What should be included in (public service) interpreter education?

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Abstract

Students of public service interpreting (PSI) come from a variety of backgrounds. A typical group of interpreting students generally includes a mix of students from different immigrant communities and from majority population groups. Students' educational backgrounds vary widely, as do their personal and professional experiences with interpreting. Although this heterogeneity proves challenging in terms of creating a level playing field for all students, it is also an asset, inasmuch as it facilitates the creation of learning communities (Bielaczyc & Collins 1999). Although training approaches and methods have been much discussed in the literature, often in papers reporting on research carried out in classroom environments (e.g., Napier 2013), there are relatively few publications generally focused on pedagogy in interpreter training (see, however, Sawyer 2004 and Gile 2009). This article discusses training of public service interpreters and the pedagogical approach employed in this context, in order to suggest ways to create a level playing field for all students using pedagogical and methodological approaches commonly encountered in higher education settings, including critical incident technique (Chell 2004), constructive alignment (Biggs 2003), and experiential learning (Kolb 1984).

1.   Introduction

This article discusses how interpreter education can ensure that all students of public service interpreting (PSI) are given the best possible conditions to develop their skills and knowledge. It describes pedagogical ideas underlying interpreter education and pedagogical and didactic methods that can provide students from different backgrounds the tools they need to complete their education and succeed in the workplace. The points addressed in the paper are widely applicable to a variety of contexts; however, we have drawn on our own experiences to illustrate them.

Tiselius' experience of interpreter training started with teaching conference interpreting in the late 1990s. She has had experience with seven different interpreter training programs in Europe in the areas of conference interpreting, PSI, and sign language interpreting. Tiselius also has a wide network of colleagues teaching interpreting on other continents. Her knowledge and experience of interpreter training is in line with the description of training courses described by Sawyer (2004). Herring was trained in the program described by Sawyer (ibid.). She later completed the Masters of Advanced Studies in Interpreter Training offered at the University of Geneva and is now part of the teaching staff for the course. She has worked as an interpreter in public service settings for twenty years and has taught in a language-neutral community-college training program for public service interpreters since 2011. She is also familiar with education of signed language interpreters in the United States.

Training for public service interpreters is offered in different types of academic and non-academic settings in different countries (see, for example, D'Hayer 2012; Mikkelson 2014; Foulquié-Rubio, Vargas-Urpi, & Fernández Pérez 2018; Burdeus-Domingo et al. 2021, Crezee 2021, Manfredi & Lázaro Gutiérrez 2021, and Šveda 2021). Interpreter training can be geared towards PSI, conference interpreting, or both. For example, Stockholm University (Sweden) has a program that offers separate programs in PSI (BA-level) and conference interpreting (MA-level), while Century College (USA) offers an undergraduate level Certificate and Diploma focused solely on PSI. The discussion of pedagogy and didactics in this article addresses training at post-secondary level, including Nordic folk high schools.[1] Given its scope and limitations of

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[1] Folk high schools in northern Europe (Finland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, Germany, Austria) provide post-secondary education for adults, often publicly funded. The pedagogical philosophy (based on Danish theologist Grundtvig) sees education as universal and common. Although folk high schools may teach academic topics, they do not grant academic

space, it does not discuss specific exercises involved in learning to interpret.

Training programs aim to equip students with strategies for dealing with real-time bilingual translation as well as relational and coordination challenges in complex and variable situations. Skaaden (2013b, 13) highlights the need for students to develop 'know-how' rather than 'know-that'—that is, students' learning must be situated and they must be able to put their knowledge into practice. In addition, teachers in training programs which include both practical and theoretical components often face major challenges in accommodating and aligning these two aspects (Skaaden 2013b).

Although much of what we discuss also applies to teaching interpreting between a signed and a spoken language or two signed languages, this paper focuses primarily on interpreting between spoken languages. A major difference between programs for interpreters of combinations of spoken languages and for interpreters of combinations involving signed languages is that students with combinations involving only spoken languages are usually assumed to have acquired their languages before beginning their studies, and thus study mainly or only interpreting, while students who have a spoken<>signed language combination are generally understood to be acquiring the signed language during their training (Peterson 2022; Napier, McKee & Goswell 2011).

