

Revisiting Consecutive Note-Taking: What to Note, How to Note, and in What Language?

ABSTRACT

Note-taking is taught across the board at interpreter training institutions, but opinions as to 'what', 'how', and 'in what language' one should take notes often tend to be curiously mixed. This paper revisits the three main areas where there seems to be no strong consensus, namely: 1) What and how much should interpreters note down? 2) How should they take notes: by taking down full words, abbreviations or symbols? 3) In what language should they prepare their notes: in the source or target language, in A or B language or, irrespective of the direction, in an economical language such as English? This study explores these three questions by first revisiting prescriptive views put forward by practitioners over the past few decades; it then highlights some of the empirical studies conducted in these areas; and finally it proposes recommendations for trainers, based on the author's experience as a trainer of consecutive interpreting.

Keywords: consecutive capacities, choice of form, choice of language, empirical research, note-taking

Ponoven premislek o zapisnih pri konsektivnem tolmačenju: Kaj zapisati, kako zapisati in v katerem jeziku zapisati?

IZVLEČEK

Tehnika zapisovanja se poučuje v vseh institucijah, ki izobražujejo tolmače, a mnenja o tem, kaj, kako in v katerem jeziku zapisovati, so pogosto nenavadno različna. V prispevku je predstavljen ponoven razmislek o treh glavnih temah, za katere se zdi, da glede njih ni močnega konsenza, in sicer: 1) Kaj in koliko naj bi tolmači zapisali? 2) Kako si delati zapise: pisati celotne besede, krajšave ali simbole? 3) V katerem jeziku naj bi bili zapiski: v izvirniku ali v ciljnem jeziku, v jeziku A ali B, ali, ne glede na smer, v ekonomičnem jeziku, kakršna je angleščina? Pričujoča študija se osredinja na omenjena tri vprašanja. Uvodoma so predstavljeni preskriptivni pogledi, ki so jih v zadnjih nekaj desetletjih zagovarjali tolmači-praktiki, nato pa izbrane empirične raziskave s tega področja. Avtorica na podlagi svojih izkušenj s poučevanjem konsektivnega tolmačenja prispevek sklone s priporočili za učitelje.

Ključne besede: zmožnost konsektivnega tolmačenja, izbira oblike, izbira jezika, empirične raziskave, zapiski

1 Introduction

Consecutive interpreting is one of the modes of conference interpreting which “may involve the rendering of source-language utterances lasting anywhere from a few seconds to several minutes or more” (e.g., González, Vásquez, and Mikkelsen 1991). Literature on consecutive interpreting tends to be dominated by note-taking (Russell and Takeda 2015, 105), as this activity is central to rendering a speech, or any segment of a speech, into the target language. According to data recorded in the CIRIN Bibliography¹ between 2010 and 2020 (CIRIN 2021), 42 papers were devoted to consecutive note-taking, out of which seven were master’s theses and two doctoral dissertations.²

Note-taking is an essential and integrated part of consecutive interpreting, during which the interpreter takes down the structure and logic of the speech, with a focus on keywords and numbers, but, as has been highlighted before, notes are not necessarily prepared to register the details of a speech, but rather to jog the interpreter’s memory (AIIC 2019³). Today, long consecutive interpreting is on the decline in the market, but training institutions still insist on testing this skill at their final examinations, claiming that the interpretation of a six- to eight-minute speech may be an appropriate indicator of a candidate’s suitability for the profession. In most training programmes, EMCI⁴ and others, candidates are required to render a one- to three-minute speech at their entrance examination, while they must also interpret a six- to eight-minute speech (both A<B and B<A), on specific topics, with the use of notes at their final examination. Long consecutive interpreting (\pm six minutes) also features at the SCIC accreditation examinations (both A<B and B<A),⁵ and therefore note-taking is one of the central components of most interpreter training curricula. However, when it comes to the questions of *what/how much*, *how*, or *in what language*, there still seems to be no strong consensus among trainers.

In the following sections, this paper revisits these three recurrent issues by first taking a brief, and inescapably selective glimpse at some of the prescriptive works commonly cited in relation to the above questions; it then goes on to take stock of a few relevant empirical studies, on the basis of which we can draw a few conclusions and provide some practical recommendations that trainers might find useful when it comes to note-taking and their implications for interpreter training.

2 What/How Much Should We Note Down?

2.1 What and How Much Should be Noted: Prescriptive Studies

Offering a snapshot of prescriptive works that provide any recommendation on *what* or *how much* to note is a venturesome quest, as the issue is inextricably linked to another

¹ Compiled by Daniel Gile and including the majority of papers published in journals and/or in compilations.

² Silja Chen’s opus on the process of note-taking with a focus on a pen-eye-voice approach towards cognitive load from 2017, and Hanne Cardoen’s paper on efficient note-taking written in 2013.

³ International Association of Conference Interpreters.

⁴ European Masters in Conference Interpreting (EMCI 2013–2021).

⁵ See <https://europa.eu/interpretation>.

thorny problem: *how* to note things. Looking back in time, prior to the introduction of the simultaneous mode, we may recall legendary figures who would render as long as 45-minute speeches without having to rely on their notes, but they rarely took notes themselves or not to the extent as they themselves may have recommended to others, e.g., Rozan (Ilg and Lambert 1996, 71). The UN interpreter Jean Herbert (1952) was the first professional to write about the role and the processes of note-taking, highlighting the importance of paraphrasing and suggesting the use of as few symbols as possible (Ilg and Lambert 1996, 71). The majority of the early authors recommended that interpreters should note down ideas rather than words. The most ardent advocator of this tenet was Danica Seleskovitch, representing the Paris School, who teamed up with her colleague, Marianna Lederer, to work out the interpretative model whose central idea was the principle of deverbalization, referred to as ‘theory du sens’. According to the authors, the interpreter should attempt to ‘rid’ the message of its form, and focus on its sense, the intended meaning – and this should be reflected in the notes taken down on the paper (Seleskovitch and Lederer 1995). This basic principle tends to resurface in many successive works under the disguise of different wording: the term *message* is used by Deng (1991, 285), *analysis* by Alexieva (1994, 206) or Chuang (2008, 95), and *idea* by Jones ([1998] 2002, 11) and Gillies (2004, 53).

