

“The Integration of Curriculum and Assessment in Interpreter Education:
A Case Study”

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von
David Burton Sawyer
aus Portland, Oregon, USA

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0 Preface

As the world presses eagerly forward toward the accomplishment of new things, education also must advance no less swiftly. It must provide the intelligence and the aspirations necessary for the advance; and for stability and consistency in holding the gains. Education must take a pace set, not by itself, but by social progress.

(Bobbit, 1971, p. iii)

This exploratory volume contributes to the theoretical discussion of curriculum and assessment in interpreter education programs, an area that is under-researched and under-studied. It views expertise, i.e., interpretation competence, as an outcome of curriculum implementation and looks at how these outcomes are assessed. The study adopts a holistic approach in focusing on the broad processes and general dynamics of curricular frameworks in instruction and learning.

While the body of literature on language interpreting has been growing rapidly for several decades, readers of this research are often asked to take a leap of faith in applying the results of scientific and humanistic thinking to interpretation pedagogy. The purpose of this volume is to help interpreter educators, program administrators, and industry professionals involved in interpreter testing take this crucial step forward. A leap of faith becomes a manageable step when purposes and goals are explicit, clear links between theory and practice are forged, and descriptions of how to apply the results of research to pedagogical practice are provided. While there is general agreement in the community of researchers that the study of interpretation is by definition interdisciplinary and draws on constructs from the cognitive sciences in particular, little work has been done to apply the literature of educational theory to the interpretation classroom.

I was motivated to conduct this research by a growing awareness of the considerable constraints impeding high quality interpreter education. In the course of my professional experience as a conference interpreter in North America and Europe, I have worked in a wide variety of settings and domains in both private industry and government. As a result, my attention has been drawn to the changing needs of the market. In addition, during more than ten years of activity as an educator of interpreters and translators, I have faced the challenge of reconciling radically different instructional environments in Germany and the United States. From these perspectives, I find the literature on interpreting to be underdeveloped, despite the

fact that the pedagogy of interpretation has been repeatedly identified as one of the main themes of Translation and Interpretation Studies (Pöchhacker, 1994a, p. 244; Setton, 1999, p. 25).

Before I began this project, a process of curriculum and assessment validation was already underway at the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS). Since its completion, the administration of all examinations in the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI) has been restructured through a set of comprehensive exam reforms. As a result, the concerns of students, faculty and the administration have been successfully addressed. Fully aware of the subtle irony of the statement, I must also add that I am particularly pleased that much of the data on exam administration contained in this case study, in particular the faculty survey, are already obsolete. Although the examination procedures outlined here have been reformed and are no longer in place, these data do provide evidence of an earlier stage of exam administration in GSTI, and some training programs may find them useful as a basis for comparison and an indicator of potential for evolution. The expertise of assessment specialists in the Graduate School of Languages and Educational Linguistics (GSLEL) at the Monterey Institute and GSTI's commitment to assessment are reasons why the Monterey Institute has emerged as a leader in the field of evaluation who provides guidance to the language industry.

Monterey, March 2001

David Sawyer

1 Introduction

Any inherited system, good for its time, when held to after its day, hampers social progress. It is not enough that the system, fundamentally unchanged in plan and purpose, be improved in details.

(Bobbitt, 1971, p. iii)

Interpreter education, which was institutionalized in Europe after the Second World War (Bowen, 1995, p. 252), has grown in volume and economic importance significantly during the latter half of the twentieth century (Snell-Hornby, 1998a, p. 32). By one account, the number of university-level institutions offering degrees or diplomas in translation or interpretation rose from 49 to 80 between 1960 and 1980, and had reached a total of more than 250 by 1994 (Caminade & Pym, 1998, p. 283). A more recent estimate cites 300 as an approximate figure, depending on the criteria used to define a program (Pym, 1998, p. 34). Despite the globalization of this day and age, interpreters (and translators) are educated in institutional settings that are shaped by highly specific political, cultural, legislative, and market-specific constellations in their country and region of the world (Snell-Hornby, 1998a, p. 32). In addition, the environment in which the official curriculum is implemented is shaped by many entities, including public institutions, policymakers, ministries, donors, the media, the private sector, and direct participants, i.e., instructors, students, and parents. (Freihoff, 1995, p. 150). As a result, a wide variety of curriculum models have emerged, and they differ substantially from one another, even within Western Europe (Caminade & Pym, 1998, p. 282). A discussion of curricular diversity has been neglected to date in the scientific literature and in the community of translation and interpretation schools (Pym, 1998, p. 35).

A major hurdle in this area of research is the lack of reliable sources (Pym, 1998, p. 34), i.e., both internal and external curriculum documents. Collecting such documents from a range of schools of translation and interpretation is a daunting task, as these documents, particularly those on course sequencing, may not be available from a central administrative office on the school level. Rather, they are often developed and circulated within individual programs or departments. Learning objectives may also differ among language combinations, making in-depth comparisons among schools more problematic. When internal documents are readily available to the public, as in the CIUTI¹ handbook, they are often limited to an objectified, terse

¹ *Conférence Internationale d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes.* <http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/ciuti/de/index.html>.

description that provides little information as to how the curriculum is implemented and how it is subjectively experienced. In this respect, Freihoff ventures to state that the hidden curriculum, i.e., the curriculum that exists in the minds of the participants, is the only curriculum with practical impact (1995, p. 152). Hence, there is not only a lack of data on curriculum models; there is lack of clarity on what constitutes reliable data and how these data can be obtained.

In addition, although the momentum driving interpreter education has gathered force, interpretation pedagogy has led an existence in the shadows of academe since its inception (see Snell-Hornby, 1998a, p. 32). From the vantage point of the language professional, this lack of academic status and its persistence is surprising. Change is underway, however, as the language industry undergoes increasing consolidation and professionalization, marked by surging revenues and attractive employment opportunities for multilingual communication specialists (Wood, 1998). Most notable in this context are the emergence of finer distinctions according to expertise in subdomains; related professional qualifications, e.g., advanced degrees and certification; the growing movement toward standardization;² and calls from industry to define quality and to conduct valid and reliable assessment.

After the Second World War, much time and effort was spent on sharpening the profile of the professional conference interpreter to improve and maintain adequate working conditions and levels of remuneration. These efforts have been successful, thanks to the work of professional associations, such as AIIC (*Association internationale des interprètes de conférence*) and TAALS (The American Association of Language Specialists). These organizations continue to work persistently for the profession, as is reflected in the movement towards formal recognition of conference interpretation as a profession through an international convention, and formal recognition of translation and interpretation as professions by the United States Immigration and Naturalization Service.

² For example the ISO standards on quality assurance, the German translation standard DIN 2345 (*Deutsches Institut für Normung e.V.*), the adoption of similar standards for translation and interpretation in Austria, the Australian NAATI standards, and the development of standard guides for the procurement of language interpreting and translation services within the American Society of Testing and Materials (ASTM; see Sawyer, 1998).

An objective of defining conference interpretation as a profession is to distinguish it from other related activities, more often than not multilingual in nature.³ These distinctions between interpretation and other multilingual activities are reflected in the pedagogy of interpretation, which has separated itself from the field of foreign language teaching (Arjona, 1984a, pp. 3-4), particularly in Europe. This distinction has also been vital from the viewpoint of pedagogy, as language is a means to an end in translator and interpreter education and the profession. In other words, language competence is a foundation upon which language transfer skills are built, rather than a goal of study, as in language and literature programs (Snell-Hornby, 1998a, p. 33; Hönig, 1995a).

Nevertheless, leaving the assumption unquestioned that teaching interpretation is an activity fundamentally different from teaching foreign languages, interpreter trainers have been very quick to dismiss the gains made in the fields of second language teaching and language testing as irrelevant to interpreter education. There have been some exceptions, however. Arjona (1984a; 1984b), for example, rejects any affiliation with foreign language teaching yet adopts many of its testing and measurement concepts. More recently, Hatim and Mason have called for a more solid pedagogical foundation in translation and interpreter education, as well as the improvement of assessment methods (1997). Similarly, Kiraly has developed an approach to translation pedagogy based upon constructivist principles of learning and instruction (2000; 1997a; 1997b; 1995; n.d.). Kiraly's work in the area of translation attests in particular to the fact that these fields have emerged as highly productive, sophisticated areas of scholarly inquiry and research over the years. Yet despite this initial movement towards leveraging educational theory for translation and interpretation pedagogy, many interpreter educators remain skeptical that there is much to be learned from colleagues across the academic hallway. This stance is puzzling at best, as researchers in Interpretation Studies (IS) have long recognized the need for interdisciplinary approaches and drawn on fields such as cognitive psychology, information processing, and psycho- and sociolinguistics.

³ A result of this movement has also been a schism between conference interpretation and other forms of interpretation, such as legal and health-care interpreting, although the increasing professionalization of legal, health-care and community interpretation may eventually reverse this trend (see Mikkelsen, 1996).

Careful reviews of the literatures on curriculum and assessment and their applicability to language interpreting have the potential to substantially advance interpreter education. If interpreter education programs are to rise successfully to the challenges facing them, instructors can no longer afford to ignore the valuable methodologies and sound theoretical foundation offered by these disciplines. The reason often cited informally among colleagues and practitioners is too simplistic; namely, that interpreting between languages is a "special case" or an "unusual field of activity."⁴

1.1 Current and Future Challenges

The need for curricular enhancement in interpreter education emerges from current and future challenges for these educational programs. To ensure that their graduates thrive in the professional world, interpreter education programs must address multiple constraints, some of which have been long recognized in interpreter training:

- the adaptation of training to the workplace, which is reflected in specialization according to service sector (often a function of language combination), e.g., public/governmental, private, entertainment, legal, health-care, and social services, and the ability to work with complex subject matter in a wide variety of domains, e.g., political, scientific and technical, economic and financial. (Snell-Hornby, 1998a, p. 32-33);
- the economical use of resources, including instructors, equipment and materials, as well as time;
- the training of the interpreter as intercultural consultant (Bowen & Bowen, 1987b); and
- training in the use of information technology for subject preparation before, during and after assignments (Gile, 1995a).

This set of well-established, general curriculum objectives has been complemented by an additional set of constraints in recent years (see Setton, 1999, p. 283), which place a severe strain on program resources. These challenges include

⁴ Barbara Moser-Mercer, for example, made a strong case against such an approach in her keynote paper on "Tradition and Innovation in Interpretation" at the 30th Anniversary Conference of the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation, the Monterey Institute of International Studies, in January 1999.

- the reduction in length of training periods, resulting in the need to streamline;
- a rise in quality requirements in all sectors of the language interpreting industry;
- an increase in the technicality and specialization of subject matter;
- the erosion of working conditions (length of day, number of interpreters);
- fast and/or recited discourse, together with larger numbers of speakers with little or no training in public speaking;
- the concurrent specialization in subdomains of interpreting;
- a rise in demand for training in less commonly spoken languages, i.e., emerging conference languages; and
- the changing role of technology, with hybrid forms of translation and interpretation gaining ground (videoconferencing, voice recognition software, use of superscript, news broadcast interpreting, voice-over-IP [internet protocol]; written text to voice).

In addressing these challenges, administrators of interpreter training programs inevitably grapple with three areas, which are by definition interlinked. Firstly, curriculum must be designed for new programs. Concurrently, curricula must be updated in existing interpreter training programs on an ongoing basis. Secondly, academic environments and instructional settings must be optimized, e.g., through efficient syllabus design and lesson planning, the use of cutting-edge teaching methodology, innovative technology and proven classroom management techniques. Such methods enable the learner to develop expertise more rapidly and efficiently to the skill levels required at the top of the language industry. Thirdly, student performance must be assessed appropriately, meaningfully, and usefully at all stages of the curriculum. This study pursues these three major thrusts—curriculum, assessment, and expertise. It lays a theoretical foundation, evaluates a specific curriculum model, and proposes areas for further research.

Each of these areas—curriculum, assessment, and expertise—has a specific contribution to make to interpreter education. The literature on curriculum provides a broad educational framework for learning and instruction. As Roy states in her remarks on interpreter education, "curriculum design is the hallmark of professional training. Without it, you have guesswork, choices of tradition, and sometimes chaos. With it, you have a higher probability of successful education and training" (1984, p. 36). The literatures on expertise and reflective practice

provide theoretical constructs for a discussion of interpretation on the levels of the program and the individual learner. The principles outlined provide orientation for structuring and sequencing the curriculum, a more precise definition of curriculum objectives and the identification of appropriate forms of assessment. Reaching far beyond program entry, degree-track selection and degree awarding of the individual student, assessment provides invaluable feedback on learning and instruction for an entire program of study and serves as a basis for its evaluation—without valid and reliable assessment, the success of a program cannot be gauged accurately.

1.2 On the Centrality of Assessment

A primary means to achieve curricular enhancement is through greater integration of curriculum and assessment. Indeed, curriculum, expertise and assessment are by their very nature closely intertwined areas;⁵ and for this reason, they need to be in alignment with one another if an instructional program is to function effectively. Assessment provides cohesion in this alignment—sound assessment practices are central to the attainment of curriculum objectives. Gipps, for example, draws attention to this integrative function by describing the transition "from psychometrics to a broader model of educational assessment" (1994, p. 1). In her development of a comprehensive assessment theory, she stresses a shift "from a testing and examination culture to an assessment culture" (p. 1). In a broader educational context, educators "have a better understanding of the design, functioning, impact, as well as inappropriate uses, of assessment" (p. 2). As a result, they are in a better position to "understand, explain and predict" student performance (p. 2). These ideas are further developed in the discussion of principles of assessment and ensuing political and ethical ramifications in the chapters directly before and after the case study.

Thus, assessment plays a key role in the design of all instructional systems. Its importance has been recognized in the measurement community for nearly a half century, which has led to stress being placed on the validation of assessment regimes. As Tyler comments in 1951,

⁵ see Fig. 1; see also Freihoff, 1993, pp. 202-203.

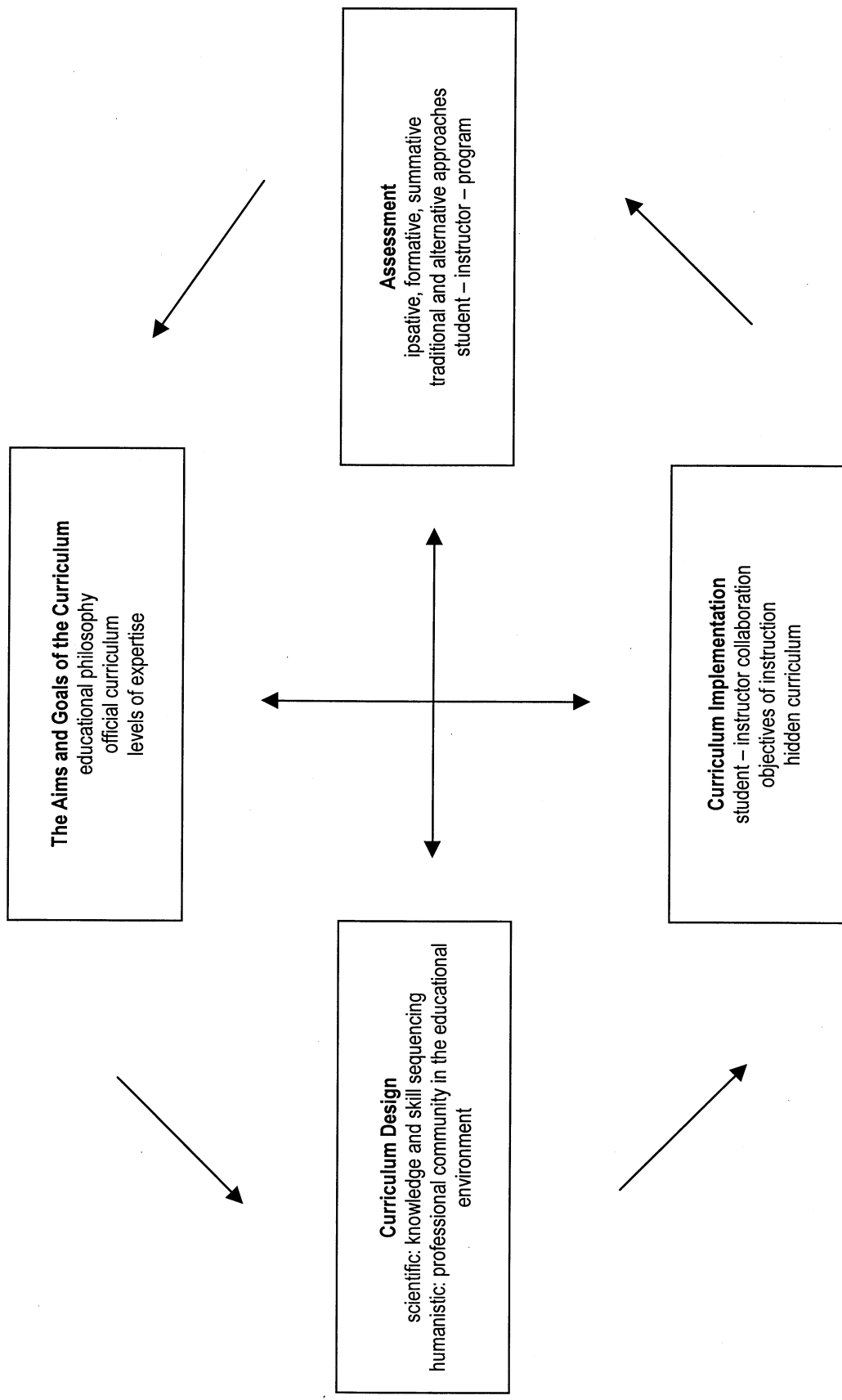


Fig. 1 Relationships between Curriculum and Assessment

educational measurement is not "a process quite apart from instruction, but an integral part of it" (p. 47). In their landmark text "Measurement in Learning and Instruction," Glaser and Nitko remark in 1971 that "testing and measurement represent one of the critical components of the educational environment—they provide the essential information for the development, operation, and evaluation of this enterprise" (p. 625). Glaser and Nitko proceed to identify four activities of instructional design influencing measurement requirements:

- analysis of the subject-matter domain under consideration,
- diagnosis of the characteristics of the learner,
- design of the instructional environment, and
- evaluation of learning outcomes. (pp. 625-626)

The first two enterprises are encompassed in the scientific and humanistic approaches to the interpretation curriculum, respectively; the third in the elaboration of curriculum models based upon this knowledge; and the fourth in the assessment of expertise.

In 1989, Linn identifies salient trends in measurement theory for the nineties, all of which have a direct impact on the domains of interpretation and translation: technological developments, in particular the use of computers in testing; demands and expectations of testing, including accountability and instructional use; and social and legal contexts, such as bias in test use and test score interpretation, professional standards, litigation and legislation (1989a, pp. 2-9). Undoubtedly, these issues will continue to shape translator and interpreter education well into the new century, as standards for the field are developed.

Therefore, the importance of valid and reliable forms of assessment transcends ramifications for the individual learner, as crucial as that impact may be. Assessment data form the basis upon which the success of a program of instruction is to be evaluated, in particular whether the program's objectives have been clearly defined and whether these objectives are attained in the course of student learning:

In an educational system, the specification and measurement of the outcomes of learning in terms of observable human performance determine how the system operates. Vague statements of the desired educational outcomes leave little concrete information about what the teacher and the student are to look for and what the designers of the system are to strive to attain. (Glaser & Nitko, 1971, p. 632)

Educational objectives are thus reflected in the overarching purposes of assessment and how assessment instruments are employed in a course of study. In relating assessment to the program of instruction and its curriculum, Gipps (1994) asks two questions: "what is the assessment for?" and "what kind of learning do we wish to achieve" (p. 3). These exploratory questions serve as guides in the development of an assessment regime for interpreter training. They are not to be answered definitively, but rather to be revisited regularly as reminders of the aims of instruction. Responses are shaped by educational philosophy; they are a statement of the underlying rationale for a course of study, thus determining how interpreter educators and their students define themselves in the classroom and in the field. It should come as no surprise that neglecting them has consequences: lack of clarity in the assessment of educational objectives masks the degree of success or failure of the instructional system as a whole. In view of Linn's observation that "the biggest and most important single challenge for educational measurement today is ... to make measurement do a better job of facilitating learning for all individuals" (1989a, p. 9), it is clear that the theory and practice of assessment must be reviewed in the context of the curriculum in any effort to improve the overall performance of interpreter education programs.

Through a review of the Interpretation Studies literature on assessment, testing and, in particular, the validity of assessment regimes, it becomes apparent that current testing practices are inadequate in training programs and the field (see Section 3.3); in fact, in some cases they may not even be legally defensible. It is insufficient, for example, to simply hand a student a text, as is sometimes still done in diagnostic testing, and ask him or her to translate it, without much thought given to text selection, criteria for performance assessment and use of the test results. In interpretation, it is reprehensible that inconsistencies in examination procedures create an uneven playing field for examinees and that lack of clear assessment criteria lead strong-minded individuals to sway jury votes. Such situations are contributing factors to the "unease felt by many at the unsystematic, hit-and-miss methods of performance evaluation which, it is assumed, are still in operation in many institutions" (Hatim & Mason, 1997, p. 198).

1.3 Objectives

The primary objective of this study is curriculum enhancement. This aim is pursued in three steps. Firstly, established literature from educational psychology, in particular from curriculum theory, is related to the field of Interpretation Studies in an effort to broaden and strengthen the theoretical foundations of curriculum design in interpreter education (Chapter 3). Secondly, long-standing assessment principles are then integrated into this enhanced curricular framework (Chapter 4). Thirdly, a case study of assessment is conducted within a particular curriculum model, the one in place at the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation of the Monterey Institute of International Studies, in an effort to ascertain how these principles of curriculum and assessment may be utilized to optimize a specific program of instruction (Chapters 5 through 7). The case study consists of three interrelated parts. In Part I, a statistical analysis is conducted to evaluate interpretation curriculum outcomes in two degree tracks, the Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation (MATI) and the Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation (MACI). In Part II, jury members from the period under review are surveyed to gather data on examination procedures and the ensuing impact on validity and reliability of the exam scores. Finally, in Part III, examination texts from the May 1999 exam session are analyzed; English, French, and German source texts are included in this discussion of materials used in the last exam session of the five-year period under review. While Parts II and III of the case study focus specifically on philosophical and procedural aspects of assessment, Part I explores the relationship between translation instruction and proficiency in interpretation in the GSTI curriculum.

1.4 Methodology

In addressing the methodologies employed in this study of curriculum and assessment, a statement on research approach, the scope and generalizability of the case study, and the rationale for the selection of research methodologies is necessary. This is the case particularly in view of the discussion of the nature of Translation Studies and Interpretation Studies as academic disciplines in the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s. While it is widely acknowledged that the study of interpretation is by definition interdisciplinary, a consensus has

not clearly emerged on the most appropriate methodologies to employ in exploring this common object of study.

Some readers of the Interpretation Studies literature, for example, identify two major research paradigms. The first has been defined broadly as a school of researchers drawing on concepts in cognitive science and linguistics (Setton, 1999, p. 3), presumably the ‘empirical research’ group that has also been described as the “natural science community” (Moser-Mercer, 1994b, p. 17), although the latter term may also be a misnomer intended to denote the ‘hard sciences.’⁶ The second paradigm consists of researchers who wish to provide a “more unified and holistic account” (Setton, 1999, p. 3); they have also been described as the “liberal arts community” (Moser-Mercer, 1994b, p. 17) and tend to group themselves around the Interpretive Theory of Seleskovitch (1981; Seleskovitch & Lederer, 1986, 1989). Furthermore, Setton states that “there is little or no dialogue between the two schools, which are sharply divided over training and theoretical issues such as the importance of language-specific factors” (Setton, 1999, p.3).⁷ Beyond these two broad research groups, Setton (1999) and Shlesinger (1995) also describe a range of narrower research paradigms in their literature reviews, many of which may be attributed to one general camp or the other. They include, among others, language processing, second language acquisition, and text linguistics (Shlesinger, 1995), as well as computational linguistics and information-processing (Setton, 1999).

In describing this debate on the epistemological foundations of research on language interpreting, Pöchhacker (1998) draws attention to divisive developments in the field and advocates a plurality of methodologies in exploring this complex human activity. In addition, Pöchhacker stresses in a comprehensive bibliographical analysis that Gile’s diagnosis of a shift to empirical methodologies grounded in cognitive psychology fails to take substantial portions of the literature on language interpreting into account. Indeed, it seems that advocates of an exclusive focus on a narrow band of methodologies were not able to resolve the methodological turmoil in Interpretation Studies during the 1990s. On the contrary, other

⁶ see García-Landa (1995) on the definition of Interpretation Studies as a discipline within the natural sciences.

⁷ see also Moser-Mercer, 1994b.

researchers have responded in this theoretical debate by identifying a preoccupation in the literature with the advancement of the cognitive psychology of interpreting through the isolation of specific variables and analysis of representative samples⁸ and have expressed concern about the limitations of this approach.⁹ They seem to echo a well-known representative's reservations about the field of cognitive psychology in general, which was issued at an even earlier date:

... too much emphasis has been placed on having an experimental procedure without any perceptible flaws or ambiguities; and all too often this emphasis takes place at the expense of considering what is an interesting or important problem ... it is time for psychology to wed its indubitable methodological sophistication to a concern for problems that are more molar, less artificial, more representative or real-life situations, more substantive. (Gardner, 1987, p. 135)

As a result of this discussion, much writing on research methodology in Interpretation Studies in the nineties centers on two related, central concerns: (1) the development of interdisciplinary research models, and (2) the lack of sufficient samples of data.¹⁰ These concerns are also taken up in this research, as the case study provides three separate empirical analyses grounded in contrasting methodologies. The second concern is resolved at least in Part I of the case study, which employs a classic statistical procedure (chi-square) and exploits acceptable sample of data, i.e., a total of 260 cases.

In summary, if a consensus on methodology is to emerge in the future, it may well be based upon the realization that reliance on isolated methodologies is inadequate (Pöchhacker, 1998, Risku, 1998). This would seem a logical conclusion for a centuries-old area of study and discussion¹¹ that has fairly recently been widely described as interdisciplinary.

This conclusion is adopted for the purposes of the naturalistic, exploratory study. The research presented here is grounded in the theoretical and empirical study of interpretation. It proceeds by applying logical analysis in the discussion of the literatures on curriculum, assessment, and language interpreting, and employs an array of complementary methodological tools. In the ex-

⁸ Shlesinger, 1995; Tommola & Lindholm, 1995.

⁹ Massaro & Shlesinger, 1997; see also Setton, 1999, p. 284.

¹⁰ Gile, 1998b. See also Gile 1989; 1990; 1994a; 1994b; 1995b; 1997b; 1998a; but also d'Arcais, 1989; Gentile, 1991; Kurz, 1995; Shlesinger, 1995; Massaro & Shlesinger, 1997.

¹¹ García-Landa, 1995, p. 398.

post facto case study, the statistical and textual analyses are grounded in the fields of language teaching and testing, while the jury member survey employs a social science research methodology. Through the comparison and contrasting of the results of these individual sections, the methodological vulnerability of isolated research approaches emerges. In gaining a holistic view of curriculum and assessment, this researcher finds those principles of language interpreting that are not revealed by a single methodology, but come to light in another, to be particularly fascinating.

The use of interdisciplinary, complementary approaches reflects the complex nature of interpretation as a human activity requiring illumination from various viewpoints. A statistical analysis reflects an interest in searching for empirical evidence that translation skills have an impact on interpretation competence. In a survey, the need to show the quantitative results of the statistical analysis in a qualitative, descriptive context is taken into account. The survey provides information on the quality of the quantitative data, and thus the reliability of the statistical analysis. In this respect, quantitative and qualitative methodologies are regarded as complementary to one another. In turn, the logical/conceptual analysis of texts reflects the need to evaluate the substance of the exams—the materials employed. This multifaceted approach thus reflects the scientific and humanistic approaches to the study of curriculum.

Assessment of student learning is context-specific. It is driven by the educational philosophy of the institution, the curriculum objectives derived from that philosophy, and the dynamics of the learning environment as a function of the cultural values of the institution. Given this context-specific relationship between curriculum, assessment, and learning outcomes, it is apt that an empirical study focus on one educational institution. This is the primary reason why the empirical research in this project has taken the form of a case study, rather than attempting a synoptic evaluation of a wide variety of interpreter education programs.

Therefore, the empirical research focus is placed narrowly on the curriculum at the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI, MIIS), for as Glaser and Nitko comment, "measurement in learning and instruction should be discussed in light of certain instructional design requirements and specific models or systems of instruction" (1971, pp. 627-628). They reiterate this view in their discussion of the purpose of assessment:

the purpose of measurement for instruction can best be illustrated in terms of a particular model for an educational system since different patterns of instruction have different measurement requirements. In general, the model should recognize that the educational process is concerned with behavioral change and that instruction provides the conditions to foster the processes by which change takes place. (1971, p. 630)

Particularly in the case of interaction between curriculum and assessment practices, it is therefore essential that the discussion concentrate on one program of instruction if meaningful results are to be obtained. By using the MIIS program as an example, this case study concurrently illustrates how curriculum, assessment and expertise are intertwined in the educational model and illustrates the need for validation as a universal principle of interpreter education.

Although this empirical research must concentrate on curriculum and assessment in a specific program, readers will find the theoretical discussion of these topics in the first half of the book useful in other educational contexts. Although the results of the case study cannot be generalized to curriculum models that differ fundamentally from the one under study, the research process and conclusions are intended to be thought-provoking and the research questions worthy of pursuit in other educational contexts. Similarly, the type of language interpreting at the focus of this study is the subdomain widely referred to as conference interpretation (both consecutive and simultaneous), but the theoretical framework, discussion of curriculum and pedagogy, and principles of assessment may also apply to other subdomains, such as legal and health-care interpreting.

The study therefore adopts a holistic view of curriculum, in which the relationship between translation skills and interpretation competence is seen as a key factor in the design of a curriculum framework. This relationship manifests itself in the type, amount and sequencing of instruction in each of these areas in a specific curriculum model. This research does not pursue a detailed study of translation or interpretation competence. Although the nature of component skills and their importance in curriculum and assessment is discussed in relevant passages, the study does not attempt to illuminate the nature of these component skills or develop theories or models thereof.

1.5 Overview

This introductory chapter reviewed current and future challenges for interpreter education programs in order to document the need for research on improving the quality of instruction. The evolution of assessment concepts and their integration into curriculum and instruction were described before the objectives of this study were introduced. The research methodology employed in this study and its underlying rationale were discussed as well.

In Chapter 2, the overview of literature reviews key contributions to interpretation pedagogy before focusing on the theoretical discussion of curriculum, expertise and assessment. In the last section, a discussion on the fundamental relationship between translation and interpretation in curricula and instruction identifies this particular topic as one that is actively debated among educators of interpreters and translators, but the overview also shows that little empirical work has been done in this area.

Chapter 3 develops definitions, foundations, guidelines (aims, goals, objectives) and approaches to curriculum by integrating literature on curriculum with literature from Interpretation Studies. Two pertinent approaches—the scientific and humanistic—are particularly relevant to interpreter education. While the evolution of interpretation competence (*curriculum as process*) is represented in the computational view of the mind and the cognitive psychology of expertise, social aspects of curriculum and expertise (*curriculum as interaction*) are taken into account by bringing the community of professional practice into the classroom in order to situate learning, and by establishing mentoring relationships through cognitive apprenticeship. Reflective practice plays a fundamental role in these processes. Educational philosophy, aims, goals and objectives serve as guidelines in curriculum development. Widespread curriculum models in translation and interpretation instruction are reviewed and several models are discussed in greater depth. GSTI curriculum documents are analyzed by employing the principles developed in the theoretical discussion. A discussion of the curricular implications of the material presented in this chapter provides a synthesis of individual sections and forges links to the case study.

Chapter 4 shows how fundamental concepts from the assessment literature apply to interpretation pedagogy. Assessment is seen in this context from the viewpoint of the

curricularist; thus, a description of the nature of assessment in various stages of the curriculum is included. Evidential bases of construct validity can be elaborated in order to improve the comparability of exams. The standardization of assessment procedures to the greatest extent possible through the application of test method facets is also advocated. At the same time, the potential uses of alternative forms of assessment, in particular portfolio assessment, are explored as a means to improve the range and depth of student evaluation.

The case study consists of three parts: Part I (Chapter 5) is a quantitative analysis of scores from the Professional Examinations in interpretation (final degree examinations). Part II (Chapter 6) provides a qualitative analysis of exam philosophy, exam procedures, and assessment criteria. Part III (Chapter 7) addresses the nature of the exam materials in a text analysis. Parts II and III explore the question of the validity and reliability of the data employed in the statistical analysis. The quantitative and qualitative analyses complement one another, thus incorporating both scientific and humanistic views of curriculum and assessment.

In an effort to gather initial evidence on the outcomes of the curriculum in the interpretation degree tracks, the relationship between instruction in translation and performance in GSTI's summative degree examinations (Professional Examinations) is analyzed using a statistical procedure (chi-square). The two tracks in question are those leading either to a MATI degree (Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation) or a MACI degree (Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation). The qualitative analysis is a jury member survey that explores examination administration including purpose, format, and scoring procedures. The qualitative text analysis examines the comparability of exam materials across exam types and three language programs (English, French, and German).

In Chapter 8, the implications of the case study are explored and an integrated Y-track model is proposed as a basis for curriculum enhancement. This optimized curriculum incorporates the theoretical discussion of principles of curriculum and assessment and the conclusions drawn from the empirical study. Steps aimed at improving curriculum and assessment are outlined, and the political and ethical importance of exam validation are outlined. Prospects for further research are presented in the conclusions to the individual sections of the case study and the final chapter, which provides an outlook toward the future.

2 Literature on Interpretation Pedagogy

This overview of the literature on the teaching of consecutive and simultaneous interpretation considers publications in the most widely spoken western European languages. Beyond the scope of this overview are court, medical and community interpreting, signed language interpreting, and Interpretation Studies (IS) literature published in the Asian languages, Arabic and Russian. The purpose of this overview is not to provide an exhaustive review of the literature on the pedagogy of interpretation—such an endeavor can only be accomplished through a joint effort of a group of researchers who adequately represent the wide variety of languages in which this literature is published. Rather, this overview aims to provide a discussion of the nature of literature on interpretation pedagogy using pertinent examples and to present in greater detail literature the past discussion on the four areas of theory developed in subsequent chapters—curriculum, expertise, assessment, and the relationship between translation and interpretation in pedagogy and instruction. Concurrently, the overview in this chapter documents the lack of integration of theoretical constructs from the first three areas in interpreter education. Before these topic areas are discussed, however, a definition of the literature on interpretation pedagogy is given; selected bibliographies and literature reviews are presented; and the character of key contributions to the field, primarily monographs, is described.

One reason why a definition of literature on interpretation pedagogy is needed is that this literature is potentially very broad and overlaps with related areas of study. Its beginnings are also difficult to pinpoint. Examples of this fact include two often-cited monographs from the early post-war period, Herbert's *The Interpreter's Handbook: How to Become a Conference Interpreter* (1952) and Rozan's *La prise de notes en interprétation consécutive* (1956), as well as van Hoof's *Théorie et pratique de l'interprétation* (1962). These books, which have achieved the status of classics, lay out key issues in consecutive interpretation, offer pertinent information to the novice interpreter, and for these reasons are still employed in many interpreter education programs at this writing. Nevertheless, it could be argued that the primary character of these contributions, now over four decades old, is their nature as historical documents of the profession. Their experiential, impressionistic approach dates them, as does the absence of instructional theory. Similarly, writing on aspects of interpretation that interact

with pedagogy reaches back to antiquity.¹ In an area related to teaching methodology, numerous authors have also documented the development of interpretation and the institutionalization of teaching in their respective countries.² As a result of these factors, literature on the education of interpreters is wide-ranging and overlaps with many related topics. For this reason, a narrow definition of this literature is advanced for the purposes of this discussion:

Literature on the pedagogy of interpretation contains an explicit statement of purpose: either the advancement of the theory of teaching interpretation or use in the interpretation classroom (instructional materials). This literature does not draw on the practice of interpretation alone to develop theoretical constructs that inform the practice of teaching, but also on well-established principles of pedagogy and instruction stemming from educational theory.

Most writing that meets these prerequisites postdates the Nuremberg Trials, although training on-the-job extends backward further in time. Bowen, for example, describes the emergence of the conference industry in the late eighteenth century and special training programs offered by employers (1995, p. 252). Delisle documents 1936 as the year in which translation instruction was introduced at the University of Ottawa (1981b, p. 7 – 9).³ Many formal training programs were established in Europe in the 1940s (Geneva 1941, Vienna 1943, Germersheim 1947, Saarbrücken 1948, and Heidelberg 1950). A training program was also established at Georgetown University in Washington DC in 1949 (see Bowen, 1995, p. 252).

Bibliographies on interpretation may be grouped into two rough categories: general bibliographies of IS literature and specialized bibliographies on interpretation pedagogy. General bibliographies include the fairly recent *Annotated Bibliography on Interpretation* (1997), provided by Patrie and Mertz. It is dedicated primarily but not exclusively to the signed languages. The bibliography of the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC,

¹ Bowen, 1994d, 1995, 1998; Gehman, 1914; Karttunen, 1994; Kurz, 1985, 1986; Thieme, 1956.

² Chernov, 1992; Delisle, 1977, 1981b; Gaddis Rose, 1996; Gentile, 1989; Gran & Viezzi, 1995; Kucerová, 1990; Kurz, 1996, pp. 27-34; Niang, 1990; Obst, 1990, 1997a, 1997b; Weber, 1990b.

³ For a review of the development of research in Interpretation Studies since the Second World War through the end of the eighties, see Gile's *Regards sur la recherche en interprétation de conférence* (Gile, 1995d, pp. 31-79).

<http://www.aiic.net>) and Henry and Henry's *International Bibliography of Interpretation* (1987) are additional examples. Specialized bibliographies on interpretation pedagogy are quickly becoming dated. They include Etilvia Arjona-Tseng's *Bibliography of Pedagogy and Research in Interpretation and Translation* (1993) as well as Altman's bibliography on *Teaching Interpreting: Study and Practice* (1987), which contains 172 citations. Finally, Roberts and Blais provided an early bibliography that predates the upsurge in interest in IS during the eighties: "The Didactics of Translation and Interpretation: An Annotated Bibliography" (1981). Daniel Gile also publishes a semiannual Interpretation Research Network (IRN) Bulletin, which contains more recent publications on interpretation pedagogy. All volumes since June 1998 are available online at (<http://ourworld.compuserve.com/homepages/DGile/>).

Most comprehensive reviews of the literature on interpretation have not focused on the pedagogy of interpretation per se, although this topic is sometimes included within their purview. These reviews tend to be contributions to interdisciplinary research on interpretation and research methodology in general.⁴ As such, they are organized according to discipline, or field of inquiry, rather than area of pedagogy. A pertinent example is cognitive processing in interpretation, which has received much emphasis since the late seventies. Gerver's widely lauded review in *Empirical Studies of Simultaneous Interpretation: A Review and a Model* (1976) was updated by Dillinger in *Component Processes of Simultaneous Interpretation* (1989). Similarly, Moser-Mercer retraces the development of cognitive models of the interpretation process in "Process Models in Simultaneous Interpretation" (1997c). As a result of this research, the modeling of cognitive processes in interpretation has emerged as one of the major themes in the literature. However, this field of inquiry is not devoted explicitly to interpretation pedagogy.

Matyssek (1989) provides a review of the literature on interpretation pedagogy, and in particular on notetaking. Matyssek concentrates on key contributions to this area, including the work of Rozan, Herbert, Minyar-Belorutchev, Seleskovitch, and van Hoof. Additional comments on Matyssek's *Handbuch der Notizentechnik für Dolmetscher* are provided below. In 1996, Ilg

⁴ d'Arcais, 1989; Gentile, 1991; Gile, 1989, 1990, 1994a, 1994b, 1995b, 1995c, 1997b, 1998b; Glaser & Chi, 1988; Kurz, 1995, 1996; Shlesinger, 1995; Tommola, 1997.

and Lambert published an extensive review of the literature on “Teaching Consecutive Interpretation.” A similar review on the teaching of simultaneous interpretation has not been completed at this writing.

Although there are few bibliographies and reviews of the literature on interpretation pedagogy, Mackintosh identifies interpreter education as a central theme of IS (1995; see also Pöchhacker, 1994a, p. 244). This situation, which seems contradictory, is an indicator that IS is still in an early stage of development. Nevertheless, perhaps due to the primary interest of many “practisearchers” in professional activities in the field (Gile, 1994b), there are numerous volumes of essays devoted to interpretation pedagogy, more often than not conference proceedings.⁵ Many contributors have selected specific aspects of interpreter training which they discuss in articles and essays that are narrowly defined and do not integrate educational theory. Much of this literature has been characterized as lacking in methodological rigor (Gile, 1990, 1994a, 1997b) or hampered by deficiencies in basic research design (Gile, 1998a, p. 168; Shlesinger, 1995, p.8). As a result, the value of some of this literature is sometimes questioned. Dillinger, for example, states that “it is not clear how to treat the information experts provide in the absence of a body of experimentally-based theory,” and excludes it summarily from his review (1989, p. 17). A welcome development would be the collection of key contributions to the development of IS as a discipline in an anthology or reader for training purposes, as is common practice in other disciplines.

Interest in providing a solid foundation for the teaching of interpretation has continued to grow rapidly since the eighties. Mackintosh cites the numerous conferences and symposia dedicated to the training of interpreters in her “Review of Conference Interpretation: Practice and Training” (1995). In this paper, Mackintosh postulates that a single paradigm in interpreter training exists (p. 121). Kalina, however, expresses reservations about the existence of such a paradigm in interpreter education (1998, p. 236). A salient example of the lack of theoretical and pedagogical unanimity is the unresolved controversy on the usefulness of shadowing in interpreter training.⁶ In this vein, Déjean Le Féal (1998) identifies two broad instructional

⁵ e.g., Delisle, 1981c; Dollerup & Appel, 1995; Dollerup & Loddegaard, 1992; Dollerup, 1994; Fleischmann, Kutz, & Schmitt, 1997; Gran & Dodds, 1989; Wilss & Thome, 1984.

⁶ Kalina, 1998, p. 262-267; Kurz, 1992, 1996, pp. 102-103; Lambert, 1992.

approaches: language pair-independent and language pair-dependent pedagogies. The first group is centered around the Paris School, Seleskovitch, and *la théorie du sens*. The second group cites the lack of empirical evidence of deverbalization and thus advocates greater attention to language pair-specific strategies. Gile in particular promotes empirical research aimed at improving instruction and pedagogy. Déjean Le Féal states that a fundamentally new pedagogy has not emerged as a result of the language pair-dependant viewpoint. In the second half of this article, Déjean Le Féal outlines a sequence of instruction that forms a framework for most curricula. It begins with consecutive interpretation and sight translation in an initial phase and continues with an introduction to simultaneous interpretation before simultaneous interpretation with text and the interpretation of specialized texts is taught. Courses in professional ethics complete the final stages of the curriculum. Despite this general framework, which could indeed be the one referred to by MacIntosh above, Déjean Le Féal mentions introductory simultaneous interpretation exercises as an area in which instructors hold a wide variety of different opinions, in particular with regard to shadowing. Additional areas characterized by fluctuation become apparent when the curious reader reviews the wide variety of curricula and examination requirements within the *Conférence internationale permanente des Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes* (CIUTI). For example, final examinations in consecutive interpretation range between five and fifteen minutes at member institutes (CIUTI, 1999).

Moreover, at this writing, relatively few comprehensive monographs have been devoted explicitly to the pedagogy of interpretation (Kalina, 1998, p. 236). Most of this literature is instructional material. A key example is Gile's *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training* (1995a), a practical sourcebook, or manual, that provides theoretical content structured according to a modular approach for use in both the interpretation and translation classrooms. Although *Basic Concepts and Models* is "the result of much research," it "is not a presentation of research" (xii) in that it focuses on research results and "ventures beyond research results into some speculation" (xii-xiii). At this writing, *Basic Concepts and Models* is perhaps the only monograph incorporating interdisciplinary research into instructional material, albeit through an intuitive approach in which the contributions from neighboring disciplines (cognitive psychology, psycholinguistics) are not made transparent.

Seleskovitch and Lederer's *La pédagogie raisonnée de l'interprétation* (1989) "describes the principles and methods used to train conference interpreters both at the *École Supérieure d'Interprètes et de Traducteurs (ESIT) de l'Université Paris III Sorbonne Nouvelle* and by the Joint Conference Interpretation Service of the Commission of the European Communities" (1995, p. iii). This volume recapitulates and expands Seleskovitch's previous work on pedagogy (1981). *La pédagogie raisonnée* "is not intended to be a manual. It represents a systematic approach to the teaching of interpretation, incorporating principles from a great number of observations of various types of classes and practice sessions ... Nor is [it] a course in so many lessons which any teacher might pick up and follow to the letter" (p. iii), but rather a "true guide" (i) based upon the observation of "several hundred hours of consecutive and simultaneous classes and practice sessions" (p. iii). Although written in 1989, well over fifteen years after the inception of cognitive science (Gardner, 1987, p. 5), Seleskovitch and Lederer do not acknowledge the usefulness of interdisciplinary research for interpretation pedagogy. On the contrary, Seleskovitch and Lederer remain convinced as late as 1986 that contemporary linguistics fails to take context into account and is therefore of limited use in the study of interpretation: "[l]es grands courants de la linguistique actuelle s'en tiennent à l'étude de la langue hors contexte" (p. 264).⁷

Matyssek's *Handbuch der Notizentechnik für Dolmetscher* (1989) is dedicated to the teaching of notetaking for consecutive interpreting. In his "manual," Matyssek provides an overview of the modes of interpretation and interpretation as a profession and lays out a systematic approach to the development of individual notetaking strategies. He explains a wide range of specific strategies from which the interpreter may select and advocates the use of metalinguistic elements, e.g., symbols, in particular. His principles of notetaking, described summarily on pages 220 – 228, emphasize the importance of meaning and economy in any notetaking system. Although the proliferation of symbols in Matyssek's theoretical discussion is extraordinary, his stance on the fundamental aspects of notetaking is in agreement with that of Rozan, Herbert, and other predecessors. The final chapter outlines procedures for the development of a personal notetaking technique and constitutes in this respect an important

⁷ A discussion of Seleskovitch and Lederer, as well as the Paris School, can be found in Pöchhacker (1994a, pp. 19-24) and in Setton (1999).

contribution to the discussion of reflective practice in interpreter education. His position emerges clearly in this context: the student is not advised to adopt 'his' system and 'his' symbols wholesale, but to use this information as food for thought and develop a personal system that meets the needs of the individual. Matyssek points to the usefulness of exposure to highly developed systems of experienced interpreters for this purpose.

Weber's *Training Interpreters and Translators* (1984) "deals neither with linguistics, nor with psycholinguistics, nor with the importance of translation and interpretation in the communicative process" (p. ix), but rather with "the importance of translation and conference interpretation as well-established academic professions and how they should be taught" (p. ix). Weber begins his discussion of interpreter and translator pedagogy with an answer to this very question—"Can translation and interpretation be taught?"—which reflects the state of interpretation pedagogy at the time of writing. Weber's monograph is more comprehensive in nature than that of Seleskovitch and Lederer, or Gile, as Weber provides a discussion of curriculum, testing, career options and professional ethics, in addition to classroom methodology. This is an ambitious goal to accomplish within seventy pages, making it nearly impossible to provide more than a rough framework for translator and interpreter training on the whole, as coherent, practical and necessary as that framework may be even at this writing.

In *Steps to Consecutive Interpretation* (1980), David and Margareta Bowen provide a manual for a fourteen-week introductory course to consecutive interpretation. Consecutive interpretation skills are broken down coherently into types of assignments and related texts, component skills such as note-taking and memory, and individual aspects of these skills (figures, names, legibility of handwriting, redundancy, relationships and symbols). The result is a useful framework for structuring a course for novice interpreters. However, being introductory in nature, this manual does not aspire to impart higher-level consecutive skills. Rather, it is representative of the 'how-to' literature on teaching interpreting, covering, for example, pedagogical planning, the use of appropriate materials, and classroom management techniques.⁸ This volume is grounded in an experience-based pedagogy and does not provide a general theoretical framework that transcends the level of the individual course.

⁸ Other salient examples of this genre of writing include Weber (1989a) and van Dam (1989).

With regard to instructional material for the interpretation classroom, Weber's comment from 1984 still applies:

It is always surprising to people wanting to add a translation and interpretation component to their language instruction that there are very few—if any—textbooks in these fields. The reason for this state of affairs is that instruction is based primarily on personal professional experience and that teaching methods are constantly being improved and adjusted on the basis of this ongoing experience. (p. 11)

A more recent discussion of the interdisciplinary underpinnings of interpretation pedagogy is provided by Silvia Kalina's *Strategische Prozesse beim Dolmetschen: Theoretische Grundlagen, empirische Fallstudien, didaktische Konsequenzen* (1998). Concentrating on "strategic processes in interpretation," the empirical component of this dissertation is based upon protocols from retrospective reports given by interpreters as test subjects. After a comprehensive discussion of the widely recognized limitations of this research methodology, Kalina comes to the conclusion that data from retrospective protocols can nevertheless result in knowledge that is useful for interpretation pedagogy (p. 156), and thus takes the welcome step of utilizing interdisciplinary research for pedagogical purposes. This reader asks himself, however, whether it would have been more useful to focus on one strategic process, or several closely related processes, rather than to strive for conclusions in approximately twenty individual research projects on consecutive interpretation, simultaneous interpretation, communication processes and research methodology (pp. 178-181). Kalina's case studies range from concepts as broad as systematic note-taking (p. 183) to those as specific as anticipation in simultaneous interpretation (pp. 191-192). Perhaps as a result of this comprehensive approach, the conclusion to this study assumes the character of a research report, which is in itself useful. Nevertheless, Kalina advances the state of interpretation pedagogy in that she explicitly applies an interdisciplinary methodology to the teaching of interpretation. At the very least, Kalina's contribution reveals the vast potential for research on interpretation pedagogy and the need to link this research to the existing literature of IS and other disciplines.

2.1 Curriculum

Literature on curriculum may be divided into essays and articles on the theoretical aspects of curriculum and curriculum documents from interpreter education institutions. To date, much of the literature on interpretation pedagogy discusses isolated aspects of interpreter training from the individual instructor's personal viewpoint, e.g., how note-taking skills in consecutive should be taught, how diagnostic testing should be conducted, or how to structure an introductory course in simultaneous interpretation. Individual events of instruction are in the limelight. Rarely is the attempt made to integrate educational theory on the program level, although this topic is now being addressed increasingly in translation pedagogy (Gabr, 2001).

Literature on curriculum theory in interpretation is sparse. In addition, much early writing on interpreter training programs makes no distinction between curriculum and pedagogy.⁹ Other articles may be described as cursory discussions of philosophies of interpreter training in view of market demands of the time (Coughlin, 1984; Coveney, 1976; Gold, 1975). This situation is surprising, as Weber remarks in his practical recommendations on curriculum: "As in all teaching endeavors, it is important never to make too many demands on the good will, the patience, and the abilities of the students. This implies that the curriculum as a whole, and the course contents in particular, must be carefully sequenced" (1984, p. 24).

Freihoff comments on the fact that the discipline of Translation Studies now offers materials, descriptive models and suggestions for teaching methods that can be productive in the context of training (1998, p. 26). As a general rule, statements on German curriculum models, which are the most prolific in this area, have been developed in the context of curriculum reform, as in the case of Gerzymisch-Arbogast & Pfeil (1996), Hönig (1995a, pp. 159-172), Snell-Hornby (1992), and Ammann and Vermeer (1990). Arntz (1989; 1999) deals specifically with curriculum innovation relative to translation.

Little of this writing, however, makes explicit use of curriculum theory as a field of education and/or educational psychology in the discussion of curriculum models. This is clearly a

⁹ Arjona, 1978; Keiser, 1978; Longley, 1978; Paneth, 1958.

desideratum, as curriculum theory has been productive, particularly in the Anglo-Saxon context, since Dewey. Freihoff is the most active author in this area, contributing three articles (1993; 1995; 1998). He also comments on the urgency of a comprehensive discussion of curriculum in translator and interpreter training (1993, p. 197) and advocates the integration of literature from curriculum theory (p. 199). Central conclusions include the necessity of describing curriculum goals and the introduction of greater flexibility in translator and interpreter training through modules (p. 212).¹⁰ A notable exception is also Arjona (1984a), who presents curriculum models common among translator and interpreter training institutes and a detailed description of a curriculum model to be implemented at the Monterey Institute of International Studies.¹¹ In comparison, Arntz (1989; 1999) focuses mainly on innovation in translator education at one particular German training institute. On the whole, scholars in Translation Studies have been more productive in developing a curriculum theory specific to translation. To cite only two examples, Hatim and Mason systematically apply principles of text linguistics to curriculum design (1997, pp. 179-196). Kiraly advocates a “new pedagogy for translation” based upon the communicative approach to second-language teaching (1995, pp. 33-35) and applies theoretical constructs from social constructivism to establish a collaborative approach between instructor and learner in translator education (2000).

Any curriculum model may not correspond to the curriculum as it is actually implemented and experienced by the individual, either instructor or student. This discrepancy between the official and hidden curriculum (Freihoff, 1995, pp. 153-154; 1998, p. 30) in many German training institutes, in particular with regard to the length of training and enrollment figures, has perhaps led to the perceived need for greater flexibility—or options for students. This trend stands in stark contrast to the call for greater structure and sequencing—in the interest of skill acquisition—prevalent in the Anglo-Saxon tradition. The exigencies mandating curricular reform should be considered within this context; they include financial considerations (Gerzymisch-Arbogast & Pfeil, 1996, p. 307, 311) and the lack of correspondence between training and practice often cited by students (Ammann & Vermeer, 1990, p. 25).

¹⁰ see also Hönig, 1995a, pp. 162-164.

¹¹ The model was never introduced (Mikkelsen, personal communication).

Snell-Hornby (1992) provides an extended discussion of trends in translator education and the ensuing need for curriculum reform. She focuses in particular on the educational philosophy and model envisaged for the program at the University of Vienna. As this contribution deals with a comprehensive curriculum model, the role of interpretation in the educational program is dealt with peripherally. Snell-Hornby does draw attention to the need for training in a professional context (p. 18) and advocates the implementation of alternative forms of testing that reflect the realities of future professional life (p. 19)

Renfer (1992) speculates as to the relative merits of four curriculum models: the sequential (two-tier), parallel, post-graduate, and Y-models. In particular, Renfer compares the two-tier system in Zurich with the post-graduate model, which distinguishes itself from the former by not providing a foundation in translation on the undergraduate level. Renfer's discussion is based mainly upon his personal experience and insight. No hard data are provided to substantiate claims, for example that the failure rate is higher in final degree examinations in postgraduate instructional systems.

Curriculum documents are produced for internal and external reference and to create a framework for the practical implementation of the training program (Freihoff, 1995). The systematic comparison of curriculum documents from a large number of translator and interpreter training institutes has not been completed to date, although surveys of programs do exist (Harris, 1997; Park, 1998). A productive approach is the publication of course profiles in journals such as *The Translator*, e.g., Davidson and Wakabayashi (1997), which makes the in-depth analysis and comparison of training courses more feasible.

A cursory review of the CIUTI website does, however, reveal broad fluctuation in the length of training periods, training content, and examination requirements for the awarding of certificates and degrees. Only in the context of a large-scale study can the content of existing curricula be compared, the relationship between official and hidden curriculum assessed, and a common paradigm of translator and interpreter education described, if one is at all desirable.

In conclusion, the consistent application of curriculum theory and instructional design to the core area of translator and interpreter training—translation and interpretation—can aid in

providing a more precise description of curriculum objectives, the ensuing acquisition of skills and abilities, and more successful enculturation of students into a community of professional practice. The systematic, holistic discussion of curriculum and the application of constructs from this field require detailed knowledge of how skills and abilities in interpretation are acquired, i.e., the evolution of expertise in interpreters. Such constructs can be developed for interpretation pedagogy through a discussion of those interdisciplinary areas devoted to the description of the cognitive and social aspects of interpreting and their relation to curriculum sequencing, situated cognition and learning. The literature on expertise in interpretation is an example of such a gateway.

2.2 Expertise

An exploration of differences in performance among experts and novices is not new to the study of interpretation.¹² Despite the widespread use of this paradigm, Moser-Mercer states that “the object of [this] research has never been to isolate particular differences in approach or strategy that could then be exploited for pedagogical purposes” (1997b, p. 256). The recent application of the cognitive psychology of expertise to interpretation holds promise of remedying this situation (Hoffman, 1997a), as it provides the theoretical tools to focus on process in the evolution of interpretation competence. These contributions from Hoffman and Moser-Mercer—the first employing methodology explicitly from the cognitive psychology of expertise for the study of interpretation¹³—have led to initial theory-building based upon the results of research in other domains and to hypothesizing by applying principles of expertise to interpretation. Moser-Mercer also exploits these research tools in an empirical study of problems encountered by novice interpreters in the classroom, and cites the ability to concentrate as a key factor in the early stages of acquiring interpretation skills and abilities (2000, p. 349). Thus, initial study shows that the cognitive psychology of expertise can inform interpretation pedagogy.

¹² Barik, 1973b; Fabbro, Gran, & Gran, 1991; Kurz, 1996, p. 73; McDonald & Carpenter, 1981; for additional relevant studies see Moser-Mercer, 1997b, p. 256; see also Shreve & Diamond, 1997, pp. 245-246.

¹³ Cooke & McDonald, 1986; Hoffman, Crandall, & Shadbolt, n.d.; Hoffman, Shadbolt, Burton, & Klein, 1995; Klein, Calderwood, & MacGregor, 1989.

Research on expertise has the potential to provide theoretical insight into curriculum design in interpreter education programs as well. In his discussion of the stages of skill acquisition and their characteristics, Hoffman suggests that these principles be used to develop curriculum frameworks and calls for an empirical base that provides evidence of validity and verifies the utility of instructional designs (1997a, pp. 217-218).

In the study of translation, developments have been similar. In *Translatorische Kompetenz: Kognitive Grundlagen des Übersetzens als Expertentätigkeit*, Risku builds upon the work of Justa Holz-Mänttari and provides a detailed discussion of the evolution of expert cognitive processes in translation (1998, pp. 79-115). Although Risku draws significant conclusions for the pedagogy of translation, e.g., the inherent value of a process-oriented, empowering approach to instruction emphasizing self-assessment, dialogue and interaction among participants and instructors (p. 234), the evolution of cognitive processes in the translator is the focus of her study, rather than a discussion of the pedagogical methods that support this evolution in the educational context.

2.3 Assessment

Although literature on interpreter assessment is more substantial than the literature on curriculum and expertise, it is nevertheless characterized by a lack of integration in a broad educational context. Such a context would necessarily include the role of assessment and testing in all stages of instruction, the role of various types of assessment, and the relationship between assessment and professional practice.

In general, three areas of testing are apparent in interpreter training courses: (1) entry-level aptitude or, more appropriately, diagnostic, testing for selection purposes; (2) intermediate, formative testing for entry into the interpretation degree track; (3) and final, summative testing for the purpose of degree or certificate conferral. The first two categories may not be separate

in some training programs. The quantity and quality of literature in each of these areas varies, with diagnostic testing having received by far the most attention.¹⁴

The most comprehensive discussion of testing and assessment in interpretation to date is given by Arjona (1984b), who presents broad fundamental considerations of testing throughout an interpreter education program using the Monterey Institute of (then) Foreign Studies as an example. As in many areas of IS, most writing on testing in interpreting has been phenomenal, observational and/or anecdotal, although some headway has been made in the application of principles from cognitive science to interpreter testing, notably in the area of diagnostic testing (Moser-Mercer, 1984, 1994a).

No literature on intermediate testing is extant, other than Arjona's brief comments (1984b) on the examinations formerly in place at the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

In the area of final testing, Belisle and Bowen take a descriptive approach to the documentation of procedures in place in the certificate program at Georgetown University (1983). This is the exception, however, as procedures and rationale of final testing have hardly been discussed in scholarly texts. This lacuna exists for both interpretation and translation, as Hatim and Mason remark:

The assessment of translator performance is an activity which, despite being widespread, is under-researched and under-discussed. Universities, specialized university schools of translating and interpreting, selectors of translators and interpreters for government service and international institutions, all set tests or competitions in which performance is measured in some way. Yet, in comparison with the proliferation of publications on the teaching of translating—and an emergent literature on interpreter training—little is published on the ubiquitous activity of testing and evaluation. (Hatim & Mason, 1997, p. 197)

Quality in interpretation and assessment of interpreter performance are closely linked but are not synonymous with one another. While literature on quality in interpreting is growing,¹⁵ the theoretical discussion remains general. In one of the most comprehensive reviews of thinking on quality to date, Shlesinger points to the “need to find out more about quality, in the interest

¹⁴ Arjona-Tseng, 1994; Bossé-Andrieu, 1981; Bowen & Bowen, 1985a, 1989; Gerver, Longley, Long, & Lambert, 1989; Gringiani, 1990; Hyang-Ok, n.d.; Lambert & Meyer, 1988; Longley, 1989; Moser-Mercer, 1984, 1985, 1994a.

¹⁵ e.g., Cenkova, 1998; Schlesinger, 1997; Koczynski, 1994; Gold, 1976.

of teaching and providing simultaneous interpreting at its best” (1997, p. 131). It remains unclear, however, how quality is to be defined (p. 124) and especially by whom (p. 127).¹⁶ It appears that focus should be placed increasingly on the elaboration of criteria that can be used in performance assessment. A possible gateway is the use of descriptions of desirable, observable performance, e.g., descriptors used in scales for criterion-referenced testing. The presence of performance characteristics would then be an indicator of quality levels.

In his extensive discussion of assessment criteria, Kutz underscores the fluctuation observed in interpreter assessment practices (1997, p. 243). Noting that much of the literature on quality in interpretation focuses on end-user surveys (1996, pp. 56-71),¹⁷ Kutz quite rightly stresses that end-users cannot have the final say, as they do not possess the theoretical knowledge and practical experience to assess interpreter performance (1997, p. 245). Rather, end-user surveys provide essential information on listener requirements and serve as guides in the elaboration of performance assessment criteria.

Schjoldager (1996) presents a feedback sheet that she uses in her interpretation courses at the Aarhus School of Business. Her essay describes her efforts to provide students with formative feedback on their performance that is perceived as substantive and fair. Schjoldager's approach is innovative in that it contains a formalized self-assessment component and thus pursues an ipsative approach in generating constructive criticism and encouraging class participation. The perspective of both the speaker and the listener are reviewed in this article advocating the development of explicit assessment criteria.

In (written) Translation Studies, the discussion has been more productive. Yet, in her review of assessment in the training of translators and in the language industry in general, Gerzymisch-Arbogast laments the plethora of criteria in use and the lack of clarity in definition (1997, p. 575). She notes the potential for research in this area (p. 577).

¹⁶ see also Bühler, 1989; Kutz, 1997.

¹⁷ see also Moser, 1995; Shlesinger, 1997, pp. 128-130.

In this context, Hatim and Mason suggest the use of descriptive profiles in the framework of criterion-referenced testing for translation (1997, p. 209) in their tentative application of Gipps (1994) and Bachman (1990b) to the applied language arts. Identified as a meaningful framework for assessment by Arjona (1984b) over fifteen years ago, the possibility of applying criterion-referenced testing to interpretation has gone virtually unnoticed.

Aside from Hatim and Mason's suggestions for translation assessment, constructs from the field of assessment, measurement theory and language testing have remained largely undiscovered in IS. No literature on validation is extant. Three unpublished Applied Linguistics Research papers¹⁸ written under Jean Turner in the School of Languages and Educational Linguistics at the Monterey Institute of International Studies are an exception. These papers report the research results of three graduate students who examined the Qualifying Examinations (intermediate, formative testing) in the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation. Their focus was on discrepancies between students and faculty in perceptions of examinations and student anxiety (Houba, 1996) and the predictive validity of diagnostic testing for performance on Qualifying Examinations (Monty, 1998; Tapalova, 1998).

Nor have test method facets been evaluated to date. Although some schools of interpretation have internal documents which stipulate examination guidelines (for example, Monterey and Geneva), studies have not been completed on test method facets, which address factors such as consistency in text selection for specific test categories, validity, and reliability, including such aspects as interrater reliability (same test, different raters), or intrarater reliability (different tests, same raters).

2.4 Language Transfer Competence

It is safe to posit that the relationship between written and oral translation is of fundamental importance for the design of curriculum and instruction. Nevertheless, little empirical data have

¹⁸ Applied Linguistics Research papers are studies completed as part of the required coursework in the Master of Arts in TESOL / TFL program of the Graduate School of Languages and Educational Linguistics of the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

been produced on how translation competence and interpretation competence interrelate in training and practice. Instead, philosophical statements are made in various schools of translation and interpretation theory, including Interpretive Theory (IT) and *Allgemeine Translationstheorie* (ATT). Particularly in the German / Austrian school of ATT, translation and interpretation have been regarded as neighboring, distinct yet related abilities, subsumed in one field of study and training (Kade, 1963, 1968; Snell-Hornby, 1998b). The German Society of Translation and IS (*Deutsche Gesellschaft für Übersetzungs- und Dolmetschwissenschaft, DFÜD*), for example, defines these two fields as complementary, equal partners in language mediation that are to be studied in conjunction with one another (<http://www.uni-leipzig.de/~xlatio/dgud/pospap.htm>). Interestingly, however, Pöchhacker (1998) points to substantial divergences in the development of research on translation as opposed to interpretation.

In their proposal for curriculum reform in the University of Heidelberg, Ammann and Vermeer (1990) suggest an approach to curriculum and pedagogy grounded in general interpretation skills from which specialized translation and interpretation skills are then developed (see also Nord, 1997). Similarly, Hönig (1998) explores the hypothesis that interpreters are better at translation than translators themselves. He comes to the conclusion that teaching methods developed for interpretation should be adapted to the traditional translation classroom, as factors governing interpretation, e.g., oral text presentation, holistic text comprehension, and time constraints, may contribute substantially to the streamlining of cognitive processing (p. 342). Given these statements of opinion and preliminary theoretical insights, the paucity of substantial research and writing on the interaction between translation competence and interpretation competence is particularly surprising.

Seleskovitch and Lederer have also addressed the relationship between translation instruction and interpretation instruction in educational programs, in particular by advancing their line of thinking in Interpretive Theory (IT, *la théorie du sens*). Similar to the philosophy expressed by some proponents of ATT, these authors regard translation and interpretation as one activity leading to two distinct products, as Lederer writes in "L'Interprétation, manifestation élémentaire de la traduction" (1985, p. 27-28). However, instead of proceeding to investigate this activity through studies grounded primarily in written translation, Seleskovitch and Lederer

propose interpretation as the foundation. In *Interpréter pour traduire*, they state their conviction unequivocally:

Nous voyons dans l'interprétation le modèle de base, la forme élémentaire, de toute traduction de textes, car il n'y a pas de texte sans message, il n'y a pas de texte sans auteur et sans présupposés, sans éléments cognitifs non explicitement exprimés mais devant être pris en compte. (1986, p. 10)

Lederer proceeds to explore a pedagogy of translation based upon this central premise in *La traduction aujourd'hui : le modèle interprétatif* (1994). Throughout this study, the notion that oral translation skills form the pedagogical foundation for both translation and interpretation is referred to as the Seleskovitch/Lederer hypothesis. García-Landa's position on this fundamental question of pedagogy is also unequivocal; he draws attention to the Westernist premise of the debate in stating that

it never occurs to a professor to remember that much before writing was invented, and for many thousands of years, people lived in strictly oral cultures. Even today, from the more than 4000 languages spoken in this planet [sic] less than 100 have an alphabet and can be written, all the others remaining in the oral phase. People in Western culture are so intellectualized (textified) that they cannot even start imagining what it is to live in an oral culture, to be an oral personality. (1995, p. 403; see also 1985, 1981)

While it would seem at first blush to be a matter of course that oral translation skills should serve as a basis for building high-level skills in both translation and interpretation, clarity on this process has not been established in the community of translation and interpretation instructors. Basing her discussion upon Krings (1987), for example, Kalina proceeds in her discussion from translation competence to interpretation competence and proposes a definition of interpretation competence based on competence in written translation (1998, p. 151). She then turns to differences in teaching translation and teaching interpretation and refutes the notion that interpretation pedagogy can simply take up a methodology based upon the study of written translation and adapt it to an oral medium:

[Es] wird auch hier der Ansatz vertreten, daß die Dolmetschdidaktik nicht die übersetzungswissenschaftlichen Vorschläge übernehmen und an die Bedingungen der Mündlichkeit anpassen kann, sondern eine eigene, auf Erkenntnissen über Dolmetschprozesse, -bedingungen und -erfordernisse basierende Didaktik des Dolmetschens entwickelt werden muß. (p. 235)

Hönig (1995) also advocates the integration of oral text production and oral translation exercises into the early stages of both interpreter and especially translator education to a much greater degree than has been done in the past (1995, p. 166).

Despite these strong statements that oral translation skills serve most aptly as a foundation for the development of higher level translation and interpretation skills, it is translation that serves as a pedagogical basis for higher level competence in both areas in many, if not most, training programs. Areas in which translation skills are applied early and comprehensively in courses of study include diagnostic testing and entry exams for interpretation degree tracks. In addition, the bulk of core coursework in T&I programs is often in the area of translation, regardless of whether instruction in interpretation is offered concurrently or sequentially in the curriculum model. Some writers even proceed to the point of claiming that the sequential curriculum model in which translation precedes interpretation is superior to all others (Renfer, 1992), albeit without data or a well-structured conceptual framework to substantiate the claim. This assertion raises the question as to the degree of specialization, coverage of translation-related knowledge and skills, and development of high-level writing skills (e.g., camera-ready copy) in the translation degree track.

In summary, this overview reveals that the total number of monographs, bibliographies, and reviews devoted to the teaching of interpretation is low, particularly in comparison to other pedagogical fields such as foreign language teaching. Although there are numerous articles and essays devoted to interpreter education, they range widely in terms of substance, methodology, and scope. In the individual areas of focus in this study—curriculum, assessment, expertise, and the role of instruction in translation and interpretation in the development of language transfer competence—much of the literature fails to take educational theory into account. In addition, little empirical data have been provided in these areas. This situation is indicative of the fact that, in the theoretical reflection on interpreter education, research is still in an exploratory phase.



3 Curriculum

If a theory is a set of related statements that are arranged so as to give functional meaning to a set or a series of events, a curriculum theory is a set of related statements that gives meaning to a school's curriculum by pointing up the relationships among its elements and by directing its development, its use, and its evaluation.

(Beauchamp, 1975, p. 58)

In a field as “elusive, fragmentary, and confusing” as curriculum (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1989, p. 1), one is well advised to “choose an approach and definition, a school of philosophy and psychology, developmental and design models, theory and practice relationships, and curriculum responsibilities [one wishes] to promote” (p. 27).¹ The discussion of definitions, foundations and approaches in this chapter mines principles from the literature on curriculum and leverages them for the purposes of interpretation pedagogy. The objective is to make more explicit how educational theory can be utilized in interpreter education by providing a framework for curriculum and instruction. Beauchamp's definition of curriculum theory, cited above, draws attention to the interrelationships between curriculum components and the need to recognize these interrelationships in the development, use, and evaluation of the curriculum as a whole. In translator and interpreter education, these components are diverse in nature, and include, for example, skills-based components (translation vs. interpretation), knowledge-based components (acquisition of domain expertise), and deontological components (knowledge of the profession, e.g., professional identity, ethics and business practices). The manner in which these components interact is described with varying levels of explicitness in different curriculum models. Establishing greater clarity about the nature of these components, their interaction, and appropriate sequencing can only serve to enhance the quality of interpreter education.

The distinction between curriculum and pedagogy is a blurry one. As Walter Doyle remarks, “[t]he meeting point between these two domains has always been somewhat fuzzy, in part because the terms denote separate but interrelated phenomena” (1992, p. 486). In defining the role of each area, he states that “curriculum is intended to frame or guide teaching practice and cannot be achieved except during acts of teaching,” (p. 486). Indeed, three levels of curricular

¹ According to Jackson, “[t]he variety of intellectual pursuits available to those who wish to contribute to an understanding of educational matters in general or curricular matters in particular is truly vast in number and therefore a bit daunting, if not downright unsettling, in its multiplicity. The boundaries of the field are diffuse, so much so that one may wonder sometimes whether it has any boundaries at all” (1992a, p. 37).

interaction may be identified that are by definition interwoven: interaction on the program level, in specific courses, and between individual instructors and students.

This discussion is focused primarily on the broad program level, i.e., “the issues of content selection and arrangement that float well above the surface of particular classrooms” (Doyle, 1992, p. 486). The discussion would not be complete, however, if reference were not made to the manner in which curricular content emerges and is shaped through coursework and social interaction between instructors and students. Therefore, individual events of instruction—the “processes or the ‘how’ of schooling, the human interactions that occur during actual teaching episodes” (p. 486)—are referred to when appropriate. The consideration of these three levels in conjunction with one another is, in fact, a key factor in evaluating the efficiency of the curriculum in action and elaborating proposals for its improvement.

This chapter is structured according to curriculum definitions, foundations, approaches, guidelines, and models. According to Ornstein & Hunkins, the **foundations** of curriculum “set the external boundaries of the knowledge of curriculum and define what constitutes valid sources of information from which come accepted theories, principles, and ideas relevant to the field of curriculum” (1998, p. 13). Accordingly, they reflect a person or institution’s “philosophy, view of history, view of psychology and learning theory, and view of social issues” (p. 16). The foundations of curriculum encompass philosophy, history, psychology and sociology, and reference to each of them is made in the following, particularly to illustrate how each has been implicitly present in interpreter education and the IS literature. Not intended to be exhaustive in scope, the objective of the following discussion of curriculum foundations is to “analyze and synthesize what is known” about these areas of study using selected examples and to “present implications that are relevant to curriculum” (p. 16).

Guidelines are derived from the philosophical and social foundations of curriculum in particular, and they find concrete expression in three categories: the aims, goals, and objectives of instruction. Here once again, the interrelationship between the program level and the course level emerges. The aims of instruction, as will be shown, reflect the educational philosophy of the institution and are expressed in concrete terms as the goals of instruction. Objectives are defined on the course level and serve as milestones in attaining goals.

Curriculum **approaches**, in turn, reflect “a *holistic* position or *metaorientation*, encompassing the foundations of curriculum ... , domains of curriculum (common and important knowledge within the field), and the theoretical and practical principles of curriculum” (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998, p. 16). Psychology, philosophy, and sociology are of fundamental importance in this discussion of approaches to the curriculum. In developing an approach, a researcher must review, contrast, and juxtapose concepts from the interdisciplinary literature on educational psychology and the literature from Interpretation Studies (IS). It is primarily through such a discussion that links between disciplines can be forged, made explicit, and leveraged in an effort to strengthen the theoretical base of each in interpreter education programs. The approaches explored in the following fall into two general categories: scientific, or behavioral (p. 3), and humanistic (p. 8).²

The interrelationships between foundations, guidelines, and approaches are complex and, as discussed in the Introduction, are intricately interwoven with numerous factors that vary by country and institution. They manifest themselves eventually in curriculum **models**, however, which, as a result, have taken many different shapes. A discussion of basic types of models and a contrastive analysis of several models described in greater detail in the IS literature is presented towards the end of this chapter. A conceptual analysis of the GSTI curriculum model provides information pertinent to the case study.

3.1 Definitions

3.1.1 The Official Curriculum

As stated in *Websters Revised Unabridged Dictionary* (1913), curriculum generally refers to “a course; particularly, a fixed course of study, as in a university,” and originates from the Latin term for “a race course; a place for running.” This definition implies that a curriculum has a progression, and that the student proceeds through a structured, ordered curriculum in the

² Other descriptive frameworks have been developed. Greeno, Collins & Resnick, for example, categorize curriculum design principles according to behaviorist/empiricist, cognitive rationalist and situative/pragmatic-sociohistoric views of cognition and learning (1996, pp. 16-26).

pursuit of a defined goal. In his comprehensive discussion of the evolution of the term, for example, Jackson (1992a) writes that “at the heart of the word’s educational usage ... lies the idea of an organizational structure imposed by authorities for the purpose of bringing order to the conduct of schooling” (p. 5). Similarly, Greeno, Collins and Resnick regard curriculum as “a set of educational goals and a sequence of learning activities that are intended to promote development toward those goals” (1996, p. 33). Many alternative types of definitions have also been proposed. In reviewing these definitions, Ornstein and Hunkins state that curriculum can be defined according to five basic views: as plan, experience, system, field of study, or subject matter (1998, pp. 10-11). In contrast, Freihoff defines curriculum operationally as a text providing information on a course of studies (1995, pp. 152, 155).

The discussion in this chapter adopts two of these definitions. The first is the view of curriculum as a written *plan of action*, which is reflected in curriculum documents that contain clearly stated learning objectives. A plan of action is based upon a curriculum model and its underlying objectives; its educational philosophy is grounded in the psychological foundation of and scientific approaches to curriculum. The view of curriculum as a plan of action is a view of *curriculum as process*—in terms of both sequencing curriculum components and sequencing the individual’s learning processes. The second viewpoint defines curriculum as encompassing all of the *learning experiences* of the student. This view of curriculum is a view of *curriculum as interaction*—both in the professional community of interpreters and between student and instructor. It is a definition rooted in Dewey’s philosophy of experience and education (1916, 1938), which has evolved into the concept of reflective practice. Hence, the definition of curriculum as experience is grounded in the philosophical and sociological foundations of the curriculum and the humanistic approach to it.

3.1.2 The Hidden Curriculum

Für das Individuum existiert nur das individuell verstandene, erlebte und gelebte Curriculum, das letztlich den Geist einer Institution ausmacht. (Freihoff, 1995, p. 152)

A written curriculum document is a plan of action, i.e., a guide to curriculum implementation. However, this description of the official curriculum does not document the curriculum in its

entirety. A curriculum plan depicts an ideal, not the curriculum in practice. The theoretical framework of instruction must first be filled with life as the individual personally experiences the curriculum (Freihoff, 1995, p. 152). Hence, in interpreting curriculum documents, it is necessary to look beyond the conceptual framework on paper and assess the program of instruction with the knowledge of an insider. According to Ornstein and Hunkins,

If we only consider the planned curriculum, the official curriculum evident in a written document, or if we are too prescriptive in our approach, in our delivery of instruction, we can ignore the numerous positive and negative consequences that can result. We may fail to realize the power of the hidden curriculum, that part of the curriculum that, while not written, will certainly be learned by students. (1998, p. 12)

Thus, the hidden curriculum instills values and beliefs that shape future members of the professional community. If, for example, simultaneous interpretation into the non-native language is not offered officially in the curriculum or remains in the hidden curriculum, students may come to believe that it is not a legitimate practice. If court interpretation or translation theory is not offered in the curriculum, it teaches that such content is not valued (p. 12). Such information becomes part of the hidden curriculum. In this manner, to return to the quotation of Freihoff above, the only curriculum that truly exists for the learner is the curriculum as it is individually experienced. In turn, this curriculum shapes the spirit of the institution.

Therefore, a case study of curriculum must also take into account those factors that are not manifested in curriculum documents. The knowledge of an insider is required to fully evaluate those variables that are not apparent to the external observer and may nevertheless have an impact on curriculum outcomes. This information about the hidden curriculum must be thoroughly documented and exposed for the benefit of the external observer.

3.2 Foundations

Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) present four fields of study that form the principle foundations of curriculum: philosophy, history, psychology, and sociology. Each of these traditions is present in the IS literature, albeit some in more rudimentary forms than others. In the discussion of pedagogical implications of various schools of thought within the IS literature, it is pertinent to adopt the curricularist perspective and describe how schools of research and research

paradigms relate to the foundations of curriculum. This is the case particularly in view of the fact that all groups make claims to contribute to interpretation pedagogy. It is the perspective of the curricularist, however, that foundations of curriculum do not vie against one another, but rather constitute alternative educational perspectives that complement one another in educational practice.

As outlined in the above discussion of research methodology and rationale, much of the theoretical discussion over recent years has centered on the relative merits of specific research paradigms, also in comparison to one another in the form of value judgments. However, the direction of such a discussion is not the central concern of the curricularist. Rather, the interpreter educator, whether practitioner, researcher, or both, is primarily interested in the ability of these curriculum foundations to inform educational practice. Often, this is an issue of the extent to which fundamental teaching methodologies are addressed explicitly within the research paradigm, and the extent to which research results, whether derived from conceptual analysis or empirical study, lend themselves to concrete implementation in the interpretation classroom. The following discussion of curriculum foundations is not intended to be exhaustive, but rather to show through individual examples how each foundation is implicitly present in the IS literature.

3.2.1 Philosophy

As Ornstein and Hunkins point out, philosophy provides educators “with a framework for broad issues and tasks, such as determining the goals of education, the content and its organization, the process of teaching and learning, and in general what experiences and activities they wish to stress in schools and classrooms” (1998, p. 32). Philosophy thus provides one basis for the discussion of educational objectives and the principles according to which the curriculum is designed.

The educational philosophy of **John Dewey** (1916; 1929; 1938), in particular, emerges as a pervasive force in most discussions of curriculum,³ and the tenets of his *science of education* constitute the groundwork for the humanistic approach to curriculum outlined in the following. Chief among them are the concepts of an *experience-based pedagogy* in which *situated learning* takes place—*learning by doing* through *intelligent problem-solving*, with the *instructor as coach*. A key task in curriculum design is therefore structuring the learning environment around these principles, which ensures that instructional events are sequenced effectively and the desired learning outcomes are attained.

Although focusing on the child and school, Dewey's educational philosophy has been instrumental in the evolution of the concept of education on all levels. Dewey was one of the first to advocate a 'science of education.' Dewey, for whom education begins with experience, outlines the main tenets of his educational philosophy in *The School and Society* (1899) and *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902): education begins with the interests of the learner; the interplay of thinking and doing is required; the teacher is to be seen as a guide and coworker; and all aspects of growth in the student are the educational objective. This approach to curriculum and instruction has been subsumed in the term 'discovery learning.' In *The Child and the Curriculum* (1902), Dewey stresses that the child and the curriculum are merely two limits of the same process and that it is the teacher's task to bridge that gap (p. 11). In other words, the child's experience is intertwined with the subject material covered in courses, and instruction does not emerge simply from the 'fixed and ready-made' organized knowledge presented as ossified subjects of study.

Although Dewey was not the sole contributor to this line of reasoning, he was the major force in educational thinking of his time that gave rise to the concept of curriculum as educative experience (Jackson, 1992a, pp. 6-7). For example, his focus on the role of reflection in problem-solving serves as a basis for Donald Schön's conceptualization of reflective practice (1983; 1987). Recently, principles of the progressivist movement—an emphasis on *how* to think, not *what* to think, problem-solving and cooperative behavior (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998, p. 46)—have emerged in the Translation Studies literature. As a result, Kiraly calls for radical

³ see Prawat (1995) on the versatility of Dewey.

instructional reform (2000). In this regard, constructivism may be seen as a unifying concept for many of these views and philosophies of education.

Despite the multiplicity of views, or “sects,” subsumed under the constructivist label (Phillips, 1995), Duffy and Cunningham identify two unifying principles in their review of this field and its impact on instructional practice: “1) learning is an active process of construction rather than acquiring knowledge, and 2) instruction is a process of supporting that construction rather than communicating knowledge” (1996, p. 171). Kiraly, a pioneer in the application of constructivist principles to translation pedagogy, explores the impact of these instructional concepts in *A Social Constructivist Approach to Translator Education* (2000). His objective is to provide guidance in the development of an educational culture for the study of translation that empowers the learner (p. 193-196):

Constructivism ... is based on the epistemological viewpoint that each individual creates or constructs meanings—or knowledge—of the world through an internal process of reacting to perceived relationships in the environment. From this perspective, structures in the mind cannot be imposed from without; knowledge cannot be passed on from those who know to those who do not; it is only through personal experience that individuals can increase their own knowledge (or understanding of the world around them). (Kiraly, 1997a, p. 144)

The adoption of a constructivist stance implies that the pedagogical value of a theory lies in its meaningfulness to the student, i.e., the student’s ability to utilize a given theoretical construct to advance his or her learning processes. Therefore, the most relevant question from a pedagogical standpoint is whether a student can make use of the concept as he or she constructs his/her personal knowledge of how to interpret. In this vein, Kiraly concludes that the

concept of teaching, in the traditional sense of distributing knowledge, might better be replaced by that of ‘facilitating’ learning, in that the instructor’s job can be seen to consist essentially of situating or contextualizing cognitive tasks, modeling translation processes, and promoting a multiplicity of perspectives for the solving of translation problems and the development of translation strategies. (1997a, p. 146)

The underlying issue is therefore not whether one model or theoretical construct is a more accurate, empirically verifiable representation of a positivist reality than another model, but rather the ability of a theory to contribute to student learning.

3.2.2 History

The historical foundation of curriculum recognizes that all human activities take place within time and context (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1998, p. 62). This foundation contributes to an awareness of the historical development of educational programs and, more specifically, of changes in philosophies and even basic attitudes toward curriculum and instruction that fall into the realm of the sociology of knowledge. Through historical analyses,

we gain a multiplicity of views and a realization of and an appreciation for the complexity of interpretations. In studying this foundation of curriculum, we ... come to appreciate that it is under constant revision. New knowledge of the foundation requires such action. (Ornstein and Hunkins, 1998, p. 62)

This last point is particularly salient, as philosophies of curriculum and instruction have a tendency to become ossified in interpreter education as in other fields. Through an awareness of the historical dimension of training programs and how programs are shaped by prevailing philosophies of education and social contexts, the interpreter educator realizes that curriculum is by definition in a state of flux. To attempt to freeze it in place and leave it unaltered despite advances in knowledge, technological and social progress, shifting value systems, and changes in political and economic life is to condemn it to becoming outdated and irrelevant to the educational needs at hand.

An examination of the early development of curriculum in interpreter training demonstrates this point. Acknowledgement of the need for a comprehensive educational background led, for example to the introduction of law, philosophy, and history classes into the curriculum at the University of Vienna in 1944/45, a program founded in 1943 (Kurz, 1996). The inclusion of simultaneous interpretation in a course of study is perhaps an even more salient example. Kurz draws attention to differences in the attitudes of program administrators and instructors to simultaneous interpretation, and how these attitudes differed between the University of Vienna and the University of Geneva when this particular mode of interpretation began gaining ground in the marketplace. In Geneva, the prevailing sentiment was initially against the teaching of simultaneous interpretation, but individual practice sessions were introduced into the curriculum in 1947. Separate courses became part of regular course offerings in 1950. In Vienna, the first simultaneous interpretation sessions were launched using the university

telephone system in the late 1940s, and instructors were open to this development. Formal classes were added to the course listings in the early 1950s (p. 27-28).

The evolution of the official name of the School of Applied Linguistics and Cultural Studies of the University of Mainz in Gernersheim also reflects changes in the philosophy underlying interpreter and translator education. This particular school was set up in 1947 by the French military in the occupation zone following the Second World War and was called the *Staatliche Dolmetscherhochschule Gernersheim* (literally, the 'State Interpreters School Gernersheim'). In 1972, it was integrated into the University of Mainz as the *Auslands- und Dolmetscherinstitute* ('Foreign Studies and Interpreter Institute'). In 1972, it was renamed *Fachbereich Angewandte Sprachwissenschaft* (FAS; School of Applied Linguistics), which emphasizes the role of academic studies and research in the curriculum. Hönig attributes this name to the dependence of translator and interpreter education on structural linguistics as a theoretical foundation for curriculum and instruction (1995, p. 170). In 1992, the institution's name was changed to *Fachbereich Angewandte Sprach- und Kulturwissenschaft* (FASK; School of Applied Linguistics and Cultural Studies), to reflect an added emphasis on area studies (history and political systems, literature and the arts) in the countries where the languages of study are spoken. It is interesting to note as well that originally three degrees were offered by this institution: translation, commercial correspondence, and interpretation. The graduate degree in interpretation (*Diplom-Dolmetscher*, equivalent of a Master of Arts) was thought to be an avenue of further study only for the best students who had already completed either a degree in translation or a degree in commercial correspondence. Students who continued in interpretation were required to have a good general education and a perfect spoken and written mastery of their future working languages.⁴ This sequential curriculum model later gave way to a Y-track version, and the degree in commercial correspondence has since disappeared from the curriculum, although courses in this subject matter are still offered at this writing. More recent curriculum reforms (1998) include the modularization of degree tracks and individual study components to make the curriculum more flexible in meeting student needs (*Ordnung*, 1998).

⁴ *Journal Officiel*, qtd. in Stoll, 1996, p. 11.

These curriculum changes are several examples of how interpreter education has evolved since its inception. According to Ornstein and Hunkins, such knowledge serves several purposes in curriculum design and implementation. First, “an understanding of historical foundations in education helps us integrate curriculum, instruction, and teaching” (p. 69). Furthermore, the historical perspective facilitates the development of a common or core curriculum. It aids in understanding how content and process in subject areas relate to one another, and it provides an opportunity to add a moral dimension to education, in particular through the discussion of case studies and ethics (p. 60). Perhaps most importantly, through a historical sense of interpreter education, we “will comprehend that curricular activity exists within various ‘configurations of factors that are time bound and context-specific’ and out of such dynamics emerge appropriate actions for particular times, rather than one best system” (p. 96). In other words, we realize that curriculum evolves continuously as we adapt the content and delivery of instruction to changing social, political, and economic circumstances and individual and group needs.

3.2.3 Psychology

The field of psychology, a third curriculum foundation, complements the philosophical foundation, described above, by providing an understanding of teaching and learning processes. According to Ornstein and Hunkins, all curriculum scholars “agree that teaching the curriculum and learning the curriculum are interrelated, and psychology cements the relationship” (1998, p. 100). Therefore, this foundation is “much in evidence in education ... both in direct and indirect form,⁵ and psychologists have played a major part in advancing the understanding of “learning so as to better inform curriculum development and teaching.”⁶

The psychological foundation encompasses a scientific approach to curriculum. In their review of the scientific tradition in curriculum studies, Darling-Hammond and Snyder stress that a

⁵ Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1992, p. 517; see also Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, pp. 54-56.

⁶ Darling-Hammond & Snyder, 1992, p. 46.

scientific approach seeks to justify curricular decisions by reference to a growing base of knowledge about the nature of learning and the effects of teaching choices on various learning outcomes. This approach might be viewed as standing in contrast to, or complementary with, approaches that seek to justify curriculum decisions on more purely philosophical or humanistic grounds, referencing values and beliefs as the cornerstones of evaluative judgments and actions. (1992, p. 41)

In line with the focus on empirical studies in interpretation, “[t]he scientific tradition offers a range of procedures for attempts to understand and advance curricular theory and practice by grounding them empirically in systematic studies of student learning and classroom undertakings” (p. 41). The scientific approaches to pedagogy and instruction pursued in the following include information-processing and the curriculum theory derived from it, instructional design systems, and the cognitive psychology of expertise.

Prevalent in the discussion of the impact of cognitive psychology on curriculum and pedagogy is the relationship between knowledge gains and their application in the classroom. It has not been made sufficiently explicit how the knowledge of cognitive psychology can be exploited for pedagogical purposes. The “new methods, as studied by psychologists, yielded new knowledge, but it was not always ready to be put into a form for the teacher to use” (Hilgard, 1996, p. 1001). Some interpreter educators may be guided by this impression when reviewing the literature of cognitive psychology and cognitive models of interpreting that have been advanced since the seventies. In this vein, Sternberg remarks that “those who have actually attempted to apply cognitive principles to instruction know that the relationship between cognition and instruction is not an untroubled one” (1986, p. 375), and cites the areas of theory, student and teacher ability, and student and teacher motivation as hurdles. A particular difficulty is the merging of theories of cognition and theories of instruction that are applicable at the level of the classroom unit and that of the individual (p. 275). For example, a theory may specify performance processes at a level of analysis that is inappropriate for instruction (too macroscopic or too microscopic) and is therefore instructionally irrelevant (p. 377). These problematic aspects of cognitive psychology are not prevalent in the literature on instructional design systems, which is in widespread use in business and industry (Gagné, Briggs, & Wager, 1992).

3.2.4 Sociology

Through the fourth curriculum foundation, sociology, attention is drawn to the fact that the curriculum reflects society and those values that shape it. In other words, societal factors have a direct impact on the subject matter that is taught in the curriculum, those aspects of the subject matter that are emphasized, and how the subject matter is delivered. In interpreter education, these aspects become apparent, for example, through the role that cultural studies, literature, and history play in the curriculum model. An additional factor is the degree to which a program is 'business-friendly,' i.e., the degree to which it simulates industry practices, ethics, and professional conduct, thus providing a seamless transition into the workplace. The statement that only the very best students of translation may proceed in the curriculum and attain a degree in conference interpretation, as mentioned in the section on history above, is an expression of the esteem in which interpretation is held in some institutions. At the same time, it reflects how translation, relegated to a subordinate role, is seen and valued. Whether mentioned explicitly in the official curriculum or conveyed indirectly in the hidden curriculum, these views are inevitably perpetuated from one generation of students and practitioners to the next. As Ornstein and Hunkins state, the "values, beliefs, and norms of a society are maintained and passed to the next generation not merely by teaching about them, but also by embodying them in the very operation of the educational system (1998, p. 138). The point of this discussion is not to judge whether the values advocated are good or bad, but merely to draw attention to the fact that social values shape our educational systems, and therefore require consideration in curriculum design and implementation.

Values are also driven by social dynamics that are both internal and external to the profession. External factors include the fact that the campus of the school of translation and interpretation is by definition multicultural. Although the dominant academic culture is unambiguous—it is that of the country in which the program is located—integration is necessary across programs and languages in an effort to promote multicultural understanding.

From the internal perspective of the program, the organization of theoretical, practical, and productive knowledge in the curriculum is a pertinent example of how educational values lead to differences in curricular frameworks. While some programs stress general knowledge and

one specific field of specialization, for example medicine, business and finance, science and technology, or law (University of Mainz in Gernersheim, *Studienordnung*), another program may strive to achieve breadth and depth of professional currency in all of these fields concurrently (Monterey Institute of International Studies). Yet another curriculum framework may offer a range of possible subject matter specializations that is limited only by the courses taught in the university as a whole (University of Tampere, Freihoff, 1993, p. 214).

In summary, both the official and the hidden curriculum are influenced by sociological factors both internal and external to the program. What is taught and how it is taught is shaped by the worth attached to it by those individuals who design the curriculum. The educational philosophy of the institution is thus an expression of these values, which serve as guidelines in the design and implementation of curriculum.

3.3 Guidelines

In the landmark text *Basic Principles of Curriculum and Instruction*, Tyler (1949) opens his discussion by asking the question, “What educational purposes should the school seek to attain” (p. 3). His response highlights the importance of clearly defining the aims of instruction and provides food for thought for interpreter education programs as well:

Many educational programs do not have clearly defined purposes. In some cases one may ask a teacher of science, of English, of social studies, or of some other subject what objectives are being aimed at and get no satisfactory reply. ... if an educational program is to be planned and if efforts for continued improvement are to be made, it is very necessary to have some conception of the goals that are being aimed at. *These educational objectives become the criteria by which materials are selected, content is outlined, instructional procedures are developed and tests and examinations are prepared.* All aspects of the educational program are really meant to accomplish basic educational purposes. Hence, if we are to study an educational program systematically and intelligently we must first be sure as to the educational objectives aimed at. (Tyler, 1949, p. 3; emphasis added)

Tyler sees the purposes of instruction as a source of guidance in designing, structuring, and implementing the curriculum. Purposes are manifested in the philosophy, aims, goals, and objectives of the educational program. Clarity of purpose on each level of the curriculum—conceptual, program, course, and unit—contributes to optimum instructional design. Moreover, the precise definition of instructional outcomes informs decisions concerning skill sequencing,

content selection, and the use of appropriate materials. In turn, it facilitates the integration of valid and reliable forms of assessment into the instructional regime. According to Mager,

[o]bjectives, then, are useful in providing a sound basis (1) for the selection or designing of instructional content and procedures, (2) for evaluating or assessing the success of the instruction, and (3) for organizing the students' own efforts and activities for the accomplishment of the important instructional intents. In short, if you know where you are going, you have a better chance of getting there. (1975, p. 6)

In other words, the “best way to design instruction is to work backward from its expected outcomes” (Gagné, Briggs and Wager, 1992, p.39).

Educational aims, goals, and objectives are sometimes considered synonymous. In the curriculum literature, however, three levels are distinguished from one another, as aims are generally attributed to the institutional level, goals to the program level, and objectives to the course level. See Figure 2. Freihoff describes this division of labor as follows. Aims are defined through mission statements and guidelines. Goals are formulated by defining subdomains, activities and contents of instruction. Finally, objectives emerge through the identification of specific topics and process planning (1995, p. 157-158). All three areas, however, are shaped by educational philosophy. Ornstein and Hunkins thus describe the progression in defining educational outcomes as a progression beginning with educational philosophy, from which the aims of instruction are derived. Goals are derived from the aims, and finally objectives from the goals (1998, p. 274).

3.3.1 Educational Philosophy

A curriculum is grounded in the educational philosophy of the institution, in which academic tradition and culture play a significant role (Freihoff, 1998, p. 26-27). National traditions in translation and interpretation are, for example, discussed in Baker's *Encyclopedia of Translation Studies* (1998b). Manifestations with direct impact on curriculum design include specific legislative and administrative requirements in the educational system, e.g., those governing entry-level and final, summative testing and the process of approving changes to the curriculum and examination guidelines, as discussed in the introduction to this study.