2.   Heterogeneity of students' backgrounds

High-level proficiency in two or more languages is a *sine qua non* for acquisition of professional-level interpreting and translation skills. As mentioned above, prospective interpreters with spoken language combinations are generally expected to have said fluency before beginning a training program. Admission processes commonly include aspects intended to screen out candidates who do not have sufficient knowledge of two (or more) working languages to pass an interpreting course in the specified time (Tiselius 2022; Skaaden 2016; Tiselius & Wadensjö 2016; Skaaden 2012, 2013b; Corsellis 2008). Oral tests are used to form a picture of the candidate's receptive and expressive language proficiency. Thus, in the case of spoken language combinations, we are not discussing 'language training,' but rather training of interpreting skills—training in which languages are a tool for learning, but not the focus of learning. Moreover, PSI training requires students to be

degrees. They are open to students regardless of prior completion of secondary education (Frímannsson 2006).

bidirectionally active, working both into and out of all the languages in their combination.[2]

Despite the expectation that learners will begin training with a high level of proficiency in at least two languages, there is also commonly a large amount of variation in the individual language profiles of students in a given cohort. In the case of PSI, many students are likely to come from refugee and immigrant communities and have acquired some or all of their knowledge of the in-common language of instruction (hereafter, LoI) as adults, outside the country's primary and secondary educational system. Other students may have immigrated as children, and thus have completed some or all of their primary and secondary education in the LoI. Still other students may have grown up using the LoI at school and speaking another language at home (that is, they are heritage speakers of a language other than the LoI). Some portion of the student population may also be L1 speakers of the LoI, having acquired additional languages via formal schooling or other life experiences (e.g., living abroad). What a 'high level of proficiency' looks like in practice may vary as well, with some students having more symmetric language profiles and others more asymmetric profiles, which has implications for their development of interpreting skill (see Tiselius and Englund Dimitrova 2019; Hulstijn 2015).

The educational background of students admitted to interpreter training programs also varies widely. Some students will have completed some schooling in the country in which the program is located, and thus be familiar with the local educational system, while others will have had no or little prior experience with the educational system in which they find themselves. Some students may have previously completed university degrees, while others may have never before been enrolled in a tertiary-level program of study.

The heterogeneity of language profiles and educational backgrounds found in PSI classrooms poses a number of challenges for trainers (see Valero Garcés 2019). For instance, students with differing backgrounds and language profiles may benefit from different approaches and strategies (see, for example, Mellinger & Jiménez 2019 and Martínez Gómez 2020, 2021 on heritage speakers of Spanish in the interpreting

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[2] This is in distinct contrast to the general situation in traditional/European Master's level conference interpreting programs. Although interpreters of some language combinations are commonly expected to work bidirectionally between an A and a B language, even in simultaneous, many interpreters have a multi-leveled language combination composed of multiple B and C languages. The former (B) are languages into which they will work only consecutively, and the latter (C) are passive languages into which they never work, in any mode.

classroom). As trainers, our goal must be to provide learning opportunities that are relevant and effective for all of our students. While this is true for any teacher of any subject, we argue that it is particularly so in the case of public service interpreter training, as we are preparing professionals who will play a key role in ensuring that all members of our communities have meaningful access to essential services. In the following sections we discuss theoretical foundations and practical approaches to PSI pedagogy and didactics.

3.   Interpreter training

This section describes the traditional approach to spoken-language interpreter training, both in terms of the elements included in training and relevant pedagogical approaches. The pedagogical ideas discussed here are drawn from both general educational and domain-specific theory and practice.

3.1. Elements covered in interpreter training

Traditionally, interpreter training comprises both practical (hands-on) and theoretical components (Sawyer 2004; Hale 2007; Gile 2009; Setton & Dawrant 2016). The practical portions of training are carried out through a systematic, stepwise approach, in which students are guided through the acquisition of the various skills and expected to engage in independent practice activities aimed at developing those skills (Herring et al. 2022). Such training generally identifies specific levels of performance/skill expected at various points throughout the training (Gile 2009).

Several authors of volumes or chapters about public service interpreter training have discussed the skills and knowledge required for the task and which therefore should be developed through training; see, for example, Gentile, Ozolins & Vasilakakos (1996), Corsellis (2008), Angelelli (2017, 2020), and Ozolins (2017). We reproduce here the list provided by Hale (2007, 22):

1. language skills,
2. interpreting skills, including:
    (a) note-taking techniques,
    (b) modes of interpreting (e.g., consecutive and simultaneous),
    (c) situational management,
    (d) the ability to deconstruct and reconstruct a message,
    (e) making difficult/complex decisions under pressure,
    (f) concentration, listening, and use of long and short-term memory,
3. conscious theoretical understanding of the reasons behind interpreting choices.

As discussed above, interpreting students with spoken language combinations typically begin their training aware that they will be working with both (or all) their languages, and, in most cases, they know what interpreting 'means' or 'is' prior to beginning training.