The first comprehensive volume on the teaching of note-taking was written by Jean-François Rozan in 1956, a book that still features on the compulsory reading list of many interpreter trainees. This might be due to the fact that he was the first author to offer a series of useful pieces of advice that can be applied if one wants to take notes in a systematic manner. Rozan analyses the incoming speech from linguistic, semantic, and cognitive aspects and was among the first to highlight the significance of meaning (*‘note the idea, not the word’*). The questions of what/how much to note are presented very judiciously confining the items to seven principles in total ([1956] 2004, 15). Heinz Matyssek’s work, issued in 1989 and offering a complex system of symbols, will be discussed in more detail in 3.1.1, but as for the question of *what and how much*, he also underlines the necessity of focusing on the meaning (*“tragende Essenz”*). In his comprehensive work on conference interpreting, Roderick Jones reiterates the same notion, stressing that main ideas should be noted mainly because “they provide a skeleton outline of the speech”; moreover, links are even more crucial to note than the main ideas in order to get the logic of the speech right ([1998] 2002, 41). A few other items, not emphasized by Rozan but also vital to note, according to Jones, include the speaker’s personal point of view, the tenses of verbs, lists, and, most importantly, numbers and proper names, both of which should enjoy priority. Numbers and names, in particular, are notorious as they put an extra burden on our memory and cannot be recalled on the basis of context, so they need to be jotted down immediately (Dingfelder 2015, 162). Besides names and numbers, practitioners also tend to note down technical terms, and the speaker’s carefully chosen words to render the speech as faithfully as possible – all of which may seem to contradict the general suggestion that ideas, rather than words, should be jotted down.

Besides Jones’ and Gillies postulates on noting down ‘ideas’ they both claim that a speech may be broken down into SVO (subject-verb-object) components irrespective of the word order or the given sentence structure. They, however, highlight that the main task in consecutive interpreting is to convey the message and the notes “can function as a kind of discipline, forcing the interpreter to make the analysis” (Jones [1998] 2002, 40).

2.2 What and How Much Should be Noted – Empirical Research

If anyone sets out to explore the question *what/how much to note?*, they may find only a handful of empirical research papers (partly) touching upon this issue. Gile's study conducted in 1991 may be one such paper consulted here (quoted by Chen 2016, 157), which is very likely to have greatly contributed to his Effort Model detailing various capacities required for interpreting (Gile [1995] 2009). In this experiment, one group was instructed to take notes systematically while another was only permitted to put down names and figures they heard during the presentation. The results showed that members of the first group noted down the names with more mistakes because, as Gile explained, note-taking may have diverted their attention from focusing on listening.

Several experiments investigating the issue of *how much* have revealed excessive notes (Thiéry 1981; Seleskovitch [1975] 2002; Mead 2011; Sanchez 2018), a problem that most trainees tend to be fraught with until they learn how to compress and economize in a systematic manner. A relatively recent study conducted in 2018 (Yamada 2018) confirmed, however, that even systematic note-taking does not necessarily lead to better quality in the interpreter's rendition. In this respect, there had been some earlier scepticism in this regard, especially among the representatives of the French school (e.g., Thiéry) who saw no point in teaching note-taking at all (Chen 2016, 156; Ilg and Lambert 1996, 78).

On the basis of the above it seems probable that based on empirical data alone it would be difficult to determine what trainees should be advised about *how much* to note. The issue – as well as the validity of research – is further complicated by the fact that notes should be examined in relation to the *quality* of the rendition, and the bulk of the literature on this issue illustrates aptly just how complex the notion of quality is⁶.

2.3 What and How Much Should be Noted: Suggestion for Trainers

Most interpreter trainers would agree that, in the initial phase of learning consecutive interpreting, no notes should be taken (Seleskovitch 1999, 64; Setton and Dawrant 2016a, 146); and trainees should be required to do a lot of *gist-recall* or memory exercises, to learn how to retain and recall information without notes (Láng 2002, 143) to get the hang of information processing and become aware of the process of interpreting the message. A superb website called Online Resources for Conference Interpreter Training (ORCIT n.d.), developed for autonomous learning, has a separate section devoted to consecutive interpreting without notes.⁷ Besides the site's value in supplementing trainers' materials and allowing trainees to do extra work in an autonomous mode, the ideas, systematically organized into topics in ORCIT, may also be suitable for 'flipped classrooms' – a modern instructional strategy permitting students to consult the learning material before it is introduced in class.

At which stage note-taking should be introduced and how systematically it should be taught are both matters requiring individual trainer deliberation. Due to the arbitrary nature

⁶ Chen's paper (2016) also quotes some empirical studies linking note-taking and quality.

⁷ See https://orcit.eu/resources/eci-en/story_html5.html.

of notes and the tendency of trainees to rely too heavily on them and, as a consequence, forget to listen, some trainers are reluctant to teach any note-taking system. Nevertheless, if note-taking is taught judiciously, there may be three benefits, as highlighted by Setton and Dawrant (2016a, 143): 1) the taking of notes and the selection of representatives for key ideas seem to enhance the analytical process; 2) notes help relieve the memory of having to store names, numbers, technical terms and lists, allowing more capacities for analysis; and 3) notes allow the interpreter to organize the structure and highlight certain elements with the aim of providing a thorough basis for the rendition phase. What we, as trainers, need to do is warn the students in the first phase of note-taking that their performance will temporarily deteriorate (as confirmed by longitudinal studies, e.g., Alexieva 1994), as well as remind them to be patient and encourage them to practise autonomously. During this period of experimentation, they should focus on the structure and logic of the speech, and this is what trainer assessment should be restricted to. Further aspects such as presentation skills, expressing shades of meaning and other components of consecutive interpreting may be added at a later phase.