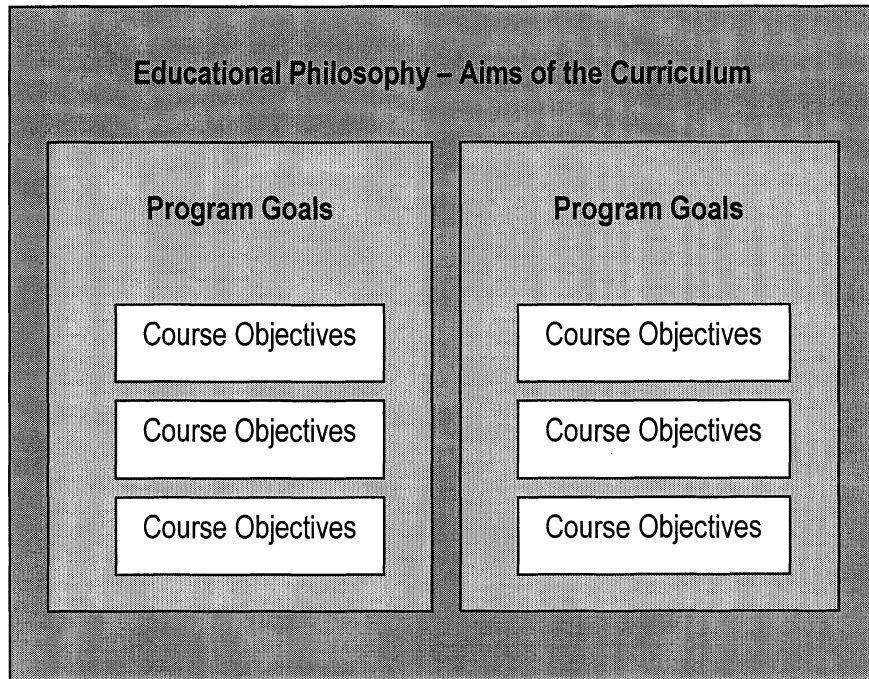


Fig. 2 Aims, Goals, and Objectives in the Curriculum

In this regard, Forstner stresses the need for equivalence among programs while allowing for diversity:

Es ist nicht die Aufgabe und auch nicht die Absicht der in der C.I.U.T.I. zusammengeschlossenen Institute, die Ausbildung von Übersetzern und Dolmetschern zu vereinheitlichen oder gar zu standardisieren. Dies wäre, zumindest zum augenblicklichen Zeitpunkt, kaum möglich, da in Europa die jeweiligen nationalen rechtlichen Vorschriften sehr unterschiedliche Rahmenbedingungen setzen. Es sei hier nur erwähnt, daß Aufnahme- oder Eignungsprüfungen in Deutschland nicht möglich wären, während dies in Italien und Frankreich, um nur zwei Beispiele zu nennen, üblich ist. Ziel ist also nicht die Gleichförmigkeit in der Ausbildung; vielmehr wird **Gleichwertigkeit in Vielfalt** angestrebt. Die Wege, die zu den akademischen Abschlüssen führen, sind unterschiedlich. (1995, p. XV)

Variations in culture, educational philosophy and ensuing legislation thus lead to a wide variety of curriculum models, and the objective of CIUTI is to strive for comparability across programs rather than the uniformity of all programs. As a result of this diversity, different educational programs have different considerations to make in curriculum implementation, different challenges to take up, and different problems to solve. Therefore, Forstner draws attention to the need to strike a balance between unity and diversity based upon the compatibility of curriculum outcomes in the community of institutions that educate translator and interpreters.

The educational and social philosophy of the interpreter education program is normally reflected in its mission statement and curriculum documents, which clearly delineate the aims of the instructional program. The mission statement of the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation of the Monterey Institute of International Studies, for example, stresses that

... faculty ... are committed to helping students in a supportive and stimulating environment to develop the analytical skills, cultural literacy, conduct, competence, professional integrity and loyalty needed to become superior professional translators and interpreters. (Monterey Institute of International Studies, 1998, p. 2)

Content in each of these areas emerges through a process of interaction between various stakeholders who are both internal and external to the educational institution. This process is depicted in Figure 3.

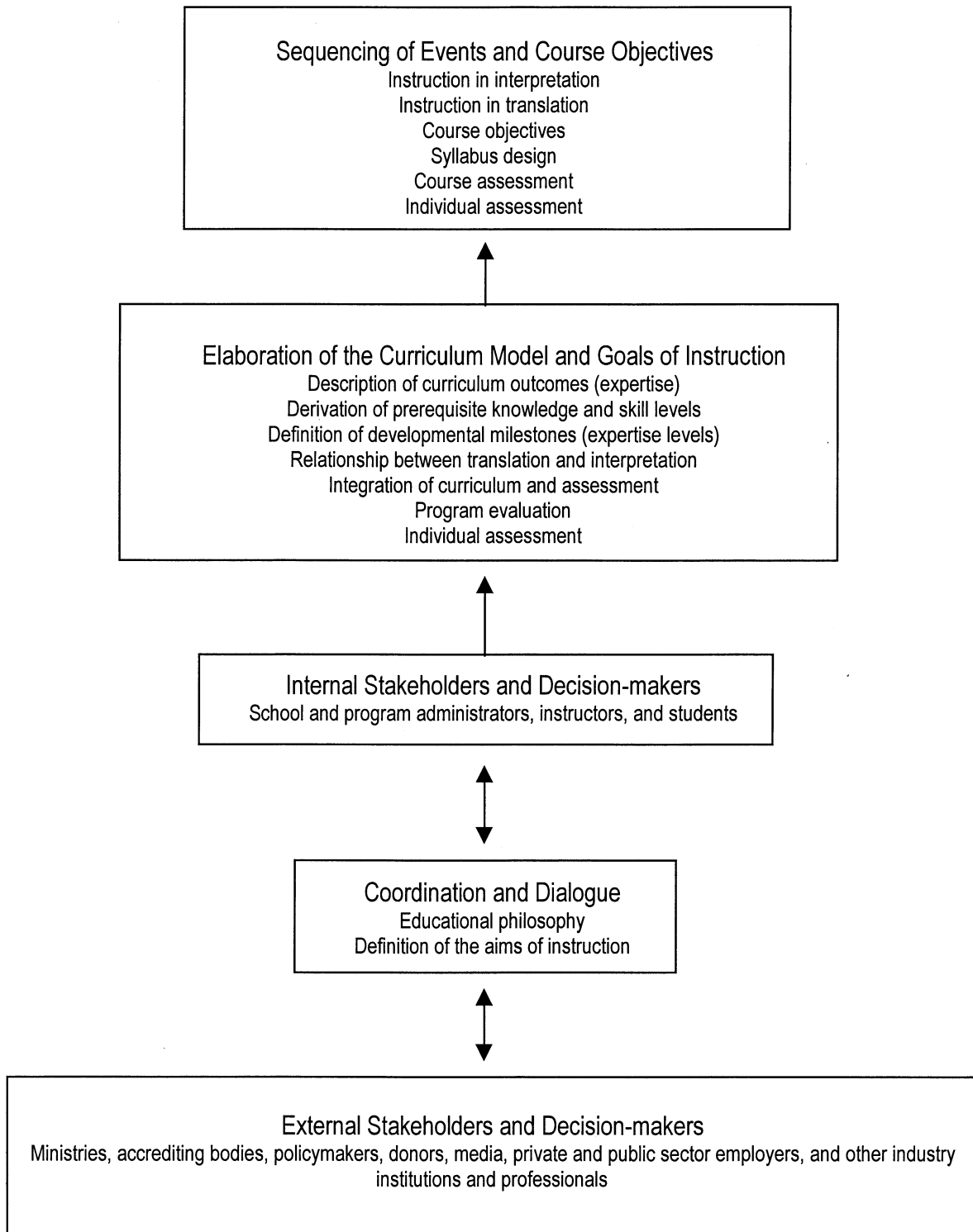


Fig. 3 Process of Defining Aims, Goals, and Objectives for the Curriculum

3.3.2 Aims

In their definition of aims, Ornstein and Hunkins draw attention to the visionary character of aims, which reflect the values of the educational philosophy. Aims do not refer directly to events of instruction, but rather to the belief system upon which the program is founded:

Aims are general statements that provide both shape and direction to the more specific actions designed to achieve some future product or behaviors. Aims are starting points that suggest an ideal or inspirational vision of the good. They reflect value judgments and value-laden statements, and they furnish educators with guides for the educational process. (1998, p. 269).

The aims of instruction vary according to educational philosophy. A program of instruction in a professional school within the American graduate school system, for example, will often stress the practice of the profession in the context of the workplace. According to Arjona, professional education "entails a comprehensive and integrated course of study designed to prepare the student for free-lance or full-time practice in the field" (1984a, p. 4). In contrast, a course of study in a department of a German research university may stress the unity of research and teaching following the conceptions of Humboldt, and a prerequisite for graduation will be the fulfillment of a research component. There are few statements of aims in interpreter education formulated explicitly by degree-awarding institutions. If explicit statements of aims are not made for an instructional program, this is an area in which the hidden curriculum plays a dominant role.

3.3.3 Goals

In contrast to aims, goals are not open-ended statements; rather, they are specific statements that serve as guidelines in implementing the program of instruction. The formulation of explicit goals in interpreter education is more widespread than the formulation of aims. Examples are discussed in the following.

Goals are situated on the program level and are equivalent to the outcomes of the curriculum. Ornstein and Hunkins, for example define goals as "statements of purpose with some outcome

in mind" (1998, p. 272). They identify goals as the "desired outcomes for students as a result of experiencing the curriculum" (p. 272).

There seems to be a consensus in the IS literature that the overarching goal of interpreter training is to produce interpreters who are able to work immediately and reliably on the market. Willet states, for example, that the goal of a course of study is to become "ein fertiger Konferenzdolmetscher" (1984), in the sense that the program graduate is competent and ready to work directly after graduation. Giving the rationale for this statement, Willet stresses that every new entrant to the profession is immediately and solely responsible for the quality of his/her output (see Déjean Le Féal, 1998, p. 363). This absolute statement does not make allowances for mentoring by senior interpreters on the job, which is often done as fresh graduates are incorporated into teams and work with experienced colleagues. Mentoring and internship possibilities are also becoming more widespread in the institutional markets, with programs aimed at the recruitment of young interpreters who are expected to broaden and deepen their qualifications, for example at the EU.

An indication of a more gradual transition into the workplace, which is also reflected in the fact that interpreters in specific language combinations are in short supply, is given in the description of curriculum goals for the European Masters in Conference Interpreting:

Within the framework of the European Union's drive towards the promotion of knowledge through wider access to specialist education and of the objective of improved employability through the acquisition of specialist competence, this intensive course is designed to equip young graduates with the professional skills and knowledge required for conference interpreting. The course seeks to meet the demand for highly-qualified conference interpreters, particularly in the area of the less widely used and less-taught languages and in view of the expansion of the Union and of the Union's increasing dialogue with its non-European partners. (<http://www-gewi.kfunigraz.ac.at/emci/>)

This definition of curriculum goals is fairly typical of many other statements issued on programs of instruction. Freihoff, for example, defines the goals of the educational program as ensuring that the graduate is able to conduct him or herself appropriately in the professional role of the language expert, i.e., as translator or interpreter (1998, p. 27). Similarly, Amman and Vermeer state that the goal of interpreter and translator education programs is the ability to translate and/or interpret in a manner that is appropriate for the target culture and recipient—"Zielkulturadäquates und rezipientenspezifisches translatorisches Handeln" (1990, p. 17). The

latter definition is an indication that there is not a single curriculum goal, i.e., the ability to work as a interpreter, but rather that this overarching goal consists of a series of goals that have also been made explicit. They are explored in the following.

One of the clearest and most complete documents on curriculum and learning outcomes in interpreter education has been produced by the Conference of Interpreter Trainers in the United States. The *National Interpreter Education Standards* (1995), which pertain to the education of American Sign Language (ASL) interpreters, identify three areas in which instructional goals are to be formulated: "the knowledge, skills, and perspectives students need to gain in order to enter the field of professional interpreting" (p. 1). In the CIUTI Handbook, these goals in skill and knowledge development are subsumed under translation competence, both written and oral, which is then subdivided into four components: competence in the mother tongue, competence in the foreign language(s), translation (transfer) competence, and cultural competence (Forstner, 1995). The 1999 *Studienordnung für die Diplom-Studiengänge Übersetzen und Dolmetschen* of the School of Applied Linguistics and Cultural Studies of the University of Mainz follows this model. It focuses on the skills and abilities to be acquired during training, which include competence in the native tongue and foreign languages under study, cultural competence, competence in linguistics, and subject matter competence in one field of specialization.

In comparison, Arjona lists four professional objectives of a course of study, which fall under the category of program goals:

1. *understanding* by the student of issues and problems he/she is called upon to address in real life situations;
2. *fluency* or familiarity with the vocabulary, symbol system, and traditions of the field;
3. *continuity of learning*, thus ensuring that the student will be able to continue to learn and develop professionally after exiting the program; and
4. *resourcefulness* in the student, thereby training him/her in the manipulation of human and intellectual resources to ensure successful professional work. (1984a, p. 4)

Arjona distinguishes key goals from related objectives, which she terms "ancillary skills training ... the teaching of certain T/I techniques and methods and the exposure to limited practical experience in translation and/or interpretation" (p. 5). Ancillary objectives aim to 1) enhance

students' personal development, 2) improve their proficiency in foreign languages, or 3) complement the students' foreign language program of study (p. 5).

Similar to the *National Interpreter Education Standards* and Arjona, Freihoff describes goals as the activities, competencies, attitudes, knowledge and abilities that enable graduates to complete complex translation and interpretation tasks independently and responsibly through analysis and problem-solving and to justify their approach to task solutions (1998, p. 26):

Ziel der Ausbildung ist, verantwortungsbewußte, eigenständig denkende, tatkräftige Persönlichkeiten, Translationsexperten, heranzubilden, die komplexe Vermittlungsaufgaben übernehmen, analysieren und lösen und ihr Vorgehen argumentativ vertreten können (pp. 28-29).

In summary, there seems to be widespread agreement that graduates need to be well-equipped to work independently in the profession, although a period of initiation into the specific demands of a given workplace is required and often provided through mentoring or other forms of in-house training. The consensus is not as strong as to the nature of second-order goals that contribute to the attainment of this overarching curriculum outcome. This diversity is also reflected in the wide range of curriculum models that exist in translator and interpreter education. The discussion of the scientific and humanistic approaches to curriculum design is intended to aid in building a framework for a more precise goal description.

3.3.4 Objectives

Compared to aims and goals, objectives have the highest degree of specificity. Derived from the two former areas and the educational philosophy of the institution, they describe the concrete outcomes of course instruction. As Ornstein and Hunkins remark, “[w]ithin the context of educational aims and goals, it is necessary to formulate objectives that will indicate in more specific terms the outcomes of the curriculum or project being considered.” (1998, p. 274). Although this study focuses on curriculum and a detailed discussion of instructional objectives to be met in the classroom is beyond its purview, a discussion of interaction between the course and curriculum levels, i.e., between goals and objectives, follows.

Interaction between goals and objectives is evident in the development and breakdown of educational objectives, which in the case of Ornstein and Hunkins (1998) mirror the curriculum approaches. They list the behavioral approach, managerial or systems approach, humanistic approach and reconceptualism (pp. 283-285).

The seminal *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* establishes a breakdown of objectives into the cognitive and affective domains, which correspond to the scientific and humanistic approaches to curriculum. In the cognitive domain, the categories proposed include knowledge (scientific) in its various types and intellectual abilities and skills, i.e., comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation (Bloom, 1956). The affective domain (humanistic) consists of receiving (attending), responding, valuing, organizing (values), and characterizing a value or value complex (Krathworth, Bloom & Masia, 1956). For Ornstein and Hunkins, cognitive and affective domains are not all-encompassing and therefore add the psychomotor domain (1998, p. 281).

More recently, Gagné, Briggs and Wager (1992) advance five categories of learning outcomes: intellectual skills, cognitive strategies, verbal information, motor skills, and attitudes. Each of these areas is represented on both the course and the curriculum level. "Intellectual skills enable individuals to interact with their environment in terms of symbols or conceptualizations ... Learning an intellectual skill means learning *how to do* something of an intellectual sort," and may be equated with procedural knowledge (p. 43). The intellectual skill 'how to interpret' would fall into this category. Cognitive strategies, a term generally attributed to Bruner (Bruner, Goodnow & Austin, 1956), "are the capabilities that govern the individual's own learning, remembering, and thinking behavior" and are generally domain specific (pp. 44-45). Verbal information is "the kind of knowledge we are able to *state*. It is *knowing that*, or *declarative knowledge*" (p. 46). World knowledge and knowledge of subject matter are pertinent examples in interpretation. Motor skills make motor performance possible, e.g., riding a bicycle, drawing a straight line, or printing letters, and are also required for speaking, listening, reading and writing (p. 47). Finally, attitudes are from the affective domain and "amplify an individual's positive or negative reaction toward some person, thing, or situation" (p. 48). They are important in education, because they are persisting states that modify the individual's choices of action (p. 48). In translator and interpreter education, objectives have also been defined

more broadly as individual tasks, situations, topics, processes, tools and means of expression (Freihoff, 1998, p. 27). It would seem plausible that attitudes play a crucial role in the hidden curriculum.

In summary, goals and objectives seem to fall into two general categories: the development of the knowledge and skills required to interpret and the development of an awareness of appropriate conduct and membership in a professional community.

3.3.5 Curricular Implications

Aims, goals and objectives provide guidelines for curriculum design that are grounded in the educational philosophy, the values and belief system of the educational stakeholders. The distinction between these three levels of educational objectives can aid in gaining greater clarity about how the curriculum functions, how its individual elements relate to one another, and how goals can be reached. In addition, these distinctions aid in defining with greater clarity the purposes of assessment and how assessment is to be conducted. Thus, defining aims, goals and objectives and determining whether they have been met is inherent to the circular process of designing curriculum and assessing the outcomes of instruction as described in the introduction to this study.

Based upon the categories and types of goals and objectives listed above, four broad types can be readily discerned: (1) language skills, (2) transfer skills, (3) domain knowledge (subject matter), and (4) knowledge of the profession / professional identity. As shall be argued in the discussion of curriculum approaches, these individual areas should also be integrated in instructional coverage. For an educational program to be successful, the competence levels in each of these domains must be attainable. Therefore, the statement of goals should not be overly ambitious. As Tyler states,

An educational program is not effective if so much is attempted that little is accomplished. It is essential therefore to select the number of objectives that can actually be attained in significant degree in the time available, and that these be really important ones. Furthermore, this group of objectives should be highly consistent so that the student is not torn by contradictory patterns of human behavior. (1949, p. 31)

Therefore, according to Tyler, if instructional goals are to be attained as efficiently as possible, it is important to determine whether these goals overlap, whether they work at cross purposes to one another, and therefore whether they are easier to reach if pursued sequentially or concurrently. In interpreter education programs, variations in the role of translation instruction (a subtype of language transfer skill) are a pertinent example of how curriculum models differ substantially from one another.

3.4 Approaches

3.4.1 Scientific - Curriculum as Process

In comparing the behavioral approach to other major curriculum approaches,⁷ Ornstein and Hunkins describe this view as “the oldest and still major approach to curriculum” (1998, p. 2) and as “a frame of reference against which other approaches to curriculum are compared” (p. 3). Furthermore,

[i]t relies on technical and scientific principles, and includes paradigms, models, and step-by-step strategies for formulating curriculum. Usually based on a plan, and sometimes called a blueprint or document, goals and objectives are specified, content and activities are sequenced to coincide with the objectives, and learning outcomes are evaluated in relation to the goals and objectives. (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998, p. 2)

Hence, the behavioral approach was the major foundation for curriculum for much of the previous century. Early behavioral approaches to curriculum design had the goal of making schools and curriculum more scientific or precise and reducing teaching and learning to behaviors with corresponding activities that could be measured. Later, Tyler (1949) combined behaviorism with progressivism, thus incorporating the influence of Thorndike (objectives), Dewey (needs of the learner), and the scientific approach to curriculum that had been developing prior to Tyler’s landmark text. As a result, behavioral approaches broadened and came to regard the learner as a cognitive functioning individual within a social context in order to address the complex nature of human learning (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998, p. 3).

⁷ The four other approaches to curriculum defined by Ornstein and Hunkins are the managerial, systems, academic, and humanistic approaches (1998, pp. 3-8).

For Darling-Hammond and Snyder (1992), the behaviorist perspective is but one of many scientific approaches to the study of curriculum. Although behaviorism evolved to allow the investigation of the inner workings of the mind (p. 49), they conclude that “we must look outside of the behaviorist orientation for explanations of how certain interventions produce their effects, why they seem to be more effective in some circumstances than in others, and whether the effects produced support or detract from other desirable goals” (p. 49). Additional traditions of scientific inquiry include the developmental, cognitive structuralist, and cognitive science perspectives. Two research paradigms in IS that may be instrumentalized for curriculum purposes fall into the last category—the computational view of the mind and the cognitive psychology of expertise.

3.4.1.1 The Computational View of the Mind

The computational view of the mind and information processing (IP) in particular originated in the work of Miller, Cherry and Broadbent, and Bruner in the 1950s.⁸ In IS, Gerver (1976), Massaro (1978) and Moser (1976; 1978) first applied information processing to interpretation.⁹ In terms of curriculum and pedagogy, researchers “who follow an information-processing paradigm for examining learning tend to focus more on the cognitive structures built up by the learners themselves,” according to Darling-Hammond and Snyder (1992, p. 54). They state further that in this process “humans develop increasingly powerful cognitive structures [frameworks] for organizing and applying their knowledge” (p. 54). The information processing approach holds promise of providing a “unique contribution” to learning and instruction due to its “sharpened focus on the process of thinking and the relationship between mental processes and performances” (p. 55). Furthermore, they view the information processing approach as a constructivist one. In accordance with this theory,

learning is influenced not only by how information is presented but also by the learner’s understanding of the learning goals, by the schemas or framework used to interpret and process information, by prior knowledge (including conceptions and misconceptions) and the manner in which it is addressed in a new context, and by his or her own learning strategies. (p. 55)

⁸ For an overview, see Gardner, 1987, p. 89-95.

⁹ For a review, see Setton, 1999.

Instrumental in the discovery of these principles has been the observation of how different modes of information presentation have an impact on learners' performances on certain types of tasks. These studies include subjects with varying levels of proficiency, as in comparisons of experts to novices (p. 55).

Moser-Mercer (1997c) reviews process models of interpreting that have been developed since the late seventies, in particular through computational modeling, i.e., "the formal, quantitative description of behavior by the interaction of a set of simpler component processes" (Massaro & Shlesinger, 1997, p. 20). A conceptual understanding of the process of interpreting is provided through this "multi-stage view," which generally includes "some mention of speech recognition, storage mechanisms, transfer, production and output monitoring" (Moser-Mercer, 1997c, p. 3). Despite Moser-Mercer's application of her model to a beginner's course in interpreting (1978), Massaro & Shlesinger state that it "remains to be determined to what extent an information-processing approach will increase our understanding of SI [simultaneous interpretation] and improve training and practice" (1997, p. 46). In this vein, they remark that "we have gained some significant insights into the perception and production of language, but the application of this knowledge and its scientific study within the SI situation remains at its infancy" (p. 21). Particularly problematic is the transfer of knowledge from this line of research to the general community of interpreters, even the community of interpreter educators (p. 21).

Therefore, although IP has proven to be a strong tool for the conceptual analysis of interpretation, the value of IP to the pedagogy of interpretation has not yet been made explicit. It is important to bear in mind that lack of clarity concerning the pedagogical usefulness of IP applies not only to interpretation pedagogy. Bruner remarks with regard to education in general that

[t]he issue ... is whether the computational view of mind itself offers an adequate enough view about how mind works [sic] to guide our efforts in trying to "educate" it. It is a subtle question. For in certain respects, 'how the mind works' is itself dependent on the tools at its disposal ... So, in a sense, the mere existence of computational devices (and a theory of computation about their mode of operating) can (and doubtless will) change our minds about how "mind" works, just as the book did. (1996, p. 2)

Furthermore, IP has offered little in descriptive power for the types of shifts in mental resources that may well take place in interpreter training. On the contrary, IP capacity is regarded by

many researchers to be finite, with no means of expansion available (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993; Setton, 1999). Setton (1999, p. 3) identifies mental representation as the layer currently lacking in most cognitive models of interpretation based upon IP (and Interpretive Theory as well).

In comparison, the cognitive psychology of expertise offers a different set of constructs to describe these shifts in cognitive processing, as Moser-Mercer illustrates in her analysis of challenges self-diagnosed by novice interpreters (2000). Given the centrality of mental representation in the cognitive sciences, which Gardner identifies as the major accomplishment emerging from this set of disciplines (1987, p. 383), interpreter educators should perhaps devote more attention to this type of metacognitive analysis in instruction, i.e., students' personal conceptualizations of their cognitive processes and difficulties they encounter. This instructional method can be pursued through reflective practice, a humanistic approach to the curriculum.

An example of an information processing model developed specifically for pedagogical purposes is Gile's Efforts Model (1995a). It is not an IP model that has been validated through empirical research, but rather an intuitive model based upon a knowledge of cognitive psychology and introspection on the nature of interpreting. Nevertheless, the Efforts Model seems to be a powerful metaphor for the novice interpreter and has been used effectively in reflective practice (de Terra & Sawyer, 1998). Although it has yet to be the object of experimental analysis (Massaro & Shlesinger, 1997), the Efforts Model apparently allows students to build a simple yet efficient personal construct of their interpreting skills and manipulate that mental representation with the objective of building expertise.

3.4.1.2 Skills and Abilities in Instructional Systems Design

Breaking down higher order skills into component skills has long been recognized as a useful approach to skill training. This view of curriculum may be associated with the behaviorist/empiricist view outlined by Greeno, Collins, and Resnick, in which "procedural and factual knowledge is divided into components that are arranged in a learnable sequence. Typical

sequences of instruction begin with training in a procedure, facts or vocabulary in a simplified context, for example, followed by presentations of the material in somewhat more complicated settings" (1996, p. 33). Although the modular (computational) approach has served as a theoretical basis for empirical research in interpretation, its correlate in curriculum theory—Instructional Systems Design (ISD), or Instructional Design (ID)—has not been discussed to date.

ISD emerged during the sixties under the leadership of Robert M. Gagné, who is generally considered to be its founder and the most influential theorist in this field. The history of ISD is retraced in Derry and Lesgold (1996, p. 790), who delineate the problems this field encountered as constructivist models of learning became widely recognized (p. 790). The marriage of constructivist thinking and ISD led to the development of a second generation of instructional systems design (ISD₂) (see also Merrill, 1992).

Central premises of this instructional theory are that "complex competence is built by adding coordination and other structure to simpler pieces of knowledge" and that "instruction is most likely to be effective if severe constraints are placed on the amount of new structure that must be added to already known atoms to yield each new knowledge unit" (p. 787). Hence, curriculum has been defined as "the specification of a set of capabilities" (Gagné, Briggs, & Wager, 1992, p. 165), which is in line with a systems view of education in that "any particular capability is preceded by the learning of prerequisite capabilities and is followed, on other occasions, by learning more complex capabilities" (p. 165).

It is readily apparent that the key to instructional design, according to this approach, lies in the sequencing of courses and course modules within programs of instruction in a manner that promotes effective learning, for example by proceeding from simple (prerequisite) skills to complex (target) skills and/or by sequencing objectives in increasing order according to the degree of meaning in what is being learned (p. 165). In interpretation, this approach has been applied mainly on the level of introductory courses (van Dam, 1989; Weber, 1989a) and diagnostic testing (see Section 3.3). The systematic and explicit relation of component skills to the program or curriculum level, in comparison, has not been a focus of the published literature on interpretation.

More recently, in reviewing approaches to interpretation pedagogy, Déjean Le Féal (1998) implicitly describes an instructional design system, in which skill and knowledge areas are introduced as the curriculum progresses. An introduction to consecutive interpretation and sight translation precede initial instruction in simultaneous interpretation, which is then followed by simultaneous interpretation with text and the interpretation of complex subject matter. In the final stages of the curriculum, the student is introduced to codes of conduct and professional ethics. Déjean Le Féal does not describe the role of translation in this widespread instructional progression on which, one might assume, there is a fairly strong consensus. A survey of schools of translation and interpretation could lead to conclusive information in this area.

There is little data on the extent to which translation experience, or instruction in consecutive, should be required before the student continues in the curriculum model. In this matter it is interesting to note that, on the program level, the notion has been challenged in traditional instructional design "that a large amount of prerequisite instruction must take place before a student is ready to practice complex, real-world performance" (Derry & Lesgold, 1996, p. 804).

3.4.1.3 The Cognitive Psychology of Expertise

A field that opened up to IS in the nineties is the cognitive psychology of expertise (Hoffman, 1997a; Moser-Mercer, 1997b, 2000). This area of inquiry is particularly promising for the pedagogy of interpretation as its implications for teaching in general have been made explicit (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993). Hoffman provides a concise overview of the development of Expertise Studies and how it dovetails with interpretation in "The Cognitive Psychology of Expertise and the Domain of Interpreting" (1997a). Defined in the American Heritage Dictionary as "skill or knowledge in a particular area"; "skill in doing or performing that is attained by study, practice, or observation," expertise is identified by Hoffman as an attribute governed by underlying principles that span many professions. Chief among them are "(1) performance and skill, (2) the developmental progression, (3) expert knowledge and memory organization, and (4) expert reasoning processes" (p. 193).

Expertise Studies emerged from research in information processing and artificial intelligence in the mid- to late sixties (Glaser & Chi, 1988p. xv, xxi). Much of this early research focused on chess, including the work of de Groot (1965), Newell and Simon (1972), and Chase and Simon (1973). One of the main objectives was to elicit domain knowledge from experts, especially with regard to pattern recognition and perceptive abilities (p. xv). This knowledge was then to be used in the development of computer programs and expert systems. At this juncture, it was recognized that research on expertise could offer crucial insight into knowledge-rich tasks, i.e., activities that require hundreds of hours of learning and experience to perform at high levels (p. xxi).

Since the beginning of the seventies, psychologists have branched out into domains as diverse as nursing, air traffic control, aerial photo interpretation (meteorology), software engineering, and livestock judging, among others, and applied a research methodology that has grown in sophistication over time (Hoffman et al., 1995). There emerged a general interest in systematically describing traits that characterize the performance of experts across domains, the objective being to amass bodies of knowledge that can enhance training in a wide variety of fields.

Similar to interpreting, the domains under study have been aptly characterized as requiring *high levels of situational awareness* and involving *high levels of mental workload* (Hoffman, 1997b); in addition, some of these tasks are carried out under substantial levels of stress. High mental workload is by definition a scalable variable; it is based on the current skill level of the participant completing a given task. Hence, research on expertise has been conducted in areas that, at first blush, may appear to be more routine and mundane than one might expect, such as reading, typing, and the memorization of restaurant orders.

Expertise is sometimes described in terms of criteria used to identify experts. Factors cited informally include the number of years of experience on the job, professional criteria, e.g., degrees, training, publications, and membership licensing, as well as job experience and/or polls conducted in the domain. Some researchers state that high-performance skills, i.e., those involving a special form of expertise, have been defined as those requiring more than 100 hours of training for minimum levels of proficiency (Anderson, 1982, p. 369).

These types of definitions are based on principles of expert performance rather than arbitrary traits of experts, such as time on the task, which may fluctuate widely from domain to domain (Salthouse, 1991, pp. 286-287). Livestock judges, for example, often require over 20 years of experience before they are considered experts in their domain. A figure cited for achieving the level of master in chess is 10,000 to 20,000 hours (Posner, 1988, p. xxxi). Hoffman cites 10,000 hours as well, calculating a minimum of 10 years of professional experience, assuming five hours of time on the task per day (Hoffman, 1997a, p. 200).

Similarly, summary descriptions of processes and abilities required to complete tasks have sometimes been vague (Hoffman, 1997a). One researcher, for example, defines expertise as “the ability to do the right thing at the right time” (Holyoak, 1991, p. 309). Nevertheless, common to almost all descriptions is the mention of “extreme or exceptional performance” (Salthouse, 1991, p. 286), and the demonstration of a certain “kind of operative knowledge” (Johnson, Zuolkernan, & Tukey, 1993, p. 162) that is related to perceptual ability. An expert, in other words, appears to be able to “see” things that the novice cannot (Klein & Hoffman, 1993), which in turn allows him or her to perform “beyond natural abilities” (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993, p. 4). According to the latter view, experts have “effortfully acquired abilities, abilities that carry us beyond what nature has specifically prepared us to do” (p. 3).

Hoffman integrates many of these aspects into his comprehensive operational definition of expertise. He states that an expert is

one whose judgments are uncommonly accurate and reliable, whose performance shows consummate skill and economy of effort, and who can deal effectively with rare or tough cases, and who has special skills or knowledge derived from extensive experience with sub-domains. (1997a, pp. 199-200)

This definition focuses on aspects of observable performance that can be measured if operational constructs are defined for a specific domain. The definition of operational constructs would also lead to a more detailed definition of constructs for assessment than has been the case to date.

Hoffman's definition also highlights the fact that the career of the expert is typically characterized by a knowledge of sub-domains, which ultimately leads to differences between

the career paths of experts and non-experts. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) also discuss differences in career development among expert and non-expert members of a field. They state that

[t]he career of the expert is one of progressively advancing on the problems constituting a field of work, whereas the career of the nonexpert is one of gradually constricting the field of work so that it more closely conforms to the routines the nonexpert is prepared to execute. (p. 11)

These differences are also evident during training. Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) leverage Expertise Studies for pedagogical purposes by citing key areas that are relevant for curriculum. When drawing conclusions on the knowledge of expertise for pedagogy and instruction, they hypothesize that it is possible to identify the mental attributes of expert learners. They cite pedagogical principles like the role of creativity and the importance of reinvesting mental resources in the process of learning. Areas of reinvestment include the ongoing learning of new procedures and developments in the field, actively seeking out more difficult problems, and tackling more complex representations of recurrent problems (pp. 93-94). It is this form of reinvestment that they describe as an inherently creative enterprise (p. 123). Expert-like learners possibly guide their progressive problem solving, which requires risk-taking, using a knowledge of *promisingness*, i.e., an ability to judge how successful a specific approach, strategy or endeavor may be in tackling a given task. Therefore, according to Bereiter and Scardamalia, “[c]reative experts are experts at taking successful risks in their domains” (p. 125).

In the case of written translation, the focus to date in the discussion of expertise seems to center on the social role of the translator as expert, i.e., the necessity of clearly recognizing that the translator is indeed an individual with a particular form of competence, or expertise (see Hönig, 1995a; Risku, 1998). In the case of interpretation, in contrast, attention has turned to a greater degree to underlying differences between the cognitive processes of novices and experts. This development is particularly promising, as the identification of aspects that define expertise in interpretation allows the interpreter educator to focus on skills and abilities that transcend language learning objectives still commonly mistaken for interpreter training per se. Curriculum models are now appearing that utilize the characteristics of expert learners.

Trainees with functional proficiency in translation are placed on a fast track in special courses for language combinations new to them (Arntz, 1999).

In Expertise Studies, the basic distinction between novices and experts is attributed to their perceptual ability and the ensuing impact on the execution of innate skills (Klein & Hoffman, 1993). Posner proposes that perceptual ability is probably more closely related to a specific type of semantic memory than to a general reasoning process (1998, p. xxxv). More elaborately, Glaser and Chi describe differences in the "interplay between knowledge structure and processing abilities," with experts possessing "an organized body of conceptual and procedural knowledge that can be readily accessed and used with superior monitoring and self-regulation skills" (1988, p. xxi).

Similarly, building on Glaser (1987), Hoffman (1996; 1997a, p. 193) identifies three areas in which experts distinguish themselves from novices. One difference lies in terms of **cognitive development**, experts having reached higher levels in a developmental progression. Through proceduralization, shifts in cognitive development result in changes in observable performance in the following areas:

Variable awkward performance becomes consistent, accurate, complete, and relatively fast.

Individual acts and judgments are integrated into overall strategies.

Perceptual learning occurs so that a focus on isolated variables shifts to perception of complex patterns.

There is increased self-reliance and ability to form new strategies when required.
(Klein & Hoffman, 1993, p. 205)

The relationship between declarative and procedural knowledge is well known in cognitive psychology (Anderson, 1995), and is discussed at length in Kurz (1996) and more recently in the context of novice interpreters by Moser-Mercer (2000).

Shifts also occur in **knowledge structure**, i.e., the organization of knowledge, as the learner develops more elaborate mental models (Hoffman, 1997a, p. 203; Johnson-Laird, 1989). Schumacher and Czerwinski, for example, define mental models as "a complex, physical dynamic device, system, or process that allows an operator to understand and explain system

components and their interactions, and to predict system outcomes from system input" (1992, p. 65). According to their definition, multiple models are possible, and these may be either stable or derive for a particular situation that is not a regular occurrence in the domain (p. 66). Similarly, Anderson refers to the dimension of problem representation in expertise as the process of "developing a new set of constructs for representing the key aspects of a problem" (1995, p. 292).

Mental models provide a conceptual understanding of components underlying the interpretation process and how they may interact, as is the case of Gile's Efforts Model (1995a), which may be pedagogically useful to learners.¹⁰ In this respect, it can be hypothesized that the mental model facilitates the integration of relevant sub-skills into an intuitive, macro-approach to the interpretation task—an essential step in the progression beyond the level of proficient to that of expert.

Bereiter and Scardamalia (1993) include three types of hidden knowledge in their discussion of expert learning: informal knowledge as educated common sense (p. 51); impressionistic knowledge as feelings that are an essential and inseparable part of knowledge, sometime referred to as 'intuition' or 'instinct' (p. 54); and self-regulatory knowledge as self-knowledge relevant of performance in some domain (p. 59). They contrast these types of informal knowledge with formal knowledge, generally regarded to be the textbook knowledge of a domain. Traditionally, academic education is commonly thought to focus on formal knowledge. Bereiter and Scardamalia seek to strike a balance between formal and informal knowledge in education and the acquisition of expertise, with each area playing a specific role in training. While it can be argued that the objective of any interpreter education program must be to translate formal knowledge into informal knowledge and skill,¹¹ the role of formal knowledge in training should not be neglected. It is not only essential for dealing with issues of truth and justification, but also plays a key role in communication, teaching and learning, as well as the development of professional ethics. In addition, it provides starting points for the construction of informal knowledge and skills (pp. 63-65). Bereiter and Scardamalia identify the

¹⁰ Risku describes mental models that may apply to translation (1998, p. 139).

¹¹ For a discussion of proceduralization, see Anderson, 1995

interrelationship between informal and formal knowledge in the acquisition of expertise as a central issue in gaining a full understanding the developmental progression from novice to expert (p. 65).

The use of both formal and informal knowledge would thus be reflected in the **reasoning processes** of the expert, who seems to have more highly developed problem-solving strategies and to be more adept in terms of perceptual skill. Experts demonstrate flexibility in reasoning, which seems to be more case-based: they "often refer to illustrative prototypical examples of past cases when asked to justify or explain their decisions or actions" (Hoffman, 1997a, p. 211; Klein & Hoffman, 1993). In developing increasingly higher levels of expertise, it seems to be helpful if one works "at the edge of one's competence, but accepting the strains and the risks that go with doing so" (Bereiter and Scardamalia, 1993, p. 73). The development of increasingly efficient reasoning processes is apparently a process of striving to gain greater understanding "against a constant background of awareness of the complexities that one is not yet dealing with" (p. 73). In this respect, the acquisition of expertise involves progressive problem solving that goes beyond normal learning by 1) reinvesting in learning, 2) seeking out more difficult problems, and 3) tackling more complex representations of recurrent problems (pp. 92-96).

Differences in cognitive development, knowledge structure, and reasoning processes seem to result in qualitative differences in performance, content knowledge and developmental milestones (Klein & Hoffman, 1993, pp. 221-222). The value of these shifts for curriculum design lies in the possibility of defining levels of expertise and deriving related constructs for assessment that are observable in performance. In other words, a framework for the progression of curriculum can be described more fully, and the principles of expert knowledge and skill acquisition can be fostered through the creation of environments conducive to this type of learning and development.

3.4.1.4 Levels of Expertise in Interpreting

To date, interpreter proficiency levels have been described for use in the language industry only in Australia, where the National Accreditation Authority for Translators and Interpreters (NAATI) sets standards and serves as a testing and accreditation agency mainly in the area of community interpreting (<http://www.naati.com.au>).¹² These categories differ from those defined in Expertise Studies in that they are static, in the sense that they measure abilities in working professionals rather than dynamically evolving skills in trainees.

Hoffman (1997a, p. 199) describes the developmental progression of expertise in terms of categories stemming from medieval craft guilds. These levels, shown in Figures 4 and 5, have been adopted by Moser-Mercer (2000) and Kiraly (2000). The categories include the naïve or naïvette, novice, initiate, apprentice, journeyman, expert and master. While a *naïve* is completely ignorant of a domain, a *novice* has had some minimal or introductory exposure to it. The *apprentice* is undergoing a program of instruction and has progressed beyond the introductory stage. The student enrolled in an interpretation program would fall into this category. A *journeyman* is an experienced and reliable worker who can perform a day's competent labor unsupervised although working under orders. Hoffman (1997a, p. 199) describes a journeyman interpreter as "the graduate who has just passed his final interpreting exams and is deemed fit to 'sit in the booth.'" The *expert* distinguishes him/herself from the journeyman in that his/her judgments are "uncommonly accurate and reliable ...[and his/her] performance shows consummate skill and economy of effort" (p. 199). The expert can "deal effectively with certain types of rare or tough cases" and has "special skills or knowledge derived from extensive or concentrated experience with sub-domains" (p. 199). The *master* is at the highest level and defined as "an expert who is also qualified to teach others.

Traditionally, the masters comprise an elite group whose judgments set the regulations, procedures, standards, or ideals" (p. 199).

¹² The elaboration of proficiency categories has received more attention in translation (Stansfield, Scott, & Kenyon, 1992).

Levels of Expertise

Novice

Beginners have had little experience of the situation in which they are expected to perform. Their initial learning about the situation is in terms of objective attributes—those that are measurable. These are features of the task world that can be recognized without situational experiences. Novices are limited in their understanding to context-free rules that guide action—this means their behavior is limited and inflexible.

Advanced Beginner

They have coped with enough real situations to note (or have pointed out to them) recurring, meaningful situational components. At this level, understanding of aspects of the situation is limited to global characteristics that reflect prior experience in actual situations. Advanced beginners need help setting priorities, because they operate on general guidelines and are only beginning to perceive recurrent, meaningful patterns.

Competent

Performers at a journeyman's level can see their actions in terms of long-range goals or plans. They are consciously aware of formulating, evaluating, and modifying goals-plans. The competent performer is able to generate plans in terms of current and contemplated future aspects that are most important, and those that are not. The competent performer lacks the speed and flexibility that emerges at higher levels of expertise but has a sense of mastery and the ability to cope with and manage a variety of types of situations.

Proficient

Proficient performers perceive situations as wholes, rather than in terms of situational components. Their performance is guided by "maxims." Perception is key. The perspective is NOT thought out but "presents itself" based upon experience. The proficient performer has learned what typical events to expect in a given situation and how plans need to be modified in accord with these events. This also means that she or he can recognize when the expected typical picture does not materialize and can modify plans and goals accordingly. Situational aspects stand out as more or less important in *this* situation.

Expert

Expert performers no longer rely on analytic principles (rules, guidelines, maxims) to connect their understanding of the situation to an appropriate action. The expert, with an enormous background of experience, has an intuitive grasp of each situation and zeros in on the accurate region of the problem without wasteful consideration of a large range of unfruitful, alternative diagnoses and solutions. The performer is no longer aware of features and rules, and his or her performance becomes fluid and flexible and highly proficient.

Fig. 4 Levels of Expertise According to Klein and Hoffman (1993, p. 206)

A "Guild" Terminology for Development

Naivette	One who is totally ignorant of a domain.
Novice	Literally, someone who is new—a probationary member. There has been some, but minimal, exposure to the domain.
Initiate	Literally, someone who has been through an initiation ceremony—a novice who has begun introductory instruction.
Apprentice	Literally, one who is learning—a student undergoing a program of instruction beyond the introductory level. Traditionally, the apprentice is immersed in the domain by living with and assisting someone at a higher level. The length of an apprenticeship depends on the domain, ranging from about one to 12 years in the craft guilds.
Journeyman	Literally, a person who can perform a day's labor unsupervised, although working under orders. An experienced and reliable worker, or one who has achieved a level of competence. It is possible to remain at this level for life.
Expert	The distinguished or brilliant journeyman, highly regarded by peers, whose judgments are uncommonly accurate and reliable, whose performance shows consummate skill and economy of effort, and who can deal effectively with rare or "tough" cases. Also, an expert is one who has special skills or knowledge derived from extensive experience with subdomains.
Master	Traditionally, a master is any journeyman or expert who is also qualified to teach those at a lower level. Traditionally, a master is one of an elite group of experts whose judgments set the regulations, standards, or ideals. Also, a master can be that expert who is regarded by the other experts as being "the" expert, or the "real" expert, especially with regard to subdomain knowledge.

Fig. 5 Levels of Expertise According to Hoffman, Shadbolt, Burton and Klein (1995, p. 132)

An interesting contrast can be seen in the descriptions of skill levels in Figures 4 and 5. The levels of expertise described by Klein and Hoffman in Figure 4 are defined primarily in terms of the characteristics of expert performance, e.g., the “limited and inflexible behavior” of novices, the ability to see “actions in terms of long-range goals or plans” and the “ability to cope with and manage a variety of types of situations” among the competent, and the “intuitive grasp of each situation” among experts who are “no longer aware of features and rules.” In contrast, the guild terminology in Figure 5 features the social aspects of expertise to a greater extent by defining the learning environment and how members of the professional community see individuals at various stages. The apprentice, for example, is “immersed in the domain by living with and assisting someone at a higher level;” the expert is “highly regarded by peers”; whereas the master is “one of an elite group of experts whose judgments set the regulations, standards, or ideals.” A master is “regarded by the other experts as being ‘the’ expert, or the ‘real’ expert, especially with regard to subdomain knowledge.”

In terms of sequencing the curriculum, a program of instruction hypothetically takes the naïve or novice to the journeyman level. A definition of curriculum objectives would ideally take these proficiency levels into account. It stands to reason that the constructs underlying expertise at various levels can be operationalized for pedagogical purposes and described in terms of observable performance for use in the classroom. However, this task is not necessarily straightforward. In Hoffman's estimation, a “general challenge to scientific psychology is to generate a definition of expertise that focuses on cognitive functionality and yet can be used operationally to identify experts” (1997a, p. 193). This challenge can be overcome in the case of interpretation by explicitly defining the characteristics of performance at various levels. To be employed as assessment constructs, these aspects of performance should be observable.

3.4.1.5 Implications for Competence Levels and Curriculum Sequencing

The scientific approach to curriculum provides a framework for instructional design by viewing the acquisition of interpretation competence as process. This viewpoint stresses the breakdown of composite skills into component skills and their reintegration, as well as the sequencing of learning events according to the difficulty and increasing complexity of the task.

An appropriate sequence of instruction can be identified for an educational program through the description of skill levels and developmental milestones grounded in principles of expertise. Instruction in translation and instruction in interpretation are core components in the education of language professionals and present in most curriculum models. The degree of similarity or dissimilarity between translation and interpretation competence is thus a key element in determining whether a curriculum design is as efficient as possible. The overlap of component skills at various stages of the learning progression, the transfer of one type of competence to another, and the level of specialization required as an instructional goal of the program, i.e., degree track, are issues for the curriculum designer to address. An overview of competence levels based upon the goals and objectives of instruction (Section 3.3.5) is presented in Figure 6. The sequencing of instruction in translation and interpretation is addressed in Sections 3.5 and Chapter 8.

3.4.2 Humanistic – *Curriculum as Interaction*

Humanistic approaches to curriculum focus on the “personal and social aspects of curriculum and instruction; ... consider the need for self-reflectiveness and self-actualization among learners; and the sociopsychological dynamics of classrooms and schools” (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998, p. 8). In this view of curriculum, which is rooted in progressivism, emphasis is placed on cooperative learning, independent learning, small-group learning, and social activities. The learner provides input into the curriculum and shares responsibility in planning classroom instruction. Professional collegiality and mentor systems feature highly in this approach (p. 8). Humanists argue in particular that education “must focus on both the personal and the interpersonal” and thus overcome a long tradition of “regarding cognition as something separate from feeling”; instead they “advance strong arguments that it is the total person—the cognitive, the affective, and even the spiritual self—who is involved in gaining knowledge and working toward wisdom” (p. 9).

Curriculum as interaction thus considers the social nature of learning and instruction, which is reflected in the nature of expertise as construct defined partially by social forces. The following discussion begins by situating the program of instruction in the community of professional

Expertise level: Introductory to Intermediate

Goal: Completion of basic oral and written language transfer tasks

- completion of simple translation and/or interpretation tasks of moderate length
- demonstration of ability and aptitude
 - language skills as defined by ASTM tables
 - transfer skills: content and form appropriate as defined by assessment rubric, no specialized material or vocabulary
 - professional knowledge: awareness of professional goals

Expertise level: Intermediate to Advanced

Goal: Completion of advanced translation or interpretation tasks in one domain

- successful completion of translation and/or interpretation tasks of considerable length and complexity in one domain
- demonstration of stable skills and abilities
 - language skills as defined by ASTM tables, demonstration of these levels in translation or interpretation task
 - transfer skills: content and form appropriate as defined by assessment rubric; specialized material and vocabulary in one domain
 - professional knowledge: demonstration of ability to define professional goals

Expertise level: Advanced to Competent

Goal: Completion of a range of advanced translation or interpretation tasks representative of the field

- successful completion of translation and/or interpretation tasks of considerable length and complexity in several domains
- demonstration of a specialization
- demonstration of professional-level skills and abilities:
 - language skills as defined by ASTM tables, demonstration of these levels in a range of translation and interpretation tasks
 - transfer skills: content and form appropriate as defined by assessment rubric; specialized material and vocabulary in a range of domains
 - professional knowledge: demonstration of ability to attain initial professional goals

Fig. 6 Expertise Levels in Interpreter and Translator Education

practice. It then turns to the nature of interaction between instructor and student and adopts the concept of cognitive apprenticeship to promote collaborative learning. The possibility of utilizing a variety of instructional formats is stressed as a means of stimulating reflective practice.

3.4.2.1 A Community of Professional Practice

The participants in any program of instruction are part of a larger community of professional practice that is subject to its own social dynamics. Thus, introductory courses for interpretation or translation have the initiation of the learner in this community as one of their primary tasks. They provide a forum in which students can become acquainted with the profession and dynamics of the workplace by introducing the learner to the skill in a reflective context. While in some curriculum models this goal is accomplished under the guise of theory, i.e., theory of translation is taught before students actually begin to translate, evidence from instructional design suggests that skill training should be provided in the context of the workplace (Derry & Lesgold, 1996). In addition, current research on cognitive skills training implies that there is little reason why training on the task should not begin immediately (p. 804). Becoming familiar with the habits and strategies of the working professional serves in this case as initiation into the community of practice.

One theoretical construct that has emerged in the context of professional communities is distributed intelligence. According to Bruner, “[t]he gist of the idea is that it is a grave error to locate intelligence in a single head” (1996, p. 154). Gardner states that it “makes sense to think of human cognitive competence as an emerging capacity, one likely to be manifested at the intersection of three different constituents: the ‘individual,’ ... the structure of a ‘domain of knowledge,’ ... and a set of institutions and roles” (1993, pp. 172-173). Bereiter and Scardamalia also see “no *a priori* reason for stipulating that the process [of expertise] must go on within an individual mind” (1993, pp. 117-118). According to this concept, for example, teams of interpreters may be seen as forming “expert teams, or ‘high-performance’ teams” that may develop “ways as a unit to achieve higher goals or to achieve goals more successfully” (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1993, p. 118).

In interpreter education, distributed intelligence can be leveraged for learning through the creation of second-order environments, which Bereiter and Scardamalia define as “ones in which the conditions ... change progressively as a result of the successes of other people in the environment.” Ongoing adaptation to these changing conditions is required of all participants (1993, p. 106). In this case, it is the instructor who consistently presents challenges to the student by “setting a higher standard of performance, by reformulating problems at more complex levels, or by increasing the amount of knowledge that is presupposed” (p. 106). This process “override[s] the rigidifying effects of habit and practice, by progressively altering the conditions to which individuals in the environment must adapt” (p. 106).

An open question is the degree to which translators and interpreters form distinct groups within a larger community of professional practice. A closer examination of skills sets, competencies, and task descriptions would serve the purpose of describing in greater detail the extent to which these professions overlap. To date, little concrete data are available on this fundamental sociological and psychological question and in particular how the relationship between skill sets should be reflected in curriculum design.

3.4.2.2 Cognitive Apprenticeship

The student cannot be taught what he needs to know, but he can be coached.
(Schön, 1987, p. 17)

Although leading interpreter education programs are situated in an academic environment, interpreter training has never truly left the realm of apprenticeship. Apprenticeship in some form was an important means of acquiring the skills and abilities necessary to interpret for centuries before the introduction of formalized training (Caminade & Pym, 1998, p. 281). Most professional interpreters continue to be wary of distancing training from the apprenticeship mode, in which practical skills training takes precedence over the scholarly acquisition of abstract knowledge. Membership in the apprenticeship tradition, however, should not be misconstrued as a weakness of interpreter education as an academic field, much less as

evidence of a misconceived inappropriateness of situating training in the university setting. The need for highly developed intellectual skills and a broad education in order to interpret professionally is a received notion in the community of practitioners and the IS literature. It finds its expression, for example, in the AICC recommendation that interpreter education programs be situated on the post-graduate level.

In his discussion of educational traditions and knowledge, Francis Schrag describes the apprenticeship tradition of learning and instruction, “surely the oldest and most universal,” as the “principle means by which most people obtain technical know-how in fields as diverse as bricklaying, hairstyling, glassblowing, courtroom litigation, and neurosurgery” (1992, p. 269). Although Schrag notes that the home of the apprenticeship was originally the workplace, not the school (p. 270), apprenticeship is not to be equated strictly with vocational skills. Indeed, the scope of the apprenticeship tradition has often been underestimated due to a “dearth of philosophical formulations or justifications for apprenticeship as an educational mode” (p. 269). Duffy (1996, p. 184) attributes a resurgence of interest in cognitive apprenticeship to Resnick (1987) and Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989).

Given the importance that apprenticeship has played throughout the history of interpretation, it is surprising that this form of training in particular has been neglected in discussions of training and implementation of training programs. Perhaps the most powerful form of apprenticeship can be achieved through a reflective practicum, both internally and externally to the educational institution.

Cognitive apprenticeship focuses on “authentic learning environments in which the cognitive demands in learning are qualitatively the same as the cognitive demands of the environment for which the instruction was preparatory” (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996, p. 184). In this event, “the emphasis is not on master-apprentice but rather on the learner as a member of a larger community of practice who, through legitimate peripheral participation and the affordances of the environment, begins to assume greater responsibility in that community of practice” (p. 184).

A main characteristic of this educational tradition is also key: the identification of knowledge with know-how, the key source of know-how being “that of master practitioners, ideally those who not only can perform at a high level but also can explain the rationale for their performance” (Schrag, 1992, p. 269), i.e., provide meta-commentary. The latter principle dovetails with Schön’s concept of reflective practice, which he applies to fields as complex as architectural design, psychotherapy, town planning and business management (1983; 1987). In moving from “the sage on the stage to the guide on the side” (King, 1993), as Kiraly (n.d.) advocates in translation pedagogy, the coach as expert guide “provides the scaffolding for the learner” (Duffy & Cunningham, 1996, p. 184). While the explanatory power of the instructor is highly developed, classroom demonstrations may also assume a role similar to that of the master class for musical performance. In this case, perhaps ironically in the case of interpretation, meta-commentary is de-emphasized, as the instructor ‘shows’ the student one possible approach to completing the task at hand. These ideas are not new to interpreter education. The value of instructor demonstrations in the classroom has been stressed by Thiéry (1989) and Altman (1989b).

In cognitive apprenticeship, a sensitive, delicate balance must also be maintained in the relationship between student and instructor. In describing how teaching and learning processes can go wrong, Schön (1987) describes *stance* as an impediment to the exercise of learning and the development of competence for reciprocal reflection-in-action:

Some studio masters feel a need to protect their special artistry. Fearing that students may misunderstand, misuse, or misappropriate it, these instructors tend, sometimes unconsciously, under the guise of teaching, to actually withhold what they know. Some students feel threatened by the studio master’s aura of expertise and respond to their learning predicament by becoming defensive. Under the guise of learning, they actually protect themselves against learning anything new. (Schön, 1987, p. 119)

The discussion of reflective practice in the following aims to illuminate the opportunities for effective learning afforded by cognitive apprenticeship—opportunities that are irrevocably lost when the adoption of a negative stance, either by the instructor or the student, creates a learning predicament.

3.4.2.3 Reflective Practice

Education in an academic setting, whether in the traditional university or professional school, is based upon the premise that training is not a haphazard process and that reflection on the nature of skill acquisition is beneficial to the student. Interpreter education may be regarded as the acquisition of a high-performance skill that is subject to the general dynamics of skill acquisition widely observed in other domains (Schneider, 1985). In addressing the relationship between theory and practice in skill acquisition, Bruner makes the following general statement:

[P]raxis most typically precedes nomos in human history (and, I would add, in human development). Skill to put it another way, is not a "theory" informing action. Skill is a way of dealing with things, not a derivation from theory. Doubtless, skill can be improved with the aid of theory, as when we learn about the inside and outside edges of our skis, but our skiing doesn't improve until we get that knowledge back into the skill of skiing. Knowledge helps only when it descends into habits. (1996, p. 152)

In his conceptualization of reflective practice, Donald Schön (1983; 1987) proposes an approach to teaching that takes this fundamental relationship between praxis (acquisition of skill for professional practice) and nomos (structured, orderly theory-building) into account. In a reflective practicum—"a setting designed for the learning of a practice" (1987, p. 37)—collaborative learning through knowing-in-action, reflection-in-action and reflection on reflection-in-action is the objective. In his concept of knowing-in-action, Schön links the work of Dewey, Ryle (proceduralization) and Polanyi (tacit knowledge) in describing professional artistry. Specifically, knowing-in-action refers to "the sorts of know-how we reveal in our intelligent action ... We reveal it by our spontaneous, skillful execution of the performance; and we are characteristically unable to make it verbally explicit" (p. 25). Reflection-in-action refers to the fact that we "may reflect *on* action, thinking back on what we have done in order to discover how our knowing-in-action may have contributed to an unexpected outcome" (p. 26). More importantly, in the construction of knowledge, reflection-in-action

has a critical function, questioning the assumptional structure of knowing-in-action. We think critically about the thinking that got us into this fix or this opportunity; and we may, in the process, restructure strategies of action, understandings of phenomena, or ways of framing problems ... Reflection gives rise to on-the-spot experiment. We think up and try out new actions intended to explore the newly observed phenomena, test our tentative understandings of them, or affirm the moves we have invented to change things for the better. (p. 28)

Similar to the process described metaphorically by Klein and Hoffman in *Expertise Studies as learning to see the invisible* (1993), reflective practice sharpens perceptual skills, which enables learners "to make more rapid and accurate judgments about the nature of the situations they are in" (p. 215) when executing innate skills. Perception features prominently in Klein and Hoffman's description of experts, according to which we

generally know who the experts are. They notice the subtle but critical cues that others miss. They can reliably make discriminations that are opaque to others. They have clear judgments of the appropriate way to act in a situation. They can anticipate what is supposed to happen next, and their expectancies are so clear that they quickly notice when they are wrong, so they can rethink their interpretation of what is going on. (1993, p. 221)

Schön's language may be considered to be vague. While it can be argued that the fuzziness of his terminology is due to the fact that procedural knowledge, e.g., knowing 'how to interpret,' is non-verbalizable to a considerable degree, we do find a discussion of higher level constructs in Bereiter and Scardamalia's work on expertise (1993) that can be exploited for pedagogical purposes.

A distinction upon which Bereiter and Scardamalia base their reasoning is that made between **implicit** and **explicit learning**.¹³ The recognition of the role of tacit knowledge in the individual is widely attributed to Polanyi (1966), who "reconsiders human knowledge by starting from the fact that *we know more than we can tell*" (p. 4). Drawing on Gilbert Ryle's (1949) distinction of "knowing what" and "knowing how," Polanyi traces the recognition of tacit knowledge, which has resulted in the distinction between 'wissen' and 'können,' or declarative and procedural knowledge, to Plato's *Meno* (p. 22).

Reber (1993) applies tacit knowledge to implicit learning in his comprehensive discussion of the development of research on implicit learning. Reber defines this type of learning as "the acquisition of knowledge that takes place largely independently of conscious attempts to learn and largely in the absence of explicit knowledge about what was acquired" (p. 5). Therefore, although the clear separation of different levels of consciousness in cognitive activity is necessary for empirical research purposes (Massaro & Shlesinger, 1997; Moser-Mercer,

¹³ see Berry, 1997; Buchner & Wippich, 1997; Ellis, 1994; Paradis, 1994; Reber, 1993; Stadler & Frensch, 1997.

1997c, p. 14), attempting to maintain clear divisions between them may not be necessary in some pedagogical instances and for some types of learners. Indeed, a clear separation may even not be possible in teaching and learning. In discussing the role of implicit learning as a principle of the evolution of our species, Reber remarks in this respect that

we need to be careful not to treat implicit and explicit learning as though they were completely separate and independent processes ... [t]here is, so far as I [Reber] am aware, no reason for presuming that there exists a clean boundary between conscious and unconscious processes or a sharp division between implicit and explicit epistemic systems—and no one from Sigmund Freud on has ever argued that there was. (1993, p. 23)

Nevertheless, greater recognition of the interaction between explicit and implicit learning would benefit interpretation pedagogy. The distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge has been identified and applied in second language pedagogy (Ellis, 1994; 1997). Initial suggestions have been made to move in this direction in translation and interpretation as well. Extensive discussions of the role of conscious and unconscious strategies exist for written translation, but they do not always take the literature on implicit learning into account. In his convincing argument in favor of a fundamental distinction between natural translation and professional translation—a view which most researchers today would espouse—Shreve, for example, defines a "strategic position" in translation theory as one which refers "explicitly to consciously learning and learning to use explicit procedures to factor situational variables ... into the translating process" (1997, p. 122).

In his discussion of curricula for interpreter and translator training programs, Freihoff advocates an approach to instruction in which students learn to analyze their performance and relate their progress in learning to the goals of the program. He regards self-diagnosis and self-correction in the foreign language as particularly important, as students will not always have access to instructors and native speakers and must learn to judge the quality of their performance independently (1993, p. 210). The ability to make these types of distinctions empowers the student, which is an underlying objective of reflective practice.

3.4.2.4 Situated Cognition and Learning

The concept of situated cognition ascribes to the view that “all knowledge is fundamentally situated in the environment within which it was acquired” (Derry & Lesgold, 1996, p. 791). Cognitive apprenticeship relies heavily on the “processes of enculturation through which students develop and adopt the tools and conceptual categories of a practice community as they participate in the community” (p. 804). Therefore, situating cognition in the instructional setting recognizes the “need for the learning experience to be situated in real-world contexts” (Bednar et al., 1992, p. 25). In other words, “the reason for solving the problem must be authentic to the context in which the learning is to be applied” (p. 26).¹⁴

It is this authenticity¹⁵ that Thiéry identifies in stressing “The Sense of Situation in Conference Interpreting” (1990). He states that “the budding interpreter should make a deliberate effort to be constantly aware of the situation he is operating in” (p. 40), in particular, the fact that “the speaker does not address the interpreter, but the people he is talking to” (p. 42). A conference assignment takes place in “a real-time communication situation: what is happening is happening now, among people who are physically present” (p. 42). The implication for pedagogy is that the novice interpreter should be provided with an environment that is not removed from the working environment of the interpreter. Throughout training, the student interpreter should not lose sight of the communication situation in which the professional interpreter operates. Thiéry cites two factors that contribute to this awareness: “1) the interpreter / group situation, i.e., the position of the interpreter vis-à-vis the people he is working for; [and] 2) the group situation itself, i.e., the relative positions of the members of the group vis-à-vis each other” (p. 42).¹⁶

In the interpretation classroom, Kurz stresses the need to place “emphasis on confronting students with *life-like* situations” and advocates the use of videotapes in instruction to complement mock conferences and guest speakers (1989, p. 213). For translation, situated

¹⁴ For the application of situated cognition to translation, see Kiraly (1997a, 2000).

¹⁵ For a discussion of authenticity in translation assessment, see Kiraly (2000).

¹⁶ see also Pöschhacker (1994, 1990).

cognition implies that “instead of focusing on formal and functional equivalents for isolated elements in the text, the instructor could set the stage for realistic translation by offering real or simulated information to the students about the translation situation in which it had occurred” (Kiraly, 1997a, p. 148). Instructional events in this form, as the mainstay of the curriculum, facilitate the evolution of translation competence as the result of intentional exposure to certain types of professional translation experience (Shreve, 1997). These principles can be applied to interpreter education through a reflective practicum, in which students are responsible for the organization and staffing of interpreted events.

In terms of curriculum, cognition is therefore situated with varying degrees of authenticity vis-à-vis the professional world in the settings in which individual events of instruction occur. This does not necessarily imply that there is a single or “ideal” instructional format that is of particular value in conference interpreter education, however. While exposure to conferences and conference simulations is vital to interpreter education, complementary instructional formats may also be utilized to add experiential value and maximize learning outcomes.

Klein and Hoffman (1993) distinguish between four types of experiences that contribute to the evolution of expertise: personal, directed, manufactured, and vicarious experiences. These instructional formats also illuminate how training in a formal context can differ from the workplace to provide greater task exposure within a limited timeframe and concurrently target specific subtasks.

Personal experiences are usually gained in the workplace, i.e., are equivalent to learning on the job by doing the job, which Klein and Hoffman describe as “straightforward, but inefficient” (Klein & Hoffman, 1993, p. 215). Kalina draws attention to the logical paradox in the viewpoint that interpreter training can be left to an unstructured apprenticeship in the field:

Die Argumentation, die für das Dolmetschen erforderlichen Strategien und Vorgehensweisen würden dem Dolmetscher durch Erfahrung von allein erwachsen, beißt sich allerdings in den sprichwörtlichen Schwanz. Wie soll der Dolmetscher ohne spezifische Ausbildung diese Erfahrung machen, ohne zunächst einmal unzureichende Leistung—weil unerfahren und somit ohne die erforderliche Technik erbracht—zu bieten? (1998, p. 233).

In other words, if personal experiences were all that is necessary, formal training would be superfluous. Similarly, Schneider identifies the idea that one should always train the total task as a widespread fallacy of training high-performance skills (1985). Of greater importance in accelerated learning and skill acquisition are “the number, range, and difficulty of challenges faced, and ... the way a person is able to learn from each incident, along with factors such as degree of engagement with the task” (Klein & Hoffman, 1993, p. 216).

Directed experiences involve one-to-one tutoring, mainly through an apprenticeship in the workplace, which entails access to ‘the field,’ e.g., conferences, courts and/or hospitals. Directed experiences provide opportunity for the “observation of performance, assessment, modeling, guiding motivation and attitudes, relieving anxiety, [and] developing a professional identity” (Klein & Hoffman, 1993, p. 216). Structured, supervised internships are a pertinent example.

In contrast, **manufactured experiences** are provided in the “classroom.” To be particularly effective, manufactured experiences provide highly concentrated training by exposing the student to tough cases, preferably through simulations of the workplace. In this context, Derry and Lesgold recognize the importance of identifying “non-routine but important tasks that occur irregularly or rarely in the daily work environment and consequently do not lend themselves to training through participation in daily work routines” (1996, p. 804). This approach to training provides an environment that allows the student to sharpen discriminations and perceptual ability; the student must make finer distinctions and develop situation assessment skills (Klein & Hoffman, 1993, p. 217). At the same time, they provide necessary exposure to “rare, tough cases” that may not occur regularly in the field (Hoffman, 1997a, p. 199).

Finally, the “use of **vicarious experiences** treats expertise as a resource” (p. 219), as the expert engages in storytelling from the field. “For example, stories are accounts of the experiences of others and are often sufficiently vivid to serve as additions to the experience base” (p. 217). A legitimate pedagogical practice, the value of stories of experience and narrative inquiry has been demonstrated particularly in the training of medical nurses (Connelly & Clandinin, 1990). A goal of interpreter educators could be to remove the anecdotal from

storytelling and leverage their professional knowledge by relating their practical experience systematically to classroom tasks.

Therefore, knowledge gained from the study of expertise indicates that training programs benefit by including all four types of learning experiences. A combination of personal, manufactured, directed and vicarious experiences can be achieved by offering a range of instructional events, e.g., classroom instruction, internships in the workplace, and reflective practica (de Terra & Sawyer, 1998). The attainment of a synthesis of learning experiences and instructional events that are clearly related to curriculum goals is a hallmark of effective curriculum design.

3.4.2.5 Implications for the Learning Environment

The humanistic approach to curriculum describes the social interaction that emerges as the curriculum is implemented. Interpreter education programs are part of a broader community of professional practice; pedagogy is thus driven by collaborative relationships between all participants and is grounded in real-world experience. Instruction provides enculturation into this community, in particular through cognitive apprenticeship and situating cognition in settings that are typical of the interpreter's workplace, although some instructional formats may deviate from the workplace setting for pedagogical reasons. Reflective practice is seen as a means to enhance the educational experience by recognizing the role of metacognition in training. The learner uses higher-level cognitive skills in problem-solving, thereby forming and honing procedural knowledge on the basis of declarative knowledge. In this light, reflective practice is regarded as a "purposeful" activity "directed to achieving goals, and to removing obstacles to those goals" (Anderson, 1995, p. 237). The curriculum designer must therefore structure the curriculum and events of instruction so as to promote and facilitate the integration of the professional community, cognitive apprenticeship through mentoring relationships, and reflective practice.

3.5 Curriculum Analysis

Noteworthy in the traditional definition of curriculum are two conditions that are generally met in curriculum planning: a prepared environment for instruction and a planned sequence for instructional events (Schrag, 1992, p. 276). These two conditions are subsumed in the humanistic and scientific approaches to curriculum. Thus, they also bring with them a twofold problem to curriculum design: "the selection, conceptualization, and organization of content, and the design of institutional settings congruent with the educational aspirations that undergird that selection" (p. 297). These variations are apparent in the organization of instruction in translation and instruction in interpretation in various curriculum models.

Freihoff also distinguishes between *open* and *closed curriculum models* in translator and interpreter education. An open model allows greater flexibility in sequencing than a closed one. The discrepancy between official and hidden curriculum tends to be greater in open systems, which may also lead to a decrease in cost-effectiveness, e.g., longer study, as a result of looser sequencing for continuous skill building.

3.5.1 Curriculum Models According to Arjona

Proceeding from Velleman's model of the 1941 Geneva curriculum, Arjona (1984a) discusses five basic curriculum models in translator and interpreter training. It is arguable that the vast majority of interpreter education programs fall under one of these five categories. All five models contain five constituent parts identified by Velleman: applied language arts and linguistic studies, practica courses, area studies, multidisciplinary studies providing a subject specialization, and deontology or professional ethics. The models only show the relationship between translation and interpretation, however (see Figure 7). General in nature, Arjona's models illustrate the need to discuss the details of content on the course level to draw far-reaching conclusions as to the effectiveness of an instructional program. Nevertheless, Arjona's models are presented here, as they describe a variety of different constellations for translation and interpretation courses on the program level.

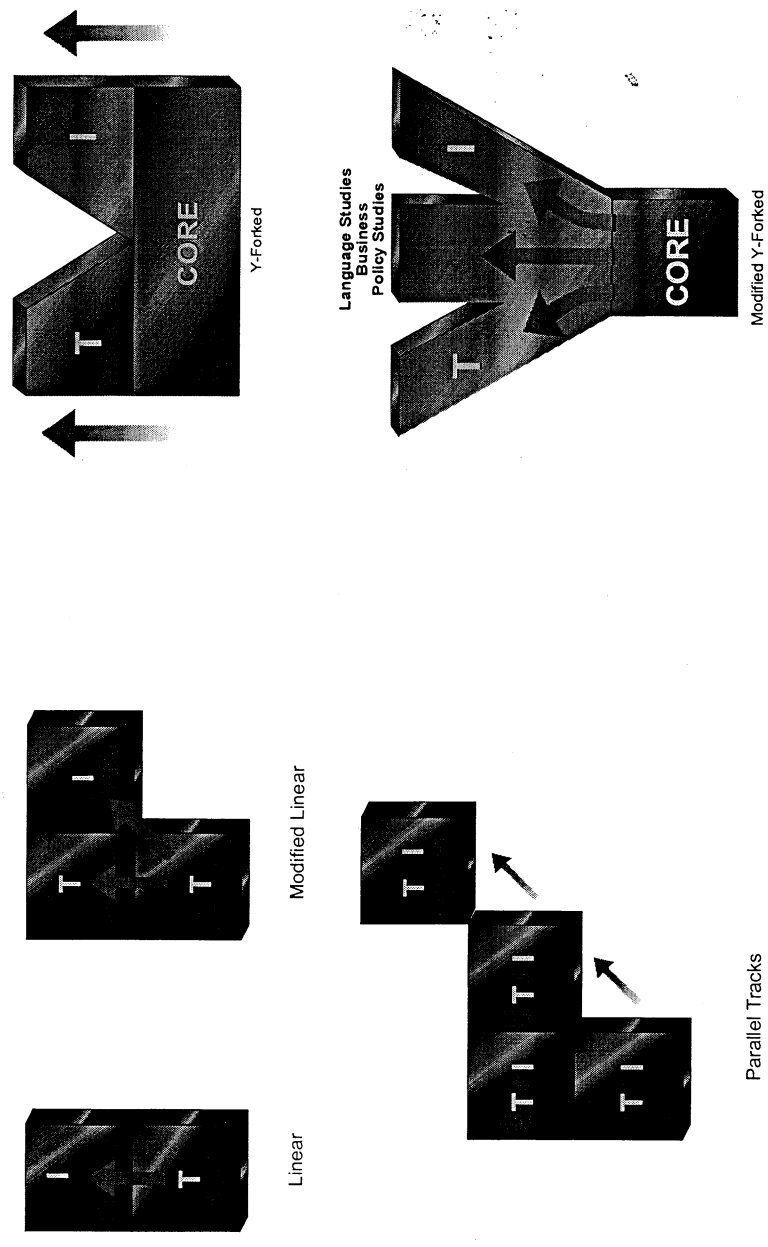


Fig. 7 Arjona's Curriculum Models (1984a, p. 10)

The **linear model** sequences the program so that instruction in translation precedes interpretation. Arjona draws attention to the beliefs underlying this model: practical experience in translation aids the interpreter in acquiring a solid foundation in terminology and basic linguistic tools. A higher premium is thus placed on interpretation work. The **modified linear model** focuses on specialized and parallel tracking; entry to either the interpretation or translation degree track is possible after completion of a core translation curriculum. The **Y- or forked-track model** includes a core curriculum for all students, after which students specialize in either translation or interpretation. The **modified Y-track model** offers specialization not only in translation or interpretation after the core curriculum, but also in multidisciplinary studies, such as business or political science. In the **parallel track model**, entry to the program is possible at different levels and is based upon entry examinations, professional credentials and prior academic experience. Students may specialize in either translation or interpretation at any level. Within the community of professional practice, there is therefore a wide range of curriculum models from which the student may choose. Training occurs within the context of a specific model, although it is possible for the student to experience additional models through transfer from one program to another or exchanges with other educational institutions.

Renfer (1992) provides a preliminary, experience-based analysis of several curriculum models by comparing the sequential and Y-track models in particular. He comes to the conclusion that the sequential model is superior. In this case, Renfer seems to be advocating the study of translation on the undergraduate level and subsequent interpreter training in a graduate program. The resulting conclusion—the superiority of the sequential model over the Y-track model—could also be attributed to a premature initiation of the study of interpretation. Renfer's discussion is yet another example of how various factors—level in the educational system, background of students, translation experience—impact the curriculum. Indeed, no conclusive results can be determined without contemplation of the aims of instruction, and the foundations and approaches to the curriculum.

3.5.2 Curriculum Components

In the process of curriculum reform in Germany and Austria, the introduction of curriculum modules has been repeatedly advocated to bring greater flexibility in curriculum implementation. This need is derived from the broadening of professional skills sets and employment opportunities in the language industry and related sectors (Hönig, 1995a, p. 161-162; Snell-Hornby, 1992, p. 15). A modular approach is seen as an appropriate means to address these needs.

Hönig (1995a) advocates a process of opening, diversification and modularization in interpreter and translator training—the hallmarks of an open curriculum—through the introduction of a broad course of studies in multilingual communication (see Figure 8). According to this model, a core module, through which the student acquires communicative competence in the mother tongue and at least one foreign language, is required during the initial semesters of study. Complementary subject areas, chosen as electives, include courses aimed at building cultural competence (literature and media studies), research competence (print media, electronic databases, computer-aided translation tools, meeting planning) and a subject matter specialization (business and economics, law, science and technology, etc.). A set of intermediate examinations and student counseling are required to continue beyond the first semesters of study. Students may then enter a track leading to a degree in text production, interpretation, translation and/or specialized translation. Research may follow on the postgraduate level in intercultural studies, the cognitive sciences including linguistics, and the use of technology in translation and/or interpretation.

Thus, the flexibility of Hönig's modular course of studies allows learners to assemble a program of instruction based upon their skills and abilities, interests, previous professional qualifications, and personal goals. As a result, the course of study is not subject to strict curriculum sequencing. Given the core requirement aimed at building communicative competence during the initial semesters of study, which is then followed by specialization in translation and/or interpretation, this multilingual communication curriculum model (see Figure 9) corresponds roughly to Arjona's modified Y-forked model.

		Oral	Written
F O R E I G N L A N G. N A T I V E L A N G.	Basic competence	Shadowing, escort interpreting, dia-, sociolects → pronunciation, vocabulary	Media studies Identification of text types and conventions → syntax
	Expertise	Impromptu speeches in defined situations (after preparation, with notes)	Production of semi-technical texts Précis writing
	Basic competence	Voice Public speaking	Mastery of selected text types
	Expertise	Impromptu speeches (without preparation) Note-taking strategies	Text analysis for translation Conference reports

Fig. 8 Hönig's Core Curriculum Module (1995a, p. 165; my translation)

“MULTILINGUAL COMMUNICATION STUDIES”

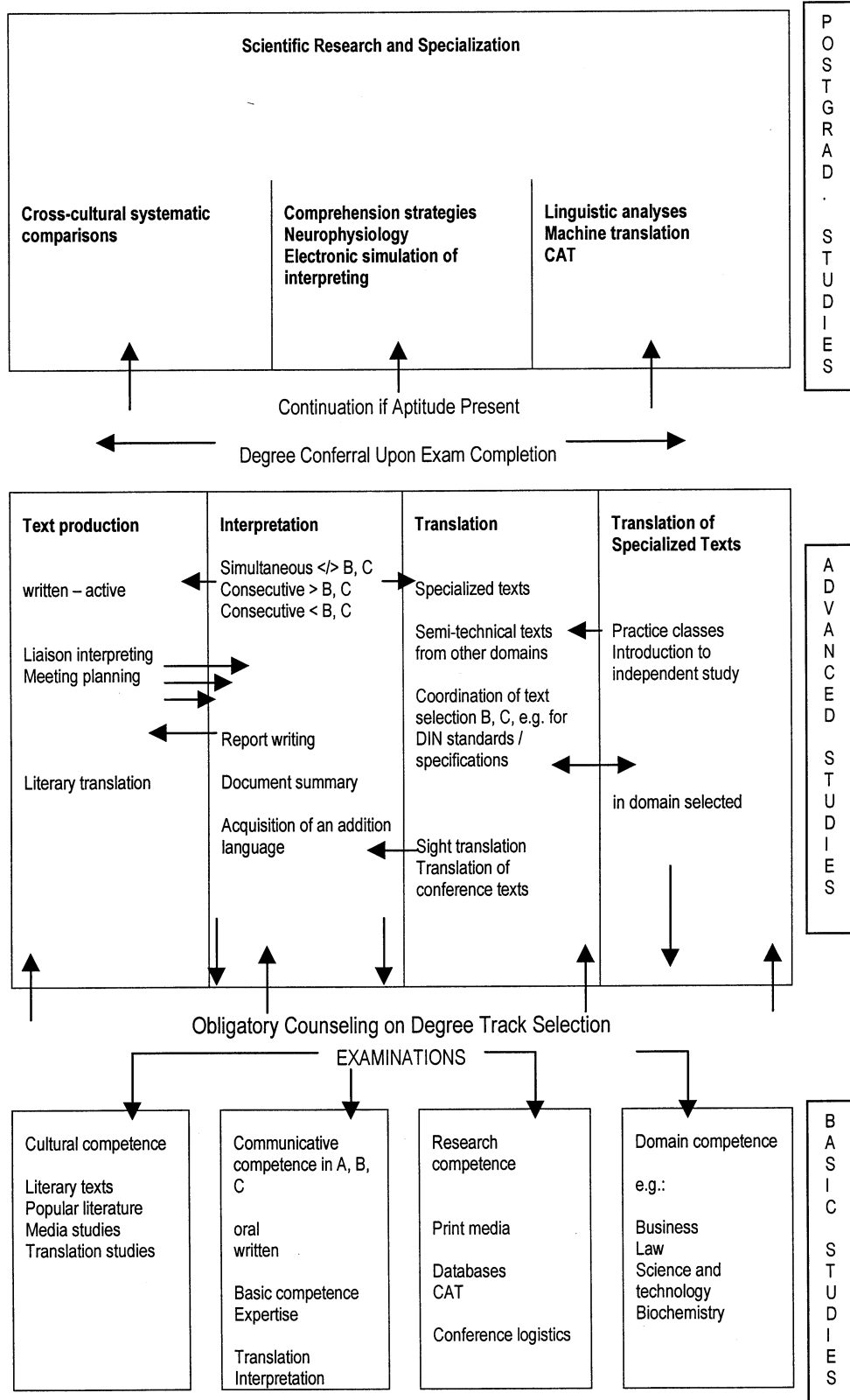


Fig. 9 Hönl's "Multilingual Communication" Curriculum Model (1995a, p. 160, my translation)

A consideration in designing curriculum in components, or modules, is whether the opening and diversification of programs allows key problems of many large German-language universities to be addressed: overcrowding, faculty understaffing, and correspondingly high faculty-student ratios (See Snell-Hornby, 1992). The array of jobs for which individuals with translator and interpreter training has increased considerably over the past few decades (Kurz & Moisl, 1997). Nevertheless, providing an education for related professions could undermine the ability of the curriculum to meet the demand for highly skilled language professionals. Increasingly, strong domain specializations and/or knowledge of computer-assisted translation tools and software localization are required for translators. Interpreters must have several working languages and knowledge that is both broad in scope and substantial in detail for high-level assignments in government, international organizations, and the private sector conference market. A solution to this dilemma could lie in establishing a clearer profile for translation and interpretation as professions for which university studies offer training. Such a strategy could counteract the widespread perception that the study of translation and interpretation leads to a broad-based, general degree in the humanities.

Hönig's curriculum proposal has the characteristics of a loose, open curriculum model and provides little information on course sequencing and the delivery of instruction. Proficiency levels and course sequencing according to skill and domain are not discussed in detail. Since instruction is not quantified, it is difficult to imagine the impact of adding a language or domain specialization, or changing degree tracks, on the period of study and ability of a student to reach a given goal (degree) within a defined period of time. In the description of individual modules to be completed as part of a student's basic studies, the content of courses and learning objectives remain unclear.

In her proposal for curriculum reform at the University of Vienna, Snell-Hornby outlines a model with much stricter sequencing (1992, p. 13). The relationship between curriculum components (p. 16) emerges more clearly than in Hönig's model, although a rationale for this particular approach is not given, and a precise definition of the goals and contents of instruction remain unspecified, e.g., "Fachsprachen," "Arbeit an / mit Texten," (p. 13) Of course it must be assumed that neither Hönig nor Snell-Hornby had the intention of spelling out in great detail how these curriculum models are to be implemented. Nevertheless, the question remains how

curriculum and instruction can be optimized, i.e., higher skill levels attained within the same or a shorter period of time, without a greater degree of specificity.

3.5.3 Analysis of GSTI Curriculum Documents

3.5.3.1 Aims, Goals, Objectives

GSTI curriculum documents contain generic job or task descriptions for translation and interpretation, as these documents are primarily promotional material for readers who may not be familiar with these disciplines and careers. The description of the Master of Arts in Translation (MAT) contains a descriptive list of text types the translator routinely handles, types of potential employers, an explanation of the legal status of the profession, a statement on the growing emphasis on computer tools and the software industry. The degree profile of the Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation (MACI) includes a description of the simultaneous and consecutive modes of interpretation, the use of booths and simultaneous interpretation equipment, potential employers and a brief description of the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC). The MATI degree is described as a dual specialization in both translation and interpretation, as described under the other degree tracks. It includes a description of the advantages of studying complementary skill sets and a statement on the popularity of the degree. The impression is given that the MATI degree is a combination of the MAT and MACI degree, and that the instructional objectives are therefore the equivalent of the two degrees combined. The MATI degree offers “greater flexibility and an edge in an increasingly competitive job market.”¹⁷ MAT and MACI degrees are described as specializations.

Much information about studying in this modified Y-track model¹⁸ is left unspecified and is thus relegated to the hidden curriculum. For example, there is no clear statement on the goals of the educational program in terms of observable performance on tasks, the breadth and depth

¹⁷ All quotations from GSTI curriculum documents are taken from the corresponding appendix to this volume.

¹⁸ see Figure 18 in Chapter 5.

of subject matter knowledge acquired, or the nature of interpretation or translation as skill sets. It is also questionable whether extremely detailed information of this nature is appropriate in a promotional brochure, as its function as a text type is primarily to provide initial information to potential students. It could well be argued that descriptions of aims, goals, and instructional objectives of this nature should be given in internal documents used for student and faculty reference on campus and for the exchange of information with peer institutions.

A clear statement on language requirements for individual language programs is also absent. Although language rankings and degree tracks are listed, it remains in the hidden curriculum, for example, that the MACI in two languages is de facto only possible in the Asian-language programs. As a result, it is unclear to the student which combinations are required in individual language programs for specific degree tracks. Another issue that is left unexplained is whether simultaneous interpretation into the foreign language (future B language) is an integral part of the curriculum.

Despite the equation of the MATI and MACI, a distinction is made between interpretation in the MATI and MACI degree tracks at a later point. According to the curriculum documents, an oral diagnostic evaluation is done at the end of the first semester for MACI students: "Those opting for the MACI degree are given an oral diagnostic evaluation at the end of the first semester to assess whether they have the requisite attributes to succeed as conference interpreters." The implication from this official curriculum document is that MATI graduates are not trained as conference interpreters. The message from the hidden curriculum is however contradictory, as students in both the MATI and MACI degree tracks attend the same interpretation courses and take the same exams regardless of degree track. As a result, MATI students receive roughly the same training as MACI in the language combinations that they are studying. A major difference, however, is the fact that the vast majority of MATI students have a two-language combination and are not required to pass examinations in simultaneous interpretation into the foreign language (B). Data on the number of students in individual language combinations and degree tracks is provided in Part I of the Case Study.

3.5.3.2 *Process: Knowledge and Skill Sequencing*

The sequencing of courses in specific degree tracks is clearly described in the curriculum table. No indication of workload in terms of credits, hours, or required commitment, however, is given. Indirect information on the sequencing of knowledge and skills is available in the curriculum table, but it remains unclear how the skill sets required for specific tasks relate to one another or how they build upon one another. This information is provided in much greater depth in the descriptions of individual courses. Statements on skill and knowledge building have been extracted from these descriptions and are shown in a progression by semester in Table 3.1. Notably absent in the descriptions are definitions of tasks and learning objectives in second semester translation and sight translation in the second and third semesters. Target skills are generally described as process-related abilities rather than the completion of specific target tasks. As useful and necessary as procedural descriptions may be, it remains unclear to the reader what performance levels are required at specific stages in the curriculum.

The sequencing of domain knowledge in translation proceeds from general and semi-specialized texts (first semester), to commercial and economic texts (second), scientific and technical (third), and concludes with political and legal texts (fourth). Domain knowledge in interpretation follows this rough order with commercial and economic texts in the third semester and political and technical speeches in the fourth. In terms of hidden curriculum, it must also be stated that many instructors focus on economic topics in second semester consecutive courses and introduce technical texts in both consecutive and simultaneous courses in the third. No precise information is extant on which programs or individual instructors follow the latter pattern. See Table 3.2.

Professional knowledge is handled exclusively in language-specific courses in the first semester. An introduction to the theory of translation is given in a lecture format in the second. Most professional knowledge covered in general courses is provided in the second year, with computer-assisted translation, project and terminology management in the third semester for translation, and an overview of IS and an action research project for interpretation. The fourth semester is devoted to software localization for translators and business-related aspects of the professions for both degree tracks. In addition, a practicum is offered throughout the second

Language Enhancement		Language Transfer			
	Written Translation	Sight Translation	Consecutive Interpretation	Simultaneous Interpretation	
Summer Course	General Language Enhancement: On Campus: English, French, Spanish, Russian Abroad: German				
1 st Semester	<p>Electives:</p> <p>Advanced English Discourse: spoken and written English, vocabulary, critical reading, writing and speaking, summarizing and paraphrasing skills in English; diction, tone, structure, organization, form, reasoning and persuasion, levels of formality and figurative language</p> <p>Public Speaking: flexibility of oral expression; speaking before and audience; varying presentation of written material; paraphrasing, transmission of complete message while changing vocabulary and structure; vocabulary study and text analysis</p>	<p>instantaneous solution of language-specific problems; vocabulary and structure</p>	<p>familiarity with conference interpretation in general; foundation for developing the professional skills of consecutive interpretation; ability to understand and analyze the meaning of the SL message and convey it in the TL in a straightforward and clear manner; clearly identify, analyze, and paraphrase the meaning in the SL and establish logical relations between its components; active listening and concentration skills, notetaking techniques, memory-training exercises, and techniques of abstracting and symbolizing information for subsequent recall</p> <p>General Introduction to Consecutive Interpretation (English-language elective): theory of consecutive interpretation; basics of notetaking; balancing listening and notetaking; register and accuracy in expression; problem-solving strategies</p>		

*Blank boxes imply that no specific objectives are formulated in curriculum documents.

2 nd Semester		command of technical terminology		identification of implicit structural organization of an extemporaneous speech; refining of notetaking techniques; reinforcement of ability to perceive essential meaning; clarity of expression, correct style and grammar, proper diction, and polished presentation; expansion of active vocabulary; development of fluency and memory	techniques for the development of own interpretation strategies; general introduction to simultaneous interpretation; preparatory exercises to develop concentration necessary for speaking and listening at the same time; mastery of voice management and smooth delivery techniques; analysis of spoken messages for meaning and rendering of a coherent version in the native language with correct grammar, diction and style
3 rd Semester		overview of scientific and technical translation strategies; solution to stylistic, syntactic, cultural and terminological problems; exposure to various types of technical writing Translation Proseminar: reinforcement of basic principles of translation; special emphasis on style, register, specific demands of certain text categories, theoretical discussion of translation choices		sequential logic in notetaking and accurate terminology in delivery; diagnosis and correction of problems at all stages from listening through delivery; progression to increasingly difficult and challenging material Court interpreting (Spanish only): techniques of consecutive and simultaneous interpretation used in judicial settings; registers of speech in legal proceedings	consolidation of techniques; polishing of delivery and language register; nuance of meaning, accuracy of interpretation; research and preparation for conferences, glossary development; maintaining of concentration while under stress; expansion of active general and technical vocabulary
4 th Semester		exposure to different styles of writing and document structures Advanced Translation Seminar: texts of considerable difficulty and complexity; text types and topics according to market demand; ability to submit camera-ready copy Translation Thesis (MAT only): large-scale translation projects or in-depth research on a subject related to translation or interpretation	rapid solution of translation problems while adhering to the style and tone of the original	attention to nuance and tone; learning of vernacular of political speeches; sharpening of listening, processing and notetaking functions	interpretation of more difficult speeches; ability to follow logic of complex scientific and technical discourse; fidelity to the style and tone of persuasive political discourse; continued development of research skills

Table 3.1 Skills-based Progression of GSTI Curriculum

Semester	Written and Sight Translation	Consecutive Interpretation	Simultaneous Interpretation
1 st Semester	General topics, i.e. non-specialized texts from a wide variety of domains	Speeches on wide-ranging, general topics, e.g. current events, cultural affairs, non-specialized topics from a wide variety of domains	
2 nd Semester	Commercial and economic texts, e.g. real-world texts on current world economic and financial issues, international trade and business, economic forecasts, and joint venture agreements; application of basic concepts of economics and business; command of terminology	Speeches on wide-ranging, general topics, e.g. current events, cultural affairs, non-specialized topics from a wide variety of domains	Speeches on wide-ranging, general topics, e.g. current events, cultural affairs, non-specialized topics from a wide variety of domains
3 rd Semester	Scientific and technical texts, e.g. medicine, biochemistry, environment, ecology, physics, computer science, journal articles, manuals, patents Wide-ranging texts in Translation Proseminar	Commercial and economic topics, e.g. from various sectors of the business world	General and economic speeches, e.g. from various sectors of the business world
4 th Semester	Political and legal texts, e.g. international crises, cooperation, development, government structure, personal documents, contracts, treaties, legislation Topics specific to language combination and market demand in Advanced Translation Seminar	Political speeches, e.g. political oratory	Political and technical speeches, e.g. persuasive political discourse, complex scientific and technical discourse

Table 3.2 Domain-based Progression of GSTI Curriculum

year for conference interpretation students. The practicum provides training in real-life settings to hone interpretation skills. Career information is provided throughout the course of studies through a Career Development Office. Students generally complete an internship between the second and third semester of study. See Table 3.3.

3.5.3.3 Interaction: Educational Environment

The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation stresses in its curriculum brochure that students will be joining an active professional community and become part of a constructive learning environment. Professors regard themselves as mentors, and a “collegial approach to training is the basis of the educational philosophy.” In addition, “GSTI professors strive to instill a professional sense of conduct and ethics in their students. After students complete the rigorous GSTI program, they are confident in their professional abilities.” This official curriculum document stresses the constructive nature of faculty-student interaction. Reflective practice is stressed in the IS and practicum classes, as well as in language-specific interpretation coursework. The result is a learning-centered environment that stresses collegiality and professionalism:

Teamwork is an essential aspect of both translating and interpreting; interpersonal, intercultural, and networking skills are an integral part of a translator’s or interpreter’s training. GSTI professors regard their students as future colleagues with whom they share their knowledge, experience and culture. ... At the Monterey Institute, translation and interpretation students have an unparalleled opportunity for personal growth and professional development in the unique and highly stimulating atmosphere of GSTI.

A theoretical foundation is also laid through translation and IS courses with paper requirements. Students pursuing a Master of Arts in Translation must also fulfill a thesis requirement, which may be either a translation, an academic research project, or a combination of both areas. It must however also be stressed that little concrete information is available to faculty on the hidden humanistic curriculum, as students may not be forthcoming if they have negative feelings. Exam anxiety and a related disconnect between student and faculty perceptions of the purposes of eliminatory examinations (Qualifying Examinations) after the first year has however been documented (Houba, 1996).

	Translation	Interpretation	
1 st Semester	Professional knowledge and skills development in language-specific translation and interpretation courses Macro- and microeconomics (if entry requirement not fulfilled)		Career information, internship and job placement Services though Career Development Office; referral and placement services throughout career
2 nd Semester	Theory of Translation: basic concepts of the theory of translation; conceptual framework for the study of translation theory; tools to identify, analyze and resolve translation problems; develop a rational approach to translation		
Summer	Internship		
3 rd Semester	Computer-Assisted Translation: principles and techniques for managing large-scale multilingual translation, publishing, and software localization projects; make-up of translation industry and community; machine translation; automation in the translation environment; terminology management; document management; typesetting; software internationalization and localization; project management; translation task breakdown and integration; translators as independent contractors	Readings in Interpretation Research: introduction to multidisciplinary research on interpretation; relevance of theoretical works to an interpreter's practice; identification of salient issues in interpreting; completion of action research project	
	Project Management: [no course description in GSTI brochure] Terminology Management: [no course description in GSTI brochure]	Forum I: consecutive; working in front of an audience; organizing a conference, selecting topics and delegates, preparing speeches and arguments, interpreting the proceedings Practicum in Interpretation: simulates professional conference interpreting conditions; familiarity with multilingual settings in which all modes of interpreting are called for and relay interpreting is the norm; concepts of evaluation and self-evaluation	

4 th Semester	<p>Translation as a Profession: practical knowledge necessary to succeed as freelance or in-house translators; role of translator; realities of working in the profession; job market, salaries, future trends; resume and cover letter writing; finding clients or employers; marketing, advertising, negotiating; legal and tax issues; exposure to translation technology, including computers, business software, on-line services, the Internet and WWW, machine-assisted and machine translation software</p> <p>Software Localization: walk through localization of an entire Windows sample application; familiarization with technical aspects of the profession; operation of software tools and packages commonly used in the localization industry</p>	<p>Interpretation as a Profession: introduction to the profession; preparation for practical work; awareness of different professional environments, professional ethics, interpersonal relations, conference organization, diplomatic etiquette, parliamentary procedure, professional pride and dignity; establish identity as professional interpreter; includes Forum I and II</p> <p>Forum II: simultaneous; same as Forum I</p>	
	Masters thesis (MAT only)		

Table 3.3 Progression of Professional Knowledge and Identity in GSTI Curriculum

3.5.3.4 Assessment and the Curriculum

For entry into the program, students must complete an early diagnostic test (EDT) in addition to fulfilling academic requirements. The EDT is used to assess the applicant's language proficiency; follow-up is conducted through a telephone interview. According to the GSTI promotional brochure, the Qualifying Examinations at the end of the second semester of study serve the purpose of determining the preparedness of students for the second year of study. A set of comprehensive Professional Examinations must also be passed after completion of the curriculum requirements. It is stressed in the curriculum materials that students may retake any exams as often as they wish in the event that they do not pass. These examinations are "graded by professional juries composed of GSTI professors, and are reviewed or observed by prospective employers from international organizations who are also professionals working in the field." No additional information is provided in the official curriculum on the relationship between or degree of integration of curriculum and these three forms of assessment.

3.6 Conclusions

At the beginning of this chapter, the need to select among the plethora of definitions, foundations, and approaches to curriculum is stressed. Curriculum is then defined as a plan of action (*process*) and as the learning experiences of the student (*interaction*). These two definitions are reflected in the psychological and philosophical foundations of curriculum. Literature from the scientific and humanistic approaches to curriculum is then related to interpreter education. The integration of *curriculum as process* and *curriculum as interaction* advances the notion that interpreter competence can be achieved more rapidly and effectively if principles of cognitive development are leveraged through appropriate forms of social interaction between participants in a program of instruction, as well as through reflective practice.

This discussion takes up Arjona's curriculum models, which show that the role of instruction in translation and instruction in interpretation varies among programs and that therefore interaction between translation and interpretation competence is a valuable topic to be

explored. The collection of evidence indicating the nature of the fundamental relationship between these two areas would seem to be necessary if interpreter education programs are to be improved. In designing a curriculum, therefore, key considerations include (1) whether translation and interpretation are more similar or dissimilar to one another in terms of knowledge and skill acquisition processes (*curriculum as process*); (2) whether training in translation and training in interpretation should take place concurrently, sequentially, or independently of one another (*curriculum as interaction*); and (3) the skill level and language combination level required for graduation. In the absence of empirical data, answers to these questions are based upon personal opinion and viewpoint. The empirical study addresses these considerations in an evaluation of the GSTI curriculum model in place at the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

4 Assessment

In validation, a vigorous, questing intellect has further importance for analyzing the values and rights embodied in—or sacrificed to—a testing program, and also for appreciating the beliefs and wants of members of the community that will arbitrate the validity argument.

