.

We would assume that the students would consider that their English vocabulary was weaker than their LOTE vocabulary. However, in comparing the two ratings for "Select appropriate LOTE words" and "Select appropriate English words", we see the contrary: in both self-assessment sessions, the students systematically rated their competence in English higher than LOTE. This is a confusing result as only one of the students of those who responded could be considered to be a dominant English bilingual (Maia), but could be explained by the suggestion (Crezee, 2015 personal communication) that the students had learned terminology in English in the context

of their interpreting practice and in fact, had no equivalent terms in their LOTE. Secondly, for the sub-criterion "Present message using clear articulation" instead of attracting a low rating of "Hardly ever" or "Sometimes" for LOTE to English, 5 responded "Always" and 4 did not respond. Other sub-criteria such as "Present message using adequate volume" and "Produce equivalent interpretation appropriate to context" were rated equally for both directions as expected since these skills are not language dependent but relate to generic interpreting skills. Further discussion with the students would have been useful here to better understand the inconsistency in some of the ratings.

Figure 35   Phase 1 (beginning) self-assessments for "Skills in Eng>LOTE interpreting"
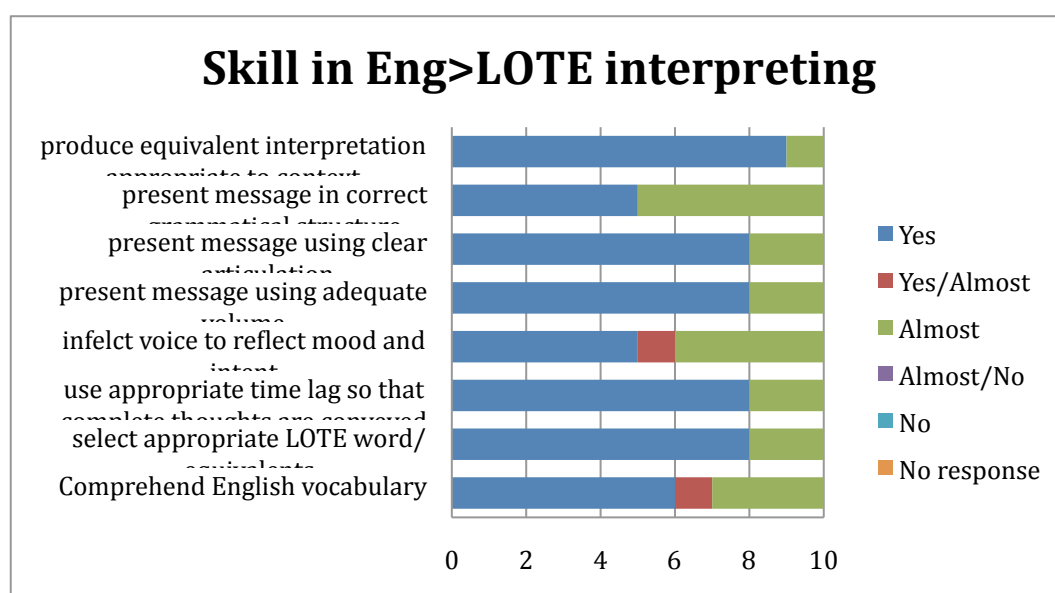
Figure 36   Phase 3 self-assessments for skill in Eng>LOTE interpreting

Skill in Eng>LOTE interpreting

- produce equivalent interpretation appropriate to
- present message in correct grammatical structure
- present message using clear articulation
- present message using adequate volume
- infelct voice to reflect mood and intent
- use appropriate time lag so that complete thoughts are conveyed
- select appropriate LOTE word/ equivalents
- Comprehend English vocabulary

Legend:
- Always
- Most of the time
- Sometimes
- Hardly ever
- No response

Figure 37   Phase 1 self-assessment for skill in LOTE>English interpreting

Skill in LOTE>English interpreting

- produce equivalent interpretation appropriate to context
- present message in correct grammatical structure
- present message using clear articulation
- present message using adequate volume
- infelct voice to reflect mood and intent
- use appropriate time lag so that complete thoughts are conveyed
- select appropriate English word/ equivalents
- Comprehend LOTE vocabulary

Legend:
- Yes
- Yes/Almost
- Almost
- Almost/No
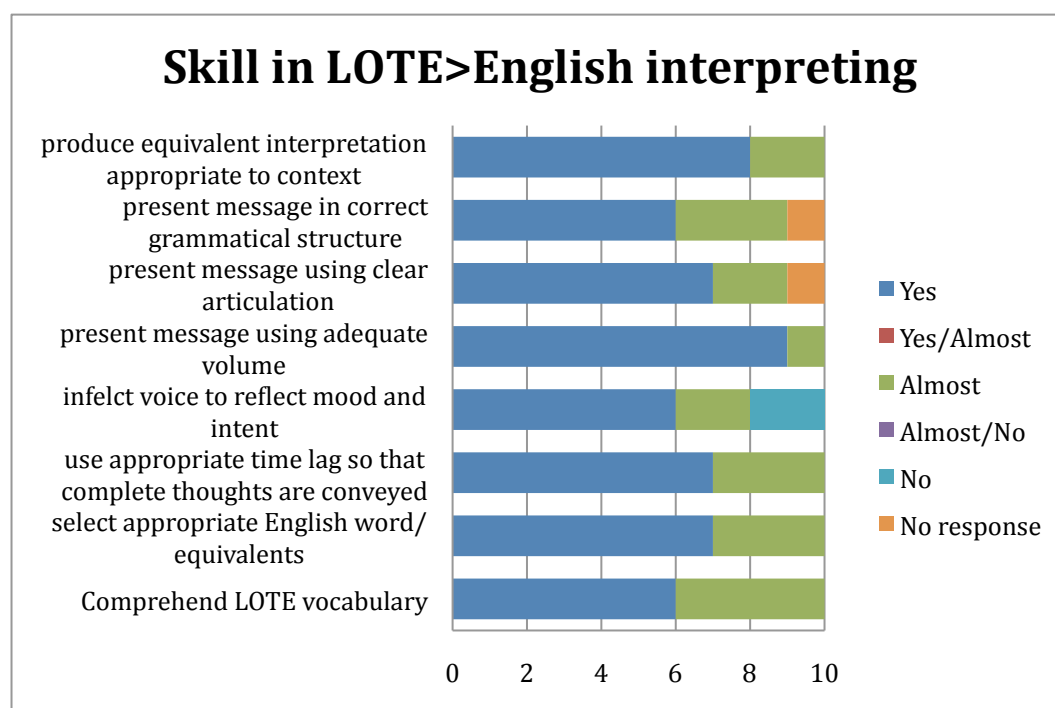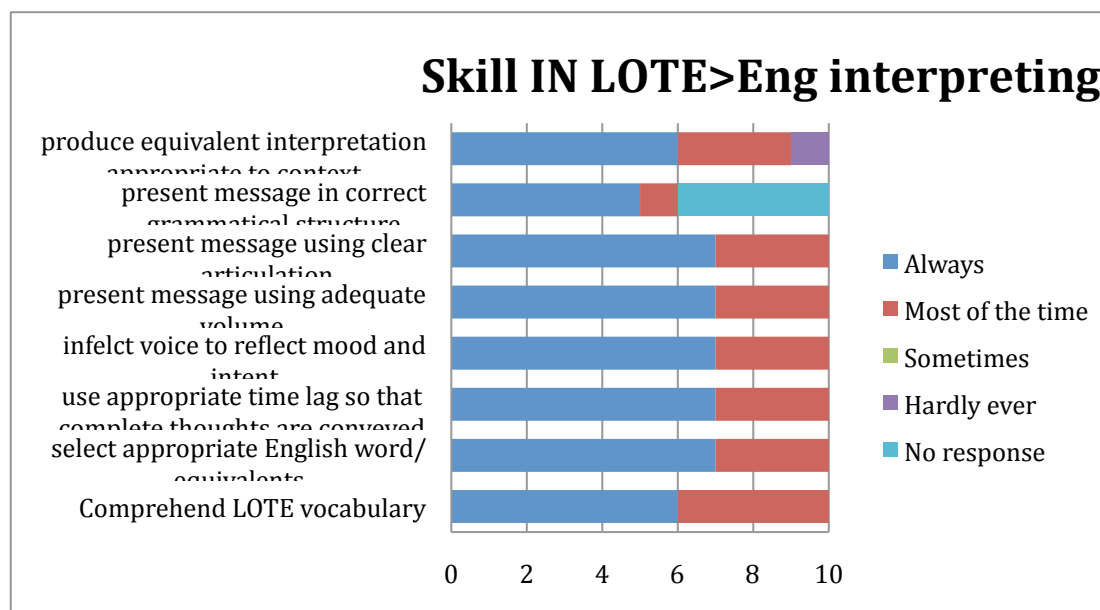- No
- No response

Figure 38   Phase 3 self assessment for skill in LOTE>English interpreting

The second criterion was "Attitude". The sub-criteria were more abstract and subjective than those for Professionalism ("Open minded and objective", "See problems as challenges") and therefore potentially more difficult for the students to understand and apply (Sindel & Slatyer, 2003) than the sub-criteria for "Professionalism". "Desire to learn" was very highly rated with only one student (Saeisha) choosing "Most of the time" instead of "Always". "Possess problem solving skills" attracted only 3 ratings of "Always" making it the lowest scored sub-criterion in the competencies. Saeisha rated "Accept my limitations" as "Hardly ever", indicating that she may not have been familiar with the culturally-embedded meaning of this sub-competence. However, overall Saeisha had the most differentiated responses to the competencies indicating that she had considered each of them and responded in a carefully considered way.

"Communication and interpreting management skills" refers to the coordination of talk as defined by Wadensjö (2002) and taught during the interpreting skills and techniques sessions with Jane. All rated these sub-criteria (Figure 47 below) positively with ratings in the order of "Always": $n=7$-8 and "Most of the time": $n=2$-3. The students were practicing the techniques listed in the sub-criteria in their practical sessions and we can therefore assume that these ratings accurately represent the students' perception of their competence, particularly since the descriptors are mostly tangible and concrete. However, there was no response from 4 of the students

(Nijam, Saeisha, Haki & Maia) for "Present message using clear articulation".
Without being able to probe this further with the students it is difficult to understand
why these 4 students failed to respond to this item. The language and concept would
not have posed a problem for Maia, Haki and Nijam (but may have for Saeisha).
During the sessions on language work, articulation in English was a strong focus and
should therefore have been a familiar concept.

> Helen: Just to finish off with this, I notice that you said English skills and that
> seems to be something that a lot of people want more on as well [yes], so we
> have Annette and also Fiona who did the cross-cultural, but she's also a
> linguist and can work with production, oral production, understanding,
> segmenting, pausing, all of those sorts of linguistic skills in English that are==
>
> Yared: == yes, yes because you know and if you are (an) interpreter you know
> you have to use the clear pronunciation, the clear way to understand you
> know, understand to the English speaker person or the other one [that's right],
> also maybe the client also can listen you a little bit English you know.
>
> Helen: That's right, learn a bit of English....
>
> Yared: That's as much (as) they can – but if you are wrongly pronouncing you
> know [yeah] they are confused you know.

Lastly, for ethical skills (Fig.48), the students rated themselves positively. All
responses feel into the "Always" and "Most of the time" except for Saeisha's who
indicated that she only "Sometimes" maintains neutrality and objectivity. Once again,
her ratings appear more nuanced than the others and reflect her stage of learning.
She appears to have developed good awareness of her ability and the capacity to
accurately self-assess. At this stage of the course, the students had studied ethics in
depth and also undertook practical training in applying their ethical principles to case
studies. They could be assumed to understand the key principles well. The self-
assessment of ethics could to some extent be confounded by language ability and also
competence in understanding the cross-cultural and interpersonal complexities of
dialogue interpreting. If students' language comprehension is poor, they will not be
able to properly understand the teaching and learning activities on ethics. Similarly, if
they have not fully grasped the complexities of role, their understanding of ethics will
be limited to formulaic responses and not reflect the learning they have undertaken
during the course that aimed to integrate understanding of ethics with role.

