NCIEC
National Consortium of Interpreter Education Centers

Historical Development of the Definition of Transliteration

Linda A. Siple[1]

The literature discussed in this chapter provides a foundation for an analysis of sign language transliteration. Discussed here are several; social, historical and professional issues that have influenced current perceptions of transliteration.

The first issue to be discussed is the importance of transliteration. First, practitioners, consumers, and educators have identified transliteration as a key competency for interpreters. Second, this type of sign language interpreting is growing in importance in that it responds to the preferences or situational needs of a large number of deaf individuals. Third, transliteration has increased in importance as access to communication has improved through the passage of federal legislation.

The second major issue discussed is the interpreting profession's inability to adequately and accurately define transliteration. Since its inception in 1964, the Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf has published three different definitions of transliteration. Each definition, influenced by different social factors, has emphasized that transliteration in a word-for-word, re-coding of spoken English. However, the actual target messages produced by interpreters are not word-for-word, recordings of the source message.

The inaccurate definition of transliteration has resulted at least in part from the paucity of research on the topic. The few studies that have addressed this process are reviewed. One study in particular greatly influenced the present study. Winston (1989) analyzed the transliteration of one interpreter and identified several strategies that departed from a word-for-word rendition of the source message, while adding to the overall comprehensibility of the target message. A detailed discussion of her data follows below.

Due to the lack of previous research in transliteration, a preliminary study was designed to provide additional foundation for the present study. The last aspect to be discussed is the data collected from this preliminary study. This study lends additional support to the investigation of the use of additions by interpreters when transliterating.

---

[1] This paper is taken from Dr. Siple's dissertation. Those interested in reading more of her work can contact her directly.

Transliteration as a Key Competency

Anderson and Stauffer (1990) conducted a study to identify the competencies sign language interpreters need to possess. They surveyed 403 professional interpreters, consumers, educators of interpreters, and administrators who were asked to rank order six major competency categories related to sign language interpreting. The respondents ranked the item *interpreting and transliterating* as the most important competency category. Respondents also ranked 71 individual competencies. Of those competencies identified, 73% indicated it was "very important [to be able to] accurately transliterate a message from one mode to another mode in simultaneous manner" (Anderson & Stauffer 1990:68). In addition, 91% indicated that a student interpreter must fully acquire this ability before completion of his/her education.

Communication Preferences and Requirements

Kannapell (1982), in her discussion of the deaf community, pointed out that not all deaf people are fluent in American Sign Language (ASL). Some deaf people are more skilled in using a signed form of English. On the basis of her observations, she identified six variations in communication styles that she believes exists in the deaf community.

ASL monolinguals- Deaf people who are comfortable expressing themselves only in ASL, and in understanding only ASL. They have no skills in [signed or written] English.

ASL-dominant bilinguals- Deaf people who are more comfortable expressing themselves in ASL than English and are more able to understand ASL better than English (either printed or signed English).

Balanced bilinguals- Deaf people who are comfortable expressing themselves in both ASL and (signed and written) English, and who are able to understand both equally well.

English-dominant bilinguals- Deaf people who are more comfortable expressing themselves in English, and who are able to understand English (in printed English or signed English) better than ASL.

English monolinguals- Deaf people who are comfortable expressing themselves only in English (in oral or signed English) and in understanding English (in printed or oral or signed English). They have no skills in ASL.

Semi-linguals- Deaf people who do have some skills in both English and ASL, but are not able to master either language fully. (Kannapell 1982: 24)

These six variations in language abilities have significant implications for sign language interpreters in that each category brings with it different linguistic requirements. ASL monolinguals will require interpretation and semi-linguals may require skills of both interpretation and transliteration. However,

deaf people are representing the four remaining categories of communication styles may either prefer or require the interpreter to transliterate.

ASL-dominant bilinguals and balanced bilinguals may possess great competency in ASL; however, for these individuals some situational factors may make transliteration preferred over interpretation. The classroom is one setting in which deaf individuals frequently express a preference for more English-like signing . This preference, most likely, stems from the recognition that English is the language of education and that there is a need to demonstrate appropriate usage of English technical vocabulary. Transliteration of classroom lectures is one way for deaf students to gain certain access to this vocabulary.

For a deaf individual who is an English-dominant bilingual or an English monolingual, transliteration is one of the most effective ways to represent a visual form of English. The primary reason for this is that one of the features of transliteration includes mouthing of English words. Deaf individuals who fall into these two groups tend to rely on speech reading and signs as their primary approach to visually receiving a message. Thus, unlike ASL-dominant bilinguals and balanced bilinguals, transliteration becomes a requirement for English-dominant bilinguals and English monolinguals, regardless of setting or context.