(Cronbach, 1988, p. 14)

In the IS literature, the adoption of well-established assessment concepts from the fields of language teaching and testing has been advocated by Hatim and Mason (1997) and Arjona (1984b). *Assessment* is seen in this context as an enterprise focusing on the individual, as opposed to an enterprise focusing on the curricular program, otherwise known as *evaluation* (Ornstein & Hunkins, 1998, p. 319). The following overview begins with a review and definition of fundamental assessment concepts and places them in the context of interpreter education. These concepts serve as a theoretical foundation for the discussion of assessment practices used at various stages of the curriculum. An integrated view of assessment is advanced, i.e., an approach that views assessment as providing feedback and guidance to the learner throughout the course of instruction. For this reason, types of assessment and their role in the curriculum are seen from a holistic viewpoint. Central concerns include the need to validate assessment regimes and to foster awareness of the potential negative impact of professional judgment on assessment practices.

In interpreter assessment, an important distinction is that between evaluating quality and evaluating performance (Hatim and Mason, 1997). When one speaks of quality, one generally refers to the attributes of a specific performance. In contrast, performance assessment may be defined as assessment requiring students to demonstrate their achievement of understandings and skills by actually performing a task or set of tasks (e.g., writing a story, giving a speech, conducting an experiment, operating a machine) (Gronlund, 1998, p. 2). Hence, the learner's ability to perform the task is evaluated, not the quality of the product. Performance assessment itself differs from other types of testing in that it provides for greater realism and task complexity and requires more time for assessment and greater judgment in scoring (pp. 14-15). In other words, emphasis is placed upon the authenticity of the task, in that tasks that exist in the real world are used as the basis for assessment (p. 2), i.e., interpreting a speech from a conference or completing a translation project. The literature on quality is explored in great detail below as a gateway to construct development. The use of portfolio assessment is

presented as a means to achieve greater authenticity in interpreter assessment in the discussion at the end of this chapter.

4.1 Concepts

4.1.1 Validity

Validity has long been regarded as the touchstone of educational and psychological measurement and has therefore been defined repeatedly with varying nuances in the assessment literature. In the *Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing* of the American Psychological Association (*APA Standards*; 1985), validity is described as “the most important consideration in test evaluation. The concept refers to the appropriateness, meaningfulness, and usefulness of the specific inferences made from test scores” (p. 9). In other words, the purpose for which an assessment instrument is to be used is the key consideration in the process of designing, administering, and updating it. Similarly, Messick (1989) defines validity as

an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the *adequacy* and *appropriateness of inferences* and *actions* based on test scores or other modes of assessment ... Broadly speaking then, validity is an inductive summary of both the existing evidence for and the potential consequences of score interpretation and use. (p. 13)

The definitions cited above stem from Garret’s early definition of validity as “the extent to which an assessment measures what it purports to measure,”¹ which Gipps (1994) also draws upon. Gipps adds that if “an assessment does not measure what it is designed to measure then its use is misleading” (p. vii). A logical conclusion from this statement is that if an assessment regime is not demonstrably valid, the political and ethical basis for its use is undermined.

The validity of a testing regime cannot be ignored if curriculum and assessment are to be brought in line with one another. In this respect, validity is a comprehensive concept. For example, the social consequences of test use must also be considered (Messick, 1989, pp. 18-

¹ 1937, p. 324; 1947, p. 394; qtd. in Angoff, 1988, p. 19.

20). For this reason, as Cronbach summarizes, the validation “*argument must link concepts, evidence, social and personal consequences, and values*” (1988, p. 4).

Judging whether assessment practices are valid entails a process of evidence gathering. This evidence is then used to evaluate how well a given curriculum model is designed and whether curriculum goals are being met. Hence, validity is not to be regarded as an absolute criterion, but rather as a result of a validation process. Messick clarifies that “validity is a matter of degree, not all or none” (p. 13). In this regard, according to the *APA Standards*, although “evidence may be accumulated in many ways, validity always refers to the degree to which that evidence supports the inferences that are made from the scores. The inferences regarding specific uses of a test are validated, not the test itself” (p. 9).

A discussion of validity is absent in the interpreter training literature on assessment. Although initial discussions of criteria for assessing performance are provided by Ackermann, Lenk & Redmond (1997), Hönig (1997b), Altman (1994), le Féal (1990), and most extensively by Kutz (1997), the concept of validity and evidence thereof is not introduced.

In the past, validity has been classified into broad types with overlapping, interrelated categories.² Over time, however, “measurement specialists have come to view these as aspects of a unitary concept of validity that subsumes all of them” (Bachman, 1990b, p. 236). As a result of this process, three broad types of validity have emerged: content, criterion and construct validity (See Figure 10). This transition to a unity view of validity, in which all types of validity are subsumed under one concept, is documented in the 1985 *APA Standards*. Messick notes, for example, that the text of the standards “no longer refers to *types* of validity, but rather to categories of validity evidence called content-related, criterion-related, and construct-related evidence of validity.”³ Messick stresses that the objective is to avoid the misconception that demonstration of one type of evidence is sufficient to ascertain validity for all aspects of the assessment procedure. On the contrary, validation requires by definition that the type of evidence be specified, i.e., whether it supports construct-, content-, or criterion-related validity.

² For a plethora of validity terms, see Messick, 1980, p. 1015.

³ 1989, p. 18; see also Gipps, 1994, pp. 59-61.

Categories of Validity and Their Roles in Assessment		
Construct	Content	Criterion
<p>Attribute or characteristic of individual, reflected in test performance</p> <p>Unifies all types of validity evidence</p> <p>Reference to domain, criteria, and standards</p> <p>Which skills and abilities need to be tested? Component skills and abilities?</p>	<p>Degree to which test content represents the domain</p> <p>Content relevance and content coverage</p> <p>Is the test content representative of the domain? Is it prototypical? Does the test cover the skills necessary for good performance?</p>	<p>Relationship between test scores and criterion being measured, e.g., level of expertise</p> <p>Predictive or concurrent</p> <p>Do test scores predict future performance? Are scores the same as on another test of the same skill?</p>
<p>Examples:</p> <p>Ability to</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interpret with faithfulness to the meaning and intent of the original and • Use appropriate language and expression; • Apply world knowledge and knowledge of subject matter; • Demonstrate acceptable platform skills and resilience to stress 	<p>Examples:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Consecutive interpretation • Liaison interpretation • Simultaneous interpretation • Simultaneous interpretation with text 	<p>Examples</p> <p>Graduates are able to work in their market sector.</p> <p>Graduates can pass same or similar tests again in the future, including those administered in industry, if equivalent</p>

Fig. 10 Categories of Validation Evidence: Definitions and Features

Of the three types of evidence, **construct validity** is recognized as a force unifying all types of validity evidence (Messick, 1988, p. 40). A construct has been defined as “some postulated attribute of people, assumed to be reflected in test performance” (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955, p. 283). Similarly, Gipps ascertains that “[c]onstruct validity itself relates to whether the test is an adequate measure of the construct, that is the underlying (explanatory) skill being assessed. Important to the development of an assessment then is a clear and detailed definition of the construct” (1994, p. 58). According to the *APA Standards*, construct validity: “focuses on the test score as a measure of the psychological characteristic of interest” (1985, p. 9). To date, constructs for assessment in interpreter education have not been explicitly defined, although first attempts have been made. Kutz, for example, defines the following global constructs for performance assessment: overall impression (behavior), information content, language use and a summary statement in reference to the interpretation assignment (252-253). Kutz does not describe, however, the criteria to be applied to these constructs. Without clearly stipulating the criteria for assessment, errors in measurement cannot be determined and evidence for or against validity cannot be gathered.

Evidence of construct validity is overarching in the assessment context. For example, Bachman states that “[c]onstruct validity concerns the extent to which performance on tests is consistent with predictions that we make on the basis of a theory of abilities, or constructs” (1990b, pp. 254-255). Therefore, constructs cannot be developed and measured in isolation from one another, but must be part of an integrated viewpoint, even if it is initially rudimentary in form. As explained in the *APA Standards*,

[t]he construct of interest for a particular test should be embedded in a conceptual framework, no matter how imperfect that framework may be. The conceptual framework specifies the meaning of the construct, distinguishes it from other constructs, and indicates how measures of the construct should relate to other variables. (p. 9-10)

Bases for the development of constructs in interpreter assessment can be found in the Interpretation Studies (IS) literature, although they have not been identified as such to date. One possible access point for construct development is through the literature on quality in interpreting, as elusive a concept as quality may be (Shlesinger et al., 1994, pp. 121).

The emerging literature on quality is based increasingly on survey data (see Kurz, 1998, p. 392). Ackerman, Lenk and Redmond (1997) draw attention to the pedagogical value of this

research. Beyond the ability to inform, such data yield empirical criteria that can serve as a foundation for the elaboration of assessment constructs. The *AIIIC Survey on Expectations of Users of Conference Interpretation* distinguishes, for example, between content match (completeness of rendition, terminological accuracy, faithfulness to meaning) and formal match (synchronicity, rhetorical skills, voice) (Moser, 1995). Other surveys point to similar constructs (Kurz, 1996; Bühler, 1986; Kopczinski, 1994). Professional judgment and the philosophy of the educational institution, i.e., its educational objectives, are required to reach a consensus on construct definitions, as the purpose of the assessment will vary according to the perspective of the rater, i.e., whether the rater is an interpreter, end-user, employer, or educator, among others (Kurz, 1998, pp. 391-392). Kutz (1997), for example, defines three areas that are relevant for student assessment: overall impression and behavior of the interpreter, rendering of the content of the message, and use of language in the interpretation. Constructs derived from survey research fall into several of these categories. In addition, constructs will vary according to the type of assessment and its purpose (formative, summative, ipsative) and the stage of assessment in the curriculum (entry-level, intermediate, final testing).

Evidence of **content validity** is inseparable from evidence of construct validity (Messick, 1988, p. 38). The explanation in the *APA Standards* attests to this fact; for content validity “demonstrates the degree to which the sample of items, tasks or questions on a test are representative of some defined universe or domain of content” (p. 10). An example from the domain of language interpretation is the frequency with which the topic of an interpretation exam is encountered on the market, and thus the relevance of the subject matter and terminology being tested. Gipps reiterates the importance of “the representativeness with which the content covers that domain” (1994, pp. 58-59). The difficulty of the exam text is also a factor to be weighed in evaluating content validity. Another pertinent example is whether final degree examinations should include tests in simultaneous interpretation both with and without texts. Studies correlating valid and reliable exam scores from both exam types could provide evidence of whether content coverage is similar. In this sense, Gipps states that content validity “concerns the coverage of appropriate and necessary content i.e. [sic] does the test cover the skills necessary for good performance, or all the aspects of the subject taught?” (1994, pp. 58-59).

Therefore, content validity can be subdivided further into aspects of test content and the coverage of the domain being tested. Building on Messick, Bachman defines these two types of evidence: *content relevance* requires “the specification of the behavioral domain in question and the attendant specification of the task or test domain” (Messick, 1980, p. 1017), while *content coverage* is “the extent to which the tasks required in the test adequately represent the behavioral domain in question” (Bachman, 1990b, p. 245).

In the determination of appropriate content, there is agreement in the assessment community that, as stated in the *APA Standards*, “[t]he methods often rely on expert judgments to assess the relationship between parts of the test and the defined universe, but certain logical and empirical procedures can also be used” (1985, p. 10). Although the role of expert judgment is particularly problematic (Messick, 1989, p. 91),

expert professional judgment should play an integral part in developing the definition of what is to be measured, such as describing the universe of content, generating or selecting the content sample, and specifying the item format and scoring system. Thus, inferences about content are linked to test construction as well as to establishing evidence of validity after a test has been developed and chosen for use. (1985, p. 11)

The role of professional judgment is discussed in greater detail in Section 4.1.3.

The third type of evidence is based on criteria, i.e., whether criterion performance can be predicted from scores on the test (*APA Standards*, 1985, p. 11). Bachman describes ***criterion-related evidence*** as the

kind of information we may gather in the validation process ... which demonstrates a relationship between test scores and some criterion which we believe is also an indicator of the ability tested. This ‘criterion’ may be level of ability as defined by group membership, individuals’ performance on another test of the ability in question, or their relative success in performing some task that involves this ability. (1990b, p. 248)

In the context of curriculum and expertise, a criterion could be for example status as a novice, apprentice, or journeyman, which depends upon which level of examinations—degree track entry, intermediate, or final—has been successfully completed.

Two types of criterion-related evidence are typically distinguished from one another: predictive and concurrent. “A predictive study obtains information about the accuracy with which early

test data can be used to estimate criterion scores that will be obtained in the future. A concurrent study serves the same purpose, but it obtains prediction and criterion information simultaneously.”⁴ Gipps ascertains that the two types are often combined “because they both relate to predicting performance on some criterion either at the same time or in the future” (1994, p. 59). Concurrent validity “is concerned about whether the test correlates with, or gives substantially the same results as, another test of the same skill,” e.g., whether final degree examinations are comparable between two translation and interpretation schools. In contrast, predictive validity “relates to whether the test predicts accurately or well some future performance” (p. 58). A final degree examination should therefore serve as a valid indicator of whether a graduate will perform satisfactorily as a journeyman in the field.

4.1.2 Reliability

As defined by the *APA Standards*, reliability “refers to the degree to which test scores are free from errors of measurement” (1985, p. 19). The *APA Standards* clarify that “errors of measurement” refer to inappropriate fluctuation between scores: “[d]ifferences between scores from one form to another or from one occasion to another may be attributable to what is commonly called *errors of measurement*” (p. 19). In addition, in order to properly evaluate a test, it is necessary to identify the “major sources of measurement error, the size of the errors resulting from these sources, the indication of the degree of reliability to be expected between pairs of scores under particular circumstances, and the generalizability of results across items, forms, raters, administrations, and other measurement facets” (1985, p. 19). Gipps’ definition highlights a slightly different aspect—consistency in scoring: reliability is “the extent to which an assessment would produce the same, or similar, score on two occasions or if given by two assessors. This is the ‘accuracy’ with which an assessment measures the skill or attainment it is designed to measure” (1994, p. vii).

Various types of reliability are also commonly distinguished from one another (Gipps, 1994, p. 67, see Figure 11). **Test-retest reliability** can be ascertained by “giving the same test a few

⁴ *APA Standards*, 1985, p 11; see also Bachman, 1990b, p. 248.

Reliability: Accuracy of Test Scores		
Category	Definition	Examples and Implications for Interpretation
Test-retest reliability	Same test administered on separate occasions	Impractical in interpretation due to familiarity with source speech
Parallel forms	Alternate versions of the same test	Same test with different, but equivalent, source speeches Exam difficulty is same from one exam session to the next
Intra-rater	Same rater gives the same score for equivalent test performance on separate occasions	Same criteria applied consistently on separate occasions Rater has established criteria
Inter-rater	Different raters give the same score on the same test	Same criteria applied consistently on separate occasions Raters have common criteria

Fig. 11 Categories of Reliability: Examples and Implications for Interpretation

days apart.” Bachman refers to “stability” in this context (Bachman, 1990b, p. 181). **Parallel forms** or “equivalence” (p. 182) use “alternate forms of the ‘same’ test to compare performance of similar populations” (Gipps, 1994, p. 67). A pertinent example in interpretation is whether examinations are equivalent from one year to the next. **Inter-rater reliability** is defined as “agreement between raters on the same assessment,” while **intra-rater reliability** is regarded as “agreement of the same rater’s judgments on different occasions” (p. 76). Essential to intra-rater and inter-rater reliability is that the rater or raters apply “the same set of criteria consistently in rating the language performance of different individuals” (Bachman, 1990b, pp. 178-179). The training of raters is therefore a prerequisite. Finally, **internal consistency** is determined through “a statistical analysis which averages all possible correlations (i.e., across all possible divisions of the test).” This type of reliability cannot be applied to interpretation, as a given test cannot be meaningfully subdivided into multiple ‘items,’ as is commonly the case in norm-referenced testing, which are then compared with one another. In addition, the use of interval scales necessary for this type of statistical analysis is precluded (see Sections 4.1.3 and 4.1.4 below).

The *APA Standards* stipulate clearly that differences in a test taker’s performance from one occasion to the next are “not attributable to errors of measurement if maturation or if *inconsistency of response is relevant to the construct* being measured” (1985, p. 19, emphasis mine). This is clearly the case in interpretation, where baseline performance defines overall quality and thus ability to work in the field.

4.1.3 Subjective and Objective Testing

Two terms often used very loosely in the context of testing are subjective and objective testing. This indiscriminate application does much to undermine the credibility of examinations in interpretation, particularly among test takers. It is important to realize that, in an objective test, “the correctness of the test taker’s response is determined entirely by predetermined criteria so that no judgment is required on the part of scorers,” whereas in a subjective test, “the scorer must make a judgment about the correctness of the response based on her subjective interpretation of the scoring criteria” (Bachman, 1990b, p. 76). Testing in language interpreting

is necessarily subjective, as the only manner in which to utilize objective criteria would be to match the transcription of the test taker's output against a (subjective) translation of the original speech, thereby eliminating all interpretation of the scoring criteria on the part of the scorer. The Catch 22 is evident. For, as Pilliner describes,

[i]f the examiner has to exercise judgment; if he has to decide whether the answer is adequate or inadequate; if he has to choose between awarding it a high or low mark; then the marking process is 'subjective'. If, on the other hand, he is precluded from making judgments; if he is forced to accept decisions made beforehand by someone else; if, in short, he is reduced, for the purpose of marking, to the status of a machine (and in some cases can even be replaced by a machine); then the marking process is 'objective.' (1968, p. 21)

This raises an important point underscored by Pilliner (1968, p. 21): "all examinations are 'subjectively' compiled and 'subjectively' answered. Only their assessment may be 'subjective' or 'objective'. The distinction between a 'subjective' and 'objective' examination rests only on the manner in which the marks are to be assigned" (see also Bachman, 1990b, pp. 37-38). Possibilities for limiting the negative impact of subjective testing include the systematic application of test method facets (discussed below), the training of raters, and the sound exercise of professional judgment.

Professional judgment may also be a double-edged sword. The ability to apply professional judgment stemming from professional practice as an interpreter is widely regarded in the interpretation community as a prerequisite of jury membership—perhaps in an effort to ensure that unqualified non-interpreters are excluded from juries. However, professional judgment fluctuates widely and therefore should not be relied upon exclusively to ensure equity and fairness in testing. The role of professional judgment as outlined in the *APA Standards* is an interesting case in point. "Although the evaluation of the appropriateness of a test or application should depend heavily on professional judgment, the *APA Standards* can provide a frame of reference to assure that relevant issues are addressed" (1985, p. 2). Despite this strong statement, the *APA Standards* also stipulate that professional judgment based on knowledge of the field is insufficient. In addition to the establishment of criteria for assessment, special training in assessment methods for the application of such criteria is required:

evaluating acceptability involves the following: professional judgment that is based on a knowledge of behavioral science, psychometrics, and the professional field to which the tests apply; the degree to which the intent of this document has been satisfied by the test developer and user; the alternatives that are readily available; and research and experiential evidence regarding feasibility. (p. 2)

Indeed, Messick stresses that professional judgment is not the prerequisite, but rather the factor *for which allowances are made* in the verifiability network:

There is, indeed, a good rationale for why sound professional judgment should have veto power in practice: otherwise the standards would be completely prescriptive and, hence, unresponsive to compelling local exceptions. But in the absence of enforcement mechanisms, where is the protection against unsound professional judgment? And how could one tell the difference, if not on the basis of the validity principles and testing standards themselves? ... Much of this variation stems from appropriate allowance for sound professional judgment, as previously indicated. But the same allowance for professional judgment that facilitates flexibility in test validation also permits perpetuation of less desirable uses of the past." (1989, p. 91)

In other words, professional judgment may be a prerequisite for testing in interpretation, but it is always to be regarded more as a necessary evil than a cure-all and wielded with considerable care and circumspection. Transparency of professional judgment can counteract the negative perceptions associated with subjective testing, particularly among examinees, as transparency instills confidence in the assessment process and builds trust among concerned parties.

4.1.4 Measurement Scales

To date, little distinction is made among different types of measurement scales in the assessment of interpretation. There is little acknowledgement of the fact that the nature of the test, in particular whether it is a subjective or objective form of assessment, has a direct impact on the type of measurement scale that should be employed. The result is a haphazard, intuitive (i.e., impressionistic) approach to grading that jeopardizes the validity of examinations and other assessment instruments. As Bachman writes,

[p]ractically anyone can rate another person's speaking ability, for example. But while one rater may focus on pronunciation accuracy, another may find vocabulary to be the most salient feature ... Ratings such as these can hardly be considered anything more than numerical summaries of the raters' personal conceptualizations of the individual's speaking ability. (1990b, p. 20)

For the purposes of assessment in interpretation, as in any testing regime, three types of scales should be distinguished between one another: nominal, ordinal and interval (See Figure 12). A **nominal scale** "comprises numbers that are used to 'name' the classes or categories of

Type of Scale	Distinguishing Features	Examples and Implications for Interpretation
Nominal	Classes or categories of a given attribute; no ranking in relationship to one another	pass/fail; mother tongue Cannot be averaged
Ordinal	Classes or categories of a given attribute that are ranked in relationship to one another on a scale Categories are not equidistant from one another on the scale	rankings with 'greater than', 'less than' relationships high pass, pass, borderline fail, fail Most widely used scale in language assessment Cannot be averaged
Interval	Classes or categories of a given attribute that are equidistant from one another on a scale	100-point multiple-choice test with each item worth one point Rarely used in language assessment; widespread misuse in T&I assessment Can be averaged
Ratio	Interval scale with an absolute zero point	thermometer Impractical in language assessment Can be averaged

Fig. 12 Measurement Scales and Their Use in Interpretation

a given attribute” (p. 27) e.g., ‘native language’ or ‘pass’ / ‘fail’. Code numbers may also be assigned to these attributes, but the categories are not ordered in relationship to one another and therefore cannot be averaged. An **ordinal scale**, in comparison, “comprises the numbering of different levels of an attribute that are ordered with respect to each other” (p. 28); therefore the order establishes a ranking in which the levels of the attribute may be characterized as ‘greater than’ or ‘less than’ each other. Bachman provides an extensive discussion of the subjective ratings in language tests using ordinal scales (pp. 36; 44-45). Most assessment scales used in interpretation probably fall into this category. With ordinal scales, numerical averaging is not possible, as the levels of the attribute are not equidistant from one another. This is the case, however, with an **interval scale**, “in which the distances, or intervals, between the levels are equal” (p. 28). A fourth type of scale, the ratio scale, has an absolute zero point.

The distinction between ordinal and interval scales is particularly salient in the case of interpretation, as interval scales allow numerical averaging and ordinal scales do not. Few assessment regimes, if any at all, that have been established for use in interpreter assessment are based upon an interval scale. Nevertheless, calculations using averaging and factoring are not infrequent. It is doubtful at best whether an interval scale can be established, as language testing is inherently subjective and characterized by limitations in specification, observation and quantification (Bachman, 1990b, pp. 30-40).

4.1.5 Formative, Summative and Ipsative Assessment

Gipps defines the broad term *assessment* as “a wide range of methods for evaluating pupil performance and attainment including formal testing and examinations, practical and oral assessment, classroom based assessment carried out by teachers and portfolios” (1994, vii). Her definition illustrates that there are various types of assessment and different assessment instruments that have been distinguished from one another (see Figure 13).

With regard to the purposes of assessment, two types should be readily differentiated from one another: **formative** and **summative**. “Formative assessment takes place during the course of

Type of Assessment	Distinguishing Features
Summative	<p>Jury / instructor evaluation at end of program or course of study</p> <p>Determines how well student has learned and whether teaching is effective</p> <p>Mentoring relationship</p> <p>Degree and course examinations; thesis or portfolio projects</p>
Formative	<p>Instructor evaluation during course of teaching</p> <p>Feeds back into teaching and learning process</p> <p>Collegial relationship</p> <p>Grading on assignments; feedback on coursework; feedback on ipsative assessment (self-assessment statements, journal, field notes, or log)</p>
Ipsative	<p>Self-evaluation</p> <p>Evaluation of current performance against previous performance and performance of other participants</p> <p>Reflective practitioner</p> <p>On-going reflection on learning; integrates instructor and peer feedback; formalized in self-assessment statements, journal, field notes, or log</p>

Fig. 13 Types of Assessment and Their Role in Curriculum

teaching and is used essentially to feed back into the teaching / learning process” (Gipps, 1994, p. vii). In contrast, “[s]ummative assessment takes place at the end of a term or a course and is used to provide information about how much students have learned and how well a course has worked” (p. vii). A third category is **ipsative assessment**, “in which the [student] evaluates his/her performance against his/her previous performance” (p. vii). This third type is particularly relevant for the reflective practitioner (Schön, 1983; 1987). A determining factor in the training context is the degree to which ipsative assessment is purposefully integrated into the curriculum and thus allows the student to fully benefit from this type of self-assessment to enhance his/her learning. From the humanistic view of curriculum, formative assessment may be regarded as assessment stemming from a colleague, summative assessment from a mentor, and ipsative assessment from a reflection practitioner.

4.2 Developmental Milestones: Integrating Curriculum and Assessment

As the review of literature on assessment has revealed, there is little extant literature on the integration of assessment into the curriculum. To date, Arjona (1984b) is perhaps the sole author who has related different types of testing at various stages in a curriculum to one another. For this reason, the definitions of key assessment terms above are now followed by an overview of assessment stages in interpretation. This overview serves the purpose of setting various types of assessment in relation to one another and indicating the vast potential for further, much needed research.

In conference interpretation, testing is normally carried out in two arenas: academia, i.e., interpreter training programs, and in the field. In the latter case, examinations form the gateway to contract work and staff positions at international organizations (European Union, Council of Europe, United Nations, among others), and governmental ministries and agencies usually on the national level. Generally, testing is not done in business and industry, although exceptions are possible, such as the hiring of staff in a few international corporations and large-scale providers of interpretation services, e.g., in telephone interpreting. Hospitals and courts are increasingly seeking to establish scientifically based testing regimes. Degree qualifications,

professional experience, reputation and/or word-of-mouth fulfill this role in the corporate arena, where the vast majority of work is carried out by teams of freelancers.

Testing in the field is, however, primarily focused on summative assessment in the narrow sense of *testing*. It seems likely that it will remain the task of training institutes, researchers and professional associations to define constructs and content, lay down criteria for scoring, and specify test method facets. These measures are inherent to the process of evidence-gathering in the interest of validation.

Apart from formative testing in individual courses, three levels of testing can be distinguished from one another in most interpreter training programs: entry-level testing, intermediate testing and final testing. Similarly, Gronlund draws attention to three stages during which instructors are called upon to make decisions with regard to student learning: at the beginning of instruction (placement assessment), during instruction (formative and diagnostic assessment) and at the end of instruction (summative assessment) (1998, pp. 4-8). These three stages of assessment correspond to levels of expertise and may differ with regard to test validity, the type of validity relevant for each category also being a function of factors such as curriculum structure and length of program. In Figure 14, a description providing a definition and the purpose is given for each stage, as well as implications for gathering evidence of construct validity.

4.2.1 Entry-level Assessment

In terms of expertise, entry-level testing is assessment on the level of the novice. It is used for diagnostic purposes to determine eligibility for entry to a degree track. In conducting this type of assessment, teachers must determine the extent to which students possess the skills and abilities that are needed to begin instruction, and the extent to which students have already achieved the intended learning outcomes of the planned instruction (Gronlund, 1998, 4-5). The use of efficient entry-level testing seems more crucial the shorter the course of study, as skills must be consolidated to a higher degree in order for the candidate to be ready to enter the profession within a shorter period of time. Even in longer programs, some of which may last over four years, students may benefit from diagnostic testing early-on, as large introductory

Level of Expertise	Type of Assessment	Questions to be addressed
<p>Journeyman / competent Can perform competent work unsupervised, but little experience with subdomains and tough cases</p> <p>Can manage a variety of situations; define and work toward long-term goals</p>	<p>Final assessment</p> <p>Summative – program-driven; instructor-motivated</p> <p>Formative – instructor- and student-motivated</p> <p>Ipsative – autonomous</p>	<p>Is the student ready to work on the market, i.e., ready to graduate?</p> <p>Is remedial work necessary? Are all language and transfer skills on a professional level?</p> <p>Language rating?</p>
<p>Apprentice / advanced beginner Undergoing instruction beyond introductory level</p> <p>Sees recurring, meaningful situations; global characteristics as experienced in situations; needs help setting priorities</p>	<p>Intermediate assessment</p> <p>Summative – program-driven; instructor-motivated</p> <p>Formative – instructor-driven; student motivated</p> <p>Ipsative – instructor and student motivated; autonomy emerging</p>	<p>How well is the student progressing?</p> <p>Are there obstacles to learning?</p> <p>Which degree track should the student pursue—translation, interpretation or both?</p>
<p>Novice New to domain; minimal or introductory exposure</p> <p>Sees task features that can be recognized without experience of situation; limited inflexible behavior</p>	<p>Entry-level assessment</p> <p>Formative – instructor-driven</p> <p>Ipsative – definition and introduction; instructor-driven</p>	<p>Is student ready to start the program?</p> <p>Is student motivated and open to instruction and learning?</p> <p>Instruction in translation or interpretation or both? In which languages?</p>

Fig. 14 Developmental Milestones and Role of Assessment

classes with a wide range of skill levels among students can result in lower program efficiency and even poor student modeling that detracts from the learning experience.

There does not seem to be a consensus among interpreter educators that entry-level testing must show predictive validity. For example, the majority of faculty at the Monterey Institute take the position that diagnostic testing has the sole purpose of determining whether a candidate is ready to begin T&I training, or perhaps can begin his/her studies but needs additional language training (see Arjona, 1984b, pp. 114-115). In such cases, no determination is intended as to the probability of success in the program, although strong and weak candidates are immediately recognizable. In this sense, the term aptitude testing in reference to this stage of assessment is a misnomer, as aptitude for interpreter training is not being measured, but rather skill levels necessary for the initiation of T&I training. In fact, a recent study at the Monterey Institute of International Studies showed no relationship between oral diagnostic testing and performance on final examinations (Tapalova, 1998). Under these circumstances, it would appear appropriate to avoid the term “aptitude” in reference to a specific diagnostic test unless evidence of predictive validity can be provided through scientific methods, e.g., score correlation with GPA, intermediate, and/or final exams.

Logistically, diagnostic, entry-level assessment falls into two categories: **off-campus testing**, often in the form of a written translation, essay or precis-writing task, as part of an application package completed at home by the candidate, and **on-campus testing**, a form of in situ testing through a series of oral interview and written translation tasks. In the latter case, diagnostic assessment may take place over an extended period of time, perhaps even within the framework of a first-semester or introductory course (Neff, 1989). In some programs, on-campus diagnostic testing may overlap with intermediate testing. There is considerable literature on the content of diagnostic tests.⁵ Although these assessment instruments may include pre-interpreting exercises such as dual-task training and shadowing, over which there is much debate, Hyang-Ok (n.d.) determines that the most widespread assessment instrument is the skill to be trained in the target task format.

⁵ Arjona-Tseng, 1994; Bossé-Andrieu, 1981; Bowen & Bowen, 1985a; Bowen & Bowen, 1989; Gerver, Longley, Long, & Lambert, 1989; Gringiani, 1990; Hyang-Ok, n.d.; Lambert & Meyer, 1988; Longley, 1989; Moser-Mercer, 1984; Moser-Mercer, 1985; Moser-Mercer, 1994a.

The diagnostic test regime of the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (MIIS), for example, includes both off- and on-campus testing, which are carefully coordinated with one another. The off-campus, early diagnostic test (EDT) establishes a working relationship with the potential student and is used for entry into the degree program. An initial, albeit non-binding, assessment concerning the specific degree track is then explored during the first (and sometimes second) semester of study in introductory translation and interpretation courses. The selection of a degree track is generally confirmed during intermediate testing. The EDT itself consists of a written and an oral portion, which includes the aforementioned exercises as well as pronunciation, extemporaneous speech, abstract thinking and self-assessment tasks. In view of the instantaneous communication possible through the internet, the global dispersion of GSTI's languages and cost of travel which many of GSTI's applicants face, this combination of on- and off-campus testing has proved to be ideal. This is especially the case now that initial oral testing is being conducted using widely acknowledged language testing methods and a cassette tape with a follow-up telephone conversation. GSTI's current diagnostic instrument is reproduced in Appendix 10.8.

Finally, in the opinion of this researcher, diagnostic testing should not be used to establish an A, B, C language rating for training purposes. The A, B, C language categorization applies to working languages in the field and can therefore only be established upon entry into the profession, for example as part of final testing. Earlier use may generate unrealistic expectations on the part of students, inappropriate judgments concerning students on the part of practicing professionals and, if the categories are strictly applied, inappropriate stress for students.

4.2.2 Intermediate Assessment

Intermediate testing is assessment on the level of the apprentice. It is normally conducted after introductory courses to consecutive and simultaneous interpreting. Formative and diagnostic assessment occurs during instruction leading up to such a test as well. Questions to be addressed include the following. On which learning task is the student progressing satisfactorily? On which ones is additional help needed? Which students are having such

severe learning problems that they need remedial work? (Gronlund, 1998, p. 6). Formative assessment of performance-based tasks involves periodic assessment of a product or process (p. 7). Hence, intermediate testing consists of consecutive interpretation and in many cases simultaneous interpretation as well. As intermediate testing has the purpose of assessing whether the candidate has the potential to continue and successfully complete the degree program, the predictive validity of this type of assessment should, by definition, be high. In this sense, intermediate testing is also aptitude testing (Arjona, 1984b, p. 118).

In formative assessment, the aim is to monitor learning progress and to provide corrective prescriptions to improve learning (Gronlund, 1998, p. 7). Hence, periodic assessment over time is required. As a result, the evolution of student work and the ability to continue to build skills successfully can be assessed with greater accuracy. In this regard, intermediate testing is both formative and summative—formative in that feedback is given on a student's work, which guides decision-making for continuation in the degree program, and summative in that learners demonstrate baseline competence on specific occasions.

4.2.3 Final Assessment

In terms of expertise, final testing is assessment on the level of the journeyman. It is a form of summative assessment aimed at determining whether the candidate is ready to enter the profession. A widespread position among raters is that coursework is not taken into account in final testing, as interpreters on the market must be capable of performing acceptably on any given day; their worst performance should still be sufficient for the task at hand. Arjona (1984a), for example, identifies baseline quality, or routine performance, as a possible test construct. In this instance, it is argued that candidates face the same type of spot assessment when applying for work in the field (ministries, international organizations), and final testing in a training program, when conducted appropriately and constructively, provides useful practice.

Predictive validity plays a role in final testing in that the assessment should predict whether the examinee will perform successfully in the workplace. Other types of validity, which are ideally present in intermediate testing and diagnostic testing, are crucial. With regard to content validity, there is little explicit consensus on what constitutes a 'good' exam text (Lamberger-

Felber, 1997), other than that it stem from professional practice. A similar case could be made for construct validity, which should also be present; for example, a text could require the application of complex world knowledge. Criterion-related validity plays a role as well, if text difficulty is to remain as consistent as possible from exam to exam (retakes).

Summative assessment at the end of instruction also provides useful information on the effectiveness of the instruction. According to Gronlund, when

the majority of the students do poorly on an assessment, it may be the fault of the students but the difficulty is more likely to be found in the instruction. The teacher may be striving for learning outcomes that are unattainable by the students, may be using inappropriate materials, or may be using ineffective methods for bringing about the desired changes. (1998, p. 11)

Therefore, high fail rates, for example, are an indication that the educational objectives of the program are not being met.

4.3 Evidential Bases of Construct Validity

In the following discussion focuses on establishing evidence of construct validity as a tool to determine whether curriculum aims, goals, and objectives are being reached. The intention is to elaborate a framework for assessment by making reference to **criteria**, **domain**, and **standards** (Gipps, 1994).

4.3.1 Scientific Approaches: Criteria

McMillan draws attention to the fact that criteria are not merely a numerical grading scale, but rather “clearly articulated and public descriptions of facets or dimensions of student performance (1997, p. 29). As such, they are more informative of actual student performance than a numerical system, as Kiraly aptly demonstrates in stressing the need for holistic translator assessment (2000, p. 153). Criteria are laid out in scoring rubrics, or scoring guidelines, as shown in the discussion of assessment for the integrated Y-track model in Section 8.2.2. In this case, the scoring rubric is intended to describe levels of proficiency in skill

performance, and thus differs, for example, from an itemized breakdown of assessment categories as presented by Kutz (1997, pp. 252-253). Kutz's criteria are in fact a mixture of component skills, performance features, and assessment constructs. More clear-cut examples of criteria include the criteria for describing language competence set forth in the ASTM Standard Guide for Use-Oriented Language Instruction (see Appendix 10.10) and Stanfield, Scott & Kenyon's skill level descriptors for the measurement of translation ability (1992).

With reference to criteria, Arjona (1984b) applies the distinction between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced testing to translation and interpretation. The difference between these two forms of assessment has been acknowledged in the measurement community since Glaser's introductory article "Instructional Technology and the Measurement of Learning Outcomes" (1963). Arjona recognizes that criterion-referenced testing is a more meaningful approach to testing in interpretation than norm-referenced testing, given the need for the interpreter to perform adequately. In this case, interpreters should not be judged in relation to one another, but rather against a scale of absolute criteria (1984b, p. 6). To apply criterion-referenced testing meaningfully, the question "what are the criteria?" must be addressed. This statement applies to all forms of assessment on the course and program levels and across the profession.

The differences between these two types of testing are summarized succinctly by Glaser: "criterion-referenced measures depend upon an absolute standard of quality, while what I term norm-referenced measures depend upon a relative standard" (1963, p. 519). Norm-referenced tests "are designed to enable the test user to make 'normative' interpretations of test results. This is, test results are interpreted with reference to the performance of a given group, or norm" (Bachman, 1990b, p. 72), whereas criterion-referenced tests

are designed to enable the test user to interpret a test score with reference to a criterion level of ability or domain of content. An example would be the case in which students are evaluated in terms of their relative degree of mastery of course content, rather than with respect to their relative ranking in the class." (p. 74)

Glaser further stipulates that

[u]nderlying the concept of achievement measurement is the notion of a continuum of knowledge acquisition ranging from no proficiency at all to perfect performance ... along such a continuum of attainment, a student's score on a criterion-referenced measure provides explicit information as to what

the individual can or cannot do ... [It] thus provide[s] information as to the degree of competence attained by a particular student which is independent of reference to the performance of others. (1963, pp. 519-520)

Glaser and Nitko's 1971 definition is similar: "A *criterion-referenced test is one that is deliberately constructed to yield measurements that are directly interpretable in terms of specified performance standards*" (p. 653).

In this context, one may distinguish between a *maximum level of attainment* and a *minimum level of competency* in interpreter education. Arjona draws attention to the need for a definition of baseline performance by describing the study of translation and interpretation as minimal competency education. In her words,

what is of essence within the educational setting ... is that the program take the student to the level in which he or she can, in fact, *routinely* translate or interpret the message accurately and appropriately, thus bridging the existing communication gap in a meaningful manner ... To say this in another way, in our field, what is of paramount importance is whether the professional or the graduation candidate can in fact '*routinely and safely* fly the plane'—not whether he/she can 'almost' or 'more or less' fly the plane. Curriculum design and planning in T/I therefore ... are inextricably linked to evaluation and assessment and the curriculum planner in designing the program must not overlook this crucial relationship. (1984a, pp. 6-7)

Also a question of degree, the maximum level of attainment may refer to a learner's fulfillment of his or her potential to build interpretation skills, which may not be reached due to any number of reasons. For example, the period of study may be too short for a specific student. Students may take final examinations even though they have not yet reached their full potential in the program, for example due to a lack of funding, employment offers, or changes in personal life. For this reason, a clear definition of a minimum level of competency as baseline performance is required in the curriculum objectives. The need to identify and apply a minimum baseline of performance in interpreter education further supports the use of criterion-referenced assessment practices.

Performance standards for assessment purposes in the form of operationally defined constructs for assessment would ideally achieve recognition within a specific subdomain, regardless of training institute or employer. An example of such a band or scale (Bachman, 1990b, p. 44) for foreign language proficiency is the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (The

American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, 1986). Similar scales have been developed for translation assessment (Stansfield, Scott & Kenyon, 1992).

Care must be taken in the application of criteria, however. Gipps (1994) summarizes the difficulties of strictly applying criterion-referenced instruments, which may result in over-specification and a focus on narrow, tightly defined objectives. Gipps identifies a movement away from over-specification “towards an anti-analytic, more holistic approach” (p. 93), which includes references to domain and standards.

4.3.2 Humanistic Approaches: Domain

With regard to the domain of interpreting, it no longer seems sufficient to say that we are simply testing “interpretation.” In his definition of interpreting, for example, Hoffman states that the field “is not language translating, or even language interpreting. The domain is *language and gesture interpreting in a way that is sensitive to the audience and speaker and their relations and goals, sensitive to world knowledge and context as well as topic, and sensitive to status relations, loyalty shifting, and nuance as well as to literal meaning*” (1997a, p. 204). In this light, a debate on whether all interpretation is the same is defeatist, e.g., whether a day-long simultaneous conference on wood processing is equivalent to an emergency doctor-patient telephone call due to the allergic reaction of a child. Another approach would be to identify and meet the needs of a given setting. In this light, Hoffman’s definition of interpreting, as extensive as it may be, requires additional distinctions according to subdomains. These distinctions would then be reflected in the statement of educational objectives of the curriculum.

4.3.3 Guidelines: Standards

Recognized standards in interpretation are few and far between, with the National Interpreter Education Standards for signed language training programs in the United States being a notable exception (Conference of Interpreter Trainers, 1995). On the national level, standards exist in Australia, primarily for community interpretation (NAATI: <http://www.naati.com.au>).

They are being developed within the American Society of Testing and Materials (ASTM) in the United States at this writing (Sawyer, 1998). A pertinent source for the development of standards for assessment is the *Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing* of the American Psychological Association.

Bachman proposes the following steps in establishing a measurement framework: 1) identifying and defining the construct theoretically; 2) defining the construct operationally, i.e., relating the theoretical construct to observations of behavior (1990b, p. 42), which implies isolating the construct to make it observable (p. 43) by eliciting “language performance in a standard way, under uniform conditions” (p. 44); and 3) establishing procedures for quantifying observations, by defining units of measurement (p. 44). An example of a criterion-referenced scale used for assessing performance in interpreter training may be found in Appendix 10.9.

From a more general perspective, the application of operationally defined constructs hinges on the elaboration of test method facets in which the features of testing procedures are specified (Bachman, 1990b, p. 44). This is the subject of the following chapter.

4.4 Standardization

We do not ... see assessment as a scientific, objective, activity, this we now understand to be spurious. ... Assessment is not an exact science, and we must stop presenting it as such.
(Gipps, 1994, p. 167)

If interpreter testing cannot be considered an objective undertaking, but rather an endeavor in which professional judgment is required, special consideration must be given to those methods that can reduce the negative, undesired consequences of individual rater subjectivity. Test standardization is a vehicle through which unwanted fluctuation in assessment can be reduced. Standardization does not necessarily entail a de-coupling of assessment from the realities of the marketplace; rather, it implies that testing procedures, both within and across language programs, are uniform to the greatest extent possible. The rationale for a given degree of standardization, or uniformity, or lack thereof is related to the goals of the curriculum and can therefore be delineated in curriculum documents, as discussed in Section 4.4.2.

Uniformity begins with the parameters of the test, or the test method facets, as defined perhaps most thoroughly by Bachman (1990b). He identifies these facets as “potential sources of error that can be equally detrimental to the accurate measurement of language abilities” (1990b, p. 160) and states that the need to investigate test method facets stems from the underspecification prevalent in language testing (p. 31). Bachman defines facets as “the characteristics of the methods used to elicit test performance,” and states that these characteristics “constitute the ‘how’ of language testing, and are of particular importance for designing, developing, and using language tests, since it is these over which we potentially have some control” (p. 111). Bachman’s “use of the term ‘facet’ for specific aspects of test method is consistent with Guttman’s (1970) discussion of facet design and analysis, which he [Guttman] proposed as a basis for test design” (p. 115). Bachman presents his framework “not as a definitive statement or exhaustive list, but rather as a guide for empirical research that I [Bachman] hope will lead to a better understanding of the extent to which these facets affect performance on language tests, and to the discovery of additional facets not included” (p. 117). Assessment in interpretation is not immune to such sources of error, as is shown in the following case study. Through underspecification—or making “certain simplifying assumptions” due to “the complexity of and the interrelationships among the factors that affect performance on language tests”—Bachman aims “to either exclude or minimize by design the effects of factors in which we are not interested, so as to maximize the effects of the ability we want to measure” (p. 31). These “limitations in observation and quantification” stem from “the fact that all measures of mental ability are necessarily *indirect, incomplete, imprecise, subjective, and relative*” (p. 32).

Interpreter tests are *indirect* in that in many, but not all, testing scenarios, “we are interested in measuring the test taker’s underlying competence, or ability, rather than his performance on a particular occasion” (p. 32). “We interpret [our measures] as indicators of a more long-standing ability or competence” (pp. 32-33), such as the interpreter’s ability to perform successfully in the field over time.

Interpreter tests are *incomplete* in that “the performance we observe and measure ... is a sample of an individual’s total performance ... ” (p. 33). A test-taker’s performance is one of many that he or she gives throughout a course of study or curriculum. The choice of topic and

terminology is limited in scope by the necessity that it is only one sample. In this light, the need to specify constructs, content and criteria becomes even greater (pp. 34-35).

Ratings are *imprecise* in that “[i]n measuring language abilities, where we are not dealing with direct physical comparison, the units of measurement scales must be defined, and precision, or reliability, becomes, in part, a function of how we define these units” (p. 35). This factor can be addressed through the use of criterion-referenced rating scales.

Interpreter tests, as a specific form of language testing, are *subjective* “in nearly all aspects” (p. 37). Developers make subjective decisions when designing tests and selecting materials; test takers make subjective judgments in taking tests, and scorers make subjective decisions in scoring them (p. 37). However, Bachman draws attention to the subjectivity of the test-taker in particular in stating that “[p]erhaps the greatest source of subjectivity is the test taker herself, who must make an uncountable number of subjective decisions, both consciously and subconsciously, in the process of taking a test” (p.38).

Finally, interpreter tests are *relative* in that there are “‘norms’ of performance,” for example a “kind of language use” defined by variety, dialect and register, as well as a “standard for score interpretation ... in terms of levels of language abilities” (pp. 38-40). It remains a matter of discussion, however, whether norms in interpreter testing have been precisely defined.

An analysis of test method facets is a comprehensive endeavor that begins on the program level within a specific institution or other highly defined assessment context. Once constructs, content and criteria have been elaborated in a variety of contexts, interpreter educators will have a scientific basis for the comparison of assessment procedures across schools. Coordination of developmental efforts is also possible from the top down, e.g., within the research and training committees of professional associations. Those areas that need to be addressed are detailed in Bachman’s framework of test method facets. They include the testing environment, test rubric, input, expected response and the relationship between input and response. A breakdown of these categories is shown in Figure 15.

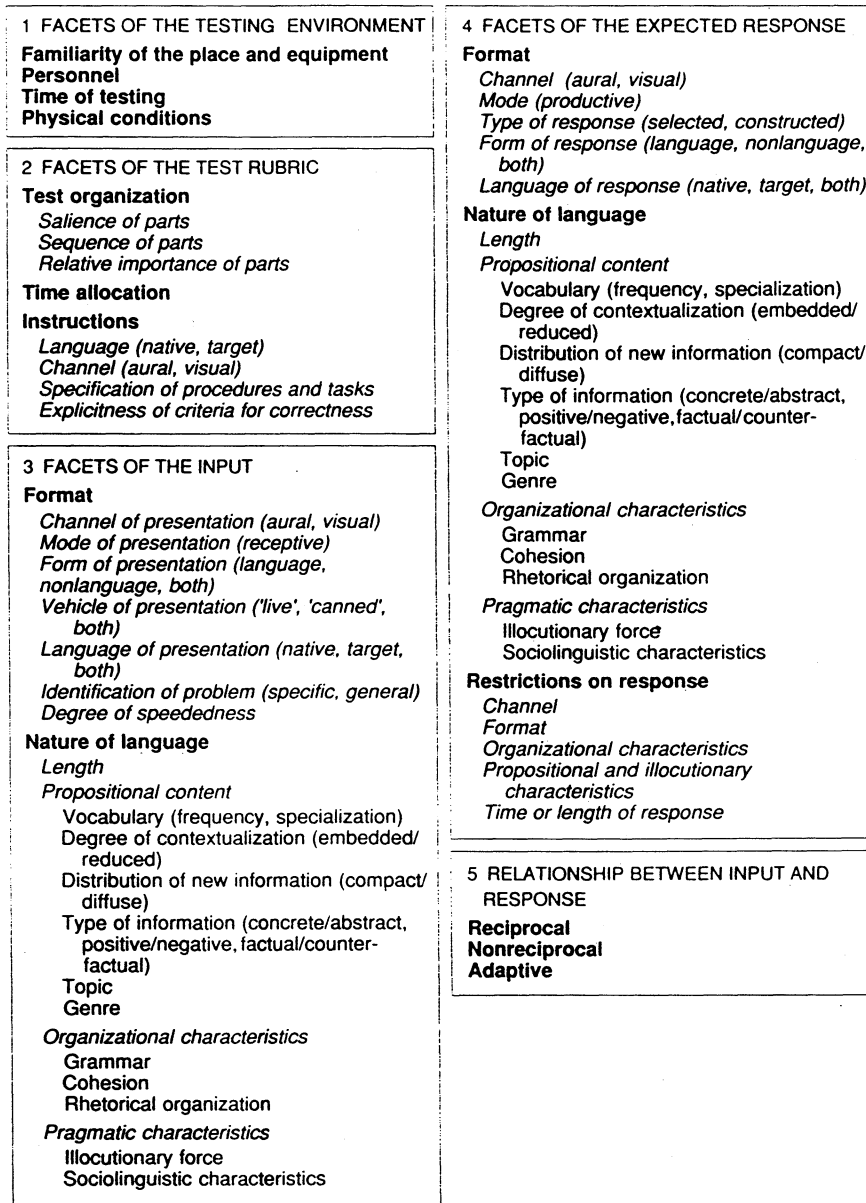


Fig. 15 Bachman's Test Method Facets (1990b, p. 119)

4.5 Authenticity

If humanistic concerns play a fundamental role in the design of curriculum—situating cognition in the community of professional practice—and assessment is to be integrated into a program of instruction, attention must also be paid to establishing test practices that reflect real world conditions. Authenticity has been described in the assessment literature as the contextualized performance of engaging and worthy, real-life, representative tasks (see Wiggins 1993) and is widely, albeit implicitly, recognized by practitioners as fundamental in ensuring that interpreter testing is appropriate and meets the needs of the marketplace. The “direct examination of a student’s ability to use knowledge to perform a task that is like what is encountered in real life or in the real world” (McMillan, 1997, p. 199) is a concern that has been explored in the Translation and Interpretation Studies literature as well. Snell-Hornby, for example, discusses the role of examinations in the curriculum and mentions her conviction that “the present method of formal examination, while it is a time-honoured academic tradition, should at least in part give way to alternative methods that reflect the realities of future professional life” (1992, p. 19). This concern for real-life context is not specific to interpretation or translation: Bachman states that one “of the main preoccupations in language testing for the past quarter of a century (at least) has been a sincere concern to somehow capture or recreate in language tests the essence of language use, to make our language tests ‘authentic’” (1997, p. 300), thus drawing attention to a long theoretical discussion in the field of language testing from which interpreter education can benefit.

While the aforementioned call for standardization in interpreter assessment would seem to undermine authenticity, it is precisely the application of test method facets to the testing situation that provides evaluators with the descriptive tools to distinguish between authentic and inauthentic assessment. Such a theoretical framework facilitates the comparison of language test performance with non-test language performance, which in turn could result in greater precision when characterizing the nature of interaction during test tasks (Bachman, 1997, p. 303).

A fundamental tension does lie, however, between authentic test tasks, i.e., contextualized performance, and conventional, large-scale testing (see Wiggins, 1993, p. 207), and

concessions must inevitably be made when large groups of students are to be tested in either translation or interpretation. For example, the advantages and disadvantages of presenting examinees with 'canned' input or taping participants in groups for post situ assessment need to be explored in depth as to the degree to which they lead to test tasks that may be inauthentic or result in forms of assessment that do not achieve their intended purposes. A simple awareness of the concept of authenticity and the adoption of a methodological framework to describe it in the area of language interpreting is a first step.

A way to reduce this fundamental tension between authentic and inauthentic forms of assessment may lie in the use of a variety of forms of assessment, each for a specific purpose. In this respect, it can also be noted that, in the interest of multiple perspectives, the duality of approaches to testing and assessment has been considered an advantage in other contexts (Guba, 1990; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In the field of language teaching and testing, for example, some researchers have adopted differing approaches for varying purposes (Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Bailey, 1998; Bailey & Nunan, 1996). The possibilities of portfolio assessment, a form of alternative assessment, are outlined below.

4.6 Alternative Assessment: Portfolios

According to McMillan, an alternative assessment "is any method that differs from conventional paper-and-pencil tests, most particularly objective tests" (1997, p. 199) and includes "authentic assessment, performance-based assessment, portfolios, exhibitions, demonstrations, journals, and other forms of assessment that required the active construction of meaning rather than the passive regurgitation of isolated facts" (p. 14). From this perspective, one could well argue that interpreter assessment is by definition alternative assessment, since it is performance-based and necessarily requires subjective judgment on the part of the evaluator. The objective of this particular discussion, however, is to show how one particular form of alternative assessment, portfolio assessment, can complement traditional one-shot interpreter testing.

A portfolio has been described as "a purposeful, systematic process of collecting and evaluating student products to document progress toward the attainment of learning targets" (McMillan, 1997, p. 231). It combines ipsative, formative, and summative forms of assessment

and represents both process and product. Not a simple folder or haphazard collection of student work, a portfolio's essential characteristics include the fact that it represents a purposeful process and a systematic and well-organized collection of materials. Pre-established guidelines are established so that the contents to be selected for inclusion are clear. Students play an active role in this selection process and reflect on their work. Clear scoring criteria are used to document student progress, which is reviewed during regular conferences between instructor and student (p. 231).

Seger (1992) draws attention to the multidisciplinary use of portfolios and their long tradition in particular in the world of finance and the arts. Since the 1980s, they have become an increasingly widespread form of assessment for writing programs, which makes their potential as an assessment instrument for translator education quite clear (Kiraly, 2000, p. 161). Many materials to be included in the portfolio are already produced in conventional translation and interpretation courses. They include, among others, assignments and comments on assignments, both taped and in written form. Glossaries, self-assessment statements, classroom journals, and logs complete the picture. A comprehensive list of potential materials that can be included as part of an interpretation class portfolio is given in Figure 16.

The advantage of a comprehensive portfolio is that it provides range and depth in assessment. The collection and organization of student work is a process of gathering evidence on performance quality. It documents learning processes and archives them for later reference, thus making more tangible the rationale for instructor feedback and grading. It directly addresses criticism often leveled at interpreter assessment: that one-shot testing is shallow and assessment criteria are unclear. Finally, portfolios are a useful tool that can improve reflective practice and self-assessment. Figure 17 provides examples of ways in which a portfolio can be used to support learning. Since portfolios are process-oriented they are suitable as a vehicle for the exploration of learning and the development of specializations.

Moreover, as the relationships between cognition and learning became clearer in the 1980s, i.e., that the human mind does not work like a computer and that we are social and adaptive, the importance of situating learning in a group context became clearer, as described in the humanistic approach to curriculum. Portfolio assessment facilitates learning by leveraging

- I. Personal Statement / Self-Evaluation
- II. Table of Contents
- III. Course Syllabus and Planner
- IV. Statement of Personal Goals for the Instructional Unit or Course
- V. Video- and Audiotapes of Student Work: Speeches from the Classroom and Practicum
- VI. Instructor Comments on Student Work
- VII. Glossaries
- VIII. Preparation and Research Materials for Specific Events and Topics, e.g. Dictionary Lists, Webliographies, Parallel Reading, etc.
- IX. Journal or Log, other Reflective Statements on Interpretation Work
- X. Samples of Notes with Analysis
- XI. Self-Assessment Statements
- XII. Peer Review Statements
- XIII. Action Research Paper

Fig. 16 Sample Materials for an Interpretation Class Portfolio

Ways in which a portfolio can be used to support learning (Porter & Cleland, 1995)

- reflection allows learners to examine their learning process
- reflection allows learners to take responsibility for their own learning
- reflection allows learners to see "gaps" in their learning
- reflection allows learners to determine strategies that supported their learning
- reflection allows learners to celebrate risk taking and inquiry
- reflection allows learners to set goals for future experiences
- reflection allows learners to see changes and development over time

Fig. 17 Portfolios and Reflective Practice

situated cognition and enhancing reflective practice through a focus on process (Calfee & Freedman, 1996; Yancy, 1996).

Despite these advantages, challenges to the implementation of widespread portfolio assessment are not to be underestimated. Portfolios guidelines require substantial time to develop; clear criteria and evaluation standards must be established if portfolios are to be meaningful as an assessment instrument beyond the individual classroom, i.e., on the curricular level (Herman, Gerhart, Aschbacher, 1996; see Black et al., 1994). For these reasons, an incremental approach to portfolio implementation is advised. A first step would be to complement traditional classroom testing with this comprehensive review process.

4.7 Conclusions

The discussion in this chapter shows how traditional and alternative assessment principles can be leveraged for interpreter education. Pertinent examples include the need to gather evidence of basic types of validity and reliability, distinguish between subjective and objective testing, foster greater awareness of the nature of professional judgment and its pitfalls, use appropriate measurement scales, and apply varying types of assessment that complement one another. Furthermore, a holistic view of assessment that integrates developmental stages in the curriculum makes the relationship between curriculum, assessment, and learning outcomes (expertise) explicit. Steps to improve assessment practices in interpreter education include the establishment of evidential bases of construct validity, in particular by referencing (sub-) domains, criteria, and standards, and the promotion of standardization in assessment procedures, most notably in examinations, by defining test method facets. The concern for authenticity and the incorporation of alternative forms of assessment are also explored. The application of these principles and steps is inevitably context specific, as stressed in the preface and introduction to this volume. The following case study takes these fundamental principles of assessment into account and initiates a process of validation of the curriculum model in place at the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation of the Monterey Institute of International Studies in Monterey, California.

5 Case Study Part I: Translation Instruction and Interpretation Competence

5.1 Introduction

The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI), one of four Professional Schools within the Monterey Institute of International Studies (MIIS), California, is one of the few member institutes of the *Conférence Internationale d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes* (CIUTI) that offers a combined degree in the applied language arts: a Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation (MATI). The GSTI offers two other degrees as well: a Master of Arts in Translation (MAT) and a Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation (MACI). The popularity of the combined MATI degree among students and the high placement rate of graduates, who usually study translation and interpretation in one language pair, has shown that the MATI provides job skills that are highly marketable in the language industry around the world.¹ To date, no research has been conducted to determine whether there is a systematic relationship between interpretation and translation skills among graduates of this program, a modified Y-track curriculum model (see Figure 18).

For these reasons, this case study explores the following two null hypotheses, which are tested using a chi-square procedure (H_0^1) and a lambda procedure (H_0^2):

H₀¹: There is no relationship between highly developed translation skills and proficiency in language interpreting as measured by scores on the final degree examinations in simultaneous and consecutive interpreting among first-time candidates in GSTI.

H₀²: The degree track of a student (MATI or MACI) is not an indicator of proficiency in language interpreting as measured by scores on the final degree examinations in simultaneous and consecutive interpreting among first-time candidates in GSTI.

While H_0^1 addresses whether there is a significant relationship between the dependent and independent variables, i.e., whether translation skills have an influence on proficiency in interpretation, H_0^2 addresses whether the independent variable is an indicator of the dependent

¹ Monterey Institute of International Studies, 1998, p. 7; Wood, 1998, pp. 12-15, 47.

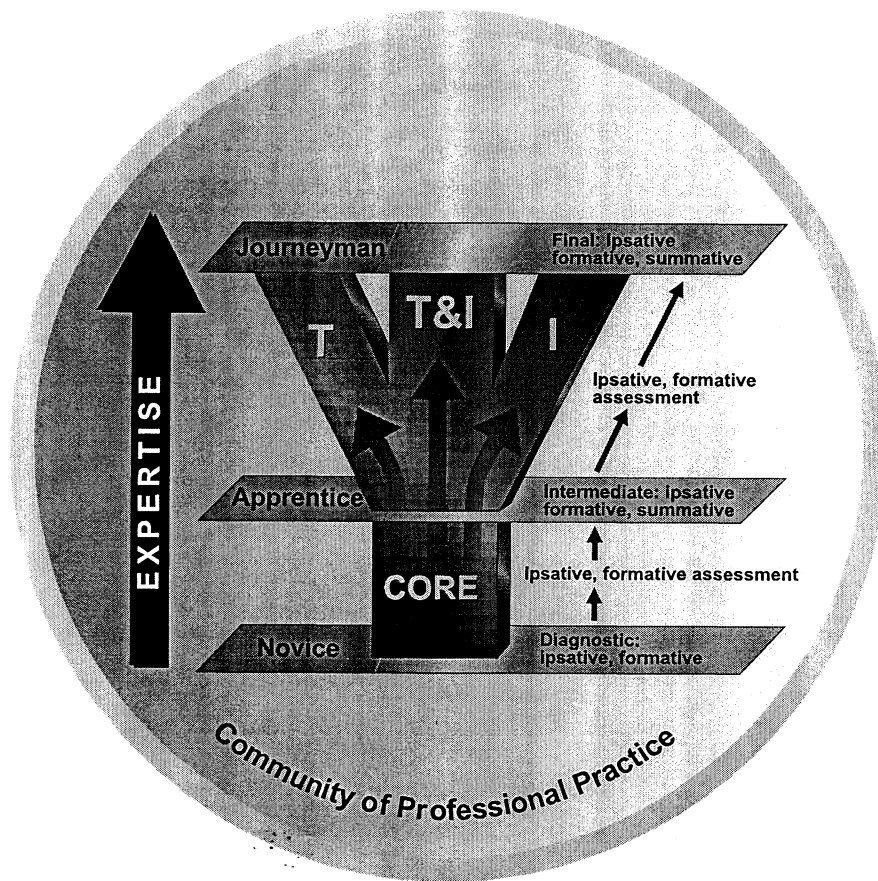


Fig. 18 GSTI's Modified Y-Track Curriculum Model

variable, i.e., whether membership in a degree track can serve as a predictor of how well students will perform in the interpretation exams.

In the context of this research question, the independent variable “highly developed translation skills” is defined as successful completion of the second-year translation curriculum as prescribed for the MATI degree in GSTI. Participation in the translation exams at the end of the second year indicates whether students have followed the second-year curriculum in translation, as students must have taken a set of core translation courses in order to participate in the exams. In the strictest sense, this variable may also be operationalized as “translation instruction,” i.e., “participation in the second-year translation curriculum.” The variable “proficiency in language interpreting” is measured by scores on the Professional Examinations in consecutive and simultaneous interpretation, a set of summative tests required for graduation.

5.2 Method

5.2.1 Quantitative Description of Curriculum in GSTI

The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI) offers three Master of Arts degrees in the modified Y-track model:

- Master of Arts in Translation (MAT)
- Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation (MATI)
- Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation (MACI)

The modification of the Y-track lies in the fact that a degree combining translation and interpretation is possible. The required period of study is normally two years, or four semesters. Students may also spend additional time abroad or apply for advanced-entry status, in which case students generally study for three years or one year, respectively. Students may pursue any of these degrees with either a two-language combination (A/A or

A/B) or a three-language combination (A/A/C, A/B/C, or A/C/C). The A/B and A/B consec/C combinations are the most frequent.²

5.2.1.1 First-Year Curriculum for MATI and MACI

The following is a quantitative description of the first-year GSTI curriculum for the MATI and MACI degree tracks (see also Appendix 10.1). The MAT degree track is excluded, since it is not the subject of this study. Between 1994 and 1999, several changes to the curriculum were introduced, which reflect the ongoing specialization of training for future translators and interpreters. These changes are discussed at relevant points in the following section.

During the first year of studies, students in all degree tracks follow a very similar curriculum, unless they opt to major in translation, thus excluding interpretation from their coursework. Notable differences between the two degree tracks, although minor in scope, are described below.

First Year Courses	Credits
Fall Semester	
MATI in two languages (MATI-2):	
Basic Translation Exercises: B – A	4
Basic Translation Exercises: A – B	4
Introduction to Consecutive Interpretation: A – B; B – A	4
Electives	4
MATI in three languages (MATI-3)	
Same as above except:	
No Electives	

² A, B, and C language categories are employed in the context of this study because this is the terminology in place at the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation. It may be argued, however, that the terms “mother tongue,” “first foreign language,” and “second foreign language” are more accurate in this and most, if not all, training contexts, for the simple reason that A, B, and C refer to working languages among professional interpreters, a status that students are working towards but have not yet attained.

Basic Translation Exercises: C – A	2
Introduction to Consecutive Interpretation: C – A	2
MACI: Same as MATI-2 and MATI-3	
Spring Semester	
MATI-2	
Translation of Economic Texts: A – B	4
Translation of Economic Texts: B – A	4
Translation Theory	2
Consecutive Interpretation of Extemporaneous Speech: A – B; B – A	4
Strategies of Simultaneous Interpretation: B – A	2
MATI-3	
Translation of Economic Texts: B – A	4
Translation of Economic Texts: C – A	4
Translation Theory	2
Consecutive Interpretation of Extemporaneous Speech: A – B; B – A	4
Consecutive Interpretation of Extemporaneous Speech: C – A	2
Strategies of Simultaneous Interpretation: B – A; C – A	4
MACI-2	
Translation of Economic Texts: A – B	4
Translation of Economic Texts: B – A	4
Consecutive Interpretation of Extemporaneous Speech: A – B; B – A	4
Strategies of Simultaneous Interpretation: A – B; B – A	4
Electives	
MACI-3	
Translation of Economic Texts: B – A; C – A	8
Consecutive Interpretation of Extemporaneous Speech: A – B; B – A; C – A	6
Strategies of Simultaneous Interpretation: B – A, C – A	4

The courses taken by students in the MATI and MACI degree tracks are the same with the exception of the Translation Theory requirement for MATI students during the second semester. In addition, students following the MACI degree in some languages (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Russian and sometimes Spanish) also take a simultaneous interpretation course working from their A language into their B language. During the period under review, a two-language MACI degree was not offered in the French and German programs.

In the courses Basic Translation Exercises and Translation of Economic Texts, thirty to fifty percent of class time is devoted to sight translation. Therefore, the amount of time spent on written as opposed to oral translation skills during the first year of study is roughly, albeit not strictly, equivalent.

Note-taking techniques are taught in the consecutive interpretation courses. In addition, a one-credit elective is offered across the language programs during the first semester of study. Many students do not have room for this course in their schedule, however. This elective lasts seven weeks and includes memory and active listening exercises in addition to a general introduction to note-taking skills. This course was first offered in 1997.

At the end of the first year, students are required to take Qualifying Examinations in their language combination and disciplines in order to continue their studies in the selected degree track in the second year. Although students may opt to follow the MACI curriculum during their second semester, failure to pass the Qualifying Examinations in interpretation would jeopardize the possibility to earn a degree within two more semesters of study. For this reason, students are generally advised to stay on the MATI degree track until completion of the Qualifying Examinations; it is only rarely the case that students do not follow the MATI curriculum in their second semester.

Therefore, for the majority of MATI and MACI students, substantial differences in curriculum generally do not emerge in practice until the second year of studies.

5.2.1.2 Second-Year Curriculum for MATI and MACI

MATI students have the following second-year curriculum, which varies according to the number of languages in their combination:

Second-Year Courses	Credits
Fall Semester	
MATI-2	
Translation Proseminar: A – B; B – A	4
Translation of Scientific and Technical Texts: A – B; B – A	4
Consecutive Interpretation of Economic and Commercial Speeches: A – B; B – A	4
Simultaneous Interpretation of General and Economic Speeches: B – A	2
Readings in Interpretation Research	2
[Legal Translation: Spanish and Korean only	2]
MATI-3	
Translation Proseminar: B – A; C – A	4
Translation of Scientific and Technical Texts: B – A; C – A	4
Consecutive Interpretation of Economic and Commercial Speeches: B – A; C – A	4
Simultaneous Interpretation of General and Economic Speeches: B – A; C – A	4
Readings in Interpretation Research	2
Spring Semester	
MATI-2	
Advanced Translation Seminar: A – B; B – A	4
Translation of Political and Legal Texts: A – B; B – A	4
Business of Translation	1
Consecutive Interpretation of Political Speeches: A – B; B – A	4
Simultaneous Interpretation of Political and Technical Speeches: B – A	2
[Court Interpretation: Spanish and Korean only	2]
MATI-3	
Advanced Translation Seminar: B – A; C – A	4
Translation of Political and Legal Texts: B – A; C – A	4
Consecutive Interpretation of Political Speeches: A – B; B – A; C – A	6
Simultaneous Interpretation of Political and Technical Speeches: B – A; C – A	4

Students pursuing a Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation have the following second-year curriculum, which varies according to the number of languages in their combination:

Fall Semester:

	Credits
MACI-2	
Consecutive Interpretation of Economic and Commercial Speeches: A – B; B – A	4
Simultaneous Interpretation of General and Economic Speeches: A – B; B – A	4
Interpretation Practicum	4 or 2
Readings in Interpretation Research	4

MACI – 3

Consecutive Interpretation of Economic and Commercial Speeches: A – B; B – A; C – A	6
Simultaneous Interpretation of General and Economic Speeches: B – A; C – A	4
Interpretation Practicum	4 or 2
Readings in Interpretation Research	4

Spring Semester:

MACI-2

Consecutive Interpretation of Political Speeches; A – B; B – A	4
Simultaneous Interpretation of Political and Technical Speeches: A – B; B – A	4
Interpretation Practicum	4 or 2
Interpretation as a Profession	2

MACI-3

Consecutive Interpretation of Political Speeches: A – B; B – A; C – A	6
Simultaneous Interpretation of Political and Technical Speeches: B – A; C – A	4
Interpretation Practicum	4
Interpretation as a Profession	2

5.2.1.3 Second-Year Translation Coursework for MATI

In terms of course load, second-year MATI-2 students complete 16 credits of translation courses in their language pair: 2 credits per course, 8 courses in total. One credit entails 50 minutes of classroom instruction per week. The course breakdown is as follows:

- 4 credits of scientific and technical translation,
- 4 credits of political and legal translation,
- 4 credits of proseminar in translation (miscellaneous specialized texts) and
- 4 credits of advanced seminar in translation (miscellaneous specialized texts).

In each category, 2 credits of translation are completed in each language direction: English into the foreign language; foreign language into English. On average, these two semesters cover a period of 30 weeks (15 weeks each). During this time period, students translate approx. 600 words per week per course (4 courses a week), totaling 2,400 words a week. In total, MATI-2 students translate roughly 72,000 words over the course of the year. Exact course content may vary according to instructor and language combination; for this reason, a conservative estimate that does not include sight translation is given. Individual students may also translate additional material either as interns or as freelance translators. These figures are shown in summary in Table 5.1. The corresponding figures for MATI-3 students are shown in Table 5.2.

In addition, a translation thesis was required of MATI students until Spring Semester 1996, when this requirement was dropped due to course overload. A translation thesis was typically a 20,000-word translation of a text of the student's choice, subject to approval by the thesis adviser. Group translations, requiring project management skills including terminological and editing coordination, were also possible. The total word count per student was lower in the case of group translations.

Sight translation is part of the regular translation curriculum in GSTI. Prior to 1998, sight translation was listed under a separate course heading; the credits for all first- and second-year translation courses were split evenly between sight and written translation, with the exception of the translation proseminar and advanced translation seminar, which were devoted

	B into A: 600 words per week for 15 weeks	A into B: 600 words per week for 15 weeks	Total Number of Words over 30 weeks (two semesters)
Proseminar (Miscellaneous Specialized Texts)	9,000	9,000	18,000
Advanced Proseminar (Miscellaneous Specialized Texts), 8 credits	9,000	9,000	18,000
Scientific and Technical Texts, 4 credits	9,000	9,000	18,000
Political and Legal Texts, 4 credits	9,000	9,000	18,000
Total	36,000	36,000	72,000

Table 5.1 Number of Words Translated by Second-Year MATI-2 Students

	B into A: 600 words per week for 15 weeks	C into A: 600 words per week for 15 weeks	Total Number of Words over 30 weeks (two semesters)
Proseminar (Miscellaneous Specialized Texts)	9,000	9,000	18,000
Advanced Proseminar (Miscellaneous Specialized Texts), 8 credits	9,000	9,000	18,000
Scientific and Technical Texts, 4 credits	9,000	9,000	18,000
Political and Legal Texts, 4 credits	9,000	9,000	18,000
Total	36,000	36,000	72,000

Table 5.2 Number of Words Translated by Second-Year MATI-3 Students

solely to written translation. Sight and written translation courses were combined in 1998 with the mandate that not less than one-third of total class time be devoted to sight translation.

Since course load for interpretation overlaps in the MATI and MACI degree tracks, it is described for both groups in the following section.

5.2.1.4 Second-Year Interpretation Coursework for MATI and MACI

MACI-3 students have the same coursework as MACI-2 students, with the exception that they interpret simultaneously from their C into their A language instead of from their A into their B language. Moreover, they interpret consecutively from their C into their A language in addition to their A-B-A combination.

In addition to the translation coursework described in Section 5.2.1.3, MATI students complete the same curriculum in interpretation as MACI students with the exception of the Interpretation Practicum. MACI take Readings on Interpretation Research for 4 credits; MATI for 2 credits. Interpretation as a Profession is an elective for MATI students.

In interpretation, MATI-2, MATI-3 and MACI-2 students all complete 4 credits of consecutive interpretation of commercial/technical speeches (2 credits in each direction) and 4 credits of consecutive interpretation of political speeches (2 credits in each direction). MACI-3 candidates take an additional 4 credits of consecutive interpretation from their C into their A language. MATI-2 and MATI-3 students have 2 credits of simultaneous interpretation of general and economic speeches and 2 credits of simultaneous interpretation of political and technical speeches. MACI-2 students complete these 4 credits of simultaneous interpretation from their A into their B language as well. MATI-3 and MACI-3 students enroll for the latter 4 credits of simultaneous interpretation from their C into their A language instead of from their A into their B language.

Furthermore, all students practice interpretation on their own or in small groups for several hours a week. Although the number of hours spent in practice sessions outside the classroom fluctuates considerably, a conservative estimate of the average total number of hours of

consecutive and simultaneous interpretation is 10 hours per week. These practice sessions may be held in the interpretation labs, in other classrooms on campus, or at home. Practice material includes speeches from class, additional materials provided by instructors and texts selected independently by the students.

In contrast to MATI students, over the course of two semesters, MACI students complete 4, 6, or 8 credits of practicum in consecutive and simultaneous interpretation. In this course, students interpret outside of the interpretation classroom in conference and community interpretation settings. Events include consecutive interpretation in bilateral negotiations simulation (selected languages on a rotational basis each semester), European Union simulation (French, German and Spanish on a regular basis; Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Russian on occasion) simultaneous and consecutive interpretation of guest speakers at the Monterey Institute of International Studies (all languages), community interpreting at social service agencies and community events in Monterey County (primarily Chinese, Korean, and Spanish).

As of Fall Semester 1998, students taking the practicum for 2 credits are required to log 64 hours of interpretation practice over the course of one semester; similarly, students enrolled in the practicum for 4 credits spend 128 hours on practicum events per semester. Therefore, over the course of two semesters, MACI students may enroll in the practicum for either 4, 6, or 8 credits, or 128, 192, or 256 hours, respectively. This time cannot be equated with time spent interpreting, however. Organizing speakers, staffing booths, gathering documentation—all tasks required of students serving as chief interpreters for practicum events—are also part of required course work; time spent on these tasks counts toward this course requirement.

Prior to 1998, total hours spent on the practicum was lower. Documentation in GSTI on the evolution of the practicum is incomplete. However, in-house documentation shows that an early form of the present practicum was in place in GSTI in the early eighties. The practicum was reinstated as part of the regular required curriculum for MACI degree students in Fall Semester 1996. Until fall 1996, students had the opportunity to interpret at events similar to the practicum in its present form, but such events were not as frequent; their impact on total interpretation practice cannot be quantified reliably. Since 1996, the practicum has evolved into its present form as outlined above (Harmer, 1999).

The corresponding number of hours for each degree track—MATI-2, MATI-3, MACI-2, and MACI-3 students—is shown per mode of interpretation and language direction for the second year (two semesters) in Tables 5.3 through 5.6.³

5.2.1.5 Advanced-Entry Course of Study

GSTI also offers an advanced-entry Master of Arts. This course of study is completed in two semesters and is roughly equivalent to the second year of study in the corresponding degree track. Advanced-entry students must meet all general admission requirements, pass the qualifying examinations in their degree track, and hold a degree from a recognized school of translation and interpretation or provide evidence of significant professional experience. Significant professional experience is demonstrated through substantial experience as a conference interpreter for the MACI degree track, or a translation portfolio for the MAT degree track. Candidates seeking admission to MATI with advanced-entry status must hold a corresponding degree or document substantial experience in both translation and interpretation.

5.2.1.6 GSTI Curriculum in Practice

Students adhere closely to the GSTI curriculum in their particular degree track. Fluctuations may occur when a student drops a second language during the first year of study. No consistent data is available on this variable. Some students may also extend their program over a three-year period by spending a year abroad after completion of their second semester. Once students have begun the second year of study, they follow the course sequence until the Professional Examinations. A small number of students may drop their C language in their third semester.

³ For additional information on curriculum, see curriculum documents in Appendix 10.1.

	B into A	A into B	C into A	Total
	Total for two semesters (hours per week x 30 weeks)			
Class hours of consecutive Interpretation	60	60	***	120
Class hours of simultaneous interpretation	60	***	***	60
Total number of hours of individual or group study for all combinations	***	***	***	300
Total	120	60	***	480

Table 5.3 Number of Interpretation Class Hours for MATI-2 Students

	B into A	A into B	C into A	Total
	Total for two semesters (hours per week x 30 weeks)			
Class hours of consecutive Interpretation	60	60	60	180
Class hours of simultaneous interpretation	60	***	60	60
Total number of hours of individual or group study for all combinations	***	***	***	300
Total	120	60	120	540

Table 5.4 Number of Interpretation Class Hours for MATI-3 Students

	B into A	A into B	C into A	Practicum	Total
	Total for two semesters (hours per week x 30 weeks)				
Class hours of consecutive Interpretation	30	30	***	***	60
Class hours of simultaneous interpretation	30	30	***	***	60
Total number of hours of individual or group study for all combinations	***	***	***	***	300
Practicum: either consecutive or simultaneous	***	***	***	128, 192 or 256	128, 192 or 256
Total	60	60	***	128, 192 or 256	548, 612, or 676

Table 5.5 Number of Interpretation Class Hours for MACI-2 Students

	B into A	A into B	C into A	Practicum	Total
	Total for two semesters (hours per week x 30 weeks)				
Class hours of consecutive Interpretation	30	30	30	***	90
Class hours of simultaneous interpretation	30	***	30	***	60
Total number of hours of individual or group study for all combinations	***	***	***	***	300
Practicum: either consecutive or simultaneous	***	***	***	128, 192 or 256	128, 192 or 256
Total	60	30	60	128, 192 or 256	578, 642 or 706

Table 5.6 Number of Interpretation Class Hours for MACI-3 Students

In addition, sight translation features heavily in the curriculum, although this fact may no longer be readily apparent to external observers reading the course titles. Approximately 50 percent of the total amount of instruction in the translation classroom is devoted to the sight translation of texts. The importance of sight translation is also stressed in the interpretation classroom. In the pedagogical philosophy of GSTI, 'translation' as a course designation encompasses both written and sight.

5.2.2 Subjects

The subjects of this study (N = 260) are students taking the Professional Examinations in GSTI for the first time during the period from 1994 to 1999. Professional Exams are held after the fourth semester of GSTI studies. Students must pass all sections of the Professional Exams in interpretation to be eligible for graduation. Subjects are in one of two degree tracks: the Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation (MATI) or Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation (MACI). Subjects study in one or more of seven language programs: Chinese, French, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian and/or Spanish. The Korean program was established in the fall of 1996. All subjects have English as either their A or B language. All subjects were regularly enrolled second-year students who followed the regular curriculum in GSTI for a minimum of two semesters prior to taking the Professional Examinations.

Language-specific strategies may play a role in interpretation. Therefore, exposure to strategies in C/A and A/B simultaneous language combinations may influence students' translation and interpretation ability in their B/A combination. Although a research design controlling for third languages would have been preferable, data were insufficient to eliminate this variable. However, the number of students with three languages is low (MATI-3 = 1; MACI-3 = 18). Therefore, the probability of a pattern influencing the statistical analysis is not strong.

The following tables contain the frequencies of students by degree track (two and three language combinations are collapsed in Table 5.7), and by A, B and C language (Table 5.8). In addition, a crosstabulation of students by language combination and degree track is given in order to document the number of students in each language combination and degree track category (Table 5.9).

Statistics

DEGREE

N	Valid	260
	Missing	0

DEGREE

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	MACI	66	25.4	25.4	25.4
	MATI	194	74.6	74.6	100.0
	Total	260	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.7 Frequencies of MATI and MACI Students Who Took GSTI's Professional Examinations in Interpretation Between 1994 and 1999

ALANG

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Chinese	79	30.4	30.4	30.4
	English	72	27.7	27.7	58.1
	French	7	2.7	2.7	60.8
	German	11	4.2	4.2	65.0
	Japanese	45	17.3	17.3	82.3
	Korean	15	5.8	5.8	88.1
	Russian	13	5.0	5.0	93.1
	Spanish	18	6.9	6.9	100.0
	Total	260	100.0	100.0	

BLANG

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Chinese	4	1.5	1.5	1.5
	English	188	72.3	72.3	73.8
	French	11	4.2	4.2	78.1
	German	11	4.2	4.2	82.3
	Japanese	12	4.6	4.6	86.9
	Korean	1	.4	.4	87.3
	Russian	9	3.5	3.5	90.8
	Spanish	24	9.2	9.2	100.0
	Total	260	100.0	100.0	

CLANG

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid		235	90.4	90.4	90.4
	French	13	5.0	5.0	95.4
	German	4	1.5	1.5	96.9
	Russian	3	1.2	1.2	98.1
	Spanish	5	1.9	1.9	100.0
	Total	260	100.0	100.0	

Table 5.8 Frequencies of Students Who Took GSTI's Professional Examinations in Interpretation Between 1994 and 1999 by A, B, and C Language

CLANG * DEGREE * BLANG * ALANG Crosstabulation

Count

ALANG	BLANG	CLANG	DEGREE		Total	
			MACI	MATI		
Chinese	English	CLANG	17	62	79	
		Total	17	62	79	
English	Chinese	CLANG	1	3	4	
		Total	1	3	4	
	French	CLANG	1	10	11	
		Total	1	10	11	
	German	CLANG		11	11	
		Total		11	11	
	Japanese	CLANG	German	2	9	11
				1		1
	Total	3	9	12		
	Korean	CLANG		1		1
			Total	1		1
	Russian	CLANG	French German		7	7
1					1	
				1	1	
Total				1	8	9
Spanish	CLANG	French Russian		17	17	
			5		5	
			2		2	
			Total	7	17	24
French	English	CLANG	German Spanish	1	1	2
				1	1	2
				1	2	3
				Total	3	4
German	English	CLANG	French Russian Spanish		6	6
				2		2
				1		1
				Total	5	6
Japanese	English	CLANG	6	39	45	
		Total	6	39	45	
Korean	English	CLANG	9	6	15	
		Total	9	6	15	
Russian	English	CLANG	3	9	12	
		Total	4	9	13	
Spanish	English	CLANG	5	9	14	
		Total	8	10	18	

Table 5.9 Frequencies of Students Who Took GSTI's Professional Examinations in Interpretation Between 1994 and 1999 by Degree Track and Language Combination

	B into A	A into B	C into A
MAT-2	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 600 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 600 words in three hours for C, K, J	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 500 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 500 words in three hours for C, K, J	***
MAT-3	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 600 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 600 words in three hours for C, K, J	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 500 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 500 words in three hours for C, K, J	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 500 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 500 words in three hours for C, K, J
MATI-2	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 600 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 600 words in three hours for C, K, J	2 exams one, general and one technical text; each 500 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 500 words in three hours for C, K, J	***
MATI-3	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 600 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 600 words in three hours for C, K, J	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 500 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 500 words in three hours for C, K, J	2 exams, one general and one technical text; each 500 words in two hours for F, G, S, R – or – each 500 words in three hours for C, K, J
MACI-2	***	***	***
MACI-3	***	***	***

Table 5.10 Overview of GSTI's Professional Examinations in Translation by Degree Track and A, B, C Language Combination

	B into A	A into B	A into C
MAT-2	***	***	***
MAT-3	***	***	***
MATI-2	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	***
MATI-3	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each
MACI-2	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each
MACI-3	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each	1 general and 1 technical speech, 5 minutes each

Table 5.11 Overview of GSTI's Professional Examinations in Consecutive Interpretation by Degree Track and A, B, C Language Combination

	B into A	A into B	C into A
MAT-2	***	***	***
MAT-3	***	***	***
MATI-2	1 general speech without and 1 technical speech with text, 10 minutes each	***	***
MATI-3	1 general speech without and 1 technical speech with text, 10 minutes each	***	1 general speech without and 1 technical speech with text, 10 minutes each
MACI-2	1 general speech without and 1 technical speech with text, 10 minutes each	1 general speech without and 1 technical speech with text, 10 minutes each	***
MACI-3	1 general speech without and 1 technical speech with text, 10 minutes each	***	1 general speech without and 1 technical speech with text, 10 minutes each

Table 5.12 Overview of GSTI's Professional Examinations in Simultaneous Interpretation by Degree Track and A, B, C Language Combination

5.2.3 Materials – Professional Examinations in GSTI

The Professional Examinations in the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation are a series of comprehensive, summative assessment instruments administered after the fourth semester of study. The examinations are required for graduation from GSTI. The examinations are administered in translation of written general and technical (specialized) texts and the consecutive and simultaneous interpretation of general and technical (specialized) speeches. The exams that are required depend on the degree track and number of languages in the degree combination. Table 5.10 provides an overview of the examination requirements for written translation in place since 1998 per language and degree track. Before 1998, sight translation examinations were also administered. They are, however, not the subject of this study and, therefore, not included below.

Table 5.10 summarizes the translation examinations. Tables 5.11 and 5.12 provide an overview of the examination requirements per language and degree track for consecutive and simultaneous interpretation, respectively.

5.2.3.1 Text Selection

For all exams out of the foreign language into English, exam texts are selected independently by faculty in individual language programs. These texts are not subject to review outside the language program. The same texts are used for students in the MATI and MACI degree tracks.

For examinations out of English into the foreign language, however, a central committee chooses all texts for use in all language programs. The rationale for this procedure is that it guarantees a higher degree of consistency and fairness in the exams across the language programs. This question is further explored in Part II and Part III of the case study. The exception to this central selection procedure is how the technical texts are chosen for examinations in simultaneous interpretation with text out of English into the foreign language; texts for these exams are selected by each language program in the same manner as the foreign language source texts. These texts are placed into the central text pool, however, so that programs can use the same text if they wish.

5.2.3.2 Text Delivery

All speeches are delivered extemporaneously either live by a native speaker and member of the interpretation faculty or on an authentic audio or video soundtrack recording from a conference. An exception is the Spanish program, which also videotapes faculty delivering speeches and use these tapes as source material for examination purposes. The survey of exam jury members in Section 6.2 documents the mode in individual language programs. See also Section 7.1.3 on discrepancies between written text and oral delivery.

5.2.3.3 Examinations in Consecutive Interpretation

The examination in consecutive interpretation consists of two parts: interpretation of a five-minute speech on a general topic and interpretation of a five-minute speech on a technical topic. Topics are not indicated in advance in either case, nor is time for advance preparation given. Students take notes. In some language programs, the five-minute speech is not delivered as one block of text. Rather, the speaker pauses intermittently to allow the candidate to interpret shorter passages. The exact length of individual segments has not been documented for each language program. This question is explored in the qualitative survey.

5.2.3.4 Examinations in Simultaneous Interpretation

The examination in simultaneous interpretation consists of two parts: interpretation of a ten-minute speech on a general topic and interpretation of a ten-minute speech on a technical topic. The topics of neither the general nor the technical speeches are disclosed in advance. No preparation time is given for the general exam. The text of the technical speech, however, is given to students at the beginning of the examination. Students are allowed fifteen minutes of preparation time, during which they may consult dictionaries, glossaries and other reference materials; students then enter the booth where they use the text for reference while they interpret the speech.

5.2.3.5 Jury Composition

Juries consist of a minimum of three instructors in the relevant language combination. If additional instructors are available, juries may consist of more than three members (French, German, and Spanish). Representatives of government agencies, e.g., Language Services at the U.S. Department of State (French and Spanish), and international organizations, e.g., interpreters from the United Nations in New York (Chinese), may serve as external jury members. External jury members do not have voting rights, unless their presence is required to meet the three-member minimum (Chinese). The presence of external jury members is documented in the qualitative survey.

5.2.3.6 Scoring Criteria

Prior to 1997, all interpretation examinations were scored on a numerical scale ranging from 0 to 100. From 1997 onward, all interpretation examinations have been scored on a pass-fail basis using an ordinal scale with four levels: high pass, pass, borderline fail, fail. To pass an examination, candidates must receive a corresponding score from the majority of jury members on each section. In the event of a tie, the jury reviews the recording of the interpretation and deliberates. If an impasse is reached, the chairperson casts the deciding vote. The chairperson is the head of the individual language program.

The criteria for each score category are laid out in the GSTI Faculty Handbook (see Appendix 10.2). However, informal discussions among faculty have shown that criteria and emphases diverge based upon individual exam philosophy. The jury member survey in Part II of the case study explores this issue.

5.2.3.7 Scoring Procedure

When scoring examinations in interpretation, jury members use the prescribed GSTI forms. Prior to 1997, Form A was used; Form B was introduced in 1997 (see Appendix 10.3). This change reflects the transition from a 100-point scale to an ordinal, pass-fail scale.

In the German, French, Korean, and Russian programs, assessment is carried out in situ in all exams. In the Chinese and Japanese Programs, and intermittently in the Spanish Program, where the number of interpretation exams administered per session may exceed 100 in each language combination, students are taped in groups in the simultaneous examinations. The Chinese and Japanese programs also tape the consecutive examinations in the booth. In this case, scoring is done post situ.

Jury conduct and the role of external examiners are explored in the jury member survey.

For a description of exam guidelines and procedure from the GSTI Faculty Handbook, see Appendix 10.4.

5.2.4 Procedures – Data Collection

Data collection consisted of the following 7 steps:

Step 1: All files from the years 1994 to 1998 in the GSTI office were reviewed. In addition to students' full names, data on the following variables were entered into a comprehensive SPSS database. Only data on first-time participants were included; retakes were excluded from the database. Data on some variables not required for the present study were captured to facilitate future research:

gender	nominal variable with two levels: male and female
examyyear	year in which the student took the professional examinations in any degree track (MAT, MATI, MACI) for the first time
	nominal variable with six levels: 1994 – 1998; data from 1999 were added at a later date.
degdate	year and exam session for which the student was awarded a degree. There are two exam sessions per year: May and August. The degree awarded to the

student may not correspond to the variable “examyear” nor to the variable “degree” since a student who failed the interpretation examinations had the option of leaving the Institute with an MAT degree between 1994 and 1997.

nominal variable with 11 levels: May 1994 – incomplete

startyea year in which the student began studying in GSTI. All students began in the fall semester.

nominal variable with 8 levels: 1991 – 1998

status length of study in the program

nominal variable with 3 levels:

regular: two successive years of course work in GSTI

three-year: one year spent abroad between the first and second years in GSTI

advanced-entry: one year of course work in GSTI prior to Professional Exams

alang student’s A language, as defined by GSTI in accordance with the profession: “native language, or another language strictly equivalent to a native language” (*Brochure 8*).

blang student’s B language, as defined by GSTI in accordance with the profession: “... first foreign language. Students are expected to have a near-perfect command of this language when entering GSTI” (8).

clang student’s C language, as defined by GSTI in accordance with the profession: “a passive foreign language from which a translator or interpreter will work into the A language” (8).

alang, blang and clang are nominal variables with eight levels:

Chinese, English, French, German, Korean, Japanese, Russian and Spanish. English must be either the student's A or B language.

degree degree track for which the student took the professional examinations. Generally the degree track for which the student followed the curriculum during the second year as well. This variable is not always equivalent to the degree awarded to the student.

nominal variable with 6 levels:

MACI-2:	Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation in two languages
MACI-3	Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation in three languages
MATI-2	Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation in two languages
MATI-3	Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation in three languages
MAT-2	Master of Arts in Translation in two languages
MAT-3	Master of Arts in Translation in three languages

For final analysis, the two- and three-language combinations are collapsed, resulting in 3 levels: MACI, MATI and MAT. This step was necessary in order to meet the assumptions for chi-square and lambda.

Exam scores by exam type, each of which is a separate variable:

wgenbtoa	translation of a written general text from B into A
wtecbtoa	translation of a written technical text from B into A
wgenatob	translation of a written general text from A into B
wtecatob	translation of a written technical text from A into B
wgenctoa	translation of written general text from C into A
wtecctoa	translation of a written technical text from C into A
sgenbtoa	sight translation of a general text from B into A
stecbtoa	sight translation of a technical text from B into A
sgenatob	sight translation of a general text from A into B
stecatob	sight translation of a technical text from A into B
sgenctoa	sight translation of a general text from C into A
stecctoa	sight translation of a technical text from C into A

congbitoa	consecutive interpretation of a general speech from B into A
contbitoa	consecutive interpretation of a technical speech from B into A
congatob	consecutive interpretation of a general speech from A into B
contatob	consecutive interpretation of a technical speech from A into B
congctoa	consecutive interpretation of a general speech from C into A
contctoa	consecutive interpretation of a technical speech from C into A
simgbtoa	simultaneous interpretation of a general speech from B into A
simtbitoa	simultaneous interpretation of a technical speech from B into A
simgatob	simultaneous interpretation of a general speech from A into B
simtatob	simultaneous interpretation of a technical speech from A into B
simgctoa	simultaneous interpretation of a general speech from C into A
simtctoa	simultaneous interpretation of a technical speech from C into A

The statistical analysis in this case study looks solely at the following six exam variables, which the MATI and MACI degree tracks have in common:

congbitoa	consecutive interpretation of a general speech from B into A
contbitoa	consecutive interpretation of a technical speech from B into A
congatob	consecutive interpretation of a general speech from A into B
contatob	consecutive interpretation of a technical speech from A into B
simgbtoa	simultaneous interpretation of a general speech from B into A
simtbitoa	simultaneous interpretation of a technical speech from B into A

All exam scores are ordinal variables with 4 levels:

high pass (hp)

pass (p)

borderline fail (bf)

fail (f)

For final analysis, these variables were collapsed to a nominal variable with 2 levels: pass (p) and fail (f).

This step was necessary in order to meet the quantitative assumptions for chi-square and lambda.

Step 2: A list of exceptional cases was compiled during the data entry process. Exceptional cases include those files that were incomplete, e.g., exam score data, program entry date, and those files indicating that a student had not followed the regular curriculum for a specific degree track and/or had taken the Professional Exams under unusual circumstances, e.g., not during the regular exam session for the class in question. Subjects may have also taken additional examinations, e.g., simultaneous interpretation into the B language for MATI students.

Exceptional cases include the following. They were all included in the analysis, with the exception of the three cases with incomplete files listed below (F), for which faculty could not provide missing data.

A. MATI students (14) who took simultaneous interpretation exams into their B language:

- MATI in Russian and German in May 1994 (advanced entry)
- MATI in English and German in May 1995
- MATI in English and Japanese in May 1996
- MATI in English and Japanese in May 1996
- MATI in English and Spanish in May 1996
- MATI in Russian and English in May 1997
- MATI in Russian and English in May 1998
- MATI in English and Chinese in May 1995
- MATI in English and Chinese in May 1996
- MATI in Chinese and English in May 1995
- MATI in Chinese and English in May 1996
- MATI in Russian and English in May 1997
- MATI in Chinese and English in May 1996
- MATI in Chinese and English in May 1996.

B. MACI students who took additional translation exams

- MACI in Russian, English and French in May 1994 (advanced entry) took translation exams into and out of A and B languages.

C. Additional translation exams and/or curriculum in a non-degree language combination

- MATI in French and English in May 1995; Spanish translation exams.

- MATI in English and Spanish in May 1995; Japanese translation exams
- MACI in French and English in May 1995; degree incomplete; Japanese translation curriculum but no exams.
- MATI in Russian and English in May 1997; Japanese translation curriculum but no exams

D. Irregular exam dates

- MATI in Chinese and English; exams in August 1994 instead of May 1994.
- MATI in Chinese and English in August 1994; advanced entry; no record of exams in May session. August scores entered in database.

E. Ambiguous language combinations

- MACI in English, Japanese and German in May 1995; on file as Japanese, English, German; took simultaneous and consecutive exams from German into English, not German into Japanese; entered in database with English A, Japanese B, German C
- MACI in French and English in May 1995, double A combination; entered in database as A/B combination.

F. Incomplete files—excluded from database

- MATI in Japanese and English; passed retakes in August of 1996, but rest of file missing; no scores entered; scores for August on file.
- MATI in Chinese and English in May 1996; interpretation exams into and out of A and B languages, no scores on file for translation professionals. MATI degree awarded in May 1994 according to Records department; 1992 program entry.
- MATI in Chinese and English in August 1998; no scores on file.

Step 3: In the case of all other incomplete files, faculty members from the respective programs supplied reliable data.

Step 4: The data were then compared against data provided by the Academic Records Office. The Records database contained the following information: name, gender, date of first enrollment, graduation date, degree awarded. Upon completion of the database, data were missing in 3 cases. They were excluded from the database and are listed under 2F above.

Step 5: All score data were converted from numerical to nominal data. Prior to 1997, all exams were scored on a numerical scale from 1 to 100. Beginning in 1997, an ordinal scale was used: high pass, pass, borderline fail and fail. (Translation examinations continued to be scored on

the 100-point scale.) The numerical scale was collapsed to “pass”/“fail.” The categories “high pass” and “pass” were collapsed to “pass”; the categories “borderline fail” and “fail” were collapsed to “fail” for the purposes of this study.