Figure 39   Phase 1 self-assessment of ethical skills

Ethical skills

Categories (top to bottom):
- Resolve any conflict/ misunderstanding appropriately
- Maintain appropriate neturality and objectivity
- Convey the message using language/mode most readily understood by consumers
- Convey, within ability, all content and edits or reconstructs messages only

Legend: Yes, Yes/Almost, Almost, Almost/No, No, No response

Axis: 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10

Figure 40   Phase 3 self-assessment "Ethical skills"

Ethical skills

Categories (top to bottom):
- resolve any conflict/ misunderstanding
- maintain appropriate neturality and objectivity
- convey the message using language/mode most
- Convey, within ability, all content and edits or
- Ask appropriate questions for clarification

Legend: Always, Most of the time, Sometimes, Hardly ever, No response

Axis: 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10
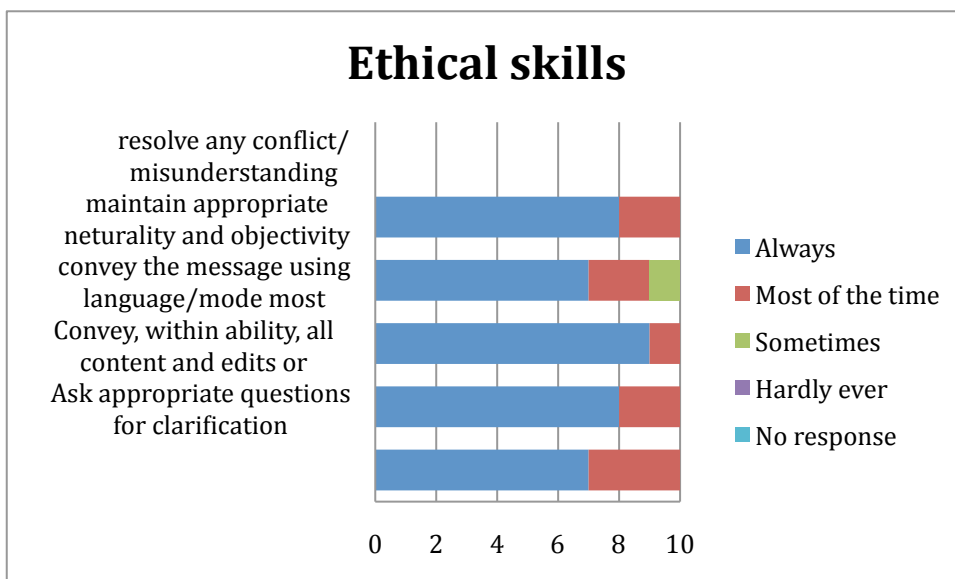
In terms of the overall quantitative shift in mean ratings by students on each of the occasions of self-assessment, the scores ranged from 2.5/3 (Nijam) to 2.9/3 (Yared) for the initial assessment in Phase 1. The range for rating scores from the end of Phase 1 assessments were 2.6/3 (Maia) to 2.9/3 (Nijam) and for the end of Phase 3 were 3.2/4 (Haki) to 3.9/4 (Malusi). Interesting to note here is that Maia's ratings were the most severe (lowest) in the group for the end of Phase 1 and yet she scored the highest mark on the final summative assessment and is clearly an experienced interpreter. Her self-assessments show an increased awareness over the course of the

different sub-competencies and her ability to use them to evaluate her interpreting. Yared also demonstrated greater awareness by using more differentiated ratings in Phase 3. For his first two self-assessments he rated all competencies as 3/3 except for "resolve any conflict/misunderstanding appropriately" as 2/3. In Phase 3 he scored 10 of the competencies as 3/4 with the remaining 27 as 4/4. This shows a greater understanding of the competencies and awareness of his ability. This was the intended use of the competencies.

Overall, the self-assessments on all the competencies are in the high range ("Yes" and "Almost" in Phase 1 and "Always" and "Most of the time" in Phase 3). Given that this is a group of novice interpreters undertaking an introductory course in community interpreting, we might question the way the students are assessing themselves. Without data from interviews with students about their use of the scales it is difficult to know how students applied them; the self-assessments were discussed and modeled with them individually before they undertook the ratings on both occasions and discussed briefly during the Phase 2 interviews. However, despite the training Samir, for example, rated himself as a 4 ("Always") on all but 6 of the criteria, which he rated as a 3 ("Most of the time").

Despite our impression that the students' ratings were on the high side the ratings from the supervisors in Phase 2 were even higher as reported below.

7.3.3 Mentor assessments in Phase 2

We received competency assessments for 8 of the students (Malusi, Amina, Saeisha, Mya, Nadifa, Nijam, Petina and Yared) from the mentors in the Phase 2 fieldwork. These assessments all came from the same major provider: HCIS. The HCIS organised a mentor who set up the fieldwork assignments and arranged for supervisors from the same or similar language background where available. Four out of the 8 students had their interpreting assessed by a same language supervisor. In some cases this was in one of the students' languages only and mostly in a mainstream language such as Arabic. All the mentors and supervisors were qualified and practising interpreters in the medical field. Six different supervisors and mentors completed the evaluations. Overall, the evaluations are higher than the students' own self-assessments with most students being rated at the highest level on all

competencies. I am only reporting the assessments from the supervisors who had the same language combination as the student they were observing. These supervisors were able to check the accuracy and quality of delivery of the students' interpreting, whereas supervisors who didn't have the same language combination could only observe the macro features of the interpreting (interpersonal management, cutting in, etc.) and the English language delivery. The mentors who provided assessments spent time observing the students in their practice, but were not able to assess accuracy, as the mentors did not have the same language background as the students.

The comments corroborate the teachers' evaluations of the students included below. Mya's lack of confidence was considered to be one of her main weaknesses. Yared's strengths were his confidence and professionalism and his weaknesses relate to precision (accuracy) and the need to manage long segments. Of all the students, Malusi received the lowest ratings. His same language supervisor rated him as "Almost" on 4 of the criteria for Eng>LOTE interpreting skills and 6 of the criteria for LOTE>Eng interpreting skills.

Figure 41   Phase 2 supervisor assessment of Eng>LOTE interpreting skills
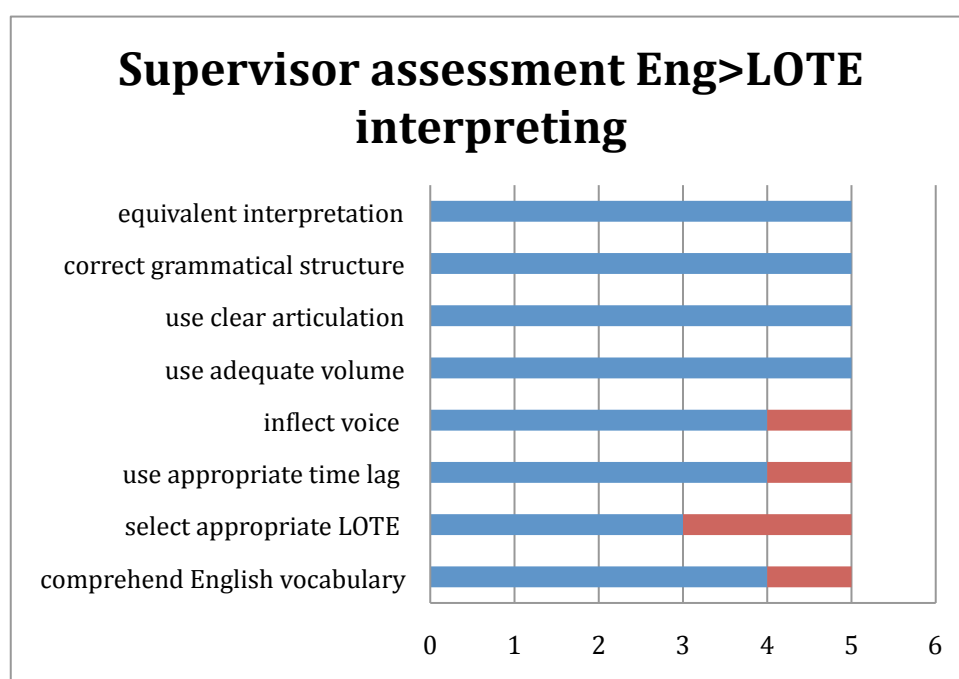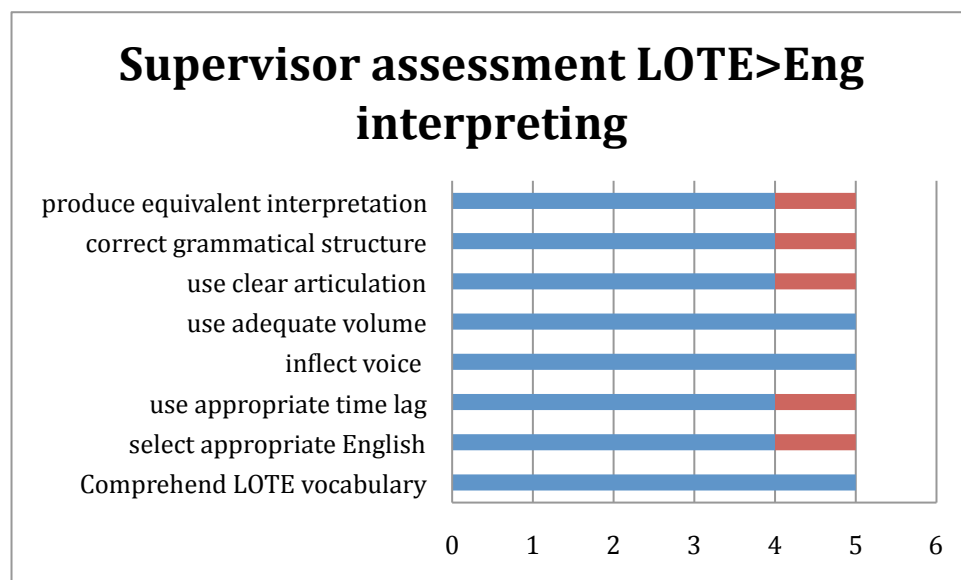
Figure 42   Phase 2 supervisor assessment of LOTE>Eng interpreting

Supervisor assessment LOTE>Eng interpreting

Category	Value
produce equivalent interpretation	
correct grammatical structure	
use clear articulation	
use adequate volume	
inflect voice	
use appropriate time lag	
select appropriate English	
Comprehend LOTE vocabulary	

7.3.4   The final summative assessment

The summative assessments for interpreting accuracy and equivalence and for ethics were administered on the final day of the course. They were designed to provide a more objective measure of competence than the formative assessments described above. The final assessment tasks were decided at the December 2nd teachers' meeting.

Given that we had no means of assessing students' interpreting between English and their LOTE due to a lack of resources (language experts in the students' languages for developing equivalent versions of the tests in each of the languages and assessing the students' interpreting), we had to devise an assessment that could give as reliable a measure as possible independently of an assessment by LOTE examiners.

As outlined above, the design of this assessment was a compromise between face validity and greater reliability and practicality (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). The teachers decided on the following model: a simulated interpreter-mediated dialogue was administered to students on the last day of the course via audio-cassette in the language laboratory. Jane, the interpreting skills teacher, designed the following test: a 284 word text representing a monologue from a doctor providing a diagnosis and treatment plan to a patient (Appendix 8)

The students were instructed to firstly interpret the text into their LOTE. They were asked to chunk the source into manageable segments according to what they had learned about managing time lag. They worked on recording their interpretation of a LOTE version that they finalized when they judged that they had arrived at an acceptable interpretation. The LOTE version was then back-interpreted and recorded. They were allowed as much time as they needed for this task.

The English language back-interpretation was then scored using the NAATI scoring method: an error deduction method centred on three criteria (accuracy, target language quality and delivery). The ratings are subjective in the sense that they are holistic judgements of the interpreting performance. Normally, the NAATI method is applied to a source text in one of the candidate's languages and a target text in the other or in the case of the dialogue segment, in both the candidate's languages. The rater makes a subjective judgement and deducts marks according to the seriousness of the error (Slatyer et al., 2008). In the case of the test administered here, the source and target text were English language texts and we were measuring the difference between the two. It was therefore a more objective process as this step in the rating involved matching the English source with the English target. The more subjective part of the process was deciding the number of marks to deduct when discrepancies in accuracy and equivalence between the two English versions were identified.

The interpreting test was designed in this way on the basis of the Steering Committee's concerns about the need for a more objective measure of student ability in the absence of language specific models and raters. I also believe that the Steering Committee members were influenced by their familiarity with the NAATI Accreditation test as the most widely implemented form of assessment for interpreters in Australia (Slatyer et al., 2008) and widely considered to be an objective measure (ibid.). At the March 13th meeting, it was decided that a cut-off score of 85% accuracy on this test would be the pass level for the course in view of future employment as interpreters. A score of 85% accuracy effectively meant that 15% of the back interpretation deviated in meaning from the source text.

The scores achieved for accuracy on the dialogue interpreting assessment (Table 7) range from 97% (Maia) to 0% (Samir). Only 6 achieved the 85% required to pass the course.

The other formal summative assessment was an ethics test. This was a pencil and paper test (see Appendix 9) designed to assess knowledge of the AUSIT Code of ethics and the ability to apply it to case scenarios. This test was based on the format of the NAATI Accreditation exam for the reasons given above. Ethical practice was assessed separately in the Friday morning session on the basis of the student's analysis of a case study of their choice. Cross-cultural competence was assessed informally during the teaching tasks delivered in Phase 3.