The hands-on part of many interpreter training courses begins with exercises focused on developing listening, analysis, and memory skills, followed by consecutive without notes. Later, the basics of note-taking techniques and interpreting with notes are introduced, as well as sight translation. Students also learn about dialogue interpreting, including the structure of conversations/discourse and strategies for managing the flow of a conversation in a dialogue without 'directing' or 'controlling' the situation. Additional practical areas addressed in training include topic preparation skills (that is, strategies for effective preparation for assignments, including acquisition of relevant concepts and vocabulary), effective practice and self-assessment skills, and online situational management and decision-making. Interpreters may also learn simultaneous interpreting; some PSI courses do not include simultaneous, while others teach simultaneous in the whispered mode, and yet others simultaneous with equipment and booths.

In addition to the many hands-on practice activities required to develop interpreting skills, learners must also be introduced to theory. A principal aim of the theoretical component of training is to develop the learner's conscious, theory-based understanding of the rationale for interpreters' choices (Hale 2007, 22) and meta-linguistic understanding of their own interpreting (Tiselius & Englund Dimitrova 2023). Prospective interpreters must also learn about communication theory; ethics, decision-making, and professional discretion; the various cognitive, social, and interactional processes involved in interpreting; effective preparation for interpreting assignments; standard practices such as pre-session introductions; and strategies for maintaining composure/professional decorum even in difficult situations (Sawyer 2004; Gile 2009; Setton 2010; Skaaden 2013a; Angelleli 2017; Ozolins 2017; Orlando 2016, 2019).

3.2. Pedagogical ideas from inside and outside interpreter education

Interpreter education is a relatively young field, and education of public service interpreters even younger. Interpreting pedagogy in the last half of the 20th century was heavily influenced by the approach discussed by Seleskovitch and Lederer (1995), who describe best practices in interpreter training as developed in the conference interpreting program at the University of the Sorbonne, in Paris, from a practical and experiential perspective. This approach is characterized by

strong features of both behaviorist and cognitive pedagogy (Pritchard 2017). It is behaviorist in that the student is expected to observe and repeat what the teacher does, and if the student performs in a way that the teacher thinks is correct, the student passes. Theorizing about learning is not a focus of this perspective; rather, it is expected that the student will learn by following the teacher's instructions and examples. The training is also cognitive in that it places emphasis on working memory capacity as a factor in interpreting performance and encourages teaching of terminology and acquisition of background knowledge in order to reduce the load on working memory during interpreting.

Contemporary approaches to interpreting pedagogy retain ideas from Seleskovitch and Lederer, but many programs, especially those focused on PSI, tend to be more constructivist and geared towards the development of reflective practice (see Orlando 2016 for discussion of historical trends in approaches to interpreter education and Pritchard 2017 for pedagogical approaches in general). In these programs, students are taught to think critically and reflectively about their skill development, performance, and decision-making during the interpreting task (Skaaden 2013b). In this approach, both individual practice and formative/summative assessments take into account not only the teacher's perspective on the student's performance, but also learners' own reflections on and assessments of their developing skills.

In his review of interpreter training curricula, Sawyer (2004, 5) points to the need for interpreter education to be more firmly grounded in pedagogical principles. In many cases, interpreter education is still situated within an apprenticeship/journeyman framework, in which practicing interpreters train their future colleagues, primarily from a practical/experiential perspective. The process of interpreter training is thus also in part a process of socialization into a professional habitus (Bourdieu 1977; Tiselius 2010). In the years since Sawyer's (2004) study, many scholars have discussed and researched interpreter education, in particular through classroom-based empirical studies (e.g., Takeda 2010; Napier 2013). However, despite the existence of such studies, a common feature of the interpreting literature after Seleskovitch is that it focuses on didactics (i.e., what is to be taught, and the aims and means of doing so) rather than pedagogy (the basis of the education itself).

Practice is an important component of interpreter training, and the various interpreting modes and techniques cannot be mastered without extensive practice. A pedagogically-grounded approach to interpreter training must therefore have practice integrated throughout; this practice should preferably be reflective and constructive in nature (Herring et al. 2022).