Step 6: For statistical analysis, a final database was compiled containing the following variables: name, along, blang, clang, degree, congboia, contboia, congotob, contatob, simgboia, and simtboia. Spreadsheets for this database are in Appendix 10.5.

Step 7: In order to increase the number of cases available for analysis, exam data from the May 1999 session was added to the database. This data was copied from GSTI’s computer files. This step was taken in order to meet the assumptions for separate statistical processing of the Asian and European students.

5.2.5 Analysis

A two-way chi-square analysis was run using SPSS to determine if there is a systematic relationship between degree track (a nominal variable with two levels: MATI and MACI) and exam scores in consecutive interpretation and simultaneous interpretation (a nominal variable with two levels: pass and fail). In cases where findings were significant, Phi was used to calculate the strength of association between the variables. All assumptions for chi-square were checked and met.

Lambda (proportional reduction in error) was run to determine if membership in a specific degree track, either MACI or MATI, is an indicator as to performance on the Professional Examinations in interpretation. All assumptions for lambda were checked and met.

The six examinations that the MATI and MACI degree tracks have in common were analyzed:

Consecutive Interpretation, General Speech, B into A (congboia)

Consecutive Interpretation, Technical Speech, B into A (contboia)

Consecutive Interpretation, General Speech, A into B (congotob)

Consecutive Interpretation, Technical Speech, A into B (contatob)

Simultaneous Interpretation, General Speech, B into A (simgbtoa)

Simultaneous Interpretation with Text, Technical Speech, B into A (simtbtoa)

Three analyses were run for chi-square and lambda each:

1. All students from 1994 to 1999.
2. All Asian language students (Chinese, Japanese, Korean) from 1994 to 1999.
3. All European language students (French, German, Russian, Spanish) from 1994 to 1999.

Student file data were checked to see whether data are sufficient to allow a further breakdown according to language combination. Data were insufficient. Data were also checked to determine if they would allow matching across language programs to control for translator and interpreter training outside of GSTI and language acquisition background. Data were insufficient.

The crosstabulations, chi-square, phi and lambda analyses for all groups are listed in Appendix 10.6.

5.3 Results

In the analyses, findings were as follows:

H₀1: There is no relationship between highly developed translation skills and proficiency in language interpreting as measured by scores on the final degree examinations in simultaneous and consecutive interpreting among first-time candidates in GSTI:

Significant for all students:

Consecutive General A into B (congatob) with .027 significance at .05 alpha. Phi .135.

Simultaneous General B into A (simgbtoa) with .03 significance at .05 alpha. Phi .135.

Therefore, in the consecutive general A into B examination and the simultaneous general B into A examination, there is a significant relationship between highly developed translation skills and proficiency in interpretation as measured by scores on GSTI's Professional Examinations. In the remaining four cases, there is no significant relationship. Thus, in two of the six examinations, MATI students perform differently in interpretation than MACI students. This constitutes a fairly systematic relationship or pattern between degree track and performance.

Significant for Asian-language students:

Consecutive General A into B (congatob) with .016 significance at .05 alpha. Phi .194.

Hence, in the consecutive general A into B examination, there is a significant relationship between highly developed translation skills and proficiency in interpretation for Asian-language students. In the five remaining examinations, there is no significant relationship. No significance was determined in the consecutive general A into B examination for European-language students.

Significant for European-language students:

Simultaneous General B into A (simgbtoa) with .035 significance at .05 alpha. Phi .207.

Finally, in the simultaneous general B into A examination, there is a significant relationship between highly developed translation skills and proficiency in interpretation for European-language students. In the five remaining examinations, there is no significant relationship. No significance was determined in the simultaneous general B into A examination for Asian-language students.

While significance was determined at the .05 level in two out of six analyses for all students together, only one analysis was significant for the Asian and European languages when considered separately. Nor was the same analysis significant: Consecutive General A into B was statistically significant for the Asian-language group and Simultaneous General B into A for the European-language group.

Interestingly, phi totaled .135 for both significant findings for all students considered together. When considered separately, Phi was considerably stronger, i.e., at .194 and .207 for the Asian group and the European group, respectively.

Therefore, the drop in the number of significant exams (one as opposed to two) is offset by the rise in the strength between the variables, or rise in *phi* (from 13 to 19 and 21 percent overlap, respectively).

H₀²: The degree track of a student (MATI or MACI) is not an indicator of proficiency in language interpreting as measured by scores on the final degree examinations in simultaneous and consecutive interpreting among first-time candidates in GSTI:

None of the lambda analyses were significant; degree track is not an indicator of proficiency in language interpreting as measured by scores on GSTI's Professional Examinations. Knowing the degree track (MATI or MACI) is of no assistance in predicting whether a student will pass or fail one of the Professional Examinations in interpretation under consideration in this study.

5.4 Discussion

Significance in two out of six examinations for all students and one in six examinations for Asian-language and European-language students each in the chi-square analysis is substantial and merits further attention in discussion and research. Although the chi-square analysis does not permit a directional interpretation of the significant findings, the number of students who pass and fail each exam is revealing. In each significant exam, the percentage of MATI students who fail is approximately double that of MACI students. These figures are shown in Tables 5.13 through 5.16.

DEGREE * CONGATOB Crosstabulation

			CONGATOB		Total
			f	p	
DEGREE	MACI	Count	10	56	66
		% within DEGREE	15.2%	84.8%	100.0%
	MATI	Count	56	138	194
		% within DEGREE	28.9%	71.1%	100.0%
Total		Count	66	194	260
		% within DEGREE	25.4%	74.6%	100.0%

Table 5.13 Number of Students Who Failed Consecutive General A into B

DEGREE * SIMGBTOA Crosstabulation

			SIMGBTOA		Total
			f	p	
DEGREE	MACI	Count	11	55	66
		% within DEGREE	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%
	MATI	Count	59	135	194
		% within DEGREE	30.4%	69.6%	100.0%
Total		Count	70	190	260
		% within DEGREE	26.9%	73.1%	100.0%

Table 5.14 Number of Students Who Failed Simultaneous General B into A

DEGREE * CONGATOB Crosstabulation

			CONGATOB		Total
			f	p	
DEGREE	MACI	Count	3	34	37
		Expected Count	8.4	28.6	37.0
	MATI	Count	32	86	118
		Expected Count	26.6	91.4	118.0
Total	Count		35	120	155
	Expected Count		35.0	120.0	155.0

Table 5.15 Number of Asian-Language Students Who Failed Consecutive General A into B

DEGREE * SIMGBTOA Crosstabulation

			SIMGBTOA		Total
			f	p	
DEGREE	MACI	Count	4	25	29
		% within DEGREE	13.8%	86.2%	100.0%
	MATI	Count	26	49	75
		% within DEGREE	34.7%	65.3%	100.0%
Total	Count		30	74	104
	% within DEGREE		28.8%	71.2%	100.0%

Table 5.16 Number of European-Language Students Who Failed Simultaneous General B into A

This evidence suggests that when building expertise in interpretation, all students do not benefit in the same manner from the translation curriculum. In GSTI's curriculum model, completion of the second-year translation courses appears to detract from the ability to interpret in some modes and language directions. With regard to conclusions for the GSTI curriculum model, these findings can be interpreted as evidence that the MATI curriculum is less suited for developing higher level interpretation skills in some modes and language directions. This may be the case either due to a lack of time to practice interpretation in the MATI degree track or due to the greater intensity and range of interpretation practice in the MACI degree track. This interpretation of the findings is underscored by the fact that a higher percentage of students in the MATI degree track fail the significant exams than in the MACI degree track. Careful definition of curriculum goals and objectives, course load, and course sequencing is strongly suggested. In this light, an individualized approach to instruction and feedback (cognitive apprenticeship, career coaching) seems advisable.

Therefore, the results of this study are evidence that students should follow the MACI degree track, not MATI, if conference interpretation is their primary career goal. In addition, the MATI curriculum does not include interpretation skills in what most practitioners consider a viable language combination for conference interpreters: simultaneous interpretation out of the foreign language into the mother tongue alone is sufficient for the purpose of earning a living through language interpreting only in rare language combinations and under unusual circumstances. In summary, the MATI degree track does not provide the same level of preparation for conference interpreting that is provided by the MACI degree track. As a result, the MATI degree should not be considered a qualification equivalent to the MACI degree.

It should be noted that the lack of significance in four out of six exams (all students) and five out of six exams (Asian language and European language students as separate groups) might be due to the similarity in curriculum for these two degree tracks. The extensive one-year period in which all students follow the same coursework may have a leveling effect. Further research based on curriculum models that introduce a separation of degree tracks at an earlier point in time, e.g., after one semester of study, could lead to more conclusive results.

Due to the popularity of the MATI degree, it cannot be assumed that the MACI students entered the GSTI program with stronger language skills or greater aptitude for language

interpreting than the MATI students. As cited in GSTI's curriculum documents, many students choose the MATI degree due to the flexibility of skills acquired for the language industry. A large number of students select this degree track, even though they exhibit high levels of aptitude for conference interpretation.

The results of this study cannot be generalized to all other training contexts. Only if the official and hidden curriculum at other schools of translation and interpretation correspond very closely to the GSTI model can one extrapolate from these findings. In such cases, one could hypothesize that a combined degree does not ensure the same level of competence in language interpreting as a degree specializing in conference interpretation. Given the wide variety of curriculum models and the role of the hidden curriculum, however, it seems unlikely that these results can be generalized at all. These results do provide food for thought in the discussion of reforms in existing programs and the design of curriculum in future programs, however, in particular by drawing attention to the fact that careful attention should be paid to course content and sequencing in translation and interpretation instruction.

Fluctuation in examination formats, procedures and assessment methods based on divergence in exam rationale due to received notions in specific language combinations and market requirements pose a threat to the internal validity of this study. The following survey of jury members in Part II of the case study has the objective of determining, among other things, how substantial this threat may be. Another threat to the validity of this study is the nature of the exam materials. If there is wide fluctuation in the speeches used in the examinations, the validity of the statistical analysis could be undermined. Part III of the case study, a text analysis, examines this issue.

Other confounding variables may include the influence of language-specific strategies from C/A language combinations on B/A combinations. Although little is known to date about the exact nature of these strategies, it should be noted that the number of three-language examinees was relatively small (MACI-3 = 18 and MATI-3 = 1), indicating that the emergence of a pattern is unlikely. The number of two-language degree students who began their studies with a third language and then dropped this language either in their first or second year cannot be determined. Data on file in the GSTI office are insufficient in this area. Although the central computer database in the Records Department of the Institute does allow the generation of

course lists per student, this procedure is too cumbersome to be completed for the five-year period within the scope of this study. The need for further research, perhaps starting with a smaller time frame, is indicated.

The possibilities for future research in this area are vast, particularly for studies employing exam score data, including the implementation of studies centering on proficiency in translation as the dependent variable. Studies based on score correlation may also be conducted to determine if exams may be considered redundant (e.g., written and sight translation; simultaneous with and without text; interpretation of general and technical texts). In addition, the use of a statistical procedure allowing a directional interpretation would be welcome. Ideally, such studies would explicate valid and reliable ordinal scale data, in which case they would also require a higher number of cases, since the breakdown of the dependent variable must include more than two levels (pass, fail). A separate analysis by language combination is also desirable.

Finally, this study does not look at cognitive processing; only the broad outcomes of curriculum and instruction are analyzed. Further study is no doubt necessary to collect data on (meta-)cognitive strategies and similarities and differences in (meta-)cognitive processing among translators and interpreters. Research methodologies using structured interview formats and discourse analysis could provide intriguing data in these areas.

6 Case Study Part II: Survey of Exam Jury Members

6.1 Introduction

In the discussion of the findings in Part I of the case study, attention is drawn to the possibility that fluctuation in exam procedures could undermine the validity and reliability of exam scores and thus jeopardize the validity of the statistical analysis. The objective of this anonymous survey is to collect qualitative data on the exam procedures in place between May 1994 and May 1999, the period under review in the statistical analysis. In this manner, the results of the statistical analysis can be discussed in a qualitative context. As described in the introduction to this study and in the discussion of curriculum guidelines, a key factor in a program is the degree to which curriculum and assessment are in line with one another. To make this determination, evidence is required on the degree to which the Professional Exams measure what they purport to measure, i.e., that they are valid, and that the social consequences of this test use (awarding of degree and entry into the profession) are appropriate.

Interestingly, data from previous research on student and faculty perceptions of the Qualifying Exams, which students must pass at the end of the first year to enter GSTI's second-year curriculum, indicate three main factors contributing to student anxiety: uncertainties about grading criteria, a lack of stress management skills, and uneasiness about the testing conditions (Houba 29). It stands to reason that these factors play a role in the Professional Examinations in interpretation as well. In this case, documentation of exam procedures also serves the purpose of identifying areas where improvement in administration should be considered.

Highly structured personal interviews would also have been an appropriate vehicle for gathering this data. Indeed, it is likely that one-on-one interviews would have elicited more precise responses from individual participants than a questionnaire. Nevertheless, a survey instrument was chosen for several reasons. This empirical research on examinations in interpretation is exploratory; therefore, a broad information base is required. Not all jury members from the period under review (1994 - 1999) are at the Monterey Institute, much less in California or even the United States. Greater access to the pool of jury members was therefore guaranteed through a survey instrument that could be mailed.

Bachman's test method facets serve as a framework for this study. The following facets in particular serve as theoretical principles in the survey: personnel, test rubric (organization, instructions, criteria for correctness), and input and expected response (format, nature of language), and the relationship between input and response (reciprocal, nonreciprocal, adaptive). Those areas that are particularly salient for the validity of the exams, i.e., that impact exam administration most, are the areas for which data are gathered. Bachman's terminology, with which most jury members are probably unfamiliar, is not used in the instrument, however. See Section 6.2.2.

6.2 Method

6.2.1 Subjects

The survey was originally designed to cover the period from 1994 to 1998. In light of the extension of the quantitative study to include the May 1999 exam session, the survey was broadened to include new 1999 jury members. The survey was conducted between April and August 1999. The total number of jury members is thirty-seven. Sixteen participants were instructors at GSTI when the survey was conducted (1999). Information on the respondents' backgrounds was gained through the survey itself. Eight participants served on juries in two language programs, bringing the total number of subjects to forty-five ($n = 45$).

6.2.2 Materials – Survey Content

A survey instrument was developed to collect qualitative data on the Professional Exams from the period 1994 to 1999. The survey indirectly measures the validity and reliability of the Professional Exams by gathering data on the

- background of jury members (personnel),
- exam procedures (test organization, instructions),
- purpose of the exams for MATI and MACI (external to test method facets),

- assessment criteria for MATI and MACI (expected response),
- criteria for scoring (explicitness of criteria; expected response),
- jury conduct (instructions), and the
- role of external examiners (instructions).

The survey form is reproduced in Appendix 10.7.

6.2.2.1 Background of Jury Members

Since little information is available on the jury members' training and experience in test theory, development and administration, the survey begins with the collection of key data on this area. Data are collected on work experience and teaching experience as interpreters, the number of years of service on GSTI exam juries, and service on juries other than those of GSTI. Jury members' background in testing is also likely to vary widely. The objective of this section of the survey is to determine whether there are specific patterns in the backgrounds of faculty that may have an impact on the way in which exams are administered and assessed.

6.2.2.2 Exam Procedures

Specifically, the survey aims to describe exam procedures in each language program in order to determine how widely procedures fluctuate. The investigated exam procedures include the following:

- the delivery mode of the speech. Speeches may be presented live by a member of the jury or on audio- or videocassette.
- the procedure for scoring the students. In some, but not all, language programs, students are taped in groups in the booths, and the recordings are assessed after all taping has been completed. This practice varies among language programs; some

programs tape both the consecutive and simultaneous examinations, other programs tape only the exams in simultaneous.

- the briefing of the student on the exam speech before the beginning of the exam. The type and amount of information provided to individual students in the briefing may vary across and within language programs.
- the segmentation of the speech in consecutive interpretation. Once again, the practice of breaking down the five-minute speech in the consecutive interpretation exams varies among language programs.
- and inclusion of a warm-up phase in simultaneous interpretation. Data are necessary on whether a warm-up phase is offered to the student and the length of the warm-up phase. In addition, in some programs, the material used for the warm-up phase may be the first part of the exam speech itself, in which case assessment begins after this section has been interpreted.

6.2.2.3 Purpose of the Exams

This section of the questionnaire has the objective of determining whether faculty have implicit notions about the purpose of the exams that may have impacted assessment. Opinions may fluctuate considerably within and between programs. In particular, there may be discrepancies in the purpose of the exams for students in separate degree tracks.

6.2.2.4 Assessment Criteria

Assessment criteria are closely linked to the purpose of the exam. The question as to whether jury members have highly developed norms for assessment is pursued, as well as the degree of fluctuation for these norms. In addition, if a considerable difference in the purpose of the

exams for MATI and MACI candidates is documented, the assessment criteria should vary accordingly.

Assessment criteria also include scoring. Between 1994 and 1999, two scales were in place. From 1994 through 1996, a 100-point scale with the following breakdown was used:

90 – 100	high pass
80 – 89	pass
75 – 79	borderline pass
70 – 74	borderline fail
0 – 70	fail

Due to perceived inconsistencies in scoring, an ordinal scale was introduced in 1997. This scale, based on rank categories, has the following breakdown, as stipulated in the Faculty Handbook, Guidelines for Exam Jurors (p. 26):

- High Pass:** Candidate's interpretation is extremely accurate and shows superior command of syntax, grammar, and lexicon, and the presentation is outstanding. Should be awarded only occasionally to exceptionally qualified candidates.
- Pass:** Candidate's interpretation is accurate, with acceptable, albeit improvable, syntax, grammar, and word choice and presentation. Should be considered the norm for passing candidates.
- Borderline Fail:** Candidate's interpretation is unacceptable but not flagrantly inaccurate, owing either to misunderstanding of the original text or to serious flaws in syntax, grammar, and word choice, or to both; in the case of interpretation, the candidate's presentation may also have been unacceptable. The implication is that these shortcomings may be correctable with further study. Should be awarded to candidates who stand a good chance of passing a retake in August. Anyone receiving a borderline fail should be given specific details about what types of errors were made and what kind of preparation is needed for the retake.
- Fail:** Candidate's interpretation is flagrantly inaccurate owing to inadequate command of the source and/or target language, insufficient analytical ability, poor presentation or a combination of all. This score means that the candidate is far from meeting the standards of the profession and is not likely to attain that level without extensive work. Any student

who receives a failing grade in two or more qualifying examinations should be strongly advised not to attempt a retake in August, and should be urged either to take an additional year to work on language deficiencies or to consider another career.

Despite criteria delineated for each scale, anecdotal evidence suggests that faculty may be guided to a high degree by an internalized scoring philosophy when assessing students' performances. Therefore, scoring procedures may vary within juries and between juries depending on the following factors, among others:

- jury expectations according to the language direction, i.e., whether students are interpreting into their A or B languages.
- jury expectations for MATI as opposed to MACI students.
- criteria applied to individual score categories.

In addition, no systematic data are available on faculty opinions concerning the rationale behind the administration of separate exams for general and technical speeches. Faculty opinion on the administration of exams in simultaneous with and without text also requires clarification. In both cases, some faculty hypothesize the use of differing interpretation skills and abilities in working with varying text types (general and technical) and modes (with and without texts), and therefore believe that these skills should be subject to final testing. Other faculty state informally that, although differing skills and abilities may be in play and should be reflected in curriculum and training, comprehensive final testing is not necessary. The questions in the survey with regard to this matter have the objective of collecting data on the professional judgment of faculty only, not on the existence and use of these hypothesized cognitive skills, the latter requiring a methodology based in empirical testing rather than social science survey research. Data collected in this area is intended mainly to inform faculty deliberations on exam procedures until more conclusive evidence is available (see Introduction).

6.2.2.5 Jury Conduct and Role of External Examiners

In some language programs, jury members may arrive at final scores independently of other jury members through a blind rating. In other language combinations, jury members may conduct an open discussion of the examinee's interpretation before entering individual scores on their respective score sheets or change their blind rating after such discussions. Exact information on jury conduct in this regard is therefore requested in the survey questionnaire. Furthermore, the survey documents the role of external examiners in each program, e.g., their presence and potential influence on jury deliberations.

6.2.2.6 Additional Comments

Survey participants are also given the opportunity to comment on the survey itself and provide suggestions for improving procedures for the Professional Exams, if they desire.

6.2.3 Procedures

6.2.3.1 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was carefully designed using a combination of open and closed questions, an approach that takes the current status of knowledge about testing procedures within GSTI into account. Closed questions are used to provide structured feedback on exam procedures. Closed questions also provide a framework for information on the purpose, assessment criteria and score categories for the interpretation exams. Survey participants are then given the opportunity to respond to open questions in areas where exam rationale may be influenced by personal exam philosophy or in areas where little information is available, e.g., differences in the MATI and MACI degree tracks as reflected in exam purpose and assessment criteria, as well as criteria used for score categories. The structure of the questionnaire and selection of individual items was guided by insider knowledge of GSTI's examination procedures—emphasis was placed on those areas where considerable impact on the chi-square analysis

was to be expected. Each item was carefully constructed so as to avoid bias through leading questions.

The survey was reviewed with the Dean of GSTI and an expert in language testing. The questionnaire was piloted with 5 individuals at the Monterey Institute: the Dean of GSTI, a linguistics professor with a specialization in test theory and three instructors who teach English language courses to GSTI students. The instructors all have in-depth exposure to the practice of translation and interpretation through course observation, dialogue with faculty, briefings and extensive reading. All pilots have background knowledge of questionnaire design methodology acquired through graduate level training and research.

6.2.3.2 Questionnaire Administration

The survey was administered to jury members as a group during two faculty meetings. In order to reduce non-response, jury members who were absent or no longer employed by GSTI received the questionnaire via regular mail. During group administration and administration via mail, however, participants were given the opportunity to request clarification of questions, either in person, via telephone, or e-mail. Additional information was provided in a neutral, unbiased manner.

6.2.3.3 Return Rate

Thirty-seven interpreters served as jury members in GSTI between the period 1994 and 1999. Eight individuals served on juries in two language programs, bringing the total number of subjects to forty-five ($n = 45$). Twenty-eight questionnaires were returned, a response rate of 62.22%. All language programs were represented. The major reason for non-response was discontinuation of jury activities at MIIS. Current mailing addresses may not have been forwarded to the GSTI office. For GSTI instructors who served on juries in 1999, the number of jury members was sixteen, three of whom served on juries in two language programs ($n = 19$). Fifteen completed the questionnaire, resulting in a return rate of 78.94% for active faculty.

6.2.4 Analysis

6.2.4.1 Data Preparation

The questionnaire data were entered into an electronic file and coded for reporting purposes. Due to the limited scope of the survey in terms of number of participants, responses to open questions were not coded as numerical data. This approach also reflects the qualitative nature of this study and its objectives; statistical processing is not intended. All responses to open questions and unsolicited comments written in margins are reported in full.

6.2.4.2 Data Analysis

Responses to questions are not always consistent within language juries. All responses are reported in full. For open questions, the responses of individual jury members within one language combination are separated by a semicolon or are listed under separate bullets.

6.2.4.2.1 Data on Background of Jury Members

A. In response to the question on the number of years jury members have worked as interpreters, participants gave the following information:

1 – 5 years: 1
6 – 10 years: 4
11 – 15 years: 2
16 – 20 years: 5
21 – 25 years: 7
26 – 30 years: 5
more than 30 years: 2
non-responses: 1

Therefore, the majority of jury members had between 16 and 30 years of experience as conference interpreters (17 respondents), with the category 21 – 25 years being most frequent (7 respondents).

See Table 6.1

B. The number of years jury members have taught interpretation also varies widely:

1 – 5 years: 7

6 – 10 years: 5

11 – 15 years: 4

16 – 20 years: 7

21 – 25 years: 3

26 – 30 years: 1

more than 30 years: 0

In this case, the majority of jury members had between 1 and 10 years of experience teaching interpretation (12 respondents), while the most frequent categories were 1 – 5 years and 16 – 20 years (7 respondents each).

See Table 6.2

C. Participation in the survey by language jury is as follows:

Chinese: 2 respondents

French: 7 respondents

German: 5 respondents

Korean: 1 respondent

Japanese: 3 respondents

Russian: 2 respondents

Spanish: 8 respondents

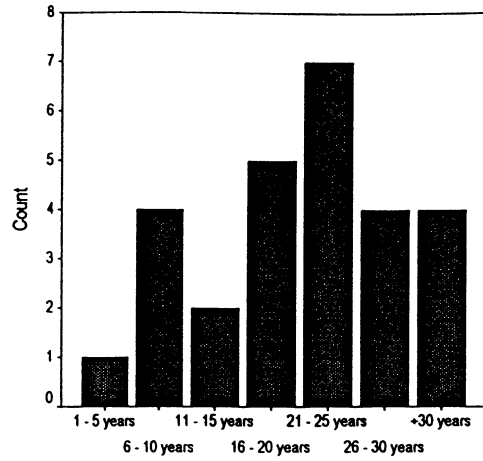


Table 6.1 Jury Members' Interpretation Experience

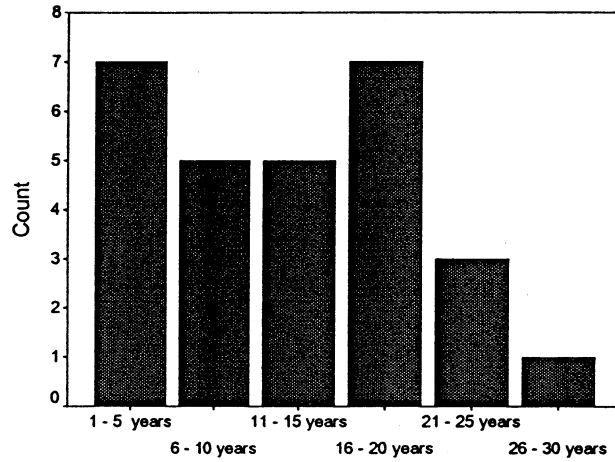


Table 6.2 Jury Members' Teaching Experience

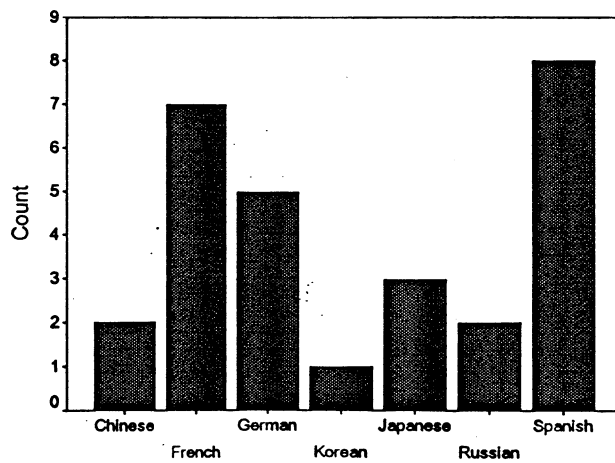


Table 6.3 Survey Participation by Language Jury

All juries were represented.

See Table 6.3

D. Individual jury members served on MIIS exam juries during the following years:

1982 through 1995: 1 respondent
1986 through 1999: 3 respondents
1987 through 1999: 4 respondents
1992 through 1999: 1 respondent
1993 through 1999: 1 respondent
1994 through 1999: 4 respondents
May 1994 only: 1 respondent
1995 through 1999: 1 respondent
1995 and 1996: 1 respondent
1996 through 1999: 2 respondents
May 1996 only: 1 respondent
1997 through 1998: 1 respondent
1998 through 1999: 1 respondent
1996 and 1998 through 1999: 1 respondent

One respondent replied “all years”; three others replied “every year in this period”; one of the latter was also unsure. In summary, the majority of respondents served as jury members for a period of at least 5 years (12 respondents); 7 respondents had been jury members for over 10 years. Thirteen jury members served for the entire period under review.

E. Eighteen respondents have served on juries outside of MIIS. Nine have not. One individual who replied “yes” had observer status on external juries; another who replied “yes” had voting rights on some juries and observer status on others.

F. Jury membership outside MIIS included the following institutions:

Beijing School of Translation and Interpretation, China
Georgetown University, Washington, DC, United States
Hankun University of Foreign Studies, Seoul, Korea
Joint Conference Interpretation Service of the European Union, Commission of the
European Union, Brussels, Belgium
Katholieke Vlaamse Hogeschool, Antwerp, Belgium
Moscow Institute of Foreign Languages, Russia
University of Hawaii, Center for T&I Studies, Honolulu, United States
University of Geneva, School of Translation and Interpretation, Switzerland
University of Leipzig, Institute of Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies, Germany
School of Translation and Interpretation, Zurich, Switzerland
University of Mainz, School of Applied Linguistics and Cultural Studies in
Germersheim, Germany
University of Bath, School of Modern Languages and International Studies, UK
Minho University, Conference Interpreter Training Program, Braga, Portugal

Respondents also served on juries at “institutional / employer exams”; “court certification with the state of California” ; “in Tokyo, at vocational schools, non-degree awarding”; and as “assessor, though not full jury member, at several other European universities.”

There was one non-response.

G. In years, total service on juries outside of MIIS is as follows:

2 respondents: 1 year
2 respondents: 20 years
1 respondent: “10 – 15 years approximately”
1 respondent for each of the following: 2, 5, 7, 10, 15 and 16 years.

There was one non-response.

See Table 6.4

- H. When asked whether they have received “any training in testing, for example by taking courses, participating in workshops or reading relevant literature,” 15 replied that they have. Twelve indicated that they have received no training in testing.

See Table 6.5

- I. Respondents summarized their training as follows. Each respondent is listed under a separated bullet:

French:

- “Reading”
- “when teaching English as foreign language had to diagnose English levels; was trained for that; Also been tested in several schools and institutions in consecutive and simultaneous in Europe and North America, government language tests”
- “in-house training at State Department”
- “from more experienced colleagues, Geneva course in training of trainers, some reading”

German:

- “from more experienced colleagues, Geneva course in training of trainers, some reading”
- “training as part of a certificate program in adult education”
- “courses, relevant literature”

Russian:

- “San Jose State [University] coursework in teaching / testing as applied to economics”

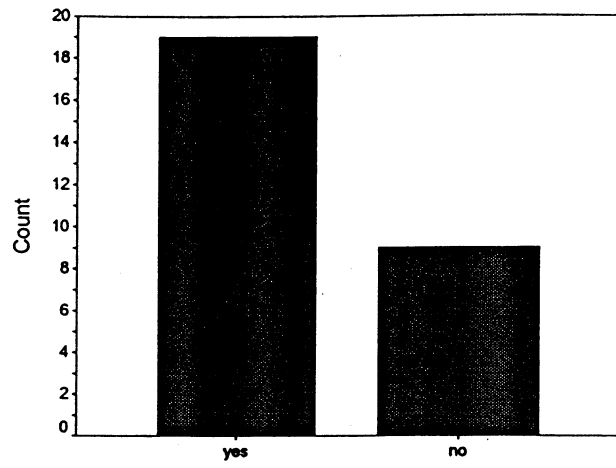


Table 6.4 Service on Juries Outside MIIS

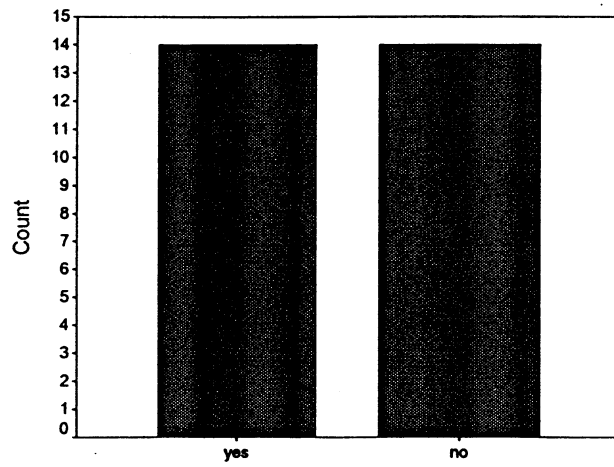


Table 6.5 Jury Members' Testing Background

Spanish:

- “panels inside T&I”
- “I’ve read a rater training manual and several articles on testing”
- “reading”
- “in ESL”
- “in-house training at State Department”

Chinese:

- “reading relevant literature”

Japanese:

- “I have participated in seminars held in Tokyo which were sponsored by several training institutions. All held in Tokyo.”

6.2.4.2.2 Data on Exam Procedures

Responses to these categories varied within language juries, which may be attributed to the differences in years of experience respondents have in serving on MIIS juries. For example, procedures may have fluctuated over time, of which not all current jury members may be aware. Nor was it possible to rely upon the response of just one representative from each language jury, for example the Program Head, since length of service fluctuates widely in this area as well. Therefore, the range of responses is given by language jury as well as in total.

- 1) In answering the question “Did you or another jury member deliver the examination speeches live or did you use audio- and/or videotapes?”,

28 replied “live” and 3 replied “audiotapes” for consecutive; and

28 replied “live” and 7 replied “audiotapes” for simultaneous.

No one answered “videotapes.”

Responses by language jury:

Korean, Russian, German: “live” only for consecutive and simultaneous;
Chinese, French, Japanese and Spanish: “live” and “audiotapes” for consecutive and simultaneous (split responses);

When asked “How often did you use audiotapes?”,

19 responded “never” for both consecutive and simultaneous;
3 responded “sometimes” for both consecutive and simultaneous; and
3 responded “hardly ever” for both consecutive and simultaneous interpretation.
1 responded “hardly ever” for consecutive and “almost always” for simultaneous;
1 responded “hardly ever or never” for consecutive and “almost always” for simultaneous.

One Japanese jury member responded “almost always” for both consecutive and simultaneous; he/she may have been referring to taping students' performances for assessment purposes.

By language jury, Spanish and Japanese most frequently replied “sometimes”; “Chinese “hardly ever.” Responses were inconsistent with replies to the previous question. One member of the German jury wrote “— we used an audiotape for a [Qualifying] exam once back in 1987 and it was a disaster—never again!” Another member of the German and French juries who responded “hardly ever” added that they had used tapes only once.

Almost all responses to the question “How often did you use videotapes?” were “never,” only one respondent indicated “hardly ever” or “never” and one “hardly ever” for both consecutive and simultaneous.

See Tables 6.6 and 6.11.

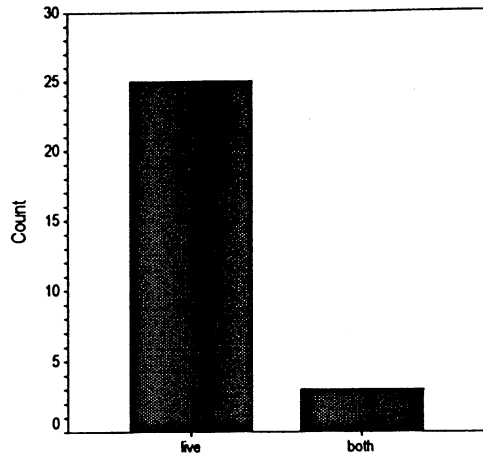


Table 6.6 Live Speeches and/or Audio- / Videotapes in Consec

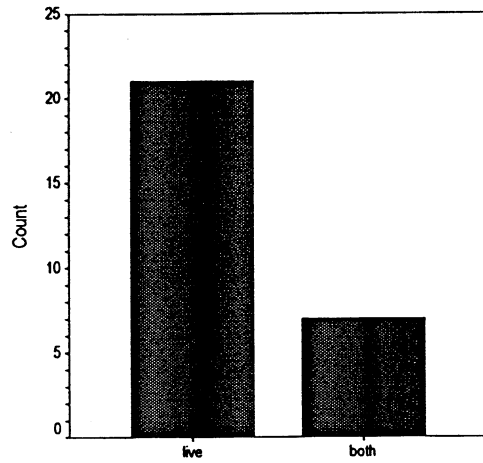


Table 6.7 Live Speeches and/or Audio- / Videotapes in Simul

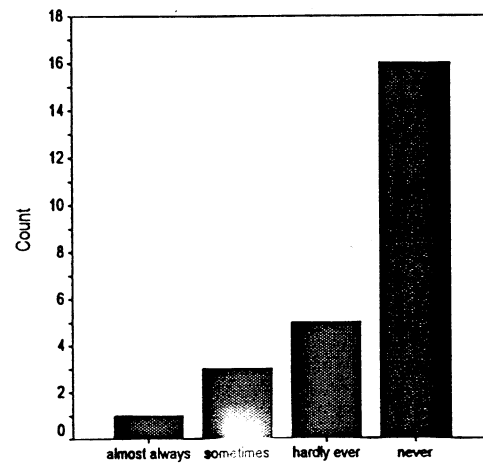


Table 6.8 Frequency of ASL Audiotapes for Consecutive

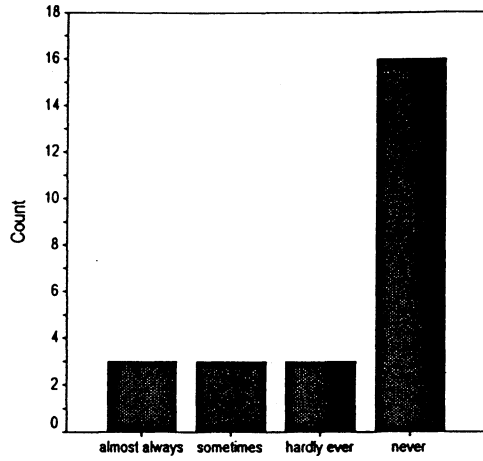


Table 6.9 Frequency of SL Audiotapes for Simultaneous

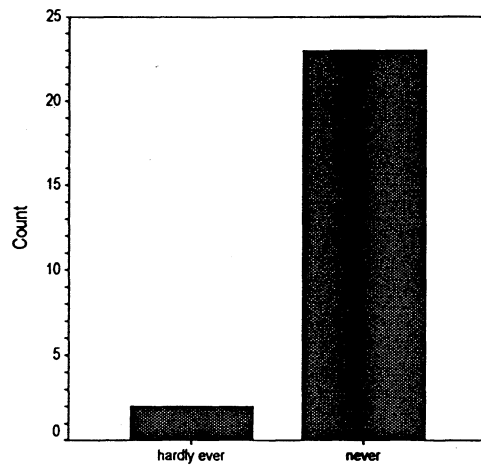


Table 6.10 Frequency of SL Videotapes for Consecutive

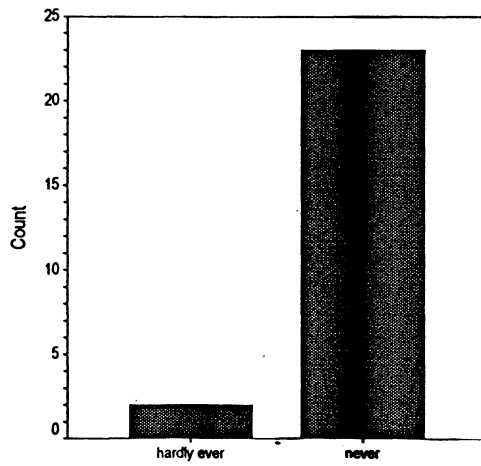


Table 6.11 Frequency of SL Videotapes for Simultaneous

- 2) Answers to the question “In the *consecutive* interpretation examinations, how often did your jury tape your students in groups in the booths and grade students using these tapes later?” were as follows:

6 responded “almost always”;

6 responded “sometimes”;

1 responded “hardly ever”;

1 responded “hardly ever or never”; and

14 responded “never.”

Responses by language jury:

Chinese: “almost always”;

Japanese: “almost always” and “sometimes”;

Spanish: “almost always,” “sometimes,” and “hardly ever or never”;

Russian: “almost always” and “never”;

Korean: “sometimes”;

German: “hardly ever” and “never”; and

French: “never.”

One participant from the Spanish jury added “starting in 1996, [we] taped [the] quals, [and] technical professional; [consecutive] general [was] always live.”

See Table 6.12

- 3) Answers to the question “In the *simultaneous* interpretation examinations, how often did your jury tape your students in groups in the booths and grade students using these tapes later?” were as follows:

8 responded “almost always”;

5 responded “sometimes”;

2 responded “hardly ever”; and

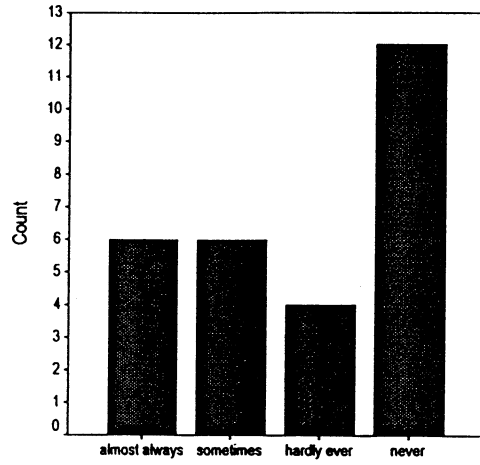


Table 6.12 Taping in Groups in Booths for Consecutive

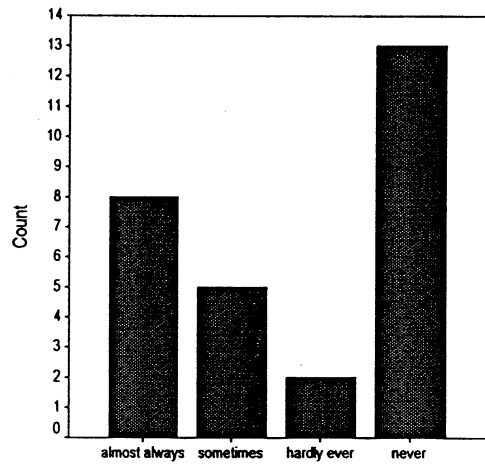


Table 6.13 Taping in Groups for Simultaneous

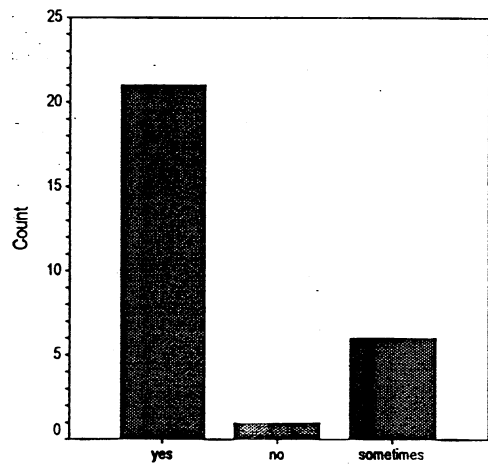


Table 6.14 Pre-Exam Briefing

13 responded “never.”

By language jury:

Chinese, Korean and Russian: “almost always”;

Japanese: “almost always” and “sometimes”;

Spanish: “almost always,” “sometimes,” “hardly ever,” and “never”;

German: “sometimes and “never”

French: “never.”

One participant from the Japanese jury commented: “how else can you judge.” [sic]

See Table 6.13.

- 4) In response to the question, “Were students briefed on the topic before each exam?”,

20 answered “yes”;

1 answered “no”; and

6 answered “sometimes.”

There was 1 non-response.

Responses by language jury:

Chinese, German, and Korean: “yes”;

French, Japanese, and Russian: “yes,” and “sometimes”;

Spanish: “yes,” “no” and “sometimes.”

See Table 6.14.

- 5) In following up to this question for those respondents who answered “yes” or “sometimes,” participants responded as follows. The categories on information type were given in the questionnaire. Responses fluctuated too widely for a breakdown by language jury to be meaningful, i.e., there was no pattern to the responses by language

jury. This may also be attributed to fluctuation in personal definitions of some of these categories and jury members' inclination to do what they feel is appropriate, based upon their professional judgment, in a given situation.

a) "name of speaker"

21	always
4	sometimes
0	never
2	N/A

See Table 6.15.

b) "background of speaker"

13	always
9	sometimes
1	never
2	N/A
1	non-response

See Table 6.16

c) "venue of speech"

10	always
13	sometimes
0	never
2	N/A

See Table 6.17.

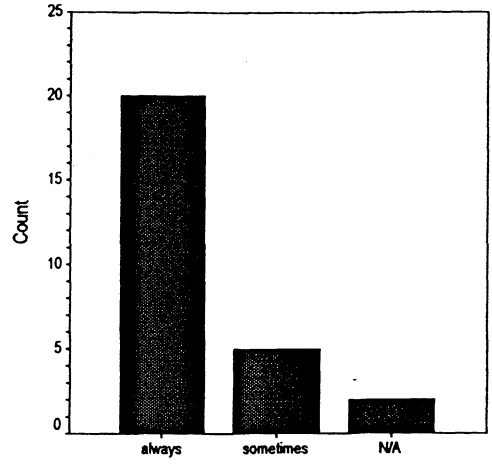


Table 6.15 Pre-Exam Briefing: Name of Speaker

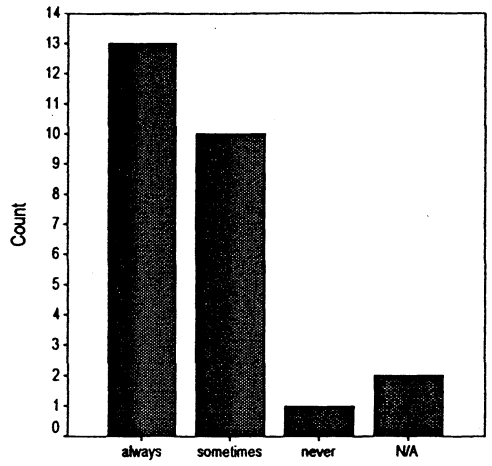


Table 6.16 Pre-Exam Briefing: Background of Speaker

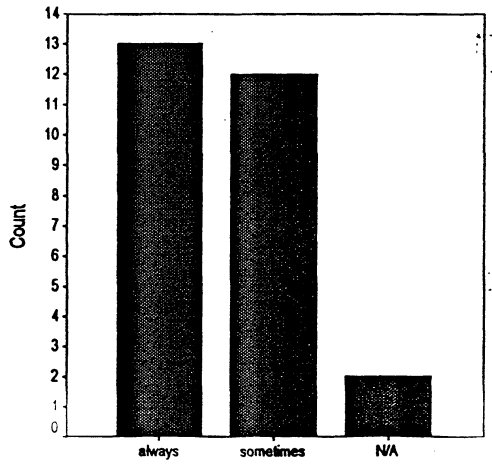


Table 6.17 Pre-Exam Briefing: Venue of Speech

d) “date of speech”

11	always
14	sometimes
0	never
2	N/A

One participant (“always”) added “approximate time period.”

See Table 6.18.

e) “proper names in the speech”

6	always
18	sometimes
2	never
1	N/A

One participant (“sometimes”) commented “if difficult.”

See Table 6.19.

f) “numbers in the speech”

0	always
0	sometimes
25	never
0	N/A
1	non-response

One participant responded “between sometimes and never.”

See Table 6.20

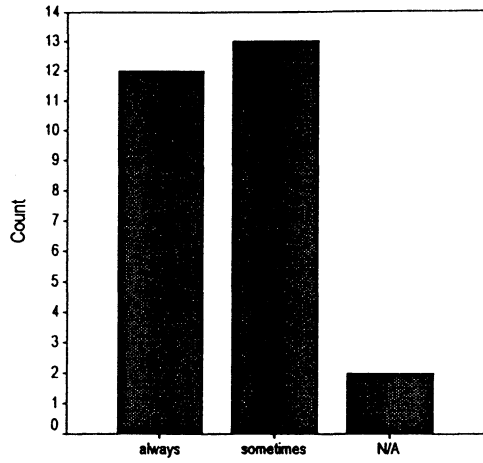


Table 6.18 Pre-Exam Briefing: Date of Speech

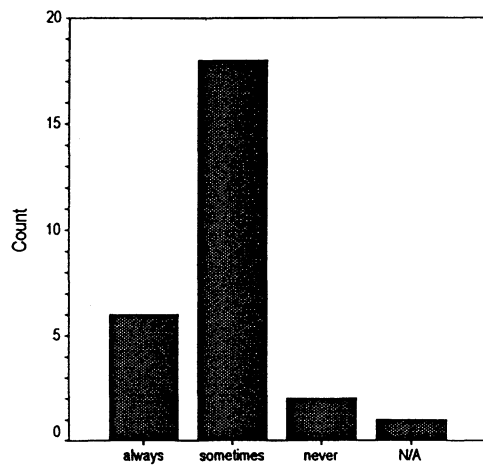


Table 6.19 Pre-Exam Briefing: Proper Names

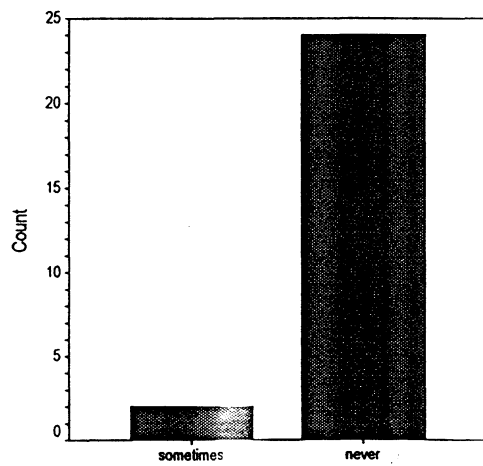


Table 6.20 Pre-Exam Briefing: Numbers

g) “terminology”

2	always
20	sometimes
5	never
0	N/A
1	non-response

One participant (“sometimes”) added “if difficult”; another participant (“always”) commented “as appropriate.” Finally, one participant distinguished between “always for technical” and “sometimes for general”; both responses are included above.

See Table 6.21.

h) “context information”

13	always
11	sometimes
2	never
0	N/A
1	non-response

See Table 6.22.

- 6) Participants were given the opportunity to provide additional feedback by answering the following question: “If procedures fluctuated so widely that you feel you cannot give a good answer to any of questions 5a) through 5h), please indicate the letter of the question(s) about which you have doubts in the following space.” Comments were as follows:

From the French jury: “We do what we can to reproduce [the situation in a] meeting.”

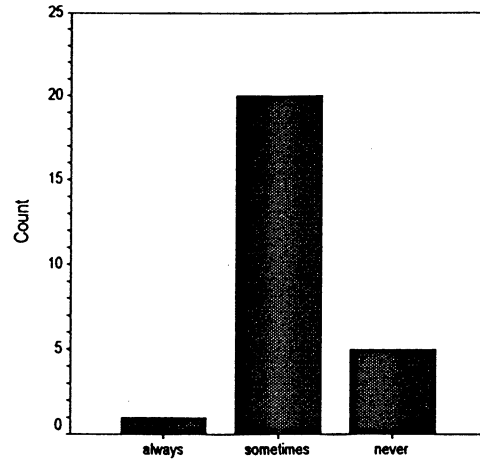


Table 6.21 Pre-Exam Briefing: Terminology

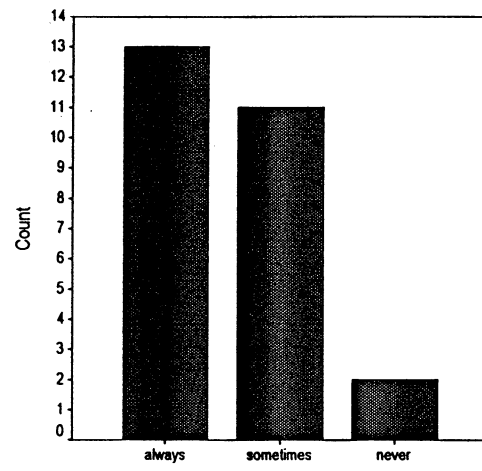


Table 6.22 Pre-Exam Briefing: Context Information

From the German jury: “g and h”; “pity there is no category between “always” and “sometimes” – this might be more appropriate. The intention anyway has usually been to set the scene for the speech and interpretation (when I’m there [?] anyway).”

From the Spanish jury: “e, f, g – depending on the difficulty of the text”; one participant marked N/A for items a – d with the comment “would say ‘never’ but really ‘do not remember’ would be more correct.”

- 7) In the crucial area of segmentation in the consecutive exams (“In the consecutive interpretation exams, did your jury subdivide the five-minute speech into smaller segments?”),

8 responded “yes” and

20 responded “no.”

By language jury, the breakdown is as follows: French, German and Spanish delivered the consecutive exam as a single block of 5 minute text, whereas the Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Russian juries divided it into smaller passages.

See Table 6.23

- 8) Further differentiation was the objective of the following question: “If your jury subdivided the consecutive speech, approximately how many times did the presenter pause to allow the student to interpret during the five-minute exam?”

2 replied “once”;

3 replied “twice”;

4 replied “three times”; and

0 replied “four times,” “five times” or “more.”

There was 1 non-response.

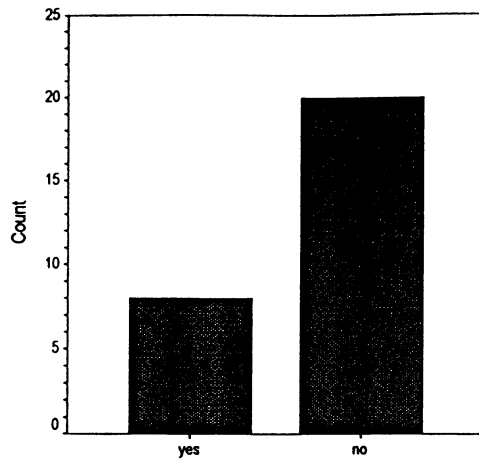


Table 6.23 Segmentation of Consecutive Source Speech

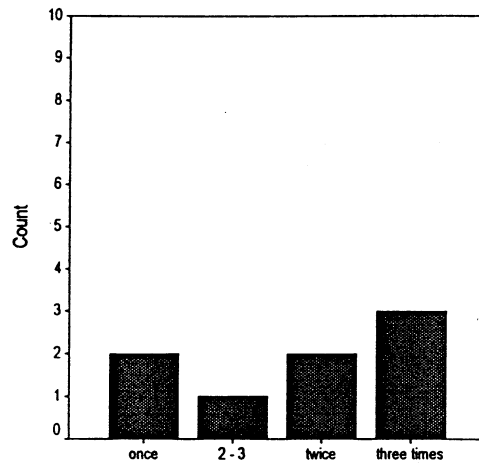


Table 6.24 Number of Segments in Consecutive, if Subdivided

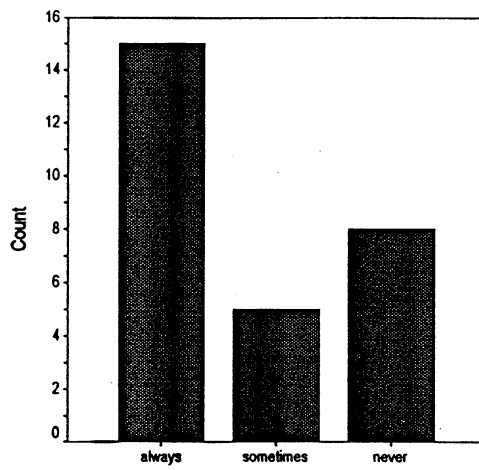


Table 6.25 Warm-up in Simultaneous

The Chinese and Russian juries paused either once or 3 times for interpretation (inconsistent responses).

The Japanese jury paused twice for the general and 3 times for the technical exams (“reflecting the realities in J[apanese]-E[nglish]”). Both responses are included above.

The Korean jury paused twice.

See Table 6.24.

- 9) When asked whether “your jury [gave] the student the opportunity to warm up in the presence of the jury” in the simultaneous exams,

15 replied	“always”;
5 replied	“sometimes”;
8 replied	“never”; and
0 replied	“N/A.”

See Table 6.25

By language jury:

French: “always,” “sometimes,” and “never”;

German: “always”;

Russian: “always”;

Spanish: “always,” “sometimes,” and “never”;

Chinese and Korean: “never”; and

Japanese: “always” and “sometimes.”

Two respondents (one French and one German) commented that this was always the case for simultaneous general, but not the technical exam with text. In this case, the technical exam most likely follows the general exam immediately, so that the student has already warmed up.

One Japanese respondent (“sometimes”) added “It was expected that the first minute or so of the exam would be ignored.”

- 10) To the follow-up question “If your jury allowed the student to warm up, was the warm-up material the first part of the exam speech or different material?”,

14 responded “first part of speech”;
2 responded “different material”; and
4 responded “both.”

By language jury:

French: “first part of speech,” “different,” and “both”;

German: “both,” and “first part of speech”;

Japanese: “first part of speech”;

Russian: “different” and “both”;

Spanish: “first part of speech.”

Two participants indicated that the warm-up material included the briefing and the introduction to the speech (French and Spanish).

One member of the German jury (“both”) added “typically an extemporaneous introduction by speaker, sometimes followed by first part of speech.”

Another French and German jury member (“both”) added “same stuff as speech topic; briefing; relaxed introduction.”

See Table 6.26

- 11) Regarding the length of the warm-up, (“If your jury allowed the student to warm up, approximately how many minutes was the warm-up altogether?”),

10 answered up to 1 minute;
9 answered up to 3 minutes;
1 answered up to 5 minutes; and

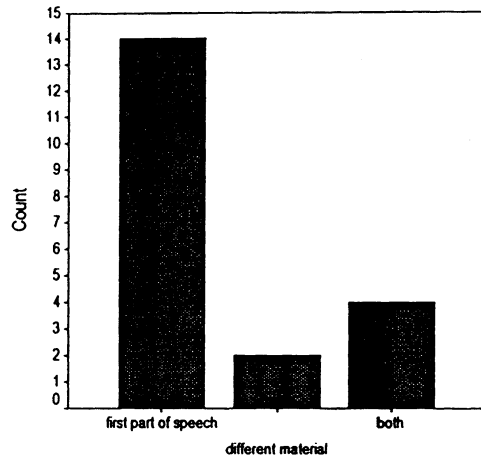


Table 6.26 Type of Warm-up Material

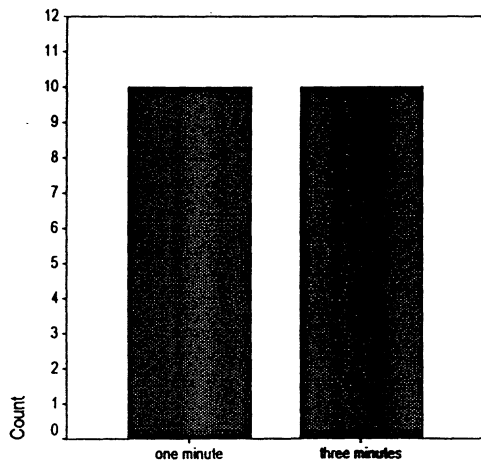


Table 6.27 Length of Warm-up in Simultaneous

no one answered up to 7 minutes or longer.

By language jury:

French, German, Japanese, Russian and Spanish: up to one minute and up to three minutes (split responses); and

Russian: up to three minutes and up to five minutes (split responses).

One French and German jury member (“up to 3 minutes”) clarified his/her answer by indicating that it only applied to the examination with a general speech, as there was “no warm up for technical because they have the speech.”

In summary, most jury members estimated the length of the warm-up at roughly three minutes.

See Table 6.27.

6.2.4.2.3 Data on Purpose of Exams

The questionnaire then turned to the overall purpose of the exams before distinguishing between purpose for the MATI and MACI degree tracks.

- 12) Answers to the following question are given by language jury: “Please think for a moment about the *purpose* of the interpretation examinations for students following both the MATI and MACI degree tracks. The purpose may be related to the course of study, skill levels, and/or later employment. Using a few key words, please describe the *purpose* of the interpretation examinations in the following space.”

Chinese: “test for ability to perform under pressure; test for grasp of skills in interpretation; test for readiness to enter the market”; “I think the purpose of the

interpretation exams is mainly to determine the students' skill levels and find out whether they are ready for the booth."

French: "test analytical skills; test ability to deal with difficulties; see if student is ready for market"; "1) Prove they are ready to join the ranks of professional interpreters. Bottom line for me: would I take this person? Takes into account accuracy, performance and behavior; 2) to give them an experience which mirrors and thoroughly [?] prepares them for future exams administered by potential employers"; "Determine if a student is 'ripe' enough to become a professional beginner; If he/she is able to convey the meaning honestly (both form and substance)"; "to evaluate the readiness of the candidate to enter the workplace"

French and German: "different purposes:

- 1) assess readiness to begin work as a *novice* interpreter;
- 2) assess skills after 2 years at MIIS:
 - is work (mostly) accurate?
 - is the tone/style etc. appropriate?
 - is the language (mostly) OK?
- 3) put students into a stressful (though not unfriendly) environment to see if they can cope."

French and German: Second-year students: to determine if the student is ready to go onto the market. Key question: would I take this student into the booth with me? First-year students: to determine if ready for second year.

French and Spanish: "I assume we are talking of the 'professional exams.' — The purpose of these exams is to see if the students have attained the level of a beginning or "novice-level" conference interpreter."

German: "*Qualifying Examinations*": related to skill levels at that point *plus* potential/progress made. *Professional Examinations*": skill levels to be prepared to enter the 'market'; "To assess whether the candidate has acquired the skills and confidence

necessary to be employed immediately as a conference interpreter and/or translator”;
“assess requisite professional level”

Japanese: “To determine if students could deliver a credible performance at an acceptable level with regard to meaning errors, omissions, etc.”

Russian: “confirm and demonstrate skills, appreciate performance, celebrate achievement, recognize progress, appreciate professionalism”; “assess professional entry-level interpretation skills and knowledge”

Spanish: “1) As a final check to make sure students have learned what we teach here 2) To ensure that graduates leaving here with our name on their diplomas are competent and will reflect well on us in the profession”; “test analytical skills, test ability to deal with difficulties, see if student is ready for market”; “are they professional? Ready to join our ranks. Would I take them or recommend them. Prepare them for employer exams”; “I would say the *purpose* has to be to evaluate how well prepared students are for the workplace, be it in interpretation only or in both areas [interpretation and translation]”

There were 4 non-responses.

- 13) When attention was drawn to the fact that the “*purpose* of the interpretation exams may or may not be the same for the MATI and MACI degree tracks,” and asked whether “the *purpose* of the exams for these two degree tracks [is] primarily” the same or different,

22 replied the “same,” whereas only

3 replied “different.”

1 circled both the “same” and “different,” indicating that opinions among jury members (Japanese) were divided.

In addition, there were 2 non-responses.

See Table 6.28.

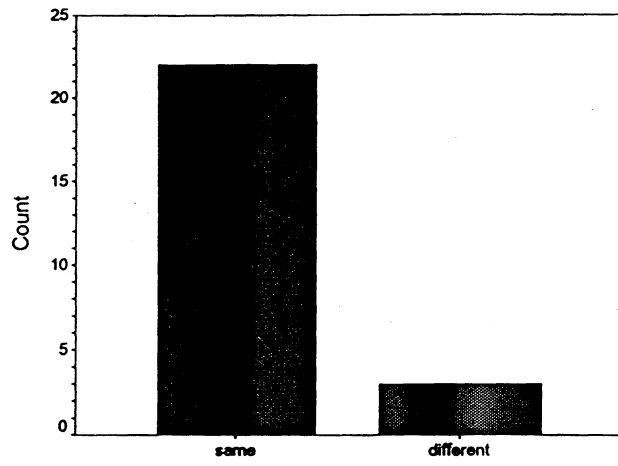


Table 6.28 Exam Purpose for MATI vs. MACI

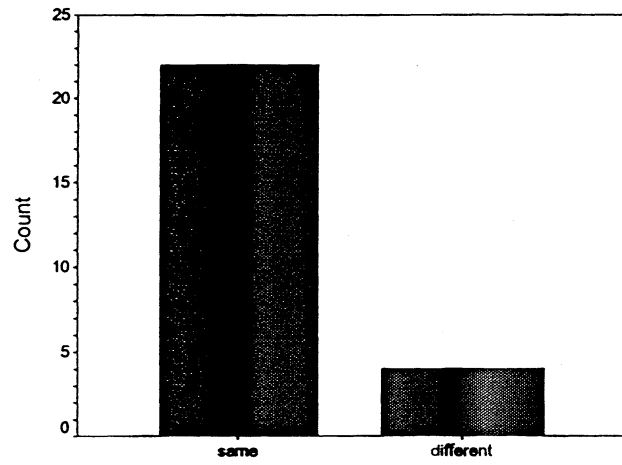


Table 6.29 Assessment Criteria for MATI vs. MACI

- 14) When asked to “describe those differences in *purpose* briefly in the following space,” One participant who indicated that there actually was a difference replied that “MACI ... require[s a] higher level of language ability and knowledge/understanding of the subject.” The participant who circled both the “same” and “different” wrote “There was a high degree of disagreement on this issue ... as a junior member of the jury I felt it was quite arbitrary.” Two participants who thought there was a difference in purpose wrote “see above” indicating apparently that the Professional Examinations entail both translation and interpretation for MATI, whereas they only include interpretation for MACI.

6.2.4.2.4 Data on Assessment Criteria

Potential differences between the MATI and MACI degree tracks were also explored in relation to assessment criteria.

- 15) When asked whether “the *assessment criteria* for these two degree tracks [are] primarily” the same or different,

22 responded “same,” whereas only

4 responded “different.”

1 circled both the “same” and “different,” indicating the divergence of opinion in his/her jury.

There was 1 non-response.

See Table 6.29.

- 16) When asked to “describe those differences in *assessment criteria* briefly,” one participant who had indicated there was a difference wrote “MACI ... require[s a] higher level of language ability and knowledge/understanding of the subject”; another respondent wrote that the “criteria for the *spoken B* language may be different.” The participant who circled both the “same” and “different” replied “same as above,” i.e., question 14). Two

respondents who indicated “different” in question 15) wrote the following: “I expect more of a MACI candidate in interpretation; he/she has spent more time developing the skill.”

- 17) As expected, two participants indicated that “those differences influence how [they] score students.” The jury member who circled both the “same” and “different” did not indicate that there was a difference in how students are scored. Two respondents who are also external jury members wrote “No” and indicated that they were not informed which student is in which degree track before the exams.

The questionnaire then turned to the issue of skills and abilities tested in individual exams, and similarities and differences between them.

- 18) The first question in this group: “Between 1994 and 1998, MIIS administered interpretation exams for both *general and technical speeches*. General and technical exams may or may not assess the same skills and abilities. Using the following scale, please indicate the degree to which you believe general and technical exams assess the same skills and abilities.” In response to this question,

11 answered	“a great deal”;
16 answered	“some”;
0 answered	“only a little”;
0 answered	“not at all”; and there was
1	non-response.

By language jury:

All languages except Korean: “a great deal” and “some”;

Korean: “some.”

Participants also volunteered the following information:

French (“a great deal”): “technical [equals] pseudo-tech; in simul[taneous] it tests the ability to work with text. Could do same thing with very political text for ex[ample].”

Spanish (“some”): “English to Spanish is completely” different than Spanish to English.

See Table 6.30.

- 19) Interestingly, when asked whether they “think that these skills and abilities are different enough to merit separate exams for general and technical speeches,”

13 replied	“yes, separate exams”;
9 replied	“no, one exam ”;
5 replied	“I’m not sure”; and there was
1	non-response.

By language jury:

French: “yes,” “no,” and “I’m not sure”;

Japanese: “yes” and “I’m not sure”;

Chinese: “yes,” and “no”;

Korean and Russian: “no”;

German: “yes” and “I’m not sure”; and

Spanish: “yes,” “no,” and “I’m not sure.”

A participant in the French jury remarked “no, one exam, but [we] *should* test [simultaneous] with text and without text.”

A participant in the Spanish jury wrote “*pseudo-tech*. In Spanish to English it’s unrealistic and almost impossible to find texts. Tech [equals] business/tech.”

A participant on the French and German juries added “the techniques are somewhat different.”

See Table 6.31.

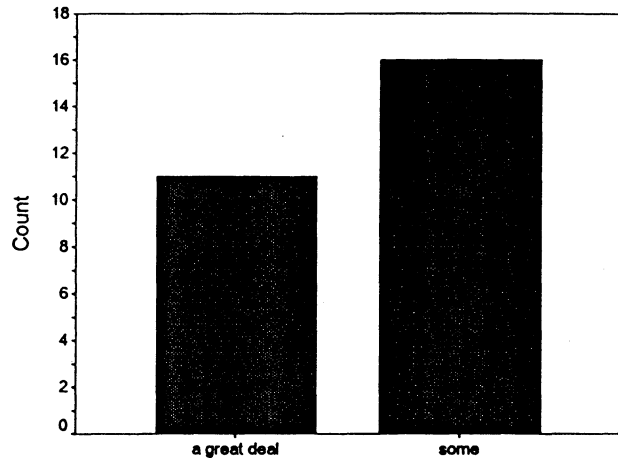


Table 6.30 Skill Similarity in General and Technical Exams

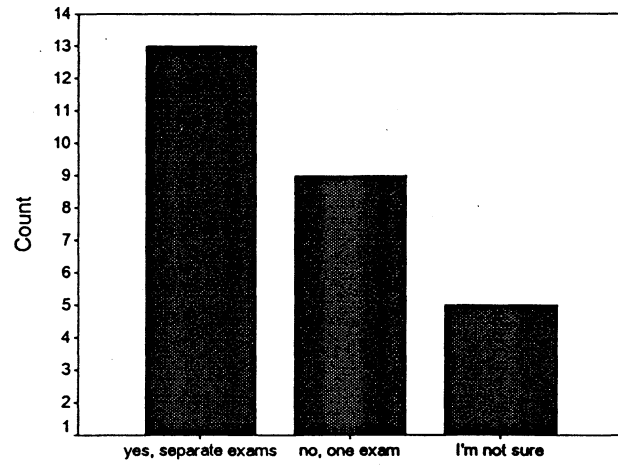


Table 6.31 Separate Exams in Technical and General

- 20) When asked “the degree to which you believe *simultaneous exams with* and *without text* assess the same skills and abilities,”

8 responded “a great deal”;
 17 responded “some”;
 1 responded “only a little”;
 0 responded “not at all”; and there were
 2 non-responses.

By language jury:

Chinese, German, Japanese, Russian and Spanish: “a great deal” and “some”

French: “a great deal,” “some,” and “only a little”; and

Korean: “some.”

Participants also wrote the following comments:

French (“only a little”): “with text is a 3 way attention split, [doesn’t equal] skill.”

Spanish (“some”): the “purpose [of simultaneous with text] is to help with technical or political speech[, which] is very dense”; simultaneous “with text is a three-way attention split, [and therefore requires a] different approach.” We “also” test ... “how to prep text quickly.”

Japanese (“a great deal”): It “depends on how the students use the text, i.e. for sight or as background? and it’s difficult but ... ”

See Table 6.32.

- 21) When asked whether “the skills and abilities assessed by exams in *simultaneous without* and *simultaneous with text* are different enough to merit separate exams,”

21 replied “yes, separate exams”;

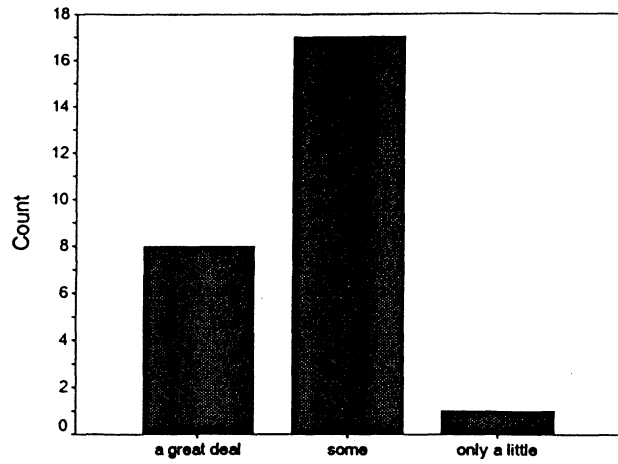


Table 6.32 Skill Similarity in Simul With and Without Text

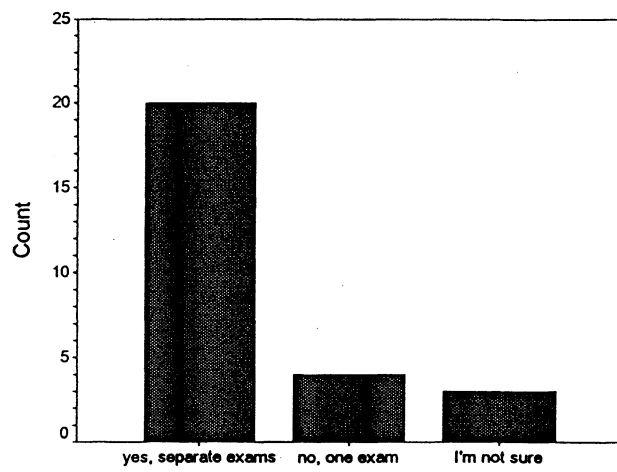


Table 6.33 Separate Exams in Simul With and Without Text

4 replied “no, one exam”; and

3 replied “I’m not sure.”

There was 1 non-response.

By language program:

Chinese: “yes” and “no”;

French, Japanese and Spanish: “yes,” and “I’m not sure”;

German: “yes”; and

Korean and Russian: “no.”

One respondent (German and French; “yes, separate exams”) thought “there is another reason for 2 exams—to give the student 2 shots at passing the exams.”

Another respondent (German; “yes, separate exams”) added “of course, it could be integrated in one longer exam, e.g. reading a prepared statement.”

A third respondent clarified his/her answer by adding “yes, given the text is provided *ahead* of the test.”

See Table 6.33.

6.2.4.2.5 Data on Scoring Criteria

Questions on criteria for scoring deal firstly with differences between A and B languages in consecutive and simultaneous and secondly with individual scoring categories.

22) When asked to “what extent ... you personally have the same expectations of A and B language students in **consecutive**,”

8 indicated “to a great extent”;

2 indicated between “a great extent” and “some”;

9 indicated “some”;

5 indicated “only a little”;
3 indicated “not at all”; and there was
1 non-response.

By language jury:

Chinese: “some”;

French: “to a great extent,” “some,” “only a little,” and “not at all”;

German: “to a great extent” and “some”;

Japanese: “between to a great extent and some”; and “not at all”;

Korean: “some”;

Russian: “to a great extent”; and

Spanish: “to a great extent,” “between to a great extent and some,” “some,” “only a little,”
and “not at all.”

Jury members made the following additional comments:

A French and German jury member who circled “to a great extent” commented that there is a “category missing here: completely [sic]; into A: maybe content is not 100% but language should be good; into [the] B [language] I expect better content but perhaps language is not as good.”

A respondent (Spanish) who circled “only a little” commented that he/she gives “more leeway for little style mistakes into B.”

A respondent (Spanish) who circled “to a great extent” commented that his/her expectations are the same when “the language is truly a ‘B’”. I must object to the use of the terms ‘A’ and ‘B’ language. In the context of MIIS, it would be more correct to say ‘mother tongue / first language’ and ‘acquired / second language.’ The assumption that all second languages are B-level is a false one – and in the long-term a dangerous one that could hurt both students and GSTI.”

A respondent (Japanese) who indicated that their opinion falls between “to a great extent” and “some” commented that these are “very subjective definitions!”

See Table 6.34.

- 23) In comparison, when asked to “what extent ... you personally have the same expectations of A and B language students in **simultaneous**,”

10 replied “to a great extent”;
 8 also replied “some”;
 1 replied “only a little”;
 3 replied “not at all”; and
 6 replied N/A.

By language program:

Chinese: “some”;

French: “to a great extent,” “only a little,” “not at all” and “N/A”;

German and Russian: “to a great extent,” “some,” and “N/A”;

Japanese: “to a great extent,” “some,” and “not at all”;

Korean: “some”; and

Spanish: “to a great extent,” “some,” “not at all,” and “N/A.”

Respondents also added the following:

N/A (Spanish): “[I] never give simul Prof. exams into B.”

N/A (French): “I never test simul into B in French.”

N/A (French and German): “We rarely heard simul into B.”

One respondent (“to a great extent”) indicated that this “rarely happens in French.”

One respondent (“to a great extent”) indicated that he/she has “rarely had this with German at [the] Professional level.”

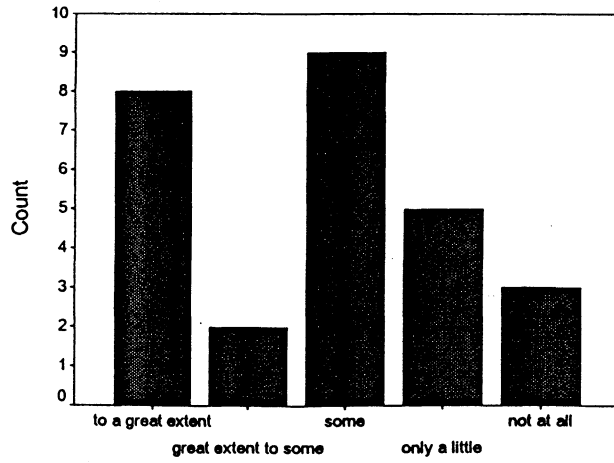


Table 6.34 Similarity of Expectations for A vs. B Consecutive

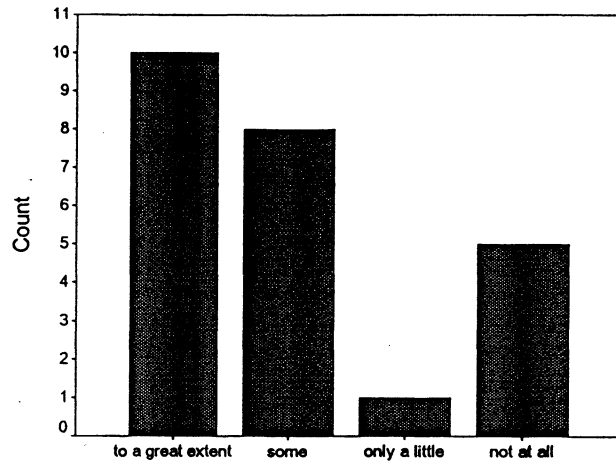


Table 6.35 Similarity of Expectations for A vs. B Simultaneous

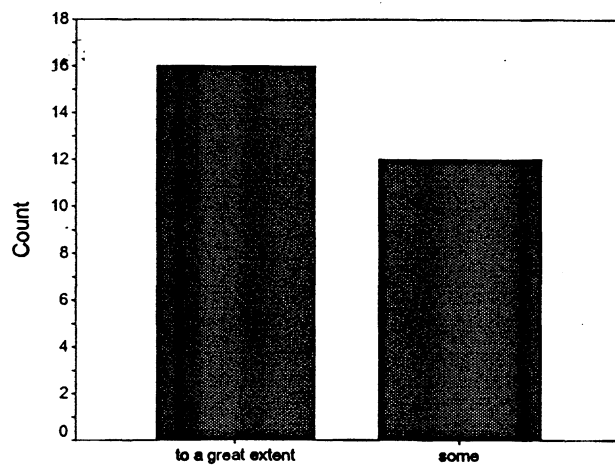


Table 6.36 Personal Agreement with Pass-Fail Scale

Another respondent (“some”) wrote that it “depends on the inherent talent of the student.”

See Table 6.35.

- 24) In 1997, MIIS adopted the following *score categories* for interpretation exams: *high pass, pass, borderline fail, fail*. Participants were asked “to what extent is this scale in line with your personal approach to scoring?”

16 responded “to a great extent”;

12 responded “some”;

0 responded “only a little”; and

0 responded “not at all.”

By language jury:

All languages except Korean: “to a great extent” and “some”;

Korean: “some.”

One German and French jury member (“some”) added the following comment: “I had suggested this years ago but was told that legally it might not work. In any case, with this system it becomes even more important to carefully document everything.”

One respondent who answered “some” added that these are “subjective” criteria.

See Table 6.36.

- 25) If respondents replied to the above question with *some, only a little or not at all*, they were asked to “please describe briefly how your personal approach differs from this scale.” They made the following comments:

From the Chinese jury: “Borderline fail seems ambiguous; I think there should be a borderline pass instead, or else both borderline fail and low pass.”

From the French jury: "I like it – however I would use one more category (and grade that way) ... *Borderline Pass* – like 75/75 out of 100. That way the student realizes that the performance wasn't great – and should perhaps continue to work on that area"; "add border[line] pass."

From the French and German juries: "would be nice to have [a] category '*borderline pass*.'"

From the German jury: "As an overall scope it is useful for the student and the teacher. However, it does not give sufficient and detailed information for counseling."

From the Japanese jury: "Because 'high' is a subjective definition, I prefer not to use it. 'Borderline fail' is clearer."

From the Korean jury: "'borderline fail' is an unnecessary category."

From the Russian jury: "I don't personally see the need for 'borderline' fail. If someone has failed, the extent of the failure should be addressed in one-on-one counseling. I like the 'high pass' for truly exceptional performance ... that doesn't require further elaboration."

From the Spanish jury: "I would add borderline pass."

From the Spanish and French juries: "I think that real decisions need to be made in the Professional Exams—maybe even more so in the Qualifying Exams. Too often 'borderline fail' is an excuse for not making a decision. If students were to meet with more honesty in both pre-admission, language testing and class grading systems (i.e. no more 'B's for mediocre work), I think an 'excellent, pass, fail' system would be enough. Also—if exams were also a time for a final language rating of students, the task would be easier. Thus, many who get a 'borderline fail' for work into a so-called 'B' may simply be spared the bother by being classified 'C' and not having to [re]take that exam."

26) Respondents were then asked to “describe briefly the *scoring criteria* you apply to each category” in a few short phrases. Different respondents in each language jury are separated by semicolons.

a) high pass:

Chinese: “high accuracy of meaning, high completeness of detail, good style and delivery”

French: “outstanding work, very little to comment on”; “well articulated, convincing, professional, interesting and accurate”; “ready to work in the market, as a beginner”

French and German: “intelligent / articulate / accurate *and* very ‘user-friendly”

German: “Excellent, I would be happy to work alongside this person right away”; “meaning complete and accurate, style appropriate, delivery fluent and natural prosody”

Japanese: “excellent”; “100-95 points”; “Excellent in every way. Equivalent to professional (or better)”

Korean: “almost professional”

Russian: “superior performance, conveying nuances of meaning, sophisticated [?], excellent diction, highly [?] accurate grammar and a sense of total control”; “virtually no errors in meaning, language use, or delivery, very polished presentation on a par with experienced professional”

Spanish: “an exceptionally clear, easy to follow rendition”; “a rare occurrence, only for the most exceptional interpreters”; “an interpretation that is not only accurate but enhanced by the profound knowledge of the topic and terminology that really is even clearer than the original”; “outstanding work, very little to comment on”; “great delivery, excellent word choice, clear and accurate meaning—inspires confidence. Professional”;

“thoroughly professional presentation in terms of content, terminology, style and demeanor”; “Ready to work in the market with some mentoring.”

Spanish and French: “a rendition that communicates virtually all of the original with clarity of thought and expression, and maybe even a certain elegance. Form / expression and meaning both attain a high level”

b) pass:

Chinese: “good accuracy of meaning (some minor meaning errors), good completeness of detail (some minor omissions), fair style and delivery”

French: “good, solid, reliable with occasional mistakes”; “up to 2 meaning errors. Possible omissions or nuance errors (but quantity is significant on weigh[t]ing). Not both meaning errors and small errors. Good delivery and articulate. Occasional style errors are OK.”; “Needs to start with simpler jobs; may have less aptitude or may have made one or more serious meaning errors in an otherwise excellent performance.”

French and German: “accurate. Student understood content and context and got both across.”

German: “Good, sound technique, will benefit from working with experienced colleagues”; “No more than two major meaning errors, style appropriate, yet at times less than adequate, some disfluencies and unnatural prosody”

Japanese: “satisfactory”; “94 – 75 points”; “Appropriate level for graduate (or qual[ifying exam])”

Korean: “not a high pass [but] can recommend for easy assignments”

Russian: “standard performance, rethinking basic meaning without major errors, stylistically appropriate, but without [flair] and the sense of total control that one would

expect in a high pass, foreign accent rather prominent, some grammatical glitches”; “no more than one major meaning error, a few errors in language use and/or delivery, acceptable presentation”

Spanish: “a serviceable version”; “the work of a competent interpreter ready to begin working on the market tomorrow”; “a fair professional interpretation”; “good, solid, reliable with occasional mistakes”; “1 – 2 minor errors, if didn’t distort whole message might slip through. A few omissions and nuance shifts are OK. Good presentation. Few stylistic errors OK in B language”; “good presentation; one or at times two content errors that can be reasonably explained; good style, word choice, demeanor”; “Needs to do simpler assignments at first; may lack aptitude to be a really first class interpreter (or may have made one or more serious errors in an otherwise ‘high pass’ performance”

Spanish and French: “Competence. Few meaning errors and enough mastery of the active language to make the message transparent.”

c) borderline fail:

Chinese: “important inaccuracies of meaning (no more than 3 main ones), important omissions, inadequate vocabulary and style/delivery”

French: “good but not totally consistent [?] / reliable; has good and bad moments”; “Too many little errors, omission or nuance shifts. More than 1 major meaning error. Too many style errors—so message is difficult to grasp”; “Has aptitude and skill but didn’t perform well on *this* occasion (there were some segments well done)”

French and German: “either style in t[arget] l[anguage] is difficult to follow, or s[ource] l[anguage] is not fully understood. With work, student can be expected to improve.”

German: “Should be encouraged to try again”; “More than 2 but less than 4 major meaning errors, style often inappropriate, grammar / syntax errors, frequent disfluencies”

Japanese: “could become “pass” with minor improvement(s); “74 – 70 points”; “Very close to appropriate level, expected to pass on next try if student continues to work hard”

Korean: “I rarely use [these] criteria.”

Russian: “unsure of him/herself, stammering, some omissions, hesitation, deviation, mental blocks, etc.”; one non-response

Spanish: “an interpretation that shows promise but is still marked by inaccuracies, gaps and/or grammatical/syntactical flaws”; “close, but not quite there yet—is likely to pass on the next retake with some additional polishing”; “one that elicits doubts as to the *accuracy* of the interpretation and also the credibility of the interpreter’s job. (Including ‘unclear’ expression, grammar problems, in the target language)”; “good but not totally consistent/reliable, has good and bad moments”; “message somewhat distorted due to too many inaccuracies, nuance shifts, or omissions.”; “just below above expectations”; “has aptitude but didn’t perform well on this occasion (judging from the parts which were satisfactorily done).”

Spanish and French: “too many errors of meaning and/or understanding to be acceptable for even a novice interpreter—but with some evidence that that will not always be the case. That evidence may be: (a) a major meaning error being committed, but a good job on the rest of the speech; (b) (and why not admit it!) a performance so far below usual class performance that it is surprising. (c) Student kept up with speech and/or showed that he/she “got” it all in some way.”

d) fail:

Chinese: “serious inaccuracy (over 3 main meaning errors), bad gaps in detail, faulty vocabulary and poor style/delivery”

French: “student lacks basic qualities”; “More than 2 meaning errors. Message does not come across”; “Not up to the task. May never ‘make it.’”

French and German: “none of the above”

German: “Should be discouraged from trying again. (I know these are not really criteria, but as I participated only once in MIIS exams my memories of the criteria system are sketchy!)”; “Numerous meaning errors, inappropriate style, frequent grammar / syntax errors, delivery halting”

Japanese: “did not meet the required level at all”; “70 points and below”; “not at a level appropriate for the exam”

Korean: “unacceptable”

Russian: “it should *never* happen at professional exams ... the responsibility for a fail should be put squarely on the professor who allowed the student to take it to this stage”; “anything not meeting the above criteria”

Spanish: “a clearly inadequate rendition”; “more than two major meaning errors, audience would not get speaker’s message, student needs to work hard before retaking exam”; “meaning off and language problems”; “student lacks basic qualities”; “more than 2 meaning errors. Completely distorted message in parallel speech”; “content, style, not conveyed accurately, smoothly”; “not up to the task. Probably will never ‘make it.’”

Spanish and French: “Meaning and form are lost and/or obscured. Phrases left out. Inability to deal with technique of simul and/or consec.”

One respondent (German and French) drew the following table, which includes all categories:

	content	style	presentation	terms
high pass	close to 100% complete and accurate; logic and links very good; an interpretation that would be completely acceptable as a professional job	excellent word choice/appropriate style/register; demonstration of good strategies (specific to language)	pleasant voice; no inappropriate silences, coughs, etc.	all/mostly correct
pass	not 100% accurate or complete but sensible interpretation and strategies to get round problems; good logic and mostly clear links; 2- 3 major errors OK, some nuance slips OK	good choice of language; mostly appropriate word choice	mostly continuous flow, few gaps; same as above	same as above or sensible substitutes
borderline fail	more than 2-3 major errors and lots of nuance slips; poor logic and links	style could be OK or poor register/ word choice; not good strategies	hard to follow/ listen to; big gaps; voice problems	maybe wrong terms
fail	huge errors/gaps; incomplete/ inaccurate interpretation; poor logic/links; would be totally unacceptable in professional setting	could be sort of OK; usually poor strategies	could be hard to follow/ listen to; big gaps; voice problems	wrong terms

Referencing all categories, a respondent in the German jury wrote “please see info sheet of exam committee of 1996, I was involved in the elaboration of these new categories.”

There was one non-response to all categories.

- 27) When asked “to what extent did jury members **in your language combination** have the same criteria,”

19 responded “to a great extent”;

6 responded “some”;

1 responded “only a little”;

0 responded “not at all”; and

3 responded “ I don’t know.”

By language jury:

Chinese, Korean and Russian: “to a great extent”;
 German: “to a great extent” and “some”;
 French and Spanish: “to a great extent,” “some,” and “I don’t know”; and
 Japanese: “to a great extent,” “only a little” and “I don’t know.”

Additional comments included the following:

French (“some”): “I think the long-standing members of the French depart./juries tend to have similar criteria in mind. I say this based on discussions and similarity of results”;
 “ ... though I sometimes think exams into French are graded less generously than into English”

German: with two other members of the German jury “to a great extent”; with the other member “some”

Another German jury member (“to a great extent”) commented “(although there have been disagreements particularly with regard to what constitutes a PASS).”

Japanese: “I don’t know and should not care or should not be bothered with them.”

Spanish (“some”): “Some are more word oriented. I am more focused on message and technique.”

See Table 6.37

28) When asked “to what extent ... jury members **in other language combinations** have the same criteria,”

3 answered	“to a great extent”;
6 answered	“some”;
0 answered	“only a little” and “not at all”; and
22 answered	“I don’t know. ”

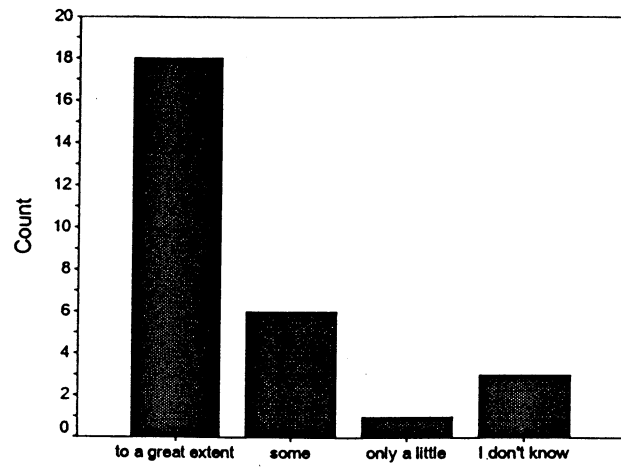


Table 6.37 Agreement in Language Jury on Pass-Fail Criteria

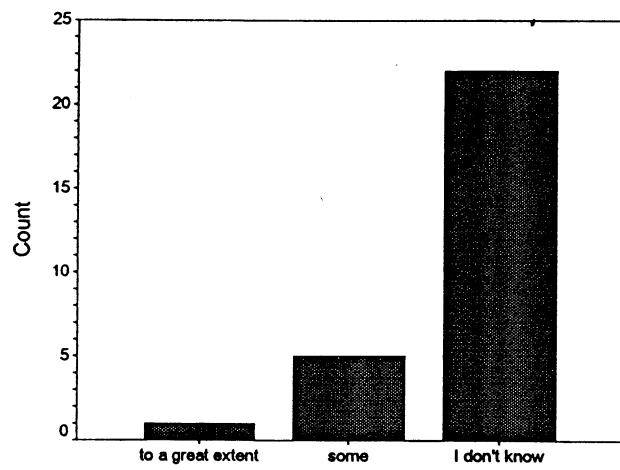


Table 6.38 Agreement With Other Juries on Pass-Fail Criteria

By language jury:

Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Russian: “I don’t know”;

French: “some,” “to a great extent” with Spanish, and “I don’t know”;

German: “to a great extent” with French and “I don’t know”; and

Spanish: “some,” “some” with French, and “I don’t know.”

In addition, 1 participant responded “to a great extent” for French and Spanish only; otherwise “I don’t know.”

One participant responded “to a great extent” for French and German only; otherwise “I don’t know.” This jury member added that “the question is too broad; I could only know if I had participated” in the “Asian, Spanish and Russian” examinations.

One French and German jury member replied “I don’t know, but I suspect not too much.”

One German jury member (“I don’t know”) commented as follows “I guess the German program is more stringent than most others—just hearsay.”

See Table 6.38.

- 29) The same question was asked for the 100-point scale in place between 1994 and 1997: “to what extent did jury members **in your language combination** have the same criteria?”

15 answered “to a great extent”;

10 answered “some”;

0 answered “only a little,” and “not at all.”

2 answered “I don’t know.”

1 responded between “to a great extent” and “some.”

By language jury:

Chinese, Russian and Spanish: “to a great extent” and “some”;

French: “to a great extent” and “some”;

German: “to a great extent,” “some” and “I don’t know”; and

Japanese: “to a great extent,” between “to a great extent” and “some,” and “I don’t know”; and finally

Korean: “some.”

One German and French jury member (“some”) commented “I think the numbers came after the decision—not the other way around.”

Another member on both these juries wrote “to a great extent or: differences showed up consistently.”

Another German jury member (“to a great extent”) commented “but see 27),” referring to his/her previous comment that “there have been disagreements particularly with regard to what constitutes a PASS.”

See Table 6.39.

- 30) With regard to “jury members **in other language combinations** [having] the same criteria for the 100-point scale,”

2 replied “to a great extent”;

4 replied “some”;

0 replied “only a little” and “not at all”; however,

22 replied “I don’t know.”

1 responded between “to a great extent” and “some.”

2 responded between “some” and “only a little.”

By language program:

Chinese, Japanese, Korean and Russian: “I don’t know”;

French: “some,” “some” with Spanish, between “some” and “only a little,” and “I don’t know”;

German: between “some” and “to a great extent” with French, and “I don’t know”;

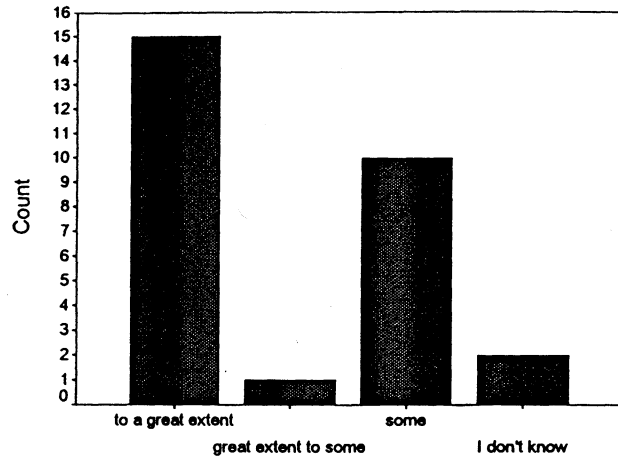


Table 6.39 Agreement in Language Jury on 100-Point Scale

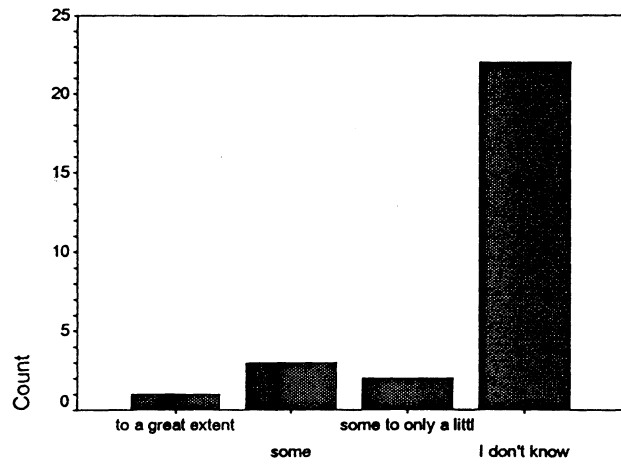


Table 6.40 Agreement With Other Juries on 100-Point Scale

Spanish: “some” with French, between “some” and “only a little,” and “I don’t know.”

See Table 6.40.

6.2.4.2.6 Data on Jury Conduct

Questions on jury conduct dealt firstly with scoring procedures, in particular whether a blind rating was conducted before the final score was determined.

31) In response to the question “[w]hen scoring students in the exams, did your jury usually have an open discussion before you decide on your final score,”

14 answered	“almost always”;
6 answered	“usually”;
6 answered	“sometimes”; and
2 answered	“hardly ever.”

By language jury:

Chinese, German and Japanese: “almost always” and “sometimes”;

French: “almost always,” “usually,” “sometimes” and “hardly ever”;

Japanese: “sometimes”;

Korean: “hardly ever”;

Russian: “almost always”; and

Spanish: “usually” and “almost always.”

One participant who responded “hardly ever” added “before I decide my final score: No; before the jury decided a final score: sometimes (esp. in Qualifying exams).”

A member of the German and French juries “sometimes” commented: “usually no (or some) discussion before everyone decides on their *individual* score.”

See Table 6.41.

- 32) In the cases where open discussions take place, participants were asked whether they did “a blind rating *before* the discussion.”

13 replied	“almost always”;
8 also replied	“usually”;
1 replied	“sometimes”;
3 replied	“hardly ever”;
1	non-response.

By language jury:

Chinese: “almost always”;

French and Spanish: “almost always” and “usually”;

German: “almost always,” “usually” and “hardly ever”;

Japanese: “sometimes” and “usually”; and

Russian: “hardly ever.”

One participant who indicated “usually” added “what do you mean by ‘blind?’”

See Table 6.42.

- 33) Answers to the question “[i]f you did a blind rating, how often did you change your score *after* the discussion” were as follows:

0 responded “almost always” and “usually”;

14 responded “sometimes”; and

7 responded “hardly ever.”

There was 1 non-response; and

1 participant responded between “sometimes” and “hardly ever.”