Table 13   Final results (Interpreting accuracy & ethics)

Final results	Accuracy	Ethics
Amina	82%	60%
Yaya	40%	30%
Yared	83%	70%
Saeisha	70%	28%
Bakri	80%	78%
Mya	92%	94%
Samir	0%	44%
Fara	93%	Did not complete
Maia	97%	90%
Haki	92%	82%
Nijam	88%	92%
Malusi	90%	64%

In addition to these formal assessments, multiple samples of the students' work were evaluated by Jane, Annette and Fiona to provide a more rounded assessment of the students' strengths and weaknesses for formative purposes. A detailed report on each of the students including language analysis, interpreting skills (accuracy, professionalism, management of the communication) ethics and cross-cultural

communication was presented at the March 13th Steering Committee meeting. The reports were also sent to the students.

As the project and this thesis have evolved, the students' profiles have become richer and more well-rounded to constitute individual cases within the broader case study (Yin, 2014). To continue building these cases, I am including the final reports on the students. These assessments by the teaching team provide a detailed profile of each of the students from the teachers' perspective and complement the students' and mentors' assessments.

Maia

Maia's application of ethics was demonstrated consistently. The Friday morning presentation was disappointing, not sufficiently analytical, but in group discussions of other situations shows sound knowledge and application of code of ethics. Maia also has excellent language skills demonstrated in the shadowing work which was very good. Both speaking production and listening comprehension skills in English are highly developed. Maia is an excellent communicator in English. Test Equivalences often appropriately used and presents an excellent professional manner. She had good recognition of semantic chunks enabling but tends to allow the practitioner to stop before jumping in, but can adapt to jumping in style. Interpreter-mediated communication is very well managed.

Fara

Fara has a sound knowledge and application of ethical principles. Fara was not able to complete the ethics test, but her ethical understanding was demonstrated in her response to tasks over the duration of the course. Speaking production and English comprehension skills are generally excellent. The marked rhythm of her spoken English may occasionally require close attention on her listeners' part, but is not an impediment to understanding. Some accuracy problems seem to stem from syntax, for example. *"he may need to have his arm in plaster"* becomes *"maybe he needs to have his arm in plaster"*. Equivalences are generally good, with the odd lapse: *"from time to time"* is given for *"on an ongoing basis"*. She has an excellent professional approach. Her management of the interpreter-mediated communication tends to rely on consecutive interpreting, placing strain on memory, rather than cutting in to

interpret. Her effort to concentrate as a consequence results in a break in eye contact (looking away) which fits in well with HCIS model, sitting behind patient. She can nevertheless perform in dialogue form and is a good enough interpreter – and self-analytical enough – for this to be a useful exercise.

Haki

Haki has a good knowledge of ethics. In the morning segment, he raised procedural issues (getting booking office to rearrange assignments to suit the interpreter) and cultural sensitivity (importance of speaking through the husband in ante-natal interview with the wife). His spoken English and English comprehension skills are well developed. His spoken English is clear and generally accurate. He makes occasional minor errors in grammatical structure and articulation, for example, has a tendency to omit word endings, such as 's' and 'd' finals; substitutes 'th' sound with 'd'. However, these issues do not interfere with overall intelligibility. He is a confident and skilled communicator. His final interpreting test indicated a slight editorialising coming in because he'd prepared the test (as they all had) and knew where it was heading. His professional approach is faultless. He quickly adopted the jumping in exercises and language work, showing good analysis of semantic chunks as revealed in speech rhythms. He demonstrated an appropriate level of voice and eye contact for the purpose of coordinating the interpreter-mediated communication.

Mya

Mya knows the ethical principals, but if challenged is hesitant to assert them. Issues of body language and dilemma of unrecognisable (untranslatable) medication – each dealt with appropriately if haltingly. She has a high level English comprehension and spoken English skills and is a sensitive and thoughtful communicator who is generally easy to understand. Some language features mean that her speech requires close attention on the part of the listener, for example, a limited number of articulation errors (such as omission of consonant endings – t, d, k, s and substitution of some vowel sounds), occasional grammatical errors and a slightly staccato speech rhythm without clear stress markers on key information words. Her interpreting contains some awkward grammar: *"You should be able to stop the (kidney) stones building up again"* becomes *"We can stop to build up the stones again"*. Equivalences were equally low as she lacks assurance in English and has

difficulty finding different ways of presenting the same information. Her professionalism is beyond reproach, but her presentation is severely hampered by a lack of conviction. Her eye contact and level of voice are low, therefore do not provide a strong enough framework for proper dialogue between parties and for coordination of the talk. Mya's results would be transformed by an increase in confidence. She's good, if only she knew it.

Malusi

Good knowledge and understanding of the application of ethics in practice demonstrated in the morning sessions. Malusi has a well developed knowledge of English structures and good level of English comprehension skills. His spoken English lacks clarity in part because he speaks rapidly and does not articulate well. Dental issues compromise his ability to achieve suitable consonant contact and he substitutes a number of English vowel sounds. Occasional mis-stressing and lack of focus on key information words can also compromise communicative effectiveness. Despite these difficulties, Malusi is an engaging and very competent communicator. Both Malusi and Nijam were deferred to by the other students for their knowledge of Dinka so one can assume that their LOTE skills are very good. Good exploitation of equivalences. Some lexical problems, for example, *"From midnight onwards, you <u>must not</u> eat or drink anything"* he offered *"From midnight on, you <u>will not need to</u> eat or drink. Not at all."* He has an excellent, professional approach. His level of voice and eye contact are appropriate for coordinating the talk which he handles extremely well – he seems totally on top of the communication.

Nijam

Nijam also has good knowledge and understanding of the application of ethics in practice demonstrated in the morning sessions. He has an excellent knowledge of the structures of the English language, well-developed comprehension and interpersonal skills. However, his spoken English requires close attention on the listener's part because he does not articulate well. This is partly due to dental issues which make it difficult for him to achieve certain consonant sounds and a lack of awareness about the importance of articulation in effective message transfer. Nijam is very conscientious in his attempts to be accurate and if his equivalences are not quite there yet, one feels that his attitude will ensure that he will improve. Good

professionalism. Perhaps his level of voice is a bit low to competently coordinate. Nijam was absent for instruction on jumping in[17] and for the class on chunking, so we cannot comment on those skills. In his tape test he moved virtually into simultaneous – he let the tape run on and tried (not very successfully) to keep up. He needs the missing instruction to give him the confidence to regulate the pace of the dialogue.

Yared

Yared's application of the code seems a trifle haphazard. He tends to editorialise – tells the client what Yared feels he should know. His morning segment was more an exercise in storytelling than analysis. He is a very competent communicator despite numerous difficulties in spoken English. His slow, deliberate delivery helps listener comprehension. However, he needs to work on his grammatical structures and syntax and to be aware that systematic errors can become permanent features. He makes a number of repeated articulation errors, such as vowel and diphthong substitutions and inaccurate consonant sounds (for example, 'th' replaced by 't' or 'd'). Occasionally he mis-stresses individual words. He also needs to emphasise key information and broaden his communication and vocabulary range. There seems to be a big gap between his perception of (his own) accuracy and the reality. He always appears confident and in control and comes across very strongly in this, at the expense of accuracy (covers up for what he does not know). When corrected, always has a reason as to why what he has said is right or appropriate. He also had difficulty with the jumping in concept and needs to better recognise semantic chunks in English before he can successfully dialogue-interpret. He performs better when he is close to the speaker.

Amina

In her morning segment, Amina gave an excellent demonstration of how she handled some thorny issues (mainly procedural – being mistaken for one of the clients and sorting out the clients – asking the friend to refrain from speaking to the client in front of the health practitioner. She generally has good level of English speaking and listening comprehension skills in face-to-face contact and is an engaging conversation partner. However, she needs to broaden her vocabulary and communication range. A

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[17] "Jumping in" is the term used by Jane to describe the process by which an interpreter forces her interlocutor to cede the turn. This is also referred to as "cutting in" and corresponds to an implicit coordination as proposed by Wadensjö (1998; 2002)

number of articulation errors need attention, for example she substitutes 'p' for 'b' ('beoble' instead of 'people') substitutes 'ch' for 'sh' ('mush' for 'much'). Her speech a little stilted, but this will improve with practice. She needs to work on her grammatical structures and syntax – as there are numerous inaccuracies which may be challenging for her listeners. Amina's results on the interpreting test (82% on her second attempt) are very disappointing in view of her competent manner. She has a tendency to make things up, to fill in gaps in knowledge with whatever she thinks sounds good. Another one who presents very strongly – but deceptively so. She is appropriately assertive, but severely compromised by lack of accuracy. Her jumping in needs to be addressed as she tends towards simultaneous mode and in the role play exercise we did not correct this as we assumed that her accuracy must be excellent. In later accuracy tests, the results cast severe doubts over this method of interpreting. She needs to slow it down and get it right.

Bakri

Bakri's morning segment dealt with a few issues, procedural (signing of papers at tribunal hearing), technical (patient addresses him directly, asking who the magistrate is) and ethical (to whom is Bakri responsible, the magistrate who organised the hearing or the doctor?). In each case his response was appropriate. He also displayed a willingness to learn procedures and to properly apply the ethical code. Bakri is potentially an excellent communicator in English, but needs both practice and experience in spoken English exchanges. The main difficulties relate to rhythm and pace. His speech is too rapid, with little consideration of the needs of the listener. For example, there is not enough prominence on key words and grammatical structures are occasionally inaccurate – both features which require the listener to pay close attention in order to understand the message. Rhythm is slightly staccato which makes comprehension difficult over a lengthy exchange. He generally has a lack of clarity in articulation. Equivalences need work, as does his comprehension of English for interpreting purposes (mistaking *consideration* for *concentration, bladder duct* for *bile duct*). Bakri has a very hesitant delivery, but we feel sure he will develop a stronger approach as he becomes more confident in English. His coordination of the talk will improve too. He was able to pause the tape appropriately in order to interpret comfortable segments.

Yaya

In discussion, Yaya seems to have knowledge of the broad principles of ethics. However, her morning presentation was not very enlightening. She commented on fixed seating arrangements of an antenatal interview - is a minor issue for interpreters. Her lack of understanding of ethics was also born out in the ethics test (30%). Yaya generally presents as a confident communicator, but has numerous speaking problems that compromise her intelligibility. She needs to work on grammatical structures, as she is pigeonising her speech to achieve fluency. Phrasing and prominence on key words is working quite well, but is not sufficiently consistent - a problem partly created by her use of inaccurate structures. There is a number of articulation errors, such as substitution of 'p' for 'b' ('interbreter', 'dibloma' instead of 'diploma'), omission of final consonant sounds (t, st, d), some vowel errors and the substitution of 't' and 'd' for 'th' sounds ('dere' for 'there'). An advanced course in spoken English and Grammar skills is recommended. She has the potential to be a very effective communicator in English. In group work, Yaya seemed to frame expression in a simpler and clearer way than the students she was working with (Nijam, Malusi and Yared). Generally she seemed good at picking up meaning. Her test result of 70% was therefore disappointing. She needs a lot of exposure to equivalences in English (or just English?), because she's making mistakes of tense/mood which ultimately compromise meaning.   She needs to be more assertive to impart a satisfactory level of professionalism and is content to follow rather than guide the flow of conversation. She also needs to develop skills to coordinate the communication.

Saeisha

It is hard to determine Saeisha's application of the code of ethics. In her morning session, she spoke of a series of interpreting jobs for a client who recognised her as being a Dinka speaker, posing the dilemma of a small community being served by a handful of interpreters (my analysis, not hers), but did poorly on the ethics test (28%). Saeisha has had little opportunity to formalise her knowledge of English and she needs to redress this in order to achieve accuracy in both grammatical structures and articulation skills. She tends to pigeonise her English in order to achieve fluency. Her stressing and rhythm are too regular and there are numerous articulation errors

which need to be addressed, such as use of 'y' instead of 'j'('yob' instead of job) or 'b' instead of 'v' ('bisit' rather than 'visit'). She needs lots of practice and experience but is nevertheless an attentive and responsive communicator with great potential. Her results on the interpreting test were very much compromised by poor English (poor comprehension as well as poor expression). Saeisha has a very soft voice and her uncertainty, hesitancy and overall lack of confident presentation are not overly auspicious for an interpreter. Eye contact, while being adequate, was not used well to coordinate the flow of communication.

Samir

In his morning session, Samir spoke about assignments he had done with no insight (critical or otherwise) at all. He appeared not to understand the object of the exercise, even though he was one of the last to speak. His performance on the ethics test was nearly passable (44%) which may indicate that he is more at ease with written English than spoken. Samir presents as a very confident and able communicator, however he needs to address crucial gaps in both his English speaking and listening comprehension skills and to broaden his vocabulary range. These areas will improve with time, but serious application is important if he is to reach a professional level of competence in English. His grammatical structures and articulation skills in particular need improvement. Articulation problems include the substitution of some vowel sounds and some inaccuracies in the production of consonant sounds (use of 's' for 'th' - Strasfield' instead of 'Strathfield'). In his accuracy test, even on his second attempt, he betrayed his lack of comprehension of English in a way that no other exercise did. His soft voice and difficult English hamper his presentation and indeed his professionalism. His jumping in skills are poor because he found it difficult to isolate semantic chunks. He follows rather than directs making coordination of the talk challenging. The teachers considered that Samir was not ready to be interpreting.

