

Note-Producing and Note-Reading Patterns of Turkish Students in Consecutive Interpreting

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Abstract

Consecutive interpreting (CI) is a mode of verbal translation between a source and target language (TL) which “involves listening to what someone has to say and then, when they have finished speaking, reproducing the same message in another language” (Gillies, 2017, p. 5). Note-taking, a fundamental skill in the process of long CI, refers to the activity of jotting down a speech in a highly individualised style and then recreating the original speech by the help of a combination of notes, memory, and general knowledge (Albl-Mikasa, 2008; Gillies 2017). To better understand the CI proficiency of the students in the context of Turkey, the study examined the idea-identifying, note-producing, and note-reading patterns of 26 undergraduate students majoring in English Language Translation and Interpreting. The data for the study were obtained from the papers of three official exams: a midterm, a quiz, and a final exam. In analysing data, the identified test items were divided into their composing components and were assigned one score for each. Then, their total scores were calculated as a hypothesized value (In task one: midterm= 12 and final= 12, in task two: midterm= 38 and final= 49, and in task three: midterm= 23 and final= 48). Next, students’ responses to test items in idea-identifying, note-producing, and note-reading tasks were computed to obtain their true scores. Finally, their performance results were statistically analysed to answer the research questions. The results revealed a preference for the use of word note form over the other ones among the students. They also confirmed a better idea-identifying, note-producing, and note-reading performance among the high-level students. Moreover, it was found that note-reading patterns of the students were better than their note-producing ones. The findings of the study are pedagogically and practically useful for teachers and practitioners in the field.

Keywords: consecutive interpreting, notetaking, note-producing, note-reading, Turkish students

ARDIL ÇEVİRİDE TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN NOT ÜRETME VE NOT OKUMA BİÇİMLERİ

Öz

Ardıl çeviri kaynak ve hedef dil arasındaki sözlü çeviri türüdür. Bu tür çeviri “birinin söyleyeceklerini dinlemeyi ve daha sonra konuşmayı bitirdiğinde aynı mesajı başka bir dilde yeniden üretmeyi içerir (Gillies, 2017, S. 5). Uzun ardıl çeviride temel bir beceri olan not alma, bir konuşmayı son derece kişiselleştirilmiş bir tarzda yazmak ve ardından notlar, hafıza ve genel

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bilgiler yardımıyla orijinal konuşmayı yeniden oluşturma faaliyetini ifade eder (Albl-Mikasa, 2008; Gillies 2017). Türkiye bağlamında öğrencilerin ardıl çeviri yeterliklerini daha iyi anlamak için bu çalışma, İngiliz Mütercim Tercümanlık bölümünde okuyan 26 lisans öğrencisinin fikir belirleme, not üretme ve not okuma biçimlerini incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın verileri üç resmi sınavdan elde edilmiştir: bir ara sınav, bir kısa sınav ve bir final sınavı. Verilerin analizinde, test edilecek öğeler belirlenmiş ve onları oluşturan bileşenlerin her birine bir puan verilmiştir. Sonra, toplam puanları varsayılan bir değer olarak hesaplanmıştır (Birinci görevde: ara sınav= 12 ve final= 12, ikinci görevde: ara sınav= 38 ve final= 49 ve üçüncü görevde: ara sınav= 23 ve final= 48). Daha sonra, öğrencilerin fikir belirleme, not üretme ve not okuma puanları hesaplanmıştır. Son olarak, araştırma sorularını cevaplamak için öğrencilerin edim değerlendirme sonuçları istatistiksel olarak analiz edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, öğrenciler arasında kelime not formunun diğer formlara göre daha fazla tercih edildiğini ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, sonuçlar üst düzey öğrencilerin fikir belirleme, not üretme ve not okuma becerilerinin daha iyi olduğunu kanıtlamıştır. Üstelik, öğrencilerin not okuma biçimlerinin, not üretme biçimlerinden daha iyi olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, alandaki öğretmenler ve uygulayıcılar için pedagojik ve pratik olarak fayda sağlıyor.

Anahtar sözcükler: ardıl çeviri, not alma, not oluşturma, not okuma, Türk öğrenciler

INTRODUCTION

Consecutive interpreting (CI) is a mode of conference interpreting which “involves listening to what someone has to say and then, when they have finished speaking, reproducing the same message in another language” (Gillies, 2017, p. 5). Mead (2011) defined CI as “the assimilation of the source speech and its reproduction in the target language” (p. 1). A slightly different description of CI was provided by Taylor-Bouladon (2011) who argued that the interpreter “listens to the speaker’s message in one language while taking notes and reproduces it in full immediately afterwards (consecutively) in another language as if he were delivering his own speech” (p. 67). Likewise, Patrie (2004) characterised CI as “a procedure by which the interpreter listens to a message and concurrently reorganises the information by means of a highly personalised note-taking system that enables him/her to cast off the external linguistic structure of the message and then transfer the essence to another linguistic structure that is intelligible to his/her audience” (p. 11). However, one common denominator of these definitions is the identification of two distinct phases: The listening phase and the production/delivery phase. In the first phase, an interpreter attentively listens to the source speech to comprehend it and then stores the necessary information in the memory along with taking notes to provide a platform for confident delivery in the second phase; while in the delivery phase, the interpreter tries to recreate her/his version of the original message in the target language (TL) by using general knowledge, memorized source speech information, and the notes taken during the listening phase (Gillies, 2019; Albl-Mikasa, 2017).

This form of conference interpreting was differentiated as short and long consecutive that vary from each other depending on the length of the segment spoken by the source language (SL) speaker, the complexity of the subject, and the type of event in which they take place (Gile, 2005;

Pöchhacker, 2004). Short consecutive used in business meetings, court witness testimony, visits, guided tours, escort interpreting, physician-patient appointments, job interviews and similar occasions works with shorter segments of speech, often lasting between 10 seconds to one minute, or about fifty words (i.e., one or two sentences). The speaker usually pauses “after each sentence (or a couple of sentences) for the interpreter to translate”, who begins the rendition almost immediately after the speaker has finished the segment in the SL (Gillies, 2017, p. 5). The interpreter mainly relies on her/his short-term memory in the rendition and doesn’t necessarily take notes at all (Pöchhacker, 2004).

In long interpreting or classic consecutive, on the other hand, the speaker delivers the whole ideas of a speech at once and then allows the interpreter to provide the consecutive translation (Ünal, 2013). According to Gillies (2017), “the speech may be anything between a minute and twenty minutes in length, and the interpreter relies on a combination of notes, memory and general knowledge to recreate his or her version of the original” (p. 5). Since the length of the segments is too long to be embraced by the memory, the interpreter usually has to take notes to aid her/him in rendering the consecutive elaborately. Kohn and Albl-Mikasa (2002) endorsed the point by arguing that “as the capacity of the human memory is insufficient to provide a consecutive of longer statements, the interpreters make notes to support their memory and thus to facilitate the rendition in the target language” (p. 257). This type of interpreting “is commonly used in technical meetings, fields trips, depositions, etc.” (Ünal, 2013, p. 12). In this regard, Pöchhacker (2004, pp. 18-19) also argues that “since consecutive interpreting does not presuppose a particular duration of the original act of discourse, it can be conceived of as a continuum which ranges from the rendition of utterances as short as one word to the handling of entire speeches” and “the consecutive interpretation of longer speeches usually involves note-taking” in contrast to the short consecutive which is accomplished without notes.