A number of pedagogical traditions can be productively drawn on in order to establish such an approach. Four major pedagogical traditions have been described in the literature—behaviorist, cognitive,

constructivist, and sociocultural. The latter two are currently highly influential in the Western world (Pritchard 2017). Constructivism is based on theories developed by Piaget and Dewey. In this tradition, learning is viewed as arising from the individual's experiences; the learner constructs his or her learning on the basis of existing knowledge. Cognitive constructivism refers to how the individual learns, and social constructivism refers to how learning takes place in social interaction between people and also interaction between different media (Pritchard 2017). Sociocultural or social constructivist approaches to pedagogy are based on Vygotsky's theories (Vygotsky 1978; Borich & Tombari 1997) on the importance of the social environment for learning. Social constructivism draws on Vygotsky's ideas—that social interaction and language are crucial for learning, and that learning most productively takes place in an optimal window, or zone, which encompasses tasks that the learner is able to perform with sufficient external support or scaffolding—but puts a strong focus on the importance of peer interaction for learning. In these approaches, learning is understood to occur within a social context and elements of real-world activities or situations are integrated into the learning environment and teaching/learning activities (i.e., the sociocultural tradition). In Vygotsky's view, language is the tool that connects individuals with others and with ideas in their environment and therefore has a central role to play in shaping the individual to become part of a community and a culture (Pritchard 2017). This process of shaping and adaptation does not take place in isolation within educational environments, Vygotsky argues, but rather in a wider context.

Kiraly (2000) critiques the traditional transmissionist approach to translator education, and instead advocates for adoption of social constructivism. Kiraly believes that translator education must become contextualized and more similar to the professional life of translators. Interpreter training, in contrast, has generally been more constructivist than translator training. Many elements of interpreter training are directly related to the profession of interpreting, with the aim of making students aware of 'real-world' working conditions. Interpreter education fits neatly within a social constructivist approach, since social interaction is inherently involved in both interpreting and in education of interpreters (see Orlando 2016; Angelelli 2017, 2020). While it can be argued that a student of translation needs only herself and her text to translate (although of course there is a convincing argument to be made for the benefits of interaction in the teaching of translation), a student of PSI cannot interpret in the absence of social interaction.

An important aspect of pedagogy for trainers to consider is whether students understand what the expected study outcomes are and how learning activities are related to the objectives. If this is not clear to students, they often perceive teaching as meaningless (Biggs 2003, 23).

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One method of increasing students' understanding of these aspects of training is constructive alignment (Biggs 2003), which involves planning teaching activities in a way that is meaningful in relation to the expected learning outcomes and assessments. Much of this planning also involves the teacher focusing not on what students should learn, but rather on how students should go about learning. Learning thus becomes something that students do in order to achieve a deeper understanding, rather than something they do primarily in order to reach graduation. Biggs (2003, 24) also emphasizes that students learn most from what they do themselves and do not learn as much from what the teacher does.

Meaningful learning of the sort described by Biggs (2003) can be difficult to achieve when the learners in a classroom come from very different backgrounds in terms of things like previous education and lived experience. Skaaden (2013b, 12) suggests experiential learning as a way to address this challenge. Kolb (1984, 41) describes experiential learning as a cycle involving experience, reflection, abstraction, and active experimentation. The first step, concrete experience, can be created in the teaching situation through a classroom exercise or activity, but it can also be something that the students have brought with them from previous experiences, or a case for discussion. The important thing is that it should be a practical (active, experiential) experience. In step two (reflective observation) students take the concrete experience (lived or relived through a case) and discuss it in a meta-situation. In the third step (abstract contextualization) the experience is put into a theoretical context, and in the fourth and final step (active experimentation) the experience is tested (e.g., in a role play). This pedagogical approach thus emphasizes real-world conditions and the social context. In conference interpreting, this approach has been explored by D'Hayer (2006). Herring & Swabey (2017) also provide a detailed overview and discussion of experiential learning in interpreter education.

Another pedagogical approach well-suited to students from different backgrounds is genre pedagogy, which was developed in Australia and has become popular in primary schools. The basic idea of genre pedagogy is to scaffold language in order to scaffold learning (Gibbons 2015). It draws on Vygotsky's theory of learning, Halliday's theory of language (systemic-functional grammar), and Martin and Rothery's theory of school genres (see, for example, Borich & Tombari 1997; Halliday & Matthiessen 2004; Martin & Rothery 1993). The core of the method is making genre visible both by building knowledge about the subject area and by reading texts about the topic being focused on. Genre pedagogy is not unlike Kolb's (1984) experiential learning, but focuses on experiences with and knowledge of different kinds of texts. It is a way of working with texts (including conversations), and it can be used in many different subject areas. Tebble's (2009) study, which reports on the Australian context, suggests how genre pedagogy can be used by interpreting students. By

understanding different speech acts in the interactions to be interpreted (medical conversation in Tebble's case), students can examine the extent to which communication was effective and what could be changed to improve communication in the situation.