In the above assessments, lack of ability in English or certain aspects of communication in English appears to be the main source of problems in interpreting ability. However, the lack of competence was often difficult to detect during the screening or classwork. Samir was an enigma to the teachers because he appeared to

be a competent communicator. Their conclusion is that perhaps he was good at covering his weaknesses.

> Fiona: You know we actually felt that his English skills were – this was covering up – it's like a person who can't read or write and they have strategies for covering them up because Annette, after we'd put them in the labs … Samir was meant to be doing [shadowing] shadowing…but he was just acting the clown and they all thought he was very funny.
>
> Fiona: It came out ( ) he'd tried it twice this text and the second time was no better than the first. Not better even though, the first time he hadn't really been practicing because he'd been acting the clown, so fair enough, went back, knew he had to slow down, shadowed with Annette, right with Annette following and Annette then you know I said he's not understanding any of this English – and you were really amazed by that weren't you?
>
> Jane: So it's his oral comprehension?

Confidence was also a big factor, both too much and too little were problematic. In the evaluations above, Bakri and Amina were overconfident in their work and this gave us a false impression of their ability.

> Annette: I was observing Amina…while I do not understand Somali and I feel confident that Amina used appropriate vocabulary and judging by the patient's responses and the flow of the conversation, she appears fluent in LOTE, certainly is fluent.
>
> Jane: Hmm… whether she's accurate or not is another question
>
> Terry: But we have found out that she makes things up a lot. She makes sense but she makes them up.
>
> Jane: She's one of those very confident ones.
>
> Terry: She comes over very well, yeah. And she's very honourable, you know she wants to do the job well and so – very good attitude I think.
>
> Jane: Oh indeed, but there is a big face saving thing in there that we have to be wary of.
>
> Annette: Yeah. It was Amina who said you will bleed and you will need a blood transfusion [yes] even though the text said it's possible…//
>
> Jane: //And you don't have to eat at midnight if you don't want to. And those little black dots are what are making you sick [yes]…
>
> Terry: What were they?
>
> Jane: Gall stones.

On the other hand Mya and Saeisha lacked confidence and this was seen to impact on their ability to competently coordinate talk. The students were trained to coordinate

talk by assertively taking a turn when required ("jumping in"). Managing turn-taking was a strong focus of the interpreting practice reflecting the findings of the discourse based research reported in Chapter 2. However, the students' ability to manage this appeared to be closely linked to their level of confidence in their interpreting and their interpreting experience; for example, some had developed habits of allowing the speaker to run on, placing a load on their memory, or alternatively switching to whispered simultaneous mode. Managing turn-taking was a strong focus of the interpreting practice.

Successful students (those achieving the requisite 85% on the Accuracy test) received a Certificate of completion. The Steering Committee was reluctant to give a "Certificate of Interpreting Competence" in view of the summary nature of the curriculum; "Certificate in Interlingual Communication" was preferred. The potential confusion when novice interpreters are awarded a Certificate with the work "interpreting" in it was also mentioned by one of the experts in this field who expressed her concern about he potential for confusion and recommended using a different title.

All those who failed to reach the required 85% were offered additional language and interpreting support as guided self-study over 12 weeks before attempting a supplementary test. The students who opted for this (n=4) subsequently achieved 85%. This meant that 10 of the original 15 students who commenced the course achieved the Certificate. Only two of those who completed Phase 3 did not receive a Certificate, they were Amina and Samir. Amina was upset at not receiving a Certificate first time round and was not interested in completing a follow up course of instruction to get her over the line. Samir had already indicated his preference for pursuing his original profession in the law.

7.4   Evaluation of the curriculum

Evaluation of the curriculum was ongoing over the life of the project. The purpose of this type of evaluation is formative (Lynch, 1996) in that it aims to observe a programme as it develops in order to make improvements. This approach is consistent with the recommendations of Tyler (1949) and Stenhouse (1975) who

advocate that curriculum evaluation should occur concurrently with the development of the curriculum.

In a naturalistic approach to evaluation (Alkin, 2013) the triangulation of multiple sources of evidence is crucial in order to obtain the "thick description" required for this type of evaluation (2010), to capture the different perspectives of all the stakeholders (here I use the term stakeholders in the broad sense as suggested by Fullan [2001] to include all participants and interested parties) and to improve the validity and reliability of the process.

In the following sections, I report on the results of data analysis that specifically addresses the evaluation of the curriculum. The data was collected during various meetings and interviews (teachers' meetings, student interviews) and through surveys.

7.4.1 Evaluation by the students

The students are at the heart of any curriculum development process. They are the participants on whom the programme will impact the most. The students came into the programme with aspirations to improve their interpreting skills, their language and their professional profile. It was therefore vital to capture the students' perspective on the curriculum as much as possible. Their views were obtained through two surveys at the end of Phase 1 and Phase 3 (Appendix 10) and also during the Phase 2 interviews. I will report on the results of the surveys and interview data concurrently, using the interview data to flesh out the survey results.

The students were asked to rate what they found "Very useful", "Moderately useful", "Not useful" in both the theoretical segments and the practical tasks (Figs.43, 45 & 47) and, secondly, they were asked which components they believed there should be more of and which less (Figs.44, 46 & 48).

*Figure 43   Phase 1 evaluation of teaching components*
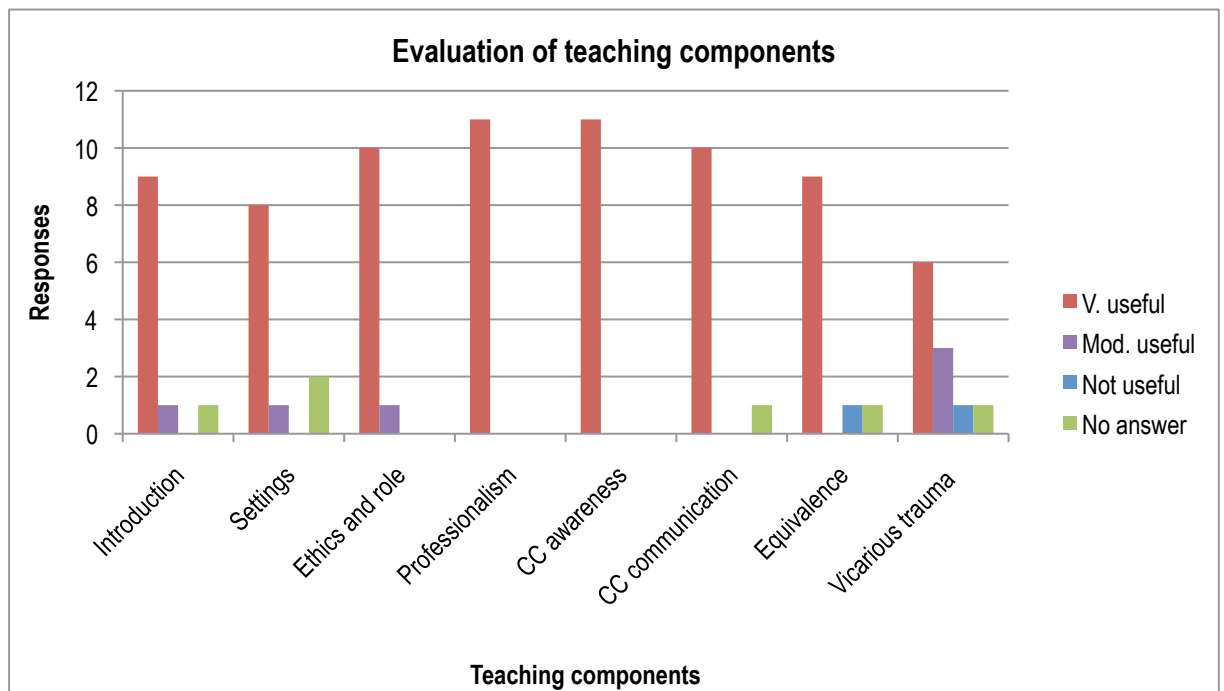
In general, the students overwhelmingly found all the teaching components in Phase 1 very useful and confirmed this in their interviews. Many noted the good organisation of the course and quality of teaching:

> The course outline was well organised. All the topics mentioned above were taught properly and I understood them (Malusi)

> All the teaching and practical components of the course are very interesting to learn and I enjoy them a lot, they make me feel confident to become a professional interpreter (Mya).

The segments of the course that were considered to be less useful were the more theoretical components, even thought these were approached in a hands on, experiential way through observing video scenarios and reflective discussion. However, students who had participated in a range of pre-service training seminars would have been exposed to ethics training and an overview of community interpreting and the different settings and may have felt that our sessions on these aspects of interpreting were redundant for them.

Figure 44   Phase 1 balance of teaching components

Balance of teaching components
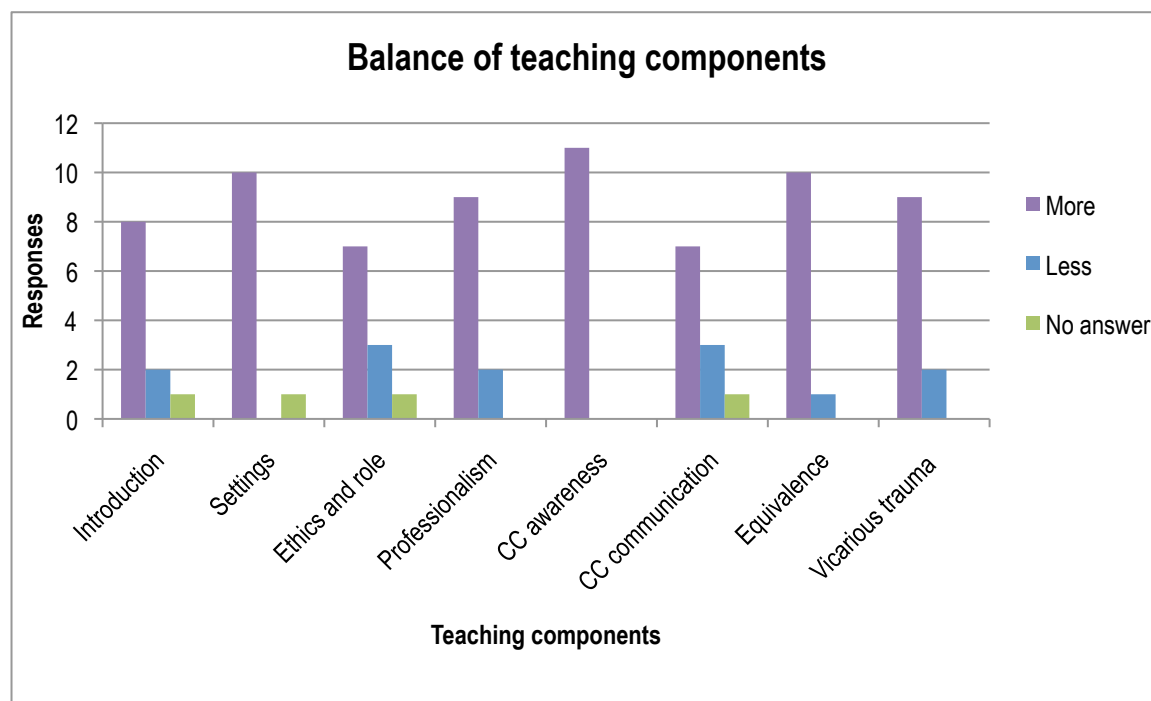
The responses in relation to the balance of teaching components in Phase 1 were mixed, but generally speaking the work on the specificity of different settings was popular (*n*=10 wanted more) as were the sessions on cross-cultural awareness (*n*=12 wanted more). These sessions explored individual student's perceptions of cultural difference based on their experience and were therefore well integrated into the practical interpreting components.