1. THEORETICAL BASIS OF CI

Modelling the interpreting process intellectually has been the point of interest among various practitioners and researchers in the field, and the pinnacle of their hottest debates has been note-taking, which is a critical and integral component of the long consecutive. According to Albl-Mikasa (2017), the earliest views of CI marked as traditional were connected with professional interpreters (e.g., Jean Herbert, 1952; Jean-François Rozan, 1956; Danica Seleskovitch, 1975) who had begun to conduct interpreting on the basis of their experiences. These practitioners assumed a language-independent nature for notation and regarded notetaking as a highly individualized technique and “described and designed more systematic ways of taking notes that would support memory or retrieval of memorized source speech items, and thus, facilitate rendition in the target language” (p. 72). One of the pioneering figures, Herbert (1952), contended that “interpretation really consists of three distinct parts: (a) understanding; (b) conversion; (c) delivery” (Quoted in Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 97). First, the interpreter listens actively to what has been said, then analyses it clearly to take notes to aid the reproduction, and finally, communicates it through another

language. His activity-based model of CI, however, was criticized for lacking a theoretical support and placing little emphasis on “the underlying mental processes” (Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 97).

Another ground-breaking approach rooted in professional experience was that of Rozan (1956) who first systematically analysed the note-taking system and contributed to the field by offering seven substantial principles (i.e., Noting the ideas, abbreviation rules, links, negation, verticality, adding emphasis, and shifting) which had “influenced or been integrated into all” other CI views and methods (Albl-Mikasa, 2017, p. 72). Although it is difficult to overestimate the influence of the classic approach of Rozan (1956), his approach was heavily castigated for the use of a smaller number of iconic symbols and its experience-oriented nature, that is, lacking a theoretical foundation as Herbert’s (1952). One more classic work that contributed greatly to the field was associated with Seleskovitch (1975), “who most famously ventured into a more cognitive analysis of” CI by postulating that the mechanism of CI “was a triangular process, at the pinnacle of which was the construct of sense” or idea (Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 97). In her theory of deverbalisation, “she posits the dissociation of the sense from the language form or verbal expression” and “stresses that note-taking takes place during the non-verbal thought phase of the process” of interpretation, that is, interpreting is fully getting beyond the words and communicating the meaning between the source and target languages rather than converting the linguistic forms between them (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 199). Nolan (2005, p. 39) describes this mental process as:

Interpreting a speech involves two translations: first, the words of the original are translated into a mental image; then, the mental image is translated into the words of the target language. So, the accuracy of the translation depends on how accurate a mental image one can form from the original meaning.

Her model, however, was not greatly approved for its excessive abstraction of the linguistic structures of the source text, and thus ignoring and rejecting the linguistic nature of the noted ideas (Albl-Mikasa, 2008; Nai, 2020). Albl-Mikasa (2017, p. 75) summarised the shortcomings of the classical approaches as failing to “reflect a lack of theoretical foundation and underspecification of the conceptual status of the construct of ‘notetaking’ and of the ‘sense’ to be taken down”, that is, notetaking was characterised “as a means to capture the source text’s sense or ideas, without any clear understanding of what that means or of the relationship between sense and linguistic representation, for that matter” Albl-Mikasa (2017, p. 75).

A fully different perspective on how to listen and analyse a speech in the SL and reformulate it with the help of the notes and memory in the TL is reflected in the descriptive Effort Model of Gile (1995). The model involves two phases of comprehension (or listening and note-taking) and a speech production (or reformulation) (Gile, 2009). The first phase taking place with a speech of the speaker includes four Efforts:

- *Listening and Analysis Effort*: Concerning all “comprehension-oriented operations, from the analysis of the sound waves carrying the source-language speech which reach the interpreter’s ears through the identification of words to the final decisions about the ‘meaning’ of the utterance” (Gile, 1995, p. 162).
- *Note-taking Effort*: The action of noting the ideas in an SL speech.

- *Short-term Memory Operations*: Denoting “the time between the moment the source message is heard and the moment it is written down or processed mentally and sent on to the long-term memory” (Gile, 2009, pp. 175-176). To Liu (2008), Memory Effort is seen “more as a storage mechanism where information is temporarily kept before further processing takes place” (p. 173).
- *Coordination Effort*: Corresponding to “resources required to coordinate the three other Efforts (Gile, 2009, p. 168). In other words, the coordination effort essentially “finds the balance between all the factors” (Kriston, 2012, p. 81).

whereas the second phase coming about with the reformulation of the source message by the interpreter consists of three Efforts:

- *A Note-Reading Effort*: Some processing capacity “is required to understand- and sometimes decipher- the notes”,
- *A long-term Memory Effort*: It is necessary “for retrieving information stored in long-term memory and reconstructing the content of the speech”, and
- *A Production Effort*: “For producing the target-language speech” (Gile, 2001, p. 2).

The ordering of these interconnected Efforts is important because we will not be able to take proper notes if we do not listen attentively to the source material and analyse it actively. On the other hand, our interpreting ability will suffer seriously if the notes are taken poorly. Therefore, the Efforts should be followed properly to have clear, consistent, and efficient notes to back up the memory when it needs help (Gillies, 2017).

According to Gile (1995, p. 161), the underlying basic ideas of his cognitive-psychological model are mainly “interpretation requires some sort of mental ‘energy’ that is only available in limited supply” and it “takes up almost all of this mental energy, and sometimes requires more than is available, at which times performance deteriorates”. Ünal (2013, p. 17) noted that the Effort Models theoretically contributed to the field by (i) underscoring the demands of each Effort on interpreters, (ii) highlighting the potential interpreting difficulties due to high cognitive load, and (iii) signalling the distinction between the simultaneous and consecutive modes of interpreting. However, the key feature of the Effort Model of CI lies in highlighting the issues of interpreting processing capacity by raising the question of “how to reduce processing capacity and time requirements of note-taking while maintaining the efficiency of notes as memory reinforcers” (Gile, 2009, p. 178). Gile (1995) points out that the first three Efforts of phase one must be coordinated by the coordination component within the time constraint set by the speaker (i.e., phase one is a speaker-paced phase), while the three Efforts of the second phase is paced by the interpreter (i.e., phase two is a self- or interpreter-paced phase) (Gile, 2005; Chen, 2022; Mead, 2011). That is to say, the three Efforts of phase one, according to Gile (2009), leave more pressure on the coordination component than that of the three Efforts of phase two in coordinating the whole interpreting process. Therefore, “in terms of processing capacity, only phase one seems to generate potential threats of saturation” (Gile 2009, 176). However, Gile’s Effort Models (1995) were basically criticised for not providing a scholarly framework for memory operations in interpreting.

A more recent descriptive cognitive-linguistic approach to CI comes from Albl-Mikasa (2008 & 2017). She identifies two phases of reception and production with the source, notation, and

target texts. In her cognitive perspective, CI text comprehension involves building multi-level representations: The subordinate level of surface representation (i.e., maintaining the lexical and syntactical features), the level of the propositional textbase (i.e., information is represented in a conceptual way but closely reflecting the text), and the superordinate level of the mental representation (i.e., modelling the situation described by the text rather than the text itself and is therefore much less text-specific). In other words, the CI process of understanding “is described as coherence building and as the construction of a mental representation at local and global levels” (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, pp. 197-198), whereas the notation text production phase is a kind of reduction process which “is brought about mainly by two reduction strategies, namely an ellipsis strategy and a restructuring strategy” (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 216). The first strategy “involves omitting source text units and transferring selected, often central content words from the source text to the notation text”, whose outcome is, indeed, loosening of the source text’s surface structures somehow, not their complete detachment (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 216). Conversely, the second strategy “substitutes non-source text structures for source text structures, thus bringing about some degree of detachment” which “mostly takes place within phrase or clause boundaries and is often found in connection with routine communicative formulas” (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, pp. 216-217).