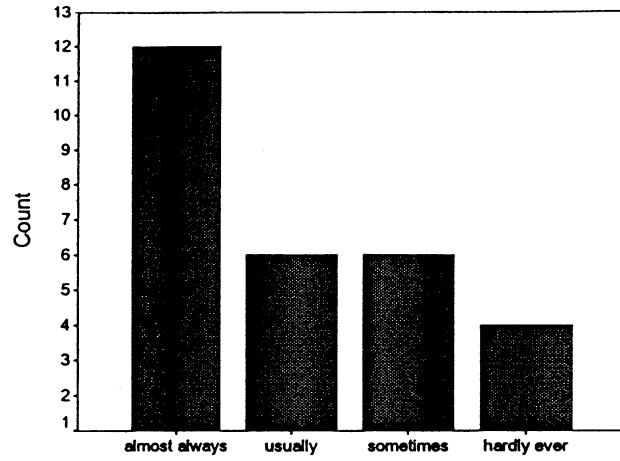


Table 6.41 Jury Deliberations Before Scoring

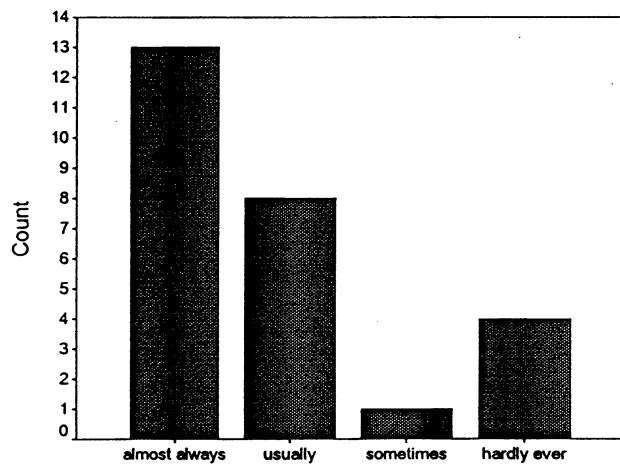


Table 6.42 Blind Rating Before Jury Deliberations

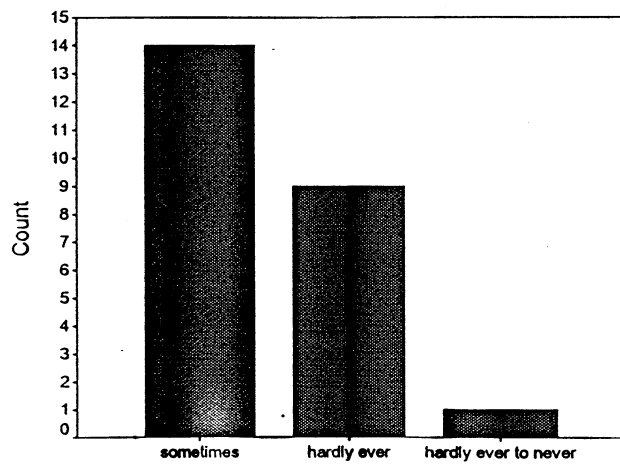


Table 6.43 Score Changes After Jury Deliberations

By language jury:

Chinese: “sometimes”;

French, German and Spanish: “sometimes” and “hardly ever”;

Japanese: between “sometimes” and “hardly ever”

In the French jury (“sometimes”), one participant commented that they “usually listen to [the] tape again too.”

See Table 6.43.

6.2.4.2.7 Data on the Role of External Examiners

Participants were also requested to provide information on external examiners.

34) Answering the question “Do you have external examiners on your jury?”,

3 indicated “almost always”;

5 indicated “usually”;

1 indicated “usually” and “sometimes”;

8 indicated “sometimes”; and

6 indicated “hardly ever.” Finally,

1 indicated “Do not remember.”

By language jury:

Chinese: “almost always” and “usually”;

French: “usually,” “sometimes,” and “hardly ever”;

German: “usually,” “sometimes,” “hardly ever” and “I don’t remember”;

Japanese: “sometimes” and “hardly ever”;

Korean: “hardly ever”;

Russian: “always” and “sometimes”; and

Spanish: “almost always,” “sometimes,” “usually,” and “hardly ever.”

One respondent commented “external observers,” i.e., observers with no voting rights.

Another Spanish jury member (“hardly ever”) commented “external observers, often, but not with grading authority.”

A French and German jury member (“usually” and “sometimes”) clarified “whenever possible. Not as often as I would have liked.”

A German jury member (no response) clarified “I was the external examiner.”

A French and Spanish jury member (no response) wrote “I *am* an external examiner.”

See Table 6.44.

- 35) When asked whether “the presence of external examiners influence[s] jury discussions,”
- | | |
|--------------|------------------|
| 0 responded | “almost always”; |
| 2 responded | “usually”; |
| 13 responded | “sometimes”; and |
| 3 responded | “hardly ever.” |

By language jury:

Chinese, German and Japanese: “sometimes”;

French: “usually” and “sometimes”;

Russian: “hardly ever”; and

Spanish: “usually,” “sometimes,” and “hardly ever.”

A participant from the French jury (“sometimes”) volunteered the following: “try not to, depends on what is brought up.

Another participant from the French jury (“sometimes”) added “maybe, but not usually the outcome.”

One Spanish and French jury member (“usually”) asked “discussions or decisions? To my mind they influence discussions ‘always’ and decisions ‘usually.’”

One French jury member (no response) added: “Being one, I don’t know!”

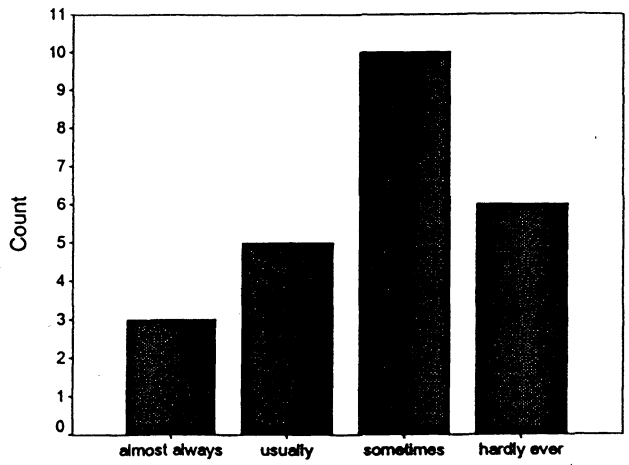


Table 6.44 Frequency of External Jury Members

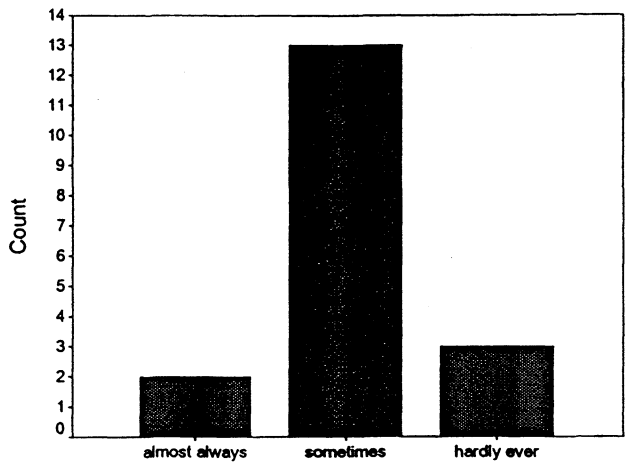


Table 6.45 Influence of External Jury Members on Deliberations

One Spanish jury member (external examiner, no response) wrote “I don’t know!”

See Table 6.45.

6.2.4.2.8 Additional Comments by Respondents

- 36) In the final section, survey participants were given the opportunity “to make any additional comments about this survey or about MIIS’s examination procedures for interpretation, including suggestions for improvement.”

The comments by jury:

French: “great survey! good idea! *1 suggestion*: question on how speech is delivered; i.e. consecutive: 1-5 minutes piece unbroken up, need [?] straight on ‘oralize’ etc.”; “please feel free to ask anything else if you think my answers might be useful to your project.”; “Parallel to the exams in S/I with and without text, I suggest a long consec (3+) and a short Q&A-type text. The usefulness of the latter skill is greater in the market and I for one cannot tell how someone who gets lost in a 5 minute text would do on a 1 minute text!”

French and German: *Random Thoughts*:

- “1) If you have 2 exams, I’d like to return to the points system, so students can have 2 shots at the overall averaged grade. If we have one exam, then the points system will not work/ is unnecessary. I’m not sure that it works anyway, since strictly speaking, if you take off a point exactly for each item, no one would ever pass.
- 2) I’d like to know why most students seem to pass in some programs, whereas many fail in others.
- 3) I’d like more equity in exam administration.
- 4) I’d like the exams to be completely student-centered (I’d *NEVER* agree to taping a consecutive and evaluating it afterwards.) Anyway, evaluating tapes is very different from evaluating a live performance.”

German: "I'd like to learn more about the goal / validity of this survey as part of a Ph.D. thesis. I have a couple of comments about MIIS' exam procedures that I do not want to put down in writing at this time"; "Although I answered 'I don't know' to questions 28) and 29), I remember from years prior to '94 that criteria and procedures varied from one program to the next."

Japanese: "1. Obviously it is better to test individually, but if faculty in [the] European language[s were to] experience [exams lasting] 10 –14 hours a day ... they might have ... second thought[s]. A few years ago, we had close to 20 students for orals. 2. If the exam situation is to reflect ... reality, 2-3 installments in consec [are appropriate]. This issue has been with me since I started ... [the] J[apanese] program. 3. In a couple of sections, I've written 'subjective,' which means that the category is left to the judgment ... [or] feeling[s] of the respondent."; "I heard that this is part of your Ph.D. dissertation project. Is that true? If so, why didn't you inform me of it." [sic]; "I felt that the exam process was very arbitrary and the jury poorly educated on what they were supposed to be doing. There [were] definitely discussions of 'giving messages' or other criteria used that I felt had no business in a jury. I would love to see the jury system become a fairer one so that scores represent a fairer picture of an individual performance on a day by an 'unknown' candidate."

Russian: "Professional exams should be used as the ultimate test of professionalism. All students who complete their studies should be expected to pass. Exams should serve as a confirmation and demonstration of skills in a favorable environment. All texts for exams should be selected in individual language programs and might be shared between programs. There should be no single text *imposed* on all programs"; "eliminate 'borderline fail' as a separate category, develop explicit written criteria for grading exams, i.e., 'two or more major meaning errors ... ', etc. Perhaps we should also develop precise definitions and examples of error categories."

Spanish: "Thank you!"; "I have concerns about foregone conclusions in some cases—students who have done well throughout the year but do poorly on an exam are graded more leniently than others"; "I would urge examiners to refrain from making comments

on text choices or anything else that should remain internal to the department in the presence of outside examiners.”

Spanish and French: “1. It is not clear to me if this is about Professional Exams only – or both Professional and Qualifying Exams. 2. I think the GSTI exam system must begin to take better account of language classification—and indeed, I believe that the Professional Exams should also establish the graduating students’ language classification according to realistic but professional standards. The GSTI diploma or transcript should include an A-B-C type listing of languages. 3. Both MATI and MACI INTERPRETATION exams should follow the same criteria. Let us not deceive ourselves: MATI degrees will be used to look for work in conference interpreting. Maybe the name should be changed to MATCI!”

6.3 Results

The section providing information on the **background of jury members** reveals that the jury members are a heterogeneous group in terms of professional experience as well as experience in teaching and testing. Jury members’ professional experience ranges fairly evenly between 6 and 30 years (see Table 6.1); jury members’ teaching experience tends to range between 1 and 20 years (Table 6.2). All language programs are represented in the survey (Table 6.3). In addition, the vast majority of participants have served on juries at other training institutions in North America, Europe and/or Asia (Table 6.4). Finally, jury members are evenly split with regard to background in testing: half of those surveyed indicate that they have received training in testing, while half indicate that they have not (Table 6.5).

In the administration of **exam procedures**, there is considerable fluctuation across the language programs. There are, however, strong patterns which group the European and Asian languages into distinct groups. Survey participants indicate that they use live speeches almost exclusively as source materials for both consecutive and simultaneous examinations (Table 6.6 and 6.7). Of those members who do use tapes, a slightly higher number state that they use tapes more frequently for simultaneous than for consecutive (Tables 6.8 and 6.9). Those juries

who do use tapes rely almost always on audiotapes rather than videotapes (Tables 6.10 and 6.11).

Jury members are roughly split in their responses to whether students are taped in groups in booths for consecutive and simultaneous for scoring purposes (Tables 6.12 and 6.13). There is a clear divide among language programs, however, with Chinese, Russian (split response), Japanese, Korean and Spanish taping some, but not all, consecutive exams; German and French, however, do not tape in consecutive. The pattern for simultaneous is similar.

The vast majority of jury members indicate that students are briefed before exams (Table 6.14). Briefings include the name of the speaker (Table 6.15), background of the speaker (Table 6.16), and the venue and date of the speech (Tables 6.17 and 6.18). Proper names are sometimes stated (Table 6.19); however, numbers that occur in the speech are almost never provided (Table 6.20). Terminology and context information are included in the briefing when jury members feel that it is appropriate to do so (Table 6.21 and 6.22). Although the majority of jury members give these answers, a number of survey participants respond differently. In these cases, there is no discernable pattern by language program. These results point to the need for the definition of constructs in testing and identification of those areas lending themselves to test standardization (test method facets).

While the majority of survey participants state that the source language speech in consecutive is not divided into segments (Table 6.23), these data also provide evidence of systematic differences between the European language and Asian language programs. The German, French and Spanish juries do not pause for interpretation during the five-minute consecutive exams. While the Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Russian juries all pause, the length of segments fluctuates considerably (Table 6.24). Furthermore, most students are given the opportunity to warm-up in the presence of the jury immediately prior to the delivery of the exam speech for simultaneous (Table 6.25), but the Chinese and Korean juries do not provide their students with an opportunity to warm up before these examinations. (The Japanese jury does.) The French and Spanish responses to the question on warming up are split. The type of material interpreted during the warm-up is generally the first part of the speech, sometimes with additional information (Table 6.26), and the length of the warm-up is usually not longer

than three minutes (Table 6.27). These data support the separate statistical analysis by European and Asian languages in the first part of the case study. The role of Russian in this pattern is ambiguous.

The overwhelming response regarding the **purpose of the exams** is “readiness to enter the market.” Although individual participants do not volunteer information on which particular market segment (conference, court, medical, telephone, private market, government, international organizations, etc...) they are referring to, a possible conclusion would be that “the market” is widely understood to be conference interpretation in its multifaceted forms. Jury members also make numerous references to various criteria for assessment. When compared across and within language juries, however, the criteria remain fuzzy.

Only three respondents indicate that there is a difference between the purpose of exams for the MATI and MACI degree tracks in their professional judgment (Table 6.28). The vast majority of survey participants indicate that they also have the same **assessment criteria** in mind for the MATI and MACI degree tracks (Table 6.29). On the whole, the jury members’ answers concerning the purpose of the exams and assessment criteria support the research design in the statistical study, i.e., that the interpretation examinations are intended to be equivalent in the MATI and MACI degree tracks and can thus be compared with one another. They indicate that the curriculum outcomes for interpretation in the MACI and MATI degree tracks are intended to be the same, as are the criteria for measuring these outcomes.

With regard to the skills and abilities tested in various exams, the responses are clear: all jury members feel that both general and technical exams, as well as the simultaneous exams with and without text, test the same skills and abilities to some or a great extent (Tables 6.30 and 6.32). For the two questions as to whether these differences are important enough to merit separate exams, the respondents are however clearly divided: in the case of general and technical exams, jury members are roughly split (Table 6.31); in simultaneous with and without text, the vast majority feel that there should be separate exams (Table 6.33). This information provides evidence that, in designing the statistical study, it was correct not to group the general and technical examinations (in one language direction) together for statistical purposes. Additional research on the correlation between exam scores is indicated.

The vast majority of jury members state that the **score criteria** they apply to MATI and MACI language examinees are the same. These data also support the comparability of score criteria across the MATI and MACI degree tracks for the purpose of statistical analysis. Jury members' expectations of A and B language candidates range from great similarity of expectations to little to no similarity (Tables 6.34 and 6.35), and these responses are not consistent across or within language programs. This fluctuation raises the question of how consistently score criteria are applied and supports the collapsing of the statistical variable 'exam score' into a nominal variable with two levels.

Criteria for assessment and scoring do not appear to be highly explicit or highly consistent among or between language programs. These factors compromise the reliability of scores across the language programs. With regard to criteria for individual score categories, there are only two explicit references to criteria in the Faculty Handbook. Evidently, internalized norms prevail over criteria laid out in GSTI materials, although the criteria given by jury members in many cases overlap in part or whole with Faculty Handbook criteria. Extreme fluctuation in responses and detail of criteria can also be noted, ranging from non-responses and use of points, albeit without reference to what point scales mean, to a detailed table. Many jury members make reference to professional standards in the field, i.e., professional practice, usually without describing those standards.

The extent of personal agreement with the pass-fail scale and agreement within the language juries on both the pass-fail and 100-point scales is very strong (Tables 6.36, 6.37, and 6.39). Jury members indicate, however, that they have little idea as to whether their jury's criteria are in line with language juries of which they are not members (Tables 6.38 and 6.40). Knowledge of similarity of criteria between juries is in fact split according to jury membership, i.e., whether the respondent serves on a jury in more than one language combination. If respondents serve on only one jury, they generally respond that they do not know whether the same criteria are applied by juries for other languages. Dual jury membership is, however, more frequent among the European languages than the Asian languages and Russian.

Furthermore, there is a lack of conformity with regard to **jury conduct**. In the case of blind ratings, where responses vary widely and unsystematically, members of some juries

apparently do a blind rating before any discussion takes place, whereas other members on the same jury in the same exam refrain from establishing a blind rating. See Tables 6.41 through 6.43. Discrepancy in jury conduct indicates a need for stricter exam procedures across the language programs.

There is also considerable fluctuation with regard to presence of **external examiners**. When they are present, they seem to play an active role in shaping opinion and most likely influence the final score, both as jury members with voting rights and as observers. The degree of influence most likely varies from jury to jury. See Tables 6.44 and 6.45.

The last two aspects do not necessarily compromise the reliability of final score data. They do, however, give rise to questions about how final scores are reached in individual juries and the extent of differences across language programs.

6.4 Discussion

The results of the jury member survey may be discussed in light of the degree of standardization of exams, i.e., the comparability of exams within and across language programs, and the validity and reliability of the exams, i.e., the appropriateness of the test purpose and use. These areas have a direct impact on the validity of the statistical analysis in Part I of the case study.

With regard to exam standardization and comparability, it seems that exam procedures are not clearly defined in the minds of jury members, in particular as a collective group of language juries. Despite clear patterns distinguishing European- and Asian-language juries from one another, considerable fluctuation within these groups also indicates that exam procedures are not consistently applied within individual language programs. Examples include briefing, segmentation in consecutive, warm-up, application of scoring criteria, and the use of blind ratings.

As a result, the numerical exam scores cannot be considered to be a valid and reliable measure on a school-wide basis. There is also doubt as to whether they are used validly and reliably within individual language programs. The decision to employ a pass / fail system of grading, which was made in 1997, was therefore a sound one, as was the decision to collapse these data to nominal categories in Part I of the case study. The breakdown into two categories based upon the most widely used criteria (“readiness for the market”) seems general enough to have been meaningful.

Inconsistency in responses to the same questions within and across juries indicates that additional measures to increase the degree of standardization of exam procedures within and across language programs are warranted. Greater awareness among jury members that fluctuations in exam administration undermine validity and reliability is also necessary (rater training). Extreme fluctuation in professional judgment is evident. Given this fluctuation, professional judgment cannot be relied upon solely as a foundation for decision-making in an effort to ensure the equity of the examinations. Despite the vast experience and impressive qualifications of faculty and external jury members, this expertise does not necessarily lead to a high degree of similarity in the exercise of professional judgment. Indeed, as often stated in the literature on expertise, experts love to disagree. An awareness of the fundamental principles of assessment is thus required among jury members, if assessment is to move beyond arbitrary standards and scientific evidence of the validity and reliability of scores is to be demonstrated. In the additional comments made by jury members, a clear awareness of problematic aspects of the exams emerges. The strong interest of faculty in improving exam procedures is evident, as are their openness, willingness and dedication.

Although there is no substantial evidence of a uniform testing paradigm across all language programs, the Asian and European languages do form distinct groups. Hence, the results provide evidence supporting the premise that fluctuation in exam rationale and procedure is greater between language combinations (Asian vs. European) than within language combinations (individual juries). Interestingly, there is no strong evidence as to where Russian fits into this Asian- vs. European-language pattern. Nevertheless, these results support the separate analysis of Asian- and European-language programs in the statistical study.

The results of this survey cannot be generalized to other examination contexts. Given the ongoing discussion of the nature of quality in the IS literature and the neglect of the traditional assessment literature in the spoken language interpreting community, however, further research on assessment procedures would seem to be a high priority. Such studies could be conducted in the form of surveys similar to this one. In-depth, structured interviews would be a further possibility. Attention to various the domains of interpreting, i.e., conference interpreting at international organizations and governmental ministries, legal interpreting and related certification testing, health-care interpreting in hospitals and other medical settings would also be warranted.

7 Case Study Part III: Analysis of Exam Texts

7.1 Introduction

While Part I of the case study examined the results of the Professional Examinations and their relationship to the curriculum and Part II dealt with the procedures in place for exam administration and assessment, Part III of the case study provides an analysis of selected examination materials. As in Part II, the objective of the analysis in Part III is to place the results of the statistical analysis in a qualitative context. Several factors must be taken into consideration in conducting an exam text analysis as part of a research project aimed at improving curriculum and assessment: the pedagogical usefulness of the analysis and the suitability of the methodological tools in serving this purpose, the extent to which the exam texts are representative of all exams and the curriculum in general, and the extent to which an exam text provides accurate documentation of the speech delivered in a given exam. At the same time, the key concern in this section of the case study remains the same as in the previous one: the issue of whether the validity and reliability of the Professional Examinations are undermined, which would in turn have an impact on the results of the statistical analysis in Part I.

7.1.1 Analytical Tools

There are multiple approaches to text analysis, including methodologies grounded in discourse analysis, Translation Studies,¹ and language testing. Bachman's test method facets are used to maintain consistency in approach with Part II of the case study. In this regard, the test method facets also prove to be extremely flexible as an analytical tool that is not limited to the study of texts but can be employed for the analysis of all parameters of an examination. In his cumulative discussion, Bachman reviews the extensive literature on various aspects of test method facets and the theoretical development of this framework since the late 1960s (1997, pp. 112-159). Bachman describes the facets as a list, or compilation, that is by no means exhaustive, but is intended to serve as a guide for empirical research aimed at improving the understanding of factors that affect performance on language tests; as a result, the list is to be

expanded and enhanced as additional exam facets are discovered and described (p. 117). As this discussion is focused on written texts as examination documents, the salient facets of input (Bachman), in particular those categorizing the nature of the language, serve as an analytical framework. The scope and applicability of these text-internal factors are explored below.

7.1.2 Exam Texts and the Curriculum

In GSTI, criteria and rationale for text selection are not spelled out in curriculum or examination documents for the period under review. The pedagogical criteria used to select texts is therefore not explicit; instructors presumably select speeches for work in class and examinations based primarily upon their intuitive assessment of the appropriateness of the material. Nor is it clear to what extent manuscripts from the field, i.e., conferences, are employed, or the role that audio- and videotapes, as well as presentations by students and guest speakers, have in the curriculum, even though all of these types of materials and sources are employed in all language programs. Nevertheless, it is assumed in the context of this analysis that the texts selected for examination purposes reflect to some degree the pedagogical choices instructors make when selecting texts for the interpretation classroom, in particular for the third and fourth semesters of study. Descriptive documentation of text features thus serves the purpose of promoting the integration of curriculum and assessment.

Hence, those factors that presumably play a role in the mind of the interpretation instructor when selecting texts for examinations are the focus of the discussion. In this regard, it would seem possible that the suitability of the text for the purposes of a specific examination, e.g., consecutive interpretation as opposed to simultaneous interpretation with text, or technical subject material as opposed to general subject material, manifests itself in variations in the features of the respective texts. In other words, a suitable pedagogical text for consecutive interpretation could differ from an ideal text for instruction in simultaneous interpretation with text, and these variations could exist not only between modes of interpretation but also longitudinally within a single mode. The latter question can only be pursued in a

¹ For a comprehensive discussion, see Nord, 1995; see also Reiß, 1971.

comprehensive analysis of classroom materials employed throughout the curriculum. In summary, the question of the degree of similarity, i.e., dissimilarity, in salient features of exam texts is at the forefront of this analysis.

7.1.3 Exam Texts as Documents

At the same time, the issue of whether these texts accurately document the speech as it was delivered in the exam must be addressed. It is a widespread practice in interpretation examinations to present examination participants with impromptu speeches, i.e., those delivered supposedly off-the-cuff with little prior preparation, in an effort to ensure that the text is defined by features characteristic of spoken language, rather than written language. According to this pedagogical approach, spoken language texts, i.e., texts that are not fixed in written form, are seen as more suitable for interpreting. For this reason, some educators advocate their use. The discussion on use of classroom materials, however, has not fully taken the role of background knowledge and ritualized language use in this line of reasoning. The consideration of whether interpreting fairy tales, for example, which is often done in introductory courses to simultaneous interpretation, constitutes working with a “fixed text” is not pursued here. Nevertheless, it seems reasonable that the role of background knowledge, information density, and syntax, to mention but a few factors, have just as great an impact on text difficulty. Indeed, it would seem premature at best to assume that texts that are not fixed in written form inevitably display characteristics of spoken language.

In GSTI, the pedagogical approach described above has led to the practice of ‘oralization,’ a term that is widely used but whose meaning is not precisely defined. According to this practice, a text that exhibits characteristics of written text, i.e., high information density, complex sentence structures, among other things, may be used as material for the delivery of a speech. The information is restructured, paraphrased, and streamlined or otherwise simplified to give it the characteristics of spoken language and thus make it easier to grasp and more suitable for interpretation.

As a result, the texts presented for analysis in the section are, for the most part, not a verbatim rendering of the speech delivered in the interpretation examination. For this reason, they

should generally be regarded as source language materials rather than a precise record of the speech delivered. Possible exceptions to this rule are the texts used for simultaneous interpretation with text. However, it must be assumed in this case as well that the texts were altered during the examination, even though this particular exam reflects the need to prepare students for cases when presenters read from manuscripts in international conferences.

The lack of recordings also makes it unfeasible to explore additional test method facets, for example 'speededness,' i.e., the rate of presentation measured in words per minute (a facet of input under format). Complete documentation of exam sessions and the description of the typicality of interpretation exam texts as written or spoken language are therefore promising areas of further study.² In summary, the exam texts as presented for analysis in this discussion are only a partial record of the speech delivered in the corresponding examinations. Since source language materials presented in exams were not recorded during the period under review, these partial records are the only materials available for analysis.

7.2 Method

As stated above, the salient facets of input (Bachman), more specifically the nature of the language, serve as a framework for the following text analysis. In view of the lack of precise documentation, the following facets of input have been excluded from the text analysis: the degree of contextualization (embedded / reduced), the distribution of new information (compact / diffuse), and organizational characteristics (standardness of grammar, cohesion, and rhetorical organization), and sociolinguistic characteristics (dialect or variety, register, naturalness). Two additional facets were identified as relevant to the examination procedure and included in the analysis: speaker and venue. These facets have an impact on the exam situation, as either the speaker or the venue may or may not be identical with the speaker or venue in the examination itself. For example, a speech may have been originally delivered, hypothetically speaking, by the German Federal Minister of Defense to the members of the *Bundestag* in Berlin and be presented to the examinee as such. An opposite example would be an exam text that may not have originally been a speech, in which case the material may have

been adapted from another source and presented to the examinee as an oral text. In this case, there would be no speaker or venue external to the examination situation, i.e., the jury member presenting the text is concurrently the speaker and the exam itself is the sole venue.

Therefore, a rubric for text analysis was developed that includes the following facets. Questions to be answered through the analysis are provided in brackets. Items in bold appear as category headings in Tables 7.1 – 7.4.

- **length** of text (Is the end clearly **marked**? If yes, how many words?)
- propositional content:
 - speaker** (Is the speaker the presenter?)
 - venue** (Was the speech originally delivered at a different venue? If yes, where?)
 - genre** (Is the text a speech from the field, an original speech from another source, or adapted material?)
 - topic** (What is the speech about? What is the primary subject matter?)
 - type of information** (Is the information in the speech primarily concrete or abstract?)
 - vocabulary** (What is the highest level of lexical difficulty: general, semi-technical, or technical vocabulary?)
- sociolinguistic characteristics:
 - illocutionary force** (What **language functions** does the speech perform, in addition to being a test?)

While it could be argued that the pragmatic (sociolinguistic) characteristics of the texts under review could change through the practice of 'oralization,' it seems probable that the

² Shlesinger (1989, 1990) provides a discussion on the positioning of texts along an oral-literate continuum and

fundamental language function would remain unaltered. Similarly, although it is not possible to know which technical terms were given to examinees during the briefing or which terms were edited out of the speech, it would seem reasonable to assume that texts were chosen due in part to the nature of the vocabulary (general, semi-technical, technical) and that these features were mostly preserved in the oral presentation.

7.2.1 The Corpus

Although exam texts over this six-year period are on file in GSTI's central office, some texts are missing. This is due to the fact that these files are maintained to enable students to access representative exam text material; no procedure is in place to ensure that the files remain complete. Therefore, a comprehensive analysis of all examination texts used during the five-year period under review is not possible, although highly desirable. In addition, such an endeavor would require the researcher to have a good working knowledge of all eight languages used in GSTI, including Chinese, Korean, Japanese, Russian, and Spanish. As a result, this analysis is limited to English, French, and German texts used in the May 1999 session.

The six interpretation examinations under study in the statistical analysis (Part I) are reviewed, which leads to a total of four texts each for the French and German programs. All language programs use the same English source texts for the interpretation examinations in consecutive and simultaneous without text. The English-language materials for the simultaneous with text examinations present a special category, however, in that text selection is left to the discretion of individual language programs. Only one English text was on file in the GSTI main office, however. All other texts were provided by faculty in individual language programs. There are three texts in this category. The Chinese, French, Japanese, and Korean programs used the same text (plasma cholesterol), while the Russian and Spanish programs selected their own (on arms control and aircraft lavatories, respectively). The German program did not have a degree candidate for simultaneous interpretation into German in this examination session.

The following list provides a breakdown of exam texts by source language:

English SL consecutive general and technical	2
English SL simultaneous without text	1
English SL simultaneous with text	3
French SL consecutive general and technical	2
French SL simultaneous with and without text	2
German SL consecutive general and technical	2
German SL simultaneous with and without text	2
Total number of texts:	14

All exam texts are reproduced in Appendix 10.9.

7.2.2 Procedures

The following steps were taken in this text analysis.

1) A methodology was developed on the basis of Bachman's test method facets. The representative nature of the texts and the nature of the texts as accurate exam documents were considered from a theoretical standpoint. This discussion includes the determination of factors in text selection, factors distinguishing the nature of the texts that most likely remain unchanged through 'oralization.'

2) Categories were elaborated for the analysis, based upon salient facets of input. In accordance with the discussion under 1), descriptive criteria were established for analysis of the data. The ensuing rubric used for analysis is presented in Section 7.2.

3) Texts were retrieved from GSTI files. No texts were on file for the simultaneous with text examinations with English as the source language. Therefore, faculty were requested to provide these texts.

4) The texts were analyzed in the following order, which is also based upon individual modes of interpretation:

a) English: consecutive general, consecutive technical, simultaneous, simultaneous with text

b) French: consecutive general, consecutive technical, simultaneous, simultaneous with text

c) German: consecutive general, consecutive technical, simultaneous, simultaneous with text

5) The results of the analysis were compared by mode of interpretation, i.e., consecutive general and technical, followed by simultaneous and simultaneous with text.

7.2.3 Analysis

7.2.3.1 English Source Language Materials

These data are presented in Tables 7.1 and 7.2.

The **length** of English source texts varies from 581 words (consecutive technical) to 4280 words (materials for the simultaneous with text examination used by the Russian program). The consecutive general text (2239 words; five-minute exam) is longer than the material used for simultaneous without text (1836 words; ten-minutes) and longer than the material for simultaneous with text used by the Chinese, French, Korean, and Japanese programs (1208 words; ten minutes).

The **end of the text material** to be used for the examination is marked in only one instance: the consecutive technical text (entire text of 581 words). In all other cases, the text material exceeds the amount required for the length of the examination, if one assumes that the presentation rate was between 100 and 120 words per minute. The text material was therefore cut or adapted in some way.

	Text 1 Consecutive general	Text 2 Consecutive technical	Text 3 Simultaneous general
length	2239 words	581 words	1836 words
end marked / unmarked	unmarked	marked	unmarked
speaker	Jacques Cousteau; NPQ Editor Nathan Gardels	Chicago city official	Executive Director of UNEP
venue	Paris	Chicago	*****
genre	interview	press statement	political speech
topic / subject matter	population growth; environmental degradation; global economy	environmental protection; urban planning	trade and the environment
concrete / abstract information	primarily abstract	abstract and concrete	primarily abstract
general / semi-technical / technical vocabulary	general, e.g. financial derivatives; polar ice shelf; nuclear proliferation; flood plains;	general, e.g., green rooftops; federal air quality standards; pavements; computer modeling; heat-reduction; reflective roofing; smokestack emissions; prairie grass	general, e.g., United Nations Environment Programme; WTO ministerial; economic liberalization; desertification; soil degradation; Biosafety Protocol; Biodiversity Convention; government procurement;
language functions	informative; persuasive	informative	informative

Table 7.1 Analysis of Facets of Input in English Texts

program	Text 4 Chinese / French / Japanese / Korean	Text 5 Russian	Text 6 Spanish
length	1208 words	4280 words + graphic	2989 words + graphic
end marked / unmarked	unmarked	unmarked	unmarked
speaker	****	Michael Newlin; Lawyers Alliance for World Security	****
venue	****	Monterey, CA, USA	****
genre	****	Conference paper	article from Airways magazine
topic / subject matter	plasma cholesterol; coronary heart disease	Nunn-Lugar Cooperative Threat Reduction Program and Export Controls; arms control and nonproliferation	design of aircraft lavatories
concrete / abstract information	abstract and concrete	primarily abstract	primarily concrete
general / semi- technical / technical vocabulary	technical, e.g. atherosclerotic vascular disease; coronary heart disease; low-density lipoprotein cholesterol; reference levels; LDL-binding receptors; human arterial wall; Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial; polyunsaturated fats	(semi-) technical, e.g., Freedom Support Act; dismantlement of strategic nuclear weapons; economic dislocation; ballistic missiles; accounting and disbursing authority; umbrella and export control agreements; dual-use items; industry outreach	technical, e.g., Ford Tri- Motor; Environmental Protection Agency; propliners; access panel; powdered crystals; drain port; lav servicing; narrow-body aircraft; mid-cabin; hydraulic lifting device; triturator; release valve; fuselage; Airworthiness Directive; vacuum blower
language functions	informative	informative	informative

Table 7.2 Analysis of Facets of Input in English Simultaneous with Text

A **speaker** other than the presenter in the examination is indicated in the text material in four out of six examinations. In the two instances where no external speaker is indicated (simultaneous with text for Chinese, French, Japanese, and Korean and simultaneous with text for Spanish), the **genre** of the text is not clearly marked as a speech or other form of spoken language material. No source is indicated for the former example, while the latter text is an article taken from an airline magazine. The text types for the other examinations also vary widely, ranging from an interview for consecutive general to a conference paper for simultaneous with text (Russian).

Similarly, the **venue** for consecutive general and technical is specified as Paris and Chicago, respectively. Monterey is listed as a venue for the simultaneous with text examination for the Russian program. In all other exams, no specific venue is given.

The **subject matter** ranges widely and includes the environment, population growth, urban planning, the global economy, trade, plasma cholesterol and coronary heart disease, arms control and nonproliferation, and the design of aircraft lavatories. The **type of information** is primarily abstract for consecutive general and simultaneous without text, both concrete and abstract for consecutive technical. The texts used for the simultaneous with text examinations contain both abstract and concrete information. The text used by the Chinese, French, Japanese, and Korean programs is both abstract and concrete. The text used by the Russian program is primarily abstract, and the text used by the Spanish program is primarily concrete.

The **vocabulary** is primarily general for both consecutive speeches. The material used for simultaneous without text also has several specialized terms, e.g., the names of conventions and protocols. All three texts used for the simultaneous with text examinations contain technical vocabulary; the specialized terminology in the Russian program text is mainly political in nature. In terms of **language function**, all texts are informative in nature. The consecutive general text also has some characteristics of a persuasive text advocating environmental protection.

7.2.3.2 French Source Language Materials

These data are presented in Table 7.3.

The **length** of the French source language materials ranges between 475 words (consecutive general) and 3,500 words (simultaneous with text). The end of the text material to be used in the examination is marked for both consecutive examinations; for simultaneous, it is not specified.

The original **speaker** is concurrently the presenter for both consecutive exams. For the simultaneous interpretation examinations, the authors (and original presenters) of the speeches are Lionel Jospin (with text) and Corinne Bensimon (without text). The **venue** is specified as the French National Assembly for the exam in simultaneous interpretation without text. No other venue is given for any of the other examinations.

The **genres** differ widely: magazine articles are used as source language material for both consecutive speeches. A political speech serves as material for the simultaneous without text examination; a parliamentary report is used for simultaneous with text. Similarly, the **subject matter** varies considerably; it includes the Euro and cash cards, El Niño, the war in Kosovo, and cloning and embryo research. All texts generally contain features of both **abstract and concrete information**, except for simultaneous general, which is primarily abstract. The **vocabulary** is general for consecutive general, semi-technical for all other examinations.

Finally, the **language function** of the texts is primarily informative in all case. In addition, the text material for both examinations is also persuasive in nature.

	Text 7 Consecutive general	Text 8 Consecutive technical	Text 9 Simultaneous general	Text 10 Simultaneous with text
length	475 words	646 words	2063 words	3,500 words
end marked / unmarked	marked	marked	unmarked	unmarked
speaker	*****	*****	Lionel Jospin; French Prime Minister	Corinne Bensimon
venue	*****	*****	French National Assembly	*****
genre	magazine article	magazine article	political speech	parliamentary report
topic / subject matter	Euro; cash card	El Niño	war in Kosovo	bioethics, embryo research; cloning
concrete / abstract information	abstract and concrete	abstract and concrete	primarily abstract	abstract and concrete
general / semi- technical / technical vocabulary	general, e.g., cartes à puces; buraliste; réseaux monétique;	semi-technical; e.g., anomalie climatique; océanographes; simulation numérique; alizés; sécheresses; Oscillation australe	semi-technical, e.g., aléas météorologiques; engagements héliportés; justice pénale internationale; hémicycle; Haut- commissariat aux réfugiés;	semi-technical, e.g., spermatozoïde; fécondation in vitro; tissu testiculaire; in utero; procréation assistée; dépistage génétique; stimulation ovarienne
language functions	informative	informative	informative; persuasive	informative; persuasive

Table 7.3 Analysis of Facets of Input in French Texts

7.2.3.3 German Source Language Materials

These data are presented in Table 7.4.

The German-language examination materials range from 508 words (consecutive technical) to 2180 words in **length** (simultaneous with text). The **end of the material** intended for use in the examinations is marked only in the case of the consecutive technical text (entire text of 508 words).

The original **speakers** are indicated for all exam texts with the exception of consecutive technical (breast cancer), which is the only text that is not political in nature. The **genre** of the source material for this examination is unclear, as no source is provided. Similarly, the **venues** of the original speeches are indicated for all exam texts except for consecutive technical. The venues include the Committee on Women's Rights of the European Parliament (consecutive general), the Frankfurt Trade Fair Convention Center (simultaneous without text), and the Leipzig Trade Fair Convention Center (simultaneous with text).

The **subject matter** includes women's rights and breast cancer for the speeches to be interpreted consecutively. The material covered in the simultaneous interpretation examinations include the German economy, international trade, and consumer goods (simultaneous without text) and environmental protection and energy policy (simultaneous with text). The type of **information** is primarily abstract, with the exception of consecutive technical, which deals with breast cancer and also contains some concrete information. The highest level of **vocabulary** is semi-technical for all speeches except for simultaneous general, which is primarily general in nature.

With regard to **language function**, all speeches are primarily informative; the speeches used for simultaneous interpretation examinations are delivered on the occasion of the opening of trade fairs and are thus also performative in nature.

	Text 11 Consecutive general	Text 12 Consecutive technical	Text 13 Simultaneous general	Text 14 Simultaneous with text
length	1220 words	508 words	1845 words	2180 words
end marked / unmarked	end unmarked	end marked	end unmarked	end unmarked
speaker	Dr. Christine Bergmann; German Federal Minister for Family, Seniors, Women, and Youth	*****	Dr. Werner Müller; German Federal Minister of Economics	Jürgen Trittin; German Federal Minister for the Environment, Nature Conservation, and Reactor Safety
venue	Committee on Women's Rights of the European Parliament	*****	Frankfurt Trade Fair Convention Center	Leipzig Trade Fair Convention Center
genre	political speech	no source given	political speech	political speech
topic / subject matter	women's rights	breast cancer	German economy; international trade; trade fair sector; consumer goods	environmental protection; energy policy
concrete / abstract information	primarily abstract	abstract and concrete	primarily abstract	primarily abstract
general / semi-technical / technical vocabulary	semi-technical vocabulary, e.g., deutsche Ratspräsidentschaft; Gleichstellungspolitik; Forschungs- und Erhebungsdesign; zivilrechtlicher Schutz; Rechtssetzung; Daphne-Initiative; STOP-Program	semi-technical voca- bulary, e.g., bösartiger Tumor; Früherken- nungsuntersuchung; Problem-Mastopathie; Brustdrüsenveränder- ung; Mikroverkalkungen; Entartungsrisiko; rönt- genologische Brust- untersuchung; Strahlendosis	general, e.g. Aushängeschild; Schneidewaren- und Besteckindustrie; Werkstoffe; Niedriglohnländer; Unternehmensbesteuer- ung	semi-technical, e.g. Energieversorgungs- sicherheit; Braun- und Steinkohle; fossile Energieträger; Erdwärme; Biomasse; Stickoxid; Schwefeldioxid; Energiewende
language functions	informative	informative	informative; performative	informative; performative

Table 7.4 Analysis of Facets of Input in German Texts

7.3 Results

7.3.1 Exam Texts for Consecutive Interpretation

The **length** of the consecutive texts varies between 475 and 2239 words; the end of the material to be used for the exam is clearly marked in four out of six cases. In three out of six cases, there is an original **speaker** designated in the exam material. Similarly, the **venue** where the speech was originally given is indicated in three out of six cases.

The **genre** of the consecutive exam texts varies. One political speech, one press statement, one interview, and two magazine articles are used in these particular sessions. No source is indicated in one instance, and it is not possible to determine the origin of the source language material. In terms of **subject matter**, there is no clear distinction between general and technical topics. The general topics deal with the Euro and cash cards, population growth and the environment, and women's rights. The technical topics are El Niño, environmental protection and urban planning, and breast cancer. Although there are no clear tendencies in terms of **type of information**, the technical texts are perhaps more likely to contain abstract information. There are no clear differences between general and technical **vocabulary** used consistently throughout the exam categories. In terms of **language function**, all texts are primarily informative in nature.

7.3.2 Exam Texts for Simultaneous Interpretation

The **length** of the simultaneous texts varies between 1208 and 4280 words. The end of the exam text material is not marked in any text. The speech was originally delivered by a different **speaker** in six out of eight cases. Similarly, the **venue** was originally a different one than the exam venue in four out of eight cases.

The **genre** of the exam material is the text type "speech" in five out of eight cases. For one exam, the manuscript of a conference paper was used. An article from a magazine and a parliamentary report were used in two other cases. In terms of **subject matter**, there is a clearer distinction between general and technical material than in the consecutive examinations, with the material for simultaneous without text more likely to be on a political

topic and the material for simultaneous with text on a scientific or technical topic. There is, however, no clear distinction between abstract and concrete **information** according to the general, i.e., technical, nature of the texts. Nevertheless, the materials for simultaneous with text are more likely to contain technical, or semi-technical, vocabulary. In all cases, the **language function** of the text is primarily informative; the French text is also persuasive in nature. The German is performative, but in this case as well, the informative function dominates.

7.4 Discussion

7.4.1 Length

In most cases, the amount of text material selected for the examination vastly exceeds the amount required. In one case, approximately 40 minutes of material, assuming a presentation rate of 100 to 120 words per minute, was selected for a 10-minute examination. Since the end of the text material is not clearly marked in many cases, it remains unspecified exactly where the presenter stopped in individual exam sessions within and across language programs. As a result, the information content may have varied considerably from one exam to the next, making the examinations difficult to compare. A salient example of how exam text length can impact student performance is the case of the simultaneous with text examination. In the case mentioned above (Russian program source text), students had 15 minutes to review 4280 words of material. In the Chinese, French, Japanese, and Korean programs, however, students had 15 minutes to review approximately one fourth of this amount, or 1208 words.

Even in cases where the same source material is used, evidence suggests that the exams are fundamentally different in various language programs. Influential factors include how often the speaker pauses, where the speaker pauses, and the presentation rate. A particularly pernicious example is the English language interview used for consecutive general. It is impossible to know how individual language programs adapted the text, i.e., whether the question-and-answer format was maintained, whether the questions were transformed into straight text, or whether the questions were simply skipped altogether and the responses from Jacques Cousteau were adapted and presented as a “speech.”

In addressing the issue of whether English-language exam texts should be selected centrally for use in all language programs, the central factor for consideration is not whether the same source text material leads to greater similarity between exams, but rather whether the facets of input are consistently controlled so that the examination material to be presented in the session exhibits approximately the same level of difficulty regardless of source language.

Currently, the centralized selection process does not guarantee a greater degree of equity and comparability among exams. It seems doubtful, for example, whether all programs covered plasma cholesterol as a topic in the same amount of detail in classes across the language programs. In this case, some students would have been at a disadvantage. All of these factors taken together point to the need for the definition and application of a comprehensive framework of test facets for interpretation.

7.4.2 Propositional Content

The discrepancy between speaker and venue in some examinations leads to fundamental differences in situational factors. In one case, the examinee must project the speech and its content to a different venue and time, in which case inconsistencies in timeline and persona may arise. In the opposite case, the timeline and voice of the speaker are congruent with the examination situation. It is also worth noting that this type of discrepancy in particular would not normally occur in the interpreter's workplace, where timeline and persona of the speaker are congruent. This discrepancy is an example of factors that play a role in situating cognition. Problematic text passages can be edited out of the examination texts; however, when one considers the extensive length of some of the exam texts, it seems unlikely that all texts are consistently edited or otherwise prepared to eliminate possible discrepancies.

Should only text materials that are developed specifically for training purposes be used in the curriculum and examinations in order to avoid such discrepancies? The answer to this question is most likely 'no,' since students need to become familiar with the type of material, the subject matter, terminology, and rhetorical patterns prevalent in the wide range of environments in which the student could later be employed.

Even on the basis of this initial, exploratory analysis, it becomes apparent that differences between general and technical subject matter, abstract and concrete information, and difficulty of terminology are not pronounced when the consecutive general and technical examination materials are compared. Distinctions do emerge in the materials used for simultaneous with and without text, however. In these latter categories, the analysis indicates a greater degree of concrete information content and technical terminology in the text material used for simultaneous with text.

Interestingly, these results seem to be in line with those of the jury member survey concerning differences between the consecutive and simultaneous examinations. Less than half of the survey participants (13 out of 28 respondents) thought that separate examinations in consecutive interpretation covering general and technical subject material were necessary. In contrast, 21 of the 28 respondents believed that separate examinations in simultaneous interpretation without text and with text were merited.

7.4.3 Illocutionary Force

In terms of language function, the examination materials are all very similar. Although the text types range widely, the primary function of the material is to convey information. Even in those cases where additional language functions, i.e., performative or persuasive aspects, can be identified, they do not play a compelling role in determining the nature of the text. It seems that this group of examiners sees informative texts as the most suitable type of material for use in examinations. A review of additional exam materials and texts used in classes could shed light on whether this language function can be regarded as the standard selection in the GSTI course of studies.

7.4.4 Conclusions

As in Part II of the case study, the results of this analysis of text materials do not support the validity and reliability of the numerical scores in the Professional Examinations. This section of the case study provides additional evidence that collapsing these data to nominal categories

was a wise decision for the statistical analysis. Indeed, these results draw attention to the number and range of confounding variables that can make statistical analyses of language interpreting problematic. Improvement of assessment methods is no doubt required before the hypotheses stated in Part I can be explored with greater conclusiveness. This study also shows how reliance on one methodology to study language interpreting may lead to inconclusive results.

It must, however, also be stressed that very few texts were analyzed in this exploratory section. The analysis does show, however, a range of additional factors—the facets of input—that have an impact on the “exam situation” and may serve as a frame of reference for future studies of exam materials.

An analysis of recordings or transcriptions of actual speeches delivered in exams would have been preferable to the analysis of these exam materials. Indeed, more thorough documentation of all facets of examinations is desirable, but this was not possible in this study for a variety of reasons, some of which are mentioned above (see Section 7.2.1). Additional reasons include the fact that there were multiple concurrent exam sessions and that it would have been necessary to make substantial changes to the examination environment to tape or otherwise record the sessions. It is highly probable that such documentation procedures would have been regarded as intrusive, in which case they may not have been welcomed by faculty and students. Such changes in the examination environment would also entail substantial alterations in exam format and thus the perceptions of participants for only one session of the five-year period under review. In turn, such factors have an impact on scoring procedures, which leads to a greater probability of introducing unintended changes in statistical patterns.

8 Curriculum Enhancement

8.1 Implications of the Case Study

8.1.1 Part I: Translation and Interpretation in the GSTI Curriculum

In the introduction to this study, the demand for more highly specialized language professionals was identified as a challenge facing translator and interpreter education programs. At the same time, the 1999 statistical study of the International Association of Conference Interpreters indicates that roughly half (48%) of all members not only interpret but also translate professionally. On the basis of these data alone, there can be little doubt that a degree offering a dual specialization is indeed appropriate in the global marketplace of the language industry.

Nevertheless, the statistical analysis in the case study provides evidence, albeit inconclusive, that the MATI degree track is not optimally designed to achieve the highest level of competence and a comprehensive skill set in interpretation. Despite reservations concerning the nature of assessment, it seems that the MATI track does not prepare students for the Professional Examinations in Interpretation as well as the MACI track. The analysis of GSTI curriculum documents and the discussion of the hidden curriculum in Chapter 3 support this statement.

Should the GSTI curriculum be adjusted? This question can only be answered meaningfully in a broader context, in particular one that takes career tracking into account, as well as whether there is a statistically significant difference between MATI and MAT students in terms of performance in the translation exams. It stands to reason, however, that as a bare minimum, more time is required to consolidate high-level interpretation skills in the MATI degree track. An evaluation of the curriculum from the systems approach would also be a prerequisite. Although evidence was found suggesting that a clearer separation of training in translation and interpretation is warranted in the GSTI model, any decisions to change the design of the curriculum design will necessarily reflect additional factors, such as employment trends in the language industry.

Nevertheless, based upon the discussion of curriculum and assessment in Chapters 3 and 4, and the tentative results of the statistical study, a hypothetical curriculum model is presented in this chapter. An official curriculum, it is intended to be a detailed proposal that can serve as a basis for discussion within GSTI (and elsewhere) and serve as an example of a more efficient, streamlined and flexible model. No doubt, not all aspects can or will be implemented; the systems view of curriculum will determine what is possible in individual areas.

The Y-track structure is maintained to reflect the fundamental convictions expressed in the literature on the foundations of language transfer skills (see Chapter 2). In addition, with the demand for specializations rising in the language industry, it would seem self-evident that a future interpreter does not need to complete a full course of study in translation before beginning to study interpretation. Knowledge of software localization, project management, computer-aided translation tools, and media translation is most likely not a *conditio sine qua non* for a majority of conference interpreters who also translate. A basic knowledge of these skills, however, has become an essential component of any full-fledged Master of Arts degree in translation. From this vantage point, the sequential curriculum model, in which a translation degree must precede interpretation instruction, would appear to have become outdated due to technological innovation.

An additional difference between degree tracks in translation and in interpretation is the extent of specialization necessary in domain-related content. Increasingly, top-notch translators seem to be specializing in narrower subject matter areas. This option places them on a better foundation professionally; it enables them to command higher rates and translate greater volumes of text. Interpreters, however, do not have this luxury; particularly in the freelance market, they must remain generalists who are capable of handling a wide variety of topics. This enhanced Y-track model is intended to enable students to attain higher skill levels in their specialization, either translation or interpretation, but also to ensure skill integration by including a minimum number of translation and interpretation courses in the opposite degree track.

8.1.2 Part II: Standardization, Authenticity, and Professional Judgement

In the introduction to this study, the centrality of assessment in educational programs was a key topic of discussion. The issue at hand is not whether assessment is or has been particularly poor in interpreter education programs, but rather the fact that approximately five decades of theoretical discussion and reflection on the nature of assessment in education and language learning has received little notice among interpreter educators to date. The potential for improvement is thus correspondingly vast.

Indeed, the fact that assessment practices in the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation were not sufficiently valid and reliable and the fact that curriculum and assessment were not highly integrated are perhaps the most compelling reasons why the results of the statistical analysis are not as conclusive as some readers may have hoped. The lack of reliable ordinal data dictated the choice of non-directional statistical procedures.

The curriculum literature states explicitly that the foundations of curriculum are rarely grounded in a single approach, whether scientific, humanistic, managerial, systems, or academic in nature. In the case study of curriculum, it becomes apparent that the choice of a single narrow methodology would fail to do justice to the complex nature of human learning. Indeed, the jury member survey (and analysis of exam materials) brings to the surface of the discussion some of the factors that drive the hidden curriculum. Examples include faculty viewpoints concerning the role, purpose, and importance of exams, attitudes towards fellow faculty, students, and assessment, as well as expectations of students in separate degree tracks and the influence of external examiners. The range of variables dictates a multifaceted, integrated view of assessment and curriculum within a broad educational context, if the discussion is to be persuasive and conclusive. This multiplicity points to the need for both traditional assessment, which attempts to eliminate subjective factors to the greatest extent possible through standardization (test method facets), and alternative assessment instruments, which provide greater range, depth, and authenticity.

What conclusions can be drawn from the survey concerning this community of professional interpreters and educators, particularly in view of the many years of vast experience and the

extraordinary qualifications of the survey participants, which is documented through their background information? Perhaps that in a community of educators who hail from all parts of the globe, considerable effort is required to arrive at a self-concept as a group that is more united by similarities than separated by differences. An effort to look closely at the meaning of “the market” and establish true commonalities and differences is no doubt required. Otherwise, extreme variations in professional judgment, educational philosophy, and perceived purposes of assessment and examinations, whether well-founded or not, will continue to perpetuate themselves. Such random fluctuations cannot serve the purpose of achieving greater exam validity and authenticity. If differences exist, they should be documented, explained, and, if necessary, justified.

In light of the current state of affairs in interpreter assessment, a more holistic approach to assessment would seem advisable. A combination of more highly standardized examinations with clearly elaborated purposes, test facets and assessment criteria would be a starting point. The inclusion of alternative forms of assessment (portfolio) can add depth and range to assessment instruments and foster the more appropriate use of assessment outcomes. Such suggestions are not made lightly; the improvement of existing assessment regimes is labor and time intensive, although it is mandated by the results of the case study. The integration of alternative forms of assessment into the curriculum requires substantial revisions of existing courses and syllabi and would undoubtedly require several years to successfully implement. Professional development among interpreter educators (rater training) would be a prerequisite. These suggestions are made despite these challenges; the potential to accelerate learning and multiply outcomes is too great. The ramifications of failing to move forward in this area are discussed in Section 8.4.

8.1.3 Part III: Exam Materials and Test Method Facets

Given the need to pay greater attention to test method facets in the design of assessment instruments, the sheer number of examinations conducted in GSTI is intimidating. The number of texts that must be selected for an individual exam session totals 12 for the Professional Examinations alone, which must then be doubled to provide for an additional exam session in August, and is in turn complemented by 12 texts for the Qualifying Examinations. The total

number of texts required for Professional and Qualifying Examinations in translation and interpretation before the elimination of sight translation examinations in 1997 totaled 44 per language program. In view of these numbers, the fundamental question is whether this volume of exams is feasible, especially in larger programs, in which hundreds of exams must be scored in the May session alone.

A reduction in the number of examinations would allow more effort to be focused on establishing valid and reliable examination procedures. This preliminary text analysis, coupled with the results of the jury member survey, indicate that the consecutive general and consecutive technical examinations, for example, could well be redundant. Similar analyses could be conducted for the translation examinations. Without a reduction in the number of exams it is also highly unlikely that alternative forms of assessment (portfolio) can be successfully implemented, as faculty are already working at peak capacity.

A number of measures could also be suggested to streamline the examination process and at the same time control test method facets. They can be derived from the application of test method facets to interpretation examinations. Greater uniformity of the test environment, the test rubric, and the facets of input would make examinations more comparable. Examples include clear procedures and texts for briefings; the use of 'canned' input, or videotapes, to standardize the channel of input; the elaboration and application of consistent criteria for text selection; and rater training in jury deliberation procedures and scoring. In addition, the use of videotapes of speeches delivered in the field would also reduce the discrepancy between the original speech and delivery of the speech in the exam (incongruent timeline and persona, as described in the discussion of the text analysis in Chapter 7). The availability of such recordings is of course a prerequisite. At the same time, inclusion of portfolio assessment, in which students gather evidence of their performance in campus conferences and at community events, would serve to heighten the authenticity of assessment and ensure a comprehensive, holistic approach.

8.2 An Integrated Y-Track Model

The following Y-track model is presented as a suggestion for improving GSTI's curriculum. It is an official curriculum par excellence, which can only be refined and implemented in accordance with the process described in Figure 3. Aspects of this model may also be adapted to other curriculum models or used for the implementation of new programs on a contingency basis. The theoretical discussion of curriculum and assessment, as well as the results of the case study, point to the need to develop a clearer statement of the aims and purposes of curriculum, objectives of degree tracks, and descriptions of competence levels. Assessment practices need to be directly integrated into the curriculum, which should reflect *curriculum as process* through effective skill sequencing and *curriculum as interaction* by providing an environment as conducive to learning as possible. Flexibility and streamlining in the curriculum model depend critically upon the definition of content in Curriculum Components and study concentrations in a manner that provides for the timely yet appropriate selection of a specific degree track and a wide variety of specialization options.

The Curriculum Components of the integrated Y-track model are presented as a flow chart in Figures 19 – 22. Tables 8.1 – 8.6 provide an overview of courses on a semester basis, while Tables 8.7 – 8.13 show the sequence of the core curriculum and assessment, i.e. proficiency testing in specific courses and portfolio review. Expertise levels are described for each Curriculum Component in Figure 6.

Curriculum Component I (Figure 19)
Fundamentals of Translation and Interpretation

Duration: normally 1 semester

Student Status: Introductory

Program Entry

Inquiry

Assessment:

Comprehensive testing
 Counseling and Recommendation

Language Enhancement:

listening
 speaking
 reading
 writing

Acceptance

Enrollment

Curriculum Component II

Curriculum Component III

Professional Identity:
 Portfolio Seminar

Transfer Knowledge NL <-> FL

Written Translation
 Sight Translation
 Consecutive Interpretation
 Simultaneous Interpretation

Professional Knowledge:

Text Typology
 Language Resources
 Basic Computer Skills

Language Enhancement:

listening
 speaking
 reading
 writing

Domain Knowledge:

Current Events
 Culture
 Semi-Specialized Texts

Professional Identity:

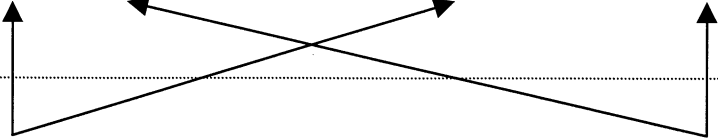
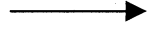
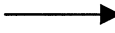
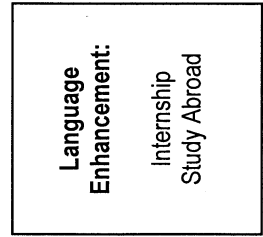
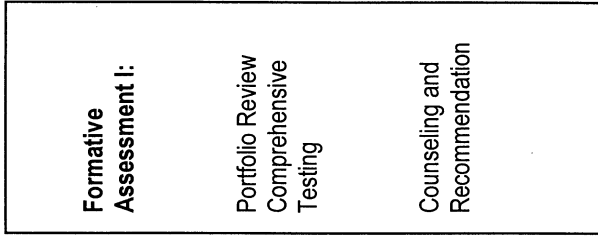
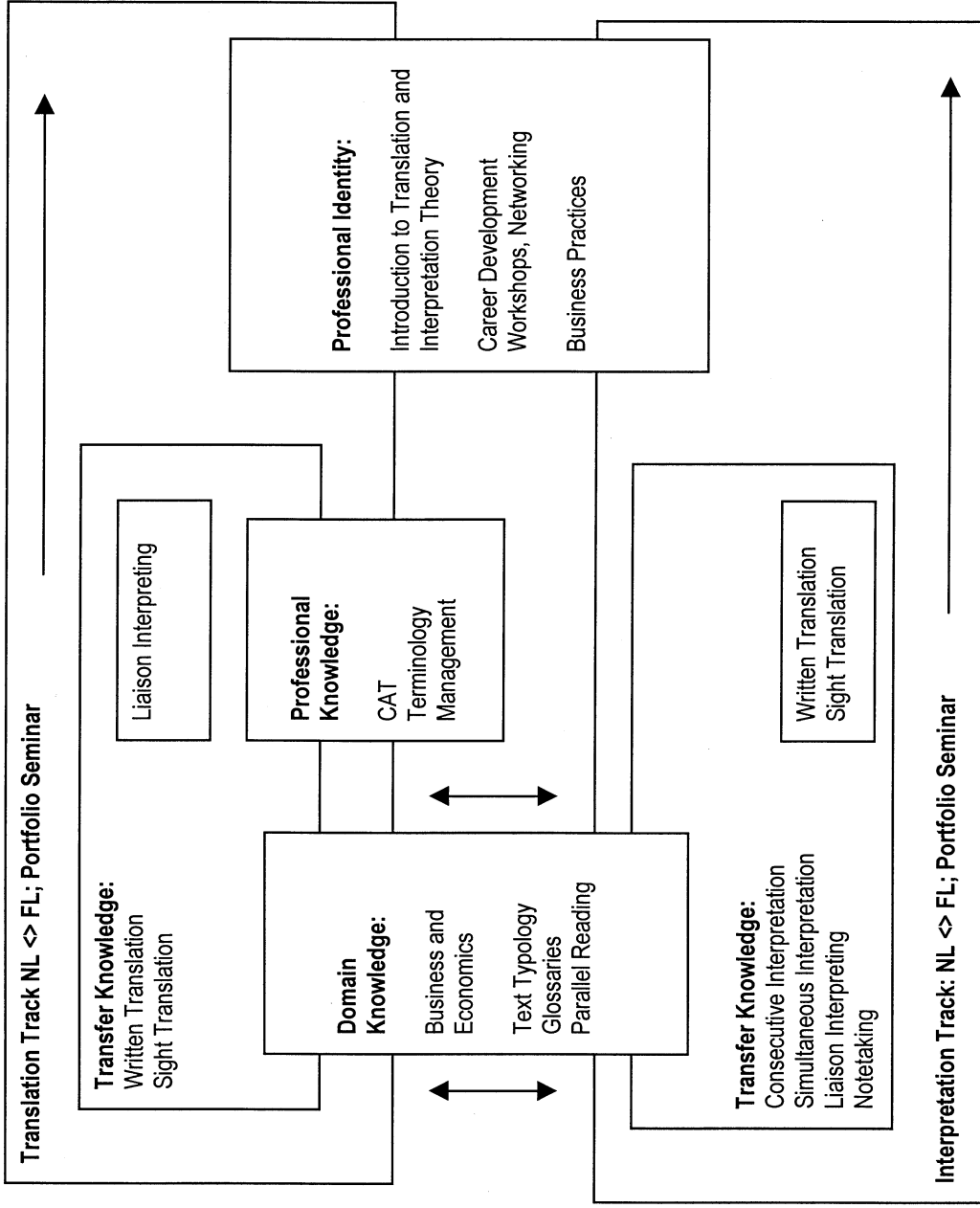
Ethics and Professional Conduct
 Structure of Language Industry

→ **assessment** ←
 action research portfolio

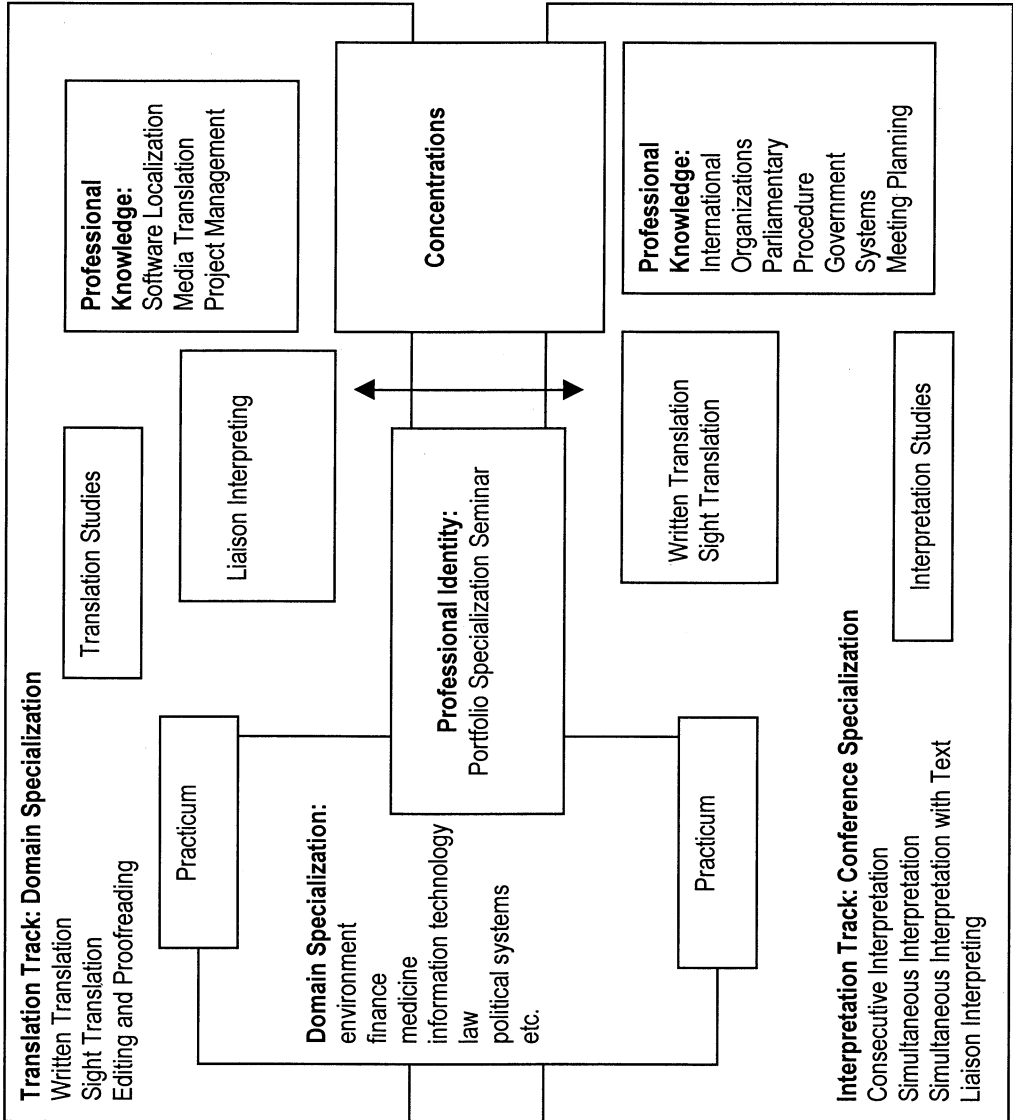
Curriculum Component II – Translation – or – Interpretation (Figure 20)

Duration: normally 1 semester

Student Status: Intermediate



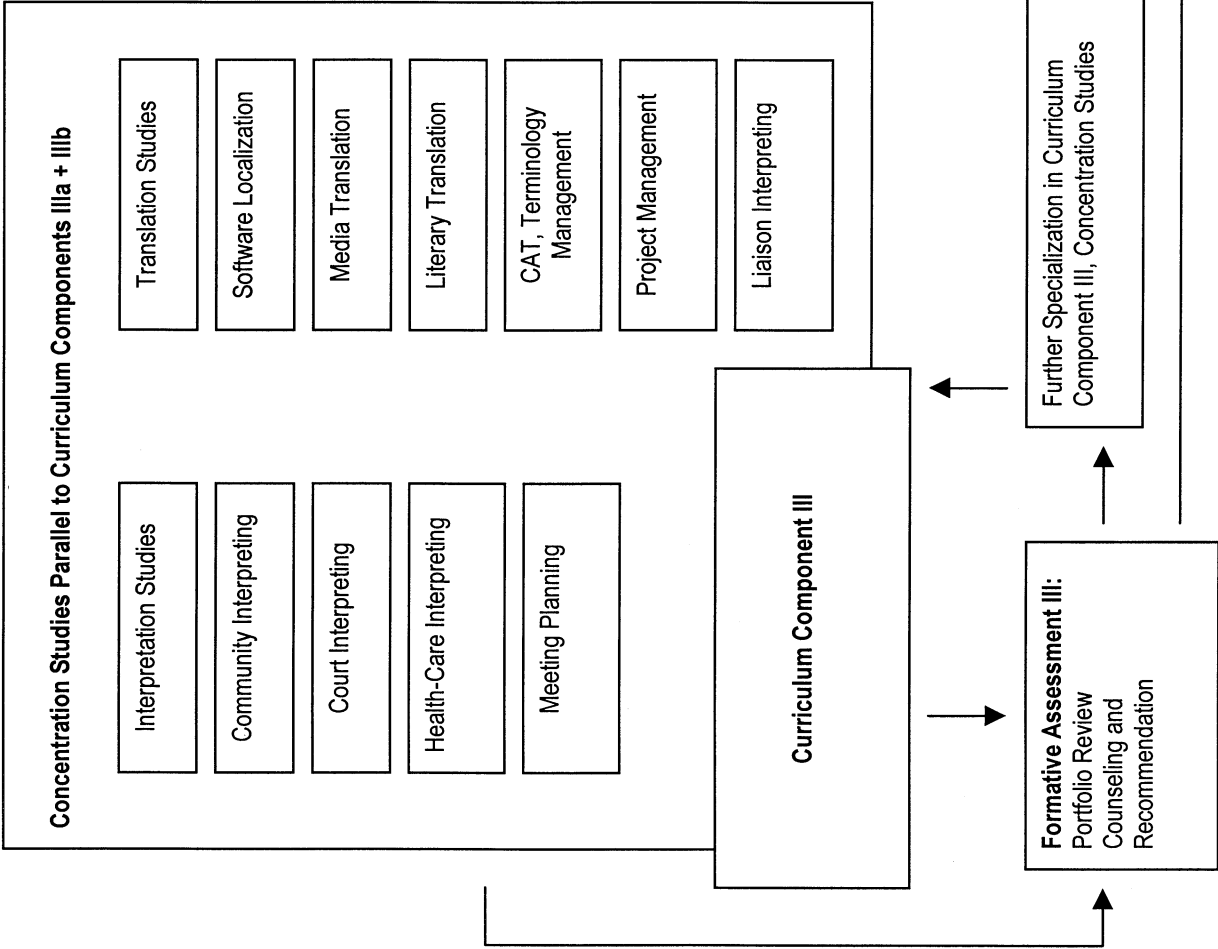
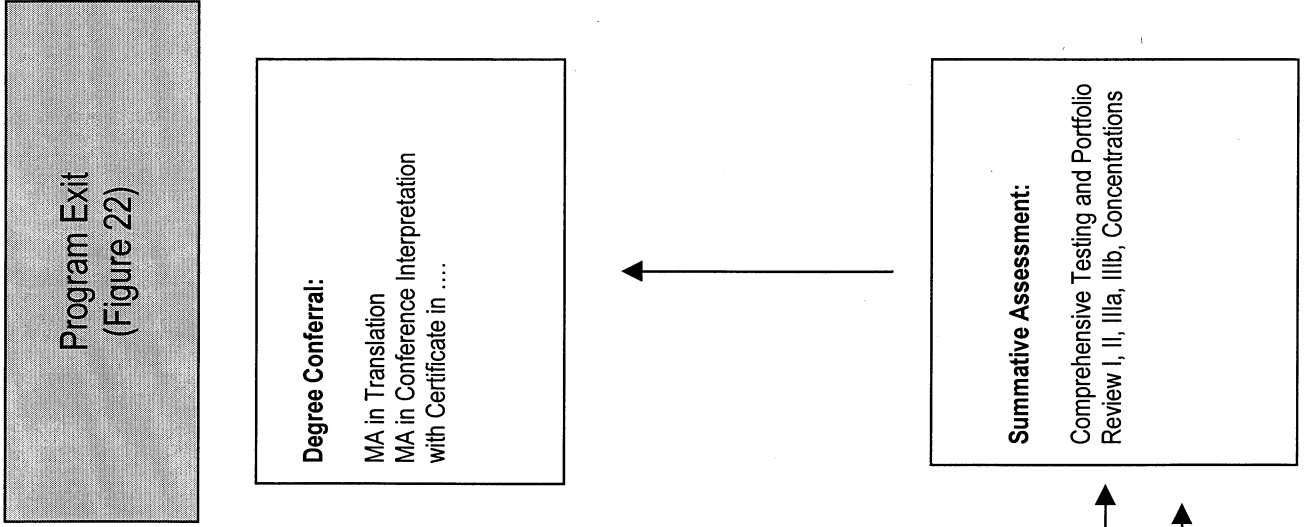
Curriculum Component IIIa + IIIb (Figure 21)
Specialization in Translation or Conference Interpretation
 Duration: normally 2 semesters
 Student Status: Advanced



Formative Assessment III:
 Portfolio Review
 Comprehensive Testing
 Counseling and Recommendation

Language Enhancement:
 Internship
 Study Abroad

→ **assessment** →
 action research portfolio



Curriculum Component I – Fundamentals of Translation and Interpretation

Duration: normally 1 semester

Prerequisites: Entry Assessment

Student Status: Introductory

Two Languages: NL + FL1

Three Languages: NL + FL1 + FL2 or NL + FL2 + FL2

Core Curriculum			
Portfolio Seminar	1	Portfolio Seminar	1
Written Translation NL<>FL1	4	Written Translation NL<>FL1, FL2> NL	6
Sight Translation NL<>FL1	2	Sight Translation NL<>FL1, FL2> NL	3
Consecutive NL<>FL1	2	Consecutive NL<>FL1, FL2> NL	3
Simultaneous FL>NL1	1	Simultaneous NL<>FL1, FL2>NL	2
T&I Professions	1	T&I Professions	1
Total:	11	Total:	16

Expanded Curriculum	
Electives:	5
E.g. written and oral language enhancement, area studies (culture, history, politics)	

Total:	16	Total:	16
--------	----	--------	----

NL = Native Language

FL1 = Foreign Language; active language into which student works in all language transfer modes; future B language

FL2 = Foreign Language; passive language out of which student works in all language transfer modes; future C language

Table 8.1 Course Overview for Curriculum Component I

Curriculum Component II – Translation

Duration: normally 1 semester

Prerequisites: CCI + Formative Assessment I

Student Status: Intermediate

Translation Track:

Two Languages: NL + FL1

Three Languages: NL + FL1 + FL2 or NL + FL2 + FL2

Core Curriculum – Economics and Business			
T&I Theory Portfolio Seminar	1	T&I Theory Portfolio Seminar	1
Written Translation	4	Written Translation	6
Sight Translation	2	Sight Translation	3
Liaison Interpreting	1	Liaison Interpreting	2
Computer-Assisted Translation	1	Computer-Assisted Translation	1
Terminology Management	1	Terminology Management	1
Total:	10	Total:	14
Expanded Curriculum			
Electives	6	Electives:	2
e.g. language enhancement, concentration studies, area studies			
Total:	16	Total:	16

Table 8.2 Course Overview for Curriculum Component II in Translation

Curriculum Component II – Interpretation

Duration: normally 1 semester

Prerequisites: CCI + Formative Assessment I

Student Status: Intermediate

Interpretation Track:

Two Languages: NL + FL1

Three Languages: NL + FL1 + FL2 or NL + FL2 + FL2

Core Curriculum – Economics and Business			
T&I Theory Portfolio Seminar	1	T&I Theory Portfolio Seminar	1
Consecutive Interpretation	4	Consecutive Interpretation	6
Simultaneous Interpretation	4	Simultaneous Interpretation	4 / 6
Liaison Interpreting	1	Liaison Interpreting	1 / 2
Translation	2	Translation	3
Notetaking	1	Notetaking	1
Total	14	Total:	16 / 19

Expanded Curriculum	
Electives	2
E.g. language enhancement, concentration studies, terminology management, area studies	

Total:	16	Total	16
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Table 8.3 Course Overview for Curriculum Component II in Interpretation

Curriculum Component III – Translation Specialization

Duration: normally 2 semesters

Prerequisites: CCII (T -or- I) + Formative Assessment II

Student Status: Advanced

Translation Track: Domain Specialization

MAT-2 (NL + FL1 or NL + FL2):

MAT-3 (NL+FL1+FL2 or NL + FL2 + FL2):

Core Curriculum			
Specialization Portfolio Seminar	2	Specialization Portfolio Seminar	4
Translation of Specialized Texts	4	Translation of Specialized Texts	6
Sight Translation	2	Sight Translation	3
Principles of Editing and Proofreading	1	Principles of Editing and Proofreading	2
Translation Practicum	2	Translation Practicum	2
Software Localization	1	Software Localization	1
Project Management	1	Project Management	1
Translation Studies Seminar	2	Translation Studies Seminar	2
Total:	15	Total:	21

Expanded Curriculum			
Electives	17	Electives	11
E.g. concentration studies, additional specialization seminars, additional translation of specialized texts, additional practicum, media translation, liaison interpreting, area studies			

Total:	32	Total:	32
---------------	-----------	---------------	-----------

Four-semester combinations: **MAT-2 + 2 concentrations (A+A; A+B; A+C)**
 MAT-3 + 1 concentrations (A+A+B; A+B+B;
 A+B+C; A+C+C)

Students may petition for additional language combinations.

Concentrations: 8 units each (some core curriculum courses count toward concentrations);

Translation Studies, Software Localization, Media Translation, Literary Translation, CAT and Terminology Management, Project Management, etc.

Table 8.4 Course Overview for Curriculum Component III in Translation Specialization

Curriculum Component III – Conference Interpretation

Duration: normally 2 semesters

Prerequisites: CCII (T -or- I) + Formative Assessment II

Student Status: Advanced

Degree Candidate Status:

MACI-2
(NL+NL; NL+FL1):

MACI-3
(NL+FL1+FL2 or NL+FL2+FL2):

Core Curriculum			
Specialization Portfolio Seminar	2	Specialization Portfolio Seminar	4
Consecutive Interpretation	4	Consecutive Interpretation	4 / 6
Simultaneous Interpretation	4	Simultaneous Interpretation	4 / 6
Simultaneous with Texts	2	Simultaneous with Texts	2 / 3
Interpretation Practicum	4	Interpretation Practicum	4
Professional Knowledge Seminar	2	Professional Knowledge Seminar	2
Interpretation Studies Seminar	2	Interpretation Studies Seminar	2
Total:	20	Total:	22 / 27

Expanded Curriculum			
Electives:	12	Electives:	10 / 5
E.g. concentration studies, liaison interpreting, court interpreting, written translation, sight translation, notetaking, additional specialization seminars, practicum, area studies			

Total:	32	Total	32
--------	----	-------	----

Four-semester combinations:
MACI-2 + 2 concentrations (A+A; A+B)
MACI-3 + 2 concentrations (A+B+C; A+C+C)

Students may petition for language combinations not listed above.

Concentrations: 8 units each; (some core curriculum courses count toward concentrations);
Interpretation Studies, Community Interpreting, Court Interpreting, Health-Care Interpreting, Meeting Planning, etc.

Table 8.5 Course Overview for Curriculum Component III in Conference Interpretation

Summative Assessment Requirements

(Comprehensive Portfolio Review and Professional Exams):

Completion of CCI, CCII, CCIII for relevant degree track (see below)

Completion of Portfolio Seminar III for each language combination

Completion of all translation and/or interpretation courses in CCIII into the language of study for A and B exams, out of the language of study for C exams

Upon admittance to summative assessment, student is awarded degree candidate status.

Concentration requirements

Completion of required courses (8 units total), to be determined for individual concentrations

Comprehensive Portfolio Review

Completion of MAT or MACI degree

Degree Requirements

Completion of 60 credits.

Core Curriculum Courses may be completed in three semesters for MAT-2.

Core Curriculum Courses may be completed in four semesters in MAT-2, MACI-2, and MACI-3 degrees.

Core Curriculum Courses may be completed in five semesters for MAT-2 + MACI-2

MAT: Curriculum Component I
Curriculum Component II (Translation)
Curriculum Component III (Translation Specialization)
Summative Assessment

MACI: Curriculum Component I
Curriculum Component II (Interpretation)
Curriculum Component III (Conference Interpretation)
Summative Assessment

External applicants may petition for intermediate and advanced candidate status.

Status granted upon successful completion of Formative Assessment I or II, respectively.

Table 8.6 Degree Requirements for the Integrated Y-Track Model

Curriculum Component I – Fundamentals of Translation and Interpretation						
week	Portfolio Seminar					
15	Formative Assessment I – Portfolio Review Academic Counseling and Recommendation					
14	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing		
13						
12						
11						
10						Simultaneous Interpretation
9						
8						
7						
6						
5						
4						
3						
2						Written Translation
1						

Table 8.7 Curriculum Sequence for Curriculum Component I

Curriculum Component II – Translation / Economics and Business									
week	T&I Theory Portfolio Seminar								
15	Formative Assessment II – Portfolio Review Academic Counseling and Recommendation								
14	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing	Computer-Assisted Translation	Electives				
13									
12									
11									
10									
9									
8									
7									
6									
5									
4									
3									
2						Written Translation	Sight Translation	Liaison Interpreting	Terminology Management
1									

Table 8.8 Curriculum Sequence for Curriculum Component II in Translation

Curriculum Component II – Interpretation / Economics and Business						
week	T&I Theory Portfolio Seminar					
15	Formative Assessment II – Portfolio Review Academic Counseling and Recommendation					
14	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing			Proficiency Testing	
13						
12						
11						
10						
9						
8						
7						
6						
5						
4						
3						
2						
1						

Table 8.9 Curriculum Sequence for Curriculum Component II in Interpretation

Curriculum Component IIIa – Translation Specialization												
week	Specialization Portfolio Seminar I											
15	Formative Assessment III – Portfolio Review Academic Counseling and Recommendation											
14	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing										
13												
12												
11												
10												
9												
8												
7												
6												
5												
4												
3							Translation of Specialized Texts I	Sight Translation I + II	Translation Practicum	Principles of Editing and Proofing	Software Localization	Electives
2												
1												

Table 8.10

Curriculum Sequence for Curriculum Component IIIa in Translation Specialization

Curriculum Component IIIb – Translation Specialization						
week	Summative Assessment – Comprehensive Testing and Portfolio Review					
15						
	Specialization Portfolio Seminar II					
14	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing				
13						
12	Translation of Specialized Texts II	Translation of Specialized Texts III	Translation Studies Seminar	Sight Translation III	Project Management	Electives
11						
10						
9						
8						
7						
6						
5						
4						
3						
2						
1						

Table 8.11 Curriculum Sequence for Curriculum Component IIIb in Translation Specialization

Curriculum Component IIIa – Conference Interpretation					
week	Specialization Portfolio Seminar I				
15	Formative Assessment III – Portfolio Review Academic Counseling and Recommendation				
14	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing			
13					
12					
11					
10					
9					
8					
7					
6					
5					
4					
3					
2					
1					

Table 8.12

Curriculum Sequence for Curriculum Component IIIa in Conference Interpretation

Curriculum Component IIIb – Conference Interpretation						
week						
15	Summative Assessment– Comprehensive Testing and Portfolio Review					
14	Specialization Portfolio Seminar II					
13	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing	Proficiency Testing			
12						
11						
10						
9						
8						
7						
6						
5						
4						
3						
2	Consecutive Interpretation II	Simultaneous Interpretation II	Simultaneous with Text	Interpretation Practicum	Interpretation Studies	Electives
1						

Table 8.13 Curriculum Sequence for Curriculum Component IIIb in Conference Interpretation

8.2.1 Aims and Goals of the Curriculum

The central aim of this curriculum is to impart the professional knowledge students require to enter the language industry and succeed as multilingual, multicultural communication specialists. To succeed in the marketplace, practitioners require specialization(s) in translation and/or interpretation in selected areas of subject matter and domain concentration and in a marketable language combination. This model is grounded in an educational philosophy based upon the concepts of *curriculum as process*, i.e., the core course of study is carefully sequenced to streamline skill and knowledge acquisition, and *curriculum as interaction*, i.e., the educational environment is designed to promote incorporation of the student into the professional community through collegial mentoring and reflective practice. This philosophy therefore integrates the scientific and humanistic approaches to curriculum based upon the foundations of educational philosophy (Dewey, constructivism, reflective practice) and psychology (instructional design, skill sequencing, principles of expertise).

The aims of this Y-track model reflect the need for greater competence in both interpretation and translation. The two degree tracks—in translation and in interpretation—are designed so that it is possible to concentrate primarily on one area of study. At the same time, moderate translation and interpretation requirements are maintained in the opposite degree track throughout the curriculum, so that graduates have a skill foundation in both domains. This model also provides opportunities to develop specializations in selected areas of concentration, be it legal interpreting, software localization, project management, or scholarly research in Translation and Interpretation Studies. Greater flexibility is introduced in the sequencing of curriculum components and language combinations without sacrificing strict sequencing in skill and knowledge acquisition in the core curriculum. Details in this area are discussed below under 8.2.5. Finally, the heightened role of technology in the language industry is reflected in the incorporation of computer skills, terminology management and CAT tools, media translation and software localization into the curriculum. Domain specializations in interpretation are possible through concentrations in meeting planning and legal, health-care, and community interpreting. The aims and goals of the curriculum for the Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation are outlined below.

Aims of the Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation

Summative assessment through portfolio review:

- ability to conduct oneself as a well-educated professional in the field, despite limited professional experience, e.g., interaction with colleagues and clients, contract negotiations, job interviews, awareness of ethical business practices
- ability to perform successfully as a team member under the guidance of senior interpreters at conferences on the freelance market
- ability to pass relevant tests in organizations hiring freelance or staff interpreters in the relevant language combination, e.g., European Union, United Nations, government ministries, and other public sector institutions and agencies
- ability to work in selected areas of study concentration, e.g., legal interpreting, meeting planning, media translation, software localization, etc.; ability to pursue scholarly research, if desired

Proficiency testing, open to the public, including potential employers and members of relevant professional associations:

- consecutive interpretation of a ten-minute text on a topic of moderate difficulty, i.e., representative material from the private market, an international organization, government agency or institution
- simultaneous interpretation of a 15-minute text on a topic of moderate difficulty
- simultaneous interpretation of a 15-minute specialized text, with 15 minutes of preparation time and access to relevant resources (dictionaries, parallel reading)
- establishment of professional language ranking, in consultation with results of summative portfolio assessment

Goals for CCIII in Interpretation

Preparation for summative portfolio and proficiency testing; entry into the profession

Portfolio review by program faculty:

- demonstrate ability to perform as an interpreter in professional settings, e.g., effective use of time and resources for conference preparation, logistics and workload management, coordination and cooperation with colleagues, effective and constructive self-assessment of performance, ability to provide constructive peer feedback when required or solicited
- demonstrate exposure to a wide range of topics covered in the private and institutional markets in the respective language combination(s)
- demonstrate professional knowledge of international organizations and parliamentary procedure (rules of order), government systems, meeting planning
- demonstrate knowledge and skills in selected areas of concentration, e.g., courts, meeting planning, community interpreting
- demonstrate knowledge in a selected area of Interpretation Studies through fulfillment of a paper requirement

Proficiency testing in courses:

- consecutive interpretation of a ten-minute text on a topic of moderate difficulty, i.e., representative material from the private market, an international organization, government agency or institution
- simultaneous interpretation of a 15-minute text on a topic of moderate difficulty
- simultaneous interpretation of a 15-minute specialized text, with 15-minutes of preparation time and access to relevant resources (dictionaries, parallel reading)
- written translation of a 500 word text in a domain of specialization
- sight translation of a 200 word text in a domain of specialization

Goals for CCII in Interpretation

Finalization or revision of degree track decision and language combination; consideration of target market and corresponding concentrations of study

Portfolio review by program faculty:

- demonstrate ability to interpret material of moderate difficulty on business-related or otherwise general topics in all three modes of interpretation (consecutive, simultaneous, liaison)
- demonstrate proficiency in written and sight translation of business and economic topics
- acquire fundamentals of notetaking for consecutive interpretation
- acquire a basic understanding of business and economics, and related text types and terminology
- acquire basic knowledge of terminology management
- demonstrate basic familiarity with Translation and Interpretation Studies, including research topics, methodology, and relationship to professional practice, through fulfillment of a paper requirement
- acquire basic knowledge of business practices relevant to interpretation, e.g., resume writing, greater exposure to the interpreter's workplace

Proficiency testing in courses:

- consecutive interpretation of a five-minute text on a business-related or general topic
- simultaneous interpretation of a ten-minute text on a business-related or general topic
- liaison interpreting for a period of ten minutes on a business-related or general topic
- written translation of a 300-word text on a topic from business or economics
- sight translation of a 150 word text on a topic from business or economics

Goals for CCI

Decision on Curriculum Component to pursue the following semester: translation or interpretation

Portfolio review by program faculty:

- demonstrate aptitude to produce both spoken and written semi-specialized texts proficiently in the native and foreign language(s), e.g., media and press materials; texts on culture, history, political systems; general texts of future specialization areas, e.g., business and finance, law, information technology, medicine, environment, etc...
- demonstrate aptitude in interpretation
- demonstrate aptitude in translation
- demonstrate knowledge of text types
- demonstrate knowledge and use of language resources, e.g., dictionaries, parallel reading, reference works, world wide web, basic computer skills
- demonstrate basic professional knowledge of the language industry, e.g., ethics and professional conduct, structure of the language industry and related job opportunities

Proficiency testing in courses:

- pass proficiency tests: in written and sight translation, consecutive and simultaneous interpretation
- consecutive interpretation of a three-minute speech on a general topic, e.g., a current events topic
- simultaneous interpretation of a five-minute speech on a general topic
- written translation of a semi-specialized 250 word text
- sight translation of a 100 word text on a general topic

Entry Level Requirements

In addition to administrative and other general educational requirements, e.g., Bachelor of Arts, TOEFL scores, etc.:

- language proficiency equivalent to Native Educated Proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing for study in native language (NL); Full Functional Proficiency in listening, speaking, reading, and writing for first foreign languages (FL1, future "B" language); Full Functional Proficiency in listening and reading and General Functional Proficiency in speaking and writing for second foreign language (FL2, future "C" language). Admittance possible with General Functional Proficiency in FL1 and FL2 with mandatory language enhancement and review in areas requiring Full Functional Proficiency during CCI and CCII. See Tables 1 – 4 in the ASTM Standard Guide for Use-Oriented Foreign Language Instruction in Appendix 10.10.
- demonstration of a general awareness of career options in the language industry
- demonstration of interest and motivation to pursue and reach the aims and goals laid out in the curriculum

8.2.2 Integrated Assessment

The Y-track model is designed to integrate formative and ipsative assessment into each Curriculum Component and concludes the course of study with a summative assessment regime. Through a combination of traditional and alternative methodologies, i.e., portfolios coupled with proficiency testing, assessment is both comprehensive and holistic. Portfolio seminars are adopted as a vehicle for both the delivery of instruction and the implementation of an instrument for summative, formative and ipsative assessment. Proficiency testing is conducted in relevant translation and interpretation courses at the end of each Curriculum Component. The results of proficiency testing in courses are discussed in the portfolio seminars and integrated into the portfolios. During the formative assessment sessions at the end of each Curriculum Component (Formative Assessment I, II, and III), the student's work is reviewed to determine whether the student has met the goals of the relevant Curriculum Component. He/she is then given a faculty recommendation to aid in making a decision on how to proceed in his/her course of studies. In addition, proficiency testing is conducted as part of the summative assessment regime at the end of the curriculum. In this session, the results of the proficiency tests and portfolio review are used to ascertain fulfillment of degree requirements, a language ranking, and the completion of concentrations. The summative portfolio in CCIII incorporates a thesis requirement. Four areas are reviewed in all assessment stages: language skills, translation and interpretation skills, the integration of domain, or subject matter, knowledge, and knowledge of the profession. See Figure 23 for a criterion-based assessment rubric for pass-fail proficiency testing in all curriculum components. This scale may also be expanded to include additional levels.

8.2.3 Curriculum as Process

The integrated Y-track model implements the concept of *curriculum as process*, i.e., the careful sequencing of knowledge and skill building, through the progressive completion of individual Curriculum Components. The goals of each component are described in the previous section. Individual learning objectives are then to be defined in syllabi on the course level. Courses devoted to the development of translation and interpretation skills, professional knowledge and identity, and domain specializations are offered within the core curriculum. This component is

Assessment Constructs

The examinee should demonstrate his/her ability to

- interpret with faithfulness to the meaning and intent of the original;
- interpret in a manner linguistically appropriate to a given communicative situation;
- apply world knowledge and knowledge of subject matter;
- perform with resilience under stress and demonstrate acceptable platform skills.

Assessment Criteria

Criteria fall into three main categories:

- meaning, e.g. accuracy, omissions, overall coherence;
- language use, e.g. grammar, expression, word choice, terminology, accent and diction;
- and presentation, e.g. pace, voice, non-verbal communication such as posture, eye contact and appropriate gestures.

Scoring Rubric

High Pass

outstanding work: extreme accuracy in meaning, superior command of language, and highly polished presentation

Pass

acceptable work: the interpretation is accurate; language use is appropriate; presentation is convincing; subtle shifts in nuance, minor slips in language use, slightly flawed presentation, or inconsequential combinations thereof possible

Fail

unacceptable work; the interpretation does not render the original accurately and convincingly due to any of the following:

meaning has been altered, e.g., failure to convey information or distortion of information;

language use is incorrect, e.g., faulty grammar, incorrect word choice or terminology, thick accent;

presentation is poor and undermines credibility, e.g., long pauses, slow pace, lack of eye contact, inappropriate non-verbal communication, or extremely shaky or inaudible voice

Fig. 23 Criterion-based Assessment Rubric for Proficiency Testing

complemented by an expanded curriculum, which provides a vehicle for language enhancement, area studies, additional courses in translation, and content courses in individual concentrations. A breakdown of courses for each Curriculum Component is given in Tables 8.1 to 8.6. Course sequencing is shown in Tables 8.7 to 8.13.

Curriculum Component I is devoted to developing skills and abilities in both spoken and written language mediation before the decision is made to pursue either the translation or interpretation degree track. Even though a clear distinction between translation and interpretation is made in Curriculum Component II, students continue to fulfill translation (or interpretation) requirements in the interpretation (or translation) degree track. Due to the flexibility and concurrent streamlining of the curriculum model, students have the option of switching degree tracks even after the second semester and completing the requirements for a Master of Arts degree within four semesters. Examples of the flexibility of the curriculum are given in Section 8.2.5.

In terms of subject matter, Curriculum Component I provides broad exposure to a variety of domains and text types in both translation and interpretation on a semi-technical level. Curriculum Component II introduces students to translation or interpretation in a specific subject matter area: business and economics. This is an appropriate domain through which students can be introduced to approaches and strategies for acquiring a subject matter specialization, as a solid foundation in business and economics is required in almost all areas of the language industry, i.e., both the institutional and private markets for interpretation.

Curriculum Component III gives students the opportunity to select an individual area of specialization, which is to be developed in a portfolio seminar. Examples include finance, the environment, telecommunications, medicine, and law, but no restrictions on areas of specialization apply. Rather, through the portfolio seminar, students have the possibility of defining their own areas of specialization based upon demonstrable needs in the language industry. In translation and interpretation courses for specialized texts, areas that faculty consider mandatory in a given language combination are covered.

In Curriculum Component III, students also have sufficient time and credits to build study concentrations and develop complementary skill sets. Through careful planning in career

development and portfolio review, complementary areas can be selected that add both range and depth to a student's professional qualifications. Examples are cited in Section 8.2.5. In addition, concentrations and specializations allow students to prepare themselves more thoroughly for specific areas of the language industry and demonstrate to employers that they have initial exposure in desired areas.

8.2.4 Curriculum as Interaction

The integrated Y-track model implements the concept of *curriculum as interaction* by providing an educational environment that fosters mentoring relationships and integration into the professional community. At the same time, instruction is delivered in formats that situate cognition and learning and foster reflective practice, in particular through a process-oriented portfolio approach based upon principles of action research. Instructional formats include portfolio seminars, practicum, translation and interpretation classes (introductory, intermediate and advanced) and seminars, workshops, and lectures devoted to developing professional knowledge and identity.

Instructional content and assessment are integrated across all courses within each Curriculum Component through a portfolio seminar. The compilation and review of a comprehensive portfolio is based upon a constructivist approach to learning in which students pursue self-defined goals through reflective practice. The portfolio seminar also fosters a collaborative relationship between faculty and students in the form of a cognitive apprenticeship. Learning experiences gained in the interpretation classroom and the practicum are thus coordinated, focused, and leveraged in pursuit of the curricular goals.

8.2.5 Flexibility and Streamlining

The integrated Y-track model is designed to provide both flexibility and streamlining in the curriculum. A rolling curriculum model allows students to enter in either the fall or spring semester. Based upon the results of the entry-level assessment, they may also enter directly in

Curriculum Component II or Curriculum Component III. Students with this type of advanced entry status can complete a minimum of 30 credits and the corresponding degree requirements and graduate within two to three semesters.

Greater flexibility is introduced in language combinations, specializations, and concentrations. Possible combinations include, for example,

- a Master of Arts in Translation in Spanish (A) and English (B) with concentrations in legal and health-care interpreting;
- a Master of Arts in Translation in English (A), French (C), and Spanish (C) with concentrations in project management and media translation;
- a Master of Arts in Translation with English (A) and Chinese (C) with concentrations in translation studies, CAT tools and software localization;
- a Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation in German (A) and English (B) with a concentration in software localization;
- a Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation with English (A), Russian (C), and French (C) with a concentration in meeting planning;
- a Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation with Japanese (A) and English (B) with a concentration in Interpretation Studies;
- a Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation with English (A) and Korean (B) with concentrations in health-care interpreting and media translation.