Federal Legislation
Federal legislation that has resulted in increased educational opportunities for deaf individuals is the third reason supporting the importance of transliteration. During the past twenty years, three federal laws have had a significant impact on deaf people's access to communication and to the provision of interpreting services: Section 504 pf the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Public Law 93-112), and the Education for all Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142), and the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1991. Each one of these laws has had a slightly different impact on the deaf community. Taken together, these laws represent a major victory in terms of improved access to communication.

Section 504 if the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 states that: No otherwise qualified handicapped individual in the Unites States… shall, solely by reason of the handicap, be excluded from the participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any program of activity receiving federal financial assistance. This law requires that institutions receiving federal funds must take steps to ensure that individuals not be excluded from participation based on disability. "The regulation requires recipients to provide appropriate auxiliary aids, including qualified sign language interpreters… to deaf persons in order to give equal access to programs and services" (DuBow, Geer, & Strauss 1992: 56).

A second, more comprehensive law is the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142), later renamed in 1990 The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). It is the purpose of this Act to assure that all handicapped [individuals] have available to them… a free appropriate public education which emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs, to assure that the rights of handicapped [individuals] and their parents or guardians are protected, to assist States and localities to provide for the education of all handicapped [individuals], and to assess and assure the effectiveness of efforts to educate handicapped [individuals].

The law parallels Section 504; however, Public Law 94-142 more fully addresses the issue of special education. "It provides the States with money for special education and imposes clear procedural and substantive requirements on how that special education should be provided" (DuBow, Geer, & Strauss 1992: 68). Thus, an interpreter is an important auxiliary aid for deaf and hard-of-hearing students in the mainstreamed classroom.

A third law, the Americans with Disabilities Act of 1991, prohibits discrimination of disabled individuals. This act provides comprehensive civil rights protections to individuals with disabilities in the areas of employment, public accommodations, state and local government services, and telecommunications. This law continues to list an interpreter as an auxiliary aid. Moreover, the implementation regulations from the Department of Justice provide for the first time a definition of a qualified interpreter. "The regulation defines 'qualified interpreter; to mean an interpreter who is able to interpret effectively, accurately, and impartially both receptively and expressively , using any necessary specialized vocabulary" (Dubow, Geer & Strauss 1992:32).

These three federal laws have dramatically increased the demand for skilled interpreters. The demand has increased so significantly that the National Association of the Deaf and the Registry of interpreters for the Deaf (RID) declared a national crisis in 1995. According to the RID, "the enactment if the ADA has led to an even greater demand for interpreters for the deaf as service agencies move toward full compliance with the ADA in their policies and practices. In addition, as deaf and hard of hearing consumers become aware of their rights, this nationwide lack of qualified interpreters has reached crisis proportions" (RID Editor 1994: 1).

The educational setting has experienced the effect of this crisis more than any other area. In one national survey, nearly 50% of sign language interpreters indicated that they most frequently worked in the educational setting (Cokely 1981). However the demand for qualified interpreters continues to be unmet.

This discussion details the importance of transliteration as a skill for sign language interpreters to possess and develop; however, little research has addressed the characteristics of this task. One of the primary reasons for this lack of attention has been the perception that transliteration is simply changing the "*modality*" of the message, i.e. spoken English to signed English. This general lack of understanding about the task of transliteration has had many serious repercussions in the education and preparation of student interpreters and in the evaluation and certification of professional interpreters. The Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf (RID) has published three definitions of transliteration without benefit of empirical research. Insufficient information has contributed to the creation of definitions that are narrow in scope, inadequate in theory, and inaccurate when compared with the actual practice of the task. To fully appreciate the recent RID definition and perspective of transliteration, we should discuss its historical development.

Historical Development of the Definition of Transliteration
Since the founding of the RID in 1964, the profession has published three different definitions of transliteration (Quigley & Youngs 1965; Caccamise, Dirst, DeVries, Heil. Kirchner, Kirchner, Rinaldi, & Stangarone 1980; Frishberg 1986). Several social forces have influenced the creation of these definitions. In addition, each shows the changing philosophy of the the profession of interpreting.

Mechanistic Model

The first manual for sign language interpreters published in 1965, defined transliteration, (then referred to as translation), in Quigley & Youngs: "Translation is a verbatim presentation of another's remarks through the language of signs and finger-spelling" (Quigley & Youngs 1965: 7). Several social factors of the time influenced this definition. The primary influence came from deaf people who used either spoken, signed, or written English to communicate. For these deaf people, their expectation was that they would interact directly with the hearing world through the use of speech and speech reading and/or pen and paper. As was stated in the RID manual for interpreters "translating is not commonly used as highly literate deaf people frequently do not need the services of an interpreter unless they are in situations where misunderstanding might arise which could result in financial or personal loss" (Quigley & Youngs 1965: 1).