In her linguistic perspective, a note-taking system is not distinguished from the natural language system, and “the notation product is, in fact, a text”. So, she argues that the natural language and notation texts cover common text reception and production processing: “Source text reception and notation text production, as well as notation text reception and target text production are quasi-simultaneous processes in the two consecutive processing phases” (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 211), and “sense is transmitted from source text comprehension via notation text production and reception into the rendering of the target text” (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 198). However, the use and function of these two texts differ from each other. As argued:

The notation text produced in the process differs from a natural language text in terms of its use and specialized function as a memory support in the specific communicative environment of consecutive interpreting. The main differences are as follows: Firstly, the notation text is characterised by its highly reduced or even fragmentary and incomplete nature and typically contains pictographic and iconic signs and non-linear structuring principles. Secondly, it is solipsistic in that its purpose is immediate communication between the interpreter and herself. Thirdly, it is an extreme case of intertextuality, as it can be understood by the interpreter almost only in conjunction with the previously memorised mental representation of the source text. (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 211)

As described in the above quotation, although the notation text seems abnormal from the natural language text, it has been conceptualised as a text from the perspective of the cognitive linguistic model because of appearing “rather conventional as a type of text” and featuring “classical text-linguistic properties such as delimitation and sequentiality” (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 212). Hence, the cognitive text processing theory claims for the common coherence-building processes in the processing of both the natural language and notation texts (Albl-Mikasa, 2008).

2. NOTING IDEAS IN CI

A fundamental skill in the process of long CI is notetaking. It refers to the activity of jotting down the main ideas of an SL speech in a highly individualised style to aid and facilitate the memory to retain a great deal of information for a fluent and stylish interpretation (Gillies, 2019; Pöchhacker, 2004). Nolan (2005) characterizes notetaking as “a method of reducing words to ideas and putting the ideas into symbols that can then be re-expressed in another language (p. 294). Albl-Mikasa (2008) also considers notetaking as an interim phase in the process of CI through which the extracted SL information is transmitted to target text production and defines it “as the process of capturing some abstract, global-level conceptual sense on the notepad” (p. 207). Similarly, Jones (2002) believes that notetaking “itself includes: understanding the speech, analysing it and reconstructing SL speech for the TL audiences” (cited in Ferdowsi, 2014, p. 49). Moreover, Gillies (2017) argues that CI notes are a kind of visual representation of the skeleton structure of the source speech and note-taking entailing a collection of fitted-together techniques does not follow any conventional system, that is, one can build her/his own note-taking techniques or style. Thus, the notes in CI “are not the creation of any one interpreter, even if some had a bigger hand in them than others” (Gillies, 2017, p. 9). Although it is very common to follow a highly individualised note-taking system, he adds, certain common principles exist that generally make it easier to take notes in an efficient manner.

One of the basic principles in note-taking system is learning to break down a speech into ideas (or the sense). In Rozan’s (1956) traditional conceptualization, ideas are ‘concepts’ referring to “the underlying meaning of a word or expression” (Gillies, 2017, p. 37), which has been dissociated from the language forms “to overcome the constraints imposed by language structures or words” in capturing the essence of what is said (Albl-Mikasa, 2008, p. 200). In this view, the words ‘declare’, ‘say’, ‘tell’ and ‘express’, for example, could be judged as synonymous since “they have the same underlying meaning and would all be noted with the same symbol as a result” (Gillies, 2017, p. 37). A very much similar description of ideas is associated with Seleskovitch (1978), who characterizes them as “(1) conscious, (2) made up of the linguistic meaning aroused by speech sounds and of a cognitive addition to it and (3) nonverbal, that is, dissociated from any linguistic form in cognitive memory” (Pöchhacker, 2004, p. 97).

In his attempt to offer a more linguistically oriented view of ideas, Gillies (2017) defined ideas as those “parts of the message” telling us “who did what to whom” (p. 37). Based on this definition, he put forward a language-dependent model of notetaking in which the padding and additional information could be ignored, but the Subject Verb Object (SVO) units making up the backbone of the speech were essentially identified for notetaking purposes at the level of a sentence or utterance, which was Gillies’ (2005) unit and starting point of analysis (Albl-Mikasa, 2008; Gillies, 2017). In this notation system, each SVO unit represents one idea in a sentence and is allocated “roughly the same position in any given section of notes. These positions will form a diagonal axis, working from left to right of a page and from top to bottom” (Gillies, 2017, p. 43). An idea on a page looks like this:



Figure 1. Diagonal Representation of Ideas
Gillies, 2017, p.44

While saving its word order, each element of the SVO unit can get a notetaking function rather than a linguistic one. For instance, the linguistic roles of the direct and indirect objects or active and passive sentences can be ignored in this notetaking system to make the notes clearer and interpreting easier. Similarly, an implicit element in a language can be noted down explicitly in the SVO format and vice versa- like omitting 'to be' forms and 'there is/are' structures. Even, if a language does not necessarily follow the SVO word order, it can still be noted down in SVO order after the reformulation of the source speech. It is however inferred from this explanation that the elements conveying the same meaning or performing different functions in the linguistic system can be noted down through any category of note forms in the notation system, where the sense "is grasped without any reference to the linguistic form" (Albi-Mikasa, 2008, 199).

3. NOTE FORMS IN CI

Interpreters often use three categories of note forms in CI: Language, symbol, and number. Dam (2004b) has categorised note forms as words, abbreviations, and symbols. The first category in her conceptualization "includes all notes represented as full words, i.e., words that had not been abbreviated" (p. 253). She indiscriminately analysed words with and without inflectional morphemes as full words, that is, representations like 'problems' and 'problem' were considered as full words in her analyses. The second category includes 'real abbreviations', 'acronyms', and 'units in between these'. Real abbreviations refer to "units in which only part of a word is represented (for example: 'prob.' or 'prblm' for 'problem(s)'" (p. 253). Acronyms denote the abbreviation units formed from the initial letters of a longer name or phrase, such as 'NATO' (North Atlantic Treaty Organization), 'EU' ('European Union'), and 'RADAR' (Radio Detection And Ranging). The third abbreviation units represent "forms that cannot really be characterised either as real abbreviations or as acronyms, but rather as something in between. For example, 'ladies and gentlemen' may be noted as 'L+G', where "the 'L' and the 'G' were categorised as abbreviations", but "the plus (+) was analysed as a symbol" (Dam, 2004b. 253). Symbols are the last category that "comprises everything that is not language, including signs like pluses and colons, lines, arrows, drawings, etc." (Dam, 2004b. 253).

Moreover, Chen (2017) offered slightly different categories of note forms. In her formulation "each note unit was first put into one of the three form categories: symbol, language and number" (p. 10). "Symbols are mostly pictorial", but they can be a single letter or a pair of letters as well. Language category describes either full words (i.e., a word written in full, including words both with and without morphemes of inflection) or abbreviations (i.e., an abbreviation consists of parts of the letters of a long word, including real abbreviations in which only part of a word is

represented, acronyms, and other short forms that cannot be characterised either as real abbreviations or as acronyms, but rather as something in between). This category was further divided into the source and target languages (i.e., Chinese and English). Finally, numbers were considered as a special category of notes that are independent of language and symbols (Chen, 2017, p. 10). Chen's (2017) conceptualization of categories of note forms was schematically shown as:

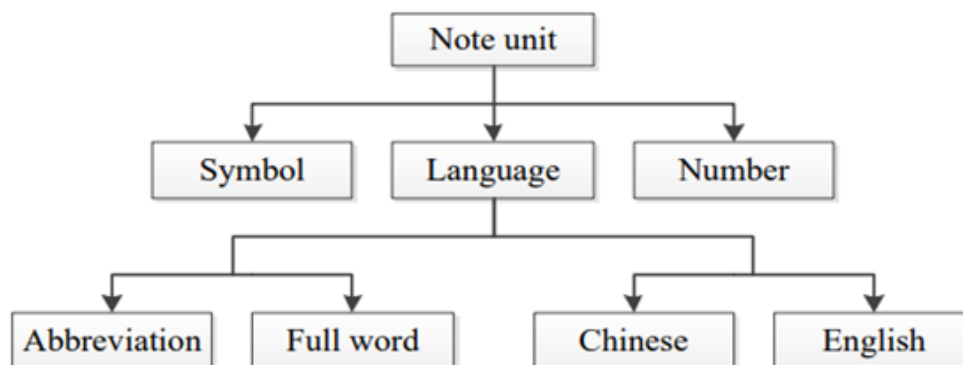


Figure 2. Categorisation of Note Forms

Chen, 2017, p. 10

Aligning with the cognitive-linguistic model of Albl-Mikasa (2008 & 2017), using the note forms of Dam (2004b) and Chen (2017), and benefiting from the note-taking principles of Gillies (2017), the present study aims at exploring the idea-identifying, note-producing, and note-reading patterns of Turkish students through three tasks premeditated into their mid-term, quiz, and final exams. Moreover, the previous research has rightfully investigated CI in the oral and real contexts between two languages, but we think that for students who are at the beginning of the road grasping the complex nature of this phenomenon is almost struggling. As Yamada (2018) argued that "CI activities are likely to work gradually over time" (p. 1394). Therefore, we examine these processes at the written, mono-lingual, and sentence-level situations to make the phenomenon feasible to our students as far as possible, and thus it is expected that their problems will easily be brought to light in CI classes. Finally, there are not enough studies in the literature to highlight the topic from the learning perspective. In the context of Turkey, for instance, a number of studies have already tackled the subject pedagogically, such as the students' emotional behaviours in CI (Aslan & Özben, 1996), the linguistic errors of the CI learning process (Demirdağ, 2013), the relevance of taking notes in CI (Durukan, 2017), the methods and techniques of CI (Şimşir, 2013), the transfer of cultural references in CI (Uyanik, 2020), the effect of mind mapping in CI training (Yavaş, 2011), and the attention management and the working memory dynamics of CI training (Yemenici, 2019), but none of these studies have addressed the paucity of research on the reception and production processes underlying the learning of CI (Kıncal, 2020). However, we try to handle the matter by answering the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent are the students able to meet the test values in (a) identifying ideas, (b) producing notes, and (c) reading-back notes?

RQ2: What type of relationship is there between the students' pre- and post-test results in (a) identifying ideas, (b) producing notes, and (c) reading-back notes?

RQ3: What type of relationship is there between the low- and high-level students in (a) identifying ideas, (b) producing notes, and (c) reading-back notes?

METHOD

1. Participants

The participants were 26 second-year English Translation and Interpreting students at a Turkish private university in the spring semester of the 2021-2022 academic year. None of the students had received a prior note-taking course in CI. The whole book of Gillies (2017) titled as "Note-taking for Consecutive Interpreting: A Short Course, 2nd ed." was offered for them during the three-hour 14 sessions held once a week.

2. Principles and tasks

The research was conducted at the university where the researcher was teaching. The instruction was conducted in English, and the instructional subjects covered the note-taking principles described in Gillies (2017), such as identifying ideas (i.e., SVO units) in written and spoken texts, noting the SVO units diagonally across the page, using the links to fit two or more ideas together, identifying verticality and hierarchies of value, using symbols, and employing fewer-noting techniques. There were three parallel tasks in the exams:

- Task 1. *Identification of ideas*: There are four sentences in each exam (i.e., midterm and final). The task necessitates the students to prioritise information and distinguish between primary and secondary information, that is, identifying ideas as the major parts of the message telling "who did what to whom" (Gillies, 2017, p. 37). Excerpts from the exam items are provided below. Midterm exam: "This feature of the decade offers independent monitoring of government programs." Final exam: "Indeed, education is a central pillar in the fight against child labour."
- Task 2. *Production of the ideas*: There are four sentences in each exam (i.e., quiz and final). The task requires the students to note the ideas in the sentences diagonally while using any note form that interests them, such as Word (WRD), Abbreviation (ABB), Symbol (SYM), Number (NUM), and Implicit Element (IE). Let's note here, an implicit element is a linguistic component that can be omitted in the diagonal representation according to the noting-less principle of CI, such as the omission of 'there is/are', 'to be forms', and the repeated elements. So, we considered these omissible elements as a category in this study. Excerpts from the exam items are as below. Quiz: "Tourists are extremely happy because the Turkish government has cut customs duties." Final exam: "We must continue to changes in financial policy if we want to be a developed country."
- Task 3. *Reception (i.e., note-reading) of the ideas*: There are two sentences for the task in the quiz and four sentences for the task in the final exam. The task necessitates the students to read back the ideas represented diagonally in note forms and write them down in appropriate words and structures. Excerpts from the exam items are provided below.

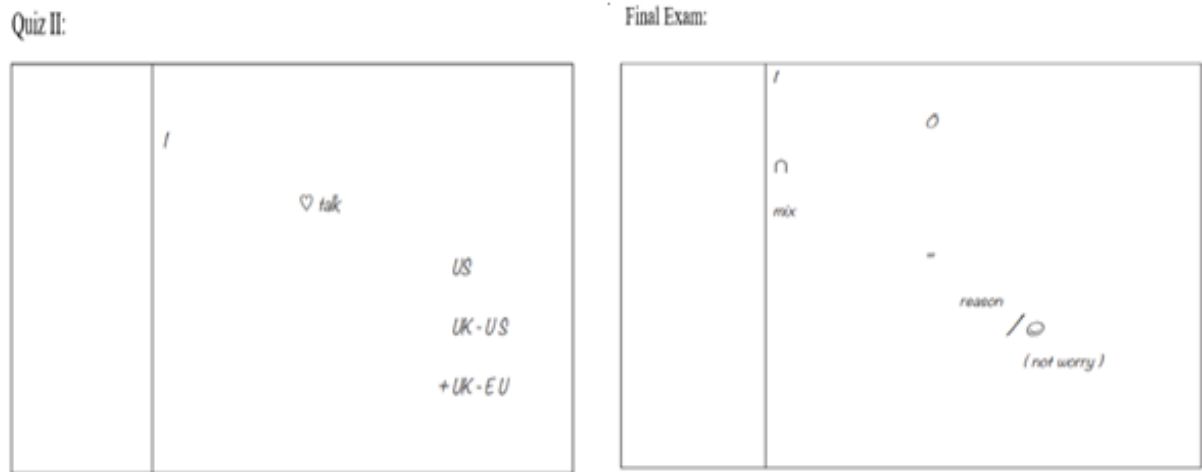


Figure 3. Diagonally Represented Ideas

3. Data collection and analysis procedures

The data for the present study comes from three exams: A midterm exam after the 7th session, a quiz after the 12th session and a final exam after the 14th session. Let's state that the data obtained from the quiz and employed in the second and third tasks of the study were considered and represented as the midterm data in the whole analysis. The researcher obtained written official consent from the university to use the test results as data. To control the practice effect, the test items for the note-identifying and note-producing stages mainly comprised materials that the students had never attempted before, but they had learned the related course subjects and practiced enough such items in their classes before the exams. However, the materials for the note-reading stage were much similar to items in the course book in order to leave some background information for the students which is a very crucial factor in rendering the target discourse.

In analysing the first task, we identified SVO unites in a test item (i.e., a sentence) and assigned one score for each unite. Then, their total scores were calculated as a hypothesized value. Examples of scoring of the ideas in the task were shown in the figure of 4:

The note-identifying (SVO) task: The hypothesized value is 3 for each test item both in the midterm and final exams.