Component sequencing is also designed to be flexible. Examples include the following:

- CCI + CCII (Translation) + CCIII (Translation) + CCIII (Translation) → MAT in three languages with one concentration;
- CCI + CCII (Translation) + CCIII (Translation) + CCIII (Translation) → MAT in two languages with two concentrations;
- CCI + CCII (Translation) + CCII (Interpretation) + CCIII (Interpretation) → MACI in two languages;
- CCI + CCII (Interpretation) + CCIII (Interpretation) + CCIII (Interpretation) → MACI in three languages with one concentration;
- advanced entry: CCII (Translation) + CCIII (Translation) → MAT in two languages with one concentration;
- advanced entry: CCIII (Translation) + CCIII (Translation) + CCIII (Translation) in three languages with three concentrations;
- advanced entry: CCII (Translation) + CCII (Interpretation) + CCIII (Interpretation) → MACI in three languages.

Students and graduates also have the option of adding additional languages and concentrations at any time. Both Master of Arts degrees could also be earned within five to six semesters of study. Through academic advising, guidance is provided on the feasibility of goals in such cases.

Special features of this integrated Y-track model include the fact that instruction in both translation and interpretation is provided to some extent in each degree track throughout the curriculum. Curriculum Component I is designed to focus specifically on language transfer processes without favoring either translation or interpretation. Simultaneous is introduced earlier in the curriculum in order to facilitate decision-making when choosing specific language combinations and degree tracks. Notetaking is taught in a separate course in the second semester. The role of sight translation is enhanced throughout the curriculum. Liaison interpreting is clearly defined and distinguished from consecutive interpretation. Finally, there is greater focus on the development of professional knowledge and a professional identity as a translator and/or interpreter.

8.3 Steps Toward Effective Curriculum Design

This section describes steps to be taken to enhance curriculum design in interpreter education programs. They are based upon the discussion of curriculum in Chapter 3 and the results of the case study. They address in turn the *processes* inherent to the curriculum, *interaction* among participants within the curriculum, the relationship between curriculum and assessment, and finally validation as a source of evidence on the efficiency of the curriculum model.

- 1) Develop explicit statements on educational philosophy and on the aims and goals of instruction.
- 2) 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.
- 3) Design instructional delivery formats that integrate all types of assessment (ipsative, formative, summative, traditional and alternative).
- 4) Gather evidence on the performance of the curriculum model and on the validity and reliability of assessment practices.

8.4 Steps Toward Valid and Reliable Assessment

WYTIWYG – What You Test is What You Get

In this section, steps aimed at improving assessment procedures are presented. They are based upon the discussion in Chapter 4 and the results of the case study. These sequential steps also tie assessment back into the broader framework of curriculum design elaborated in the chapters on curriculum. Thus, these activities foster the integration of curriculum and the assessment of learning outcomes (expertise) through validation. Although these steps are in a logical progression aimed at initiating and refining an ongoing process of validation, they are intended to be general recommendations and need not necessarily be pursued in this order. Some researchers may wish to narrow their focus considerably; individual programs may be faced with challenges in one particular area as opposed to others. Collaboration with assessment specialists is highly advisable throughout this process.

- 1) Relate examinations to curriculum objectives and other forms of assessment, e.g., entry-level, intermediate, and final testing, as well as summative, formative and ipsative assessment.
- 2) Document exam procedures currently in place. This includes a description of the testing procedures, the collection and filing of all test materials, i.e., examination texts (videotapes of source speeches and student performances), recording of jury deliberations, and resulting grade.
- 3) Elaborate test method facets (aspects of environment, test rubric, input and response) specific to interpretation and the needs of the training program.
- 4) Collect a representative pool of exam texts for faculty and student reference and an analysis of text features grounded in linguistics. This process should result in a description of prototypical exam texts.
- 5) Collect representative performances for faculty and student reference, as well as rater training, e.g., videotapes of exam sessions and documentation of the corresponding assessment.

- 6) Define constructs for assessment according to domain, criteria and standards, as well as level of expertise.
- 7) Define assessment criteria for each of these constructs. Criteria should be elaborated in terms of observable performance and include a clear description of the performance characteristics on each level of assessment (grade).
- 8) Train raters (jury members) in exam design, jury procedures and the systematic application of assessment criteria.
- 9) Explore alternative methods of assessment, e.g., portfolio, and benefits of their use in the program of instruction.

8.5 On the Political and Ethical Consequences of Exam Validation

But if measurement is science and the use of measurements is applied (political) science, the justification and defense of measurement and its validity is and may always be a rhetorical art.

(Messick, 1988, p. 43)

In any assessment situation, it can be assumed that assessors strive to prevent false outcomes on all levels. The ramifications of false outcomes are complex, for we know from test theory that there are not two, but rather four possible outcomes in any testing scenario: the true master¹ and the true non-master, as well as the false master and the false non-master (Gipps, 1994; Nitko, 1980; Shepard, 1980). Similarly, in predictor tests, the American Psychological Association distinguishes between a “false positive—selecting someone who will subsequently fail” and a “false negative—not selecting people who would have succeeded” (Standards, 1985, p. 11). Although there are personal and institutional ramifications when true mastery and in particular true non-mastery are established, it is false (non-) mastery that is of

¹ A master in this context is not a master as defined in the context of the cognitive psychology of expertise, but rather in the sense having attained mastery of the constructs defined in education and learning.

primary interest in this discussion. The consequences for the student as false non-master are grave in the case of final testing: the unjust repetition of an examination, or, even worse, perhaps the unjustified exclusion from a profession in which the student has made considerable financial and emotional investments. Beyond the level of the individual, false masters and false non-masters reflect poorly on the credibility of the educational institution. False masters also have the potential to inflict harm on the credibility of the profession.

False outcomes in interpretation assessment also draw attention to a particularly thorny issue: the gray area around cutoff points, or in other words, the exact criteria for a 'pass' as opposed to a 'fail' in a given examination. Even when criteria appear to be similar within programs, or there is little disagreement among colleagues attending the same examinations, it cannot be assumed that there is agreement across language programs much less across schools. Opinions may diverge even in the evaluation of appropriate examination materials. Lack of clarity and consensus has a negative impact on the social consequences of test use.²

Shepard also points to the necessity of having a clearly defined model of what constitutes a minimally acceptable performance, stipulating that the area where masters and non-masters are indistinguishable is where a cutoff point can be set (1980). The widespread criteria "not more than x number of meaning errors" is simplistic and fails to do justice to the complex skill set required for high quality interpretation. Such criteria are often confounded by poor word choice (resulting in a shift in meaning?), a strong accent or shaky platform skills, or combinations thereof. Yet a cutoff point needs to be determined and applied consistently from one assessment to the next. Even in juries where there is usually unanimity as to whether an exam performance is passing or failing, these criteria must be made explicit to test takers. This transparency requires the clear definition of constructs and test standardization to the greatest extent possible, as outlined above.

This task, which cannot be meaningfully accomplished by one researcher or within one program of instruction alone (Cokely, 1984, p. 146), falls squarely on the educational institutions that train interpreters. As Arjona remarked fifteen years before this writing,

² For an extended discussion of the consequential basis of test use, see Messick, 1989, pp. 84-92.

[I]f professional education is the vehicle for such a better way, then it behooves educators in our field to identify the criteria that differentiate it as a mode of entry and as a standard-setting mechanism in the profession. Educational programs must prove both worthwhile and meaningful. In addition, testing of student performance must, of necessity, be more comprehensive within the educational framework than testing of performance within the job market. (1984b, pp. 116-117)

Arjona's insistence on the comprehensive framework of assessment in the educational setting draws attention once again to the need to integrate curriculum and assessment, i.e., the determination of whether educational objectives have been met through the valid and reliable demonstration of defined levels of expertise. Administrators of interpreter tests in the job market inevitably turn to educational institutions, i.e., centers of research and teaching, for guidance in assessment. For this reason, schools of translation and interpretation, which set standards in the language industry, need to devote considerable time, energy and resources to the development of valid and reliable assessment practices and thus emerge as genuine leaders in this arena.

In the introduction to this study, I forward the statement that schools of translation and interpretation have led an existence in the shadows of academe since their inception. The emergence of a solid pedagogical foundation based upon educational theory would serve interpreter education and the profession well in the quest for greater respect and understanding. More attention and care as to how assessment and testing are conducted seems one obvious place to begin. Areas that benefit from the advantages of sound assessment practices are outlined by Gipps (1994, p. 174) and include the following:

Curriculum fidelity "implies that the construct, domain or curriculum is well specified and there is a broad coverage of the curriculum (if not of each domain) in the assessment" (Gipps, 1994, p. 174). This concept is also termed curricular or instructional validity (Linn, 1983). It refers to the usefulness of the curriculum offering as a means to reach curriculum objectives and the usefulness of assessment procedures to determine whether these objectives have been met.

Comparability "is achieved through *consistency of approach* to the assessment by teachers; a *common understanding of assessment criteria*; and that performance is evaluated fairly, this is, according to the same rubric by all markers [assessors]" (Gipps, 1994, p. 174). It seems

reasonable to argue that examinations need to be comparable within language programs, across language programs, and from one institute to the next. The degree of differences between subdomains and how these differences should be reflected in curriculum design and assessment is an open question.

Dependability of examinations, their usefulness and meaning, “emerges from evidence of curriculum fidelity, consistency and comparability” (Gipps, 1994, p. 174). The APA standard 1.1 states that “[e]vidence of validity should be presented for the major types of inferences for which the use of a test is recommended. A rationale should be provided to support the particular mix of evidence presented for the intended uses” (*Standards*, 1985, p. 13).

Public credibility is a benefit of dependability. Credibility also implies the necessity of making the role of professional judgment and how it relates to examination procedures (test method facets) transparent to all participants. Problems associated with test use may also originate in the failure to achieve this goal vis-à-vis test takers and external parties.

Context description “requires that detailed information about context be available so that we may make informed judgments about transferability” (Gipps, 1994, p. 174). This information can be delineated in statements of exam policy and procedure as well as curriculum documents. Transferability in the context of interpreter assessment implies clear standards, criteria for assessment, and guidelines for use of test results. Issues to be addressed include the need for a language rating and domain specification on diploma and certificates.

Finally, **equity** “requires that a range of indicators be used in an assessment programme to offer [students] multiple opportunities to achieve” (Gipps, 1994, p. 174). This implies rigor in decision-making, but also consultation with the student in this process, and the ability to make decisions that may also be against the wishes of the student but in the long-term interest of the student.

Stronger integration of curriculum and the assessment of expertise contribute to the attainment of these benefits, thus enhancing the stature of interpreter education programs. Empirical studies based on exam score data, such as this one, serve this purpose. This line of argumentation leads once again to the topic of the quality of exam scores as data.

Test validity must be a given, of course, to ensure research study validity, both in terms of the internal logic and external meaningfulness of a study. As straightforward as this statement may seem, the verification of test validity is rarely carried out in interpreter education programs. Perhaps this has been due to the high degree of skill proceduralization among interpreters, which results in an intuitive approach to problem-solving and related task organization.

Although Shlesinger speculates that training centers most likely “internalize shared notions of quality” and “inculcate similar norms,” it remains doubtful in this reviewer’s mind as well whether these norms are more precisely defined in the minds of assessors than a “fairly clear shared sense of ‘good,’ ‘not-so-good,’ and ‘bad’” (1997, p. 124). The research presented in this case study provides some evidence that Shlesinger’s assessment may be fairly accurate. Without the application of test specifications (Bachman, 1990b), questions as to the extent of validity and reliability will cast a shadow upon research results explicated from exam score data. This is not, however, a reason to discontinue such research. Rather, this research is a means to a greater end as part of a circular process.

One study is therefore a (re-)beginning in the effort to gather evidence, as validation is by definition a never-ending process, an endeavor that is omnipresent in the work of dedicated instructors in well-designed programs of instruction.

The need for constant revision of objectives is as inherent in a well-designed educational system as is the initial need for defining them. There is a sustained process of clarifying goals, working toward them, evaluating progress, reexamining the objectives, modifying instructional procedures, and clarifying the objectives in light of evaluated experience. (Glaser & Nitko, 1971, p. 633)

Even finely tuned programs must continue to innovate. As Messick describes,

over time, the existing validity evidence becomes enhanced (or contravened) by new findings, and projections of potential social consequences of testing become transformed by evidence of actual consequences and by changing social conditions. Inevitably, then, validity is an evolving property and validation is a continuing process. (1989, p. 13)

Validation requires a collaborative research effort in the collection of evidence—“both data, or facts, and the rationale or arguments that cement those facts into a justification of test-score inferences” (p. 15-16). In determining what the inferences should be, we must keep Gipps’

questions in mind: “what is the assessment for?” and “what kind of learning do we wish to achieve?” (1994, p. 3). Answers to these questions can serve as guidelines in the elaboration of educational philosophy and the aims of the curriculum.

Given the lack of empirical research on testing in interpretation, additional exploratory research is required at this stage. In the meantime, it is vital that researchers strive to thoroughly account for those factors affecting validity so that, as a minimum, clarity about the characteristics of testing in language interpreting emerges in the future. This is in the interest of fairness to students of language interpreting, who, ultimately, should feel that examinations are a rite of passage through which they gain admittance to a fascinating, rewarding profession, rather than an intimidating, arbitrary, academic exercise that subjects them to the whims of evaluators. Indeed, final testing is a key step in the process of enculturation into the community of professional interpreters. Sound education is based upon sound assessment practices, which in turn entails an ongoing process of validation. And if validation is a rhetorical art, it is one at which the community of interpreter educators should excel.

8.6 Outlook

In the introduction to this volume, I state my viewpoint that the IS literature on pedagogy is in an exploratory stage and that curriculum and assessment are not highly integrated in interpreter education programs. This study has provided some evidence that this is the case in the GSTI curriculum, and further research is no doubt required. The potential in this area is vast, and I have made suggestions in this regard in the conclusions to the individual sections of the case study. They pertain to program evaluation (curriculum), translation and interpretation competence (interaction, role of sight translation, cognitive processes), and assessment practices (expertise and rater training, documentation, test method facets, text analysis).

Concurrently, it is my hope that the implementation of the steps outlined above in numerous schools of translation and interpretation will lead to the development of extensive curriculum documents and comparable assessment procedures that create a scientific basis for the exchange of information among programs. Greater attention to examination procedures is warranted. As I hope to have convincingly demonstrated, without a research program with

exam validation as its objective, the usefulness of any training program is open to question. Indeed, its successes and failures are not measurable. Therefore, its costs may not be justifiable. And it may even be indefensible from both an ethical and legal standpoint.

Due to the well-known and often-stated complexity of variables at play in language interpreting, research in this area will no doubt remain particularly challenging. In terms of methodology, I believe this case study demonstrates, in the words of García-Landa, that in “each drop of social life we find the whole ocean” (1995, p. 398). There can be little doubt that researchers require diverse, complementary methodologies in IS. The use of multiple approaches in the case study, i.e., the quantitative approach in the statistical study complemented by qualitative methodologies in the jury member survey and analysis of exam materials, illustrates the value of examining language interpreting from multiple vantage points.

It is imperative that members of our profession find the time to delve into the fundamental question of how curriculum and assessment can be enhanced, despite the pull of professional practice. For, as Arjona remarks:

Colleges and universities that offer professional programs must ensure that the training they offer does, in fact, distinguish the academically trained practitioner by a level of performance and professionalism that attests to the existence of a body of knowledge, a basic set of techniques, and deontological principles that ensure appropriate professional standards for the field. (1984b, 117)

After all, over the last forty years, the education of interpreters and the scholarly study of interpretation have become academic endeavors, whether in the traditional research university, professional school, or polytechnical college. Given the demand for highly skilled language professionals, it seems unlikely that educational programs will be relegated to the realm of vocational training any time in the near future. If this does occur, a reason could be a burgeoning demand for T&I professionals that outstrips graduate school training capacity. Other causes could include an inability to implement reforms due to institutional straightjacketing or administrators and faculty who have lost touch with the professional world. Indeed, even flexible, agile programs will have difficulty keeping up with the quickening pace of the language industry.

We should bear in mind that only through the concerted effort of dedicated, motivated and, without doubt, somewhat idealistic interpreter educators will it be possible to substantially improve the quality of interpreter education. This study is intended to be a contribution to this endeavor. The Graduation School of Translation and Interpretation at the Monterey Institute of International Studies is certainly not alone in working towards this goal, as the review of literature on curriculum illustrates. The number of CIUTI members indicating on their websites that curriculum reform is under way is considerable, which is a healthy sign, as by definition curriculum must continue to evolve.

One final thought in this regard. The evidence presented here suggests that not only details should be addressed in curriculum reform processes. To paraphrase the words of Bobbit quoted in the introduction to this volume, there may well be some instructional systems that should not remain fundamentally unchanged in either plan or purpose. Doubts will inevitably be harbored as to the applicability of this comment to specific programs of instruction. This study shows that validation processes can document where radical reform is necessary.

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10 Appendix

10.1 GSTI Curriculum Documents

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GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION



Translation and Interpretation

Superior linguistic ability is required for admission to the MA program in translation (the written word) and interpretation (the spoken word). The Master of Arts degree in Translation, Translation and Interpretation, or Conference Interpretation is offered in Chinese, English, French, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian and Spanish. All candidates have English at the native or near-native level, and have native level fluency in one of the other languages listed. The curriculum focuses on the transfer of meaning from one language to another and normally requires two years to complete.

There are few universities in the United States that give degrees in interpretation, the most prestigious being the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

Hemispheres Magazine
United Airlines
January 1996

Graduates are employed by the US Department of State, the United Nations, the European Union, the International Olympic Committee, Microsoft, Oracle, as well as publishers, courts, hospitals, businesses, law firms, language services, and governments. Other alumni work as freelance contractors and have started their own successful translation companies.

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The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Welcome from the Dean of GSTI



These are exciting times for our profession. More than ever before, translation and interpretation are woven into every aspect of our lives. The increased demand for professional interpreters and translators reflects the trend toward globalization. The world is growing accustomed to relying on translators and interpreters to bridge the language gap in countless ways: a Security Council debate at the United Nations, Pacific Rim trade negotiations and treaties in multiple languages, a German technical manual, a best-seller by a Spanish author. As practitioners of the art and science of translation and interpretation, you will play a vital role in shaping the global society of the 21st century.

The faculty of the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI), composed of experienced interpreters and translators, is committed to helping students in a supportive and stimulating academic environment to develop the analytical skills, cultural literacy, conduct, competence, professional integrity, and loyalty needed to become superior professional translators and interpreters. The Monterey Institute provides translators and interpreters in training with unique opportunities for multidisciplinary, multilingual learning. We are dedicated to teaching and working closely with you so that you may achieve your professional goals and prepare to meet the challenges of the profession in the 21st century. Upon graduation, you will use your expertise to enable and enhance truly meaningful communication at the international, national, and community levels.

When you have read this brochure on the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation, I encourage you to contact us if you are interested in pursuing graduate studies. You will notice that faculty Internet E-Mail addresses have been included so that we can respond to your queries. I also encourage you to visit the Institute.

I would enjoy meeting you and discussing your professional interests and plans. We in the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation welcome you as our future colleagues.

Diane de Terra, Dean
Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation
E-Mail: ddeterra@miis.edu

For more information contact: emason@miis.edu

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Welcome

Overview

The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Educating Professional Translators and Interpreters

[Translation & Interpretation as a Profession](#)

[Conference Interpretation as a Profession](#)

[Translation as a Profession](#)

[Dual Specialization](#)

[MA Programs](#)

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Founded in 1968, the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI) offers the Master of Arts in Translation (MAT), the Master of Arts in Translation and Interpretation (MATI), and the Master of Arts in Conference Interpretation (MACI) in Chinese, English, French, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian, and Spanish.

The faculty are all experienced translators and interpreters, dedicated to excellence and outstanding performance both as professors and working professionals. The small, select group of international linguists who make up the student body are distinguished by their impressive language skills, their intellectual curiosity, and their determination to meet the exceptional challenges of a demanding profession. Professors and students work closely together to achieve educational goals and professional standards in a supportive, collegial atmosphere. To accommodate the specific needs of individual language combinations and to stay abreast of developments in the profession, the sequential, modular curriculum of GSTI is as sensitive to theoretical and practical issues as it is to evolving market conditions. Students receive individual attention in small classes taught by native speakers of the GSTI languages.

GSTI students can earn any of the three Master of Arts degrees over a two-year period. Certain highly qualified students with significant work experience as translators or interpreters or degrees in translation or interpretation may qualify for entry into GSTI's one-year MA program. Non-degree programs are offered in Spanish for court and medical interpreting; a certificate of completion is awarded at the end of each segment.

GSTI works closely with the Monterey Institute's Career Development Office to ensure that students will have access to career-building opportunities through internships and career-planning assistance from advisers attuned to the specific needs of translator and interpreter trainees. GSTI's state-of-the-art interpretation and translation facilities provide students with an optimum learning environment in which they can hone their skills while practicing with the actual tools of their trade.

The Monterey Institute of International Studies, with its emphasis on preparing innovative professionals to function effectively in crosscultural, multilingual environments, is an ideal setting for translator and interpreter training. Interdisciplinary, multilingual courses allow GSTI faculty and students to work with and learn from professors and students from the Institute's Graduate Schools of International Business, International Policy Studies, and Language and Educational Linguistics.

Highly successful translators and interpreters are distinguished by their appreciation of linguistic nuance, understanding of cultural contexts, and awareness of policy and trade issues. GSTI students can enhance their own professional development by taking advantage of the Monterey Institute's research and informational resources, among which are collections of

The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Translation and Interpretation as Professions

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In a world where borders are becoming a mere cartographic detail rather than a barrier to human interaction, international, national, and local organizations, corporations, banks, government agencies, industrial enterprises, hospitals, the courts, the military, and the many other institutions that constitute global societies rely on the services of translators and interpreters to communicate with each other and with their clients and constituents.

Professional translators and interpreters must have a near-perfect understanding of subtleties and nuances of meaning in one language, culture and context in order to convey the same meaning in a different language, culture and context. They must have superior command of the full range of registers not only in their first language, but in one or more other languages as well. Interpreters and translators are lifelong learners. The nature of their work requires that they constantly enhance their broad general knowledge even as they focus on new technical terminology and specialized information associated with a narrow field or a particular subject matter. They must be prepared to translate or interpret materials in an ever-growing variety of subjects. Sophisticated sensitivity to other cultures and tolerance for ambiguity are assets in a profession that rewards integrity and dedication. As in other demanding professions, stamina and the ability to cope with stress are important traits. Computer literacy is a critical skill in the translation and interpretation professions. The Institute's computer labs provide workshops to introduce students to software programs that are used by professional translators and interpreters.

Translators and interpreters are indispensable to communications in situations such as:

- * A United Nations Security Council debate on peacekeeping
- * Trade negotiations between Korea and Canada
- * A Japanese astronaut's description of weightlessness
- * English radio coverage of François Mitterrand's funeral
- * Computer manuals for the German market
- * A conference on nuclear nonproliferation with Russian and American delegates
- * A Chinese immigrant's appearance in traffic court
- * A Guatemalan child's appendectomy in a US hospital

materials on language and educational linguistics, area and policy studies, and business administration. Students have access to a library with a collection that draws on multiple international resources and a wide selection of periodicals in different languages. In addition, the research centers and projects based at the Institute offer opportunities for hands-on experience for interested students. These include the International Interpretation Resource Center, the Center for Nonproliferation Studies, the Center for East Asian Studies, the Program for Arms Control, Disarmament and Conversion, and the Center for Russian and Eurasian Studies.

GSTI has been a member of the Conférence Internationale Permanente d'Instituts Universitaires de Traducteurs et Interprètes (CIUTI) since 1988. It welcomes student exchanges with other CIUTI schools. GSTI is a member of American Translators Association and is recognized as a graduate school of translation and interpretation by the Association Internationale des Interprètes de Conférence.

GSTI's high academic and intellectual standards and its responsiveness to developments in the rapidly evolving fields of translation and interpretation make its graduates greatly sought after by prospective employers. Increasingly, GSTI graduates are engaged in setting standards for innovative applications of translation and interpretation, while contributing to the high standards of the well-established sectors of the profession. In addition, they are frequently called upon to educate the users of translation and interpretation services about the conventions of the profession. GSTI graduates are qualified, knowledgeable professionals, trained to assess and adapt to market needs while remaining in the vanguard of their professions.

GSTI programs encourage students to develop superior analytical and critical-thinking skills while exploring and appreciating the richness and variety of different languages and cultures. GSTI faculty members strive to instill a professional sense of conduct and ethics in their students. After students complete the rigorous GSTI program, they can be confident of their professional abilities since they have been coached by professional translators and interpreters. GSTI students are part of a strong network of alumni and professors.

Teamwork is an essential aspect of both translating and interpreting: interpersonal, intercultural, and networking skills are an integral part of a translator's or interpreter's training. GSTI professors regard their students as future colleagues with whom they share their knowledge, experience and culture. Faculty members have fashioned a curriculum that addresses the intellectual, technical, managerial and personal challenges confronting translators and interpreters. At the Monterey Institute, translation and interpretation students have an unparalleled opportunity for personal growth and professional development in the unique and highly stimulating atmosphere of GSTI. As graduates, they join the global network of GSTI alumni who are redefining the translation and interpretation professions for the 21st century.

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Welcome
from the Dean

Welcome

Overview

The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Conference Interpretation

Translation &
Interpretation as
a Profession

Conference interpretation enables participants in a multinational meeting to communicate with each other in a seamless fashion, making the language barrier almost imperceptible. Such interpreting is generally performed in two modes: consecutive and simultaneous. In consecutive interpretation, the interpreter usually sits with conference delegates while a speech is being made, listens to the speech, and takes notes. When the speaker pauses or finishes, the interpreter renders the speech in the first person in the target language. Speech and interpretation generally occur in segments no longer than 10-15 minutes.

Conference
Interpretation as
a Profession

Translation as a
Profession

Dual
Specialization

In simultaneous interpretation, interpreters sit in soundproof booths (one booth for each language), where they listen to the speech from the meeting room through headsets. As the speaker talks, each interpreter interprets at the same time into his or her native or A language. The interpreter's words are spoken into a microphone and transmitted via headset to meeting participants. In this manner, the same speech can be interpreted into several languages at once with very little time lag. In each booth, interpreters work as a team, sharing the workload at regular intervals.

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Many conference interpreters work on a freelance basis, since staff positions at organizations that require the services of conference interpreters, such as the United Nations, the European Union, and the US State Department, are limited. Both freelance and staff conference interpreters are eligible for membership in the Association Internationale des Interprètes de Conférence (AIIC), based in Geneva. As the only worldwide organization of conference interpreters, it maintains high admissions standards in order to guarantee the professional expertise of its members and their respect for professional ethics.

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from the Dean

Welcome

Overview

The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Translation &
Interpretation as
a Profession

Dual Specialization in Translation and Interpretation

Conference
Interpretation as
a Profession

Although interpretation and translation have much in common, the practice of each profession differs in the same way that written language differs from spoken. Thus, both translation and interpretation involve careful analysis of meaning in context and attention to extra-linguistic aspects of communication. Interpreters must be good public speakers who are adept at grasping meaning and solving complex linguistic problems quickly, whereas translators must be able to conduct thorough and meticulous research and produce accurate, camera-ready documents while adhering to tight deadlines.

Translation as a
Profession

Dual
Specialization

More than 60 percent of GSTI students choose to pursue an MATI degree. Graduates have found that being able to provide both translation and interpretation services gives them a real edge in the job market. Many clients, unaware of the distinction between the two aspects of the profession, expect the same person to be able to perform both tasks and do not want to turn to two different specialists for these services.

MA Programs

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Moreover, translation and interpretation are indeed complementary pursuits: The research conducted for a translation project can enhance in-depth knowledge of a given subject and ease preparation for a subsequent interpreting assignment, while the spontaneity necessary for interpretation can increase the speed with which translation assignments can be completed. By the same token, the training received in the MATI program is complementary in that students reinforce their mastery of the written and oral aspects of their working languages by performing both translation and interpretation of related texts.

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The Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Four Semester Model

60 credits required for MA, 2-year degree; 30 credits required for Advanced Entry MA degree


FALL SEMESTER • FIRST YEAR		
MA Translation	MA T & I	MA CI
Same as MA T & I Introduction to Interpretation (optional)	Two Languages Basic Translation: A-B Basic Translation: B-A Introduction to Interpretation: A-B, B-A Electives Three Languages Same as above except No Electives Basic Translation: C-A Introduction to Interpretation: C-A	Same as MA T & I. Introduction to Interpretation

SPRING SEMESTER • FIRST YEAR		
MA Translation	MA T & I	MA CI
Two Languages Translation: Economics A-B Translation: Economics B-A Translation Theory Electives	Two Languages Translation: Economics: A-B Translation: Economics: B-A Translation Theory Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A	Two Languages Translation: Economics: A-B Translation: Economics: B-A Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A Simultaneous Interpretation: A-B, B-A Electives
Three Languages Same as above except No Electives Translation: Economics C-A	Three Languages Translation: Economics: B-A Translation: Economics: C-A Translation Theory Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A Consecutive Interpretation: C-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A, C-A	Three Languages Translation: Economics: B-A, C-A Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A, C-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A, C-A

FALL SEMESTER • SECOND YEAR		
MA Translation	MA T & I	MA CI
Two Languages Translation Proseminar: A-B, B-A Translation: Sci/Tech: A-B, B-A Computer Assisted Translation Thesis	Two Languages Translation Proseminar: A-B, B-A Translation: Sci/Tech: A-B, B-A Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A Readings in Interpretation	Two Languages Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A Simultaneous Interpretation: A-B, B-A Interpretation Practicum Readings in Interpretation
Three Languages Translation Proseminar: A-B	Three Languages Readings in Interpretation	Three Languages Consecutive Interpretation: A-B

B-A Translation: Sci/Tech: A-B B-A, C-A Computer Assisted Translation Thesis	Legal Translation: Spanish, Korean Three Languages Translation: Sci/Tech: B-A C-A Proseminar: B-A, C-A Consecutive Interpretation: B-A, C-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A, C-A Readings in Interpretation	B-A, C-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A, C-A Interpretation Practicum Readings in Interpretation
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SPRING SEMESTER • FIRST YEAR		
MA Translation	MAT & I	MA CI
Two Languages Advanced Translation Seminar: A-B, B-A Translation: Political & Legal: A-B, B-A Translation Practicum Business of Translation Thesis Three Languages Advanced Translation Seminar: A-B, B-A Translation: Political & Legal: A-B, B-A, C-A Translation Practicum Business of Translation Thesis	Two Languages Advanced Translation Seminar: A-B, B-A Translation: Political & Legal: A-B, B-A Business of Translation Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A Interpretation as a Profession Court Interpretation: Spanish, Korean Three Languages Advanced Translation Seminar: B-A, C-A Translation: Political & Legal: B-A, C-A Consecutive Interpretation A-B, B-A, C-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A, C-A Interpretation as a Profession	Two Languages Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A Simultaneous Interpretation: A-B, B-A Interpretation Practicum Interpretation as a Profession Three Languages Consecutive Interpretation: A-B, B-A, C-A Simultaneous Interpretation: B-A, C-A Interpretation Practicum Interpretation as a Profession

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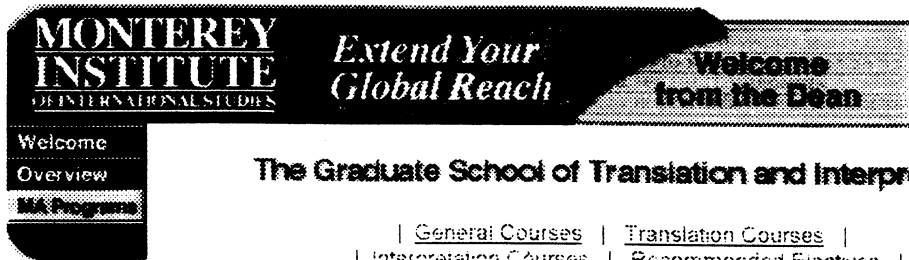
Advanced Entry Master's Degrees

Students who wish to be considered for admission to the nine-month MA program in all degree specializations must meet GSTI's general admission requirements, demonstrate preparedness to enter second-year courses by passing GSTI's qualifying exams in their intended course of study, and hold a degree from a recognized school of translation and interpretation or provide evidence of significant professional experience. This experience must be documented with a portfolio, including a complete list of employers and professional references. Those seeking admission to the Advanced Entry MACI program must have a degree in conference interpretation or substantial experience as a conference interpreter. Those wishing to enter the Advanced Entry MAT program must have a degree in translation or substantial experience as a translator. Once admitted, advanced-entry students must complete 30 semester credits in residence at GSTI to earn the MA.

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COURSE PREREQUISITES

Computer Literacy

Students must possess basic computer literacy and skills in two areas: operating environment and application procedures. MS Windows skills are required in most departments; some Macintosh applications are also in use.

Operating environment skills include: switching between operating modes, navigating storage devices, file and desktop management and launching applications.

Application procedure skills include operating a word processor program, creating and saving documents, retrieving and editing stored material and printing.

REQUIRED/RECOMMENDED

Summer Intensive Language Preparation for Translation and Interpretation

Advanced Language Enhancement courses in English, French, Spanish, Japanese or Russian for Translation and Interpretation are conducted for students preparing to enter GSTI. These intensive programs are unique in that they are designed to fill the gap between traditional language instruction for communicative purposes and language instruction specific to the needs of students of translation and interpretation. As such, courses offer extensive practice in reading, writing, speaking and listening in order to refine both fluency and accuracy in the foreign language. All course work is conducted strictly in the B language at an advanced level, and is based upon authentic materials extracted from newspapers, journals, magazines and broadcast speeches. Topics are selected for their relevance to both the B language culture, and the translation and interpretation professions. These courses are intended to provide supplementary language instruction, and are not designed to bring linguistically deficient students up to GSTI acceptance levels.

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GENERAL COURSES

Theory of Translation
Provides an introduction to basic concepts and offers a general conceptual framework for the study of translation theory. Students acquire the tools to identify, analyze and resolve translation problems and develop a rational approach to translation. The lecture is largely non-technical and relies on the basic concepts of logic which are used as tools in discussing problems of translation.

History of Translation
This course is designed to explore certain moments of particular interest in the history of translation, giving special attention to the role of translation in the development of history and culture and its function as an instrument of power. The material chosen for the course will illustrate how essentially important translators and interpreters have been throughout history, in the creation and evolution of the world's economic, political, social, geographical, and cultural realities.

Interpretation as a Profession
Gives an introduction to the profession of interpreting with a view to preparing students for practical work. Heightens their awareness of issues relevant to the profession, such as different professional environments, professional ethics, interpersonal relations, conference organization, diplomatic etiquette, parliamentary procedure, and professional pride and dignity, to establish their identity as professional interpreters. Students apply their knowledge by organizing and convening a forum (conference, debate, or negotiation), selecting topics and delegates, and preparing speeches and arguments. The forum provides students with an opportunity to work in front of an audience and to interpret the proceedings.

The Business of Translation
Emphasizes practical knowledge necessary to succeed as freelance or in-house translators. Defines the role of the translator and the realities of working in the profession, including the job market, salary negotiation, and future trends. Students learn to write resumes and cover letters and to find clients or employers. Marketing, advertising, and negotiating are covered in depth, as are legal and tax issues. Students learn more about translation technology, business software, on-line services and the Internet and World Wide Web, as well as machine-assisted and machine translation software.

Modern Media Translation and Interpretation
Introduces a variety of translation and interpretation modes and situations that relate to the non-printed media, film, television, radio and telephone. Topics and exercises include: transcription and translation of narration and dialog; translation of film scripts and sound tracks; production and translation of subtitles; dubbing; interpretation of documentary and feature films. TV

newscasts, video clips and commercials, teleconferences, radio programs, and telephone communication; and interpretation via satellite.

General Introduction to Consecutive Interpretation

Provides students with an opportunity to learn the theory of consecutive interpretation, including basic concepts such as verticalization and symbolization, and to practice balancing listening and notetaking. Special attention is paid to developing sensitivity to register and accuracy in expression. Students work on developing problem-solving strategies. The course is offered in English to students of all GSTI languages together, and is offered as an elective to complement the language-specific consecutive interpreting courses.

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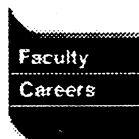
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TRANSLATION COURSES

Basic Translation: Written and Sight Translation

Provides an overview of strategies for written and sight translation of a variety of text categories. Gives students the tools to identify, analyze and resolve translation problems and to develop a rational approach to the task. Working with a series of authentic texts, students explore concepts such as structural analysis, text typology, language usage and register, comparative stylistics, activation, nominalization, and transitional elements. Sight translation provides an opportunity for students to translate texts orally from one language to another with little or no prior preparation. Students are presented with language-specific problems of vocabulary and structure that they must solve instantaneously.

Translation of Commercial and Economic Texts: Written and Sight Translation

Offers students the opportunity to translate a variety of texts, with emphasis on current world economic and financial issues, international trade and business and economic forecasts. Students learn to apply basic concepts of economics and business to real-world texts, thereby improving their command of the technical terminology of these fields. Prerequisite: Basic Translation

Translation of Scientific and Technical Texts: Written and Sight Translation

Provides an overview of scientific and technical translation strategies. Students translate a variety of texts in fields such as medicine, biochemistry, environment, ecology, physics, and computer science, and learn to solve stylistic, syntactic, cultural and terminological problems. In the process, they are exposed to various types of technical writing found in journal articles, manuals, and patents. Prerequisites: Basic Translation, Economic Translation

Translation of Political and Legal Texts: Written and Sight Translation

Focuses on political topics, with emphasis on controversial issues involved in international crises, cooperation, development, government structure; and on legal texts commonly requiring translation, including personal documents, contracts, treaties, and legislation. Students are exposed to different styles of writing and document structures. In sight translation, they learn to solve translation problems quickly while adhering to the style and tone of the original. Prerequisites: Basic Translation, Economic Translation

Proseminar in Translation

Reinforces the basic principles of translation taught during the first year with more difficult texts, and adds special emphasis on style, register, and the specific demands of certain text categories, as well as theoretical discussion of translation choices. Prerequisites: Basic Translation, Economic Translation

Advanced Seminar in Translation

Students translate texts of considerable difficulty and complexity. Topics are language-pair-specific, with emphasis on a particular text category or a field of knowledge that is congruent with current market demand for translation. Focuses on students' ability to submit camera-ready copy and to simulate the professional environment of translation. Prerequisite: Translation Proseminar

Computer-Assisted Translation

This course is designed to provide an introduction to the role of technology in translation. Various aspects of translation tools are presented, including the commercial and business implications, and the human dynamics of interacting with these tools. Various types of tools and their underlying technologies will be discussed. The marketplace and commercial application for the technology will be covered. The goal is to provide a translator with the knowledge of how to deal with modern high tech tools in the workplace of tomorrow, and to have a feel for the commercial implications of these tools. Machine translation, translation memory, on-line dictionaries, desk-top publishing systems and Website automation technologies will be covered. Prerequisites: Basic computer literacy and familiarity with PC computers and MS Windows environments; conversant with word processing concepts and operations, preferably with MS Word for Windows; must be able to interact with the Internet and WWW. Instructor's permission required.

Translation Thesis (MAT only)

Large-scale translation projects or in-depth research on a subject related to translation or interpretation. Prerequisite: Intermediate to advanced translation skills

Practicum in Translation (MAT only)

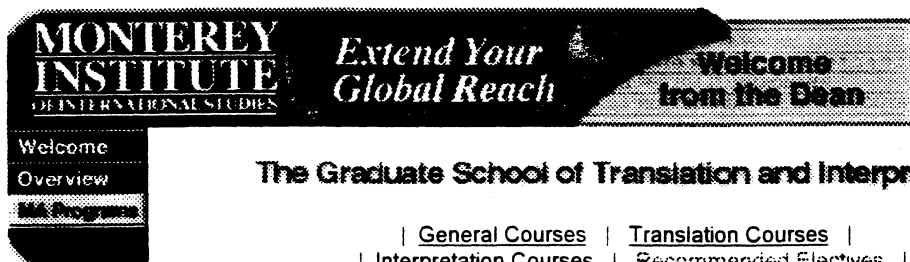
Simulates professional translation agency working conditions and provides students with expertise in project management, terminology and software localization. Prerequisite: Intermediate translation skills.

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INTERPRETATION COURSES

Consecutive interpretation courses must be taken in the following order:

Introduction to Interpretation

Acquaints students with conference interpretation in general, consecutive interpretation in particular. This course is designed to lay the foundation for developing the professional skills of consecutive interpretation, with special emphasis on the ability to understand and analyze a message in the source language (SL) and convey it in the target language (TL) in a straightforward and clear manner. One of the primary aims of the course is to help students develop the ability to identify, analyze, and paraphrase the meaning in the SL and establish logical relations between its components. Accordingly, students practice listening to and repeating the content of passages of increasing length and difficulty. Emphasis is placed on the development of active listening and concentration skills, as well as notetaking techniques, memory-training exercises, and techniques of abstracting and symbolizing information for subsequent recall. The students are also required to do memory and paraphrasing exercises at home. Other modes of interpretation are introduced at the end of the first semester.

Consecutive Interpretation of Extemporaneous Speech

Teaches students to identify the implicit structural organization of an extemporaneous speech by requiring them to present and interpret speeches of this type. Refines notetaking techniques and reinforces ability to perceive essential meaning. Emphasizes clarity of expression, correct style and grammar, proper diction, and polished presentation. Students also expand their active vocabulary to include the terms and idioms that frequently occur in extemporaneous speeches. Exercises to develop fluency and memory are presented on a regular basis throughout the semester, and students are required to do memory and paraphrasing exercises at home as well.

Consecutive Interpretation of Commercial and Technical Speech

Covers sectors of the business world in which consecutive interpretation is frequently used. Students prepare by researching topics before each session. Emphasizes sequential logic in notetaking and accurate terminology in delivery. Background reading may be assigned to ensure mastery of basic economic concepts. Students continue to hone their skills by diagnosing and correcting problems at all stages from listening through delivery, while progressing to increasingly difficult and challenging material.

Consecutive Interpretation of Political Speech

Concentrates on political rhetoric, requiring particular attention to nuance and tone. Students learn the vernacular of political speeches while sharpening listening, processing and notetaking functions.

Forum I and II

Offers students an opportunity to work in front of an audience. First- and second-year students cooperate in organizing a conference, selecting topics and delegates, preparing speeches and arguments, and interpreting the proceedings.

Simultaneous interpretation courses must be taken in the following order:

Strategies of Simultaneous Interpretation

Introduces students to interpretation in the booth. The course starts with a general introduction to simultaneous interpretation and follows up with a series of preparatory exercises to help students develop the concentration necessary for listening and speaking at the same time, master voice management, and acquire smooth delivery techniques. Students learn to analyze discourse for meaning and to render a coherent version in their native language with correct grammar, diction and style.

Simultaneous Interpretation of General and Economic Speech

Consolidates the techniques learned in the previous semester, enabling students to polish their delivery and language register by interpreting a wide variety of speeches. Focuses on nuance of meaning, accuracy of interpretation, research and preparation for conferences, and glossary development. Special attention is given to maintaining concentration while under significant psychological stress. Students learn to recognize SL discourse patterns and render them effectively in TL.

Simultaneous Interpretation of Political and Technical Speech

Advanced instruction in the interpretation of more difficult speeches. Emphasizes following the logic of complex scientific and technical discourse, and remaining faithful to the style and tone of persuasive political discourse. Students continue to develop their research skills.

Court Interpreting

Familiarizes students with the techniques of consecutive and simultaneous interpreting, the terminology, and the practical considerations that are particular to judicial and quasi-judicial settings. Builds on the foundation established in the Legal Translation course. Attention is given to the registers of speech encountered in typical legal proceedings, such as street slang, police jargon, legal terms, and technical testimony. Students also learn courtroom protocol and witness control techniques, and review the practical implications of the court interpreter code of ethics.

Practicum in Interpretation (CI only)

Simulates professional conference interpreting conditions. Students provide simultaneous and consecutive interpreting at Monterey Institute events, lectures, courses, and taped conferences, and submit reports, journals, and taped interpretations during the semester. Advanced interpreting students become familiar with multilingual settings in which all modes of interpreting are called for and relay interpreting is the norm. Introduces concepts of evaluation and self-evaluation, and allows for the participation of students with a variety of languages, including those that are not GSTI's official languages. Prerequisite: Intermediate interpreting skills.

Readings in Interpretation Research

Introduces students to multidisciplinary research on interpretation and explores the relevance of these theoretical works to an interpreter's practice. Students identify salient issues in interpreting, and design and conduct action research projects based on their own practice and on current research.

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10.2 GSTI Scoring Categories

- High Pass:** Candidate's interpretation is extremely accurate and shows superior command of syntax, grammar, and lexicon, and the presentation is outstanding. Should be awarded only occasionally to exceptionally qualified candidates.
- Pass:** Candidate's interpretation is accurate, with acceptable, albeit improvable, syntax, grammar, and word choice and presentation. Should be considered the norm for passing candidates.
- Borderline Fail:** Candidate's interpretation is unacceptable but not flagrantly inaccurate, owing either to misunderstanding of the original text or to serious flaws in syntax, grammar, and word choice, or to both; in the case of interpretation, the candidate's presentation may also have been unacceptable. The implication is that these shortcomings may be correctable with further study. Should be awarded to candidates who stand a good chance of passing a retake in August. Anyone receiving a borderline fail should be given specific details about what types of errors were made and what kind of preparation is needed for the retake.
- Fail:** Candidate's interpretation is flagrantly inaccurate owing to inadequate command of the source and/or target language, insufficient analytical ability, poor presentation or a combination of all. This score means that the candidate is far from meeting the standards of the profession and is not likely to attain that level without extensive work. Any student who receives a failing grade in two or more qualifying examinations should be strongly advised not to attempt a retake in August, and should be urged either to take an additional year to work on language deficiencies or to consider another career.

Source: GSTI Faculty Handbook, p. 26



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RECOMMENDED ELECTIVES

Public Speaking for Interpreters

Increases flexibility of students' expression as they learn to speak before an audience. In the first four weeks students read texts as written, varying their presentations as appropriate to the subject matter; in the second four weeks they paraphrase from English to English, transmitting the complete message of the original text through changes in vocabulary and structure. Throughout the course, students complete projects in vocabulary study and text analysis.

Advanced English Discourse

Critical listening, speaking, reading, and writing courses are practiced in order to refine skills in comprehending and producing both written and spoken English. Through extensive work paraphrasing and summarizing authentic, field-specific texts, students familiarize themselves with the different discourse styles of business, politics, economics, law, and technology. Other features of the course include vocabulary building strategies, idiom work, register shifting, and editing.

Accent Reduction

Through extensive work with the international phonetic alphabet, as well as video and audio tapes, students work on perfecting their pronunciation of standard American English.

Curricular Practical Training (CPT)

Curricular Practical Training for international students is only available during the academic program (not after program completion as Optional Practical Training). In order to qualify for CPT, work must be related to the student's field of study at the Monterey Institute and be an integral or important part of the applicant's studies. The training is intended to enhance and supplement formal, classroom education. Students must have an employment offer before they can request authorization for CPT. Training which is required by a degree program always meets the eligibility requirements for Curricular Practical Training. Training which is not required by a degree program may meet the eligibility requirements for CPT if the employment is taken as a directed study course for 1 credit (this includes courses taken as an audit). The training is authorized for specific employment with a specific employer.

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10.3 GSTI Scoring Forms

GSTI ORAL EXAMINATION EVALUATION FORM

DATE: _____ STUDENT NO./NAME _____

GRADER: _____

TYPE OF EXAM:

QUALIFYING _____

PROFESSIONAL _____ CONSECUTIVE _____ GENERAL _____
 SIMULTANEOUS _____ TECHNICAL _____

LANGUAGE: _____ -- _____ A-B _____ B-A _____ C-A _____

	High Pass	Pass	Borderline Fail	Fail	Grade
Meaning & Clarity					
Style					
Presentation					
FINAL GRADE					

Was the text so difficult that adjustment should be made? Yes__ No__
 If so, difficulty adjustments points: 5 pts.

FOR REFERENCE:

High Pass 100-90
 Pass 89-75
 Borderline Fail 74-70
 Fail 70-0

REMARKS:

 Signature

10.4 GSTI Exam Guidelines

Appendix B GUIDELINES FOR EXAM JURORS

I. Grading Sheets

A. Written Exams

Exams are scored on a 100-point scale. Passing score is 75.

GSTI grading sheets must be used.

All sections of the grading sheet should be filled out. Do not simply give a total score.

Definition of Terms

a. **Meaning & Clarity:** The content of the original message should remain intact. This category includes terminology errors that cause meaning errors. An accumulation of minor meaning errors may lead to a failing grade. This is the most important aspect of the candidate's score and should be given much more weight than the other categories.

b. **Style:** Includes grammar, syntax, usage, terminology, and register. Style errors do not bear as much weight as meaning and clarity errors. More latitude should be given to candidates translating into their B language.

c. **Terminology:** Given that students are allowed to use dictionaries and glossaries, terminology should be graded strictly. Any terminology error that distorts meaning should be counted as a meaning error.

If a candidate makes more than two significant meaning errors (a "black for white" error or a severe distortion of meaning due to improper phrasing or omissions), the candidate should not pass.

Translations into the student's A language should be graded more strictly than those into the student's B language.

Some allowance should be made for nervousness and the exam situation. In general, the translation should be a good draft that would only need some stylistic editing before being handed to a client. A perfect, publishable translation is not expected under exam conditions.

All comments should be written on the grading sheet. To avoid influencing the second grader, do not write anything directly on the student's translation.

Exams and grading sheets must be turned in to the Program Head, who will resolve any discrepancies in scores and submit final scores to the Dean's Assistant.

Under no circumstances should exams be discussed with students before results are

posted.

B. Oral Exams

Definition of Terms

a. **High pass:** Candidate's interpretation is extremely accurate and shows superior command of syntax, grammar, and lexicon, and the presentation is outstanding. Should be awarded only occasionally to exceptionally qualified candidates.

b. **Pass:** Candidate's interpretation is accurate, with acceptable, albeit improvable, syntax, grammar, and word choice and presentation. Should be considered the norm for passing candidates.

c. **Borderline Fail:** Candidate's interpretation is unacceptable but not flagrantly inaccurate, owing either to misunderstanding of the original text or to serious flaws in syntax, grammar, and word choice, or to both; in the case of interpretation, the candidate's presentation may also have been unacceptable. The implication is that these shortcomings may be correctable with further study. Should be awarded to candidates who stand a good chance of passing a retake in August. Anyone receiving a borderline fail should be given specific details about what types of errors were made and what kind of preparation is needed for the retake.

d. **Fail:** Candidate's interpretation is flagrantly inaccurate owing to inadequate command of the source and/or target language, insufficient analytical ability, poor presentation or a combination of all. This score means that the candidate is far from meeting the standards of the profession and is not likely to attain that level without extensive work. Any student who receives a failing grade in two or more qualifying examinations should be strongly advised not to attempt a retake in August, and should be urged either to take an additional year to work on language deficiencies or to consider another career.

e. **Meaning & Clarity:** If a candidate makes more than two significant meaning errors (a "black for white" error that is more than a slip of the tongue, or a severe distortion of meaning due to improper phrasing or omissions), the candidate should not pass. Includes terminology errors that cause meaning errors. An accumulation of minor meaning errors may lead to a failing grade. This is the most important aspect of the candidate's score and should be given much more weight than the other categories. At the end of the candidate's performance, juror should ask this basic question: "If I were a delegate listening to this interpretation, would I understand what the speaker said?"

f. **Style:** Includes grammar, syntax, usage, terminology, and register. Style errors do not bear as much weight as meaning and clarity errors. More latitude should be given to candidates interpreting into their B language.

- g. **Presentation:** Refers to voice projection, intonation, posture, eye contact, and pacing. Candidates should project confidence when interpreting. In consecutive interpreting examinations, the original speech and the candidate's rendition should be timed. If the candidate's time exceeds that of the original speech, he/she should not be given a passing grade in this category.

Jurors may wish to assign points to the different categories of errors. The hierarchy of errors might look something like this:

- M1 = minor meaning error = 5 points off
- M2 = moderate meaning error = 10 points off
- M3 = significant meaning error = 15 points off
- T»M = terminology error causing meaning error = 5 points off
- O1 = omission = 5 points off
- O2 = major omission = 10 points off
- T = terminology error = 1-5 points off
- G1 = minor grammar error that does not affect meaning - 1-3 point off
- G2 = major grammar error that affects meaning - 5 points off
- S1 = minor style error = 1-3 points off
- S2 = major style error = 5 points off

When marking grading sheets, jurors should write legibly and indicate clearly what the candidate said and what type of error was made in each case. Jurors should also indicate where in the text the error was made (e.g., ¶ 2).

Positive comments are also appropriate (e.g., "good recovery," "resourceful solution," etc.)

Candidates will not see these grading sheets, but they are used by program heads in counseling students.

II. Juror Conduct in Oral Exams

- A. The jury should meet 15 minutes before the beginning of each exam session to set up the room and assign tasks. At this time, the jurors should review all texts and agree on length, changes in content, and whether to award adjustment points for difficulty. Tasks assigned to individual jurors include making sure the tape recorder is on, reading speeches, timing consecutive exams, and paying close attention to the candidate's delivery.
- B. Jurors should be careful not to react overtly, either positively or negatively, to the candidate's performance. Other than smiling at the candidate at the beginning and end of the exam, the jurors should maintain neutral facial expressions and body language. However, eye contact should be made with the candidate whenever possible. Notetaking should be done discreetly to avoid distracting the candidate (it is helpful to have a clipboard to write on for that purpose; holding up the clipboard prevents the candidate from seeing when the juror is writing).

ADDENDUM TO GSTI FACULTY HANDBOOK

7/2/98

PROFESSIONAL EXAMS

- Consecutive exams: One text in each language direction, 7-8 minutes long, with flexible administration (no. of sections, groups, originals {live reading, video, audio, etc.}).
- Simultaneous exams: One text in each language direction, 15-20 minutes long, with flexible administration (groups, originals {live reading, video, audio, etc.}).
- NO prior notification of topic for ANY exam.

GRADING POLICY FOR WRITTEN PROFESSIONAL EXAMS

- For the two exams in each direction, general and sci-tech:
 - a) NO Averaging for exams into A, a required pass for each exam (75+)
 - b) Averaging of both exams into B, a pass is 75+.
 - c) NO Averaging between A and B
- A jury for a written exam is made up of two readers. If there is a large discrepancy between their grades and the graders have discussed the issue and are still unable to reach a consensus, a 3rd reader shall be called in to give a "blind" grade (without knowledge of the previous two grades or the issues discussed). At this point, the final grade will be decided by majority decision among the 3 graders.

CRITERIA FOR JUDGING EXAMS

Consecutive Exams:

1. Comprehension of message clarity of expression, accuracy
2. Analytical skills, problem solving, resourcefulness, flexibility
3. Delivery/voice/presentation

Written Exams:

1. No more than two exams per day
2. No back-to-back exams; there should be a break lasting a minimum of two hours.
3. Written exams may be allowed on week-ends.
4. Translation professors should proctor. Professors sitting on both written and oral juries should not proctor.
5. Exams should be in one direction per day (i.e. both technical and general into foreign language on one day).

Oral Exams:

1. No exam session should exceed 7 hours.

10.5 Chi-Square Analysis Spreadsheets

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congntoa	contbtoa	congtob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtboa
1	English	Japanese		MATI	p	p	f	p	p	p
2	English	Russian		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
3	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	f
4	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
5	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	f	f	p
6	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
7	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
8	Korean	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
9	Korean	English		MATI	p	f	f	f	f	f
10	English	Russian	French	MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
11	French	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
12	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
13	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	f
14	Spanish	English		MACI	p	p	p	f	p	f
15	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	f	f	f	f
16	Korean	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	f
17	English	Japanese		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
18	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
19	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	f	p	p	p
20	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
21	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbtoa	contbtoa	congatob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtbtoa
22	Korean	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
23	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	f	f
24	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	f	p	p	p
25	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
26	English	German		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
27	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
28	French	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	f	p
29	Korean	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	f
30	English	Korean		MACI	p	f	p	f	p	p
31	Korean	English		MATI	p	p	f	p	f	p
32	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
33	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
34	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
35	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
36	French	English		MATI	f	f	p	f	f	f
37	English	French		MATI	f	p	f	p	p	p
38	Spanish	English	French	MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
39	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
40	English	Japanese		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
41	French	English	German	MACI	f	p	f	f	p	p
42	Spanish	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbitoa	contbitoa	congtatob	contatob	singbitoa	simtbitoa
43	English	Russian		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
44	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
45	English	German		MATI	p	f	f	f	f	p
46	English	Spanish	French	MACI	f	f	p	p	p	f
47	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
48	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	f	p
49	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
50	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	f	f	f
51	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	p
52	English	Spanish		MATI	p	f	f	f	p	f
53	English	Japanese		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	f
54	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
55	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
56	German	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
57	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	p
58	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	p	f	p	f
59	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	f
60	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	f
61	English	Russian		MATI	p	f	p	p	p	p
62	English	French		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	p
63	German	English	Spanish	MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congntoa	contbtoa	congtob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtboa
64	German	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
65	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
66	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
67	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	f	p	p	f
68	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
69	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
70	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
71	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
72	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
73	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	p	f	f	f
74	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	f	f	p
75	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
76	English	Chinese		MATI	p	f	p	p	p	p
77	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
78	Spanish	English		MATI	f	f	f	p	f	p
79	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
80	Spanish	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
81	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	f
82	English	Japanese		MATI	p	f	p	p	f	f
83	English	Russian		MATI	p	p	f	f	f	f
84	Russian	English	French	MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbitoa	contbitoa	congatob	contatob	simgbtoa	simbtboa
85	English	Japanese		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
86	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	f	p	p	p
87	English	German		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
88	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
89	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
90	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
91	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
92	English	Spanish	French	MACI	p	p	p	f	f	p
93	German	English	French	MACI	p	f	f	p	p	p
94	English	German		MATI	p	p	p	f	f	p
95	Spanish	English		MACI	p	p	f	f	p	p
96	Spanish	English	French	MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
97	Japanese	English		MATI	p	f	p	f	p	p
98	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
99	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
100	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
101	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
102	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	p
103	German	English		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	f
104	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
105	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	f

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congntoa	contbtoa	congtob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtbtoa
106	Japanese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
107	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
108	English	Spanish		MATI	f	f	f	f	f	f
109	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
110	English	German		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
111	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
112	English	Japanese	German	MACI	p	p	p	p	f	p
113	Spanish	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
114	German	English	Spanish	MACI	f	p	p	p	f	p
115	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
116	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
117	English	German		MATI	p	f	p	p	p	p
118	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	p	f	f	p
119	English	Japanese		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
120	English	French		MACI	p	f	p	f	p	p
121	French	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
122	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	p	f	f	f
123	English	Spanish		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	f
124	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
125	English	French		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
126	English	German		MATI	p	f	p	p	f	f

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbitoa	contbitoa	congatob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtbitoa
127	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
128	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
129	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
130	English	French		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
131	English	Spanish		MATI	f	p	p	p	f	f
132	Spanish	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
133	English	Japanese		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
134	English	Japanese		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
135	English	Chinese		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
136	German	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	f
137	English	Japanese		MATI	p	p	f	p	p	p
138	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	f
139	English	Russian		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
140	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
141	German	English	French	MACI	f	p	p	p	p	p
142	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
143	English	Spanish	French	MACI	p	p	f	f	p	p
144	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	f	p	p	p
145	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
146	German	English		MATI	p	f	f	p	f	f
147	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbitoa	contbitoa	congbtob	contatob	simgbitoa	simbttoa
148	German	English	Russian	MACI	f	p	p	f	p	p
149	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
150	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
151	Russian	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
152	English	Spanish		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	f
153	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
154	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
155	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
156	English	Russian		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
157	English	Russian		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
158	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
159	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
160	Chinese	English		MATI	p	f	p	f	f	p
161	English	French		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
162	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
163	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
164	Japanese	English		MACI	p	p	p	f	p	f
165	English	German		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
166	German	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
167	Russian	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
168	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congntoa	contbtoa	congtob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtboa
169	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	f
170	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
171	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
172	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
173	Spanish	English		MATI	p	f	p	f	p	p
174	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
175	Korean	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
176	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
177	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
178	Korean	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
179	Japanese	English		MACI	p	f	p	p	p	p
180	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	f	f
181	Japanese	English		MACI	f	p	f	f	f	p
182	Japanese	English		MACI	f	f	p	p	p	p
183	English	Spanish		MATI	f	f	p	f	f	p
184	Chinese	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
185	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
186	English	German		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
187	English	Spanish	Russian	MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
188	English	Russian		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
189	Spanish	English	French	MACI	p	p	p	f	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbitoa	contbitoa	congatob	contatob	simgbitoa	simtbitoa
190	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	p
191	Korean	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
192	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
193	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	f
194	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	f	f
195	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	f	p	f	p
196	Russian	English		MACI	p	p	p	p	p	p
197	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
198	Spanish	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
199	English	French		MATI	f	f	f	f	f	p
200	English	German		MATI	p	p	f	f	f	p
201	English	Chinese		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
202	Spanish	English		MATI	p	f	p	f	f	f
203	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	f	p	f	f
204	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
205	Chinese	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	f	p
206	English	French		MATI	p	f	f	f	f	p
207	Spanish	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	f	p
208	French	English	Spanish	MACI	f	p	f	p	p	p
209	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
210	Japanese	English		MATI	p	f	p	p	p	p

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbitoa	contbitoa	congatob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtbitoa
211	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	p	f	p	f
212	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	f
213	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	f	p	p	p
214	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	p
215	English	Chinese		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
216	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	f
217	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	f	p	p
218	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	f	p
219	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
220	Chinese	English		MACI	f	p	p	p	p	p
221	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	p	p	f	f
222	Korean	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	f
223	English	French		MATI	p	f	f	p	f	f
224	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	p	f
225	Korean	English		MACI	f	p	p	p	p	p
226	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	f	p
227	English	French		MATI	f	f	p	f	f	p
228	Korean	English		MACI	f	p	p	p	p	p
229	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	f	p
230	Chinese	English		MATI	p	f	p	f	f	f
231	Chinese	English		MATI	f	p	f	f	p	f

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbtoa	contbtoa	congtob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtbtoa
232	English	Spanish	French	MACI	f	p	p	p	p	p
233	English	Spanish		MATI	p	p	f	f	f	p
234	English	German		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	f
235	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	p	f
236	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	p	f	f	f
237	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	p	p
238	Spanish	English		MACI	p	f	f	f	f	f
239	Spanish	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
240	French	English	Spanish	MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
241	Japanese	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	p	f
242	English	Spanish	French	MACI	f	p	p	f	p	f
243	Japanese	English		MATI	p	f	p	f	p	p
244	English	Japanese		MATI	p	f	p	f	p	p
245	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	f
246	English	Spanish	Russian	MACI	p	p	p	p	p	f
247	Korean	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	p
248	Japanese	English		MACI	p	p	f	f	p	p
249	Korean	English		MATI	f	p	p	p	p	p
250	Japanese	English		MATI	f	p	f	f	f	p
251	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
252	Korean	English		MATI	p	p	f	p	p	f

	alang	blang	clang	degree	congbtoa	contbtoa	congatob	contatob	simgbtoa	simtbtoa
253	English	French		MATI	p	f	f	f	p	p
254	Russian	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
255	Spanish	English		MATI	f	f	f	f	f	f
256	Spanish	English		MACI	f	p	f	f	f	f
257	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p
258	Japanese	English		MATI	p	p	f	f	p	p
259	English	Spanish		MATI	p	f	p	f	p	p
260	Chinese	English		MATI	p	p	p	p	p	p

10.6 Crosstabulations for Chi-Square and Lambda

DEGREE * CONGBTOA

Crosstab

		CONGBTOA			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	14	52	66
		Expected Count	15.2	50.8	66.0
	MATI	Count	46	148	194
		Expected Count	44.8	149.2	194.0
Total		Count	60	200	260
		Expected Count	60.0	200.0	260.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.173 ^b	1	.677		
Continuity Correction ^a	.061	1	.805		
Likelihood Ratio	.176	1	.675	.738	.408
Fisher's Exact Test					
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.23.

Crosstabs of All MATI and MACI Students Who Took the Professional Examinations in Interpretation Between 1994 and 1999.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
DEGREE * CONGBTOA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * CONTBTOA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * CONGATOB	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * CONTATOB	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * SIMGBTOA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * SIMTBTOA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%

DEGREE * CONTBTOA

Crosstab

		CONTBTOA			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	7	59	66
		Expected Count	11.7	54.3	66.0
MATI	Count	39	155	194	
	Expected Count	34.3	159.7	194.0	
Total	Count	46	214	260	
	Expected Count	46.0	214.0	260.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.050 ^b	1	.081		
Continuity Correction ^a	2.433	1	.119		
Likelihood Ratio	3.330	1	.068	.094	
Fisher's Exact Test					.055
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.68.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric	.000	.000	b	b
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
CONGBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.001	.003		.678 ^c
DEGREE Dependent	.001	.003		.678 ^c
CONGBTOA Dependent	.001	.003		.678 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	-.026	.677
Cramer's V	.026	.677
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONGATOB

Crosstab

		CONGATOB			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	10	56	66
		Expected Count	16.8	49.2	66.0
MATI		Count	56	138	194
		Expected Count	49.2	144.8	194.0
Total		Count	66	194	260
		Expected Count	66.0	194.0	260.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.890 ^b	1	.027		
Continuity Correction ^a	4.193	1	.041		
Likelihood Ratio	5.280	1	.022		
Fisher's Exact Test				.033	.018
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.75.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric				
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
CONTBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.012	.012		.081 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
CONTBTOA Dependent	.012	.012		.081 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	-.108	.081
Cramer's V	.108	.081
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONTATOB

Crosstab

		CONTATOB			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	19	47	66
		Expected Count	23.4	42.6	66.0
	MATI	Count	73	121	194
		Expected Count	68.6	125.4	194.0
Total		Count	92	168	260
		Expected Count	92.0	168.0	260.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.684 ^b	1	.194		
Continuity Correction ^a	1.319	1	.251		
Likelihood Ratio	1.721	1	.190		
Fisher's Exact Test				.234	.125
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.35.

Directional Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
	Symmetric DEGREE Dependent CONGATOB Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	DEGREE Dependent	.019	.015		.027 ^c
	CONGATOB Dependent	.019	.015		.027 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.027
N of Valid Cases	Cramer's V	.027
	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * SIMGBTOA

Crosstab

		SIMGBTOA			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	11	55	66
		Expected Count	17.8	48.2	66.0
MATI	Count	59	135	194	
	Expected Count	52.2	141.8	194.0	
Total	Count	70	190	260	
	Expected Count	70.0	190.0	260.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.729 ^b	1	.030		
Continuity Correction ^a	4.056	1	.044		
Likelihood Ratio	5.067	1	.024		
Fisher's Exact Test				.036	.020
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.77.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Nominal	.000	.000	b	b
	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.006	.010		.195 ^c
	.006	.010		.195 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.080	.194
Nominal	.080	.194
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * SIMTBTOA

Crosstab

	DEGREE	MACI	Count	SIMTBTOA		Total
				f	p	
			Count	11	55	66
			Expected Count	15.0	51.0	66.0
		MATI	Count	48	146	194
			Expected Count	44.0	150.0	194.0
	Total		Count	59	201	260
			Expected Count	59.0	201.0	260.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.831 ^b	1	.176		
Continuity Correction ^a	1.399	1	.237		
Likelihood Ratio	1.922	1	.166		
Fisher's Exact Test				.233	.117
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.98.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
SIMBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.018	.015		.030 ^c
DEGREE Dependent	.018	.015		.030 ^c
SIMBTOA Dependent				

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	-.135	.030
Cramer's V	.135	.030
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Crosstabs of All MATI and MACI Students Who Took the Professional Examinations in Interpretation Between 1994 and 1999.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
DEGREE * CONGBTOA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * CONTBTOA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * CONGATOB	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * CONTATOB	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * SIMGBTOA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%
DEGREE * SIMTBT OA	260	100.0%	0	.0%	260	100.0%

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Symmetric	.000	.000	b	b
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
SIMBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.007	.010		.177 ^c
DEGREE Dependent	.007	.010		.177 ^c
SIMBTOA Dependent	.007	.010		.177 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	-.084	.176
Cramer's V	.084	.176
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Directional Measures

		Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
	Symmetric DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
	CONGBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau		.001	.003		.678 ^c
		.001	.003		.678 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	-.026	.677
N of Valid Cases	.026	.677
	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONGBTOA

Crosstab

		CONGBTOA			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	14	52	66
		Expected Count	15.2	50.8	66.0
MATI	Count	46	148	194	
	Expected Count	44.8	149.2	194.0	
Total	Count	60	200	260	
	Expected Count	60.0	200.0	260.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.173 ^b	1	.677		
Continuity Correction ^a	.061	1	.805		
Likelihood Ratio	.176	1	.675	.738	
Fisher's Exact Test					.408
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 15.23.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric				
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
CONTBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.012	.012		.081 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
CONTBTOA Dependent	.012	.012		.081 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	-.108	.081
Cramer's V	.108	.081
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONTBTOA

Crosstab

		CONTBTOA			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	7	59	66
		Expected Count	11.7	54.3	66.0
MATI	Count	39	155	194	
	Expected Count	34.3	159.7	194.0	
Total	Count	46	214	260	
	Expected Count	46.0	214.0	260.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.050 ^b	1	.081		
Continuity Correction ^a	2.433	1	.119		
Likelihood Ratio	3.330	1	.068	.094	.055
Fisher's Exact Test					
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.68.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Nominal	.000	.000	b	b
	.000	.000	b	b
<hr/>				
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.019	.015		.027 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
CONGATOB Dependent	.019	.015		.027 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.137	.027
Nominal	.137	.027
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONGATOB

Crosstab

		CONGATOB			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	10	56	66
		Expected Count	16.8	49.2	66.0
MATI		Count	56	138	194
		Expected Count	49.2	144.8	194.0
Total		Count	66	194	260
		Expected Count	66.0	194.0	260.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.890 ^b	1	.027		
Continuity Correction ^a	4.193	1	.041		
Likelihood Ratio	5.280	1	.022	.033	.018
Fisher's Exact Test					
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 16.75.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric				
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
CONTATOB Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.006	.010		.195 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
CONTATOB Dependent	.006	.010		.195 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	-.080	.194
Cramer's V	.080	.194
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONTATOB

Crosstab

		CONTATOB			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	19	47	66
		Expected Count	23.4	42.6	66.0
	MATI	Count	73	121	194
		Expected Count	68.6	125.4	194.0
Total		Count	92	168	260
		Expected Count	92.0	168.0	260.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.684 ^b	1	.194		
Continuity Correction ^a	1.319	1	.251		
Likelihood Ratio	1.721	1	.190	.234	
Fisher's Exact Test					.125
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.35.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric				
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
SIMBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.018	.015		.030 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
SIMBTOA Dependent	.018	.015		.030 ^c

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.

c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.135	.030
Nominal Cramer's V	.135	.030
N of Valid Cases	260	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * SIMGBTOA

Crosstab

	DEGREE	MACI	SIMGBTOA			Total
			f	p		
		Count	11	55	66	
		Expected Count	17.8	48.2	66.0	
	MATI	Count	59	135	194	
		Expected Count	52.2	141.8	194.0	
Total		Count	70	190	260	
		Expected Count	70.0	190.0	260.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.729 ^b	1	.030		
Continuity Correction ^a	4.056	1	.044		
Likelihood Ratio	5.067	1	.024		
Fisher's Exact Test				.036	
N of Valid Cases	260				.020

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 17.77.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
SIMBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.007	.010		.177 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				.177 ^c
SIMBTOA Dependent	.007	.010		.177 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	-.084	.176
Cramer's V	.084	.176
N of Valid Cases	260	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * SIMTBTOA

Crosstab

		SIMTBTOA		Total
		f	p	
DEGREE	MACI	11	55	66
	Count	15.0	51.0	66.0
MATIC	Count	48	146	194
	Expected Count	44.0	150.0	194.0
Total	Count	59	201	260
	Expected Count	59.0	201.0	260.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.831 ^b	1	.176		
Continuity Correction ^a	1.399	1	.237		
Likelihood Ratio	1.922	1	.166		
Fisher's Exact Test				.233	.117
N of Valid Cases	260				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 14.98.

DEGREE * CONGBTOA

Crosstab

		CONGBTOA		Total
		f	p	
DEGREE	MACI	Count	20	29
		Expected Count	22.3	29.0
	MATI	Count	60	75
		Expected Count	57.7	75.0
Total		Count	80	104
		Expected Count	80.0	104.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.434 ^b	1	.231		
Continuity Correction ^a	.880	1	.348		
Likelihood Ratio	1.378	1	.240		
Fisher's Exact Test				.299	.173
N of Valid Cases	104				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.69.

Crosstabs of All MATI and MACI European Students Who Took the Professional Examinations in Interpretation Between 1994 and 1999.

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
DEGREE * CONGBTOA	104	100.0%	0	.0%	104	100.0%
DEGREE * CONTBTOA	104	100.0%	0	.0%	104	100.0%
DEGREE * CONGATOB	104	100.0%	0	.0%	104	100.0%
DEGREE * CONTATOB	104	100.0%	0	.0%	104	100.0%
DEGREE * SIMGBTOA	104	100.0%	0	.0%	104	100.0%
DEGREE * SIMTBTOA	104	100.0%	0	.0%	104	100.0%

DEGREE * CONTBTOA

Crosstab

		CONTBTOA			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	4	25	29
		Expected Count	7.0	22.0	29.0
MATI		Count	21	54	75
		Expected Count	18.0	57.0	75.0
Total		Count	25	79	104
		Expected Count	25.0	79.0	104.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.312 ^b	1	.128		
Continuity Correction ^a	1.599	1	.206		
Likelihood Ratio	2.505	1	.114		
Fisher's Exact Test				.200	.100
N of Valid Cases	104				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.97.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
CONGBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.014	.024		.233 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
CONGBTOA Dependent	.014	.024		.233 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	.117	.231
Cramer's V	.117	.231
N of Valid Cases	104	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONGATOB

Crosstab

		CONGATOB			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	7	22	29
		Expected Count	8.6	20.4	29.0
MATI	Count	24	51	75	
	Expected Count	22.4	52.6	75.0	
Total	Count	31	73	104	
	Expected Count	31.0	73.0	104.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.618 ^b	1	.432		
Continuity Correction ^a	.299	1	.584		
Likelihood Ratio	.634	1	.426		
Fisher's Exact Test				.483	.296
N of Valid Cases	104				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.64.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric				
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
CONTBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.022	.025		.130 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
CONTBTOA Dependent	.022	.025		.130 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	.149	.128
Cramer's V	.149	.128
N of Valid Cases	104	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * CONTATOB

Crosstab

		CONTATOB			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	11	18	29
		Expected Count	11.4	17.6	29.0
MATI	Count	30	45	75	
		Expected Count	29.6	45.4	75.0
Total	Count	41	63	104	
		Expected Count	41.0	63.0	104.0

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.037 ^b	1	.846		
Continuity Correction ^a	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.038	1	.846		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.515
N of Valid Cases	104				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 11.43.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Lambda	.000		
	Symmetric DEGREE Dependent	.000	b	b
	CONGATOB Dependent	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	DEGREE Dependent	.006		.434 ^c
	CONGATOB Dependent	.006		.434 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.432
N of Valid Cases	Cramer's V	.432
	104	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * SIMGBTOA

Crosstab

		SIMGBTOA			Total
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	4	25	29
		Expected Count	8.4	20.6	29.0
MATI	Count	26	49	75	
	Expected Count	21.6	53.4	75.0	
Total	Count	30	74	104	
	Expected Count	30.0	74.0	104.0	

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.439 ^b	1	.035		
Continuity Correction ^a	3.481	1	.062		
Likelihood Ratio	4.887	1	.027		
Fisher's Exact Test				.052	.027
N of Valid Cases	104				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.37.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Nominal	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric	.000	.000	b	b
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.004		.847 ^c
CONTATOB Dependent	.000	.004		.847 ^c
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.000	.004		.847 ^c
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.004		.847 ^c
CONTATOB Dependent	.000	.004		.847 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.019	.846
Nominal	.019	.846
N of Valid Cases	104	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

DEGREE * SIMTBTOA

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.047 ^b	1	.828		
Continuity Correction ^a	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.048	1	.827	1.000	.527
Fisher's Exact Test					
N of Valid Cases	104				

a. Computed only for a 2x2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 6.41.

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric	.000	.000	b	b
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
SIMTBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.000	.004		.828 ^c
DEGREE Dependent	.000	.004		.828 ^c
SIMTBTOA Dependent	.000	.004		.828 ^c

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.

c. Based on chi-square approximation

Directional Measures

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error ^a	Approx. T	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal				
Lambda	.000	.000	b	b
Symmetric DEGREE Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
SIMBTOA Dependent	.000	.000	b	b
Goodman and Kruskal tau	.043	.034		.036 ^c
DEGREE Dependent				
SIMBTOA Dependent	.043	.034		.036 ^c

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Cannot be computed because the asymptotic standard error equals zero.
- c. Based on chi-square approximation

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal		
Phi	-.207	.035
Cramer's V	.207	.035
N of Valid Cases	104	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

10.7 Case Study Survey Form

David Sawyer, Assistant Professor, GSTI/German, MIIS

1

Survey on MIIS's Professional Examinations in Interpretation

Background:

This survey is part of a research project on the professional examinations in interpretation at MIIS. The purpose of the survey is to gather data on exam procedures, assessment objectives, and scoring procedures.

The survey covers the period from May 1994 to August 1998 only. It does not cover exams after 1998.

The information you provide will make it possible to substantially improve the examination process at MIIS.

The accuracy and completeness of your answers are crucial to the quality of this project.

Exam procedures may have varied between programs due to differences in exam philosophy. Please keep in mind that there are no correct or incorrect answers; the purpose of the survey is simply to describe the exam procedures that were in place during this period, not to make value judgements.

***Please take a few minutes to complete this questionnaire if you served on a jury** for the professional examinations in interpretation at MIIS at any time from May 1994 to August 1998. You do not need to have been a jury member for the entire time period.*

Procedure:

If you served as a jury member for more than one language program, please complete a separate questionnaire for each language.

Please write your name and language program on the envelope I have provided so that I can track faculty participation. The list of names will be kept in a file separate from the surveys. After I have determined the return rate and have made sure that I have no more questions about your responses, the list of names will be destroyed. No one else will have access to your questionnaire(s).

I guarantee full anonymity when I report the results. Please do not write your name on this form.

Your time and effort are much appreciated!

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.828
N of Valid Cases	Cramer's V	.828
	104	

- a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.
- b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Crosstab

		SIMTBIOA		Total	
		f	p		
DEGREE	MACI	Count	6	23	29
		Expected Count	6.4	22.6	29.0
MATI	Count	17	58	75	
	Expected Count	16.6	58.4	75.0	
Total	Count	23	81	104	
	Expected Count	23.0	81.0	104.0	

Your Background

- A. Please circle the number of years you have worked as an interpreter:
1 – 5 6 – 10 11 – 15 16 – 20 21 – 25 26 – 30 more than 30
- B. Please circle the number of years you have taught interpretation:
1 – 5 6 – 10 11 – 15 16 – 20 21 – 25 26 – 30 more than 30
- C. Please circle the language program for which you were an exam jury member between May 1994 and August 1998. If you were a jury member for more than one language program, please complete a separate questionnaire for each language:
Chinese French German Korean Japanese Russian Spanish
- D. Please indicate when you served on MIIS interpretation exam juries:
- E. Have you served on juries for interpretation exams at places other than MIIS?
Yes No
- F. If you answered Yes, where were these exams held? Please write the answer below:
- G. If you answered Yes, Please indicate the total number of years of your service outside MIIS:
- H. Have you received any training in testing, for example by taking courses, participating in workshops or reading relevant literature?
Yes No
- I. If you answered Yes to question H, please briefly summarize your training:

MIIS Interpretation Exam Procedures from 1994 to 1998

Please reflect briefly on how exams were administered in your language program while you were a jury member and answer the following questions. Please circle the appropriate response.

- 1) Did you or another jury member deliver the examination speeches live or did you use audio- and/or videotapes? Please circle all responses that apply:

- a) for consecutive: live audiotapes videotapes
b) for simultaneous: live audiotapes videotapes

How often did you use audiotapes?

- c) for consecutive: almost always sometimes hardly ever never
d) for simultaneous: almost always sometimes hardly ever never

How often did you use videotapes?

- e) for consecutive: almost always sometimes hardly ever never
f) for simultaneous: almost always sometimes hardly ever never

- 2) In the *consecutive* interpretation examinations, how often did your jury tape your students in groups in the booths and grade students using these tapes later?

almost always sometimes hardly ever never

- 3) In the *simultaneous* interpretation examinations, how often did your jury tape your students in groups in the booths and grade students using these tapes later?

almost always sometimes hardly ever never

.....

- 4) Were students briefed on the topic before each exam? Yes No Sometimes

If you answered "No" to question 4), please go directly to question 7).

- 5) If you answered Yes or *Sometimes*, did your jury provide any of the following information?

a) name of speaker	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
b) background of speaker	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
c) venue of speech	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
d) date of speech	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
e) proper names in the speech	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
f) numbers in the speech	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
g) terminology	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A
h) context information	Always	Sometimes	Never	N/A

- 6) If procedures fluctuated so widely that you feel you cannot give a good answer to any of questions 5a) through 5h), please indicate the letter of the question(s) about which you have doubts in the following space.

.....

- 7) In the consecutive interpretation exams, did your jury subdivide the five-minute speech into smaller segments?

Yes No

If you answered "No" to question 7), please go directly to question 9).

- 8) If your jury subdivided the consecutive speech, approximately how many times did the presenter pause to allow the student to interpret during the five-minute exam?

once twice three times four times five times more

-
- 9) In the simultaneous exams, did your jury give the student the opportunity to warm up in the presence of the jury?

Always Sometimes Never N/A

If you answered "Never" or "N/A" to question 9), please go directly to question 12).

- 10) If your jury allowed the student to warm up, was the warm-up material the first part of the exam speech or different material?

first part of speech different material both

- 11) If your jury allowed the student to warm up, approximately how many minutes was the warm-up altogether?

one minute three minutes five minutes seven minutes longer

Purpose of the Exams

- 12) Please think for a moment about the *purpose* of the interpretation examinations for students following both the MATI and MACI degree tracks. The purpose may be related to the course of study, skill levels, and/or later employment. Using a few key words, please describe the *purpose* of the interpretation examinations in the following space:

- 13) The *purpose* of the interpretation exams may or may not be the same for the MATI and MACI degree tracks. In your opinion, is the *purpose* of the exams for these two degree tracks primarily the

same or different? (Please circle one response)

If you answered the "same" to question 13), please go directly to question 15).

- 14) If you circled *different* in question 13), please describe those differences in *purpose* briefly in the following space.

Assessment Criteria

- 15) Please think for a moment about the *assessment criteria* for the interpretation examinations for students following both the MATI and MACI degree tracks. The *assessment criteria* for the interpretation exams may or may not be the same for MATI and MACI students. In your opinion, are the *assessment criteria* for these two degree tracks primarily the

same or different? (Please circle one response!)

If you answered "the same" to question 15), please go directly to question 18).

- 16) If you circled *different* in question 15), please describe those differences in *assessment criteria* briefly in the following space.

- 17) If you circled *different* in question 15), do those differences influence how you score students?

Yes No

General and Technical Speeches, Simultaneous with Text

- 18) Between 1994 and 1998, MIIS administered interpretation exams for both *general and technical speeches*. General and technical exams may or may not assess the same skills and abilities. Using the following scale, please indicate the degree to which you believe general and technical exams assess the same skills and abilities:

a great deal some only a little not at all

- 19) Do you think that these skills and abilities are different enough to merit separate exams for general and technical speeches?

yes, separate exams no, one exam I'm not sure

- 20) Between 1994 and 1998, MIIS administered interpretation exams for both *simultaneous with text* and *simultaneous without text*. Exams in *simultaneous with* and *simultaneous without text* may or may not assess the same skills and abilities. Using the following scale, please indicate the degree to which you believe *simultaneous exams with* and *without text* assess the same skills and abilities:

a great deal some only a little not at all

- 21) Do you think that the skills and abilities assessed by exams in *simultaneous without* and *simultaneous with text* are different enough to merit separate exams?

yes, separate exams

no, one exam

I'm not sure

Criteria for Scoring: A and B Languages, Score Categories

- 22) When scoring **consecutive** interpretation exams, jury members may or may not have the same expectations of students working into their *A languages* as students working into their *B languages*. To what extent do you personally have the same expectations of A and B language students in **consecutive**?

to a great extent

some

only a little

not at all

- 23) When scoring **simultaneous** interpretation exams, jury members may or may not have the same expectations of students working into their *A languages* as students working into their *B languages*. To what extent do you personally have the same expectations of A and B language students in **simultaneous**?

to a great extent

some

only a little

not at all

-
- 24) In 1997, MIIS adopted the following *score categories* for interpretation exams: *high pass, pass, borderline fail, fail*. To what extent is this scale in line with your personal approach to scoring?

to a great extent

some

only a little

not at all

- 25) If you answered *some, only a little* or *not at all* to the preceding question, please describe briefly how your personal approach differs from this scale:

26) Using a few short phrases, please describe briefly the *scoring criteria* you apply to each category:

a) high pass:

b) pass:

c) borderline fail:

d) fail:

27) The criteria you apply to this scale may or may not have been the same as the criteria applied by other jury members. In your opinion, to what extent did jury members **in your language combination** have the same criteria?

to a great extent

some

only a little

not at all

I don't know

- 28) From 1994 to 1998, to what extent did jury members **in other language combinations** have the same criteria?

to a great extent some only a little not at all I don't know

- 29) From 1994 to 1997, MIIS used a 100-point scale for scoring the interpretation exams. In this case as well, the criteria applied to this scale may or may not have been the same for individual jury members. In your opinion, to what extent did jury members **in your language combination** have the same criteria for the 100-point scale?

to a great extent some only a little not at all I don't know

- 30) From 1994 to 1997, to what extent did jury members **in other language combinations** have the same criteria for the 100-point scale?

to a great extent some only a little not at all I don't know

Jury Conduct

- 31) When scoring students in the exams, did your jury usually have an open discussion before you decide on your final score?

almost always usually sometimes hardly ever

If you answered "hardly ever" to question 31), please proceed directly to question 34).

- 32) In the cases where open discussions take place, did you do a blind rating *before* the discussion?

almost always usually sometimes hardly ever

If you answered "hardly ever" to question 32), please proceed directly to question 34).

- 33) If you did a blind rating, how often did you change your score *after* the discussion?

almost always usually sometimes hardly ever

34) Do you have external examiners on your jury?

almost always usually sometimes hardly ever

If you answered "hardly ever" to question 34), please proceed directly to question 36).

35) If you answered *almost always, usually or sometimes* to question 34), does the presence of external examiners influence jury discussions?

almost always usually sometimes hardly ever

Any Comments?

36) Would you like to make any additional comments about this survey or about MIIS's examination procedures for interpretation, including suggestions for improvement? If you do, please use the space below.

Thanks for your participation!

10.8 GSTI Oral and Written Diagnostic Test

Monterey Institute of International Studies Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Early Diagnostic Test – Oral Version 1

Instructions for Submitting the Audio Tape

To enable us to assess your oral skills in the languages you wish to study and your potential for translator and/or interpreter training, we require that you submit an audio tape following these guidelines. The oral diagnostic test will be evaluated *only* if your written skills are found to be sufficient. Please read through the entire oral diagnostic test before beginning.

- I. Use a new, standard-sized cassette (not a mini-cassette). Label the cassette with your full name, on the side you have recorded.
- II. Begin your recording by identifying yourself with your full name and your language combination.
- III. Indicate the different sections of the Oral Diagnostic Test by saying, "Part One, B Language," "Part One, C Language," "Part Two, B Language," etc. before proceeding with those sections.
- IV. When completing the exercises requiring extemporaneous speech (Parts Two and Three), you may note down some key words, but *do not prepare a written text and read it*.
- V. When you are done, please rewind the cassette.

Part One: Pronunciation Skills

Please record the following texts in your B (and C) language(s), reading in as natural a voice as possible.

Chinese:

好象家里人谁也不肯说，为什么后院那间小屋一直空着，锁着，甚至连院子也很少人去。这空屋便常常隐在几株大梧桐深幽的、湿漉漉的荫影里，红砖墙几乎被苔涂绿，黝黑的檐下总是挂着一些亮闪闪的大蜘蛛网。一入秋，大片大片黄黄的落叶就粘在蛛网上，片片姿态都美，它们还把地面铺得又厚又软，奇怪的是很少有鸟儿飞到这院里来，这便在它的荒芜中加进一点阴森的感觉。

English:

If English is not your native language, people may have noticed that you come from another country because of your "foreign accent." Why do people usually have an accent when they speak a second language? Several theories address this issue. Many people believe that only young children can learn a second language without an accent, but applied linguists have reported cases of older individuals who have mastered a second language without an accent. Another common belief is that your first language influences your pronunciation in a second language. Most native speakers of English can, for example, recognize people from France by their French accents. They may also be able to identify Spanish or Arabic speakers over the telephone, just by listening carefully to their pronunciation. Does this mean that accents can't be changed? Not at all! But old habits won't change without a lot of hard work, will they? In the end, the path to learning to speak a second language without an accent appears to be a combination of hard work, a good ear, and a strong desire to sound like a native speaker. You also need accurate information about the English sound system and lots of exposure to the spoken language.

French:

Un tremblement de terre, de magnitude 5.5 sur l'échelle ouverte de Richter, a fait au moins un mort et une dizaine de blessés mercredi à la mi-journée dans le sud de l'Italie, selon les autorités.

L'épicentre du séisme était situé à 350km au sud-est de Rome, dans la région montagneuse se trouvant à l'intersection de la Calabre et la Basilicate.

Un jeune Italien de 24 ans. PDG d'une entreprise locale que voulait aller se mettre à l'abri après avoir garé son véhicule. a été tué dans une chute de pierres.

Une dizaine de personnes ont par ailleurs été hospitalisées, dont une femme, victime d'une fracture au bras.

German:

Neue Arbeitsplätze entstehen in Deutschland vor allem in dynamischen, innovativen mittelständischen Unternehmen und durch Existenzgründungen. Die Chancen, neue Ideen zu realisieren und erste Markterfolge in dauerhafte Arbeitsplätze umzumünzen, hängen gerade bei jungen und innovativen Unternehmen auch entscheidend von situationsgerechten Finanzierungsmöglichkeiten ab. Der Zugang zu Beteiligungs- und Risikokapital sowie die Verfügbarkeit "maßgeschneiderter" Finanzierungen in der Gründungs- oder Wachstumsphase sind damit der Schlüssel für neue Beschäftigungschancen.

Eine herausragende Rolle bei der Unterstützung von innovativen und mittelständischen Unternehmen spielen die Fördermöglichkeiten des ERP-Sondervermögens sowie die flankierenden Programme der beiden Förderbanken des Bundes, der Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau (KfW) und der Deutschen Ausgleichsbank (DtA).

Japanese:

水に浮いているあめんぼを、近くで観察してみましょう。

あめんぼは、細い、はりがねのような足を水面につけています。よく見ると、足の周りの水面が少しへこんでいます。ちょうど、水面にまくがあって、あめんぼの体重でそのまくがへこんでいるように見えます。

それでは、足を動かしているのに、水面のまくがやぶれないのはどうしてでしょうか。そのわけを考えてみましょう。

Korean:

구조조정과 인플레이 정책

실업자가 200 만명에 육박하고, 기업도산이 줄을 잇고 있다. 얼어붙은 부동산시장은 백약이 무효다. 현대자동차 노사문제를 보고난 국민들은 정부의 원칙이 도대체 무엇이나고 비판하고 있다. 정부가 규제를 완화한다고 한지 몇 년째인데 온갖 규제는 여전히 여전하다는 탄식이다. 국제적으로 볼 때 아직도 우리의 금리는 높고, 환율은 불안하며, 자금 조달원인 주식시장은 빈사상태다.

우리경제의 생명줄인 수출마저 뒷걸음질치고 있다. 불황이 몇 년 더 지속될지 터널의 끝이 안보인다. 이리다가는 수술 (구조개혁)은 성공했으나 사람(경제)이 깨어나지 못하는 사태를 우려하게 된다. 재벌기업의 빅딜은 결국 스물달로 정부의 체면을 세워주는 정도에서 그칠 공산이 크다. 금융경색 가운데서도 자금은 5대 재벌에 집중되어 재벌만 점점 더 비대해지고 있다.

어디를 봐도 희망이 없어 보인다. 그러나 희망은 있다. 불황하에서 대기업도 아닌 중소기업의 수출이 증가하고 있으며, 이룸모들 중소기업들중 짝짝하게 수익을 올리는 곳이 생기고 있다. 성공하는 기업을 보면 정보기술, 멀티미디어를 위시한 비약적인 기술혁신을 하는 작은 기업들이라는 공통점을 갖고 있다. 그런 기업들은 시장의 성장에 의하여 이익을 올리는 것이 아니라, 시장의 창조에 의하여 이익을 만들고 있다. 변영의 열쇠는 대기업이 아니라 적정규모의 기업이며, 창조성과 지식을 새로운 재산으로 삼고 있는 회사이다.

그러나 이대로 가면 국제경쟁에서 살아남을 수 있는 기업마저 쓰러질까 걱정이다. 가능성이 있는 기업들을 키우려면 자금을 풀어봤자 가야할 곳으로는 가지 않는다는 논리는 정책의 포기나 마찬가지다. 기업 구조개혁은 제대로써 지속시키고, 시장은 자금을 풀어 살려야 한다. 인플레이정책이 불가피한 시점이다.

Russian:

Среди отечественных любомудров давно установилось мнение, что Западу не понять нашей сущности, наших особенностей, нашего своеобразия. А потому все попытки опереться на западный силлогизм в решении российских проблем приведут рано или поздно к неудаче. Однако пример последнего столетия, когда под видом марксизма мы исповедовали собственное бесовство, предсказанное еще Достоевским, заставляет задуматься: точно ли в наших неурядицах виноват западный "самодвижущийся нож разума"? Быть может, речь должна идти о недостаточной разработанности нашего мышления и сознания, приводящей к роковым aberrациям, создающим определенные фантомы в нашем восприятии самих себя.

Один из таких фантомов есть миф о непостижимости, о загадке, о тайне, об особом преопределении русской судьбы, не поддающейся анализу разума. "Умом Россию не понять", - написа:

как-то Тютчев в стихотворении, ставшем программным для отечественного национализма, поводом к особой, специфической гордости, закрывающей путь к самопознанию. Между тем эта строка свидетельствует скорее о метафизическом отчаянии поэта, отчаянии, принадлежащем определенной мыслительной традиции.

В 1845 г. Хомяков написал статью "Мнение иностранцев о России", в которой огорчился недоброжелательным взглядом иноземцев на российскую действительность, но объяснял его тем, что мы сами недостаточно себя знаем, что русские не осмеливаются мыслить самостоятельно, ожидая интеллектуальной помощи с Запада, называл это незнание "грехом неведения", но пытался показать, что Россия способна к самопознанию, несмотря на всю его трудность, которую приходится преодолевать и западным народам.

Spanish:

La lectura, ese proceso mágico

Nuestro trabajo, nuestros actos como ciudadanos, las actividades que realizamos en nuestras horas de ocio: casi todo se fundamenta en la palabra impresa. Hasta salir a dar una caminata nos hace leer anuncios publicitarios, los nombres de los comercios, los de las calles. Pero la lectura, tal como ahora la practicamos, no llegó a difundirse hasta hace relativamente poco. Los antiguos griegos y romanos se valían de lectores profesionales, quienes les leían en voz alta, y en los inicios de la Edad Media los monjes seguían haciendo lo mismo. Como en aquella época se acostumbraba escribir juntando las palabras una tras otra, a menudo en forma abreviada, sin espacios que las separaran y sin puntuación, había que recurrir a los servicios de un lector profesional a fin de captar el sentido del texto. Trate el lector de seguir todo un libro escrito así:
UNSEÑORTOMAELTRANVIADESPUESDECOMPRARELDIARIOYPONERSELOBAJOELBRAZO
MEDIHORAMASTARDEDESCIENDECONELMISMODIARIOBAJOELMISMOBRAZO.

Part Two: Abstract Thinking Skills / Extemporaneous Speech

When completing this exercise, *do not prepare a written text and read it.*

- A. Choose a current event. In your B language, describe the facts involved and their impact on world affairs.

Take as much time as you wish to think about your response before beginning the recording. Your response should not be longer than 5 minutes. Do not interrupt the recording in the middle of your response.

- B. Repeat this exercise in your C language, if applicable, and use a different current event.

Part Three: Self-Assessment / Extemporaneous Speech

When completing this exercise, *do not prepare a written text and read it.*

Before beginning, take some time to read through the following instructions and to reflect on how you wish to answer each question. Your responses should not be longer than 5 minutes each. You may stop the recorder in between questions, but do not interrupt the recording in the middle of your response.

- A. Explain in your C language why you would like to be a translator and/or interpreter. Please be specific about the factors motivating you. If you are not applying for a C language, please respond in your B language.
- B. Describe in your B language how you acquired your foreign language(s) and how this process has led to your current skill level. As part of this answer, give a self-assessment of your language skills by discussing your written and oral fluency.
- C. Describe in your A language how you think using languages as a translator and/or interpreter may differ from your current use of these languages. Topics you may wish to touch upon include oral and written fluency, subject material and vocabulary, and areas of weakness that you may need to address when studying to become a translator and/or interpreter.

Monterey Institute of International Studies
Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation

Early Diagnostic Test – Oral Version 2

Instructions for Submitting the Audio Tape

To enable us to assess your oral skills in the languages you wish to study and your potential for translator and/or interpreter training, we require that you submit an audio tape following these guidelines. The oral diagnostic test will be evaluated *only* if your written skills are found to be sufficient. Please read through the entire oral diagnostic test before beginning.

I. Use a new, standard-sized cassette (not a mini-cassette). Label the cassette with your full name, on the side you have recorded.

II. Begin your recording by identifying yourself with your full name and your language combination.

III. Indicate the different sections of the Oral Diagnostic Test by saying, "Part One. B Language," "Part One. C Language," "Part Two. B Language," etc. before proceeding with those sections.

IV. When completing the exercises requiring extemporaneous speech (Parts Two and Three), you may note down some key words, but *do not prepare a written text and read it*.

V. When you are done, please rewind the cassette.

Part One: Pronunciation Skills

Please record the following texts in your B (and C) language(s), reading in as natural a voice as possible.