As this suggests, at the time, deaf people had limited access to the hearing world. One measure of the lack of integration is to look at the types of situations where interpreters mediated deaf and hearing interactions. While no such statistic exists, the first manual for interpreters only provided guidelines for the legal, medical. religious, employment, and mental health settings (Quigley & Youngs 1965). Omitted was the educational setting, which today employs the largest number of interpreters. Prior to the 1970's, deaf people did not use interpreters in the classroom because most attended a school for the deaf from preschool to high school. If a deaf person attended college, only Gallaudet University had instructors that signed. When deaf people attended other colleges they did so without benefit of support services such as interpreters, note takers, and tutors.

A second factor that influenced the creation of the 1965 definition of transliteration was the prevailing societal theory of communication, that is the mechanistic perspective of communication (see Fisher 1978). The mechanistic model envisioned communication as a machine-like process that consisted of a source and receiver to transmit messages through a channel. The sign language interpreter was perceived as a gatekeeper of the channel who was responsible for the conveyance of the message. Figure 1 graphically depicts the mechanistic model of the interpreting process. In this model, the interpreter receives the message from the source through the auditory channel and re-transmits it to the receiver through the visual channel. An important aspect of this model is that the interpreter is not a sender or receiver. The interpreter functions as a "gateway" for the transmission of messages.

The model presents a paradox on that the gatekeeper's presence by definition is assumed to have no affect on the communication process, while at the same time, the sender and receiver's relationship only exists through the gatekeeper. Roy (1992), in her sociolinguistic analysis of the sign language interpreter's role, found that, on the contrary, the interpreter is an active participant in the communication event, particularly when overlapping talk occurs. The social and linguistic knowledge of the communication situation influences the interpreter's behavior.

Fisher (1978) in his discussion of the mechanistic model identified a key element as that of "fidelity," that it is "the extent to which the message is similar at two points on the channel" (Fisher 1978: 110). As stated in the above definition, the goal of transliteration was a "verbatim presentation." In order for the target message to be considered accurately or possess high fidelity it must match the

source message word-for-word. Two underlying assumptions relate to this belief: 1) all syntactic and semantic structures in English have an equivalent in sign, and 2) the comprehension of the source message will be as intended if presented verbatim.

Figure 1. Mechanistic Model of Interpreting.
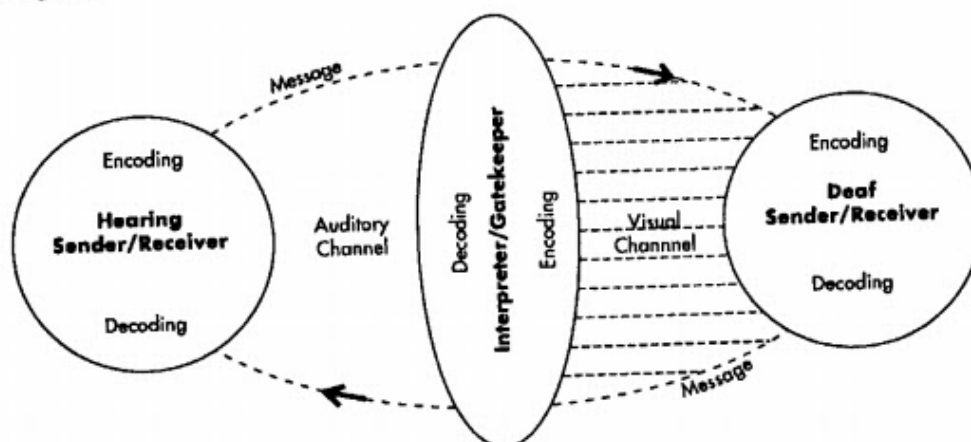
Modified Mechanistic Model

The 1980 edition of the RID's manual for interpreters proposed a second definition of transliteration. When a person changes "only" the mode of the sender's communication or message this is termed transliterating. [original emphasis] (Caccamise, et al. 1980: 3). On the surface, the 1980 definition appears much the same as the earlier definition. However, different social factors influenced its creation.

As previously discussed, the 1970's marked the civil rights movement for disabled individuals. For deaf people, the message of Section 504 if the Rehabilitation Act of 1973 and the Education for all Handicapped Children Act of 1975 dramatically increased the demand for interpreting services. The establishment of approximately 50 interpreter preparation programs across the United States attempted to meet this need (Siple 1982). For the most part, these programs either offered an associate of arts degree or a series of courses that led to a certificate of completion. In many instances, federal grants established these programs with the sole purpose to prepare sign language interpreters in the shortest possible time. As a result, the marketplace took in hundreds of insufficiently prepared interpreters. Frequently, deaf people had to work with unqualified interpreters and their trust and confidence in interpreters progressively decreased. Thus, the 1980 definition of transliteration emphasized the restriction that "only the mode" may be changed. For the definition to suggest that other changes could or might occur would have been granting a great deal of freedom and power to unqualified interpreters.