A review of pedagogical approaches to interpreter training must also include learning communities. This concept is often associated with digital learning (Scardamalia & Bereiter 1994). However, as Bielaczyc and Collins (1999) point out, a learning community is characterized by a learning culture in which everyone is engaged in a common quest for understanding; the definition is not only applicable to online situations. Bielaczyc and Collins set out four conditions for such a learning culture: a broad expertise among members (where these individuals are seen as experts and are given the opportunity to develop); a common goal of constantly increasing shared knowledge and skills; a focus on learning how to learn; and finally, structures for sharing what has been learned. According to Scardamalia and Bereiter (2006), constructivist learning is dynamic in the sense that students build their own knowledge rather than reproduce knowledge— knowledge is thus something that is constantly being created anew. In interpreting, D'Hayer (2012) has explored the learning community and the communities of practice. She argues that for PSI, communities of practice are a tool for interpreters to share knowledge beyond traditional classroom settings.

Discussions of pedagogy in higher education often focus on the use of different teaching methods and the importance of structuring learning activities such that students with differing motivations and approaches to learning will be successful in understanding and achieving common learning outcomes (Biggs 2003, 58). The challenge faced by interpreter educators is different than that described by Biggs (2003, 58). Interpreter educators are rarely faced with issues of learners lacking motivation or understanding of the learning process; rather, they generally encounter highly motivated learners with quite disparate backgrounds in terms of their prior educational, professional, and lived experiences. So, returning to Kolb's (1984) and Biggs' (2003) insistence on the need for common understanding and experiences as part of learning, the challenge for interpreter educators becomes how to create such experiences-in-common and how to create learning communities within interpreting programs whose students have such disparate backgrounds.

Let us consider, for example, role-playing of dialogues. Role-playing of interactions and scenarios is a common method used in teaching of PSI. A student who has no experience of in the public sector may find it difficult to put the role play into context. Most people can make a personal connection or 'place' themselves fairly realistically in a role-play dialogue that takes place in the emergency room. However, if they are asked to role-play an interaction at a career/employment services office, but have never been in such a situation, they may not be able to enter

into such a scenario with ease or in a natural fashion. Another area where students' prior experiences come into play is when they are assigned an academic text to read and discuss, or when they are asked to write an essay or extended reflection. Such activities may present additional challenges for students without previous experience in higher education or who do not have strong reading/writing skills in the language they are being asked to use.

We believe that interpreter education in general would benefit from adopting a social constructivist pedagogical approach and consciously employing the pedagogical methods described above, namely, experiential learning, genre pedagogy, learning communities, and a coherent approach shared by the teaching staff within a given program. In the following section, we describe our own and others' experiences in implementing such approaches.

4.   Pedagogy and didactics of interpreter training

In this section, we suggest approaches to working effectively with and creating learning communities among heterogeneous groups of students like those described above. The aim is not to provide a complete course description or syllabus, but rather to show how interpreting courses can be built on strong pedagogical and didactic bases. Additional in-depth discussion of teaching practices and approaches for public service interpreter training can be found in volumes such as Rudvin and Tomassini (2011), Cirillo and Niemants (2017), and Gavioli and Wadensjö (2023). It should be noted that although the pedagogical and didactic methods discussed here have been tested and used, there is no empirical data available to demonstrate their effectiveness in terms of achieving aims such as higher pass rates.

4.1. Creating common ground and safe learning environments

Most university and college courses start with some form of introduction, presenting the objectives of the course and expected learning outcomes. It is, however, perhaps easier for the teacher to know what is expected of the students than for the students to know what they should expect from the course. According to Biggs (2003), the latter aspect is important for creating a common understanding of the teaching and learning process, including aspects such as what will be learned, how it will be learned, and, most importantly, why it is going to be learned. The introductory segment of the course naturally includes a review of the expected learning outcomes and how they will be achieved. In our experience, coverage of these aspects is not novel; it is usually done in some way or another in the vast majority of classes.

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It is useful to find out about the language and interpreting background of the students during this introductory phase of the course. One way of doing this, which also lays the foundation for a learning community and for experiential learning, is to use what is known as critical incident technique (Chell 2004). This involves having students write a reflection on a critical incident, which is defined as an event that is meaningful to the individual (such events are not necessarily dramatic or negative, however). Before the course starts, students are given the task of describing a critical event from their interpreting or language background; the teacher also shares an event. The critical incidents can be shared and discussed in an initial or early course meeting, using a series of questions such as: Why did I experience the situation in this way? What prior expectations did I have of the situation? Could the situation be perceived in a different way? What could I have done instead? What should I do in the future in similar situations?