Midterm exam: This feature of the decade offers independent monitoring of government programs. 3 scores		
this feature	offers	independent monitoring
1	1	1
Final exam: Indeed, education is a central pillar in the fight against child labour. 3 scores		
education	is	a central pillar
1	1	1

Figure 4. Scoring of the Ideas in the Note-identifying Stage

In analysing the second and third tasks, however, we divided a test item (i.e., a sentence) into its composing components (i.e., WRD, ABB, SYM, NUM, and IE categories) and assigned one score for each. Then, their total scores were calculated as a hypothesized value. Examples of scoring of the tasks were shown in the figures of 5 to 6:

The note-producing task: The hypothesized value is 10 for the quiz item and 13 for the final item.

Quiz: Tourists are extremely happy because the Turkish government has cut customs duties. 10 scores

Tourists	are	extremely	happy	because	Turkish	government	cut	customs	duties
Tourists	=	==	☺	COS	Tr.	govt.	cut	customs	duties
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Words= 3; Abbreviations= 4; Symbols= 3; Number= 0; Implicit Element= 0

Final exam: We must continue to changes in financial policy if we want to be a developed country. 13 scores

We	must	continue	changes	in	financial	policy	if	we	want	be	developed	country
we	>	↻	Δs	/	£	π	if	we	♡	=	07	□
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Words= 3; Abbreviations= 0; Symbols= 10; Number= 0; Implicit Element= 0

Figure 5. Scoring of the Ideas in the Note-producing Stage

The note-reading task: The hypothesized value is 10 for the quiz item and 13 for the final item.

Quiz: I would like to talk about the US and the UK's relationship with both the United States and the European Union. 10 scores

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
I	♡	talk	/	US	UK	-	US	+	EU
I	would	to	about	the US	the	Relationship	the	and	the European
	like	talk			UK's	with	United		Union.
							States		
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Words= 2 [1,3]; Abbreviations= 4 [5,6,8,10]; Symbols= 4[2,4,7,9]; Number= 0; Implicit Element= 0

Final exam: I think that this greater cultural intermingling should be a cause for rejoicing rather than for concern. 13 scores

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
I	∅	∩	—	cult	mix	=	reason	/		not	/	worry
									☺			
I	think	that	greater	cultural	intermingling	should	a	for	rejoicing	rather	for	concern
						be	cause			than		
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1

Words= 5 [1,6,8,11,13]; Abbreviations= 1 [5]; Symbols= 7[2,3,4,7,9,10,12]; Number= 0; Implicit Element= 0

Figure 6. Scoring of the Ideas in the Note-reading Stage

Next, we examined a student's responses to individual test items in the task and calculated their true scores on the exams. Those students who participated in any exam but did not answer

the required question(s) received zero points in our scoring system. Moreover, the instances of unrecognized cheating were ignored in the scoring.

Finally, appropriate statistical methods were run in the tasks to answer the research questions. To answer the first part of each research question, the *One Sample T-Test* (when distribution of data was normal) and the *One Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test* (when distribution of data was not normal) were used to determine whether the mean/median of the population of the students is statistically different from the hypothesized values. To answer the second part of each research question, the *Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test* was employed to examine whether there is a statistically difference between the participants' performance in the midterm (i.e., pre-test) and final (i.e., post-test) exams. Finally, to answer the third part of each research question, the *Independent Samples T-Test* (when data distribution was normal) and the *Mann-Whitney U-Test* (when data distribution was not normal) were utilized to compare the performance of the high- and low-level students. Students whose obtained scores in the three tasks were within the 25 per cent of the high perfect scores of the tasks (e.g., the perfect score in task one ranged between 0-24, and they ranged between 0-40 in tasks two and three) were considered as high-level, whereas those whose achieved scores were within the 75 per cent of the low perfect scores were assumed as low-level.

RESULTS

1. Identification of SVO units

The results of the One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test specified that there is a significant relationship between the hypothesized mean/median of SVO units and the students' obtained mean/median scores both in the Midterm ($STS = -4.218$, $p = .000$) and Final ($STS = -3.630$, $p = .000$) exams. However, the results showed that they put forward a good performance in identifying the SVO units during the Final ($M = 7.46$, $Std. = 4.47$) exam than the Midterm ($M = 6.07$, $Std. = 4.46$) one (Table 1).

Table 1. The Hypothesized and Student-Obtained Means in Identifying the SVO Units

Exam	Group statistics					One Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test			
	Category	Test value	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Test Statistic	Standardized Test Statistic (STS)	Standard Error	Sig.
Midterm	SVO	12	26	6.077	4.4625	.000	-4.218	32.717	.000
Final	SVO	12	26	7.462	4.4742	.000	-3.630	21.074	.000

The statistical analyses were followed to see whether there is a difference between the participants' performance in the midterm (i.e., pre-test) and final (i.e., post-test) exams. The results of a Wilcoxon Signed-Ranks Test indicated that the mean ranks of the negative ($MR = 11.17$) and positive ($MR = 10.93$) scores were not statistically significant ($z = -1.690$, $p = .091$) (Table 2).

Table 2. The Pre- and Post-test Mean Ranks in Identifying the SVO Units

Exam	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test							Group statistics		
	Ranks	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Sig.	η^2	Mean	Std. Deviation	50th (Median)
Final - midterm	Negative Ranks	6 ^a	11.17	67.00	-1.690	.091	-			
	Positive Ranks	15 ^b	10.93	164.00						
	Ties	5 ^c								
	Total	26								
Midterm		26						6.07	6.077	7.0000
Final		26						7.46	4.474	8.5000

- a. final < midterm; b. final > midterm; c. final = midterm.

- d. Based on negative ranks.

Lastly, the results of the Independent Sample T-test displayed statistically a strongly significant difference between the Low ($n=16$; 61.5%) and High ($n=10$; 38.5%) level students in identifying the SVO units ($t(24)=8.106$; $P=0.000$), where the mean score of the high-level group ($M=21.1000$) was greater than that of the low-level group ($M=8.8125$) (Table 3).

Table 3. The Performance of High- and Low-Level Students in Identifying the SVO Units

Category	Group statistics					Levene's Test		Independent Samples T-Test				
	Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	Sig.	T	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	η^2
SVO	High	10	21.100	2.55821	.80898	6.14	.02	8.10	23.19	.00	12.28750	.7
	Low	1	8.8125	5.12795	1.2819	5	1	6	5	0		3
	Total	6										
		12										
		6										

- Observed range of the scores= 0-24, Low level= 0-17 and High level= 18-24 of the perfect scores (0-24).

- Cohen's (1988) effect size indexes (η^2): Small = .01, moderate= .06, big= .14

2. Note-producing patterns

The results of the One-sample T-test and One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test were statistically significant between the hypothesized mean/median note-producing values and the students' obtained mean/median note-producing scores in the categories of WRD [Midterm: ($t(25)=$

3.881, $p=.001$) & Final: ($t(25)= 3.825, p=.001$), ABB [Midterm: ($t(25)= -3.584, p=.001$) & Final: ($STS= -2.981, p=.003$)], SYM [Midterm: ($STS= -4.498, p=.000$) & Final: ($STS= -4.463, p=.000$)], NUM [Final: ($STS= -2.680, p=.007$)], and IE [Midterm: ($STS= -4.413, p=.000$) & Final: ($t(25)= -4.510, p=.000$)] during the midterm and final exams (Table 4).

The results also disclosed that the students' performance in note-producing was greatly beyond the hypothesized mean/median values in the category of WRD in the Midterm ($M= 12.7308$) and Final ($M= 13.9231$) exams, and their performance was almost close to the hypothesized mean/median value of the category of NUM in the Final ($M= 4.962$) exam. However, the performance of the students was under the hypothesized mean/median values of the categories of ABB in the Midterm ($M= 5.6923$) and Final ($M= 3.115$) exams, SYM in the Midterm ($M= 3.808$) and Final ($M= 6.692$) exams, and IE in the Midterm ($M= .462$) and Final ($M= 3.6538$) exams (Table 4).