*Figure 45   Phase 1 evaluation of practical components*
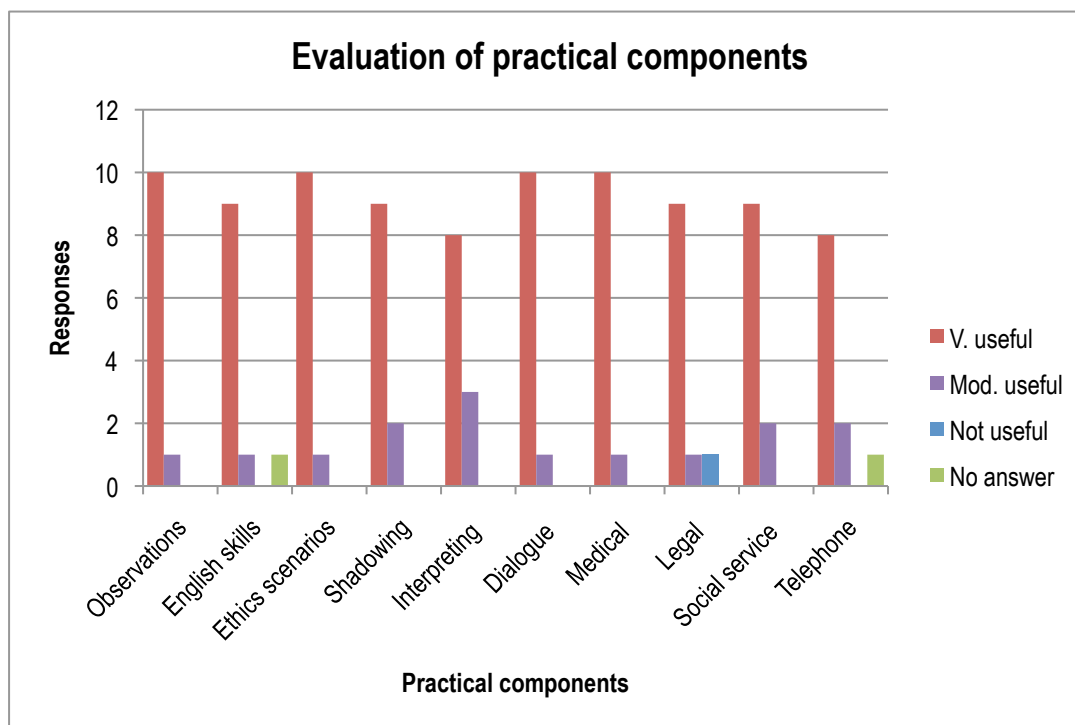
In general, the practical components of the course were popular and considered "Very useful" or "Moderately useful" apart from Fara's response relating to legal interpreting. Fara indicated that she was not interested in any legal settings:

> "The legal side of the course in my opinion was a waste of time because it is much higher than my ability 'linguistic side'".

Three students felt that the interpreting practice sessions were "Moderately useful" rather than "Very useful". These students were Yared, who had studied court interpreting previously and had worked as a court interpreter over a number of years, Maia who had been interpreting for 35 years and Malusi who commented that he would like to do more ethics and more setting-specific practice. Yared's response is interesting given his results on the interpreting component of the summative assessments. We could surmise that the practical sessions on interpreting brought him into conflict with what he had previously learned in his training in South Africa, particularly in relation to role. In this course he was being taught to coordinate the communication, a role that is not generally considered to be acceptable in the courtroom (Morris, 1995; Hale, 2004).

The support for the practical components can be seen in Fig.46 (below) where students were asked to indicate whether they would like "More" or "Less" of a particular practical component. The majority indicated that they would like more of all components with some variation relating to specific settings or techniques. All requested more English language skills and Social Service work. For students who had already substantial practice in a range of settings (Maia and Fara), observations would have had less interest. For the other components, the reasons behind the request for less of the practical components is reflected in the previous responses about the value of the different components.

Figure 46   Phase 1 balance of practical components
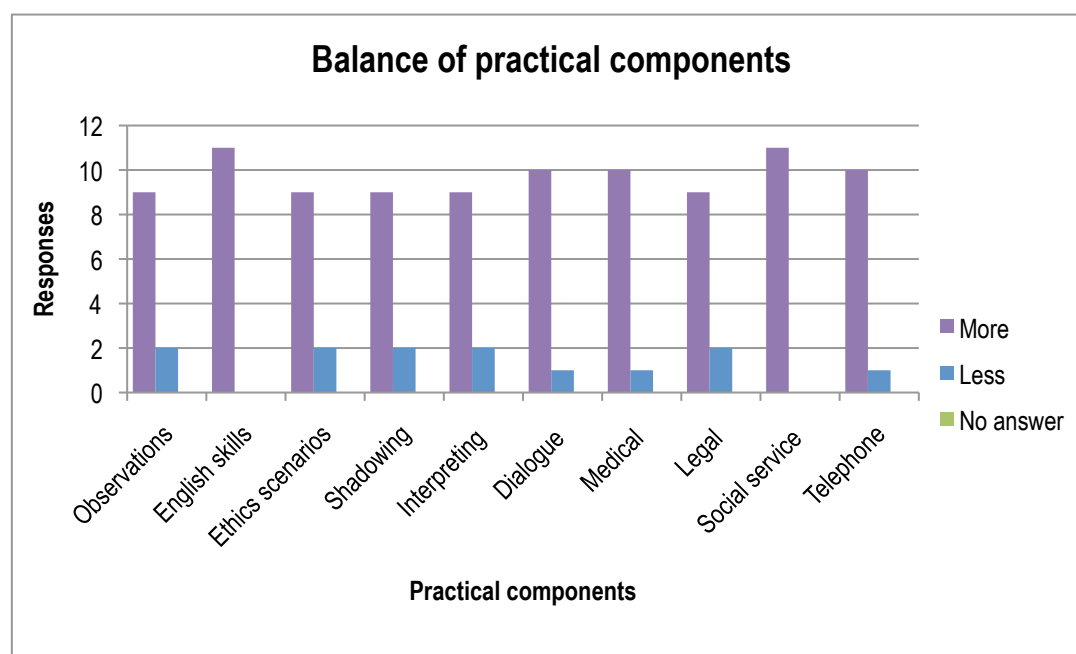
The Phase 3 evaluations of the practical components of the course similarly showed overall support for the range of activities proposed with the most support for shadowing English>English and Social Service work again. No components were considered to be "Not useful". Those components that received 10/10 (only 10 students completed this evaluation), were Eng>Eng shadowing, case studies and social service interpreting practice. The popularity of the shadowing in English is unsurprising for the students who perceived their English language skills as weak, but even for Maia, it appeared that this was still a valuable exercise.

Figure 47   Phase 3 evaluation of practical components (dialogue interpreting)
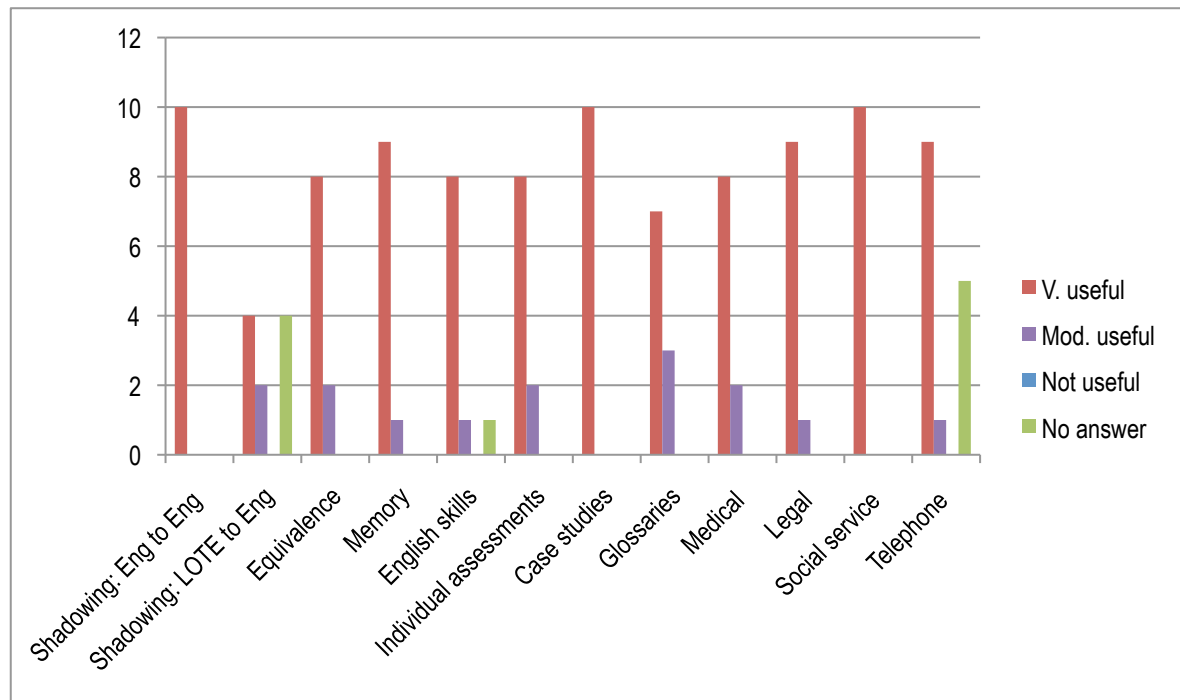
Similarly, in evaluating the balance of components offered, the students indicated their preference for language work (English to English shadowing, LOTE to English shadowing and individual language assessments). The language assessments that were provided by the language specialists in the team (phonologist Annette and ESL teacher Fiona) were very detailed and follow up work was undertaken with the students individually suggesting strategies to improve pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. Memory work was also popular in this Phase.

Figure 48   Phase 3 balance of practical components (dialogue interpreting)
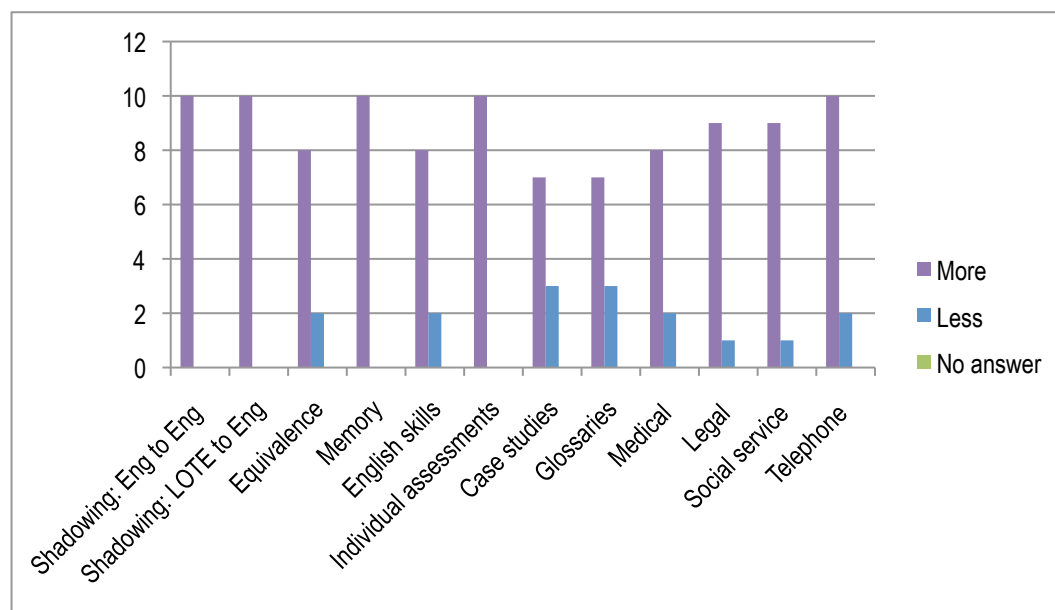
In the Phase 2 interviews, students were asked to comment on their evaluations of the curriculum. Generally speaking, the students were very satisfied with the course, as demonstrated by the evaluation survey responses. The range of teaching and practical components, balance of components, modes of delivery and organisation of the course overall was considered to be satisfactory: "This is an excellent course" and "The course was very interesting and bridge to my future goal in this profession". Many commented on their increased confidence as interpreters "I am very proud of myself to be a participant in this course. I have been trained very professionally and enthusiastically. I gained a lot of confidence" and "Now I am more confident of my interpreting skills than ever before". As noted earlier in the overall results, confidence plays an important role both in enabling students to perform competently as in the case of Mya and Saeisha or on the contrary can mean that they may be overconfident and unwilling to admit to inaccuracy or other areas of weakness (Yared and Amina).

7.4.2 By the teachers

The teachers were not asked to formally evaluate the curriculum as their evaluation and feedback was ongoing as decisions were made about the curriculum. Over the 5 teachers' meetings many evaluative discussions took place and comments were made about the curriculum and pedagogies implemented during Phase 1. Some evaluations

were made of Phase 2 and Phase 3 during the final teachers' meeting in February and these were incorporated into the final model for each of the phases and reported on in Chapter 6. Additional comments are reported here.

Variability in the students' ability and experience made decisions about the curriculum difficult:

> Fiona: But you see some will need less of your work as well, I mean Maia for example and maybe Fara, I don't know so much about Fara's interpreting, but I'd guess that they'd need less of your intensive sort of you know time-lag stuff and they'd probably need a bit of it but not as much as you know three sessions.
>
> Jane: Absolutely, because they're established interpreters, they have their own way of doing things. It's interesting or them simply from a theoretical point of view because they're not aware of what they're doing.
>
> Helen: Annette's saying that there are certain individuals that would benefit greatly from having some one-on-one work [absolutely] with either Annette or Fiona on pronunciation work.