In our experience, students are most active in the discussion when they are discussing things they or their peers have experienced or witnessed. By using critical incidents as a starting point, both teacher and students can build community and learn about each other's backgrounds and prior experiences. These insights are invaluable to the teacher in terms of better understanding the profiles of the students. At the same time these discussions serve as basis for creating the communities of practice in interpreting discussed by D'Hayer (2012). The creation of learning communities can be reinforced by continued intentional efforts throughout the duration of the class or course, including learning activities that highlight individual learners' different backgrounds and strengths.

A related consideration is establishing parameters and expectations *vis-à-vis* the learning environment. Interpreting is a performance skill and, as such, learning to interpret involves doing the skill, usually in the presence of others, and engaging in critical reflection and discussion of one's performance with others. Language is necessary for interpreting, and language is closely tied up with our identity, our sense of self. As a consequence, students may conflate comments on performance or language use with comments on themselves as a person. In order to mitigate the possibility of psychological harm or threats to self-concept, teachers can work to establish a psychologically safe learning environment, where mistakes and errors are seen as opportunities for growth and development (as in Kolb's (1984) experiential learning), and which establishes clear parameters for constructive and positive interactions among all members of the community. The process of creating shared expectations for behavior and interaction amongst community members can be a collaborative one, in which students are active participants.

4.2. Becoming familiar with settings & genres

As discussed above, interpreting students need to acquire techniques and strategies relevant to a range of situations. While such techniques may be difficult to master, learning about the various settings and genres of interactions that they will encounter in their work is perhaps even more difficult.

The first aspect learners must become familiarized with is the different types of institutional interactions (e.g., healthcare, legal, social services). Students who already have personal experience of these types of settings and situations can draw on that personal experience as they learn. However, for those students who do not have personal experience to draw on, the teacher will need to provide opportunities for gaining such experience. This can be achieved by activities such as use of videos portraying the setting, bringing realia into the classroom, and field trips or study visits to relevant locations (see Crezee 2015; Niemants et al. 2023).

A second aspect of genre that learners must learn about is how institutional and public service interactions are structured. For example, Tebble (2009, 209) describes the 'genre' of medical consultations, and identifies the following segments or parts within them: greeting; introduction, which also consolidates the contact; presentation of the problem; identification of the facts (diagnosis); presentation of the solution (patient decision); review of remaining problems; closure; dismissal. Tebble says that if students are aware of the structure of the conversation at this micro level, they are more able to analyze interpreting choices and identify areas of strength and areas for improvement.

By analyzing both their own and others' interpretations based on these conversational structures, students can learn from their own and others' situational management, co-construction of meaning during conversation, and structuring of messages. Recordings of interactions interpreted by professional interpreters can serve as models and stimuli in the classroom. Students can work together in class to identify the structure of the interactions and to analyze the interpreter's choices. An example of this is the CARM method (Stokoe 2014). The internet is an excellent resource for this aspect of interpreter training, as it allows students to observe and analyze the work of different interpreters and the content and structure of different interpreted conversations before beginning to analyze their own performances. This didactic method combines genre pedagogy (Tebble 2009; Gibbons 2015) and experiential learning (Kolb 1984; Skaaden 2013b). A challenge with this type of open discussion, as Skaaden also points out (2013b: 18), is that 'strong' students with dissenting opinions risk taking over the situation and suggesting answers that may not correspond to accepted practice.

Skaaden calls this the *set-answer issue*: students begin looking for the set-answer, and if the teacher does not give it to them, there is a risk that another student with interpreting experience will take over and give something that the other students perceive as a set-answer. By combining the study of the genre (including 'good' and 'less good' examples of monolingual interactions and interpreted interactions) with experience-based discussions, it is hoped that such problems can be avoided.

Another approach to increasing students' familiarity with discourse patterns and genres is to carry out multi-part activities (mirroring the stages of Kolb's experiential learning cycle) in which students engage with both theory and practice related to various aspects of the interpreted interaction. For example, Herring's first-semester students are asked to use an adapted version of Hymes' (1974) SPEAKING mnemonic to analyze and compare three different genres of monolingual interactions. Later, over the course of their second semester of training, they are asked to read three sets of scholarly publications focused on three topics: turn-taking and interaction management; discourse and interviewing patterns; and trust, rapport, and politeness. After discussing the readings as a class, the students carry out and discuss exercises designed to help them apply what they have learned. These exercises include reflection, analysis of videos, interpreting and analysis of their own interpretations, and analysis of case studies.