A communication model of the interpreting process proposed by Ingram (1974) reflected the second published RID definition of transliteration. His communication model was an expanded version of the mechanistic model with the interpreter as the channel of communication. However, as Figure 2 depicts, the expanded channel accounts for communication occurring in two different *forms* (i.e., auditory and visual).

Ingram's (1974) model perceives language as consisting of three different systems: lexical (words or signs), syntactic (grammar) and semological (meaning). According to Ingram (1974). when transliterating, the interpreter must also use the aspect of form or modality (visual vs. spoken). Form, lexicon, and semology are aspects of the message that require decoding and encoding when transliterating. Syntax, represented in the figure using broken lines, remains a constant because the source and target messages use the same syntax.

This model attempts to divide the process of transliteration into three simultaneous tasks. The model suggests that there is more to the task than simply transmitting the message. However, this model still contains many of the same inaccuracies and assumptions as the previous model and definition (e.g., transliteration is a verbatim process).

Figure 2 Modified Mechanistic Model of Interpreting.
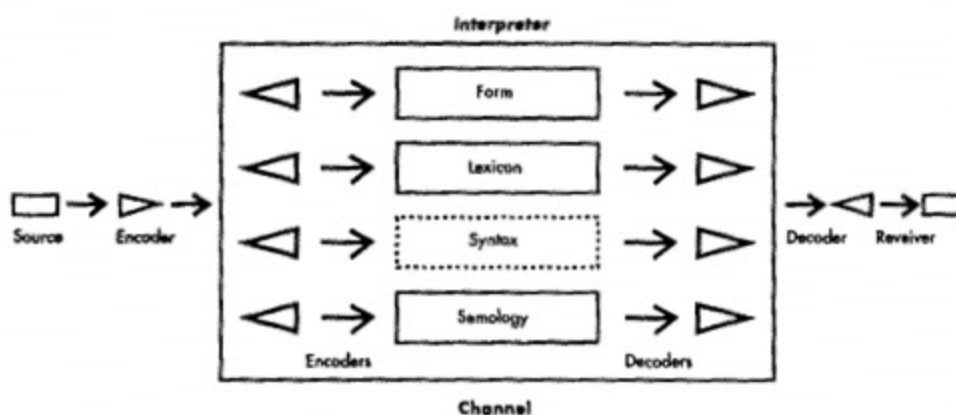
Note. From "A communication model of the interpreting process", R. Ingram, 1974, Journal of Rehabilitation of the Deaf, 7.

Linguistic Separation Model

Until the 1960's and 1970's, many (including deaf people) perceived ASL as bad English. The work of linguistics revealed ASL as a full and robust language, distinct from English. In order to define ASL more fully, it became important for linguists to clearly delineate between what is ASL and what was not ASL. This delineation affected the interpreting profession in that the definitions of transliteration and interpretation implied a distinct separation of the sign languages.

The most recent publication of the RID interpreter's manual contains the current definition of transliteration. Transliteration [refers] to the process of changing an English text into Manually Coded English (or vice versa) (Frishberg 1986: 19). In contrast, interpretation is defined as the process of changing messages produced in one language [English or ASL]... into another language [English or ASL]" (Frishberg 1986: 18).

The 1986 definition of transliteration, while less prescriptive than the 1980 definition, states that the form of the sign language used by the interpreter is Manually Coded English (MCE). MCE is a rubric

containing several very different sign systems for representing English. Some of these systems, when used in transliteration, require the interpreter to provide a verbatim re-coding of the source message (e.g., Signing Exact English). However, MCE may also include the category of sign known as Pidgin Sign English or contact signing. This type of signing is a combination of English syntax and ASL grammatical features. The interpreter's output is not a verbatim rendition of the source or a simple re-coding of the message. A successful target message communicates the meaning of the message through the use of many strategies (e.g., addition). The use of MCE in the definition of transliteration further confuses the issue. The combination of these two very different types of transliteration implies that the tasks are somehow similar. It also implies similar mental processes and similar signed output. The 1986 definition perpetuates the misconception that all transliteration shows how the profession's perception of this task has changed little over time. The profession continues to attempt to define a task that is not fully understood nor sufficiently described. Locker (1990) best summed up the current problem with respect to definitions when she stated "there is no well defined or standardized description of transliteration (even though the term is used as if it were)" (168).