The teaching team frequently discussed the students' problems with pronunciation and how to address them. It was a delicate matter to discuss pronunciation with the three students who had lost their front teeth during initiation in their homeland. The consequent difficulties in pronouncing English were impossible for the teaching staff to resolve.

> Annette: In fact he's quite correct and very well formulated. It's his pronunciation and he said I know my English is good but I- and I thought my pronunciation was good, but then I became aware that people weren't understanding what I was saying so he has therefore put 'no' for you know, my English is clear.
>
> Fiona: It is – his articulation that he's talking about.
>
> Annette: That's right. But he does have some problems with his teeth as well.

The problem of accurately assessing the students' language ability arose following the final assessments where the extent of errors in interpreting accuracy became apparent:

> Jane: Well I think we need to screen for English a lot more carefully. So we do get the Nijam and the Malusi's and==
>
> Fiona: ==So that we already have students who are very aware==
>
> Jane: ==Well more aware than some other ones.

Helen: More aware yeah. I mean someone like Nijam I think is interesting because his English is actually very, very good. Looking at his written English as well, it's actually very nicely expressed==

Fiona: ==Well he needs three days of pronunciation

Helen: That's right. So can we take sort of put him with Annette maybe he does not need so much of you, Jane, maybe he needs more of Annette. So we can actually sort of stream people. This is where we get – a very expensive course but in fact it might actually achieve something that's (more on target).

These comments highlight the challenges with the variability in the students' profiles and the need to design the curriculum so that individual needs can be catered to. Even with a more rigorous screening process that aims to eliminate students who don't meet basic standards of language competence, there will be aspects of individuals' language use that require targeted learning opportunities such as the problems with pronunciation discussed above.

7.4.3   Classroom observations

The observations that took place over the first week and conducted by two members of the research team provided some broad evaluative data about specific components of the curriculum. The classroom observations were mostly useful for observing the interactions between students and the teachers and to assess student engagement with the different types of delivery. These factors relate more to pedagogy, and therefore syllabus, but I will report some of the results of the observations here as they help to inform our understanding of the curriculum in action.

Figure 49 below shows an example of a completed observation schedule. This one is for a session on dialogue interpreting practice with Jane. Her session was focussed on the presentation of 2 case studies with a follow up roleplaying session to explore the difficulties presented in the case studies. The observation notes focus on the pedagogy and the success of the interactivity in this session as an example of experiential learning.

Figure 49   Example of observation notes

In-class observation schedule
Day: Thursday 20th November
Time: 2 - 3 pm

Lecturer: Jane

Activity type	Description	Observations
Hypothetical discussion	• Case study 1 of an interpreter working with a child in medical setting – discussion of various experiences/difficulties • Case study 2 of interpreting in psychiatric setting – linguistic/interpreting/ethical issues	• Very responsive participants. Activity relies on prior knowledge and experience. Jane guiding discussion by summarizing points • Discussion and asking what would you do? How would you interpret? Participants eager to give suggestions and discuss
Role play demos – dialogue interpreting	Doctor- patient interactions students take on different roles. J gives brief the lets students ad-lib. Other students observe. J guides and prompts through role play. Analysis of discussion	Lots of enjoyment, laughter. Students take on roles v. seriously. All other students paid attention and were able to provide critique. Lively discussion ** very effective activity.

In contrast to the example above, a self-evaluation by one of the lecturers who did a session on cross-linguistic equivalence shows a different result in terms of the pedagogy and content. An extract of the self-evaluation is provided below (Fig.50). This lecturer regularly provides sessions on the challenges of interpreting in the context of speech pathology for the postgraduate programmes in interpreting. In his self-evaluation, this lecturer acknowledges that his approach (interactive lecture style) was perhaps not the most appropriate for this group. He also questions whether speech pathology was the best setting to use to explore concepts of cross-cultural equivalence as it involves notions of equivalence that are specific to this setting (for example, assessments involving the production of specific consonant sounds).

Figure 50   Self-evaluation of session on cross-linguistic equivalence

In this session, I tried to address aspects of 'cross-linguistic equivalence' by contextualising them in a particular community interpreting setting with which I was familiar: the speech pathology context. My idea was to cover three broad 'themes' in the hour, namely:

- Some of the unique features of the speech pathology setting, and the challenges that it presents for interpreters, particularly with regard to the negotiation of roles

- Issues of equivalence that arise in this setting, and the different 'types' of equivalence that an interpreter may try to achieve, depending on the purpose and focus of the encounter

- Pre-session briefings and how interpreters might take an 'active' role in these, particularly in alerting the other professional about linguistic and cultural issues, and negotiating ways of dealing with these

Was the 'sample briefing session' dialogue useful / realistic? If I were to use this again, I would perhaps try to role-play and videotape it – reading through the transcript was rather tedious (for me, and probably for the students as well!)

The observation by the research team corroborates the conclusions of this lecturer's evaluation:

> Student interest flagged by lunchtime; may need more student interaction e.g. role play of dialogue in handout

The classroom evaluations were useful as a means of objectively noting what occurred during the sessions. This information was used to evaluate the success of different components in the curriculum from the research team's perspective and to check this against the teachers' and students' evaluations.

7.4.4   By the stakeholders

We obtained some encouraging, positive feedback from the international experts who were approached. "I studied your Curriculum with great interest and I find it very, very good". "Project deserves wholehearted support". More specific comments relate to the collaborative nature of the project: "The plan to develop all within a collaborative and consultative environment involving all stakeholders is a powerful and dynamic model" and "Pledges of support from industry providers – good

foundation to the course". The action research orientation also received a positive comment: "The implementation of action research in order to critically evaluate each stage of the curriculum development through to the implementation phase and use of feedback from the action research findings to be incorporated into the curriculum - an excellent approach".

There was little evaluation of the curriculum as a whole from the Steering Committee as the role and function of the Steering Committee was to provide input to the initial stages of curriculum development and approve processes and models. The input of the Steering Committee has been reported in earlier chapters (Chapters 5 and 6). There would have been little benefit in surveying or interviewing the members of the Steering Committee following the trial as their views were freely expressed during the meetings and recorded in the evolving curriculum and minutes.

7.5   Conclusions

In this chapter I have described the different processes of evaluation. This includes evaluation within the curriculum and evaluation of the curriculum. The research methods here were mixed, drawing on objective assessments, surveys, interviews and documentation.

We ambitiously introduced self-assessment into the curriculum as a means of developing the students' awareness of their interpreting ability. This is important for their future development and the sustainability of the course. Self-assessment is a culturally embedded practice that is generally difficult for students to learn and particularly so in such a short course. Nevertheless were able to observe an increase in awareness over the duration of the course for many of the students.

One of the dilemmas in this type of education for novice interpreters is the conflicting demands made on the educators. One the one hand we are aware that the students' level of competence in their weaker language prevents them from interpreting accurately, but on the other, we know that they are already working as interpreters and will continue to do so. At least by having them undertake the course, we can hope to raise the awareness of the weaker students of their strengths and weaknesses and what they should be working on to improve.

In terms of the evaluation of the curriculum, as stated earlier evaluation of the curriculum accompanied the curriculum design and development process. Two separate evaluations by the students were undertaken. The first, directly informing changes to the curriculum following Phase 1 and the second, at the end of the course. The students' evaluations demonstrate that they were in general very positive about the course but also gave us food for thought for the final revisions.

Evaluation takes place all the time in most activities (Alkin, 2013). However, as Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998) notes, systematic, formal evaluation can be an extremely onerous undertaking that strains the available resources. The ethnographic stance taken here has the potential to generate vast amounts of data that cannot necessarily be analysed if the resources are not available. In this study we aimed for obtaining adequate evidence for curriculum decisions. The question of balancing desired aims and outcomes with the practicalities of the curriculum and evaluation implementation should guide the scope and design of the evaluation project. This issue will be discussed in further depth in the following chapter.

Chapter 8
Discussion and conclusion

8.1   Introduction

In the preceding three chapters (Chapter 5, 6 and 7), I described the processes of screening candidates for the course, the different phases of design and implementation of the curriculum model and the results of evaluations of student learning and evaluation on the curriculum. Each of these processes contributed to building a comprehensive view of the curriculum for the purpose of reflecting on the strengths and weaknesses of the model. Consistent with the cyclical action research process and naturalistic approaches to curriculum evaluation research, the final curriculum model evolved in a cyclical fashion over the life of the project as each phase of the research was undertaken and new understanding and knowledge was fed into the model.

The collaborative relationships set up for the purpose of the evaluation project contributed to deepening our understanding by bringing in different perspectives to solving the problems that arose. Collaboration was fundamental in all the groups that worked on the project: in the research team, in the team of teachers, in the stakeholder group and Steering Committee and of course, in the cohort of students taking the trial course.

In this chapter, I reflect back on the project and consider whether we have achieved what we set out to accomplish and whether we have deviated from our original aim. I will do this by firstly re-stating the aims and expected outcomes of the project and compare these with the results of the project reported in the preceding 3 chapters. In essence this is a final evaluation of the project as a whole.

8.2   Project beginnings

At the beginning of the project in early 2003 when we submitted the grant application, we defined the project aims as: "This project aims to design, implement and evaluate an innovative curriculum to give initial training to interpreters from

new migrant groups in Australia". As our awareness of the contextual factors surrounding the project grew, we refined our understanding of the specifics of the project. The aim, still faithful to the original, became: "to design a curriculum model that would enable institutions to conduct preliminary training of interpreters in rare and emerging languages in a financially viable way".

The reformulated aim gives emphasis to the fact that we are proposing a curriculum model that can be used and adapted by others for use in their particular circumstances. It also defines the target language communities as "rare and emerging" rather than "migrant". We came to understand through our research into the social and political context of the study that the languages were not necessarily those of newly arrived migrants, but could also be the language of any small community of speakers (such as some of the Australian Aboriginal languages). "Financial viability" was included as we realised from our interactions with stakeholders that it was a major factor in the design of training for interpreters. In defining the aim, I have also answered Tyler's (1949) first question for curriculum research: What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? (ibid., pp.1-3)

As soon as we started the project and undertook the literature review in the early stages of planning we intuitively followed the recommended steps that would later be proposed by Holden and Zimmerman (2009) in their EPIC model of planning for evaluation. It became evident early in the project that evaluation is an integral part of curriculum design and development as both Tyler (1949) and Stenhouse (1975) have recommended. Therefore our project would not only involve the design of the curriculum model but would need to encompass its evaluation. We had always intended to trial the curriculum with a cohort of interpreting students so that we could observe the curriculum in action before making final decisions about the curriculum structure and content, but the evaluation component of the project took on greater meaning and importance as our understanding of curriculum development deepened. The evaluation process became the means of introducing reflexivity into the curriculum development process. The project outcomes, therefore, expanded to include the evaluation of the curriculum as follows:

- a multilingual curriculum model for interpreters;
- a model of evaluation for interpreter education; and

- a small cohort of trained interpreters in low demand languages.

8.3   Meeting the project aim

Following the steps in the EPIC model for evaluation planning (Holden & Zimmerman, 2009) that recommends that any evaluation project commence with an assessment of the context in which the evaluation will take place, the first step in the project involved thinking about the context in which the curriculum would be developed. The assessment of context, according to Holden and Zimmerman (2009) includes gaining an understanding of the organisational and political environment, defining relationships and determining the level of evaluation. For us, it was also gaining an understanding of the research environment in interpreter education to determine whether there were any precedents for this type of project. The preliminary literature review, undertaken by the research team at the very outset of the project, helped to establish the basic principles of curriculum design, interpreter education and research methods in evaluation. The more detailed literature review found in Chapters 1, 2 and 3 of this thesis was carried out over the period of implementation of the project and subsequently while writing this thesis to build a more robust understanding of the different theoretical frameworks relevant to the project. In Chapter 1, the history of the development of interpreter services in Australia is described against the background of the political and social evolution towards multiculturalism in Australia.

The impetus for the project came via my personal, professional networks. Those networks were engaged in the conduct of the project and continued to expand as the project evolved and more connections were made through the members of the research team and stakeholder group. The interest from potential collaborators made the accomplishment of Step 3 of the EPIC model ("Engage stakeholders", Holden & Zimmerman, 2009, p.9) easy to achieve. At the heart of the network were the two partner institutions (Centrelink and the Health Care Interpreter Service) and the people who were representing them and at the extremities were our international experts who contributed their advice and feedback. This step fulfilled the requirement for collaborative action research (Burns, 1999) and the implementation of educational change and innovation (Fullan, 2001) whereby stakeholders must be

involved in the decision making for the curriculum to remain relevant to the context in which it is being implemented.