4.3. Learning to practice & analysis of one's own interpreting performance

Practice is the foundation of interpreter training. If students do not practice, they cannot build skills and integrate new knowledge. But how does the teacher know that the student is practicing? How can we ensure that students practice in a targeted and effective way? In a study on conference interpreters and practice, Tiselius found that while interpreters spent a lot of time on things that support effective interpreting performance, they did so intuitively, rather than with a conscious mindset of working toward performance improvement; the interpreters in the study felt that they did not practice, and that they had never learned to practice (Tiselius 2013; see Albl-Mikasa 2013 for similar findings). Other researchers have found that results are far better when practice is well-structured and targets specific goals (Ericsson et al. 1993). The importance of incorporating high-quality practice focused on development of interpreting skills into public service interpreter education has been highlighted by Herring, et al. (2022).

As teachers, we have the responsibility to create opportunities for goal-oriented practice. If the course begins as in the example above with the class jointly analyzing their own and others' interpretations, a natural

next step is for students to perform interpretations and subsequently analyze their own work. This is a good way for students to increase their ability to engage in critical self-assessment. However, in our experience, this type of activity can easily deteriorate into an exercise in identifying 'right' and 'wrong,' rather than of more in-depth engagement and discussion (see also 4.1 on safe environments). As noted by Herring, et al. (2022, 86), teachers "cannot expect learners to automatically know what we mean by the instruction to 'self-assess';" this point holds true as well for knowing how to practice effectively. Teachers must integrate into their courses relevant instruction and scaffolding intended to help learners develop the ability to practice and self-assess effectively, including providing "guidance with regard to such aspects as relevant parameters and benchmarks for their current level of skill" (Herring et al. 2022, 86).

One way for the exercise of analysis of one's own performance to be as effective as possible is for students to master genre analysis and have worked together to analyze others' interpreting performances, as described above. Exposing students from the outset to a process-oriented conceptualization of learning and skill acquisition further strengthens their reflective practice (see Mazzei & Jay-Rayon Ibrahim Aibo 2022). With the teacher's prompting and guidance, students can identify the areas of skill and knowledge required for interpreting; this can be done as early as the first class, as the students generally bring substantial prior knowledge and experience to their training.[3] They can then be introduced to basic concepts related to skill acquisition and development and the idea that during their training they will be working to acquire skill and knowledge within a systematic, stepwise progression.

The exercise of analyzing one's own interpreting performance begins with video-recording the student's performance during a practice session. The student is then given access to the recording so as to analyze their own performance and comment on their choices within the genre in question, their handling of the situation, the effectiveness of the communication, and how they handled stress, or whatever specific aspect(s) have been identified as goals for the exercise. Role plays can be scripted (closed) or improvised (open), and the analysis portion of the exercise often works best if students are provided with a clear template to follow (Dahnberg 2023).

Recordings of interpretations can also function as concrete experiences that can later serve as the basis for group discussions. For example, students can discuss the recording as a group and provide peer

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[3] The activity thus doubly useful, as it allows the trainer to get an idea of what knowledge learners bring to the class, and where there may be the need to re-direct some students' prior understanding of some aspects (see the discussion in the previous section about set-answers.)

feedback. Teachers may wish to grade the group's comments, as well. A note of caution, however: students must be taught about and given the opportunity to practice giving effective peer feedback before these additional steps can be undertaken. Video recording of one's interpretations can be very stressful for students, as we have witnessed in our own classes. Analysis of one's own interpreting, as described here, draws on genre pedagogy and can also be understood as part of Kolb's circle, as described above.

4.4. Field trips and internships

Since interpreting students have very different backgrounds, field trips are a good way to create shared experiences. Students can be taken to visit agencies and organization where interpreting takes place. Some students do not have personal experience with many aspects of public services (with the possible exception of schools and health care facilities), while others have substantial experience with public services. Field trips thus create a common experience and understanding for students. They are perhaps easier to organize for a group of students who all live and study in the same place; however, online students can also organize individual visits to sites of interest and can share their experiences through reflections and reports.

Programs can also include formal internship or practicum experiences for students, organized in accordance with local regulations. Internship or practicum courses can be planned and structured in such a way that the students and teachers have opportunities to debrief and discuss, so that students can learn from each other's experiences and connections between classroom-based learning and on-site learning can be made and expanded upon. In some contexts, it may be possible to do such group debriefing and consolidation of learning as part of the internship course itself; in others, an additional course may be created to be paired with the internship (for example, Stockholm University has a stand-alone internship course, while Century College pairs a one-credit ethics & decision-making course with the internship).