Chinese:

高等教育向着多样化的方向发展，从单一结构向多种结构演化，这是当代国际高等教育改革和发展的重要趋势之一。现代生产对高等教育改革提出新的要求，各国对人才的需求，不仅是高等教育改革管理人才，还要有大批的熟练的中级技术人才，这就要求高等教育必须建立适合现代生产需求的合理的人才结构，改革传统高等教育的象牙塔，实现其结构类型的多样化。

English:

Have you ever watched young children practice the sounds of the language they are learning? They imitate, repeat, and sing consonant and vowel combinations without effort. For young children, learning to speak a language is natural and automatic. No one would suspect that complex learning is occurring. For adult learners, however, pronunciation of a new language is not automatic. It presents an unusual challenge. Why is pronunciation progress in adults more limited? Some researchers say that there are biological or physical reasons. Others say that there are social or cultural reasons. Although there are many unanswered questions, it is important to realize two things about clear speaking. First, pronunciation improvement might be difficult, but it is possible. Second, adults can learn to communicate clearly in English without losing their accents or their identification with their native cultures.

French:

Lionel Jospin donne une leçon de capitalisme dans une tribune à paraître jeudi dans « Le Nouvel Observateur ». Le Premier ministre appelle les pays capitalistes à la prudence et les invite à réguler leurs échanges.

Fort des crises économiques récentes, en Asie et en Russie, le chef du gouvernement français constate que « l'économie est politique », et que seuls les pays démocratiques peuvent avoir un développement pérenne.

« Le capitalisme reste instable. l'économie est politique. la mondialisation appelle la régulation », écrit notamment M. Jospin avant d'observer que si le communisme a été détruit par le totalitarisme, « le capitalisme a été sauvé par la démocratie ».

German:

Herr Präsident, meine Damen und Herren! Wir diskutieren über einen Vorschlag für ein Übereinkommen, der Regelungen vorwegnimmt, die auf der Grundlage des Amsterdamer Vertrages in anderen Rechtsformen, nämlich in denen des Gemeinschaftsrechts, in der Union Geltung haben werden. Deswegen hat diese Debatte auch etwas mehr Gewicht, als sie in der Vergangenheit vielleicht gehabt hätte. Das Europäische Parlament schickt sich an, einen der wesentlichsten innenpolitischen Bereiche, nämlich den der Zuwanderung nach Europa, in Rechtsregeln zu fassen. Es unterliegt keinem Zweifel, daß in allen Mitgliedstaaten sehr kritisch beobachtet werden wird, wie das Parlament sich zu diesem Vorgang verhält.

Japanese:

鉛筆は右手で削るものと思い込んでいましたが、観察したら左手もけっこう使っています。

鉛筆を削るとき、ナイフを持つ手は右ですが、その右手はほとんど動かしません。

背に親指の腹をあてがってナイフを前のほうに押し出しているのは左手の親指です。親指を除いた残りの四本の左手の指は共同して鉛筆をくるくる回しています。しかも回しながら鉛筆を少しずつ前に押し出しています。

Korean:

한국 IMF 사태 이후 한미양국을 오가며 도피행각을 벌이고 있는 현행범들이 늘고 있는 가운데 지난해 5월 발효된 '한미 형사 사법 공조조약'이 범죄 용의자 행방추적등 본래의 목적을 이루는데 전혀 도움이 되지 않고 있다는 지적이 나오고 있다.

특히 수사협조와 용의자 행방추적등 공조의 신속성이 요구되는 사안의 경우 번거로운 행정 절차와 조약의 본질을 이해 못하는 관료주의 때문에 조약자체가 오히려 방해요소가 된다는 분석이다. 형사사법공조가 이뤄지기 위해 양국 사법기관이 거쳐야하는 정부부서는 최소 8개나 된다. 조약상 공조권이 경찰에게 없기 때문에 지역경찰은 수사기록 교환이나 용의자 행적추적등 신속을 요구하는 업무도 일일이 법원의 허가를 받아 검찰을 통해 추진해야 한다.

이같은 번거로움 때문에 조약 발효이후 올해 5월까지 1년동안 조약상의 절차를 따라 이뤄진 공조건수는 4건에 불과했다. 그것도 모두 한국 법무부가 미국측에 요청한 법원서류 송달이 전부였고 용의자 행방추적등 실질적인 공조는 단 한 건도 없었다. 이 달 1 일 한국법무부가 이 석채 전 정보통신부 장관을 포함, 9명의 도피사범에 대한 행적추적을 미법무부에 공식요청했으나 업무를 맡게될 연방수사국이 얼마나 빨리 한국 법무부의 요청을 처리할 지는 미지수다. 한국 경찰청은 그 동안 형사사법공조조약과는 무관하게 미국내 공판원을 통해 지역경찰과 연방이민국과 협조, 미국내 도피중인 경제사범등을 강제소환해 왔다. LA경찰국 관계자들은 "경제사범을 송환할때는 우리에게 직접 도움을 요청하면서 우리가 공조를 원할때는 조약상의 절차를 밟으라고 하는 것은 형평성의 원리에도 어긋난다"고 말했다.

Russian:

Язык, неотчуждаемое богатство, крылья, которые вырастают за спиной у сброшенного со скалы! Язык, который не имеет цены, не изменит и не обманет, как конь в песне Казбича; язык, не напрасно названный жилищем бытия, тот, что возрождается в каждом из нас и переживает всех нас, живых и мертвых, и через голову современников и правителей связывает нас с традицией. Гейне назвал Библию портативным отечеством вечно скитающегося народа. Единственное вечное и неистребимое отечество, которое изгнанник унес с собой, - язык.

Но ведь там, где он бросил якорь, все называется по-другому, и даже если ему не совсем чужд диалект приютившей его страны, он тотчас заметит, что и думают здесь по-другому. Его язык не поддается пересказу, а значит, и не имеет ценности - все равно что неконвертируемая валюта. Благословение писателя-эмигранта, родная речь - это вместе с тем и его тюрьма. Не сразу доходит до него, что он притащил с собой свою собственную клетку. Любой язык представляет замкнутый контур мышления. Но русский изгнанник вдвойне страдает от непонимания, ибо он прибыл из гигантской провинции, из закрытой страны и самая ткань его языка пропахла затхлостью и неволей.

Spanish:

Las nuevas formas de dependencia

En un mundo de grandes conglomerados económicos, en el que la distancia que separa a los países industrializados de los subdesarrollados es cada vez mayor, las posibilidades de un camino autónomo de desarrollo se tornan cada vez más complejas. Un mercado minúsculo que no llega a los 3 millones de personas para los productos industriales de gran consumo: la absoluta carencia de tecnología propia y la casi imposibilidad de crearla dentro de nuestras fronteras; un sistema productivo fundamentalmente agrícola que apenas empieza a incursionar en la industrialización; una organización social que margina al 52 por ciento de la población sujeta a situaciones de pobreza y explotación extremas; la enajenación de las clases dominantes más interesadas en los valores europeos y norteamericanos que en nuestra cultura; el desprecio sistemático que todavía sufre "lo indio" a pesar de constituir una base nacional esencial; la supervivencia del regionalismo con todas sus secuelas desintegradoras: en suma, la inexistencia de una nación ecuatoriana que sirva de base al Estado ecuatoriano, crean serios obstáculos para la viabilidad nacional del país.

Part Two: Abstract Thinking Skills / Extemporaneous Speech

When completing this exercise, *do not prepare a written text and read it.*

- A. Choose a current event. In your B language, describe the facts involved and their impact on world affairs.

Take as much time as you wish to think about your response before beginning the recording. Your response should not be longer than 5 minutes. Do not interrupt the recording in the middle of your response.

- B. Repeat this exercise in your C language, if applicable, and use a different current event.

Part Three: Self-Assessment / Extemporaneous Speech

When completing this exercise, *do not prepare a written text and read it.*

Before beginning, take some time to read through the following instructions and to reflect on how you wish to answer each question. Your responses should not be longer than 5 minutes each. You may stop the recorder in between questions, but do not interrupt the recording in the middle of your response.

- A. Explain in your C language why you would like to be a translator and/or interpreter. Please be specific about the factors motivating you. If you are not applying for a C language, please respond in your B language.
- B. Describe in your B language how you acquired your foreign language(s) and how this process has led to your current skill level. As part of this answer, give a self-assessment of your language skills by discussing your written and oral fluency.
- C. Describe in your A language how you think using languages as a translator and/or interpreter may differ from your current use of these languages. Topics you may wish to touch upon include oral and written fluency, subject material and vocabulary, and areas of weakness that you may need to address when studying to become a translator and/or interpreter.

Dear T&I Applicant:

Thank you for your interest in the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI) at the Monterey Institute of International Studies.

GSTI prepares students to become professional translators and interpreters who enable communication at the international, national, and community levels. The two-year MA and one-year advanced entry MA degrees in translation, translation and interpretation, and conference interpretation are offered in Chinese, English, French, German, Japanese, Korean, Russian and Spanish. Intensive courses in English, French, Japanese, Russian and Spanish for translation and interpretation are offered during the summer. GSTI's programs teach several skills: written translation, sight translation, consecutive interpretation, and simultaneous interpretation. Students in GSTI are expected to have English either as their first foreign language or native language.

It is important that students be well prepared to undertake the program. An assessment of a student's written and oral language skills are an integral part of the admissions process. You will find a copy of our Early Diagnostic Test (EDT) in your language combination(s) enclosed. If the enclosed test does not cover all languages you are applying for, please let us know which language test you need and we will be happy to send it to you. For students doing a three language combination, you receive two separate EDT's. Please complete only those sections of the second set that pertain to your C language. Please follow the instructions carefully, complete the test, and return it with your \$50.00 application fee to the Admissions Office (if not already submitted with your degree application). Please note if a test is returned after May 1 there may be some delay in evaluating it for the fall semester.

For the purpose of evaluating oral skills, you are required to complete an oral diagnostic tape. We also strongly urge prospective students to visit the campus for a personal interview. When this is not practical, we find it useful to hold a brief telephone conversation with the candidate in the first foreign language.

We have found this procedure useful in helping us to ascertain a candidate's potential for the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation. Nonetheless, it may become clear, after a student commences his or her studies that the language skills or aptitudes require reinforcement. Should this be the case, we may propose the student undertake an additional period of study abroad.

Once again, thank you for your interest in the program. We look forward to contacting you after we have evaluated your EDT. If you have any questions about the test, please call my office: (831) 647-4170.

Sincerely,



Diane de Terra
Dean

DdT/jr

**Monterey Institute of International Studies
Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation**

Early Diagnostic Test
Written and Oral

Thank you for taking the Early Diagnostic Test (EDT). This written portion of the EDT is intended to help members of the Translation and Interpretation faculty evaluate the written command of your native and foreign language(s) as well as your aptitude for translation. The test consists of three sections: an essay section, a translation section, and a summary section. Instructions are provided for each section. All applicants to the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation (GSTI) must complete all three sections of the written test as well as the Oral Diagnostic Test (ODT). The EDT is evaluated for meaning, grammar and syntax, style, and terminology. Following the written portion, you will find the Oral Diagnostic Test (ODT) with separate instructions. ***Please return both your completed written EDT and ODT materials together to the Admissions Office.***

To aid processing, please provide the information requested below.

Name: _____	Date: _____
<i>last</i> <i>first</i>	<i>month/date/year</i>
Address: _____	

Home Telephone: _____	Native Language (A language)*: _____
Office Telephone: _____	_____
	First Foreign Language (B language)
Fax: _____	_____
E-mail Address: _____	Second Foreign Language (C language – only if you intend to pursue a 3-language degree)

Hours when you can be reached: _____	

*You should consider the language with which you feel most comfortable as your native (A) language, your first foreign language as your B language, and your second foreign language as your C language (if applicable). If you have a question about which language is your A language, please make a note and a determination will be made after consultation with the appropriate GSTI faculty.

Below is a checklist of the different portions of the Early Diagnostic Test. Please check the portions which you are submitting (a 3-language combination is not required).

PART 1 - ESSAYS

- _____ A language essay 300-500 words (required)
_____ B language essay 300-500 words (required)
_____ C language essay 300-500 words (if applicable)

PART 2 - TRANSLATIONS

- _____ A into B language translation (required)
_____ B into A language translation (required)
_____ C into A language translation (if applicable)

PART 3 - ABSTRACT

- _____ English into A language (required)

Each portion of the EDT should require no more than one hour to complete. Please be sure to label each of your essays/translations clearly with your name, date, the test section number, and your start and finish times. This test must be completed without outside help (aside from dictionaries).

Section 1: Essays

Below are essay topics in each of the languages offered by the Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation. Choose the topics in each of the languages in which you plan to work, including your native language. For each topic you choose, write a 300-500 word essay (600-1,000 characters, or moji, for the Japanese essay) which develops and justifies the topic. **Write each essay in the language in which the topic is presented.** This task should not require more than 60 minutes per essay. Your writing should be in idiomatic, standard written style without spelling or punctuation errors. Please type (or write, if unavoidable) your essays on a separate sheet of paper, label them clearly (section 1 – A language, etc.), and attach your essay to the back of this test. *Be sure to put your name and the date on each page as well as your start and finish times.*

Essay Topics

1. *Chinese:*

世界環境日有感

2. *English:*

Several decades ago, there was an effort to create an international language, known as Esperanto, in which all countries of the world could communicate efficiently. The movement never really caught on; few people ever really learned or spoke Esperanto. Instead, English seems to have become the language of international affairs. Write an essay in which you discuss your view of the use of English as an international language.

3. *French:*

Quelles sont les responsabilités respectives des parents et des enseignants dans l'éducation des enfants ?

4. *German:*

Das Internet gibt es schon seit über zwanzig Jahren. Am Anfang wurde das weltweite Computernetz von wenigen Eingeweihten an Universitäten und anderen Forschungseinrichtungen genutzt. Dann wurden die kommerziellen Möglichkeiten, die das World Wide Web bietet, von der Wirtschaft entdeckt. Seitdem wächst das Netz in rasantem Umfang. Informationen können weltweit in Echtzeit ausgetauscht werden, und man kann jeder Zeit an jedem Ort erreichbar sein. Ist das Internet für Sie ein Fluch oder ein Segen? Nehmen Sie im folgenden Aufsatz dazu Stellung.

5. *Japanese:*

昔は世界の奇跡と言われた日本の経済でしたが、今は日本の経済が回復しないために、アジアの経済も回復できず、日本の不景気ももたまって世界中の経済を圧迫するのではないかとまで言われています。あなたはもししたら、日本の経済が回復すると思いますか？どんな方策、政策があるのでしょうか？

6. *Korean:*

1998년은 한국에 있어 중요한 사건이 많이 일어난 한 해였습니다. 우선 그 동안 급속한 성장을 구가하던 국가 경제가 파탄지경에 이르게 되었으며 북한의 대포동 1호 미사일 발사로 인해 한반도 안보유지에 심각한 위기가 도래한 것입니다. 이러한 상황에서 제한된 예산을 가지고 있는 한국 정부는 경제와 안보중 과연 어느 쪽에 초점을 맞추는 것이 현명할까요?

7. *Spanish:*

Si examinamos a Latinoamérica como un todo, encontramos que hay entre sus países una serie de similitudes y diferencias. De hecho, existen muchos problemas comunes a todos los países latinoamericanos. ¿Cuáles son, en su opinión, los problemas comunes más acuciantes que hay que atender con urgencia?

8. *Russian:*

Опишите три важных события в развитии демократии и политических процессов в России после распада Советского Союза. Ваше сочинение должно быть выдержано в официально-деловом стиле и ориентировано на образованного читателя, который, однако, недостаточно хорошо знаком с новейшей историей политической жизни России.

Section 2a: Translations
English

Please provide the following information:

Name: _____

Date: _____

I am translating from my:

_____ A language into B language.

_____ B language into A language.

Please translate the following English text into your A or B language. Your translated text should clearly and idiomatically convey the meaning of the original text as accurately and completely as possible. This may require paraphrasing. The style and tone of the translation should be consistent with that of the original text, and the grammatical conventions of the target language should be observed. There should be no spelling or punctuation errors. This task should not require more than 60 minutes. You are permitted to use dictionaries. Please type (or write, if unavoidable) your translation on a separate sheet of paper, label it clearly (2a), and attach it to the back of this test. *Be sure to put your name and the date on each page as well as your start and finish times.*

English text

It is widely believed that one of the best ways to learn something is to teach it, for in trying to explain it to others you first have to clarify it for yourself. This holds for the subject matter of every course I have ever taught, but most especially for introductory psychology. Students in an advanced course will come at you with tough and searching questions; they want to know about the evidence that bears on a theory of, say, color vision or language acquisition, and about how that evidence was obtained. But students in an introductory course ask the toughest questions of all. They ask why anyone would want to know about color vision (or language acquisition or whatever) in the first place. And they also ask what any one topic in the course has to do with any other. They ask such questions because they – unlike the advanced students – have not yet accepted the premises of the field. They wonder whether the emperor is really wearing clothes. As a result, they made me ask myself what the field of psychology is all about and how it hangs together – what the emperor's clothes are really like when you look at them closely.

Section 2b: Translations
Foreign Language

Please provide the following information:

Name: _____ Date: _____

I am translating from my:

- _____ A language into B language.
- _____ B language into A language.
- _____ C language into A language.

Please translate the following text into your A or B language. Your translated text should clearly and idiomatically convey the meaning of the original text as accurately and completely as possible. This may require paraphrasing. The style and tone of the translation should be consistent with that of the original text, and the grammatical conventions of the target language should be observed. There should be no spelling or punctuation errors. This task should not require more than 60 minutes. You are permitted to use dictionaries. Please type (or write, if unavoidable) your translation on a separate sheet of paper, label it clearly (2b), and attach it to the back of this test. *Be sure to put your name and the date on each page as well as your start and finish times. If you are applying for a 3-language program, please translate the C-language text provided in the additional attached EDT into your A-language.*

我们中国人常常说：“富不过三代”。意思是说祖父辈创业创得很辛苦，有了相当的产业传了下来。而到了父亲辈，就因为家中已经有了某些局面，不必太奋斗就可以得到所需要的一切，也就松懈了下来，但是至少还能守得住产业。但是到了孙子辈，由于生活富裕，吃喝不愁，如果再加上父母亲或甚至于祖父母的溺爱，很可能就会胡乱挥霍，以致于祖上传下来的产业立刻就化为乌有，消耗殆尽。这是要警惕我们，要守得住资产，才能富过三代，甚至于富过好几代，永远享受耕耘得来的成果。

Section 2b: Translations
Foreign Language

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French text

FOLIE DES VACHES, FOLIE DES HOMMES

Les liens du vivant

Par Bertrand Hervieu

RATIONNELLES : aucun adjectif ne semblait devoir mieux qualifier les agricultures française et européenne dans leur phase de modernisation. Proches des sciences et des techniques, elles avaient rejoint le camp de la raison efficace ; soucieuses de productivité, elles étaient dans le train du progrès ; guidées par l'impératif politique de nourrir en abondance et à bas prix, elles se retrouvaient aussi dans le camp de la morale. Ainsi, en France, la production du blé a triplé en quarante ans, ainsi que celle du porc. Celle de bœuf a doublé, tandis que celle de maïs était multipliée par 13. De fait, entre 1950 et 1980 la productivité a été multipliée par 7,2. Mais le développement fut aussi agro-alimentaire : en 1996, non seulement la France est restée le deuxième exportateur mondial de produits agricoles, mais elle est aussi devenue le premier exportateur de produits agricoles transformés. Si on l'attache seulement aux chiffres, la rationalité technico-économique a bien engendré un progrès quantitatif, dont il serait absurde de méconnaître le rôle dans l'augmentation de la richesse collective. Certes, il y eut de la casse : on la considéra longtemps comme un mal nécessaire et comme le tribut à payer pour ce progrès. Il y eut aussi des regrets et des nostalgies, qu'on balaya d'autant plus facilement que le résultat était globalement positif. Ce n'est que très récemment qu'il a fallu commencer à prendre acte du cortège des cassures provoquées par cette formidable explosion de la modernité. La rupture la plus fondamentale est sans doute la transformation de l'alimentation but par excellence de l'activité agricole en une réalité de plus en plus en plus abstraite.

Le Monde diplomatique, Mai 1996, p.6.

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Foreign Language

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German text

Gesundheitsreform – für die Zukunft gehandelt

Gesundheit ist für jeden von uns fast selbstverständlich, und Krankheit ist ein elementares Lebensrisiko. Für die eigene Gesundheit sind wir aber zunächst selbst verantwortlich, durch gesundheitsbewusstes Handeln, wie gesunde Ernährung, ausreichende Bewegung und eigene Gesundheitsvorsorge (z.B. Impfungen, Vorsorgeuntersuchungen). Der Staat kann individuelle Gesundheit nicht garantieren.

Der Staat ist dafür verantwortlich, die notwendigen Rahmenbedingungen für ein sinnvolles Zusammenwirken aller Beteiligten im Gesundheitswesen – dem Patienten, dem Arzt und der Gesetzlichen Krankenversicherung (GKV) – zu schaffen. Mit Einführung der GKV im Jahre 1883 wurde in Deutschland die erste und damit auch älteste Säule unseres Sozialversicherungssystems errichtet. Unser Land verfügt mit der GKV, in der fast 90 % der Bevölkerung versichert sind, über ein in den Jahrzehnten bewährtes, leistungsfähiges und international anerkanntes Gesundheitssystem. Es sichert uns im Falle einer Erkrankung zuverlässig und umfassend ab. Niemand muß auf medizinisch notwendige Leistungen verzichten - egal ob arm oder reich.

Damit das auch in Zukunft so bleibt, mußte gehandelt werden. Ähnlich der Entwicklung in anderen westlichen Industrienationen steht das deutsche Gesundheitswesen und damit auch die GKV vor großen Herausforderungen. Die Leistungsfähigkeit des Gesundheitswesens kann nur durch ein höheres Maß an Selbstverantwortung erhalten werden. Es geht um die Frage, wie unser hohes Niveau der medizinischen Versorgung und des sozialen Schutzes auch für künftige Generationen gesichert werden kann.

Source: On-line Publication of the Konrad Adenauer Foundation

Section 2b: Translations
Foreign Language

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_____ B language into A language.

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学歴社会

日本では幼稚園から大学に至るまで、どんな学校に行ったかが重要視されます。名門大学を卒業したかどうかで、出世が左右されることもしばしばです。名門大学を出ると評判も良く、また学閥も強いので、仕事の面や社会生活の面で得をすることが多いと言えます。

できる限り良い学校に子供を入学させたいという競争は、幼稚園から始まります。幼稚園の入園試験から始めて、志望の小学校、高校、大学への入試に追われる長い教育レースを闘わなければなりません。最近のマズコミでは、子供に何が何でも良い教育を受けさせようと奔走する「教育ママ」が取り沙汰されています。そのような「教育ママ」の中には、病気で休んでいる子供にかわって授業を聴講し、子供の勉強をみてやって授業におくれないようにする母親さえいるほどです。良い小学校へ行けば、良い中学校に入りやすくなり、良い中学校へ行けば、良い高校に入りやすくなる、というように良い大学への道は続きます。「教育ママ」に限らず、どんな親でも子供をできるだけ良い学校に入れたいと思っているのです。

皮肉なことに、一旦名門大学に入学してしまうとそれでも一流会社へのパスポートが手に入ったこととなります。どんな講座を履修して、どんな成績をあげたかということはそれほど重要ではありません。時としてこのような日本の大学生の生活は、高校までのつめこみ勉強と卒業後の熾烈な企業競争との狭間にある4年間の休暇のようにもみえます。

今日では、日本の学校制度は次のような点で批判されています。知識をつめこみ、暗記させるような教育が多すぎ、創造的で個性を伸ばす時間がほとんどないこと、などです。しかしながら、たとえ何らかの変革が提案されたとしても、このような学校制度が今日の日本の経済的發展に実際に貢献してきたことは否めません。

本名信行/ペイツ、ホッフア編

日本人の考え方を英語で説明する辞典

有斐閣

Section 2b: Translations
Foreign Language

Please provide the following information:

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21세기를 얼마 남겨두지 않은 현 시점에서 우리는 너무나 많은 변화를 겪고 있습니다. 물질 위주의 산업 사회가 종말을 고하면서 만들어내는 혼돈처럼 보이지 않는 정보가 유용하기도 하지만 두려운 존재로 다가옵니다. 신용 사회의 상징물로 된 신용카드 대신 전자 화폐, 전자 상거래 등의 새로운 용어들은 우리의 생활 자체를 바꿀수 있는 엄청난 위력을 가졌다는 점을 쉽게 짐작하게 만듭니다.

미국이 제창한 '정보 고속도로' (Information Superhighway)가 단순히 경제적 측면의 전략적 단어가 아니라 미래의 삶의 질을 향상시키기 위한 주요 개념으로 사용되고 있고, 이를 전세계에까지 확산시키고자 한다는 사실은, 우리에게 다가오는 변화의 물결이 거대하면서도 지속적이라는 것을 잘 말해주고 있습니다.

이러한 변화를 다루는 정보사회의 법 문제를 법전 위주의 단편적 접근 방법만으로는 해결하는데 한계가 있을 수밖에 없습니다. 그러므로, 정보 기술의 발달과 거기에 상응하는 법적 과제들을 다루는데 있어서 법학뿐 아니라 언론학, 경제학, 경영학등 상이한 학문적 배경의 전문가들의 공동 연구가 필요하리라 봅니다.

Section 2b: Translations
Foreign Language

Please provide the following information:

Name: _____

Date: _____

I am translating from my:

_____ A language into B language.

_____ B language into A language.

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Please translate the following text into your A or B language. Your translated text should clearly and idiomatically convey the meaning of the original text as accurately and completely as possible. This may require paraphrasing. The style and tone of the translation should be consistent with that of the original text, and the grammatical conventions of the target language should be observed. There should be no spelling or punctuation errors. This task should not require more than 60 minutes. You are permitted to use dictionaries. Please type (or write, if unavoidable) your translation on a separate sheet of paper, label it clearly (2b), and attach it to the back of this test. *Be sure to put your name and the date on each page as well as your start and finish times.* If you are applying for a 3-language program, please translate the C-language text provided in the additional attached EDT into your A-language.

ВМОСКОВСКОМ трамвае можно услышать слово «пардон», а в парижских туалетах, как утверждал Владимир Высоцкий, есть надписи на русском языке, и это вполне естественно. Если рядом существуют несколько культур, между ними происходит постоянный лексический обмен — если воспользоваться одним из современных экономических терминов, это, так сказать, бартер-процесс, который Александр Сергеевич Пушкин описал следующим образом: «Все, чем для прихоти обильной торгует Лондон шепетильный и по балтийским волнам за лес и сало возит нам».

Что сейчас приходит в русский язык из шепетильного Лондона, ясно. Префекты, ньюсмейкеры, брокеры, дилеры — в общем, как говорил незабвенный камергер Мятрич из «Золотого тельца», «среди торосов и айсбергов». Все это возмущает чуткий слух ревнителей чистоты родной речи и уже давно стало общим местом жалобы на татаро-монгольское нашествие английской лексики, заполнявшей страницы российских журналов и газет.

Но что делать, если по-русски всего этого просто не скажешь. Это, кстати, старая проблема — в том же «Евгении Онегине» Пушкин пишет: «Панталоны, фрак, жилет — всех этих слов на русском нет». Особенно много новых лексических конструкций вносят в язык различные социальные катализмы — как сказал бы Александр Блок, у каждой революции своя музыка и свои музыканты, свой, так сказать, маленький оркестрик. Долгий и славный путь от маузера Державинского до ваучера Бурбулеса отмечен помимо всего прочего и многочисленными лексическими цунами.

From: Nezavisimaya gazeta

Section 2b: Translations
Foreign Language

Please provide the following information:

Name: _____ Date: _____

I am translating from my:

- _____ A language into B language.
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Please translate the following text into your A or B language. Your translated text should clearly and idiomatically convey the meaning of the original text as accurately and completely as possible. This may require paraphrasing. The style and tone of the translation should be consistent with that of the original text, and the grammatical conventions of the target language should be observed. There should be no spelling or punctuation errors. This task should not require more than 60 minutes. You are permitted to use dictionaries. Please type (or write, if unavoidable) your translation on a separate sheet of paper, label it clearly (2b), and attach it to the back of this test. *Be sure to put your name and the date on each page as well as your start and finish times.* If you are applying for a 3-language program, please translate the C-language text provided in the additional attached EDT into your A-language.

Spanish text

Las condiciones de pobreza y de marginalidad en que viven muchos sectores sociales de países latinoamericanos los ha obligado a desarrollar estrategias de sobrevivencia, que les permitan hacer frente a la crisis socioeconómica de las últimas décadas. Dentro de estas estrategias se destaca la salida de los niños y las niñas a la calle en busca de trabajo, o alguna actividad a través de la cual satisfacer necesidad de tipo afectivo o material.

En la calle se encuentran con múltiples peligros dentro de los cuales figura la exposición al uso y abuso de drogas especialmente alcohol, tabaco y crack: las dos primeras por ser socialmente aceptadas, reconocidas como drogas de entrada, y la tercera por ser la más barata y de mayor acceso a la población.

A pesar de ser un problema en aumento y con tendencia a agravarse, es poco lo que se ha investigado al respecto y menos la labor realizada en materia de prevención y atención. Son escasos los programas institucionales y no gubernamentales que trabajan con menores farmacodependientes.

Anotado lo anterior, el presente ensayo pretende reflexionar al respecto y hacer un llamado de atención a los organismos encargados de velar por la infancia para que dicho problema sea atendido pronta y eficazmente. Asimismo, a los costarricenses, porque se debe comprender que ésta es una problemática que nos toca y nos concierne a todos y a todas.

Section 3: Abstract in English

Please summarize the English text below in your **native language** (A language). Your abstract should clearly and idiomatically summarize the main idea and the most important supporting ideas in no more than 100 words. There should be no spelling or punctuation errors. This task should not require more than 60 minutes. Please type (or write, if unavoidable) your abstract on a separate sheet of paper, label it clearly (section 3), and attach it to the back of this test. *Be sure to include your name and the date as well as your start and finish times.*

All Creatures Great and Dying¹

Ever since man came bursting out of the last Ice Age 11,000 years ago, armed with sharpened sticks, traps, and snares, he has had a nasty habit of wreaking havoc on plants and animals. Occasionally the annihilation was unintentional, as when predators were introduced by early explorers to remote locales—such as the dodo on the island of Mauritius. More often, man was merely making room for one thing: himself.

By the late nineteenth century, with the advent of industrial technology and modern farming, man's weapons of choice in his continuing war against nature had become more sophisticated. Today, parking lots, pesticides, waste dumps, and industrial pollutants of all stripes are the new spears, though the victims remain the same—plants, animals, and their homes. Grasslands and wetlands are increasingly replaced by subdivisions and malls. Trees and lakes are poisoned by acid rain. Tropical forests are slashed and burned at the rate of 100 acres a minute. As population density soars from South America to Southeast Asia, economic might continues to overrule ecologic right.

The number of wildlife extinctions and endangered species is mind-boggling. In the early twentieth century, the earth was losing one species a year; today, it's one species a day—400 times the natural rate. By comparison, it's estimated that dinosaur species died off at a rate of one every 1,000 years. By the middle of the next century, according to the Nature Conservancy, one-half of all the earth's present species may be lost, largely as a result of man's greed, cruelty, and vanity.

While much of the public handwringing over endangered species is done in the name of "glamour" animals, like blue whales and bald eagles, the unparalleled horror of today's carnage lies more in the sheer number of plants that are disappearing. Today dozens of flowering plants are being eradicated weekly, many before they can even be named or studied. The tragedy in their extinction is that many hold potential cures for everything from cancer to AIDS. Twenty-five percent of the pharmaceuticals in use in America today contain ingredients originally derived from wild plants. The Madagascar periwinkle, for example, is a key ingredient in curing lymphatic leukemia, and hormone medicines like cortisone and diosgenin (the active ingredient in birth control pills) were developed from wild yams.

What is wrong with the current rate of extinction is its chilling acceleration. According to the World Wildlife Fund, thousands of existing species may be extinct by the end of this century. With more and more of those players missing in action, such essentials as clean air and water, productive soil, and many other harvestable products will increasingly be things of the past.

One especially frightening aspect of the endangerment to wild plants and animals is not what we know for a certainty will happen but what we cannot predict. Our knowledge of earth's biological fabric and its mysteries is, at best, incomplete, uneven. Thus the consequence of man's continued alteration of nature's diversification cannot be forecast with any real degree of accuracy. It is the unknown that has even the experts scared stiff.

¹ Excerpted from Bowmaster, Jon (1994). "All Creatures Great and Dying." In Numrich, Carol, *Raise the Issues*, NY: Longman Publishers.

GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION
Monterey Institute of International Studies

RESULTS

Early Diagnostic Test (EDT)

Name: _____
Last First MI

Address: _____

Phone: _____ Date: _____

Native Language (A): _____

First Foreign Language (B): _____

Second Foreign Language (C): _____

Essay in A Language: Acceptable _____ Marginal _____ Unacceptable _____

Essay in B Language: Acceptable _____ Marginal _____ Unacceptable _____

Essay in C Language: Acceptable _____ Marginal _____ Unacceptable _____

Translation B>A: Acceptable _____ Marginal _____ Unacceptable _____

Translation C>A: Acceptable _____ Marginal _____ Unacceptable _____

Translation A>B: Acceptable _____ Marginal _____ Unacceptable _____

Abstract in English: Acceptable _____ Marginal _____ Unacceptable _____

PH RECOMMENDS SENDING CANDIDATE LETTER # : _____

(#1 = YES; #2 = Yes, but...; #3 = B okay, C not recommended; #4 = NO)

PH spoke with student on _____ (If EDT is a #1, 2, or 3, PH must also call student)
Date

Comments:

Program Head Signature: _____

Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation, Oral Diagnostic Test

Name of Candidate:

Language Combination: A

B

C

Part One Pronunciation Skills	B Language	6 Acceptable	5	4 Marginal	3	2	1 Insufficient
	C Language	6 Acceptable	5	4 Marginal	3	2	1 Insufficient
Part Two Abstract Thinking Skills	Section A (B Language)	Acceptable	Marginal	Insufficient			
	Section B (C Language)	Acceptable	Marginal	Insufficient			
Part Three Self-Assessment	Section A (C or B Language)	Acceptable	Marginal	Insufficient			
	Section B (B Language)	Acceptable	Marginal	Insufficient			
	Section C (A Language)	Acceptable	Marginal	Insufficient			
Parts Two and Three Extemporaneous Speech	A Language	6 Acceptable	5	4 Marginal	3	2	1 Insufficient
	B Language	6 Acceptable	5	4 Marginal	3	2	1 Insufficient
	C Language	6 Acceptable	5	4 Marginal	3	2	1 Insufficient

A Language: Acceptable Marginal Insufficient **Name:**
Comments and Recommendation:

Date:

B Language: Acceptable Marginal Insufficient **Name:**
Comments and Recommendation:

Date:

C Language: Acceptable Marginal Insufficient **Name:**
Comments and Recommendation:

Date:



Bundesministerium für Wirtschaft und Technologie

BMWi

Rede des Bundesministers für Wirtschaft und Technologie, Dr. Werner Müller, anlässlich der Eröffnung der Ambiente

am 19. Februar 1999 in Frankfurt/Main

Frau Oberbürgermeisterin Roth,

meine sehr geehrten Damen und Herren,

ich bin sehr gern zu Ihnen nach Frankfurt gekommen, denn es sieht ganz so aus, als würde die „Ambiente“ ihrem Ruf als größte Konsumgütermesse der Welt auch in diesem Jahr wieder gerecht:

Aussteller aus aller Welt präsentieren ihre Angebote einem internationalen Publikum, und bedeutende Zweige der deutschen Wirtschaft nutzen die Messe als Aushängeschild.

Damit dürfte die „Ambiente“ auch in diesem Jahr für die Gesamtwirtschaft wieder zu einem wichtigen Konjunkturbarometer werden.

Schon von Amts wegen sollte der Bundeswirtschaftsminister also nicht fehlen.

Heute Abend freue ich mich aber vor allem über die beschwingte Stimmung hier im Congress-Center der Messe Frankfurt.

Man spürt sofort, daß an dem Namen „Ambiente“, der aus dem Italienischen ja auch mit „Atmosphäre“ übersetzt werden kann, ganz unabhängig von Aussteller- und Besucherzahlen etwas dran ist.

Und das ist sicher eine wichtige Voraussetzung dafür, daß die nächsten vier Tage für möglichst viele von Ihnen, meine Damen und Herren, erfolgreich und gewinnbringend verlaufen.

II.

Die „Ambiente“ ist ein zentrales Ereignis am **Messeplatz Frankfurt**, und im internationalen Messekalender hat sie sich einen festen und prominenten Platz gesichert.

Virtuelle Marktplätze im Internet und Online-Präsentationen auf den Datenautobahnen können traditionelle Messeveranstaltungen nicht überflüssig machen.

Das direkte Gespräch mit dem Kunden, mit Berufskollegen und Konkurrenten und die persönliche Inaugenscheinnahme unterschiedlicher Kollektionen sind nicht zu ersetzen.

MONTEREY INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION

PROFESSIONAL GENERAL
SIMULTANEOUS INTERPRETATION EXAMINATION

SPRING 1999
German to English

Sie zeugen von der Kreativität der Designer und den handwerklichen Fähigkeiten der Hersteller.

Viele sind aber auch Beispiele dafür, daß Hochtechnologie und Ästhetik, moderne Werkstoffe und künstlerischer Anspruch keine

Widersprüche sein müssen.

Im Gegenteil:

Der Erfolg der Schmuck- und Uhrenbranche zeigt, daß man bei Produkten und Produktionsverfahren auf neuestem technologischen Stand ist und ein feines Gespür für gesellschaftliche und modische Trends hat.

Hier liegen die Stärken der mittelständisch geprägten Uhren- und Schmuckindustrie in Deutschland.

III.

Meine Damen und Herren,

auch die deutsche Konsumgüterindustrie spürt den rauhen Wind des **internationalen Wettbewerbs**.

Die traditionellen Niedriglohnländer bauen ihre Kapazitäten bei Konsumgütern aus.

Neue Anbieter, zum Beispiel aus Mittel- und Osteuropa, drängen weiter auf den Markt.

Und bei den „high-end“-Produkten des Konsumgütersektors schläft die Konkurrenz natürlich auch nicht.

Qualität und Funktionalität darf man bei solchen Produkten getrost voraussetzen.

Das Design wird darum gerade in diesem Bereich zum entscheidenden Argument beim Verbraucher.

Das gilt vor allem für Märkte mit hoher Wettbewerbsintensität.

Anspruchsvolles **Design** ist längst international geworden.

Marktführer und Trendsetter finden sich in Tokio und Frankfurt genauso wie in Helsinki und Shanghai.

In Deutschland wollen wir mit der **Design-Initiative der deutschen Wirtschaft** möglichst viele Unternehmen aus Industrie, Handel und Handwerk dazu anspornen, das Design ganz gezielt in individuelle Produkt- und Unternehmensstrategien einfließen zu lassen.

Seit ihrem Beginn im Jahr 1997 steht diese Initiative unter der Schirmherrschaft des Bundeswirtschaftsministers, und es hat eine Vielzahl von Ausstellungen und Wettbewerben gegeben.

Die Initiative verdient es ohne Zweifel, fortgesetzt zu werden; auf diese Flankierung der Unternehmen sollten wir auch künftig nicht verzichten.

Das ändert allerdings nicht das geringste daran, daß auch künftig Qualität und Innovation von den Unternehmen selbst kommen müssen.

Viele Unternehmen haben schon längst reagiert:

Dafür sprechen auch die Zahlen:

Die deutschen Messen konnten 1998 Rekord-Wachstumsraten verzeichnen.

Das Interesse des Auslandes ist erneut gestiegen, und erstmals seit Jahren nimmt auch die Zahl deutscher Aussteller wieder zu.

Deutschland ist mit seinen über 100 international bedeutsamen Messen und Ausstellungen weltweit der Messeplatz Nr. 1.

Das hat natürlich mit unserer zentralen Lage im Herzen Europas zu tun, nach der politischen und wirtschaftlichen Öffnung unserer Nachbarn im Osten allemal.

Das hat auch mit der Größe des deutschen Marktes in Europa zu tun.

Aber natürlich steht hinter diesem Erfolg auch die exzellente Arbeit, die hierzulande bei den vielen, vor allem **mittelständischen Produzenten** anspruchsvoller Konsumgüter geleistet wird.

In diesen Unternehmen wissen vom Chef bis zum Azubi alle, worauf es ankommt:

Auf den Märkten für solche Konsumgüter kann man sich nur mit Produkten behaupten, bei denen Qualität und Verarbeitung stimmen, die funktional sind, und die sich durch ihre Gestaltung von der Konkurrenz abheben.

Die deutschen **Möbelhersteller** zum Beispiel machen vor wie das geht; sie sind für die gewachsenen Herausforderungen gewappnet.

Nach zwischenzeitlicher Durststrecke kann die Branche zum zweiten Mal in Folge mit einem Umsatzplus in der Größenordnung von 3 % rechnen.

Für die **Schneidwaren- und Besteckindustrie** sowie für die Hersteller von Haushalt-, Küchen- und Tafelgeräten ist die „Ambiente“ die wichtigste Messe.

Das vergangene Jahr war eine Berg- und Talfahrt für Sie - vor allem auf dem Inlandsmarkt.

Im Moment ist die Entwicklung der Binnennachfrage noch schwer einzuschätzen.

Dennoch bin ich optimistisch: Die Lust am Konsum kehrt zurück; die Inlandsnachfrage hat schon 1998 sichtbar an Schwung gewonnen.

Darauf setzen auch die Hersteller hochwertiger **Glaswaren**.

Sie konzentrieren sich vor allem auf gutes, anspruchsvolles Design, das nur mit einer hochentwickelten und umweltfreundlichen Produktionstechnik realisierbar ist.

Dank ihrer Leistungsfähigkeit zählt die deutsche Kristall- und Wirtschaftsglasindustrie zu den Marktführern in Westeuropa.

Wie in jedem Jahr zählen auch bei der Ambiente '99 die Erzeugnisse der **Schmuck- und Uhrenindustrie** zu den Highlights.

Und noch nie zuvor gab es in Europa eine solche Zone der Preisstabilität, von der letztlich alle profitieren.

Der EURO bringt aber auch mehr Transparenz und damit mehr Wettbewerb; die Anforderungen an Hersteller wie Händler werden also nicht geringer werden.

Aber die deutschen Unternehmen haben dabei gute Karten:

Mit ihrer Tradition von Qualität und Präzisionsarbeit, mit hervorragend ausgebildeten Mitarbeitern und mit hohen technischen Standards, auch und gerade in kleinen Betrieben.

Der Wettbewerb spielt sich eben nicht nur bei Preisen und Kosten ab.

Er entwickelt sich auch durch Kompetenz, Kundennähe und Anpassungsfähigkeit.

Erfolg werden vor allem jene Unternehmen haben, die in der Lage sind, komplexe Kundenbedürfnisse zu befriedigen und Begeisterung für ihre Produkte zu wecken.

IV.

Meine Damen und Herren,

die **Konjunkturbeobachter** sind sich zu Beginn des neuen Jahres weitgehend einig:

In den kommenden Monaten dürfte die Inlandsnachfrage den Export als Zugpferd der wirtschaftlichen Entwicklung ablösen.

Die Aussichten für die Konsumgüterindustrie erscheinen derzeit im aktuellen Gesamtbild in einem freundlicheren Licht.

Der private Verbrauch hat sich nach den jüngsten Zahlen in letzter Zeit belebt.

Die unverändert stabilen Preise unterstützen meinen Optimismus.

Die weitere Entwicklung für die besondere Produktpalette der Ambiente hängt aber in entscheidendem Maß vom Konsumverhalten der Verbraucher ab.

Die Bundesregierung hat mit der **ersten Stufe der Steuerreform** und der ersten Stufe der **Kindergelderhöhung** zu Anfang des Jahres dafür gesorgt, daß für große Teile der Bevölkerung die Lohntüte etwas dicker ausfällt.

Das sollte sich auch im privaten Konsum niederschlagen.

In die gleiche Richtung dürfte das Karlsruher Steuerurteil wirken, das ich ausdrücklich begrüße und aus dem die Bundesregierung rasch Konsequenzen zu ziehen haben wird.

Die mit Abstand wichtigste Aufgabe einer Wirtschaftspolitik, die sich bewußt ist, daß die Wirtschaft dem Menschen zu dienen hat, bleibt aber der **Abbau der Arbeitslosigkeit**.

Darum wird die Bundesregierung eine Politik betreiben, die den Abbau von Arbeitsplätzen weniger lohnend und den Aufbau von Arbeitsplätzen lohnender macht.

Mit moderner Produktion und neuen Produkten, mit besserem Lieferservice und Kundendienst, und mit verstärktem Engagement im Ausland.

Für etliche ausstellende Branchen ist der **Export** sogar ein wichtiges Standbein geworden.

Neben der EU und Nordamerika sind mittel- und osteuropäische Staaten sowie Märkte in Asien von Bedeutung.

Die Exportanstrengungen der letzten Jahre waren in vielen Branchen von Erfolg gekrönt.

So verzeichneten z.B. die Hersteller von Glaswaren im vergangenen Jahr mit einer Steigerung um 7 Prozent einen neuen Exportrekord.

Das spricht für die Wettbewerbsfähigkeit der Firmen, die Flexibilität und die Fähigkeiten von Management und Mitarbeitern.

Bemerkenswert ist vor allem, wie gut viele Unternehmen auch der Konkurrenz aus Niedriglohnländern standhalten - und sogar verlorenes Terrain wiedergewinnen.

Ein Beispiel sind die deutschen **Möbelhersteller**.

Sie kooperieren nach dem Motto „If you can't beat them, join them" mit Unternehmen in mittel- und osteuropäischen Staaten oder in Asien, um Kostenvorteile zu nutzen.

Gleichzeitig wird dadurch auch die Erschließung neuer Absatzmärkte gefördert.

Die Bundesregierung unterstützt das **Auslandsengagement** deutscher Firmen durch ein umfangreiches **Förderinstrumentarium**.

Über die Auslandshandelskammern, die Delegiertenbüros und Repräsentanzen der deutschen Wirtschaft, die Bundesstelle für Außenhandelsinformation und die Wirtschaftsabteilungen der Botschaften erhalten die Unternehmen wertvolle Hinweise vor Ort.

Mit einem modernen Dienstleistungsangebot erleichtern diese Institutionen insbesondere kleinen und mittleren Unternehmen den Einstieg in fremde Märkte.

Ein weiterer Baustein sind die Auslandsmessen - oft der erste Schritt für mittelständische Unternehmen, Auslandskontakte herzustellen.

Dieses umfangreiche Förderinstrumentarium werden wir noch stärker auf kleine und mittlere Unternehmen zuschneiden.

Mehr als die Hälfte aller **Aussteller** der diesjährigen Ambiente kommt **aus dem Ausland**, und an der Spitze stehen - wie schon in vergangenen Jahren - die europäischen Nachbarländer.

Mit dem **EURO** hat für diese Unternehmen - wie auch für viele deutsche Exporteure - die Planungssicherheit bei Auslandsengagements spürbar zugenommen.

Kosten und Risiken sinken, vor allem auf den europäischen Märkten, aber tendenziell auch in Übersee.

- Den Messen- und Anlagenbauern und den Mitarbeitern der Messe Frankfurt.
- Vor allem aber den vielen überwiegend mittelständischen Unternehmern, die sich hier zum Teil eindrucksvoll präsentieren.

Ihnen allen wünsche ich viele Besucher, erfolgreiche Abschlüsse und gut gefüllte Auftragsbücher. 1800

Dieser Wunsch gilt natürlich nicht nur den einheimischen Ausstellern und Händlern, sondern auch denen, die aus den europäischen Nachbarländern und aus der ganzen Welt nach Frankfurt am Main gekommen sind.

Meine Damen und Herren,

ich erkläre die „Ambiente '99" hiermit für eröffnet. 1845



Suche im Informationsangebot



[Zurück] [Homepage]

Nur auf einem Weg werden wir Erfolg haben:

Die Gesellschaft in toto muß ihre Ansprüche an den Staat zurückführen; dann läßt sich auch die Staatsquote senken.

Das wiederum bedeutet mehr Nettolohn bei Senkung der Arbeitskosten und damit mehr Arbeitsplätze.

Was sich so einfach anhört, kann sich in der Praxis als nahezu undurchführbar erweisen, vor allem dann, wenn - wie in der vergangenen Legislaturperiode - der notwendige gesellschaftliche Konsens ausbleibt.

Darum will die neue Bundesregierung die Rückbesinnung auf einen Politikstil, der zur sozialen Marktwirtschaft konstitutionell gehört, und das ist mehr konsensuale Politik. 150

Darum haben wir das **Bündnis für Arbeit**, Ausbildung und Wettbewerbsfähigkeit gestartet und werden es am 25. Februar fortsetzen.

Unabhängig davon brauchen wir dringend eine **Reform der Unternehmensbesteuerung** welche die ausgewiesenen Höchstsätze unserer Unternehmensbesteuerung im internationalen Vergleich nachhaltig senkt.

Die Bundesregierung beabsichtigt deshalb, ab dem Jahr 2000 eine einheitliche Unternehmensbesteuerung mit einem Spitzensatz von höchstens 35 % einzuführen.

Aber wir haben in Deutschland im internationalen Vergleich nicht nur einmalig hohe Steuersätze für unternehmerische Tätigkeit, sondern auch ein einmaliges System, Gewinne vor der Versteuerung zu bewahren.

Die Unternehmenssteuerreform der Bundesregierung steht vor allem unter der Überschrift, diese wenig sinnvolle Kombination aufkommensneutral zu beseitigen, und das heißt, daß vielfältige bestehende Steuersubventionen zwingend gestrichen werden müssen. 160

Gewinner dieser Reform werden alle Unternehmen sein, die effektiv bislang mehr als 35 % Steuern zahlen.

Und wenn die Verlautbarungen zum Beispiel des Mittelstandes über die bislang hohe Steuerbelastung stimmen - und das setze ich voraus - dann wird der Mittelstand auch der Hauptprofiteur der Reform sein.

Gesamtwirtschaftlich ist genau das gewollt.

Denn das ist genau der Bereich der Wirtschaft, der am meisten Arbeitsplätze bereitstellt und wo weniger Steuerbelastung auch am ehesten die Schaffung neuer Arbeitsplätze erwarten läßt.

V.

Meine Damen und Herren,

die „Ambiente“ verspricht, auch in diesem Jahr wieder ein herausragendes Messeereignis zu werden.

Allen, die diese Messe vorbereitet und gestaltet haben, sage ich heute abend Dank:

Scoring Rubric for Oral Diagnostic Test Pronunciation and Extemporaneous Speech

Acceptable:

6. Student speech is extremely accurate with native-like command of syntax, grammar and lexicon. *Pronunciation and intonation is native-like.*
5. Student's speech is fluent, but with occasional grammatical errors. Displays high level of lexical and syntactic competence, but non-native traits are recognizable. Some stilted expressions and misused idioms, but discourse strategies are competent. *Pronunciation and intonational patterns, although close to native-like, are still readily foreign.*

Marginal:

4. Student speech is clear but, due to either structural or pronunciation problems, clarity is impeded. Ideas are expressed adequately, but not always accurately. Limited idiomatic range and noticeable lexical gaps. *Pronunciation and intonation not native, but for the most part clear.*
3. Student speech is less than clear. Difficulty expressing complex ideas; reliance on simple lexical and syntactic usage. Student may grope for words with apparent structural errors, but basic meaning is conveyed through either frequent rephrasing or circumlocution. *Accent heavy with limited intonational patterns.*

Insufficient:

2. Student's speech contains frequent and noticeable errors that impede listeners' comprehension. Limited command of intonational, lexical and syntactic variety. Student has obvious difficulty expressing basic concepts with a noticeable failure to employ rephrasing and circumlocution. *Heavy accent impedes comprehension.*
1. Student's speech is difficult to understand, due to either unintelligible grammar or *incomprehensible accent.*

Scoring Rubric for Oral Diagnostic Test

Abstract Thinking Skills

Acceptable:

Appropriate choice of topic; accurate and thorough summary of facts; coherent description of relationships between ideas

Marginal:

Questionable choice of topic; *and/or* inaccurate or insufficient summary of facts; *and/or* lack of clarity in description of relationships between ideas

Insufficient:

Inappropriate choice of topic; *and/or* incorrect portrayal of facts; *and/or* incoherent description of relationships between ideas

Self-Assessment

Acceptable:

Realistic relationship between content and language performance; realistic statement of goals; insightful comments on strengths and weaknesses; clear indication of high personal motivation and goal-setting

Marginal:

Questionable relationship between content and language performance; *and/or* questionable statement of goals; *and/or* lack of insight with regard to strengths and weaknesses; *and/or* some indication of personal motivation and goal-setting

Insufficient:

Unrealistic relationship between content and language performance; *and/or* unrealistic statement of goals; *and/or* very little insight with regard to strengths and weaknesses; *and/or* little indication of personal motivation and goal-setting.

10.9 English, French, and German Exam Texts from May 1999

MONTEREY INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION

PROFESSIONAL CONSECUTIVE GENERAL EXAMINATION - SPRING 1999
English to FL – Version 1

Consumer Society Is the Enemy

JACQUES COUSTEAU, THE OCEANOGRAPHER, WAS INTERVIEWED IN PARIS

BY NPQ EDITOR NATHAN GARDELS.

NPQ | At 85 years of age, your life has spanned most of this century. During most of that time you have been concerned with exploring the sea and understanding the Earth's environment.

From this point of view, what have been the main developments of the 20th century?

JACQUES COUSTEAU | Mankind has probably done more damage to the Earth in the 20th century than in all of previous human history.

Overwhelmingly, the damage has come from two sources—the exploding growth of population combined with the abuse of economics.

Today, there are 5.6 billion people on Earth. In less than 60 years—by 2050—there will be 10 billion. This is the key fact of our time.

The radical increase in consumption that will attend this growth will place near-fatal stress on the Earth's resources. Even though the fertility rate is beginning to drop in some very crowded places like Indonesia, this only provides hope for the second half of the 21st century. Nothing will change before 2050 because 60 percent of the non-European population in the world today are under 16 years of age. As they have children they will double their presence.

For 50 years, we lived with the fight between communism and capitalism. When communism collapsed the reason was obvious: a planned, centralized system was no match for the market. In the West there was exhilaration over this fact. That is a big mistake.

A liberal economy is fine, but there is a big difference between a liberal economy—or free enterprise that relies on the law of supply and demand—and a market system. The market system, as we are living it today, is doing more damage to the planet than anything else because everything has a price, but nothing has value. Since the long-term has no price in today's market, the fate of future generations is not considered in the economic equation.

Because of this formidable confusion between price and

value, there is a fundamental unreality about economic life today; it has become an abstraction. The market system is becoming ever more concerned with things that don't exist than with things that do exist. Financial “derivatives”—essentially speculation on speculation—epitomize the distance of the market from reality. Real value gets lost in the game. Reality doesn't count anymore.

So not only are we destroying the diversity of species in the rain forest or the sea that took millennia to come into existence, we are selling off the future as well in the name of immediate gain.

The polar ice shelf, to take one example, is melting today as a consequence of global warming. That results from burning fossil fuels at a price that does not include the value of the iceshelf in maintaining a stable temperature and sea level, which is what makes living along the coasts of this water planet—where most population is concentrated—a viable proposition.

The list of the planet's pillage by the short-term calculus is very long: radioactive waste, nuclear proliferation and the black market of fissile material, building on flood plains, the consequences of projects like the Aswan dam on the rhythm of the seasons, the chemical catastrophes of Bhopal and Seveso. Soil erosion and widespread pollution of the seas are even more pernicious forms of environmental degradation.

Money is a wonderful tool of exchange, but it is a terrible danger for the planet. What the market today produces is retail sanity, but wholesale madness.

NPQ | Ecological destruction comes not as part of some evil master plan, but as the result of the banal practices of daily life, from driving a car down the freeway to using plastic bags at the supermarket to clearing trees to graze a few cattle. That's the retail sanity part.

Can these daily habits be altered without a revolutionary change of mind that accepts self-limitation almost as a religious principle?

COUSTEAU | How can an individual control himself

Mankind has probably done more damage to the earth in the 20th century than in all of previous human history.

when he is pushed from morning until evening to buy things he doesn't need?

I did an experiment myself. One day in Paris, in winter, I went out at 7 in the morning and came back home at 7 P.M. I had a counter. Every time I was solicited by any kind of advertising for something I didn't need, I clicked it each time—183 times in all by the end of the day.

How do you control yourself when at every moment you are pounded with the message, "Buy this, and women will fall into your arms"? I excuse the poor guy who buys all that stuff he doesn't need. How can he resist?

It is the job of society, not of the individual person, to control this destructive consumerism. I am not for some kind of ecological statism. No. But when you are driving in the street and see a red light, you stop. You don't think the red light is an attempt to curb your freedom. On the contrary, you know it is there to protect you. Why not have the same thing in economics? We don't.

Responsibility lies with the institutions of society, not in the virtues of the individual.

NPQ | Democracy, the market and the consumer society are all about giving people what they want when they want it—which is now. By definition, the future has no political constituency in such a system, and thus no voice.

The failure of communism made us distrust the future. But now that democracy and the market are triumphant, we need to find a way to remember the future. How can we do that?

COUSTEAU | In the aftermath of the Cold War, we need another kind of revolution, a cultural revolution, a fundamental change in the way of thinking.

That is why our hope rests with the youth—and with education. The survival of this planet depends ultimately on finding a way to incorporate the long-term perspective—the consequences for future generations—into present decisions by those who will come to power in business or government.

Today, no one seems to take responsibility for the future. Why? People lack objective information. Governments are subjected to short-term electoral concerns. Businesses are beholden to quarterly examinations of their financial health. The United Nations, which ought to be caring for the future, can only make recommendations, not take effective decisions. And, unfortunately, the universities, reflecting the ethos of the market, are not producing better citizens but instilling in them a kind of ferocious competition aimed only at success, fortune, more money. Young people today are being

pushed into the social trap of the short-term mentality.

Addressing these major weaknesses of our contemporary society seems to me the highest priority. To this end, the Cousteau Society has joined up with UNESCO to create a worldwide network of programs within already established universities—from Belgium to Brazil, from India to China to the United States—that will adopt what we call the "ecotechnie approach." The main effort here is to promote an interdisciplinary approach to environmental management so that its concerns are reflected in the training for all professions, from business and economics to engineering and natural sciences.

This kind of long march through the institutions to change the mindset of our coming generation is the key thing.

It is also important to reach the youngest generation that is so influenced by the media. Like many others, the Cousteau Society publishes books and videos for children so that thinking about future generations becomes part of their everyday view of the world. For example, we now publish an illustrated magazine series called *Cousteau Junior* in French. Ted Turner's cartoon network has *Captain Planet* and so on.

The sole ray of hope we have is the imagination of young people and their awareness of the stress this planet will face as a result of the demographic upheaval of the next 50 years.

NPQ | Because of the bias in our democratic consumer system toward short-term, immediate interests, French President Francois Mitterrand once created a "council of elders" as one way of giving voice to the long-term.

Is that kind of approach useful on a global scale?

COUSTEAU | Mitterrand set up a commission in 1993 for "defending the rights of future generations," of which I was chair. I resigned from that post, though, in 1995 when President Jacques Chirac announced the resumption of

French nuclear testing.

My view was that defending the future of our descendants can only be done in a climate of tolerance, which is incompatible with the nuclear threat. Maintaining a nuclear capability in the post-Cold War period, when there is no enemy, is nothing more than a competition in arrogance.

As useful as this idea of some wise body—a kind of supreme court that stands above the market—might be, what we really need is not a council of elders, but a "council of youngsters."

The idea of a group of elders is that, in past civilizations, they have linked worlds; the other world was also present in

The survival of this planet depends ultimately on finding a way to incorporate the long-term perspective—the consequences for future generations—into present decisions by those who will come to power in business or government.

this one. There is also the argument that elders have "experience." The problem is that experience teaches fear of change. Experience kills imagination. Experience makes people conservative. What we are facing tomorrow requires the force of imagination, not wisdom from yesterday.

NPQ | So, what you are trying to do with your educational efforts is to create a counterculture to the market where enduring value reigns over short-term price, where the rights of future generations are integrated into present decisions?

COUSTEAU | It is the market that is the counterculture! What we are talking about is building a culture where everything is not subject to the abuse of economics.

NPQ | Most people in the G-7 countries have cars and refrigerators. What happens to the world when 1 billion Chinese become consumers just like us—if only with improved diets of meat and fish, no less goods?

COUSTEAU | If the Chinese diet improved to the point where they were all eating fish regularly, the ocean would not be able to feed them.

In my lifetime, we have already depleted the sea.

When I began diving, all marine food—shellfish as well as saltwater and freshwater fish—represented one-tenth of the protein consumption of the world. And we were at that time only 1.7 billion people. Today the fishing industry has become very sophisticated and efficient. Schools of fish can be tracked electronically; we know when and where fish are spawning year in and year out. But there are now more than 5 billion people to feed.

The result is that the percentage of all the catch of the world is only 3 percent of protein consumption of humankind. And it will go to 2 percent, then 1 percent and then disappear altogether as we move toward the 10 billion mark. We will have exhausted the production capacity of the sea.

At the moment, virtually all the fish of the world are caught by the West. The fish that used to feed the primitive peoples along the coasts are taken out of their markets and sold to the rich urban consumers of the West. Is that a culture, or a counterculture?

That is the truth about fish. So, there is no way that the Chinese can survive thanks to the sea. No way. And, as you indicate, there is no way the atmospheric gases of the planet will remain stable if even half of the Chinese start driving cars or use refrigerators that operate with CFCs.

We talk about China because it is among the places where population growth will be most concentrated. The underlying implication of your question is this: In a world with 10 billion people, will everyone have the same chances? No way.

Will there be enough food and energy or living space? There will be severe scarcity in some places, but, yes, I do believe life on the planet can be bearable if we can bring down the inequalities.

I don't mean "equality." People are not equal. Some can jump higher than others, but not 20 times higher. In a society, people will understand a 10/1 ratio of difference, but not 2,000/1. They will not forever tolerate a situation, such as we have today, where only 60 human beings possess more wealth than all of Africa and a large chunk of Asia combined.

But what about the large animals, the giraffes and elephants? They will be the first to go because there will be no space for them to roam, to eat, to live. There will be too many people competing for the same habitat.

All that will be possible for them is a kind of Noah's Ark rescue—putting pairs of each in some high-rise zoo.

This, I think, offers an image of the kind of world future generations of humankind may be faced with.

NPQ | Absent the triumph of culture over counterculture, your vision of humankind's fate then resembles what happened to the people of Easter Island, the subject of one of your films?

COUSTEAU | Yes. Easter Island is the metaphor for Planet Earth unless we can change course. The lesson of Easter Island was that inequity on top of resource scarcity leads to genocide and then to social collapse.

There is no mystery here. Some 50 people arrived on Easter Island in the 7th century and proliferated to more than 70,000 by the 17th century. Over these 10 centuries, they cut down all the trees, the rains washed the soil away, and they couldn't feed themselves.

The society was divided into the priests, the sculptors of those large idols facing the sea and the peasants. As a result of the scarcity on this small island, the social order broke down and total war broke out against the privileges of the priests and sculptors. Holed up in a fortress on one corner of the island, they were finally overwhelmed by the peasants and destroyed.

Most people were killed—and eaten—because there was so little food. After that, the population fell, and a second culture developed, but didn't flourish. They understood what happened as a warning from God: Overpopulation had destroyed the environment and the culture and led to genocide.

We can also take the experience of Easter Island as a warning from God not to commit the same folly at the scale of the planet.

The market system, as we are living it today, is doing more damage to the planet than anything else because everything has a price, but nothing has value.



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PROFESSIONAL CONSECUTIVE TECHNICAL EXAMINATION - SPRING 1999
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CHICAGO'S STRATEGY --GREEN ROOFTOPS -- ANNOUNCEMENT AT PRESS CONFERENCE

Thank you for attending this press conference. We want to share with you the plans that we the Chicago city officials have for our beautiful city. We basically want to add a new architectural element to Chicago buildings — green rooftops. That's green as in grass, flowers and other plants. The city environment department plans to plant gardens atop several city buildings this summer as part of a U.S. Environmental Protection Agency program studying ways to help cool cities and reduce smog.

Dark-roofed buildings — along with miles of pavement — absorb the sun's rays, making Chicago a huge heat island and adding as much as 4 to 6 degrees to city thermometers.

Hotter temperatures increase smog by forcing electric plants to work harder and emit more pollution. This is something that we all agree on, that is, city and EPA officials. Pollution reacts with heat and sunlight to create smog.

That's a big issue for Chicago, which consistently violates federal air quality standards.

The rooftop gardens could begin with City Hall and other public buildings, such as schools. The first gardens might be planted this year.

As far as trees and lighter pavements, the city also will plant trees and other vegetation in medians to help cool pavement, and will consider light-colored paving surfaces.

Nobody knows how many roofs would have to be resurfaced or trees planted to make a measurable difference in heat and smog. That is a concern that the EPA's office of air and radiation has.

Computer modeling predicts that widespread heat-reduction measures could easily lower a city's temperature 5 degrees. That is what the researchers at Lawrence Berkeley National Laboratory in California have explained to us, and they are the ones doing the modeling. But no city has ever implemented wholesale changes to test the models' accuracy.

Chicago is one of five cities participating in the EPA program and the only one promoting rooftop gardens. The others — Baton Rouge, La.; Houston; Sacramento, Calif.; and Salt Lake City — are concentrating on roofing materials that reflect sunlight. Chicago officials focus on gardens because reflective roofing might make buildings more difficult to heat during the winter.

Gardens would offer benefits similar to those of reflective roofing, but could be more expensive. Still, researchers are eager to see Chicago's results. We know of no U.S. city where such gardens have been tested.

Reducing emissions from vehicles and small, unregulated businesses — the biggest contributors to smog — or cracking down on industrial smokestack emissions isn't enough. Large industry contributes only about 20 percent of the pollution. We don't think traditional approaches to dealing with smog will solve the problem.

Based on modeling and results of small-scale testing, cooling a city could reduce smog more than almost every other pollution-fighting measure. The chemicals need an oven to cook in to produce smog. City officials will encourage private corporations to plant rooftop gardens. But the city must first monitor the benefits of its own project to prove it works.

The city is working with engineers and designers to plan the first gardens, which could be simple prairie grass or more elaborate plantings. The gardens must require little maintenance and the roofs must be able to bear the weight of the gardens, which will not be designed for people to use.

The point is to make it green and efficient. The potential benefits make the project worthwhile. It is a win, win, win case. You have a better environment, lower temperature and you save energy.

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Graduate School of Translation and Interpretation Professional Exam,
Simultaneous Interpretation, General English Text
Spring 1999

High Level Symposium of Trade and
Environment Statement of the Executive Director of UNEP March 15, 1999

Excellencies,

Distinguished Delegates, Ladies and Gentlemen, It is my great privilege and pleasure to address this distinguished audience today on behalf of the United Nations Environment Programme. I would like to thank the WTO for extending to me this invitation to speak. The High Level Symposiums on Trade and Environment and Development taking place this week constitute bold steps forward toward realizing the goal of truly sustainable development. During this week the countries of the world will be called upon to adopt new, broader perspectives on the interrelated imperatives of environment and development - perspectives that will shape mutual cooperation between governments, organizations and communities that will support the exciting yet challenging work of the next millenium.

I am honored to be here with you today on this important occasion.

Ladies and Gentlemen, Over the next two days, discussions in this high level symposium will focus on the linkages between global trade - close to \$3 trillion dollars of activity each year - and efforts to protect our global environment - a resource of unestimated monetary and inestimable social and spiritual value. Economic liberalization has sparked economic growth in many countries around the world, helped to create job and investment opportunities, and increased the incomes of many people. The WTO can claim a large share of the credit for this accomplishment.

We must applaud

and build on these successes. However, we are also experiencing ever-accelerating planetary environmental degradation and the associated economic costs. The problems range from an alarming loss of productive lands because of desertification and soil degradation, to the highest rates of species extinction in recorded history. 1998 was the record year for losses, at least \$89 billion dollars worth, due to storms, floods, droughts, fires and other weather-related disasters. These enormous losses, when added to the global economic instability in parts of Asia and Latin America, are providing a clear signal that governments must be even more vigilant to ensure that economic liberalization is strictly designed to serve the ultimate goal of sustainable development.

The challenge that lies ahead is in realizing the benefits of a strong rules-based multilateral trading

system while addressing the environmental degradation of this century. To echo the words of President Clinton: We must build a trading system for the 21st Century that honours our values as it expands opportunity.... We must ensure that ordinary citizens in all countries actually benefit from trade -- a trade that ... protects the environment. This challenge must be taken up jointly by trade, environment and development ministries. We can not isolate trade or environmental policy from the impacts of international debt, the need to alleviate poverty, the equitable imperative to transfer technology or the need to enhance the capacity of developing countries to face the challenges of sustainable development.

Over the last few years, solid progress has been made in building greater understanding among environment and trade officials. Nevertheless, the trade and environment debate continues to be a work-in-progress. The recent problems encountered by the parties negotiating the Biosafety Protocol to the Biodiversity Convention demonstrates unequivocally that it is time to build rational, balanced policies and guidelines for making sustainable development and trade policies fully complementary. Why? Why after almost a decade have we failed to articulate clear, acceptable trade and environment policies? I am convinced that it is because too much has been demanded of the WTO and too little has been done in other fora, both at the national and international levels.

Despite the need for a broader discussion about trade and environmental issues, environmental policy makers have not yet fully engaged in trade and environment policy deliberations. We must begin at once to work together in earnest to build sustainable global economies.

The Governing Council of last month gave UNEP a strong mandate to assume a key role on environment and trade. UNEP is working closely with governments, international institutions and civil society to develop and implement a trade and environment workplan that is consistent with the concerns and development priorities of countries. In this connection, I welcome the close cooperation that exists between UNEP and the WTO and propose that we work to strengthen and deepen this collaboration. Specifically, UNEP is exploring possible modalities for enhanced institutional cooperation.

For example, our institutions could strengthen cooperation with respect to the sharing of documents and access to and sharing of experience. UNEP welcomes an opportunity to consult with WTO member states and the Secretariat on elements of enhanced future cooperation. UNEP also will continue to confer a high level of importance on full and effective participation by all affected parties: governments,

scientists, industries, NGOs and the public, in shaping environmental policy.

Ladies and
Gentlemen,

Ecological limits must be set by science and embodied in law. Within these constraints the market can operate as a coordinating mechanism to determine prices, outputs and methods of production through the interplay of supply and demand. While market based instruments can be effective tools for achieving environmental goals, it is governments that must harness the power of the markets toward fruitful ends. The role of government intervention and regulation must therefore be protected. The 'deregulatory' approach of international trade liberalization will in some cases run counter to the 'regulatory' approach needed in many instances to internalize environmental costs and otherwise ensure that economic activity remains within the limits of the biosphere.

The governments gathered here today are already discussing the possibility of expanding the rules of international trade, of further integrating them into policies that ten years ago were not even associated with trade policy: intellectual property standards, competition policy, investment policy and government procurement. This integration will have policy implications that reverberate far deeper than simple commercial transactions. These are not simply rules governing tariffs and trade. But we lack empirical data as to how this deeper integration will impact other aspects of public policy.

Despite almost a decade of analysis of trade and environment issues, we still lack a solid, analytical comprehension of these basic linkages. In particular, we must increase efforts to enhance the capacity of developing countries to actively participate in the development and implementation of sustainable trade policies. UNEP will make a priority in the coming years to collect empirical data as to the environmental consequences of international economic policies. If negative causal relations exist, now is the time to identify the necessary adjustments. And positive synergies must be exploited. Both trade and environment officials are committed to sustainable development.

It is not surprising that there are many fruitful areas for common endeavor. Many countries have identified, for example, environmental and trade benefits of removing price-distorting subsidies. Of course, such work must be undertaken in light of the potential impacts that the removal of such subsidies might have on the social and economic fabric of all countries concerned. The environmental costs of these distortions are now known to be

staggering. Experts estimate that these inefficient policies cost society over \$50 billion dollars in fishing subsidies; over \$300 billion in energy subsidies and over \$350 billion in agricultural subsidies. And tackling subsidies is only the first step toward creating more environmentally and economically efficient markets. Markets will not achieve true efficiency if prices do not reflect the full cost of goods and services. Full cost internalization is good environmental policy and it is good economic and trade policy.

For example, without the Montreal Protocol's success protecting our ozone layer, monetary damages in the fisheries, agricultural and other economic sectors would have amounted to several hundreds of billions of dollars because of reduced plant photosynthesis and a disruption of aquatic food chains. And these figures do not include costs from damage to human health. UNEP is assisting developing countries to identify and employ policies for internalizing the full environmental costs of production in a manner that takes into account social considerations, as well as institutional, financial and human capacities and concerns related to market access and competitiveness.

Developed countries must enable developing countries to reduce the potential for negative environmental impacts from trade liberalization. Despite the obvious long-term benefits, cost internalization and other policies to ensure the environmental sustainability of development, can impose short-term costs. UNEP, therefore, also calls on the international system to support the development and implementation of sustainable trade policies in developing countries, in accordance with the principle of common but differentiated responsibilities.

Success in deflecting some of the environmental impacts of trade liberalization will benefit the entire planet, so it is natural that the costs be shared. As President Nelson Mandela noted during the last WTO Ministerial, There can be no refusal to discuss matters such as ... the environment, but equally all must be prepared to listen carefully before judgements are made. If developing countries feel that there is nothing to gain except further burdens, then it will prove difficult to deal with these crucial matters.

Ladies and Gentlemen, International environmental laws represent a delicate balance between what science tells us the physical environment demands and what actions will command the consent of scores of governments with different interests and concerns. These laws are contained in highly complex agreements. Despite the different types of environmental problems and the different solutions applied, international environmental policies are unified by a core set of environmental principles based on stronger science, cost-effective policies

and a commitment to international equity. Together these foundational principles constitute a sort of environmental constitution and policy framework for the future. This framework is effective. But it must be articulated more clearly, and the compatibility between these framework principles and the rules of international trade must be made explicit.

UNEP's work in the coming year will

elucidate how core environmental principles actually function, and how they reflect a consistency and predictability in the policy choices in multilateral environmental agreements. Mr.

Director-General, Ladies and Gentlemen, Environmental policy develops from the "bottom-up" by responding to complex and sometimes incomplete scientific and technical information on a wide range of environmental problems. It reflects the complexity of the world it is attempting to preserve and is based on a consensus derived from scientific evidence and the best judgement of scientists, engineers, technical and legal experts from developed and developing countries, all working together. So too, must trade policy be developed with a holistic understanding of the complex systems it impacts and with a firm commitment to sustainable development. Economic liberalization has vastly different effects depending on the underlying social, economic and environmental conditions.

Standing, as we are, on the precipice of a new millenium, in which environmental protection and economic development together hold the key to our very survival, we must demand more of ourselves and of our institutions. Heeding the echoes of our own voices, we must ensure that "environmental protection constitutes an integral part of the development process"; We must fashion new policies to reflect our knowledge that "peace, development and environmental protection are interdependent and indivisible."

Thank you, Ladies and Gentlemen,

for your kind attention. And I wish to all of us a very successful four days.

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The Desirable Level of Plasma Cholesterol

It has now been established beyond a doubt that there are three major risk factors related to **atherosclerotic vascular disease** and in particular to **coronary heart disease (CHD)**. These factors are ; high **plasma cholesterol levels**, high blood pressure and smoking . The role played by all three factors has been clearly demonstrated in a number of studies.

Evidence of the key role played by elevated plasma cholesterol levels - by which I mean elevated levels of **low - density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol** - in causing both **atherosclerosis** and **CHD** comes from a number of sources. These include cell biology studies, wide-scale epidemiological studies in the US and elsewhere and preventive medicine trials.

Epidemiological studies carried out in many countries over several years, in some cases several decades, have established that there is a strong link between plasma cholesterol levels and the risk of contracting coronary disease for individuals within a given population. By comparing populations, such studies have also revealed that differences in the mean level of plasma cholesterol from one population group or from one country to another explain a large proportion of the differences in the incidence of coronary heart disease between those populations or countries. Furthermore, the results obtained from preventive trials directed at getting people to take steps to lower their plasma cholesterol levels, strongly suggest that lowering elevated blood cholesterol reduces coronary heart disease risk.

With all this evidence available, the question of what constitutes desirable blood cholesterol levels has become an important *practical* issue. The *reference* levels currently used by chemical pathology laboratories have mostly been derived from observed levels in local populations. The mean level observed is used as the definition of "normal" levels, which is not very helpful from a medical point of view when trying to define the desirable range of plasma cholesterol to avoid CHD. This is particularly true for populations with high cholesterol and high CHD rates. Desirable levels have to be worked out not only on the basis of epidemiological studies, but also studies on cell biology and experimental pathology.

Goldstein and Brown, who need no introduction since their work on LDL cholesterol earned them the Nobel prize for Medicine, addressed the issue of what constitutes an "*appropriate*" level for plasma LDL levels in man. We know from their work that cholesterol is necessary for human cells to support cell growth in particular. LDL cholesterol **receptors** pick up cholesterol circulating in the blood to deliver them to cells. Tests in vitro indicate that ideal levels of circulating LDL plasma cholesterol for these receptors to operate properly are about 25mg/dl. This is because if too much cholesterol accumulates in the cell, the cell stops producing **LDL-binding receptors**. This means in turn, that less circulating LDL cholesterol is taken up from the blood, which means that more LDL cholesterol gradually builds up in the blood. Goldstein and Brown point out that this "appropriate" level in man is similar to that observed in mammalian species that are not naturally susceptible to atherosclerosis. Furthermore, this level is quite close to the mean LDL cholesterol level observed in new-born human infants before they have been exposed to dietary and other environmental influences.

In populations with a western life-style, total cholesterol and LDL levels in the blood are already elevated after the first year of life and the mean LDL cholesterol level in "normal" adults, meaning those who are *not* considered at high risk of CHD, in such

populations is about 5 times higher than the "appropriate" level required to ensure adequate binding of LDL to its receptors.

Studies in the way in which LDL is transferred from **plasma** to the human **arterial wall** have shown that there is a direct relationship between LDL concentrations in plasma and in the arterial wall. This indicates that in Western societies the stage is set, even in childhood, for the subsequent development of **atherosclerotic lesions**.

Obviously, a certain amount of plasma cholesterol is needed in man for normal body functions. However, there is no evidence, whether it be biochemical, metabolic or other, to indicate that dietary patterns can reduce LDL concentrations to levels so *low* that they constitute a danger.

It has long been known, on the basis of numerous studies, that a high plasma cholesterol level is a strong predictor of CHD risk in individuals. However, there has been some disagreement about the exact nature of the relationship between plasma cholesterol and the CHD risk. Some experts believe that the relationship is continuous, while others claimed that it starts to increase only above a certain threshold level. The main reason for this controversy has been the lack of large prospective studies until recently, making it possible to assess a CHD risk even with relatively low levels of serum cholesterol.

This controversy has now been settled thanks to results obtained from 2 large prospective studies on middle-aged men in two countries with very high CHD incidence. These are the **Multiple Risk Factor Intervention Trial (MRFIT)** tests in the US and another long-term study in the UK. The US study was conducted on 360,000 men over a period of 6 years, while the UK study was done on 17,000 male civil servants in London for a period of 10 years. The MRFIT study

results reveal quite clearly that the relationship between plasma cholesterol levels and CHD mortality is continuous, without any threshold level. There is a slight increase in risk of CHD death even at fairly low plasma cholesterol levels and the risk increases progressively as cholesterol levels rise. The result of the British civil servant study are very similar.

The Seven Countries Study - a prospective study of middle-aged men in 7 countries - is the main source of epidemiological information concerning interpopulation correlations between plasma cholesterol and the occurrence of CHD. At the baseline examination of the men, a strong relation was observed between the amount and the portions of **saturated and polyunsaturated fats** in the habitual diet of these populations and their mean plasma cholesterol levels. There was also a strong relationship between the population mean cholesterol levels and CHD mortality observed at the end of the 10 year UK study. The Seven Countries Study data concurs with the MRFIT test data as well, in showing that occurrence of CHD begins to increase at levels below 200 mg/dl, although such levels are generally considered "normal" in Western life-style populations.

The two most extreme cases of studied populations in the Seven Countries Study were a group of fishermen in Southern Japan, who were at the lowest end of the scale, and the men from rural North Karelia in East Finland at the highest. The plasma cholesterol levels in the Japanese fishermen group were between 100 and 200 mg/dl, whereas for the group at the highest end, the levels ranged between 180 to 400. The latter group had an extremely high rate of CHD.

In the 6 year MRFIT study, some evidence of non-cardiovascular deaths was observed at the low end of the plasma cholesterol distribution curve. Similar observations had previously been made in some other studies. When it became evident that cancer contributed to much of the deaths among subjects with low

cholesterol, there was some concern that low cholesterol might cause cancers, particularly, **cancer of the colon**. However, the **International Collaborative Group** demonstrated in a 10 year study of more than 61,000 men from 11 population groups in 8 countries, that the association between low plasma cholesterol and cancer mortality diminished markedly after the first 5 years of the study. This finding supports the view, already put forward by several experts, that low plasma cholesterol levels in people who subsequently die of cancer are due to the fact that undetected cancer has had a cholesterol-lowering effect. The cause-to-effect relationship is not low plasma cholesterol leading to cancer , but the opposite.

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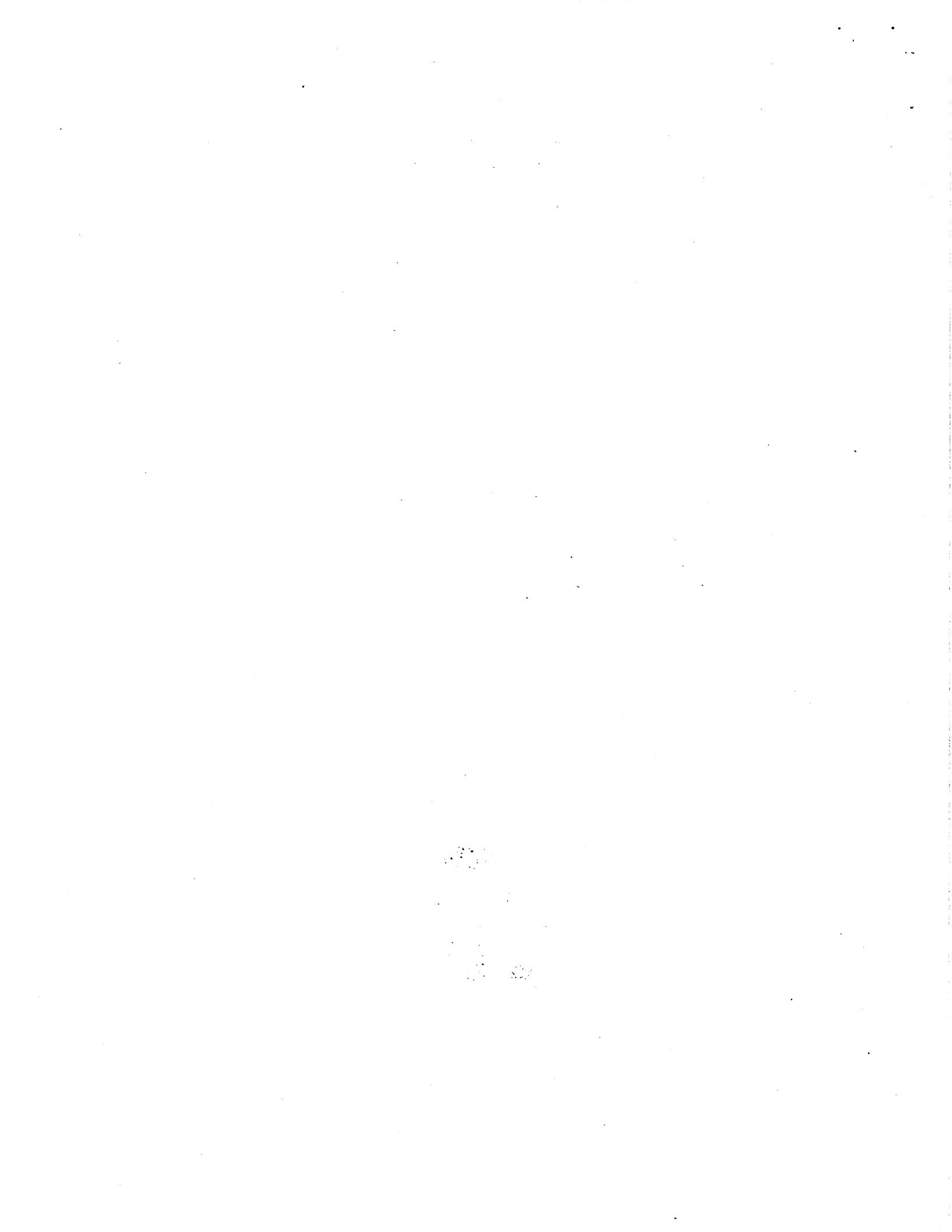
**Nunn-Lugar Cooperative Threat Reduction
Program and Export Controls**

Michael Newlin
Lawyers Alliance for World Security

Prepared for
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The unexpected and unprecedented collapse of the Soviet Union in 1991 created a dangerous and confused situation that presented multiple challenges to the United States and its allies; Russia, suddenly shorn of the New Independent States (NIS); the leaders and peoples of the NIS. All at once, pressing problems such as nuclear weapons, conventional forces, nation-building, political instability, severe economic dislocation, and ethnic issues had to be faced. While the West welcomed the emergence of the NIS from Moscow's domination, it was alarmed over the uncertainty concerning the control of nuclear weapons outside Russia and the real threat of proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

The United States took the lead in responding to the radically new situation that existed in the vast area from Western Europe to the Sea of Japan. To meet urgent requirements, it adopted the Nunn-Lugar program. To encourage the transition from Communism to democracy and market economics, it adopted the Freedom Support Act.

Important successes have been achieved in both programs, but progress has been hampered by the factors mentioned above. A major element in the situation was the absence of experienced leaders and administrators in the NIS with the desire to undertake radical change. The fact that most of the officials in the NIS were products of the Soviet system did not always make for easy agreement with a former enemy in new and uncertain times even when objectives were in both parties' interest. Disagreements over the respective roles of the executive and legislative branches of government, especially in Russia and Ukraine, also caused delays.

The initial impetus for the Nunn-Lugar program was to assure the safe and secure dismantlement of strategic nuclear weapons and the controlled storage of the resulting fissile material. At the outset, however, the need for the development of effective export controls in the Former Soviet Union was recognized as a key element in a comprehensive program to prevent the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction.

Prior to 1991, the highly centralized Soviet state did not require Western-style export controls. Decisions as to what and how much would be produced by whom in accordance with timetables were made in Moscow in the context of the GOSPLAN together with issues of resources and distribution.

Market factors did play a role, especially in international trade, but again this was the province of the central planners and decision makers in Moscow rather than the heads of individual enterprises. For example, the Soviet Union was a major producer and exporter of sophisticated conventional arms to India, Iraq, Algeria, and others in a position to pay. Nuclear materials were covered by special regimes (it should be noted that the Soviet Union, after its early experience with China, became a strong supporter of nuclear nonproliferation).

On three of the NIS -- Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus -- large numbers of strategic nuclear weapons remained under the control of Russian troops. Moreover, many of the NIS had nuclear reactors and/or research institutes where nuclear material was present. The disappearance of traditional central controls created a worrisome situation from a proliferation point of view. Economic dislocation greatly strained and complicated relations between all parties. Suddenly Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus found that their traditional markets in

Russia, which previously included each other, were disrupted. For example, both Ukraine and Belarus made components for Russian ballistic missiles. Large enterprises were faced with idle work forces.

The situation was not all one-sided. Ust Kamenogorsk in Kazakhstan is the world's largest nuclear fuel fabrication plant and furnishes fuel for Soviet-built reactors in Russia and other countries.

These factors, coupled with the absence of former Soviet economic command and security structures, aggravated the risk of proliferation. It should be noted, however, that the stolen nuclear material intercepted in Europe is thought to have come from reactors and research institutes rather than from major civilian and military nuclear complexes.

United States assistance was conditioned on the recipients adopting and implementing nonproliferation policies. Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus undertook these obligations, although at different times. The basic Nunn-Lugar legislation provided that assistance could be made available to other NIS if the Secretary of State certified that the country had met the nonproliferation requirements. The difficulty of carrying out the program in the nuclear four proved to be so time consuming that to date no certification of other NIS has taken place.

To fill this gap, United States nongovernmental organizations have been active in Latvia, Lithuania, and Estonia. The Monterey Institute of International Studies and the University of Georgia, in cooperation with the Lawyers Alliance for World Security and the American Association for the Advancement of Science, have supported this effort. The Monterey Institute and the University of Georgia have also supplemented Nunn-Lugar export control programs in Ukraine and Belarus in the legal area.

In the process of creating the institutions of sovereign and independent states, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus all recognized the need for national export control systems. For these countries, this meant starting from zero bases. Basic elements included:

- a legal basis for export controls, including lists of controlled items;
- an organization and procedures for licensing;
- an effective National Customs Service;
- establishing immigration and customs frontiers;
- an effective enforcement regime.

During 1991-1994, problems were so numerous and resources were so scarce that it is safe to say that the development of export control regimes in Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus would have taken place at a much slower pace had it not been for the Nunn-Lugar program.

In order to respond quickly to the security and nonproliferation dangers mentioned above, initial funding for the program was \$400 million, to be provided by reprogramming existing Defense Department appropriations. The Defense Nuclear Agency became the accounting and disbursing authority. While this shortened the appropriations process, it also resulted in considerable Defense Department debate internally as to just where the funds were

coming from. In subsequent years, the funds were appropriated directly to the Defense Department.

Modalities for Nunn-Lugar assistance are intended to be uniform. First, an umbrella agreement must be signed between the host country and the United States covering the general objectives and parameters of the program. Second, a specific export control agreement should be signed laying out the kinds of assistance to be furnished together with certain administrative requirements. Third, a plan of work must be negotiated specifying in some detail individual elements of the program and earmarking funds. By mid-1995, formal agreements or other understandings had been reached with Russia, Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus. Active programs were underway in Belarus and Ukraine and initial programs were getting underway in Russia and Kazakhstan.

The way in which the program was initially set up resulted in some anomalous procedures. In general, negotiations on elements of the program, including export controls, were supposed to be conducted by State Department officials. However, once agreement was reached, signature on the American side was supposed to be by Defense Department officials. This unusual procedure was to cause difficulties concerning the Russian export control program and some exceptions were made.

Progress has been uneven, reflecting the different political and economic conditions in each of the four, including the changing dynamics of relations among themselves and between each of them and the United States. Russia was the first to sign a Nunn-Lugar umbrella agreement. This occurred on June 17, 1992, at a summit between President's Bush and Yeltsin. This agreement was different from the ones eventually signed by Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus in that Russia is a nuclear weapons state. It did, however, commit Russia to the safe and secure dismantlement of nuclear weapons and to support nonproliferation goals. Soon after, negotiations began on a wide range of activities, but internal political conditions made agreement and implementation difficult.

Belarus, under former President Shuskevitch, took an early and positive stand. Both umbrella and export control agreements were signed on October 22, 1992.

In Ukraine and Kazakhstan, the situation was complicated over the question of disposition of strategic nuclear materials on their soil. Ukraine did not sign the umbrella and export control agreements until October and December 1993, respectively. These agreements took place in the context of trilateral negotiations between Russia, Ukraine, and the United States, whereby Ukraine obtained security assurances and economic benefits by agreeing to transfer the weapons to Russia for dismantlement.

In Kazakhstan, in spite of diligent efforts by the American ambassador in Almaty and numerous high-level delegations from Washington, progress on Nunn-Lugar remained stalled while Kazakhstan watched how the Russian-Ukrainian dispute over nuclear weapons turned out. The Russian, Ukrainian, and United States agreement encouraged Almaty to move forward in this highly important area. The umbrella and export control agreements were signed in December 1993 during the visit of President Nazarbayev to the United States.

Implementation has also been affected by the fact that since the signature of the Nunn-Lugar agreements, there have been changes of government in Ukraine, Kazakhstan, and Belarus. In Russia there was an abortive coup in 1993. Comments on individual country programs follow.

Russia

Russia, by the sheer size and variety of its nuclear and other industrial activities, has the greatest needs. Quite apart from the ongoing effort to dismantle between 2,000 and 3,000 nuclear warheads each year, Russia has on the order of 100 nuclear operating facilities, including fuel fabrication, reprocessing, and enrichment plants.

Russia also has numerous nuclear research institutes where significant quantities of weapons grade material (i.e. plutonium and or highly enriched uranium) are present.

Concerning export controls, Russia takes the position that it already has an effective structure (*see the organizational chart on page 5*). Russia states that it applies the standard control lists when considering exports: Nuclear Suppliers Group; Zangger Committee; Missile Technology Control Regime; and Australia Group (chemical and biological agents).

The legal basis is a Presidential decree dated April 11, 1992, "On the Measures for Developing the Export Control System in the Russian Federation." Licenses are issued by the Ministry of Foreign Economic Relations. Contentious cases are considered by the interministerial Export Control Commission outlined above and are staffed by the Federal Service for Currency and Export Control headed by Rustam Safaraliev. Unresolved issues are referred to Deputy Prime Minister Oleg Soskovets.

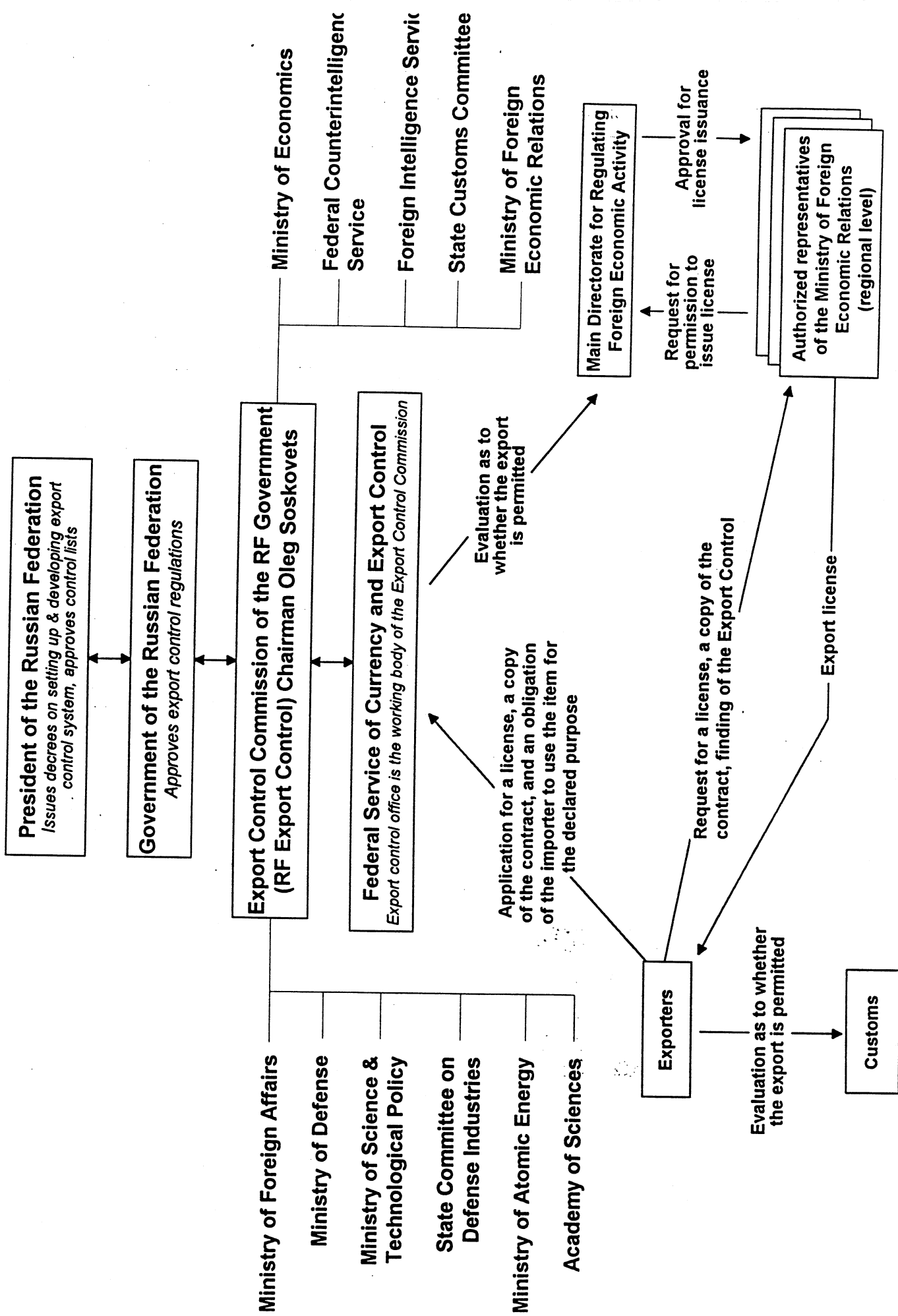
In addition to the organization outlined above, there are reports that a new body was established in the President's office in December, 1994, the State Committee for Military and Technical Cooperation. There is speculation that this body will be responsible for arms, technology, and other sensitive sales.

Although Russia was the first to sign the umbrella agreement, difficulties arose over negotiation of the standard subsidiary export control agreement. As noted earlier, Defense took the position that Nunn-Lugar agreements should be signed by authorized Defense Department officials even though they were negotiated by the State Department. Moreover, the agreements must contain uniform provisions for auditing the assistance provided to make certain that equipment, for example, is in fact used for the purpose it was provided.

Russia was receptive to early United States presentations on export controls, and in 1993 early agreement seemed possible. \$2.26 million was earmarked for cooperation in this area. After prolonged negotiations, it emerged that the Russian government was not willing to sign an export control agreement with the Defense Department.

The United States then changed the format to an agreement between the State Department and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. Further exchanges revealed that Russia

Organization of the Russian Federation Export Control System



Source: G. Bertsch & I. Khripunov, eds. *Russia's Nonproliferation Export Controls: 1994 Annual Report*. (Athens, GA: Center for East-West Trade Policy, University of Georgia, 1994).

objected, on security grounds, to the audit provisions of the draft agreement. The impasse was broken in January 1994, when at a meeting between Secretary Christopher and Minister Kozyrev, a Memorandum of Intent was agreed which provides for exchanges on export controls but eliminates the possibility of furnishing equipment (e.g., computers for licensing).

Under an agreed list of activities, export control cooperation with Russia will consist of seminars and exchanges in areas such as: laws; regulations; organization; operations; multilateral control regimes; dual-use items; and industry outreach.