A subsequent step in the evaluation planning process that is particularly relevant to this project is Step 4: Describe programme (Holden & Zimmerman, 2009). It is at this point in the process that the first draft of the curriculum was developed and trialled. The trial provided the opportunity for us to observe the curriculum in action with a cohort of students of the target profile. The case study approach (Yin, 2014) and in particular the development of cases (the students) within the case (the curriculum development project) gave us a deep understanding of the students that we were aiming to educate. One of the advantages of qualitative case study research described by Yin (2014), that adopts an ethnographic epistemology (Pole & Morrison, 2003), is precisely the ability to explore the curriculum in its social context. Without the in-depth screening interviews and close observation of the students during the trial we would have had difficulty tailoring a curriculum and pedagogies to their needs (as recommended by Biggs & Tang, 2007; Stenhouse, 1980; Usher, 1985).

From this point on planning gave way to curriculum design and development as we implemented the collaborative decision-making and prepared for the trial. This phase of the project drew on the contextual information gathered during the planning phase to design the first draft curriculum model for appraisal by the Steering Committee. Cycles of design, development and review continued until the end of the trial when the final curriculum model was drafted. It is this version of the model that is proposed below as one of the outcomes of the project.

8.4   The project outcomes

8.4.1   A multilingual curriculum model for interpreters

The first and principal outcome from the project is the curriculum model. The curriculum design was informed by our educational philosophy, review of the literature on interpreter education, needs analysis carried out with the stakeholders, review and evaluation by stakeholders, teachers and students and by the experts who were consulted at the outset. Our educational philosophy was for an experiential, transformationist model of education that employed reflective practice to enhance

the sustainability of the curriculum. The final curriculum model that I am proposing as an outcome of the research is the version that was completed prior to the implementation of Phase 3 of the trial and re-presented below.

The macro-structure of the curriculum has been maintained as 3 phases, including the 2 intensive face-to-face weeks and a mentored fieldwork component with an optional Phase 4 delivered online or in distance mode:

- Phase 1: face-to-face teaching over 1 intensive week (35 hours)

- Phase 2: mentored field work in the workplace over a minimum of 6 weeks with a target of 5 hours per week of attendance. Can also include organised observations of interpreting in a range of settings (court, tribunals, hospital, etc.)

- Phase 3: face-to-face teaching over 1 intensive week (35 hours)

- Phase 4 (optional): remedial practice and reflection.

During Phase 1, learning skills are set up (goal setting, basis for self and peer assessment) and an introductory session on the focus of the learning (dialogue interpreting in community settings, interpreting techniques and theory, ethics and role) are delivered. These more formalised, teacher-directed components lead into more learner-centred practical sessions every afternoon. The content and focus of these sessions is left open, as it will depend on the profile of the students and their rate of progress. Teachers will develop tasks that provide meaningful experiences for the students based on their acquired skills and competence identified in the screening.

Learning skills are further developed in the morning review sessions. Here the students develop reflective skills in a guided discussion around the skills and techniques learned during the previous day's classes. Specialised skills for telephone interpreting are also introduced and practiced.

In the final session at the end of the first week, the students are prepared for their fieldwork. They meet their mentors and are guided in the reflective practice skills required during Phase 2: goal setting, self-assessment and journaling.

Table 14   Phase 1 curriculum

	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9.00	Welcome and introductions Goal setting	Review of practical tasks	Review of practical tasks	Review of practical tasks	Review of practical tasks
9.30	Initial task oriented assessment	Code of ethics	Cross-cultural comm'n	DI techniques (consecutive)	DI techniques (consecutive)
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Community interpreting	Code of ethics and interpreter role	Interpreting theory	Dialogue interpreting	DI techniques (telephone)
12.00	CBI contexts	Interpreter role and professionalism	Interpreting theory	Telephone interpreting	CBI practice
1.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
2.00-3.30	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks
4.00-500	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Practical tasks	Preparation for fieldwork

Phase 2: Fieldwork

6 weeks of mentored and supervised workplace experience.

Table 15   Phase 3 curriculum

	Mon	Tues	Wed	Thurs	Fri
9.00	Welcome and overview of week's programme	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies	Review and analysis of interpreting practice Case studies
9.30	Review of Phase 1 and 2 Learning and skills development	Interpreting practice: English equivalence	Interpreting practice: Memory and lag	Interpreting practice: Memory and lag	Assessments
10.30	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK	BREAK
11.00	Practical response to problems identified in Phase 2/Overview of interpreting practice	2 parallel sessions : gp 1: Cultural awareness raising gp 2:Paralinguistic and oral production work	2 parallel sessions: gp1: Medical interpreting exercises gp2: interpreting practice Memory and lag	2 parallel sessions: gp1: Social service interpreting exercises gp2: interpreting practice Memory and lag	Assessments cont'd
1.00	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH	LUNCH
2.00 - 5.00	3 parallel sessions: Paraphrasing	Glossary development	3 parallel sessions: gp1: Legal interpreting gp2: interpreting practice gp3: lab work	Telephone interpreting exercises	Professional practice: working as an interpreter

Phase 4 optional supplementary self-study package: 12 week self-study package for language work and interpreting practice.

During Phase 2, the students work closely with their mentors undertaking observations of interpreting in a range of settings and practicing interpreting under the supervision of an interpreter in their language pair. Additional observations and activities in partner institutions can also be organised depending on the profile and interests of the students and availability of institutional partners.

Phase 3 is designed to consolidate and extend the skills learned in Phases 1 and 2 and build on those skills. Once again, the specific skills and techniques should be defined based on the feedback from Phases 1 and 2. Phase 3 is entirely practical. Framing this practical work are the reflective sessions in the morning (Review & analysis of interpreting practice and case studies). The final day is taken up with assessments.

Phase 4 is an optional phase for the students who need additional time to develop the competencies required for practice. This module can be developed as a stand-alone, self-access module delivered online to minimize the resources required.

The curriculum is a multilingual curriculum; there is no language pair-specific tuition and no language pair-specific feedback to the students in the face-to-face components. I have opted to call this model of education "multilingual" rather than use one or other of the common terms ("generic", "non-language specific", etc.) that are used to describe education that is not carried out in language streams. The reason is that the multilingualism of the student cohort is one of its great resources. Students learn from the linguistic and cultural diversity in the classroom. They gain an understanding of cultural difference and cross-cultural challenges from each other.

 Supervision by professional interpreters during Phase 2 provides language-specific feedback to students during supervised fieldwork if resources allow for it. The curriculum covers the basic skills and knowledge required for interpreters working in dialogue mode in community settings. Additional language specific-work can be incorporated into the face-to-face if same language pair mentors and supervisors are available.

The curriculum was also planned to be financially viable. The base cost per student of running the trial was $340.90 for 15 students. This cost represents the specialist

external (casual) lecturers (Jane, Annette & Fiona) paid to deliver the practical components of the course. In addition to these staff members (who delivered the majority of the hours), were the research team (the casual research staff were paid by the grant and I was a full-time member of staff) and the institutional educators (provided by the institutions). The cost is kept down by concentrating the face-to-face delivery into two weeks.

8.4.2 Evaluation for interpreter education, an integrated model

In Chapters 3 and 4, I highlighted the fact that most models of curriculum development (such as those proposed by Tyler, 1949; Stenhouse, 1975; Sawyer, 2004; Lynch, 1996) are represented as linear processes. Rea-Dickins and Germaine (1998), Tyler (1949) and Stenhouse (1975, 1980) also recommend that curriculum development be accompanied by evaluation and evaluation research is often undertaken as a cyclical action research process (Carr & Kemmis, 1988; McKernan, 2008). An additional component of curriculum development is the planning process as proposed by Holden and Zimmerman (2009). However, despite the recommendations for curriculum development to be accompanied by evaluation, the literature does not propose models that integrate the two processes. The literature on evaluation generally assumes that the evaluation will be undertaken on an existing programme (rather than be part of the development of the programme) and this is the also the case with the evaluation planning model from Holden and Zimmerman (2009). A model of curriculum development should aim to integrate the four perspectives corresponding to curriculum design, development, evaluation planning and evaluation if it is to reflect the recommendations in the literature. In our experience in this project, the development and evaluation processes are closely integrated and in order to accurately reflect this I am proposing a new model (Fig. 45) that describes the inductive, observational and naturalistic epistemology recommended for evaluation studies by scholars such as Cronbach and Associates (1980), Rea-Dickins & Germaine (1998), McKernan (2008), Lynch (1996) and Stake (2010).

Based on our experience in implementing the project, I am proposing a model for an integrated process of curriculum design, development and evaluation (Fig.51 below). This model comprises four phases:

- preparation and planning

- curriculum design and development

- trial

- evaluation

The model describes the four core phases covering curriculum development from the planning phase through to final evaluation. Each of the phases is represented in the model as a discrete stage in the process with links forwards and backwards to the other stages centred on decision-making. If at the time of decision-making it is considered that more work is required before continuing, the model allows for a return to earlier phases (mirroring the cycles of action research and reflection). The model allows for the cyclical processes that we found to be crucial in collaborative design and development. Each phase is accompanied by an identification of the resources required for that phase.
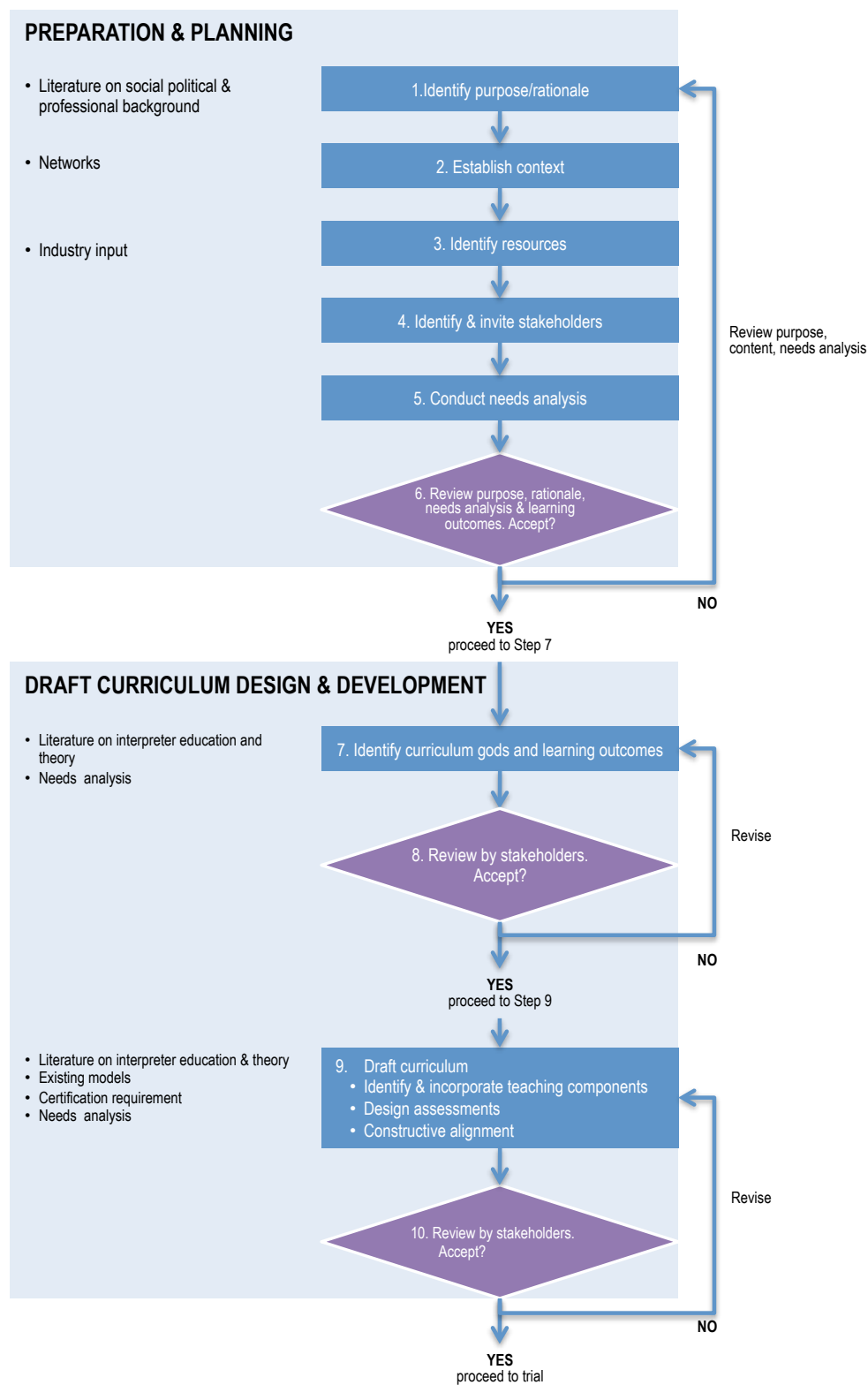
The preparation and planning phase incorporates elements from Holden and Zimmerman's (2009) evaluation planning (Steps 1, 2 and 3). Step 4, "describe programme", is only relevant to external evaluations of an existing programme. In this case, the description of the programme comes with the curriculum design and development processes, the second phase in the model below.