4.5. Theory and terminology

This section discusses the last item on Hale's (2007, 22) list of necessary skills in the interpreting process: theoretical understanding. In order to attain this theoretical understanding, students study texts related to language and interpreting. Skaaden (2012, 27) describes a method in which students read texts that are subsequently discussed in chat forums. However, these texts are often written in English and often for an academic audience (Herring & Gieshoff under review). In Scandinavia, this is usually manageable for students who have aquired advanced

English competence in high school or who may have undertaken university-level studies prior to their training as an interpreter. However, these types of texts can be a major barrier for students without these experiences. Even in English-speaking countries, students who have learned English later in life and/or who have not previously attended college may have difficulty. We also do not mean to suggest that there are no relevant theoretical texts for public service interpreters not published in English. However, given that PSI students are very often non-native speakers of the majority language of the country in which they are studying, they may still encounter difficulty in engaging with theoretical texts in that language.

In the same way that genre pedagogy (Tebble 2009; Skaaden 2013b) can be used to understand different genres in interpreted conversation, it can be employed to help students manage academic texts. All students can benefit from reading academic texts together and discussing what genre they belong to and what the reader can expect from that genre, as a first step. Appropriate scaffolding of texts is also indicated. Before a text is assigned, the teacher can offer a brief lecture or discussion in which key points or potentially difficult elements are introduced and explained. This can be done during class or in a pre-recorded video. The teacher can also use class time for activities or presentations intended to sensitize learners to the issues at hand or introduce key concepts. For example, before they read academic papers on turn-taking and interaction management in interpreting (see above), Herring and her students watch and discuss videos intended to introduce students of linguistics to these topics. Another helpful approach is to provide students with a reading guide or list of prompts to be responded to while reading. This can direct students' attention to specific aspects of the material or ask them to respond or react in some way. It also gives the students something concrete they can refer to during class discussion and, in the case of the student who is reluctant to speak up in class, allows the teacher to see (after having collected the completed worksheet) whether specific aspects or concepts were difficult for one or another student.

Strategies for working with terminology can also be introduced in connection with this aspect of training. Introducing terminology work into the course at an early stage is highly recommended, as leaving it too late can lead students to develop bad habits (e.g., indiscriminate use of automated translation tools, without understanding their weaknesses and pitfalls) in the absence of guidance as to appropriate resources and strategies. In discussing terminology here, we are referring not only to the subject-specific terminology needed for interpreting, but also to the theoretical meta-terminology of the study of interpreting. Working together as a community in this area (i.e., terminology) is empowering to students. For example, they can create terminology lists in cloud-based

services and share the meanings of terms they encounter in the texts they read or in the interpreting assignments they prepare for, regardless of whether they share a second (or third) language in common.

5.   Conclusion

Although training opportunities for PSI are increasing, there is limited formal training available in many parts of the world. This is in part due to issues such as lack of official status of public service interpreting as a profession and poor remuneration. This leads to a situation in which there is little incitement for interpreters to undertake formal training. The limited market for interpreter training creates challenges for establishing and funding such courses. Other challenges also arise from the fact that the university system in many countries does not allow for courses such as the ones we describe here. Nevertheless, developments over the past few decades are encouraging.

In this paper we have discussed approaches to designing interpreter education that provides all interpreting students with the best possible technical and ethical conditions for introduction to or immersion in interpreting. The article has reviewed the pedagogical ideas on which we believe interpreter education should be based and given examples of didactic and teaching methods that can be used to give interpreting students with different backgrounds the tools to succeed in both educational and work environments. The article has suggested a number of teaching methods that can be used in to respond to and stimulate a heterogeneous group of student as well as a number of methods for creating learning communities and experiential learning opportunities. It has also emphasized the importance of making clear to learners what is expected of them and what they should do in order to achieve the learning outcomes they are working towards.

We have addressed the topics covered in this paper at a macro level, with some specific examples of applications in our respective training environments. We believe that the points addressed in this paper are highly relevant to PSI training in general. At the same time, we recognize the fact that public service interpreting–and thus PSI training–is highly contextualized, influenced by situational needs and realities. Individual trainers must therefore be equipped with the skills necessary to engage with and adapt general pedagogical and didactical theories to their local contexts. To this end, we conclude by echoing the call for increasing opportunities for training of trainers made by scholars such as Kadrić and Pöllabauer (2023), Orlando (2019) and Angelelli (2017).

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