Previous Research on Transliterating

The task of transliteration has not received much attention from linguists or educators of interpreters. To date there have been only a few studies that have taken a systematic look at transliteration.

One of the earliest studies involving transliteration compared the effectiveness of information interpreted in ASL or transliterated in signed English with the additional variables of the interpreter being familiar or unfamiliar with the content of the information. Fleischer (1975) had deaf consumers rank-order the effectiveness of the four conditions and found that the preferred condition was an ASL interpretation with the interpreter having familiarity with the content, followed by an ASL interpretation with the interpreter unfamiliar with the content, a signed English transliteration with the interpreter having familiarity with the content, and lastly a signed English transliteration with the interpreter unfamiliar with the content.

Fleischer (1975) noted that regardless of the experimental conditions, the level of bilingualism possessed by the deaf consumer had a significant impact on the amount of information effectively received from the interpreter. Although this study did not describe the actual sign output of the interpretations and transliterations presented, the date of the study suggests that the interpreters perceived the task if transliteration as a verbatim rendition of the source message. This style would be very much in keeping with the models of the 1970's when "form" took precedence over "meaning."

Locker (1990) examined the accuracy of transliterated messages presented in college classrooms. She found that the errors made by interpreters fell into three categories: "misperception of the source message, lack of recognition of source forms, and failure to identify a target language equivalent" (Locker 1990: 167). The majority of interpreter errors fell into the last category. Her study raises concerns regarding the adequacy of the preparation interpreters receive regarding knowledge of semantic aspects of the ASL lexicon.

Siple (1993) analyzed how sign language interpreters use source message pausing when transliterating a message. She found the auditory pauses found in the source message take on a visual representation in the target message. Three types of pauses occurred: within-sentence,

between-sentence, and between-topics pausing. Interpreters expressed this change by using an empty pause (dropped or closed hands) which lasts at least 1.5 seconds, in combination with gaze shift. This study supported the idea that sign language interpreters not only convey the linguistic aspects of a message, but also visually convey the paralinguistics of a message.

The first attempt to analyze the various tasks involved in transliteration took place in the 1984 meeting of the Conference of Interpreter Trainers (CIT), an organization of educators of sign language interpreting. These educators assembled to conduct a task analysis of interpretation and transliteration. The need for this analysis stemmed from the desire of educators of interpreting to provide instruction that better addressed the numerous tasks involved in interpretation and transliteration (McIntire 1986).

The CIT analysis of transliteration resulted in the identification of 39 separate tasks. Some tasks addressed the specific information processing required (e.g., listening, understanding, attending, memory, pacing) while other tasks related to language skills (e.g., semantic search, grammatical search, syntactic search) (McIntire 1986). In addition to the task analysis, the CIT also identified several constraints associated with these tasks. "A major constraint is the lack of a conventionalized or standard form of English-like signing [PSE]. That is, unlike naturally evolved languages that do have standardize forms, intermediate varieties of signing are extremely variable. This can result in problems of intelligibility" (McIntire 1986: 94).

Message reliability is also a constraint in that "it is often the case that the transliterated message lacks sufficient grammatical information to accurately convey the intent" (McIntire 1986: 94). Given this serious constraint, the interpreter must employ a variety of strategies to ensure that the target message is meaningful and clear. Fundamental to all of these strategies are decisions regarding the comprehensibility of the source message and what changes need to occur in the target message to achieve clarity." Accurate transliteration often requires certain modifications or adjustments to the [source] message" (McIntire 1986: 96). For example, the interpreter might: omit portions of the source message, add information to the source message, and/or restructure information or lexical items (McIntire 1986).

Winston (1989) analyzed a transliterated message produced by one interpreter for one deaf client. Her purpose was "not to assess this form in terms of appropriateness… but rather to analyze the form in terms of strategies used" (Winston 1989: 152). Her study proposed "that the signed form is more than a simple re-coding of spoken English into signed English. It is a complex combination of features from ASL and English [PSE] and is accomplished by conscious strategies" (Winston 1989: 148). She identified five different strategies used by the interpreter: conceptual sign choice, mouthing, omission, restructuring, and addition. She found that these five categories of strategies were significant to the accomplishment of successful transliteration.

Conceptual sign choice is the selection of "a sign that portrays the meaning of the word rather than the form of the word" (155). For example, the English word "run" in the following sentences, has the same form; however, each has a different meaning.