The first activity under the Memorandum of Intent was a Legal and Regulatory Technical Forum which took place in Washington July 10-18, 1995, under the joint auspices of the State and Commerce Departments with the participation of other interested departments and agencies. The nineteen-person Russian delegation was led by A. Antonov, Acting Director for Nonproliferation and Export Controls, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, and R. Safaraliev, Head of the Federal Service for Foreign Exchange and Export Control. The delegation also consisted of representatives from the Ministry of Atomic Energy (MINATOM), the Ministry of Foreign Economic Relations, the Russian General Staff, and the Russian Space Agency.

Secretary of Commerce Brown hosted a welcoming reception and personally greeted all who were present. Exchanges covered general legal export control principles, laws, regulations, licensing, and enforcement. The Forum included a field trip to Baltimore Harbor hosted by U.S. Customs where Customs operations were observed first-hand. The Russian delegation also visited Capitol Hill where Senator Lugar's Legislative Assistant, Ken Myers, briefed on positive and negative Congressional attitudes toward the Nunn-Lugar program. Another important activity was a meeting with representatives of American industry who explained industry's role in the United States export control system.

Informal discussions also took place on the COCOM successor regime, the New Forum, and the Missile Technology Control Regime (MTCR) in light of the June 29-30 Gore Chernomyrdin meeting at which progress was made on Russia's membership in these bodies.

During the Washington sessions, Safaraliev reiterated that Russia had a complete, fully effective export control system.

Both sides stated that this initial meeting was useful and a positive development. The next planned activity is an industry outreach seminar which is scheduled for the end of October, 1995 in Washington.

After much delay, it appears that U.S.-Russian consultation and cooperation in the field of export controls has begun on a positive and productive note.

Despite Russian statements to the contrary, there are concerns that the country's export control system may not be as fully effective as portrayed. How arms and technology sales are handled is an opaque area. There is also an inadequate understanding of the nature and effectiveness of Russia's export control regime vis--vis the New Independent States. Russia, Kazakhstan, and Belarus have agreed to establish a customs union. There is talk that the

latter two states will adopt Russia's legal basis for export controls. The trilateral agreement could be a positive development, especially since there are no border crossing controls between the three.

The Russian Customs Service was established in June, 1993. During the last two years hundreds of new officials have been hired, resulting in a relatively high ratio of inexperienced personnel. Exchanges are underway between United States customs and their opposite numbers in Russia.

Economic difficulties and the reorganization of security services, not only in Russia but in other NIS, provide fertile ground for the activities of powerful organized crime groups and increase proliferation concerns.

As seminars and technical meetings get underway between the United States and Russia in this area, it is expected that a better understanding of the actual functioning and efficacy of the Russian export control system will emerge.

Ukraine

Ukraine is second in size of population to Russia. It not only has nuclear facilities but also many high technology enterprises, especially in the ballistic missile field.

Because of post-independence uncertainties over Ukraine's nuclear status, the umbrella agreement was not signed by Secretary Christopher and Foreign Minister Zelenko until October 25, 1993, fourteen months after the initial United States-Russian agreement. This opened the way for the export control agreement negotiated earlier to be signed on December 5, 1993, between Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense Gloria Duffy and A. Patrick of the Export and Technical Committee for Export Controls. An initial allotment of \$2.26 million was made for export control assistance; the agreement was later amended to provide a total of \$13.26 million for this purpose.

Well before the signature of the umbrella agreement, the Government of Ukraine gave indications that it was serious about establishing an effective export control system starting from the ground up. In 1994, it was noted with concern that the Ukraine State Committee for Nuclear and Radiation Safety had been abolished. Subsequently, it appears that the Committee's functions have been taken over by other agencies.

Ukraine has created, under the Council of Ministers, the Expert and Technical Committee to administer export controls. This committee, chaired by Vladimir I. Tsimbaluk, acts as the secretariat for Ukraine's Export Control Commission, which consists of appropriate ministries and agencies (e.g., Defense, Foreign Affairs, Foreign Economic Relations). The Expert and Technical Committee also issues export licenses. Chairman Tsimbaluk reports to the Chairman of the Export Control Commission. Until recently, this was First Deputy Prime Minister and Defense Minister Smarov, who has given up the former post.

Although Ukraine has the capability to license exports, there is no transparency. Ukraine, while stating that it adheres to international nonproliferation norms, does not publish its control lists. When it ratified the START I treaty, Ukraine did so as a non-nuclear weapons state, and \$200 million has been made available for strategic nuclear arms elimination.

Ukraine has signed a bilateral agreement with the United States undertaking to abide by the guidelines of the MTCR. Discussions have taken place about Ukraine becoming a member of the MTCR. While members are generally sympathetic, some believe that Ukraine should first have export control laws adopted by the Parliament rather than the present system of Presidential decrees. These and other indications that Ukraine is seriously supporting nonproliferation efforts have resulted in the United States' willingness to discuss Ukraine's participation in international commercial satellite launches. This latter development in particular has allayed concerns over President Kuchma's statement that what is good for UZHMASH (the strategic missile industrial complex) is good for Ukraine.

Ukraine has signed the Chemical Weapons Convention but has not yet deposited its notice of ratification. It is also a party to the Biological Weapons Convention. To date, Ukraine has not applied for membership in the Australia Group, which is composed of leading industrial nations and works to prevent the spread of chemical and biological weapons through the control of chemical precursors, chemical and biological weapons equipment, and biological warfare agents and organisms.

As noted above, exports at present are governed by several executive decrees. The government is actively studying the possibility of having export controls become the subject of legislation. Nunn-Lugar assistance in this area has been provided by the United States government. Several nongovernmental organizations including the Monterey Institute of International Studies, the University of Georgia, the Lawyers Alliance for World Security, and the American Association for the Advancement of Science have worked with Ukrainian officials on draft export control legislation. A conference on industry outreach and enforcement has also been sponsored in Kiev by the same nongovernmental groups.

After signature of the Nunn-Lugar agreements, a plan of work was agreed upon covering all aspects of export controls. Within the plan, Ukraine has identified automation as an urgent requirement to link the Expert and Technical Committee with other involved agencies and to create an easily retrievable database. Currently, the license application and approval process is labor-intensive but appears to be thorough. Approximately 30% of the \$13.26 million Nunn-Lugar export control funds has been earmarked for automation and procurement is in transit. Some personal computers have already been delivered to the Expert and Technical Committee for its internal use.

The Nunn-Lugar program will also provide training in licensing for Ukrainian officials. Another major area will be training for Customs personnel. This will be done by the United States Customs Service and will be financed out of the Nunn-Lugar budget.

Enforcement will also be a major component and will involve the Expert and Technical Committee, Customs, the Ministry of Justice, and law enforcement agencies.

Although the start of the Nunn-Lugar program in Ukraine was delayed, the government seems to be eager to make up for this fact. Implementation in all areas of the program is proceeding.

Against this background it must be noted that unfavorable economic conditions and the activities of organized crime are as pervasive as in Russia and the other NIS. Ukraine inherited a large, sophisticated defense industry whose sole customer was the Soviet Union. It will take years, large resources, and political will to reorient the economy.

Kazakhstan

Kazakhstan, along with Russia and Ukraine, was one of the major nuclear successor states of the Soviet Union. In addition to the vast fuel fabrication plant already mentioned, it is the site of the former nuclear weapons test facility at Semipalatinsk.

When the controversy broke out over ownership of the former Soviet nuclear weapons on Ukrainian soil, Kazakhstan adopted a wait-and-see attitude. Agreement on this issue paved the way for signature of the umbrella and export control documents during the visit of President Nazarbayev in December 1993. On the American side, the umbrella agreement was signed by Vice President Gore, and the export control text was signed by Susan Koch of the Defense Department. At that time \$2.6 million was initially allocated for export control assistance, which was later increased to \$7.26 million. Some of these funds will pay for the six patrol boats on the Caspian Sea as well as for certain Sapphire purchases.

As in the cases of Ukraine and Belarus, Kazakhstan has had to start from scratch to build an effective export control system. Given the size and terrain of the country, its common border with many Asian states, including Iran, and the lack of infrastructure, the task is a formidable challenge.

Agreement has been reached on a work program that will cover all aspects of export control: legal basis; control lists; licensing structure and operations; customs activities including border crossing posts; and training. Several exchanges of delegations consisting of policy-level and expert officials have taken place which have laid a basis for future cooperation. On one such visit, Commerce Department attorneys worked intensively with their Kazakh counterparts to draft an export control law. We will have to see what affect the agreement between Russia, Kazakhstan, and Belarus to establish a customs union has in this area.

The government of Kazakhstan appears to be serious in its desire to create an effective export control system. Given the circumstances mentioned above and the need to recruit, train, and equip officials in this area, results will clearly take some time. As United States-Kazakhstan cooperation in this area grows, a better appreciation of specific requirements will emerge. As in the case of Ukraine, it appears that the current amount allocated for export controls is far from sufficient to do the job.

Belarus

The Belarus Nunn-Lugar export control program is the oldest. The export control agreement was signed at the same time as the umbrella agreement by Deputy Secretary of Defense Atwood in October 1992. Several factors, including the change of Administration in Washington, resulted in a hiatus, and negotiations on a program of work did not get underway until March 1993. A total of \$16.26 million has been allocated for export control cooperation.

Belarus has established an export control structure that is administered out of the Ministry of Foreign Economic Relations. The agreed work plan covers all areas of export control: legal basis; control lists; licensing organizations and operations; customs; and training.

There have been numerous exchanges between Belarus and the United States. Initially, these focused on explaining and demonstrating how the United States system works, including laws, regulations, and interagency coordination. Outreach programs to United States firms were also described, and the value of transparency was emphasized. In light of this interaction, and after studying other systems as well, Belarus decided on a system that it believes best meets its requirements.

As in Ukraine, automation is a major component of the program. Belarus has, as a priority, requested automation equipment for the central export control organization in Minsk. This has been procured and is in the process of being delivered.

Another main component, costing perhaps \$4-5 million, is to automate the Customs Service and envisages linking Customs headquarters in Minsk with key border posts. The Nunn-Lugar program has also helped construct model border crossing posts and has provided some basic equipment (e.g., vehicles and radios). Because Belarus is a major transshipment country, the United States has furnished hand-held radiation detectors for use at border crossing posts.

A change of government in Minsk and shifting priorities have slowed implementation of the Belarus program. Nevertheless, Belarus appears to be serious in its desire to create a fully effective export control system. A solid basis for cooperation in all areas has been established, and implementation is proceeding in spite of some of the delays mentioned above. At present, the \$16.26 allocated to Belarus for export controls appears to be adequate.

Future Funding

Instead of all Nunn-Lugar activities being included in the Defense Department's budget, beginning in FY 96, only direct Defense Department Nunn-Lugar tasks will be funded and administered by DoD. The State Department is seeking \$25 million for the Nonproliferation and Disarmament Fund and is planning to spend a large portion on export controls in the New Independent States. (The Department of Energy will also seek a separate appropriation to cover nuclear control activities.)

Of course, there is no guarantee that Congress will appropriate the amount that State is requesting. If it does, badly neglected needs in the New Independent States can be addressed. Having export control activities coordinated through the interagency export control group should result in greater flexibility and timeliness.



MONTEREY INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
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The Most Important Room in the Sky

O C C U P I E D
O C C U P E

RECENTLY, "AIRWAYS SEMINARS" HAVE BEEN

by Brian Lusk

ABOUT AIRLINE CATERING. These descriptions of airborne gastronomy inspired some people to ask, "What goes in, must come out—so how do airliner plumbing systems work?" It is not a frivolous question because aircraft lavatories, waste systems, and potable water systems are integral components of airliner design and airline operations, besides being a matter of passenger convenience and necessity.

A drink of water or a trip to the bathroom is such a routine event during an airline journey that most passengers never give it a second thought. Consider for a moment that a large wide-body such as the Boeing 747-400 carries the population of a small town for up to 16 hours. Four hundred people must 'do what people have to do'. Not surprisingly, today's airliners have sophisticated plumbing and sewage systems to take care of these human needs. Potable water and lavatory system servicing is an important part of every flight's ground servicing—but it was not always so.

BACKGROUND INFO

The evolution of the 'blue room'

Aircraft toilets have many names: restroom, lavatory, lav, loo, water closet (or its diminutive, wc) are some of the polite ones. One of the most evocative titles, blue room, seems to have fallen out of favor after widespread use in the early days of the jetliners. Perhaps this euphemism had its origins in the ubiquitous blue-painted airliner interiors, or maybe it resulted from the blue disinfectant used. If the latter etymology is true, then early airliners like the Ford Tri-Motor had no blue rooms.

The Tri-Motor depended on gravity for waste removal. The toilet was attached to a hole on the bottom of the airplane, and it was 'bombs away'. In the days before environmental awareness and agencies like the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), this was probably the most efficacious system—'out of sight, out of mind' taken to the extreme.

As airliners became bigger and the skies filled with more flights, 'bombing' en route communities became unacceptable. Early propliners like the Douglas DC-3 had chemical toilets that lacked

flushing systems and were basically airborne versions of the 'porta-potties' seen at construction sites.

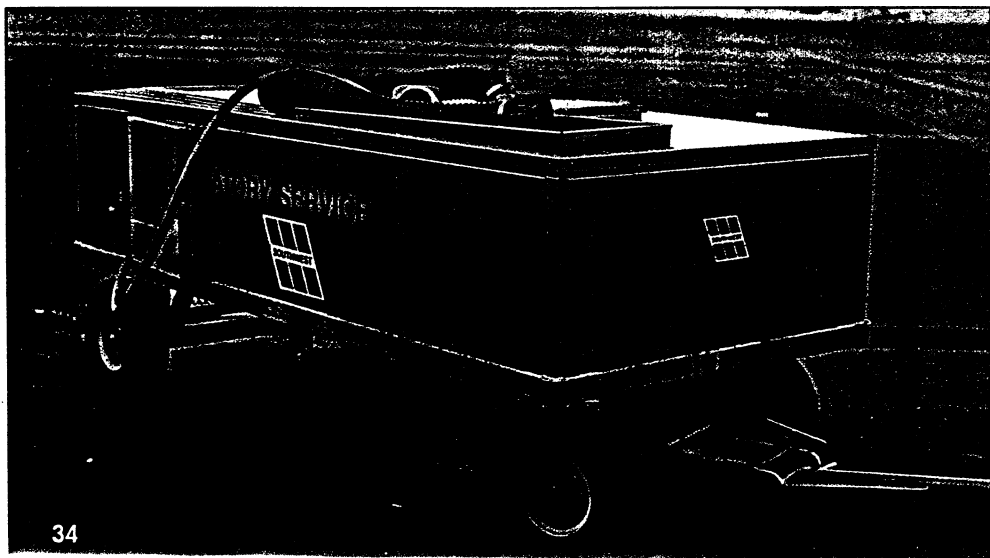
Complex engineering was required to solve such problems as freezing waste pipes at high altitudes and the effects of turbulence on water tanks, but by the time the first-generation of jetliners—the Boeing 707, the Douglas DC-8, and the Sud Caravelle, for example—appeared, the modern recirculating aircraft toilet had become standard equipment. One of the largest suppliers of recirculating toilets is the Kaiser Corporation. A flushing toilet is a closed system with a holding tank and electrical pumps that recirculate the liquid when the flush handle or button is activated. Because the system recycles water (waste and all) when flushed, proper lavatory servicing is essential to ensure the system operates correctly and to prevent unpleasant cabin ambiance.

Where does it all go?

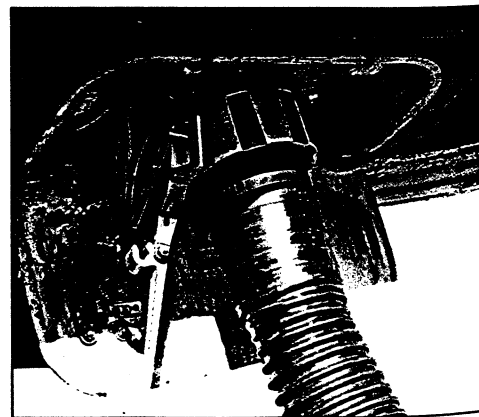
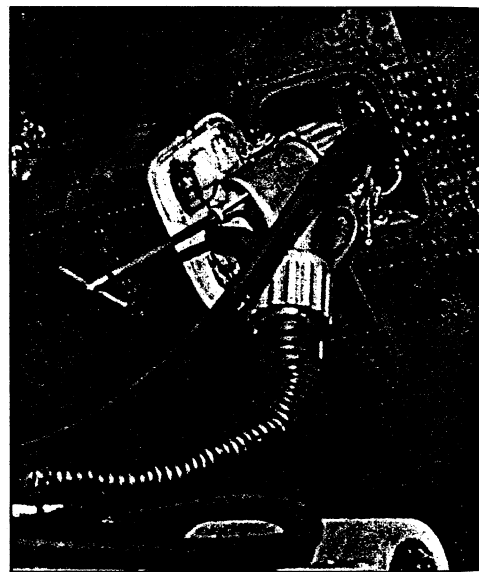
When a flight makes a stop, a ramp agent is assigned the lavatory servicing duties. Airliners have outside access panels that usually coincide with the lavatory's location—for example, forward and aft and, on some airliners, midplane. A lavatory servicing truck or cart (the 'honey wagon') is parked under the access panel. The lav service vehicle consists of a holding tank that contains waste, and a fill tank that, depending on size, contains up to 150USg (570l) of water, treated with a blue solution that controls odor and treats bacteria with enzymes. At one time, this 'blue juice' additive came in concentrated liquid form that was added to plain water inside the carts. Today, two companies, Celeste and Intex, supply powdered crystals in premeasured packages, and these are added to the lav cart's fill water.

The agent attaches a dump hose to an approximately 5in (13cm)-diameter drain port. Pulling a handle opens the lavatory's tank, and all the liquid in the system is emptied into the cart. After the system is drained, a fill hose is fitted to the aircraft, and the system is rinsed and dumped again to ensure the tank is free of waste and odor. Once the system is flushed, new fill liquid is added. Most Boeing aircraft require about 5USg (19l) per toilet; other types require more. A toilet will not flush unless filled with water, so its operation is checked before the lav agent leaves the aircraft.

Lav servicing is a labor-intensive process; it takes time to properly service an aircraft. For that reason, at larger stations, employees are assigned the duty for an entire shift. On almost every narrow-body aircraft and the first 747s, each toilet has its own holding tank, which must be dumped and refilled individually. Consider the fact that a 'classic' 747 may have up to 15 lavatories—eight in the rear, four mid-cabin, and two forward, plus one on the upper deck—requiring individual attention. The rear lavatory service panel on a 747-100 sits up high, underneath the tail of the aircraft, and as a result, the lavatory truck must have a hydraulic lifting device to reach the panel. In addition, there are two more service panels—one under the wing at center cabin and another forward. The next generation of wide-bodies, the Lockheed L-1011 and the McDonnell Douglas DC-10, simplified the task with one holding tank forward and another aft. (TriStars and DC-10s with business-class usually have another lavatory and holding tank located mid-ship.)



*Rookie lav agents
soon learn to
double-check the
hose fittings or risk
an unwelcome
shower.*



Servicing the rear lavs on a Boeing 727 (top). The big hose is the drain, and the small one is the fill hose.

A close-up of the plumbing of the dump hose on a 737 shows why simple tasks can be labor-intensive.

After the aircraft has been serviced, the lav agent's duties have just begun—as the truck itself must be serviced. All of that 'product' must go somewhere, and somewhere is the triturator. In warmer climates, the triturator can be located outside, while at colder airports it is enclosed to keep the plumbing from freezing. The lav truck or cart is parked over the triturator opening, and then a release valve is opened under the truck. The triturator grinds the waste and treats it with chemicals before it enters the sewer system. For the lav agent, this is the only time he/she will see the actually see any waste material—thankfully!

Actually, other than trips to the triturator, servicing lavs is not a bad job, unless the drain hose becomes separated from the aircraft. Rookie lav agents soon learn to double-check the hose fittings or risk an unwelcome shower. It is also discouraging to discover that someone has ignored those notices about putting paper towels, used diapers, and other objects in the toilet. (Wine and perfume bottles are not uncommon, and once a drain was plugged by a dozen oyster shells wrapped in a hand towel.) At best, the end result is a clogged toilet, which has to be unstopped. At worst, the pump motor can burn out, or the lavatory lines inside the aircraft become blocked. In either case, the attention of a mechanic will be required.

Attack from the sky

Proper servicing is not just a question of convenience and pleasant cabin odors, it is a vital matter of safety. If the system is not sealed correctly, blue lavatory ice can form into surprisingly large chunks around the service panels when the aircraft is at altitude. These large chunks can break away from the fuselage and, if ingested, can disable an engine.

Innocent bystanders on the ground have been subject to blue ice 'peril'. To date, no one has been injured by falling blue ice, but there have been some close calls. A couple of years ago, a chunk penetrated three layers of a house in Washington state, reportedly missing the elderly female occupant by inches. Her surprise turned to anger when she was told the frozen 'treat' in her basement did not originate on an alien spaceship.

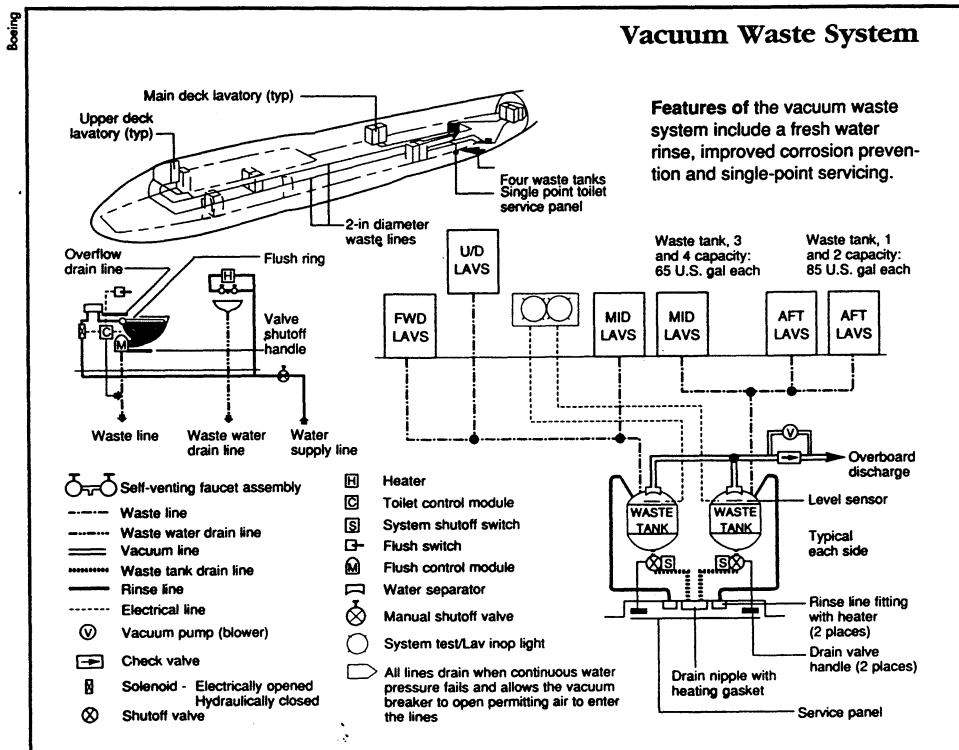
In fact, the blue ice problem became so pervasive that in 1996, the FAA issued an Airworthiness Directive containing new guidelines and restrictions on lavatory servicing, with special attention being given to aircraft that showed signs of blue 'streaking' around the service panels. Boeing even prepared a videotape on blue ice for customer airlines.

Water from hand basins (and galleys) is allowed to dribble out in flight from heated drain holes under the fuselage, to be instantly converted to an icy spray which becomes mist at lower altitudes.

Modernization

Waste systems took a giant leap forward with the introduction of vacuum lavatories on the Boeing 767. Vacuum systems require only one holding tank and one service panel for an entire aircraft, and their plumbing is of a smaller diameter, allowing greater flexibility on where the lavs can be sited in the cabin. When the toilet is flushed, vacuum blowers create suction that swiftly transports all the waste to the holding tank in the rear of the aircraft. Unlike recirculating toilets, vacuum systems use flush water from the potable water system, and nothing is recirculated. Once the waste leaves the toilet, it is gone from the cabin forever, and this greatly helps reduce odors. Ground servicing times are reduced because of the single service panel. The lav service agent must only open the dump valve and add a small amount of 'blue juice' to the holding tank to rinse the system.

Vacuum toilet systems are so effective that Boeing made them standard on the Next-Generation family of 737s. Airbus is also widely using the vacuum toilets in its new airliners. According to the European manufacturer, vacuum toilets, because of simplified piping, allow greater flexibility in the placement of lavatories within the passenger cabin.



This diagram of a vacuum waste system of a Boeing 747-400 shows the considerable amount of engineering involved.



Brian Luk

The forward lav on a Southwest Boeing 737-300. The shroud around the toilet protects the mechanism.

The blue room itself

While plumbing systems below deck are standard, the passenger cabin features are customized to the requirements of each airline. The customer can, up to a certain extent, vary the location of the lavatories, and airlines purchase the room inserts, in much the same way they chose seats and other furnishings.

Kathy Pettit, Southwest's director customers, was a member of Boeing's interior design group on the 737-300, -500, and -700. She explains what design features an airline looks for from lavatory vendors. "We ask our vendor to consider ergonomics, noise, and sanitation. Ergonomics—meaning we don't want people to have to be contortionists in such small confines. Flush handles, paper dispensers, sink spigots, mirrors, lighting—all have ease-of-use/reach considerations."

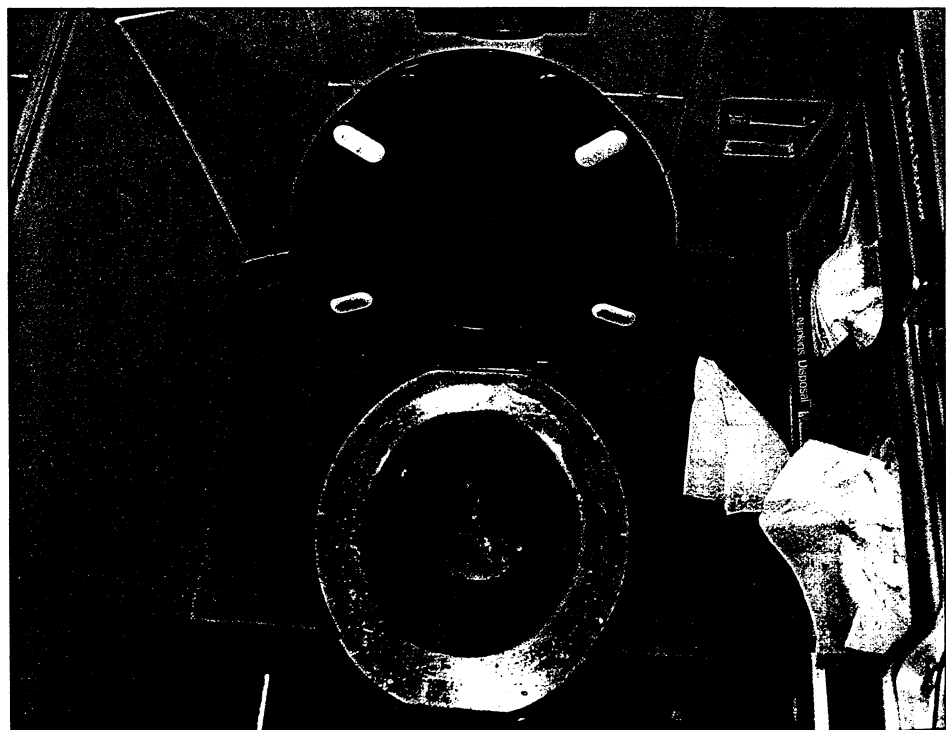
Ironically, the most expensive toilet to use in the sky, on Concorde, has the worst ergonomic layout. Concorde crews joke that a male passenger has to decide ahead of time what he plans to do before entering the lavatory because, once inside, there is not enough room to turn around.

On aircraft with more than one aisle in the cabin (wide-bodies), the federal Air Carrier Access Act (ACAA) requires that at least one lavatory be equipped for disabled passengers. This lavatory must be accessible by a customer using the onboard wheelchair, with enough room to enter, leave, and move about the room. Also, all controls, locks, and dispensers must be usable by a passenger in a wheelchair. Transport Canada has similar regulations for Canadian airlines.

Pettit adds some additional design requirements, "The need for noise insulation is obvious, especially in the -700 where vacuum lavs are used. They are substantially noisier than the older systems and, in the forward lav, there was a noise-distraction factor for the cockpit, which requires an extra layer of sound insulation between the forward lav and cockpit."

As far as sanitation, she explains that Southwest looks for as few joints, cracks, and crevices as possible in a design, and this is the reason why all aircraft lavatories have a shroud around the toilet. Encasing the toilet is not done for aesthetics; it serves to protect key operating components from waste and odor. Ease of maintenance and cleaning

*The need for
noise insulation
is obvious.*



John Wegg

"The most expensive toilet to use in the sky, on Concorde, has the worst ergonomic layout."

John Wieg



New wide-body airliners are being delivered with handicapped-access toilets, such as this example on a Canada 3000 Airbus A330-200.

are also very important.

As you may guess, all this engineering is not cheap. A standard 737 lavatory module unit currently retails for \$79,500, a sum that can still buy a small house in some locations of the US.

Water you can drink!

Clean water for drinking, washing, and preparing other beverages is provided by the aircraft's potable water system, which is pressurized to deliver the water throughout the aircraft. A 737 holds a little more than 21USg (80l) of water, and the larger the aircraft, the larger the water supply: for example, the 747-400 carries 318USg (1,200l). Water is brought to the aircraft either in trucks, or through hoses at each gate.

Water servicing in the US comes under the jurisdiction of yet another 'alphabet' federal agency, the FDA (Food and Drug Administration). The FDA requires that water hoses never come into contact with the ground, and that water trucks/carts be sanitized on a monthly basis with the chemical purogene. In addition, water carts are checked weekly for sediment in the tank. As a further health precaution, lavatory agents cannot service potable water during the same day.

Service panel locations vary by aircraft type, and can even vary from airline to airline operating the same aircraft. For example, former Western 737-200s are serviced aft of the rear cabin door, while Delta -200s are serviced just in front on the wing on the aircraft's left side. To add potable water, a valve is turned to depressurize the system. The hose from the water truck or water stand is attached to the fill valve, and water is pumped in until it starts spurting out of the overflow valve. After servicing, it can take approximately 15 minutes for the system to re-pressurize. Most aircraft are easy to service. However, the 757 water panel is on the side of the fuselage, just forward of the right front service door, and it requires a ladder to reach the panel.

Some true (and some legendary) blue room tales

Of course, aircraft lavatories are infamous because they are the only spots on aircraft that provide privacy. However, *that* subject is outside the scope of this article. Even though they do offer seclusion, the lock on the lavatory door must be the most complicated piece of equipment on a multi-million dollar airliner. With a simple flick of the wrist, the door locks, the lights turn on, and the 'occupied/occupado' label advertises that the room is engaged (or *vice versa* if you are flying British Airways). Nevertheless, each year there is no telling how many startled passengers are surprised while 'taking care of business'.

Before joining Southwest, Pettit was a Braniff International flight attendant, and she has her own horror story of the unlatched bathroom door. Kathy was working the first-class cabin of a San Antonio–New York flight when a 'little ol' man' came shuffling down the aisle heading for the lav. After a little while, he came out of the room and told her that it was dark in there. She then showed him that the occupied switch turned on the lights. "He seemed to understand, but I guess he was hard of hearing," Pettit says. "He entered the lav, but the latch never moved to show 'occupied'." Distracted by the meal service, she forgot the man, until a well-dressed businessman in his stocking feet headed down the aisle toward the lavatory during the dessert course. "Then it dawned on me," she recalls, "The little old man was still in there. I abandoned the cart and went forward, but the sprightly businessman was way ahead of me. He reached for the door handle, pulled it open. Our little old man was evidently startled at the flood of light into the lav and turned around...." The businessman's socks were soaked.

Aircraft toilets act like a magnet for personal items and jewelry. Every airline has a variation on this legend. A passenger loses his/her false teeth in the toilet. An employee has the unpleasant task of rescuing them upon arrival at the destination. The legend always has the elated but unthinking customer placing the teeth back in their mouth, immediately after being retrieved from the muck.

Kathy Pettit witnessed a Braniff mechanic retrieve a two-carat diamond engagement ring from the toilet. She relates that, "The lady snatched the jewel from the mechanic and said, 'Good! I've been planning for a week how I was going to return it to the jerk. Now, I think I will cram it down his throat!'"

And, of course, there are those passengers who just cannot seem to make it to the toilet in time. On a flight from Paris to Boston, an impatient passenger used the aft coat closet instead of the lavatory—and failed to pull the curtain.

You do what for a living?

Nobody who services lavatories or potable water systems goes home after the work day is through and brags to their spouse, "Honey, I had a great day dumping lavs." However, this sometimes unpleasant duty is just as much a part of commercial aviation as selling tickets, filing flight plans, or loading luggage. Using the restroom is a routine part of any airline flight, and that is fortunate. It *should* be taken for granted, and if it is not, then someone did the job incorrectly.

Commercial aviation has come along way from the crude 'hole in the floor' on the Ford Tri-Motor, so the next time 'nature calls' at 35,000 feet, take a moment to reflect that being able to enjoy this amenity of home is not quite as simple as it seems. †

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MONTEREY INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION

PROFESSIONAL CONSECUTIVE GENERAL EXAMINATION – SPRING 1999
French to English - Version 1

L'ÉVÉNEMENT

L'euro débarque dans les cartes à puce

Le porte-monnaie électronique en euros arrive. Il permettra de faire tous ses achats et même davantage. Vu l'enjeu, les banques se positionnent déjà sur ce marché d'avenir.

Pour payer la baguette de pain en euros sonnants et trébuchants, il faudra attendre le 1^{er} janvier 2002, date de l'introduction des pièces et billets. Ou bien, à partir du 1^{er} janvier 1999, signer quotidiennement un chèque de 0,64 euro (1), au risque de se fâcher avec le banquier et le boulanger...

Pour éviter une telle issue, l'idéal serait une carte à puce créditée d'une réserve limitée, mais rechargeable. Cette carte serait destinée aux petites dépenses de la vie courante et débitée au choix en francs ou en euros à chaque passage chez le boulanger ou le buraliste. En fait, il faudrait un porte-monnaie électronique qui existe déjà, puisque nos voisins européens le testent depuis quelques années. Le porte-monnaie électronique (PME) reprend le principe de la carte bancaire française : rectangle de plastique muni d'une puce, terminaux de paiement et automates de chargement.

Les réseaux monétiques se battent pour imposer leur standard dans le monde

Dans le monde du PME, le premier de la classe se prénomme Proton. Il est édité à 30 millions d'exemplaires sous l'égide de l'opérateur interbancaire belge Banksys. Accepté comme moyen de paiement



dans quinze pays, il bénéficie d'un réseau national en Belgique, en Suisse, en Suède, aux Pays-Bas et en Australie. Pour présider aux destinées de ce PME, Banksys s'est uni, le 26 juillet dernier, à de grands réseaux internationaux - American Express et Visa International entre autres - au sein du consortium Proton World International (PWI). Cette alliance a pour objectif de développer un système compatible « au niveau européen d'abord et donc en euros, puis au niveau mondial ».

La concurrence ne manque pas. Minipay en Italie, Danmont au Danemark, Mondex en Grande-Bretagne, Geldkarte en Allemagne... L'Europe joue un rôle moteur. On y recense plus d'une vingtaine de porte-monnaie en fonctionnement. Une profusion qui donne d'ailleurs lieu à des jeux d'alliances multiples entre les industriels et le monde de la banque. Car, à l'instar de Proton, chacun table sur la mon-

naie unique pour imposer son propre porte-monnaie à l'Europe, et pourquoi pas à la planète entière.

La France n'est pas la mieux placée sur ce terrain prometteur. « L'Hexagone a accumulé beaucoup de retard sur le porte-monnaie électronique pour avoir pris "trop d'avance" sur la carte bancaire à puce », remarque-t-on à la division carte à puce de Bull, le concepteur de Proton. La Poste avait bien mis au point un porte-monnaie électronique dès 1993 mais, à l'époque, les banques françaises achevaient tout juste d'équiper les particuliers en cartes de débit-crédit à puce. Un programme unique au monde, puisque la planète entière fonctionnait alors (c'est le cas aujourd'hui encore) avec de « simples » cartes magnétiques. Et, surtout,

un programme coûteux. Les banques ont donc poliment demandé à La Poste d'abandonner son projet.

Ce retard peut devenir préoccupant : en diffusant leurs PME, nos voisins européens préparent le passage à la carte bancaire du futur, qui devrait cumuler les fonctions porte-monnaie, crédit, débit et retrait. Pour ne pas rater le train de l'histoire, le Groupement des cartes bancaires

« L'Hexagone a du retard sur le PME pour avoir pris "trop d'avance" avec les cartes à puce. »

(qui regroupe les banques APB, les mutualistes, les caisses d'épargne et La Poste) a donc sonné le clairon mi-1997 et accouché d'un cahier des charges à l'intention des banques françaises souhaitant lancer un PME. Depuis, trois projets ont vu le jour (lire l'encadré page suivante). Tous ont en commun de laisser au consommateur la possibilité de *Suite page 50*

(1) Sur base théorique du prix de la baguette à 2,20 francs et du cours de l'euro à 660 francs.

L'euro débarque dans les cartes à puce (suite de la page 49)

••• régler ses achats en francs ou en euros.

Car, pour les banques, les avantages du porte-monnaie électronique apparaissent considérables. Moins d'espèces à gérer, moins de chèques émis : la monnaie électronique est synonyme d'économies substantielles. Elles feront donc tout pour imposer leur PME.

Et dans cette optique, mieux vaut s'unir pour multiplier les expériences à moindre coût et converger vers un standard commun. Même logique du côté des industriels européens. Plusieurs d'entre eux (Bull, Schlumberger,

Gemplus, Orga...) se sont associés au sein d'Eurosmart pour défendre les intérêts de la carte à puce dans le monde.

Pain béni pour les industriels et les banques, le PME doit faire ses preuves auprès des utilisateurs. Pour le moment, « les expériences menées en Europe montrent un taux de pénétra-

tion au mieux à peine significatif et souvent marginal », observe un expert. « Ce qui est fondamental, c'est la sécurité. Si vous avez des billets dans la poche, il est important d'être sûr qu'on ne pourra pas les copier. C'est la même chose avec le porte-monnaie électronique », souligne David Lévy, directeur général de la division

Smart Cards and Terminals chez Bull. Pour sa part, la Commission européenne vient de proposer un cadre réglementaire pour soumettre les émetteurs européens de monnaie électronique aux mêmes règles pruden-

tielles que les banques. Un document publié en août par la Banque centrale européenne (2) préconise d'ailleurs d'imposer la constitution de réserves obligatoires pour les émetteurs autres que les établissements de crédit. Pour le reste, Bruxelles encourage l'idée du PME. La Commission y voit

Bruxelles encourage l'idée du PME. Elle y voit un outil d'apprentissage de l'euro.



Proton, conçu par Bull, a déjà été édité à 30 millions d'exemplaires.

un outil d'apprentissage de l'euro pour les consommateurs, et un support de développement du commerce électronique en Europe.

Intégré aux cartes bleues, le PME servira à payer sur Internet ou à téléphoner

Si le porte-monnaie électronique sert l'euro, l'inverse vaut également. « L'euro est une chance. Tous les tests menés montrent que la satisfaction est importante. L'attente des utili-

sateurs existe, assure Olivier Piou, directeur général de l'activité cartes chez Schlumberger. Mais la question centrale demeure : quel mécanisme commercial permettra de la faire accepter par les commerçants et comment les banques se rétribueront-elles ? » Car, à terme, le PME devrait être un et un seul des éléments réunis sur la même carte bancaire. Une carte dont la cotisation serait donc logiquement supérieure aux tarifs pratiqués actuellement. A cette supercotisation s'ajoutera probablement une commission pour les transactions électroniques, commission à répartir entre l'utilisateur et le commerçant.

Pour faire passer la pilule, les banques souligneront la sécurité et le caractère multiapplication du produit. Ainsi, loin de se limiter aux fonctions classiques, la carte bancaire de demain pourrait permettre de payer sur Internet, de téléphoner, de réserver des places de cinéma et de cumuler des points de fidélité. Dès lors, plus besoin de portefeuille pour contenir la carte, puisque la carte contiendra le portefeuille. ■ **WALTER BOUVAIS**

Les trois projets français de porte-monnaie électroniques

► **Le plus avancé, Modeus, associe La Poste, les caisses d'épargne et la Société générale (puis, bientôt, les Banques populaires et France Télécom) à la SNCF et à la RATP autour d'une carte mixte comportant un porte-monnaie électronique et un titre de transport. Modeus va être proposé en novembre à la clientèle de Noisy-le-Grand (Seine-Saint-Denis), puis généralisé à l'Île-de-France fin 1999. Avantage de la formule :**



Cette carte RATP débite automatiquement le prix du billet.

la clientèle des transports en commun est captive, donc fidèle. L'aspect transports publics vaut d'ailleurs à Modeus d'être membre du programme européen Calypso pour lequel la Commission européenne a dégagé une enveloppe de 5,1 millions d'euros.

► **Tours sera le théâtre, au printemps prochain, du second projet français. Une expérience conduite par la BNP et le Crédit agricole, avec le Crédit mutuel, le CCF, les Banques populaires et le Crédit lyonnais. Ces partenaires ont conclu un accord avec ZKA, l'opérateur interbancaire allemand. Leur PME sera donc utilisable en France et en Allemagne. Autre originalité : intégré à la carte bancaire, il peut être rechargé**

directement, au moment du paiement, sur le terminal du commerçant, ce qui permettrait de se passer d'investissements coûteux dans des automates.

► **Le troisième projet émane du Crédit mutuel. Non content de prendre part à l'expérience tourangelle, celui-ci lancera prochainement son propre porte-monnaie. Il vient en effet d'acquiescer la licence du système Multos, qui sert notamment de base au PME britannique Mondex. La banque mutualiste en détient l'exclusivité, mais se dit ouverte à toute coopération. « Ce n'est un secret pour personne, toutes les banques se positionneront sur au moins deux des trois projets français », assure-t-on au Crédit mutuel.**

(1) Sur la base théorique du prix de la baguette à 4,20 francs et du cours de 1 euro à 6,60 francs.

(2) Report on Electronic Money, European Central Bank.

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PROFESSIONAL TECHNICAL CONSECUTIVE EXAMINATION - SPRING 1999
French to English - Version 2

SCIENCES DE LA TERRE

el niño

Rappelons-nous l'hiver 1982-1983 et les cataclysmes en série qui l'avaient accompagné. Au Pérou et en Équateur, des régions côtières habituellement désertiques avaient connu des inondations sans pareilles. Au large de ces côtes, les eaux d'ordinaire très peuplées de poissons et d'oiseaux avaient été désertées... De l'autre côté du Pacifique, les archipels indonésiens et philippins n'avaient pas subi leurs coutumières trombes d'eau tropicales. Ces dernières avaient en revanche littéralement lessivé certains atolls du centre-Pacifique. Manquant d'eau, le bush australien, lui, avait été ravagé par le feu. Au nord-est, la Californie avait vu se succéder tempêtes et lames de fond, tandis que le Midwest n'avait jamais connu hiver si rude, et que, bien plus loin, l'Afrique du Sud avait été frappée de sécheresse.

Toutes ces calamités avaient une cause unique : une très puissante anomalie climatique connue sous le nom d'El Niño. Située dans les eaux équatoriales de l'océan Pacifique, El Niño se caractérise par une élévation anormale de leur température. Pour les climatologues et océanographes, ce phénomène n'était pas une découverte. Il se reproduisait tous les deux à sept ans et était capable d'affecter le climat terrestre durant un peu plus d'une année. Cet hiver-là, cependant, les effets en avaient été si spectaculaires qu'on avait commencé à s'interroger sur la possibilité de le prévoir à quelques mois. Une idée plausible, car la signature d'El Niño était relativement stable.

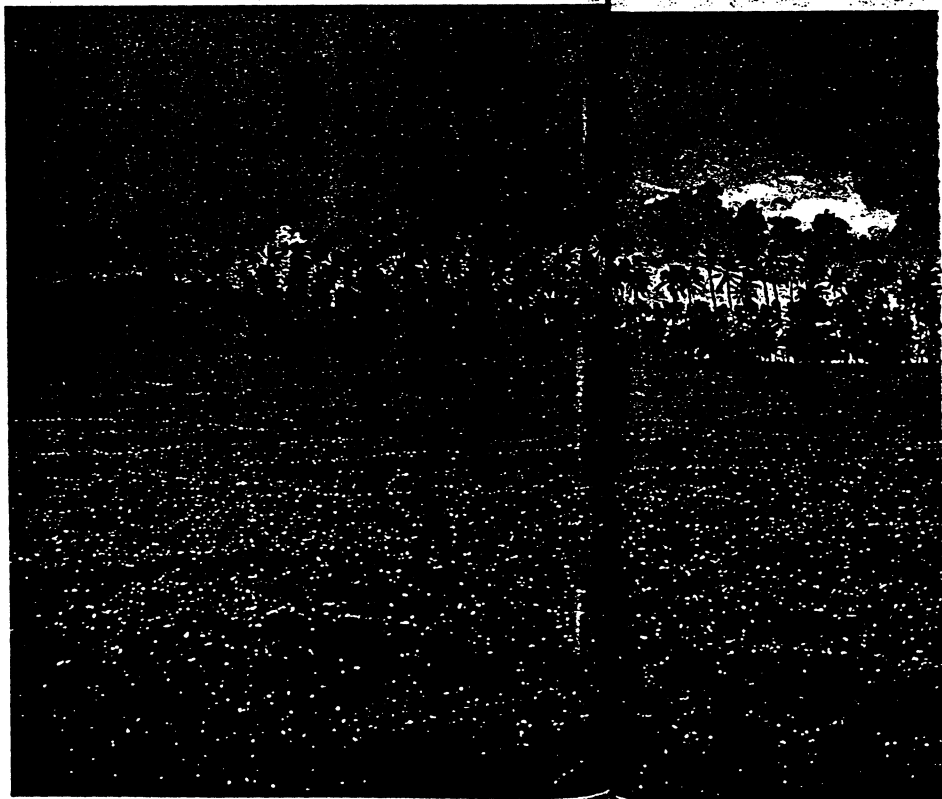
Un programme international d'étude fut donc mis sur pied en 1985, dont le volet observations était centré sur l'océan Pacifique. Un réseau complexe de bateaux et de bouées commença d'y être déployé. Sa fonction était de surveiller l'évolution de la température et des courants dans les couches de surface de l'océan. Comme il n'avait pas été possible d'identifier clairement les signes précurseurs de l'événement climatique lui-même, pour avoir une chance de l'observer en totalité, le réseau d'observations allait devoir être maintenu pour dix ans au moins.

Parallèlement à la mise en place de ce dispositif expérimental, on apporta un effort important à la théorie et à la simulation numérique. Dans ce domaine, un grand chemin a été accompli. Il suffit de rappeler qu'en 1984, le calcul par ordinateur n'était utilisé que pour tester le comportement de systèmes d'équations. On était donc très



Les calamités d'un courant Pacifique

Inondations, sécheresse, tempêtes, ces calamités ont une seule et même cause : El Niño. Caractérisé par une forte élévation de température, celui-ci prend périodiquement naissance dans les eaux équatoriales du Pacifique. Dès lors, les conditions climatiques se dégradent. Des régions côtières habituellement sèches du Pacifique Est connaissent des inondations (au Pérou, ci-dessus), alors que la sécheresse s'abat sur l'Ouest (ci-contre, une région d'Australie en proie aux flammes).

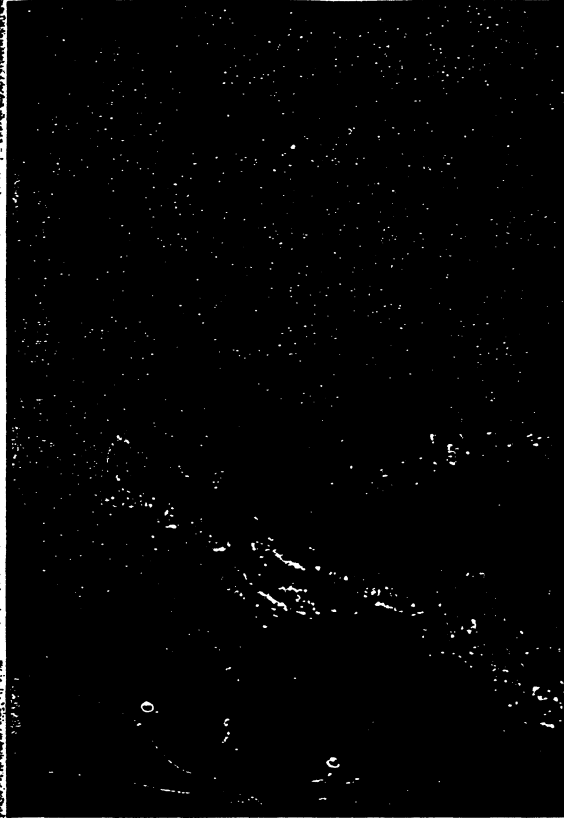




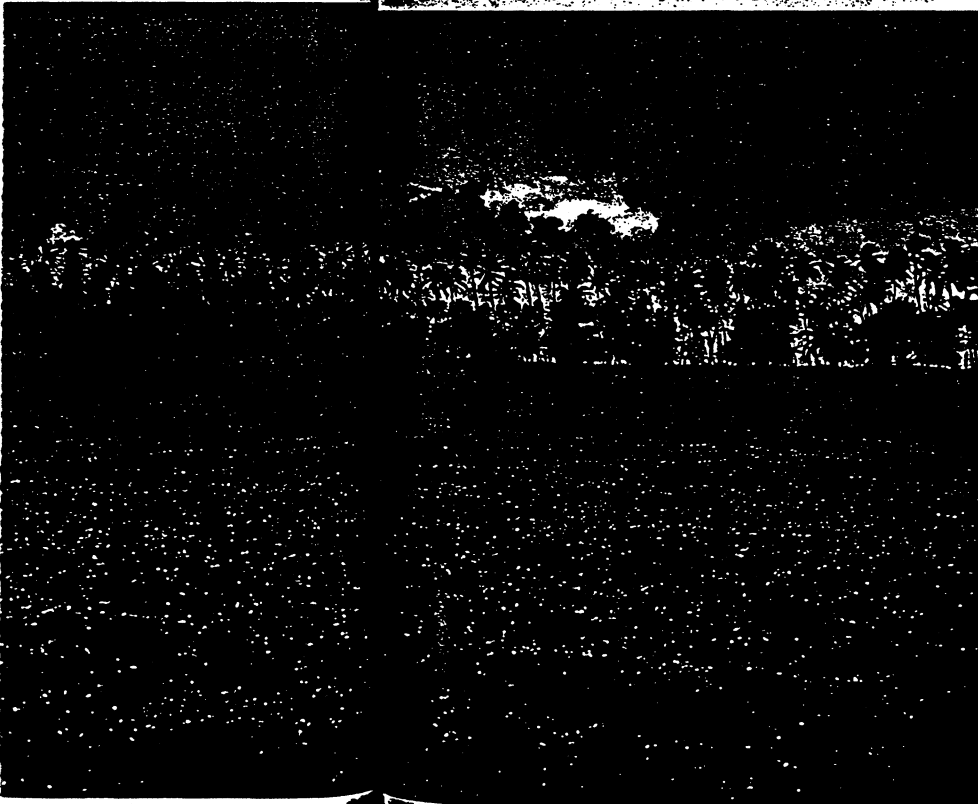
A. GYSEBERG - COSMOS

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J. JONES - STOMA



A. FOT - SEA AND SEE

loin de l'actuel projet : faire de l'océanographie opérationnelle en utilisant la complémentarité entre les modèles et les observations. Sur cette lancée, il devenait possible d'étudier les mouvements océaniques en même temps que ceux de l'atmosphère.

QUAND S'EFFONDRENT LES ALIZÉS

Dès que les chercheurs admirèrent qu'il était nécessaire de prendre en compte simultanément l'océan et l'atmosphère, leur compréhension d'El Niño progressa très rapidement. Mais il fallait aussi agrandir le domaine étudié depuis un simple réchauffement de la zone côtière péruvienne, à l'ensemble du Pacifique tropical. Ce changement d'échelle fit apparaître que le phénomène était lié à l'effondrement des alizés sur l'ensemble de l'océan. Il ne constituait toutefois qu'une partie de la réponse de l'atmosphère à des anomalies de surface des océans.

Le système d'anomalies atmosphériques liées à El Niño est caractérisé par une augmentation de pression en Indonésie, une diminution de celle-ci dans le sud-est de l'océan Pacifique, une migration des régions de convergence atmosphérique vers une région centrale unique, avec toutes les conséquences qui en découlent au niveau des sécheresses et des précipitations. Ces anomalies sont connues depuis le début du siècle sous le nom d'Oscillation australe (dessin p. 89).

Les études par simulation numérique montrèrent que l'imposition de conditions d'anomalies atmosphériques à la surface de l'océan permettait de reproduire toute la série des perturbations océaniques observées pendant un El Niño.

De même, la prescription des variations de la température de surface de l'océan dans un modèle de circulation générale atmosphérique permettait de suivre tout l'événement atmosphérique. Il fallait donc comprendre l'évolution des échanges à l'interface entre mer et air et travailler sur les mécanismes de couplage. // sfo

On montra vite que le couplage océan-atmosphère générait de l'instabilité. Une anomalie chaude de température de l'océan, par exemple, entraîne un réchauffement de l'atmosphère par dégagement de chaleur latente. Il en résulte une anomalie de convection : l'air chauffé accentue l'ascendance atmosphérique au-dessus des régions chaudes de l'océan alors que son affaissement est renforcé à l'est et à l'ouest. Les vents de surface présents normalement dans la zone de l'anomalie convergent vers elle. Ils entraînent dans leur sillage les eaux chaudes des couches de

SCIENCES DE LA TERRE

el niño

surface océaniques qui intensifient l'anomalie initiale (1).

De nombreux modèles simples (2) ont exploré les différents aspects de ce couplage. Ils ont amené les chercheurs vers des niveaux supérieurs de raisonnement qui permettent d'affiner la description du phénomène au prix d'un accroissement important de sa complexité. On a ainsi introduit un déphasage du couplage dû à des effets de déplacements zonaux des masses d'air ou d'eau (mouvements horizontaux ou

d'advection). De la même façon, on a raisonné sur le couplage lui-même : la complexité de la relation entre le signal atmosphérique de surface (l'anomalie de température par exemple) et la structure des couches superficielles de l'océan joue un rôle non négligeable. Il reste qu'un grand nombre de configurations théoriques entraînent une amplification du processus.

La difficulté rencontrée par les théoriciens n'est pas l'instabilité elle-même, mais sa genèse et son amortissement. Pour décrire ces étapes, il faut s'appuyer sur des mécanismes maritimes on-

Les enfants terribles d'El Niño

Ce phénomène climatique dérègle les vents et les courants dans tout le Pacifique. Localement, il favorise la formation de cyclones.

dulatoires. Ils expliquent également la propagation de l'anomalie océanique loin de sa phase d'amortissement ou aux conditions normales.

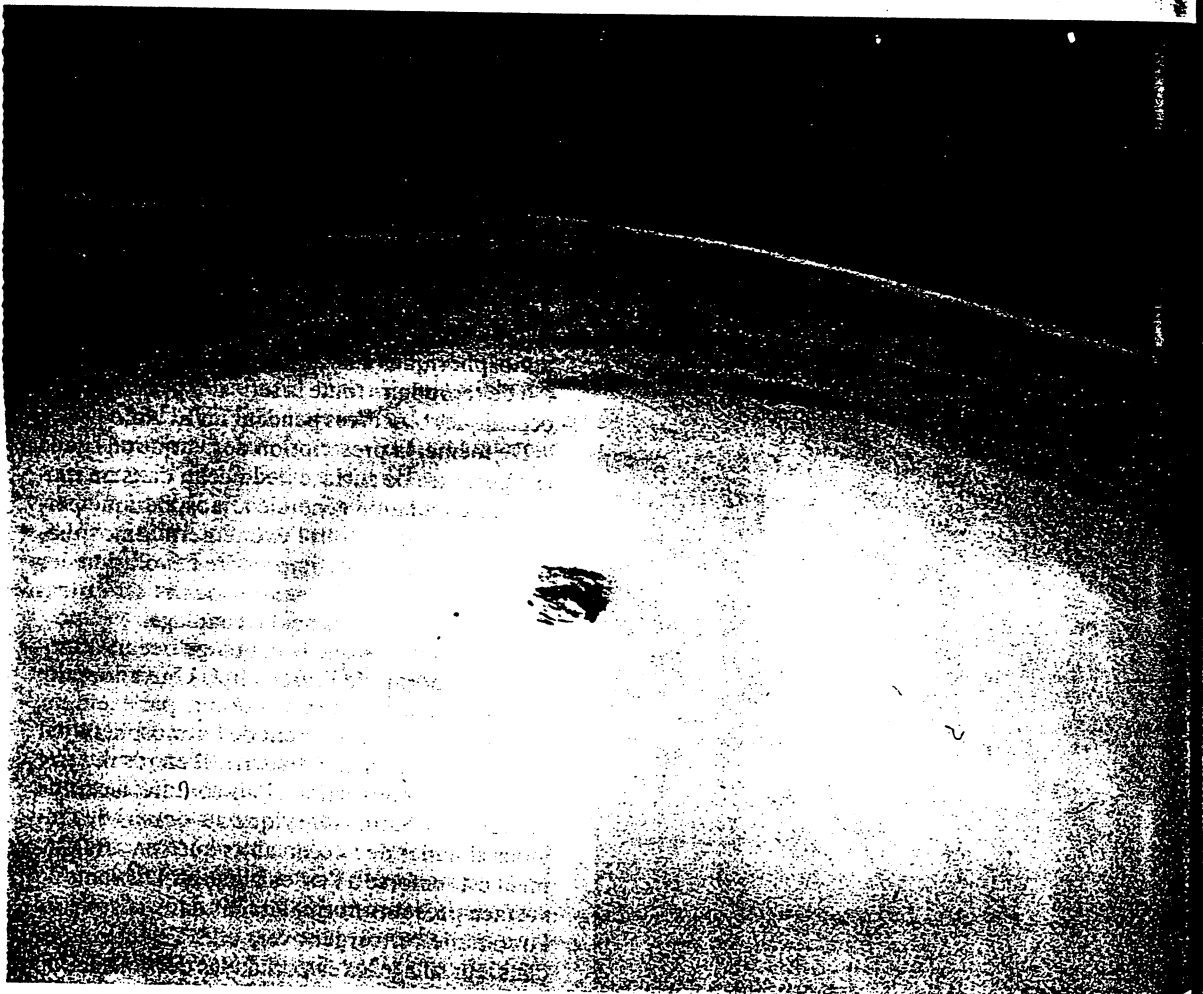
Les ondes océaniques écumées et transportent l'énergie de l'anomalie, de part et d'autre, en quelques semaines (de 10 à 20 jours). Le « signal » est surtout marqué par la « thermocline » (4) océanique. La propagation des ondes de Kelvin, qui se déplacent vers l'est (avec un maximum de 5°S), et des ondes de Rossby qui se déplacent vers l'ouest (avec un maximum de 5°N).

Lorsque l'une de ces ondes atteint la côte, elle s'y réfléchit et entraîne certaines propriétés. Ainsi, u-

NASA - SP - COSMOS

1 - En convergeant, les vents ramènent l'air chaud et humide de la surface vers l'anomalie.

2 - Les premières études se placent dans le contexte suivant : seule l'évolution des perturbations par rapport à l'état moyen du système est décrite. L'état moyen lui-même est spécifié par des analyses climatologiques.



3 - Pour simplifier, en temps normal, le vent d'ouest peut affaiblir ou annuler la différence de niveau entre l'est et l'ouest, entraînant ainsi une onde de remise à niveau. En conséquence, il y a à la fois un signal de pression et un downwelling (enfoncement des eaux). Une onde de Kelvin entraîne ainsi un courant vers l'est.

4 - Située vers cent mètres de profondeur, la région où la température se refroidit est pratiquement homogène et descend à 10-12°C au dessous.

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les frappes et détruit de nombreux objectifs d'importance stratégique. Dans les prochains jours, la destruction des forces de répression ainsi que des centres névralgiques qui les soutiennent, sera poursuivie. Les engagements hélicoptères de notre allié américain, qui devraient survenir prochainement, s'inscrivent dans une logique d'intensification et de diversification de l'action militaire. Il s'agit là, sans changer le cadre général de notre action, de contrer par de nouveaux moyens, les forces militaires et paramilitaires serbes en action au Kosovo. Nous y sommes résolus.

De quoi s'agit-il en effet ?

Les autorités serbes, depuis l'arrivée au pouvoir de M. Milosevic, n'ont jamais accepté que les Kosovars soient pleinement citoyens de la République fédérale yougoslave. Elles n'ont jamais accepté le retour au statut d'autonomie qu'elles avaient elles-mêmes supprimé en 1989. Par la répression politique, par l'intimidation policière, M. Milosevic a fait des Kosovars, des citoyens de seconde zone dans leur propre pays et, par là même, poussé à un mouvement continu des Kosovars vers l'extérieur.

Face à cette situation, les pays du groupe de contact, dont la Russie, ont constamment recherché une issue politique. Dès la fin des négociations de Rambouillet, et avant même que les négociateurs ne se retrouvent à Paris, le pouvoir serbe a remilitarisé la région. Son objectif est de vider le Kosovo de toute sa population non serbe. Ses forces militaires et paramilitaires, ses milices recourent à toutes formes de violence : déportations massives, arrestations arbitraires, exécutions sommaires, destructions systématique des villages, du cadastre et de l'état civil kosovar. Ces violations massives et volontaires des droits de l'homme, ces pratiques d'un autre âge qui nous renvoient aux pires heures de l'histoire de l'Europe justifient à elles seules que tout soit mis en oeuvre pour les arrêter. Les auteurs de ces crimes contre l'humanité doivent savoir qu'ils n'échapperont pas à la justice internationale.

Le tribunal pénal international a déjà engagé des procédures en application des résolutions du Conseil de sécurité. Cela s'inscrit dans le développement constant de la justice pénale internationale dont une nouvelle étape sera franchie dans votre

hémicycle - coïncidence historique tragique mais significative - aujourd'hui même, avec l'examen de la révision constitutionnelle nécessaire à l'établissement d'une Cour pénale internationale à compétence générale.

C'est au nom des valeurs de liberté, de démocratie et de respect des droits de l'homme - qui, depuis cinquante ans, assurent à nos peuples la stabilité -, auxquelles désormais adhèrent les autres pays de l'Europe, à l'exception du régime serbe de Monsieur Milosevic, c'est au nom de ces valeurs que nous intervenons aujourd'hui. Il faut que les forces politiques serbes, il faut que les forces démocratiques serbes, il faut que ce peuple qui, dans le passé, a revendiqué ces valeurs, prennent conscience qu'en soutenant un tel régime, ils mènent leur pays à l'impasse.

J'en viens maintenant, mesdames et messieurs les députés, à l'immense drame humain, que représentent la déportation et l'exode des populations du Kosovo, et qui appelle une puissante réaction sur le plan humanitaire. Nous devons montrer une solidarité sans faille avec ceux qui ont fui la terreur et ont trouvé refuge dans les pays voisins. Vous le savez, la communauté internationale se mobilise et tout particulièrement la France. Aujourd'hui, des centaines de volontaires civiles et de soldats de nos forces armées acheminent et distribuent des produits de première nécessité, dans des conditions difficiles, en Albanie et en Macédoine. Ils participent également à la prise en charge sanitaire et à l'installation provisoire de ces centaines de milliers d'hommes et de femmes.

Je ne pense pas, mesdames et messieurs les députés, que nous pouvions ouvertement anticiper sur le risque de création de ce désastre humanitaire, sauf à indiquer à Monsieur Milosevic qu'il pouvait lâcher ses sbires, ses troupes, commencer des exactions, entreprendre les déportations et que nous étions là, prêts, aux pourtours, pour accueillir. Alors, à tous ces hommes et femmes, militaires ou civils, qui interviennent sur le terrain, je veux, comme vous, rendre hommage.

Le gouvernement français a mis en oeuvre, dès la semaine dernière, un premier plan d'urgence qui a notamment permis d'organiser un pont aérien entre Istres, Tirana et Skopje. Nos forces armées ont été les premières à assurer la dépose par

Gouvernement -, des réfugiés qui en feraient la demande.

En outre, nous sommes décidés à conduire une action particulière en faveur des blessés, des personnes malades et des handicapés. Nous sommes prêts également, en liaison avec les associations à favoriser les conditions d'un accueil en France, par des familles qui le souhaiteraient. Si la France ne saurait accepter la politique du fait accompli de Monsieur Milosevic, elle se tient au premier rang de l'action humanitaire sur le terrain et entend rester fidèle à sa tradition d'accueil.

Je voudrais maintenant, mesdames et messieurs les députés, évoquer les perspectives politiques et diplomatiques qui, quelles que soient les difficultés, restent présentes à notre esprit. Notre objectif n'est pas de détruire ni d'occuper ni de démembrer la Serbie. Il n'est pas de faire la guerre au peuple serbe. Tout en continuant les opérations militaires que Monsieur Milosevic nous impose, nous restons persuadés qu'une solution politique au conflit est souhaitable. Les frappes peuvent s'arrêter dès que les conditions suivantes sont remplies : fin de la répression contre les populations civiles au Kosovo ; retrait des forces militaires et paramilitaires serbes ; retour des réfugiés ; acceptation des négociations.

Arrêter unilatéralement les frappes sans que nous ayons atteint nos objectifs reviendrait à accepter les conditions de Monsieur Milosevic et sacrifier le sort des Kosovars. Mais la poursuite des frappes, inévitable aujourd'hui, ne doit pas nous interdire la recherche de solutions politiques et diplomatiques. Je sais que c'est une conviction que partage le Président de la République.

A cette fin, il est essentiel que tous ceux qui croient, comme nous, à la primauté du droit et aux valeurs démocratiques, puissent être associés à la recherche de la paix pour le Kosovo. C'est pourquoi, au-delà des importantes rencontres qui doivent préparer le moment, que j'espère proche, où les alliés et la Russie -partenaire, la Russie, déterminant à mes yeux - retravailleront ensemble à une solution politique, je suis convaincu que l'organisation des Nations unies devra jouer son rôle.

Au moment où a été décidée la participation de la France aux opérations militaires, nous nous sommes référés aux

résolutions et aux exigences du Conseil de sécurité. C'est aux Nations unies et au Conseil de sécurité, avec l'appui des organisations régionales, que devrait revenir la responsabilité première de la mise en oeuvre des solutions qui auront été définies. L'Onu devrait à mon sens coordonner les opérations de soutien aux réfugiés, puis assurer le retour de ceux-ci une fois la paix revenue. Elle devrait aussi garantir leur sécurité dans un Kosovo autonome, et conférer sa légitimité à la force multinationale qu'il faudra vraisemblablement déployer à cette fin. Cela sera le point ultime d'un processus qu'il faudra engager dès que possible et auquel le Gouvernement travaille dès à présent. C'est le sens de certaines propositions parlementaires, notamment du président de la Commission de la Défense nationale, que nous avons notées avec beaucoup d'intérêt et qui convergent avec nos préoccupations. Il nous faut travailler, notamment au plan diplomatique, assidûment, pour leur permettre de déboucher.

Mesdames et messieurs les députés, notre détermination ne doit pas fléchir, mais elle doit être tendue vers une paix respectueuse de la personne humaine et du droit."

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MONTEREY INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION

PROFESSIONAL SIMULTANEOUS TECHNICAL EXAMINATION - SPRING 1999
French to English – Version 1

PROFESSIONAL / SIMUL / TECH / FRENCH

3500 MOTS

Rapport parlementaire avant la révision de la loi sur la bioéthique L'embryon sous pression

**La loi de 1994 interdit toute expérimentation. Depuis, les
découvertes
comme la naissance du clone Dolly ont bouleversé la donne en
biologie.**

Par CORINNE BENSIMON

Le vendredi 19 février 1999

Tourisme scientifique

Un bébé né d'une fécondation sans spermatozoïde, mais avec une cellule sexuelle obtenue in vitro: telle est l'annonce faite, cette semaine, dans le journal britannique The Lancet (Libération du 17 février).

Elle vient illustrer, à point nommé, l'une des carences majeures dénoncées par le rapport Claeys-Huriet: «La nécessité d'un guide de bonnes pratiques (en matière de techniques innovantes de procréation), qui se fait encore attendre.» La technique décrite (injection d'une cellule précurseur du spermatozoïde obtenue par culture de tissu testiculaire) échappe en effet totalement au champ de la loi.

Certes, la manipulation et la naissance du bébé se sont passées à Istanbul. Le chercheur qui a conduit l'«expérience», Jan Tesarik, est pourtant conseiller scientifique au laboratoire d'Eylau, à Paris. Aurait-il pu réaliser son «exploit» en France? «Rien dans la loi ne

m'en empêchait, nous a-t-il déclaré. Car je n'ai pas fait d'expérimentation sur l'embryon humain mais sur des cellules sexuelles que j'ai obtenues en culture. Simplement, en France, il aurait fallu que j'obtienne, pour tenter un transfert in utero, l'autorisation d'un comité d'éthique hospitalier. Cela aurait été long et difficile. Quand j'aurai plusieurs naissances en Turquie, nous reviendrons peut-être avec un dossier plus étoffé et cela sera sans doute plus facile.»

Dons d'organes et de tissus, assistance médicale à la procréation, création d'embryons humains, diagnostic prénatal... Comment encadrer toutes ces activités nouvelles, directement issues des progrès de la biologie, de façon à garantir le respect de la dignité humaine? La question a un air de déjà vu. Elle a hanté l'actualité, tel un serpent de mer, durant dix ans, jusqu'à ce que le Parlement français adopte enfin, en juillet 1994, la fameuse loi dite de bioéthique, pionnière mondiale par son ambition. Aujourd'hui, la loi resurgit avec force, par la voie d'un rapport parlementaire, épinglant ses carences. Nulle surprise, la critique était programmée: le législateur, qui savait son texte imparfait, avait demandé qu'il soit réexaminé, par le Parlement, cinq ans plus tard. Dans cette perspective, il avait demandé à l'Office parlementaire d'évaluation des choix technologiques et scientifiques d'éclairer les débats à venir en évaluant son application. C'est chose faite. Au terme de huit mois d'auditions, convoquant une soixantaine de chercheurs, praticiens et usagers, le sénateur Claude Huriet et le député Alain Claeys, mandatés par l'Office, ont rendu publique, hier, leur enquête de 150 pages. De quoi relancer un nouveau round de débats houleux. Séisme.

Les rapporteurs pointent vers deux problèmes particulièrement porteurs d'émotion.

D'abord la défaillance de l'encadrement des pratiques de la procréation assistée: les «moyens de contrôle» des établissements «sont insuffisants».

Ensuite, vient la question, plus épineuse encore, de la protection à

accorder à l'embryon humain. Doit-on autoriser la destruction d'embryons humains à des fins scientifiques, au risque d'«instrumentaliser» cette entité biologique fondatrice? La loi de 1994 a tranché contre, au nom du «respect de l'être humain dès le commencement de sa vie»: «toute expérimentation sur l'embryon est interdite», stipule-t-elle. Sauf à titre «exceptionnel», pour réaliser un dépistage génétique. L'article a été largement critiqué, de nombreux biologistes arguant que, sans expérimentation sur l'embryon humain, les techniques de la procréation assistée ne pouvaient être améliorées en toute sécurité. La question revient avec une force plus grande encore car entre-temps, le champ de l'embryologie a connu un séisme.

En novembre, des chercheurs américains ont montré qu'il était possible de multiplier, en culture, certaines cellules «souches» de l'embryon donnant naissance à tous les tissus du corps. Là, est né l'espoir de découvrir le moyen de forcer ces cellules à fabriquer, en éprouvette, des cellules en tout genre (peau, os, foie...) propres à alimenter des banques de tissus, prêts à être greffés sur des malades. Une piste que la Grande-Bretagne et les Etats-Unis se sont récemment autorisés à explorer.

«Le législateur français peut-il ignorer cet environnement international?», s'interrogent les rapporteurs. Continuera-t-il à interdire l'expérimentation sur l'embryon humain, alors que le reste de l'Europe (sauf l'Allemagne et l'Autriche) l'autorise explicitement ou tacitement? Dilemme. La réflexion est d'autant plus pressante qu'elle est indissociable d'un autre dilemme majeur, suscité par la loi française: sous quelles conditions peut-on détruire les embryons «surnuméraires», ces embryons issus de fécondation in vitro (FIV) en vue d'une procréation, congelés puis «abandonnés» par leurs géniteurs ?

Il y en aurait entre 5 000 et 15 000, stockés dans les congélateurs des centres de FIV français. Hésitant à trancher, la loi avait fait dans la demi-mesure, autorisant à détruire les embryons «abandonnés» créés avant 1994 et laissant les autres en suspens jusqu'à la révision de la loi... Si la destruction de ces embryons

était définitivement autorisée, pourraient-ils alors être «légués» à la recherche? Le rapport se garde de toute recommandation sur un sujet si controversé. Le débat est également ouvert sur l'interdiction du clonage humain. La loi ne pouvait prévoir la naissance, en 1997, de la brebis Dolly, premier clone de mammifère adulte. Cependant, le clonage est, potentiellement, une nouvelle technique d'assistance médicalisée à la procréation. Dans le monde anglo-saxon, des voix s'élèvent en faveur de cette option, notamment pour les hommes dont les cellules reproductrices ont été détruites. Si le refus du recours au clonage reproductif paraît faire consensus en France, sera-t-il pour autant explicitement interdit par la loi? «Le législateur devra garder à l'esprit la portée limitée de la norme juridique interne face à un environnement international instable où les pressions économiques, sociales et culturelles ne se heurtent qu'à des barrières morales», écrivent les rapporteurs.

Tabou.

Derrière le spectre de Dolly, surgit l'ombre d'un clonage qui emporte les faveurs de nombreux scientifiques et bailleurs de fonds de la recherche médicale: le clonage à visée thérapeutique, fabrication d'un embryon identique à un malade, source de cellules de rechange cultivées en série.

En viendra-t-on à accepter cette manipulation de l'embryon pour le bénéfice du plus grand nombre? Ce serait lever un autre tabou: celui de la création d'embryons (par clonage ou simplement par fécondation in vitro), à des seules fins scientifiques. La Grande-Bretagne l'autorise déjà, d'autres pays européens (Espagne, Italie) ne l'interdisent pas. Prudent, le rapport conclut que, «dans ces domaines sensibles, de nouvelles solutions devront être recherchées, sachant qu'elles n'auront qu'un caractère provisoire». Bref, le projet de révision que le gouvernement présentera au Parlement en juillet devrait être... révisable.

La nouvelle est tombée comme une bombe. C'était il y un an, le dimanche 23 février. Le monde apprenait la naissance de l'agnelle Dolly, le premier clone d'un mammifère adulte, la copie gène pour

gène d'une brebis écossaise âgée de 6 ans. Par d'expertes manipulations, des chercheurs d'Edimbourg avaient réussi à répliquer un animal à partir d'une seule de ses cellules de peau. Ils avaient brisé les lois fondamentales de la reproduction sexuée qui font que tout nouveau-né est un être nouveau. Scandale planétaire. Avec Dolly, la fabrication en série d'individus identiques n'est plus un thème de science-fiction mais un sujet d'expérimentation. Les scénarios les plus invraisemblables deviennent crédibles: un dictateur se dédouble ad eternam, un enfant mort renaît des entrailles de sa mère, une femme accouche de son mari, de son père, d'elle-même...

Depuis, la question est posée: va-t-on cloner des hommes ?

Qui va pouvoir, qui va oser?

Polémiques.

Le 6 janvier 1998, un obscur physicien américain nommé Richard Seed s'est déclaré prêt à cloner à gogo, avec l'aide de Dieu et l'argent de ses concitoyens. Le 30 janvier, douche écossaise: deux chercheurs mettent en doute l'identité de Dolly, estimant que sa nature de «clone d'adulte» n'est pas totalement prouvée. Un an après Dolly, les débats et les recherches s'emballent. A Edimbourg, les «créateurs» de Dolly ne sont pas inquiets: leur brebis est bien un clone d'adulte, qui s'apprête d'ailleurs à mettre bas le plus naturellement du monde. Pour eux, le défi est ailleurs. Alors que Dolly est toujours la seule «copie» d'adulte au monde, la course aux clones en tous genres a commencé. Elle est désormais internationale — Britanniques et Américains en tête — et commerciale. Il s'agit d'améliorer la technique pour fabriquer vite et bien des clones transgéniques — veaux, vaches, cochons — qui fourniront organes humanisés et protéines-médicaments.

Un enjeu industriel et médical majeur.

Une fois mise au point, la technique de clonage servira, on peut le parier, à des biologistes d'un autre genre. Ceux qui sont prêts à satisfaire les demandes de clones d'hommes, nec plus ultra du «bébé parfait».

Le marché pourrait bien avoir de l'avenir aux Etats-Unis où des

biologistes n'ont pas attendu le Dr Seed pour répondre aux désirs d'«enfants sur mesure». Déjà, des cliniques vendent sur catalogue des embryons congelés, à choisir selon leur origine ethnique, leur QI ou leurs aptitudes sportives. Et des laboratoires cryogénisent les cellules de ceux qui veulent se faire cloner pour renaître au siècle prochain... Frontières. Toutes les folies d'une maîtrise démiurgique de la (pro)création sont déjà là en germe, avec la reproduction de soi pour ultime ivresse. Comme la bombe atomique, la greffe de cerveau ou la résurrection des dinosaures, le clonage induit la tentation — horrible et fascinante — de jouer avec les frontières de la science et de la vie. D'où l'émoi instantané provoqué par Dolly et le Dr Seed. D'où les soubresauts mondiaux du débat éthique. D'un côté, Américains et Britanniques hésitent à interdire le clonage humain, au nom des arguments les plus divers : refus de se priver d'outils thérapeutiques, de perdre un leadership technologique, de prohiber des actes qui se feront de toute façon ailleurs, ou de porter atteinte à la liberté individuelle. De l'autre, l'Europe et les organisations internationales (Unesco, OMS) ont pris position contre, si rapidement qu'elle n'ont pas laissé de place à un débat public. En attendant, la recherche continue.

Et si, dans le secret d'une clinique — américaine forcément — un médecin un peu fou était en train de fabriquer un clone humain? Dans la plus grande discrétion et avec trois bouts de ficelle. Depuis la naissance de Dolly et l'annonce du Dr Seed, difficile de ne pas y penser. Et difficile de ne pas se demander si, dans un mois ou dans un an, on ne va pas découvrir la photo du premier clone humain. Une éventualité aussi horrible que fascinante. Heureusement — ou malheureusement pour les amateurs de science-fiction — cela devrait rester, pour quelques années encore, du domaine du fantasme. Pourquoi? Imaginons des conditions idéales. La rencontre — dans un pays aux lois particulièrement laxistes — d'un homme très riche

et très déterminé à posséder un clone de lui-même, et d'un médecin particulièrement cynique, habile et bien équipé. Reste à faire l'expérience. C'est-à-dire à appliquer à l'espèce humaine la méthode Dolly.

Première étape: se procurer des cellules adultes. Le plus simple est sans doute d'utiliser celles de la peau. Il faut donc découper un petit bout d'épiderme du candidat au clonage. Préparer quelques milliers de cellules. Les mettre en culture dans le sérum utilisé dans l'expérience Dolly. «Affamées» par ce milieu très particulier, les cellules de peau se désérialisent, se déprogramment. Jusqu'à redevenir des cellules qui retrouvent leur état primitif, embryonnaire. Simultanément, il faut récolter beaucoup d'ovules. Un bon millier si l'on se souvient du nombre d'essais nécessaires pour fabriquer Dolly. Comment se procurer ces ovules? En pratiquant une stimulation ovarienne chez une femme, on obtient 10 ovules en moyenne. Il sera donc nécessaire de recruter 100 femmes qui donneront chacune 10 ovocytes. Et prélever ces 1 000 ovules sous anesthésie générale.

Etape suivante: la fusion, par un choc électrique, des cellules déprogrammées avec les ovules. A ce stade, dans l'«expérience Dolly», on n'a déjà plus que 277 œufs fusionnés. Reste à les mettre en culture pendant deux ou trois jours. Dernière manipulation: l'implantation — dans l'utérus d'une mère porteuse et sous anesthésie générale — de chacun des embryons qui a commencé à se développer (29 dans le cas Dolly). Pratiquement cela signifie trouver une trentaine de femmes prêtes à porter un clone.

Neuf mois plus tard: le clone éclôt. Pourcentage de réussite: 1/1000.

Il y a clone et clone Alors, pour ou contre le clonage humain? La question semblait simple, en février 1997, quand Ian Wilmut, de l'institut Roslin (Ecosse), a annoncé la naissance de la brebis Dolly, premier clone de mammifère adulte. Il s'agissait alors de savoir si on accepterait de faire des bébés-clones, copie conforme d'un adulte.

Deux ans plus tard, tout s'est diablement compliqué. Le 19 janvier, le même Ian Wilmut - qui s'était dit opposé au clonage humain - déclare à la BBC qu'il est favorable à l'application de la technique à l'homme. Scandale. Et malentendu. Car, entretemps, un subtil *distinguo* s'est glissé sous le vocable «clonage humain». Le chercheur écossais est pour le «clonage thérapeutique», la création d'embryons-clones, dont les cellules seraient utilisées pour soigner l'adulte «cloné». Mais il est contre l'implantation de ces embryons-clones *in utero* dans le but de produire des bébés clones. Bref, contre le «clonage reproductif». Tout comme Austin Smith, qui pourrait être le premier, outre-Manche, à créer des embryons-clones pour la recherche médicale.

Un jeu avec le feu, tant la frontière entre les deux clonages est ténue?

A l'abri, les embryons. Coffrés, comme des trésors. Enfermés dans un réfrigérateur cadenassé, lui-même placé dans une petite pièce verrouillée, au cœur d'un laboratoire de recherche dont l'accès est filtré par un gardien. «C'est une condition imposée par l'Autorité britannique pour la fertilité et l'embryologie humaine, s'excuse Austin Smith. De crainte qu'on nous vole un embryon, qu'on en fasse un bébé ou qu'on le détruise, que sais-je encore...» Il joue le jeu de la sécurité, c'est la moindre des choses. Malgré ses allures d'étudiant timide, Austin Smith est, à 38 ans, à la tête du Centre de recherche sur le génome (CGR) de l'université d'Edimbourg (Ecosse), l'un des rares laboratoires autorisés par l'Autorité britannique pour la fertilité et l'embryologie humaine à mener des expériences sur des embryons humains fécondés *in vitro* et «abandonnés» par leurs «parents», chose interdite en France par la loi de bioéthique (2). Surtout, Austin Smith dirige la seule équipe britannique habilitée depuis deux ans à utiliser des embryons humains pour tenter de cultiver, en éprouvette, leurs «cellules souches». Un projet devenu brûlant, enjeu d'une bataille scientifique, médicale, commerciale et éthique engagée à l'échelle mondiale. Les cellules souches de l'embryon sont en effet uniques en leur genre: naturellement «totipotentes», elles génèrent toutes

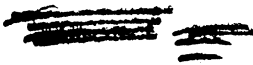
MONTEREY INSTITUTE OF INTERNATIONAL STUDIES
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION

PROFESSIONAL GENERAL
CONSECUTIVE INTERPRETATION EXAMINATION

SPRING 1999
German to English

Rede der Bundesministerin für Familie, Senioren, Frauen und Jugend Dr. Christine Bergmann vor dem Ausschuß "Rechte der Frau" des Europäischen Parlaments am 19.01.1999 in Brüssel

START



Sehr geehrte Frau Vorsitzende,
sehr geehrte Mitglieder des Ausschusses,
meine Damen und Herren,

ich freue mich, daß ich so früh zu Beginn der deutschen Ratspräsidentschaft die Möglichkeit des Meinungsaustauschs mit Ihnen habe und danke sehr dafür.

Die deutsche Präsidentschaft fällt mit der Neuorientierung deutscher Politik zusammen.

Das gilt in besonderer Weise für die Gleichstellungspolitik.

Ich möchte Ihnen daher nicht nur die Pläne für die deutsche Präsidentschaft vorstellen, sondern Sie auch über unsere nationalen frauenpolitischen Vorhaben informieren.

Aber lassen Sie mich eines vorab sagen, das mich bei der Vorbereitung auf diesen Termin wieder einmal beschäftigt hat:

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Ist es nicht ein Skandal, daß wir 93 Jahre nach Einführung des Frauenwahlrechts in Europa und an der Schwelle zum 21. Jahrhundert immer noch eine Institution wie den Ausschuß für die Rechte der Frau hier und viele andere dringend brauchen, um Frauen zu ihrem Recht kommen zu lassen?

Von „der Hälfte des Himmels, der Hälfte der Erde und der Hälfte der Macht“, wie Lissy Gröner den Idealzustand immer so schön formuliert, sind wir eben leider noch sehr weit entfernt.

Aber wir arbeiten daran - mit Erfolg.

Anrede

Auf Initiative dieses Ausschusses wurde dieses Jahr 1999 zum Aktionsjahr gegen Gewalt an Frauen ausgerufen.

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Die Auftaktveranstaltung findet am 29. und 30. März in Köln im Rahmen eines Kongresses statt.

Im Mittelpunkt wird die häusliche Gewalt stehen.

Hierzu hat die vorausgegangene österreichische Präsidentschaft wertvolle Vorarbeiten mit einem Papier der „50 Standards und Empfehlungen“ geleistet.

Diese, sowie die in Madrid verabschiedete Deklaration gegen Gewalt an Frauen, möchten wir in Arbeitsforen diskutieren und sie in konkretes Handeln für die Gemeinschaft übersetzen.

Wie Sie wissen, fehlt es in Europa an vergleichbarem Datenmaterial über

Ausmaß, Hintergründe und Folgen von Gewalt gegen Frauen.

Ich möchte hier zu einem einheitlichen EU-weiten Forschungs- und Erhebungsdesign kommen, wie es uns z.B. Kanada bereits vorgemacht hat.

Die Bekämpfung häuslicher Gewalt ist, was die Rechtssetzung angeht, in den Mitgliedsstaaten sehr unterschiedlich.

Deshalb erhoffe ich mir als ein Ergebnis dieses Kongresses Aufschlüsse über die Wirkungsweise bzw. die besten und erfolgreichsten Gesetze, bei der Strafverfolgung oder beim zivilrechtlichen Schutz von Frauen.

Es ist der entscheidende Vorteil und Sinn der Gemeinschaft, nationales Handeln durch Beispiele vorbildlicher Praxis in anderen Ländern zu optimieren.

Dies gilt in besonderer Weise für Maßnahmen zur Prävention: seien dies nun Öffentlichkeitskampagnen wie die 'Zero-Tolerance-Campaign' im Vereinigten Königreich oder die erfolgreichen Kampagnen in Bologna oder München, seien es Fortbildungen für Polizei- und Justizbeamte, Lehrer und Lehrerinnen, Kindergärtnerinnen oder Sozialarbeiter und Sozialarbeiterinnen.

Bei all diesen Maßnahmen muß eines im Vordergrund stehen: Die häusliche Gewalt muß aus der Tabuzone geholt werden, Unrechtsbewußtsein geschärft und Opfern und Mitwissern Mut gemacht werden, Gewalt gegen Frauen und Kinder nicht länger als „Nichteinmischung in Privatangelegenheiten" hinzunehmen.

Wenn wir diesen Bereich auf der Kölner Veranstaltung thematisieren und über eine EU-weite Kampagne sprechen, ist es mir besonders wichtig, hier möglichst frühzeitig, also bereits im Kindergartenalter, mit geeigneten Aufklärungsmaßnahmen und Gegenstrategien zu beginnen.

Pädagogische Arbeit kann nicht erst bei Verdacht auf Anwendung von Gewalt und Mißbrauch einsetzen vielmehr müssen wir schon kleine Kinder stark machen, Unrecht zu erkennen und benennen zu können.

Zu einer Strategie gegen häusliche Gewalt gehören ebenso Hilfseinrichtungen für die Opfer.

Welche Hilfseinrichtungen bestehen, sind sie ausreichend und sind sie für die Opfer zugänglich?

Gerade dieser Bereich bietet sich in besonderer Weise für einen Austausch von Erfahrungen auf europäischer Ebene an.

Aufschlüsse hierzu erwarte ich von der Auswertung der bisher mit der DAPHNE-Initiative und dem STOP-Programm gemachten Erfahrungen.

Was DAPHNE angeht, so werden die Beratungen zum Programm Ende dieses Monats anlaufen und - so habe ich es mir vorgenommen - noch unter unserer Präsidentschaft zu Ende geführt werden.

Wie groß der Bedarf in diesem Bereich ist, hat sich an der Fülle der Anträge der NGOs, die nur zu einem kleinen Teil gefördert werden konnten, deutlich gezeigt.

Darüber hinaus sollte die Arbeit mit den Tätern, besser noch auch mit potentiellen Tätern, erörtert werden und in konkrete Vorschläge für Maßnahmen münden.

In einigen Mitgliedsstaaten gibt es hierzu bereits Programme. Ihre Evaluationsergebnisse sind wichtig, da sie Auskunft geben über gelungene und damit übertragbare Ansätze.

In meinem nationalen Aktionsplan gegen Gewalt, der in Kürze anlaufen soll, werde ich die Arbeit mit Tätern nicht mehr der Einsicht und Freiwilligkeit überlassen.

20 Ich werde auf gerichtlich auferlegte Trainingskurse dringen, die auf langfristige Verhaltensänderungen zielen.

Die wesentlichen Teile dieses Aktionsplans möchte ich Ihnen stichwortartig vorstellen.

Viele der darin enthaltenen Maßnahmen entsprechen Forderungen, die dieser Ausschuss für die Rechte der Frau, die Vereinten Nationen oder der Europarat aufgestellt haben.

Es sind dies u.a.:

- eine verbesserte Gesetzeslage für mißhandelte Frauen
- ein eigenständiges Aufenthaltsrecht ausländischer Ehefrauen
- Berücksichtigung geschlechtsspezifischer Verfolgungsgründe im Rahmen von Asylverfahren
- die wirksame Bekämpfung des Frauenhandels
- ein Schutzkonzept für Zeuginnen in Menschenhandelsprozessen.

Die Grundsätze dieser Konzeption werden auch Gegenstand der Verhandlungen in der Lyon-Gruppe der G 8 sein, da Deutschland dort ein entsprechendes Positionspapier eingebracht hat.

87 Im Rahmen der z.Z. diskutierten VN-Konvention zur Organisierten Kriminalität soll ein Zusatzprotokoll zu Frauen- und Kinderhandel erstellt werden.

Dieser Vorschlag der USA wird sowohl in der G 8 wie in den VN Thema sein.

Anrede

Als EU-Ratsvorsitz ist Deutschland, was die Vereinten Nationen angeht, in ganz besonderer Weise gefordert.

In der EU-Koordinations- und Sprecherrolle werden wir bei der Frauenrechtskommission die Themen der Aktionsplattform von Peking „Frauen und Gesundheit“, „Institutionelle Mechanismen“ und die Vorbereitung der Sondergeneralversammlung zu Peking plus 5 „Frauen - 2000 - Gleichstellung, Entwicklung und Frieden für das 21. Jahrhundert“ zu behandeln haben.

Parallel dazu wird die Arbeitsgruppe zum CEDAW (Convention on the Elimination of all Forms of Discrimination against Women) -Zusatzprotokoll tagen.

Sie können versichert sein, daß Deutschland in diesem Jahr zu den Staaten gehören wird, die sich entschieden gegen die Diskriminierung von Frauen einsetzen werden und für ein Individualbeschwerderecht.

Wir werden alles in unserer Macht stehende tun, um das Protokoll zu einem

erfolgreichen Abschluß zu bringen.

Anrede

Arbeitslosigkeit ist eine politische Herausforderung ersten Ranges.

Sie betrifft alle Mitgliedstaaten der EU.

Frauen sind davon in besonderer Weise betroffen.

1000 Selbst wenn sie Arbeit haben, so sehen sie sich immer noch einem gespaltenen Arbeitsmarkt gegenüber, zum einen vertikal: Oben Männer in den Führungspositionen und Frauen überrepräsentiert in der unteren Hälfte; horizontal: auf der Seite der schlechter bezahlten und weniger zukunftssträchtigen Berufe sind es überwiegend Frauen.

Eine der daraus folgenden Auswirkungen kennen Sie alle: das ungleiche Einkommen.

Die Integration von Frauen in den Arbeitsmarkt ist mir ein ganz besonderes Anliegen.

Hier müssen wir unsere gemeinsamen Anstrengungen europäisch und national verstärken.

Die Schwerpunkte der beschäftigungspolitischen Leitlinien wie die Bekämpfung der Jugendarbeitslosigkeit, der Langzeitarbeitslosigkeit und der Diskriminierung der Frauen werden auch im Beschäftigungspakt ihren vorrangigen Platz finden, der unter deutscher Präsidentschaft ausgearbeitet werden soll.

In Deutschland starte ich ein neues nationales Programm „Frau und Beruf“.

1100 Rückenwind dafür gibt uns einmal die 4.Säule der Beschäftigungspolitischen Leitlinien.

Dort geht es um die Vereinbarkeit von Familie und Beruf, den Elternurlaub, verbesserte Möglichkeiten der Teilzeit für Frauen und Männer in Kooperation mit den Sozialpartnern und den Ausbau des Angebotes an Betreuungs- und Pflegeleistungen.

Aber auch die anderen drei Säulen „Beschäftigungsfähigkeit“, „Unternehmergeist“ und „Anpassungsfähigkeit der Unternehmen“ kommen unseren Plänen sehr nahe.

Im Rahmen der deutschen Ratspräsidentschaft wollen wir die Vereinbarkeit von Familie und Erwerbsarbeit in einer Veranstaltung mit dem Europäischen Netzwerk „Familie und Beruf“ aufgreifen.

Die verschiedenen Anreizsysteme, die sich europaweit etabliert haben, sollen in einem Erfahrungsaustausch bewertet und Kooperationen angestoßen werden.

1200 Im Zentrum unseres Aktionsprogramms „Frau und Beruf“ steht ein wirksames und umfassendes Gleichstellungsgesetz;

1300 ein effektives Gleichstellungsgesetz, das auch für den Bereich der Privatwirtschaft Anwendung findet.

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Brustkrebs

In der Bundesrepublik Deutschland ist der Brustkrebs der häufigste bösartige Tumor bei Frauen: Pro Jahr erkranken über 34.000 Frauen neu daran. Dabei ist zu beobachten, daß immer mehr jüngere Frauen betroffen sind; in den letzten zwanzig Jahren hat die Zahl der Brustkrebsfälle bei Frauen im Alter zwischen 25 und 44 Jahren um mehr als dreißig Prozent zugenommen, während früher der Altersgipfel bei etwa 60 Jahren lag. Diese Tatsache macht es notwendig, über Risikofaktoren aufzuklären, die die Entstehung von Brustkrebs begünstigen können. Ebenso wichtig ist aber die Darstellung von Warnzeichen, die möglicherweise auf eine Krebserkrankung hinweisen können, denn die Heilungschancen bei Brustkrebs sind sehr gut, wenn er rechtzeitig erkannt und behandelt wird. Aus diesem Grunde hat der Gesetzgeber auch für Frauen ab dem 30. Lebensjahr die Möglichkeit der jährlichen kostenlosen Früherkennungsuntersuchung geschaffen. Eine Chance, die jede Frau nutzen sollte, die aber leider immer noch viel zu oft vergeben wird. Auch durch die regelmäßige Beobachtung des eigenen Körpers läßt sich Brustkrebs oftmals im Frühstadium entdecken und durch die eingeleitete Behandlung heilen. Die Ursachen des Brustkrebses - wie die Krebskrankheiten überhaupt - sind noch weitgehend unerforscht. Aus statistischen Erhebungen lassen sich jedoch bestimmte Risikofaktoren ableiten, die die Gefahr einer Brustkrebserkrankung erhöhen. Dies wiederum bedeutet nicht, daß jede Frau, auf die ein oder sogar mehrere Risiken zutreffen, zwangsläufig erkranken muß.

Für Sie besteht ein Risiko, an Brustkrebs zu erkranken,

- wenn bereits nahe Verwandte (Mutter/Schwestern der Mutter oder eigene Schwestern) Brustkrebs hatten;
- wenn Sie bereits früher an Brustkrebs erkrankt waren;
- wenn Sie älter als 50 Jahre sind (allgemeines Altersrisiko);
- wenn Sie eine Problem-Mastopathie haben. Dies ist anzunehmen, wenn
 - beim Abtasten eine besonders knotige Brustdrüsenveränderung festgestellt wurde,
 - in der Mammographie zahlreiche Mikroverkalkungen gefunden worden sind oder
 - eine Gewebprobe mikroskopische Zeichen für ein erhöhtes Entartungsrisiko ergeben hat.

Die wichtigste Rolle im Kampf gegen den Brustkrebs spielt nach wie vor die Früherkennung, die von allen Frauen regelmäßig in Anspruch genommen werden sollte, ganz besonders aber von solchen, die erhöhte Risiken haben. Allerdings soll bei dieser Gelegenheit auf eines deutlich hingewiesen werden: Viele Menschen sind der Meinung, Früherkennungsuntersuchungen würden zuverlässig vor dem Ausbruch der Krankheit schützen, seien also "Vorsorge- oder Vorbeugeuntersuchungen". Dies trifft nicht zu. Richtig ist vielmehr:

Bei der regelmäßigen Kontrolle besteht die Chance, daß ein entstehender Krebs so rechtzeitig erkannt wird, daß er geheilt werden kann, bevor er sich ausbreitet und lebensbedrohlich wird.

Die zuverlässigste Überwachung ist nach wie vor die Mammographie, eine spezielle röntgenologische Brustuntersuchung, die es erlaubt, viele Erkrankungsfälle in einem günstigen Frühstadium zu entdecken. Experten empfehlen, etwa mit 35 Jahren eine Basis-Mammographie vornehmen zu lassen und danach die Untersuchung in regelmäßigen Abständen zu wiederholen. Frauen, bei denen ein erhöhtes Risiko besteht, sollten alle ein bis zwei Jahre zur Mammographie gehen. Die aus Amerika stammende Befürchtung, durch Röntgenstrahlen der Mammographie könnte Brustkrebs hervorgerufen werden, ist durch Anwendung moderner Geräte mit sehr geringer Strahlendosis praktisch unbegründet. Mit der Mammographie lassen sich in mehr als 90 Prozent der Fälle Vorstadien von Brustkrebs oder die Erkrankung im Frühstadium erkennen. Nur bei einem kleinen Prozentsatz bleibt die Geschwulst auch für die Mammographie eine Zeit lang unerkennbar.