Table 4. The Hypothesized and Student-Obtained Means/Medians in Producing the Notes

Exam	Group statistics						One Sample T-Test				One Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test				
	Category	Test	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	t	df	Significance	Mean Difference	Test Statistic	Standardized Test Statistic	Standard Error	Significance	
Midterm	WRD	7	2	12.7	7.528	1.47	3.8	2	.0	5.7307					
			6	30	.92	.65	8	5	0	.7					
			8			.4	1		1						
	ABB	9	2	5.69	4.705	.922	-	2	.0	-					
			6	23	.48	.82	3	5	0	3.30					
									1	.769					
Final	SYM	20	2	3.80	4.964					.000	-4.498	39.01	.0		
			6	8	.0							4	0		
														0	
	NUM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	
IE	2	2	.462	.8115						.000	-4.413	26.17	.0		
			6									5	0		
														0	
WRD	10	2	13.9	5.230	1.02	3.8	2	.0	3.9230						
			6	23	.09	.57	2	5	0	.8					
			1			.1	5		1						

ABB	5	2	3.11	2.703					30.5	-2.981	28.51	.0
		6	5	0					00		3	0
												3
SYM	22	2	6.69	6.595					.000	-4.463	39.32	.0
		6	2	6							2	0
												0
NUM	6	2	4.96	1.684					.000	-2.680	8.396	.0
		6	2	8								0
												7
IE	6	2	3.65	2.652	.520	-	2	.0	-			
		6	38	43	18	4	5	0	2.34			
						.		0	615			
						5						
						1						
						0						

WRD= Word, ABB= Abbreviation, SYM= Symbol, NUM= Number, and IE= Implicit Element

Moreover, the results of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test indicated a significant relationship between the students' midterm and final exam note-producing performances in the categories of WRD ($z = -2.610$, $p = .009$), SYM ($z = -3.585$, $p = .000$), and IE ($z = -2.378$, $p = .017$). However, the relationship between their midterm and final exam performances was not statistically significant in the category of ABB ($z = -.786$, $p = .432$) (Table 5).

Table 5. The Coefficients of Pre- and post-tests in Producing the Notes

Exam	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test							Group statistics			
	Ranks	Categori es	N	Mea n	Sum of Ran k s	Z	Sig .	r	Mea n	Std. Deviation	50th (Medi an)
Final - midte rm	Negativ Ranks	WRD	6 ^a	10.9	65.50	-	.00	.51			
				2			2.6	.9	2		
		ABB	14 ^a	12.6	177.5	-	.43	-			
				8	0		.78	2			
		SYM	1 ^a	9.00	9.00	-	.00	.70			
						3.5	0	3			
						85 ^d					
		IE	5 ^a	9.50	47.50	-	.01	.46			
						2.3	7	6			
						78 ^d					
		WRD	19	13.6	259.5						

Positive		^b	6	0			
Ranks	ABB	10	12.2	122.5			
		^b	5	0			
	SYM	19	10.5	201.0			
		^b	8	0			
	IE	16	11.4	11.47			
		^b	7				
Ties	WRD	1 ^c					
	ABB	2 ^c					
	SYM	6 ^c					
	IE	5 ^c					
Total	WRD	26					
	ABB	26					
	SYM	26					
	IE	26					
Midterm ^e	WRD				.489	.28957	.5000
					6		
	ABB				.406	.33611	.4286
					6		
	SYM				.211	.27578	.1111
					5		
	IE				.230	.40573	.0000
					8		
Final	WRD				.605	.22740	.6087
					4		
	ABB				.389	.33787	.3750
					4		
	SYM				.352	.34714	.1842
					2		
	IE				.522	.37892	.5714
					0		

Note: The values were rescaled between 0-1.

- a. final < midterm; b. final > midterm; c. final = midterm.

- d. Based on negative ranks.

- Cohen's effect size indexes (r): Small = .10, moderate= .30, big= .50

Finally, the Independent Sample T-test results displayed a statistically non-significant difference between the high ($n=10$; 38.5%) and low ($n=16$; 61.5%) level students in the category of WRD ($t(24)=-1.673$; $P=.107$). However, a strongly significant difference was observed between the groups in the category of ABB ($t(24)=5.197$; $P=0.000$) (Table 6).

Table 6. The Performance of High- and Low-Level Students in Producing the Notes

Categories	Group statistics					Levene's Test		Independent Samples T-Test				
	Levels	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference	η^2
WRD	High	10	21.900	7.80954	2.46959	3.130	.090	-1.673	24	.107	-7.72500	-
	Low	16	29.625	13.17004	3.29251							
	Total	26										
ABB	High	10	14.800	4.46716	1.41264	.249	.622	5.197	24	.004	9.73750	.524
	Low	16	5.0625	4.75351	1.18838							
	Total	26										

- Cohen's (1988) effect size indexes (η^2): Small = .01, moderate= .06, big= .14

- Observed range of the scores= 0-39, Low level= 0-30 and High level= 31-40 of the perfect scores (0-40).

The results of the non-normally-distributed data, as determined by Mann-Whitney U-test, were statistically significant between the groups in the categories of SYM ($U= 2.000$, $Z= -4.133$, $P= 0.000$, $r= .81$), NUM ($U= 46.000$, $Z= -2.113$, $P= 0.035$, $r= .41$), and IE ($U= 25.000$, $Z= -2.958$, $P= 0.003$, $r= .58$) (Table 7).

Table 7. The Performance of High- and Low-Level Students in Producing the Notes

Categories	Group statistics					Mann-Whitney U-Test			
	Levels	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	Z	Sig.	r
SYM	High	10	21.30	213.00	22.0000	2.000	-4.133	.000	.81
	Low	16	8.63	138.00	1.5000				
	Total	26			6.0000				
NUM	High	10	16.90	169.00	6.0000	46.000	-2.113	.035	.41
	Low	16	11.38	182.00	5.5000				
	Total	26			6.0000				
IE	High	10	19.00	190.00	6.5000	25.000	-2.958	.003	.58
	Low	16	10.06	161.00	2.5000				
	Total	26			4.0000				

- Cohen's (1988) effect size indexes (r): Small = .10, moderate= .30, big= .50

Additionally, the examination of the Mean, Mean Rank (Mrk) and Median (Mdn) scores of the groups revealed that high-levels obtained high scores than the low-levels in the four categories

of ABB ($M= 14.8$), SYM ($Mrk= 21.30$; $Mdn= 22.0000$), NUM ($Mrk= 16.90$; $Mdn= 6.0000$), and IE ($Mrk = 19.00$; $Mdn=6.5000$) (Tables 6 & 7).

3. Note-reading patterns

The One-sample t-test and One-Sample Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test results were statistically significant between the hypothesized mean/median note-reading values and the students' obtained mean/median note-reading scores in the categories of WRD [Midterm: ($STS= -2.859$, $p= .004$) & Final: ($t(25)= 10.291$, $p= .000$)], ABB [Midterm: ($STS= -3.740$, $p= .000$) & Final: ($STS= -4.218$, $p= .000$)], SYM [Midterm: ($STS= -4.028$, $p= .000$) & Final: ($t(25)= -8.451$, $p= .000$)], NUM [Final: ($STS= -2.000$, $p= .046$)], and IE [Final: ($STS= -4.463$, $p= .000$)] during the midterm and final exams (Table 8).

The results also revealed that the students' performance in note-reading was almost close to the hypothesized mean/median values in the WRD category of the Midterm ($M=2.269$) exam and NUM category of the Final ($M= 1.692$) exam, but they failed to meet the hypothesized mean/median values of the categories of WRD in the Final ($M=12.5385$) exam, ABB in the Midterm ($M=4.500$) and Final ($M=5.962$) exams, SYM in the Midterm ($M=4.808$) and Final ($M=8.9231$) exams, and IE in the Final ($M=.385$) exam (Table 8).