The curriculum design and development phase allows for review by stakeholders. This design allows for the evaluation of the model as it develops consistent with Tyler's (1949), Rea-Dickens and Germaine's (1998) and Stenhouse's (1980) recommendations for evaluation to accompany curriculum design and development.

The design and implementation of the trial phase incorporates the collaborative elements involving stakeholders. It also allows for review and revision of the curriculum subsequent to the collection and analysis of data collected during the implementation.

The final phase is designed to incorporate the results of evaluations following the trial. These evaluations can include surveys, interviews and focus groups with students and teachers. The extent of the data collection and analysis during this phase will depend on the resources available.

Figure 51   An integrated model of curriculum design, development and evaluation

TRIAL

- Teacher input
- Stakeholder input
- Research literature

11. Design trial, screening & data collection

12. Identify & screen candidates, analyse data

- Screening data

13. Review curriculum with stakeholders. Accept?

Revise, go to Step 9

NO

YES
proceed to trial

14. Implement trial, data collection & analysis

15. Present data analysis to stakeholders

- Results of data analysis

16. Review curriculum with stakeholders. Accept?

NO

YES
proceed

EVALUATION

Evaluations, collect data and analyse

Review data with stakeholders. Accept model?

Revise, go to Step 9

NO

YES

FINAL CURRICULUM MODEL

The model allows for the cyclical processes that we found were essential to the process of designing and developing a curriculum that met the needs of stakeholders and students. The process is also a reflective one for us as curriculum developers; incorporating reflection-on-action (Schön, 1987) at each stage of the curriculum planning, design, development, implementation and evaluation. The inclusion of theory and input from stakeholders is a key component of models of reflective

practice (Gibbs, 1988; Kolb, 1984) and the model proposed here includes input at each stage of the process for this purpose thereby integrating theory and practice in the reflective cycle (Biggs & Tang, 2007).

The use of the term "stakeholders" in the model refers to the broad range of stakeholders as indicated by Fullan (2001): students, teachers, school community (here the staff at Macquarie University), and community representatives (here the representatives from the profession and partner institutions).

Finally, the model is proposed as an action research project incorporating the phases of planning, acting, monitoring, evaluation and revised planning (Carr & Kemmis, 1988).

8.4.3   A cohort of trained interpreters

The third planned outcome of the research was a cohort of trained interpreters. Of our 44 potential candidates, 10 completed the course with a Certificate of Interlingual Communication and 2 completed the course with less than the requisite 85%. Of those who gained the Certificate, all have acquired sustainable skills for their ongoing learning about interpreting and for monitoring their own language profile. In this sense the learning was transformational (Biggs & Tang, 2007). For the two that did not achieve the Certificate, one was oriented towards a different career path and the other returned to working in the Health Care Interpreter Service where she is regularly supervised and provided with professional development.

8.5   Implications of the project

The project reported here has two outcomes that could provide a more effective and flexible model for interpreter education than those currently available: the curriculum model and the integrated model for curriculum design, development and evaluation. The curriculum model can be adapted to different contexts for implementation with a range of candidate profiles. It provides a flexible framework for the delivery of interpreter education specifically tailored to multilingual groups. However, the curriculum can also be implemented with language-specific groups. It is intended as a means of educating interpreters who are already working but have

had no opportunity for basic education in interpreting skills, techniques and knowledge. It has been conceived as pre-service training, but exploits the fact that students already have some experience of interpreting. However, it is also appropriate to deliver the curriculum with students who have no experience. In Phase 1, some observations and roleplays for basic skills and techniques could provide the basis for the reflective components rather than exploiting the students experience gained in the workplace as was the case with the trial reported here.

The second outcome, the integrated model for curriculum design, development and evaluation, is a clear innovation in the field of interpreter education as it explicitly situates the curriculum development within the action research orientation for the purposes of evaluation. To our knowledge, no other models of curriculum development in our field of Interpreting Studies or in the associated disciplines of Education, Evaluation and Applied Linguistics, have sought to integrate the two processes, despite the literature recommending that the processes be carried out in parallel (Stenhouse, 1980). This model has the potential to raise awareness about the necessity of accompanying curriculum research with systematic evaluation. Greater awareness may lead to an increase in the number and range of publications of curriculum research in Interpreting Studies.

Other important implications of the project relate to the research process. The ethnographic case study approach taken here provides data that supports both the curriculum development and evaluation angles on the curriculum; for example, the screening process while initially conceived for the purpose of selection of applicants, ended up being more about gathering data on the students who would be included in the trial. We were effectively able to build case data on each of the students to better inform how to support them in their learning. This process turned out to be quite different from, for example, the aptitude testing undertaken in the context of screening entry to conference interpreting programmes (Russo, 2011) that are the predominant model in interpreter education.

The paucity of literature on how to implement reflective practice in education, and in particular interpreter education, led to the teaching team devising methods for incorporating reflective tasks into their teaching. Reflective practice was integrated

into the curriculum through the self-assessments, the journaling and the guided case study work. This reflective practice underpinned the experiential, transformative learning that we were aiming to implement in the curriculum by supporting the students to develop awareness of their strengths and weaknesses. No other reports of multilingual interpreter education explicitly describe how these practices are implemented. In our view, these autonomous learning skills are central in compensating for the lack of language-specific resources.

Reflection was also fundamental to the work of the teaching team and for us as researchers. Reflexivity enabled us to continue to develop our understanding of the curriculum and its strengths and weaknesses. The reflective cycles integral to the action research orientation led us to continue to incorporate theory into our evaluation of the curriculum enabling us to evolve with the project. The writing of the thesis or research report is in itself a fundamentally reflective process.

8.6   Limitations of the project

The major limitation of this project relates to the resources that were available both for the curriculum and the research component. As mentioned above, the public service context of the project determined the scope of what was achievable. Ideally, the curriculum would have been trialled with at least a second cohort in order to test the model with a broader range of student profiles. This would have enabled us to further refine the self-assessment tools and methods.

Based on the findings from this project, I believe that we should have implemented fewer competencies with the students so that instead of focussing on a broad range of skills and techniques, a focus on the self-assessment process would have been more productive. In this way, more time could have been spent on guiding the students to competently assess on a small number of well-targetted competencies. A more streamlined, self-assessment process would have also enabled Jane to implement self-assessment in her teaching, thereby reinforcing the students' ability in this regard. The short duration of the curriculum also limited the amount of time available for students to consolidate their competence in undertaking self-assessment. For this reason also, a more limited set of competencies would have ben preferable.

The very limited budget also meant that I had multiple roles, as did other members of the research team. This included the research component (project design, data collection and analysis) as well as teaching and administration during the trial. As a result, time was limited for data collection and analysis during the very short period of the trial. More data from the students on how they were implementing the competences (such as interviews or one-on-one observations as they completed them) would have enabled us to better understand how they were using them in order to refine the processes. Data collection was also difficult because of the short amount of time the students were available on campus. Further evaluation data on Phase 3 following the completion of the final on-campus module would have been useful. However, once the students had completed the trial they were unavailable for follow up. Most had busy lives juggling family commitments and work and we did not have the resources to pay them to continue their involvement in the study.

More time would have also helped me to better monitor the fieldwork and mentors during Phase 2. Clearly, the work placements and mentoring need to be closely monitored by the research team to ensure that students are getting the supervised experience they need. This phase is also important in informing the content and focus of Phase 3. One of the limitations of Phase 2 was also the lack of suitable (same language pair) supervisors. This constitutes one of the major challenges in delivering education to the smaller language groups and is one of the main reasons why the students must become autonomous in evaluating their interpreting.

The scope of the project was defined as curriculum design and development. Inevitably aspects of syllabus design crept in and enlarging the scope of the project. The aim was to provide a curriculum model that would allow for the pedagogical approaches favoured in our educational philosophy, but the design and implementation was left to the individual teachers. The feedback from the observations and teachers' meetings indicate that the pedagogical approach varied between the university teaching staff and the teachers coming in from the institutional partners. In future delivery of the project, I would ensure that there was a consistent pedagogical approach to ensure that each component of the teaching was delivered with the philosophy of education that we all felt was critical to the students' learning.

In addition to the lack of language-specific models and feedback, another challenge in the trial was the level of language competence of some of the students. The screening aimed to identify candidates who had the requisite language skills, educational level and motivation to complete the trial course. However, as noted by Fiola (1995) the aim in delivering this type of course is to provide education to as many students as possible that are already working as interpreters. This then creates a tension between enrolling enough students in the course to make it useful and screening out people who do not have adequate language skills. Students who are screened out will probably end up still working as interpreters and it is probably preferable to provide with them with some of the basic skills than to exclude them. The Phase 4 package that was designed and delivered by Jane and Annette after the end of the trial could be offered to students prior to enrolling in the course, to support learning during the course or as was the case with our trial, at the end of the course to extend the duration of the course.

8.7   Further research

The two main outcomes from this project, the multilingual curriculum model and the integrated model for curriculum design, development and evaluation, have been designed on the basis of a single implementation during the case study. Implementation of the curriculum with a different cohort in a different context, would serve to identify the strengths and weaknesses of the model and to determine what adaptations are required for the curriculum to be relevant to a range of profiles and contexts. Similarly, the integrated model for curriculum design, development and evaluation should be tested in other educational contexts and further tested in interpreting studies to refine the model.

The curriculum trial focussed on the broader concept of curriculum as defined by Stenhouse (1980). However, throughout the evaluation, aspects of syllabus also came under scrutiny. Further research that specifically addresses the pedagogical approaches is needed to observe the micro-level evaluation on what is happening in the classroom in order to better assess the uptake of learning particularly in relation to the components of transformative learning: the experiential learning activities and the reflective practice activities. Curriculum evaluation research can focus on a range of components, and an analysis of classroom interaction would provide insights that

would provide additional understanding of how students learn (rather than what they are learning).

Additional research on the assessment components would serve to explore alternative modes of assessment. We were limited in this project by the resources that we had available. With additional resources for the specific language pairs, comparisons of teacher/mentor, student and peer assessments could be undertaken to determine how well the students were learning to self and peer assess. Since these skills are integral to the educational philosophy underpinning the curriculum, such comparative data would provide concrete evidence of the uptake of skills.

8.8   Conclusions

This project set out to design, develop and evaluate an innovative curriculum model in an attempt to resolve a pressing social problem: that of the lack of suitably trained interpreters for the smaller language communities. The main aim of the project has been met by the development of a curriculum model that has been subjected to evaluation during a trial. The model is for a short, multilingual curriculum that delivers education based on an experiential and transformational educational philosophy. It is appropriate for novice interpreters from small language communities working in public service institutions in Australia and other countries that face a similar need. Students who completed the trial demonstrated the acquisition of reflective skills in their completion of self-assessments on a range of competencies. The curriculum model is also financially viable. In order to minimize costs, the curriculum development and trial was undertaken collaboratively with partner institutions that shared the financial burden of delivering the trial by providing teaching staff and by supporting the workplace experience component.

In addition to the curriculum model, the project produced a model for curriculum evaluation. The integrated model represents an innovation in curriculum development research by mapping the cyclical processes inherent in curriculum development and evaluation. The cyclical model also reflects the action research orientation recommended for curriculum research and encourages reflexivity.

The multiple perspectives on the curriculum obtained through mixed methods research enable the curriculum developer to respond to contextual factors and to be responsive to the needs of stakeholders and learners.

While short, intensive education programmes are limited in what they can achieve, they provide a format for delivering initial training in a cost-effective way. However, students undertaking courses such as this must be guided in developing awareness of their strengths and weaknesses as interpreters so they realise the importance of continuing their learning beyond the course.

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List of Appendixes

(Appendixes are on the enclosed DVD)

APPENDIX 1   Macquarie University Human Ethics Committee approval

APPENDIX 2   Slatyer, H. (2006) Researching curriculum innovation in interpreter education. The case of initial training for novice interpreters in languages of limited diffusion. In Roy, C (Ed.) *New Approaches to interpreter education.* Washington D.C.: Gallaudet University Press.

APPENDIX 3   Transcription Key (Eggins & Slade, 1997)

APPENDIX 4   Semi-structured interview schedule and rating scales for screening

APPENDIX 5   Candidate Information Sheet for screening

APPENDIX 6   Minutes from stakeholder and Steering Committee meetings
13th August, 2003
24th September, 2003
22nd October, 2003
24th March 2004

APPENDIX 7   Phase 3 Competencies

APPENDIX 8   Transcript of final interpreting test

APPENDIX 9   Ethics test

APPENDIX 10   Evaluation surveys Phase 1 and Phase 3

APPENDIX 11   Student portfolio (including Phase 1 Competencies, goal setting and logbook for Phase 2)