What interpreter trainers also need to do is learn to ‘grade’ speeches in terms of their complexity. Most platforms designed to assist interpreter trainers by making speeches available, such as the Speech Repository or the SpeechPool are already graded (i.e., basic, beginner, intermediate, advanced, advanced test type) but the capability to put together a speech at a given level may come in handy when preparing speeches for entrance or final examinations. Setton and Dawrant’s volume (*A Trainer’s Guide*) gives us some valuable insights in this respect (see the section on Speech Difficulty Index, SDI (2016b), and one may also wish to read Andres’ study on text selection criteria (2014), or consult Besznyák’s recent paper (2020), which gives advice on how to increase source text difficulty by analysing, or even carefully inserting, lexical pitfalls.

While trainees are in the initial phase of note-taking, it might be a good idea to let them try their hand at three different techniques, i.e., alternating between a) consecutive interpreting without notes, and b) keyboarding (e.g., applying Gillies’ SVO system) and taking down basic notes, and then registering their experiences in a logbook. Setton and Dawrant also highlight that the longer the time trainees spend taking notes, the less they will write (also on account of fatigue), and therefore it might be a useful pedagogical tool to ask them to take notes during a mini-conference and observe how their own note-taking changes over a two-hour period (2016b, 193). Trainees need to be constantly reminded of Gile’s Effort Model and keep in mind that the less they note, the more capacity they will be able to save for listening and analysis.

If we were to take stock of what trainers should encourage their trainees to note down, the list would feature the following components – not presented in order of importance: a) the main ideas – segmented by lines; b) the speaker’s opinion; c) names; d) numbers; e) lists f) cohesive devices and link words; g) indication of tense and time; h) major keywords including terms; and i) the beginning and the end of speech (introduction and conclusion).

As a final point, the question of *how much* and *how systematically* to note a speech may depend on another factor: familiarity with the topic: if the interpreter is well informed in one particular field, is at ease with the relevant terminology, and understands how ideas are

connected, s/he would have to rely somewhat less on his or her short-term memory than on his or her long-term memory. Besides domain-specific competence (or the lack thereof) being a factor, proper preparation for assignments may play an equally important role in how much an interpreter puts down on paper. Consequently, interpreter training institutions must put as large an emphasis as possible on preparing their trainees for interpreted events and mini conferences, while field trips (see Szabó 2017) may also help students put their skills to the test under pressure and in front of a genuine audience.

3 How Should We Take Notes?

The second frequently discussed and researched area in note-taking is the form of notes. The options available for an interpreter include full words, abbreviations, symbols and drawings of some sort.

3.1 The Form of Notes: Prescriptive Works

3.1.1 Symbols

Most practitioners advise interpreters against using too many symbols, warning that recalling a symbol may use up too much capacity and thus cause a deficit with regard to listening and analysis (e.g., Rozan [1956] 2004, 25; Bowen and Bowen 1984; Taylor-Bouladon 2007). Rozan suggests the number of symbols used to be around twenty, and he put them into four categories: expression, movement, reference and frequent terminology, a basic system adopted by Ilg and Lambert (Ilg 1980, 1982; Ilg and Lambert 1996), who added that interpreters should also use abbreviations they would use in real life. Trainers should encourage such efforts, and contemporary students' natural reliance on symbols borrowed from the digital world, such as emoticons, is a case in point.

As for the form of notes, Heinz Matyssek is often quoted as the author of the most elaborate system attempting to prescribe how notes should be taken down. In his *Handbuch der Notizentechnik für Dolmetscher*, published in 1989, he designed an intricate system of symbols suitable for expressing every linguistic element, and by combining these, all the details of a speech can be noted down systematically. Although the number of symbols prescribed is high, his concept and principles seem to show a fair number of similarities with those of other prescriptive works of his other predecessors, such as Herbert or Rozan. (Sawyer 2004, 24; Ahrens 2005; or Setton and Dawrant 2016b, 203). Matyssek's system has been praised for allowing note-taking to be done language-independently but it has also been critiqued for being too scrupulous (and therefore likened to shorthand) as well as being too enormous an investment "to master to a point when it becomes effortless" (Dingfelder Stone 2014, 148). Albl-Mikasa emphasized its benefits for being a "pattern-based, combinatorial and recursive system of linguistic symbols" as opposed to Ilg and Lambert's opinion which labelled it as a "third, pictorial and pictorial code superimposed on language" (Ilg and Lambert 1996, 78 cited by Albl-Mikasa 2020, 382). Nevertheless, Matyssek's meticulous notation system has since proved its viability as several generations of German interpreters have learned to use it efficiently.

Matyssek's system also proved its value by serving as a basis for other notation schemes, notably that of Allioni (1989) who worked out the grammar of consecutive interpreting by relying on English and Italian syntactic rules and a reasonable number of symbols. A representative of the Soviet School, Minyar-Beloruchev (1969) also argued for a large number of symbols to avoid interferences from source language notation in the delivery phase.

3.1.2 Simplification

The term simplification is a peculiar one in note-taking. While anything put down on paper in our notes instead of the verbatim might be seen as simplification, including symbols and abbreviations, here by simplification we refer to compressed items on the note pad that express the same thing as a longer, more complex verbal utterance, e.g., instead of *has actually deteriorated* we note *worse* (Gillies 2017, 123), or when we simply write *HI* or *TX* and express greeting and gratitude with more eloquent phrases in the rendition phase. In their volume, Setton and Dawrant provide other great examples such as *achieve visibility with respect to = see*, or *there's the possibility that = might* (2016a, 160); and one of the present author's activities designed for the interpreting classroom entitled "Keep it short and simple" (KISS) focuses on this specific compression strategy (Szabó 2003, 114–15).⁸ To adhere to the KISS-principle, interpreters might rely on the advice given by Ilg and Lambert to use four- or five-letter words he referred to as ZIP-vocabulary (Ilg and Lambert 1996, see more details in 3.1.3 below). A Hungarian practitioner, Láng, also highlights the importance of reduction; to use single words instead of long, more elaborate phrases (2002, 133), a technique that presupposes the proper understanding of the analysis of an idea.