Table 8. Hypothesized and Student-Obtained Means/Medians in Reading the Notes

Exam	Group statistics						One Sample T-Test				One Sample Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test			
	Categories	Test	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t	df	Significance	Mean Difference	Test Statistic	Standardized Test Statistic (STS)	Standard Error	Significance
Midterm	WRD	3	2	2.26	1.115						.000	-2.859	9.618	.04
			6	9	6									
	ABB	8	2	4.50	3.140						.000	-3.740	22.86	.00
			6	0	1									
	SYM	12	2	4.80	4.525						.000	-4.028	28.67	.00
		6	8	7										
	NUM	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	IE	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Final	WRD	18	2	12.5	4.726	.926	10.291	25	.00	9.5384				
			6	38	36	92								
	ABB	9	2	5.96	2.391						.000	-4.218	32.71	.00

		6	2	3						5	0
											0
SYM	18	2	8.92	5.476	1.07	-	2	.0	-		
		6	31	66	40	8.	5	0	9.07		
					6	45		0	692		
						1					
NUM	2	2	1.69	.7359						.000	-2.000
		6	2								2.500
											.0
IE	1	2	.385	.4961						.000	-4.000
		6									17.00
											.0
											0
											0

In addition, the results of the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test indicated a statistically non-significant relationship between the students' midterm and final exam note-reading performances in the categories of WRD ($z = -.867$, $p = .386$), ABB ($z = -.700$, $p = .484$), and SYM ($z = -.922$, $p = .356$). (Table 9).

Table 9. The Coefficients of Pre- and post-tests in Reading the Notes

Exam	Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test								Group statistics		
	Ranks	Categorie s	N	Mea n	Sum of Rank s	Z	Sig.	r	Mea n	Std. Deviation	50th (Medi an)
Final - midte rm	Negative Ranks	WRD	14 ^a	8.32	116.50	-.867 ^d	.386	-.06			
		ABB	12 ^a	9.58	115.00	-.700 ^d	.484	-.04			
		SYM	8 ^a	11.13	89.00	-.922 ^d	.356	-.06			
Positive Ranks	WRD	5 ^b	14.70	73.50							
	ABB	11 ^b	14.64	161.00							
	SYM	13 ^b	10.92	142.00							
Ties	WRD	7 ^c									
	ABB	3 ^c									
	SYM	5 ^c									
		WRD	26								

	Total	ABB	26			
		SYM	26			
Midterm ^e	WRD	26	.7564	.37187	1.0000	
	ABB	26	.5625	.39251	.6250	
	SYM	26	.4006	.37714	.2500	
Final	WRD	26	.6966	.26258	.7500	
	ABB	26	.6624	.26570	.7222	
	SYM	26	.4957	.30426	.4444	

Note: The values were rescaled between 0-1.

-a. final < midterm; b. final > midterm; c. final = midterm.

-d. Based on negative ranks.

Lastly, the results of the Independent Sample T-test disclosed statistically a strongly significant difference between the high (n=9; 34.6%) and low (n= 19; 65.4%) level students in the categories of WRD ($t(24)= 3.785$; $P= 0.001$), ABB ($t(24)= 5.525$; $P= .000$), and SYM ($t(24)= 5.526$; $P= .000$), where the mean scores of the high-level group were greater than that of the low-level one in the three categories of WRD ($High= 19.1111$; $Low= 12.5294$), ABB ($High= 15.0000$; $Low= 8.0588$), and SYM ($High= 22.3333$; $Low= 9.1765$) (Table 10).

Table 10. The Performance of High- and Low-Level Students in Reading the Notes

Categorie s	Group statistics					Levene's Test		Independent Samples T-Test				
	Level	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	F	Sig.	t	d	Sig.	Mean Difference	η^2
WRD	High	9	19.111	2.36878	.78959	1.95	.17	3.78	2	.00	6.58170	.3
	Low	7	12.529	4.88771	1.1854	4	.05	5	4	1		.7
				4								
ABB	High	9	15.000	1.93649	.64550	2.75	.11	5.52	2	.00	6.94118	.5
	Low	7	8.0588	3.47258	.84222	1	.32	5	4	0		.6
SYM	High	9	22.333	6.61438	2.2047	.349	.56	5.52	2	.00	13.15686	.5
	Low	7	9.1765	5.30607	.9		.00	6	4	0		.6

- Cohen's (1988) effect size indexes (η^2): Small = .01, moderate= .06, big= .14

- Observed range of the scores= 0-40, Low level= 0-30 and High level= 31-40 of the perfect scores (0-40).

The results of the non-normally-distributed data, as determined by Mann-Whitney U-test, were not statistically significant between the groups for the categories of NUM ($U= 58.500$, $Z= -1.551$, $P= .121$) and IE ($U= 69.500$, $Z= -.447$, $P= .655$) (Table 11).

Table 11. The Performance of High- and Low-Level Students in Reading the Notes

Categories	Group statistics					Mann-Whitney U-Test			
	Level	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Median	U	Z	Sig.	r
NUM	High	9	15.50	139.50	2.0000	58.500	-1.551	.121	-
	Low	17	12.44	211.50	2.0000				
	Total	26			2.0000				
IE	High	9	14.28	128.50	.0000	69.500	-.447	.655	-
	Low	17	13.09	222.50	.0000				
	Total	26			.0000				

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to understand the learning capabilities of the Turkish students in identifying ideas, producing notes and reading-back the notes through examining their quiz, midterm, and final exam papers. The results revealed that the participants showed a good performance in identifying the ideas during the final exam although they were unable to meet the hypothesized value of the related task both in the midterm and final exams (see table 1). This can be attributed to their inexperience in separating the idea-defining words and fitting them into the SVO units. According to Yamada (2018), syntactic processing (e.g., subject, verb, and object identifications) is critical for constructing a coherent representation of an SL chunk, and the failure to identify which semantic chunks should be included in an SVO unit “was often observed among students when they encountered difficult syntactic structures” (p. 1392). Similarly, Suaib, Nur, and Musfirah (2020) in their study among the Indonesian students at IAIN Bone revealed that the main difficulty of their subjects was a lack of mastery of the linguistic features of the SL, especially vocabulary. In addition, Ribas (2012) reported that the novice students had more problems than the advanced students especially in understanding the original language.

Moreover, a strong contrast was observed between the low- and high-level students in identifying the SVO units in the favour of the latter group (see table 3). It implies that high-level students could effortlessly process the linguistic components and “rapidly integrate different types of information (e.g., syntactic, semantic, discourse information) when they read” the sentences (Marinis, 2011, p. 467). The low-level students, on the other hand, could not identify which elements of the given sentences should be selected and included in the SVO units although they might be able to comprehend them as accurately as the high-level ones. However, difficulty in understanding and processing complex clauses affects the identification of ideas. As Dillinger (1994) truly noted that syntactic and propositional density negatively affects text comprehension and interpretation accuracy in CI.

As regards the note-producing patterns, the results revealed a clear preference of the students for the use of the WRD category over the other note forms (i.e., ABB, SYM, IE) both in the midterm and final exams (see table 4). This finding is consistent with the previous studies of Chen (2017 & 2022), Dai and Xu (2007), Dam (2004a), Liu (2010), Lung (2003) who observed that the dominant note form among the student interpreters was the WRD category, but the finding was contradictory with the results of Dam (2004b) who reported that his subjects as a group showed a preference for the use of symbols (41%) over the use of words (35%) and abbreviations (25%).