I saw her running to the store. (Meaning- to move legs rapidly)

The motor was running. (Meaning- to move under continuing power)

The telephone bill is <u>running</u> $30.00. (Meaning- approximate amount)

He is <u>running</u> for office. (Meaning- to campaign as a candidate)

A conceptually accurate transliteration of these sentences would involve different signs for each of the English uses of the word RUNNING. For example, the conceptual sign choices would involve the use of signs glossed "RUN," "MOMENTUM," "APPROXIMATELY," and "COMPETE."

Winston's (1989) analysis found that the interpreter's message most frequently matched the speaker's intended meaning rather than the actual words. Her analysis also included English words that have no exact equivalent in ASL. Winston noted that these words are sometimes fingerspelled, thus depicting the most exact English form of the word. More frequently, she found that these words were represented using "a manual sign with similar meaning together with simultaneous English mouthing of the word" (Winston 1989: 157).

Examples from the Winston (1989) data that demonstrate the use of sign choice as a strategy, follows. The underlined word or phrase in the source message (SM) is conveyed in the target message (TM) using a conceptually accurate sign or sign combined with fingerspelling (upper case letters divided by dashes).

1) SM: for speech varieties which correspond <u>to</u> solidarity
   TM: WITH
2) SM: it looks like <u>everyone</u>
   TM: YOU-plural A-L-L
3) SM: could you <u>make it up</u>
   TM: INVENT (Winston 1989: 156)

Mouthing is the voiceless reproduction if the message on the lips of the interpreter. According to Winston (1989), mouthing is one strategy for visually representing English. She found that the mouthing used by the interpreter in her study varied. In some cases, the source word and mouthing were the same; however, the sign used was similar to in meaning (but not exactly equivalent to) the source. For exampleWinston (1989) found the interpreter consciously chose ASL signs that matched "the meaning of the speaker rather than the words of the speaker" (156).

<u>Source word</u>	<u>Sign</u>	<u>Mouthing</u>
assignment	HOMEWORK	"assignment"
brilliant	SMART	"brilliant"

In other situations, the mouthing more closely matched the sign gloss.

Source word	Sign	Mouthing
appear	SHOW-UP	"show-up"
normally	MOST TIME	"most time"

(Winston 1989: 157)

Winston was unable to determine a pattern to the relationship between sign choice and mouthing. However, during the interview the interpreter stated the amount of mental processing required influenced her decisions in this area. Winston's discussion of the interview data collected from the interpreter, states: in a difficult passage that requires a great deal of analysis, her mouthing is much more likely to be her own. When a passage requires less analysis to provide a clear target form, she can give greater attention to the reproducing of the original words in her mouth. This insight supports the suggestion that both pragmatic and linguistic goals determine the form of the transliteration (p, 157).

Another identified strategy was *omission* or elimination "of portions of the source language in the Target form" (Winston 1989: 160). As she stated, "many parts of English words and phrases are not necessary to the overall meaning in context; they are redundant" (160). Therefore, the interpreter will frequently omit unnecessary information in the target message.

Winston also found that the interpreter replaced one grammatical structure with another or used the strategy of restructuring. She differentiated this strategy from sign choice and addition in that restructuring generally involved the recording of information in longer utterances. The following are examples:

1) SM: I'm giving you week from today off
   TM: NEXT-WEEK MONDAY
2) SM: All you're after is one word
   TM: ONLY WANT ONE WORD
3) SM: if it's within sight then people will
   TM: I-F CAN SEE THAT PLACE

(Winston 1989: 156).

The data revealed that frequently strategies occurred in combination. As Winston pointed out, "these restructured discourse fragments are accompanied by mouthing of English words that correspond to the restructured form and not to the source message" (161).

Winston was unable to clarify how and why restructuring occurs. The interpreter's "explanation [of the various restructurings] was limited to an expressed awareness that some of the English utterances, as structured, would not provide a clear visual message when re-coded into the target form, and, therefore, she restructured them" (162).

Winston's analysis of the strategy of addition is of most relevance to the present study. She defined *addition* as "the use of a conceptually accurate sign either before or after a more literal equivalent"

(158). In her view, the use of addition as a strategy was perceived by the interpreter as necessary for clarity in the visual message. Although she interviewed the interpreter, her data do not indicate how the interpreter decided when and where to use an addition. She speculated that the interpreter, after having presented a vague or potentially ambiguous message, used an addition as a clarifier. For example:

4) SM: that place has to be within sight
   TM: INDEX IN-THIS-AREA

5) SM: a week from today
   TM: MONDAY

    Using Winston's study as the foundation for a further analysis of the use of additions, a preliminary study was conducted. As discussed below, the preliminary analysis revealed that the use of addition is a much more robust and complex function than previously thought.