3.1.3 Abbreviations

Abbreviation is another valid and frequently adopted technique to achieve compression or simplification. Its usage is obviously not confined to consecutive note-taking; its benefits are mentioned in various books recommended for general note-taking. It is one of Rozan's basic principles, and he also claims – as did Ilg and Lambert – that four- or five-letter words lend themselves best to notation. As to which of the letters should be noted from a word, opinions differ largely but Becker (1972, 30) insists that from the psycholinguistic perspective the initial letter should be registered as we store both L1 and L2 vocabulary in our mental lexicon on the basis of initial letters. Below is a list of possible abbreviation techniques that are usually recommended by practitioners:

1. Conventional abbreviations we know from before (e.g., from our previous studies) e.g., *NB* – nota bene, *BC* – before Christ, etc. (Herbert 1952, 37; Matyssek 1989, 113);
2. Keeping the first syllable (*GOV* = government, *REP* = representative, etc.) although one needs to be cautious as one syllable may trigger more than one options causing

⁸ The volume referred to briefly as the *Recipe Book*, published in 2003 by British Council, consists of two parts: part one has chapters on various topics written by Hungarian practitioners and trainers as well as Franz Pöschhacker who wrote a chapter on research in Interpreting Studies. Part 2 of the volume presents a fair number of ideas and activities suitable either for the interpreting classroom, or for autonomous work to develop a range of interpreting skills.

interference (e.g., ‘exp’ could be expert, export, experience, expect or several other things);

3. Keeping the word stem and indicating the ending in superscript, e.g., production - *prodⁿ*, government - *gov^t*, governance - *gov^{ce}* (Rozan 2003, 11; Setton and Dawrant 2016a, 162);
4. Using familiar acronyms (e.g., *UN, EU, FBI, CFSP, etc.*), but we may as well invent acronyms on the spot for keywords of the speech, e.g., private health insurance fund - *PHIF*. Some interpreters circle their ad-hoc acronyms to remind themselves of their on-the-spot invention, etc. One should be careful with ad hoc acronyms though, while keywords might be suitable for such impromptu solutions, other words denoting secondary meaning may be difficult to recall in the production phase.
5. Keeping important letters that help denote meaning but omit others, e.g., arpln (airplane), cmtee (committee) or elfnt (elephant) (Nolan 2005, 296);
6. Keeping consonants only (like Owl in Milne’s *Winnie-the-Pooh*) e.g., prdctn, dvlpmnt, gyvmnt etc. – although this technique might not work for everyone as it has been shown that non-English (non-European language) speakers may find it difficult to recognize words without the vowels (Setton and Dawrant 2016b, 184 and also in Minyar-Beloruhev 1969, 211 cited in Siantova, 2015, 48);
7. ZIP-vocab: a collection of short words typically used in British press such as *AID* meaning *assistance, support*, or *KEY* meaning *significant, prominent*. (Ilg and Lambert 1996, 80, as well as Láng 2002, 132);
8. Interpreters studying in Geneva were also advised to use abbreviations borrowed from Latin e.g., *ave, dux, dia, geo, rex, pax, vox* (Ilg and Lambert 1996, 80), although the number of candidates arriving at training institutions with a solid Latin background is generally on the decline.

3.1.4 Visual Representations

Among the techniques of visual representation, the *mind-mapping method* deserves special mention (Windiari 2012). On the ORCIT website there is a fair number of exercises that encourage trainees to remember the logic of the speech by suggesting the use of a mental mindmap. This technique can be used in two ways: as a memo exercise (consecutive interpreting without notes) or by giving them speeches (or at least a part of them) that are possible to represent in the form of a mindmap (also see Gillies 2017, 21–25).

Another, highly peculiar form of note-taking is a so-called *picture-based technique*⁹, where interpreters basically make a drawing, or a set of drawings to remember the speech. Needless to say, this technique may be adequate for narrative types of speeches but would be less appropriate, if not wholly insufficient, for more technical speeches laden with abstract terms

⁹ This video offers an insight into this technique: <https://www.glendon.yorku.ca/interpretation/2015/01/11/are-you-looking-for-a-fresh-take-on-consecutive/>.

such as speeches with an economic or legal focus. It might be worthwhile to find speeches which would enable trainees to depart from the conventional (“Rozanian”) notation moving from left to write, and following the principle of verticality and shifting, speeches that could be recorded by means of a different *visual representation*. Showing such examples to trainees may encourage them to channel more attention into the listening and analysis phase and use any notation, if necessary, thinking out of the box, inspired by the spur of the moment, to record meaning with a unique visual representation.

In the long term the idea is to develop a European high-speed railway network with Paris at its centre. A line to the north will reach Brussels, where it can branch out to the east to Cologne, or continue further north to Amsterdam and later even Hamburg. To the south-east the line through Lyon will enter Italy through Turin and reach through Rome and Naples right down to the toe of Italy. And in the south-west a link up with Spain via Barcelona and then to Madrid will make it possible to extend the network down to Seville.