Additionally, the results indicated that the students used the WRD, SYM, and IE note forms more in the post-test than in the pre-test (see table 5). This implies that as the students became more experienced in note-producing techniques, they showed a preference for the use of other note forms. The finding aligns with the results of Chen (2022) who found that the student interpreters used a higher proportion of symbol forms than the professionals in notetaking. She maintained that this might “have to do with the fact that some students tend to discover a liking for symbols during training and develop a large stock of them over time” (p. 269). It also corroborates the assumption of Dam (2004b) that “some full words may in fact be very efficient notes” although “it seems intuitively plausible that symbols are more economical as notes” (Dam, 2004b, p. 255). Moreover, it proves the fact that as the students master note-taking techniques, they learn how to benefit from different note forms and even to ignore some elements on their note pads according to the noting-less principle of CI (Gillies, 2017).

Finally, the results displayed that the high-level students exceeded the low-level ones in using the note forms of ABB, SYM, NUM, and IE, except for WRD (see tables 6 and 7), which implies that the students tend to be ABB-, SYM-, or IE-oriented note-takers when they care greatly to their learning activities and try to explore the complexity of note-producing processes. That is to say, the more exposure and practice the students get in notetaking, the more they use various note forms in their activities. As Nai (2020) pointed out that notetaking is a multi-task activity which “can only be achieved through continuous practice” (p. 1096). The finding, on the other hand, verifies the hypothesis of Yamada (2018), who argued that “CI activities are likely to work gradually over time” (p. 1394) and “that most university students will not be able to master such skills over the course of a semester” (p. 1395).

Regarding the note-reading patterns of the students, the findings demonstrated that their performance was better in the WRD and NUM categories although their final-exam performance of the whole categories was better than the midterm one. It implies that the WRD and NUM categories in comparison with the other categories (i.e., ABB, SYM, and IE) can easily be interpreted, and experience and practice can improve the interpreting performance. This is not consistent with the results of Yamada’s (2018) study who found that the participants were “unable to jot down correct numbers on the spot and translate them into the TL”, i.e., they “could not interpret numbers regardless of note-taking status” (p. 1393).

In addition, the note-reading findings confirmed a non-significant relationship between the pre- and post-test results in the WRD, ABB, and SYM categories (see table 9), meaning that the students could easily identify the categories in the note-reading stage and made effortlessly sense

of the meanings they conveyed as well. It can also be inferred from this finding that the note-reading activities are quicker and easier to learn and process than the note-producing ones.

Ultimately, the note-reading results disclosed that the high-level students put forth a good performance in reading back the WRD, ABB, and SYM categories than the low-level ones (see table 10). That is to say, they have better recall ability in reviewing the notes and can actively process what's being said through the note forms.

CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

The present study aimed to find out the idea-identifying, note-producing, and note-reading patterns of undergraduate Turkish students in CI. The findings indicated a preference for the use of WRD note form over the other ones among the students. They also confirmed better idea-identifying, note-producing, and note-reading performances among the high-level students. However, it was concluded that the note-reading activities are faster to learn and process than the note-producing ones, and that CI works gradually over time. As Gillies (2017) suggested, note-taking is a mechanical activity that becomes automatic and internalized through using a consistent method repeatedly.

One main pedagogical implication of the study for the teachers in the field is that the findings highlight the importance of note-producing and note-reading activities in CI for better student performance. Besides, it emphasizes the fact that effective instruction paves the way for increasing student experience and practice and ultimately student achievement. Finally, the findings will be of great benefit to the researchers interested in enhancing their note-producing and note-reading picture in the context of Turkey.

As for the limitations of the study, the first one was that the data were obtained from three official exams' papers. Thus, the accuracy of the results depended on the degree to which the participants had wished to answer the questions in the exams. Moreover, the participants were Turkish students majoring in English Translation and Interpreting at a private university in Turkey during the 2021-2022 academic year; therefore, the results should not be generalized beyond the studied region, field, and time. However, the author believes that CI is a rarely touched topic in the literature. So, there is a need to follow the study with large groups to verify the robustness of the procedures and results.

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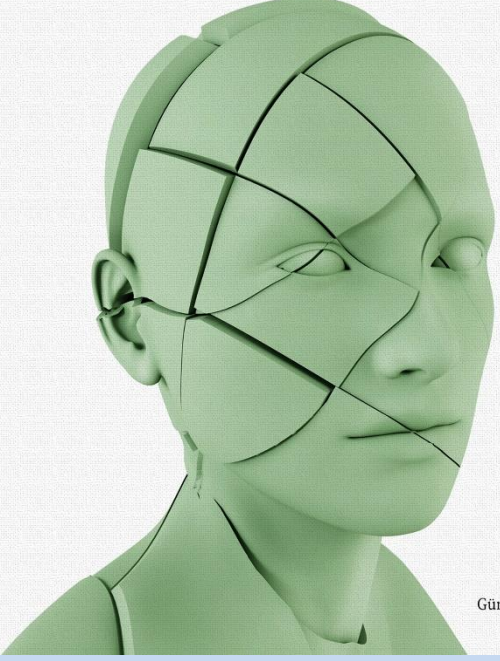
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TÜRK BİLİMKURGU EDEBİYATI VE ARKETİPLER

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Günce Yayınları

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Günce Yayınları

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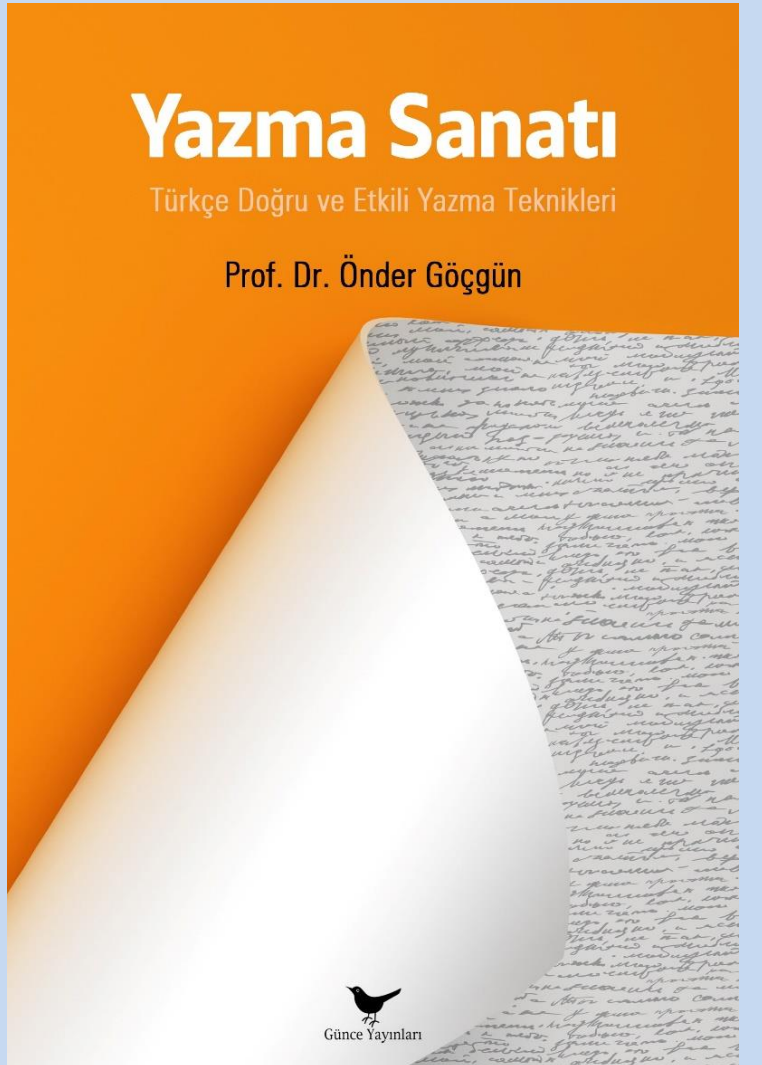


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