Preliminary Analysis of the Use of Additions

    As previously discussed, Winston (1989) analyzed one interpreter's transliteration and identified five different strategies. One of these strategies was the use of addition (i.e., clarification). In an attempt to further analyze the use of addition and to provide further support for the present study, an analysis of one master interpreter's transliterated message served as a preliminary study. In a one-minuted segment, 29 additions were identified. These 29 additions fell into several categories. They functioned to provide cohesion, to emphasize, to clarify, and to serve as a modality adaptation.

Cohesion

    According to Halliday and Hasan (1979), cohesion is a semantic relation between an element in the text and some other element that is crucial to the interpretation of it (8). Cohesion provides links between parts of a text and makes it a complete unit. The preliminary analysis showed several examples of how the interpreter used an addition as a cohesive device. The following is a transcription[2] of the interpreter's transliteration:

    SM: We make predictions of content and we make predictions of organization.

    TM: <u>WE MAKE   PREDICTIONS OF   CONTENT</u>
        WE MAKE (SHIFT LEFT) PREDICT   O-F   C-O-N-T-E-N-T

        <u>AND WE MAKE   PREDICTIONS OF   ORGANIZATION</u>
        AND WE MAKE (SHIFT RIGHT) PREDICT   O-F   O-R-G-A-N-I-Z-A-T-I-O-N

    SM: for example, in terms of content

---

[2] The transcription of the interpreter's transliteration used the following system: Lower case type represents all spoken words of the source message (SM), upper case type represents the transliterated target message (TM) that consists of an upper tier and a lower tier. The upper tier shows the words that appeared on the mouth of the interpreter. The lower tier shows the signs produced by the interpreter. Each word presented in upper case type, is the common gloss for the sign. Fingerspelled words are represented by individual letters, separated with a dash.

TM: <u>FOR EXAMPLE   CONTENT</u>
         FOR EXAMPLE (<u>POINT LEFT</u>) FIRST (<u>POINT LEFT</u>) C-O-N-T-E-N-T

It is clear from the spoken text that the key terms to be discussed further are "content" and "organization." The interpreter spatially locates "content" on the left side of the signing space and "organization" on the right. She then points to the left location when referring to "content." These two ASL devices establish visual and spatial cohesion. In addition, the interpreter adds the sign FIRST in relation to the content. The addition of the ordinal provided cohesion back to "the two types" and the first reference of "content."

Emphasis

In spoken language, linguistic devices such as discourse markers provide emphasis, (e.g., "...and the most important point is…"). Emphasis can also be accomplished through the use of a paralinguistic device such as increased volume and/or over-articulation (e.g., ...I NEVER want to see that again…). In sign, one can emphasize by producing a sign larger, with more strength, and/or fingerspelling a specific word even though it may have a common sign equivalent. A more subtle strategy in sign and spoken language is to repeat key terms. For example,

SM: ok, the last thing a listener must do is evaluate while listening
TM: <u>FINALLY THE LISTENER MUST EVALUATE WHILE   LISTENING</u>
             <u>LAST   LISTENER MUST EVALUATE DURING HEAR</u>
             <u>EVALUATE</u>
             (<u>EVALUATE</u>)

The interpreter recognized this sentence as the introduction to the next topic (i.e., evaluation). She emphasized the topic by repeating EVALUATE at the end of the sentence.

Clarification

Winston (1989) speculated that the interpreter may have made use of the strategy of addition to remove ambiguities from the message. The preliminary analysis of addition supported this finding. For example:

SM: and you can predict organization
TM: <u>AND YOU CAN PREDICT ORGANIZATION   ORGANIZATION</u>
        AND YOU CAN PREDICT (O-R-G-A-N-I-Z-A-T-I-O-N ORGANIZATION)

In this example the interpreter first fingerspelled the word "organization" and then signed a sign that is commonly associated with several different English words (i.e., "organization," "plan," "prepare," "in order," and "arrange"). In this sentence, it appeared that the interpreter made a decision to first fingerspell the specific English word "organization" and then provide the less specific sign. Several factors may have influenced this decision. The speaker had already used the phrase "...to predict organization" as a key term in the lecture. In this specific example, the addition could function to clarify the specific English term. This addition also let the listener know that the next time the interpreter used the sign, it specifically meant "organization." In this way, the addition functioned as a clarifier of the present term and future instances of the sign.

Another type of clarification that addition served was to make implied information explicit. Communication is possible because the speaker and the listener share a system of inferential strategies. These strategies allow the listener to recognize the speaker's intent. However, spoken English and ASL do not share the same inferential strategies; therefore, the interpreter must often make implied communication explicit.

In the following example, the speaker is discussing how language differs between <u>lectures</u> and <u>everyday conversation</u>. At this point in the lecture, she has already given several examples of how language differs and then states the following sentence:

SM: So language is one thing that differs. The interpreter added "lecture and everyday conversation" again as a way of making explicit the implied information. In adding this information she also employed several cohesive devices.