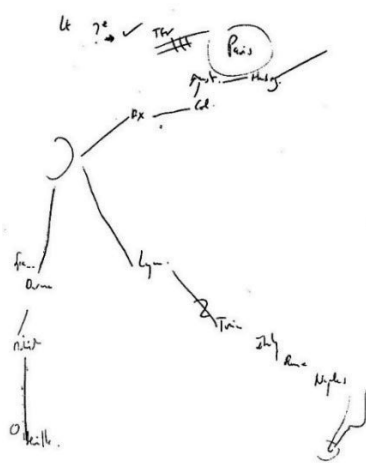


FIGURE 1. Non-linear representation of a speech. A note prepared by a professional interpreter at the European Parliament in 1999 (Szabó 2003, 134).

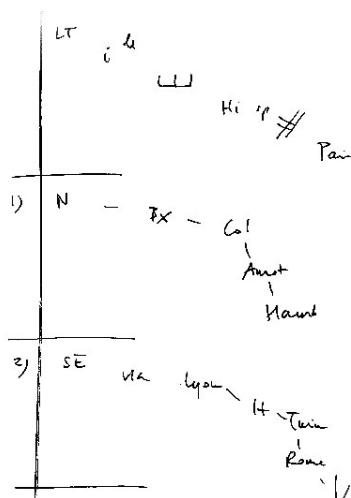


FIGURE 2. Notes to demonstrate the linear representation of a speech.¹⁰

To illustrate the difference, Figure 2 shows the notes of the same speech, following Rozan’s advice.

3.1.5 Other Considerations Concerning the Form of Notes

As for the form of notes, there are other recommendations put forward by various authors. One of Rozan’s principles includes verticality and shifting, while both Becker and Matyssek seem to have a tendency to favour linearity (see examples in Láng 2002, 208–9). Jones argues for a diagonal format claiming that this allows the eyes to move naturally (1998, 50), and

¹⁰ Prepared by the current author for the purposes of demonstrating the difference between various visual representations.

Gillies also prefers a diagonal layout saying that it supports the visualization of the structure and as the ideas on the pad “stand out” (2017, 44). The use of the left-hand margin is emphasized by many practitioners (Jones [1998] 2002, 46 or Gillies 2017, 146). In this part of the pad, divided by an imaginary or real vertical line of about two to four centimetres in width, different pieces of information can be recorded, among them link words, dates, or the speaker’s personal point of view. Gillies highlights that sometimes the subject (the first element of the SVO structure) can appear on the margin for emphasis, or any other important information that the interpreter may want to stand out (2017, 155).

3.2 The Form of Notes: Empirical Studies

Based on the relevant literature available it is possible to say that one major area of investigation is the proportion of full words, abbreviations and symbols used by interpreters in their notes. In an excellent summary also investigating prescriptive and descriptive works on the subject, Silja Chen (2016) collected empirical studies focussing on the form of notes (among other features) where she attempted to show whether linguistic elements (words and abbreviations) or symbols were more likely to be noted down by the subjects taking part in the research, and if the former, which of the two (words or abbreviation) dominated the interpreters’ notes.

Chen’s table on the choice of form (2016, 161), which looks at five relevant studies (Lung 2003; Dam 2004a and 2004b; Dai and Xu 2007; Liu 2010; Wang, Zhao, and Wang 2010), clearly shows that in all the studies where this aspect was investigated language prevailed over symbol. Concerning the choice between full words and abbreviations, there was a slight tendency to a preference for full words. These findings are also corroborated by the present author’s empirical research conducted in 2004 and summarized in a doctoral dissertation (Szabó 2005), where eight interpreters’ notes (four professional and four trainee interpreters) were subjected to close scrutiny not only in terms of their choice of language but also their choice of form. This investigation also found that the majority (45%) of the subjects put down full words, with symbols coming second (39%) and abbreviations occupying third place (16%).

All researchers active in IS would be fully aware that these samples are far from being representative, and they are all conscious of the difficulties and limitations researchers face in Interpreting Studies. One possible solution would be a replication of empirical studies, and it seems that researchers are quite willing to replicate their own or a fellow researcher’s studies: in a recent study Olalla-Soler (2020) demonstrated that 46.2% of the respondents have already published replica studies in the field of translation or interpreting studies (52.2% of those studies were conducted in the field of translation and only somewhat less, 47.8% in interpreting).

3.3 How Notes Should be Taken Down: Suggestions for Trainers

Taking the above into consideration, what advice could be given to trainers? First, they should provide trainees with ample opportunities to be acquainted with all four options (full words, abbreviations, symbols, and visual representations), trying their hands at all types, mixed or unmixed, with various text types and different language directions. Autonomous learning also needs to play a key role in the process of trainees formulating their own individual notation

style, although the trainer may not want them to experiment without any guidance. Trainers running a course at different stages of the curriculum should coordinate their teaching, and discuss who teaches what and in what order (see also Setton and Dawrant's timeline of stages in conference interpreting training: 2016b, 86).

Trainers should be encouraged to assign students useful and interesting exercises: they can practice note-taking with written input (based on newspaper articles), they can use videos (Speech Repository, SpeechPool, or even TED talks). Peer assessment and self-assessment should also feature prominently among their tasks (e.g., field observation tasks specifically designed for this purpose, or observations of self and peers to be entered into a logbook, where ipsative and formative assessment – done both by trainers and trainees – may be valuable tools to reflect on their own development; see further ideas in Szabó 2020). Trainees may also be given opportunities to reflect on their own notes in terms of form, i.e., to observe their own ratio of full words, abbreviations and symbols with the aim of raising awareness of such habits. Autonomous note-taking tasks could also be assigned on the basis of dedicated websites, such as ORCIT (see above), the multifaceted Interpreter Training Resources,¹¹ or the training materials compiled and made available by the European Commission's DG Interpreting,¹² to name but a few.

Trainers may also show their notes and highlight some of the features discussed. In online classes the screen-sharing function may allow all students to take a close look at the trainer's notes by linking a graphic tablet (such as an iPad or a specific drawing tablet) with the whiteboard function, or linking another device with a camera showing the real-time note-taking of the trainer.

As to general issues concerning *how to note* Gillies offers a shortlist with some basic advice featuring words such as clarity, minimality, etc. – trainers might want to take these recommendations as a starting point and offer it as a distilled set of advice. In the present author's experience, specific tasks focusing on zipping and simplification yield very good results in the long run (see, Szabó 2003, 114–117), and therefore it might be worth giving it an extra emphasis. Most importantly, however, students should remember that they are the only ones that need to work from their notes, it is they who should be able to make sense of them, and the notes should work as a cue to jog their memory right then and there.

4 In What Language Should We Take Notes?

The choice of language in note-taking is just as important one as the previous two issues and it bears an equally great relevance for training.

4.1 The Choice of Language: Prescriptive Works

This issue has been visited and revisited a fair number of times, also by the current author (Szabó 2005, 2006). One of the most frequently applied aspects concerning the choice of language is the distinction between source language (SL) and target language

¹¹ See <https://interpretertrainingresources.eu/consecutive>.

¹² See https://ec.europa.eu/education/knowledge-centre-interpretation/training-material_en.

(TL). Several suggestions have been put forward to take notes in the TL (Herbert 1952; Rozan [1956] 2002; Seleskovitch and Lederer 1989; among others), highlighting that here processing, (including code-switching) takes place already during the listening and analysis phase, allowing the interpreter a) to move away from the SL's surface structure to avoid interference, and b) to pay increased attention to the reformulation in the TL. This postulate was confirmed by Andres, following a series of empirical investigations (2002) and also by Jones ([1998] 2002) relying on his professional experience as a conference interpreter.

In contrast, there has been an equally large group of experts (pl. Kirchhoff 1979; Ilg 1988; Alexieva 1994; Gile [1995] 2009) advocating the use of the language of the source text emphasizing that it is 'safer' to prepare notes in the incoming language as in this phase there is considerable cognitive load on account of the various activities carried out simultaneously (i.e., listening, analysis, taking notes, activating one's memory and coordinating all the above). In his effort model of consecutive interpreting (2009, 175–79), Gile deems taking notes in the target language to be cognitively more demanding because the operations given above require a great deal of capacities. Setton and Dawrant (2016a, 151) agree that listening and note-taking are "more effort-intensive" and determined by the speaker's speech tempo, unlike delivery. Gile's suggestion to overcome the saturation problem is to abandon the single-language approach and take notes in SL when the incoming speech is more difficult and the cognitive load is heavy, and switch to TL notation when there is reduced pressure (Gile 2009, 179). This suggestion has been adopted by the AIIC when advising that the language of notes should be the TL when it is possible, and SL when it is necessary (AIIC 1994, 21). Setton and Dawrant also argue for TL notes, adding that in the delivery phase interference might be a hazard (2016b, 489); meanwhile, some suggest that notes should be taken down in the TL because this allows trainees to get some initial practice in simultaneity on account of the parallel text processing, which may be an ideal method of preparation for early simultaneous interpreting (Setton and Dawrant 2016a, 151).

4.2 Choice of Language: Empirical Research

One of the first empirical experiments into the language of notes was conducted by Seleskovitch ([1975] 2002), involving 13 interpreters and focusing on the cognitive dimensions of the interpreting process (Ahrens 2015, 285). Lambert, relying on the feedback of 16 interpreters, conducted a study (1989) in which she concluded that consecutive interpreting yielded deeper processing than simultaneous, as notes strongly supported information retention. In 1998, Kalina conducted a thorough study with a focus on identifying interpreter strategies, and having also analysed a high number of notes, she concluded that note-taking was both possible and essential as long as the notes were adequately structured and tailor-made to students' needs. In another study involving rare video-documentation of note-taking, Andres (2002) recorded 14 experts and 14 novices and concluded that a time lag (*décalage*) had a profound impact on note-taking and subsequent target text delivery, indicating capacity management problems.

A set of systematic research analysis was initiated by Dam (2004a and 2004b), later to be followed by several replicated studies, to further explore language choice in note-taking. She

found that besides an apparent preference for the target language (2004a), the examined subjects showed a marked tendency to use their *A language* (2004b) irrespective of the task (source vs target), which she attributed to the better mastery of the mother tongue, and therefore a faster and more straight-forward option she later described as “the language of least effort” (2010, 78).

As one of the first replications of Dam’s research, Szabó (2006) looked at a group of eight interpreters with Hungarian A and English B and found that students preferred to take notes in English regardless of the direction, and possibly owing to the fact that English is morphologically less complex and thus lends itself to more economical note-taking. Some other papers, mostly written at master’s level, replicated the same inquiries, including Mari (2010) with German and Japanese, Garlaschelli (2013) as well as Curcio (2013) with German and Italian, Stecher (2016) with French and German, with two doctoral dissertations examining the same issues, Frey (2007) with English and Japanese and more recently Chen (2017a) with English and Chinese. Interestingly, Chen came up with similar results to those of Szabó, and also identified typological differences (Chinese being distinctly different from English) as well as a clear preference for English assuming that English letters are simpler and faster to write than Chinese characters (2017a, 16).

Chen has produced some other valuable papers dealing with note-taking over the past few years, but one of her greatest merits lies in her summary of other relevant works written in Chinese, and therefore unavailable to European scholars. As a result of her work it has been revealed that Dai and Xu (2007) found source and A language dominance, while Wang, Zhao and Wang (2010) detected source language preference with very few symbols used in the notes (Chen 2016, 160).