TM: <u>SO LANGUAGE IS   ONE ASPECT THAT DIFFERS</u>
    S-O LANGUAGE TRUE ONE PART   THAT DIFFERENT (POINT LEFT)
    <u>   LECTURES AND   </u>.
    (SHIFT LEFT) (<u>LECTURE AND</u>) (POINT RIGHT) (SHIFT RIGHT)
    <u>EVERYDAY CONVERSATION</u>
    (<u>DAILY   CHAT</u>)

Modality Adaptations

A modality adaptation is an addition that visually communicates auditory or cultural aspects of the message. In the following example, the speaker gave an example how listeners make content predictions. The speaker presented the following words in a manner that required the listener to complete the sentence:

SM: because he loved to cook his favorite room was (pause) right, kitchen

TM: <u>BECAUSE HE LOVED TO COOK HIS   FAVORITE ROOM WAS   THE</u>
    BECAUSE H-E LOVE   T-O COOK POSS FAVORITE ROOM W-A-S T-H-E

        <u>   RIGHT   KITCHEN</u>
    <u>OPEN-HAND</u> CORRECT KITCHEN

For the hearing listener, the request to supply the words "kitchen" comes from several auditory devices; the emphasis and drawn out pronunciation of the word "the," the rise in intonation, and the length of the pause. The interpreter communicated these auditory aspects using the visual modality. In this example the gesture OPEN-HAND, accompanied by a questioning look and the body moved

slightly forward, let the audience know they were expected to say something at this point. Thus, the interpreter used an addition to adapt the auditory message to the visual modality.

The preliminary study on the use of additions during transliteration confirmed the use of the strategy. Furthermore, additions were found to possess several different functions. This preliminary study provided the foundation for a further analysis of the strategy of addition as used by sign language interpreters during transliteration. Readers are directed to Siple (1995) for a complete discussion of this latter study.

References

Anderson, G. & L. Staffer. 1990. <u>Identifying standards for the training of interpreters for deaf people</u>. Little Rock, AK: University of Arkansas Rehabilitation Research and Training Center on Deafness and Hearing Impairment.

Caccamise, F., R. Dirst, R. DeVries, J. Heil, C. Kirchner, S. Kirchner, A Rinaldi & J. Stangarone 1980. <u>Introduction to interpreting for interpreters/transliterators, hearing-impaired consumers, hearing consumers</u>. Silver Spring, MD: Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf.

Cokely, D. 1981. Demographic characteristics of interpreters. <u>The Reflector</u>, <u>1</u>, 21-28.

DuBow, S., S. Geer & K. Strauss. 1992. <u>Legal rights: The guide for deaf and hard of hearing people</u> (4th ed.). Washington, DC: Gallaudet University Press.

Fisher, B. 1978. <u>Perspectives on human communication</u>. New York: Macmillan Publishing.

Fleischer, L. 1975. <u>Sign language interpreting under four conditions</u>. Unpublished doctoral dissertations, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT.

Frishberg, N. 1986. <u>Interpreting: An introduction</u>. Silver Spring, MD: Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf.

Halliday, M. & R. Hasan. 1976. <u>Cohesion in English</u>. London: Longman

Ingram, R. 1974. A communication model of the interpreting process. <u>Journal of Rehabilitation of the Deaf</u>, <u>7</u>, 3-9.

Kannapell, B. 1982. Inside the deaf community. <u>Issues in Applied Linguistics</u>, <u>1</u>, 167-195.

McIntire, M. (Ed.). 1986. <u>New dimensions in interpreter education: Task analysis, theory, and application</u>. Silver Spring, MD: Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf.

Quigley, S.P. & J. Youngs. 1965. <u>Interpreting for deaf people</u>. Washington D.C.: United States Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Vocational Rehabilitation Administration.

RID Editor. 1994, March. National interpreter crisis declared. <u>RID Views, 11</u>, 3. p.1.

Roy, C. 1992. A sociolinguistic analysis of the interpreter's role in simultaneous talk in a face-to-face interpreted dialogue. <u>Sign Language Studies</u>. <u>74</u>, 21-61,

Siple, L. 1995. The use of additional sign language transliteration. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of New York, Buffalo, NY.

Siple, L. 1982. <u>A resource guide of training programs: Interpreting for the hearing impaired</u>. Silver Spring, MD: Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf and Conference of Interpreter Trainers.

Winston, E. 1989. Transliteration: What's the message? In C. Lucas (Ed.), <u>The sociolinguistics of the deaf community</u>. San Diego, CA: Academic Press, Inc. 147-164.