González (2012) surveyed three different groups (10 novices, 10 advanced students and 10 professionals) and found that the more experienced the subject, the more likely he/she is to take notes in the target language, as this can free up more capacity for code-switching in the listening phase. Baselli (2012) already involved C language into the investigation of the issue but noticed little if any impact of this on the notes. Błaszczuk and Hanusiak conducted a study in 2010 with a similar focus involving English and Polish which showed that C may appear as a third language in notes. The author of this paper can confirm this conclusion: several of her other subjects in the same study (Szabó 2006) used C language words (mainly German and French) and also some of her students with different working languages regularly used English words in their notes. Short English words (such as *and*, *but*, *so*, *if*, *tho*, etc.) might surface in notes not taken by an interpreter with an English B, and they may function as quasi symbols (Jones [1998] 2002, 53), although interestingly and somewhat incredibly, Hungarian does have similarly short and economical link words (*és*, *de*, *így*, *ha*, *bár*, etc.) that often function as alternatives.

What conclusions can we possibly draw from all this? Owing to the small number of empirical studies which also involve only a limited number of subjects, there is still a lot of work to be done. What seems to be certain is that the choice of language depends on various factors including directionality, proficiency, the difficulty of the task at hand, familiarity with the topic or, in fact, education (how the interpreter was trained).

4.3 Choice of Language: Suggestions for Trainers

When it comes to the language of notes in the training of interpreters, it is hard to tell what advice trainers should follow. Even the authors of the most systematically compiled handbook on interpreting training (Setton and Dawrant 2001a and 2016b) sound somewhat perplexed when they write that “individual interpreters will find what works best for them”. In fact, the best advice we may give to trainees should be as general as possible, so as to leave them with enough room to develop their own individual systems. First, they should be acquainted with the options (source vs target, A versus B and, depending on their language combination, some reliance on English and/or on their C language(s)). Then they should be encouraged to experiment and try out ideas that seem to work for others: they may use a mixed notation language, put down ad hoc symbols for keywords of the speech, use TL when the speech is easy to follow and fall back on the source language when the cognitive load is high. Overall, they should also adhere to the principle of KISS on the language front, and attempt to economize as much as possible, whichever language feels more convenient for achieving this end.

5 Conclusions

Note-taking is one of the fields in the training of conference interpreters where opinions tend to be curiously mixed. Most trainers would probably agree that there is no universal, one-size-fits-all approach, since note-taking appears to be highly individualized. The role of the trainer, therefore, may be to provide trainees with a wealth of relevant information obtained from two sources: advice given by practitioners and data offered by empirical research. Once familiar with the techniques available to choose from, and having spent a fairly long time practising both autonomously and with peers, trainees will be able to embark upon their own, individual notation system.

The present study revisited three key areas which form the backbone of note-taking and which tend to lack a clear consensus as regards: 1) *what and how much* should be noted down; 2) *how* notes should be put down: –in the form of full words, abbreviations, symbols or drawings; and 3) *in what language* – in the source or in the target language, in A or B language or, irrespective of the direction, in an economical language such as English.

In relation to the first question, *how much and what*, this paper reiterated that notes should be introduced at a later stage of the initial phase of consecutive training after a longer period of consecutive training without notes. When introducing note-taking, Rozan’s principles are recommended as a good starting point and trainees may add new aspects (left-hand margin, speaker’s opinion, indication of time, etc.) step by step. Gist recall and memory exercises should be retained all throughout this period to help trainees remember that the listening and analysis effort should be of primary importance. In this section, the importance of the grading of speeches was also highlighted, as was the fact that excessive note-taking may be detrimental to understanding the message.

Secondly, the paper reinvestigated the question of *how*, i.e., the *choice of form* in note-taking. First, suggestions for using symbols were revisited, then ideas for simplification were presented including a detailed description of eight common abbreviation techniques, and a

few ideas were also put forward to experiment with different forms of visual representation. The technique of economical paraphrasing was also stressed. Empirical data here could be used to explore how other interpreters record information, something which may help trainees study their own ratios of the use of full words, abbreviations and symbols, thereby potentially achieving more conscious note-taking. Here the use of journals and logbooks was recommended, so as to enable both formative and ipsative assessment, carried out both by trainers and trainees themselves.

The third area re-examined in this paper concerned consecutive interpreters' *choice of language* in their notes. Here, neither prescriptive works nor empirical studies may clearly help trainers decide what advice they should give trainees about the language of notes. Again, similarly to the form of notes, students should be acquainted with the various options (source vs target language, A vs B language, a few judicious items from C language(s), and English, as an economical option) to find out, after extensive experimentation, which alternative suits the individual best. Trainees should be reminded that mixed-language notes may be equally useful, and that economizing – in whichever language feels most feasible – should be a priority.

Any paper on note-taking needs to include a few words on technology, which is expected to shape the future of note-taking techniques and may trigger changes in consecutive interpreting training curricula. Tablet interpreting is now standard practice among professional interpreters; there have been several studies published in the topic (among them Goldsmith and Holley 2015, Goldsmith 2017, 2018) and practitioners can even consult a tablet interpreting manual (Dreschel 2017)¹³. It is only a matter of time until tablets find their way into consecutive interpreting classrooms, and this process has probably been accelerated by the pandemic as trainers started use a larger range of digital devices in their online training courses.

With or without state-of-the-art technology, note-taking is a highly complex and individual activity which does not offer clear patterns and conveniently direct routes leading to complete its mastery. It is hoped that new empirical research, including both replicated studies and newly designed investigations, will shed some new light on the topic, offering new food for thought for trainers and trainees alike.

References

- Ahrens, Barbara. 2005. "Roazan and Matyssek: Are They Really That Different? A Comparative Synopsis of Two Classic Note-Taking Schools." *Forum* 3 (2): 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1075/forum.3.2.01ahr>.
- . 2015. "Note-Taking." In *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Interpreting Studies*, edited by Franz Pochthacker, 283–86. London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315678467>.
- AIIC. 2019. "Glossary: Note-Taking." <https://aiic.org/site/world/conference/glossary>.
- . 1994. *Interpreter Training Workshop*, Poznan, 8–10 April, 1994. Geneva.
- Albl-Mikasa, Michaela. 2020. "Note-Taking." In *Routledge Encyclopaedia of Translation Studies*, edited by Mona Baker and Gabriela Saldanha, 380–85. London: Routledge.
- Alexieva, Bistra. 1994. "On Teaching Note-Taking in Consecutive Interpreting." In *Teaching Translation and Interpreting* 2, edited by Cay Dollerup and Annette Lindegaard, 199–206. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.5.28ale>.

¹³ Or a recent one available here: <https://techforword.com/p/the-tablet-interpreting-manual>.

- Allioni, Sergio. 1989. "Towards a Grammar of Consecutive Interpretation." In *The Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Teaching Conference Interpretation*, edited by John Dodds and Laura Gran, 191–97. Udine: Campanotto.
- Andres, Dörte. 2002. *Konsequativdolmetschen und Notation*. Frankfurt: P. Lang.
- . 2014. "Easy? Medium? Hard? The Importance of Text Selection in Interpreter Training." In *To Know How to Suggest... Approaches to Teaching Conference Interpreting*, edited by Andres Dörte and Martina Behr, 103–24. Berlin: Frank & Timme.
- Baselli, Valentina. 2012. "Which Language do Interpreters Use in Consecutive Interpreting?" In *Proceedings in Advanced Research in Scientific Areas*, December 3–7, 2012, 1252–56. Milan.
- Becker, Wilhelm. 1972. *Notizentechnik*. Gernersheim: BBK Gesellschaft für moderne Sprachen.
- Besznyák, Rita. 2020. "Tolmácsolási gyakorlószövegek graduálása lexikai csapdák elemzésével." In *Iránytű a tolmácsolás oktatásához. A kompetenciafejlesztés új fókuszai* [*Compass to the Training of Interpreters: New Perspectives on Competence Development*], edited by Csilla Szabó and Mária Bakti. Szeged: Juhász Gyula Felsőoktatási Kiadó.
- Błaszczuk Piotr, and Dariusz Hanusiak. 2010. "The Choice of Language for Note-Taking for Consecutive Interpreting: A Polish Perspective." *MikaEL Kääntämisen ja tulkkauksen tutkimuksen symposiumin verkkojulkaisu – Electronic Proceedings of the KäTu Symposium on Translation and Interpreting Studies 4*.
- Bowen, David, and Margareta Bowen, eds. 1990. *Interpreting: Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Cardoen, Hanne. 2013. *The Effect of Note-Taking on Target-Text Fluency*. Leuven: CETRA.
- Chen, Silja. 2016. "Note-Taking in Consecutive Interpreting: A Review with Special Focus on Chinese and English Literature." *The Journal of Specialised Translation* 26 (1): 151–71.
- . 2017a. "Note-Taking in Consecutive Interpreting: New Data from Pen Recording." *Translation & Interpreting* 9 (1): 4–23. <https://doi.org/10.12807/ti.109201.2017.a02>.
- . 2017b. "The Construct of Cognitive Load in Interpreting and Its Measurement." *Perspectives* 25 (4): 640–57. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2016.1278026>.
- Chuang, Li-ling. 2008. "Note-Taking Know-How: A Processing Perspective on Consecutive Interpreting." *Spectrum: Studies in Language, Literature, Translation, and Interpretation* 2: 93–101. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0907676X.2016.1278026>.
- CIRIN. 2021. "CIRIN Bibliography." <https://www.cirinandgile.com/Biblihome.html>.
- Curcio Rossella. 2013. "Die Notationssprache beim Konsektivdolmetschen aus dem Deutschen ins Italienische." MA thesis, University of Vienna. http://othes.univie.ac.at/29453/1/2013-08-26_0704339.pdf.
- Dai, Weidong, and Haiming Xu. 2007. "An Empirical Study of the Features of Interpreters' Notes in Chinese-English Consecutive Interpreting: The Examples of Professionally Trained and Unprofessional Interpreters." *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* 39 (2): 136–44.
- Dam, Helle V. 2004a. "Interpreters' Notes: On the Choice of Form and Language." In *Claims, Changes and Challenges in Translation Studies*, edited by Gyde Hansen, Kirsten Malmkjær, and Daniel Gile, 251–61. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.50.21dam>.
- . 2004b. "Interpreters' Notes on the Choice of Language." *Interpreting* 6 (1): 3–17. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.6.1.03dam>.
- . 2010. "Consecutive Interpreting." In *Handbook of Translation Studies*, edited by Yves Gambier and Luc van Doorslaer, 75–79. Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Deng, Yangping. 1991. "Consecutive Notes: An Artist's Tool." In *Collected Essays on Translation*, edited by Chih Long Liu, 284–92. Hong Kong: Commercial Press.
- Dingfelder Stone, Maren. 2014. "The Theory and Practice of Teaching Note-Taking." In *To Know How to Suggest... Approaches to Teaching Conference Interpreting*, edited by Andres Dörte and Martina Behr, 145–66. Berlin: Frank & Timme.
- Drechsel, Alexander. 2017. *The Tablet Interpreter*. <https://static1.squarespace.com/static/52d4015ce4b0eab6f2d76b6f/t/594b8b7a414fb54310f5957d/149812313>.
- EMCI. 2013–2021. "Welcome to the European Masters in Conference Interpreting!" <https://www.emcinterpreting.org/>.

- Frey, Shoko. 2007. "Konsektivdolmetschen und Notation im Sprachenpaar Englisch-Japanisch. Eine empirische Untersuchung." PhD diss., University of Vienna.
- Garlaschelli, Maddalena. 2013. "Der Einfluss der Ausgangssprache auf die Wahl der Notationssprache beim Konsektivdolmetschen." MA thesis, University of Vienna. http://othes.univie.ac.at/29787/1/2013-09-23_0849586.pdf.
- Gile, Daniel. (1995) 2009. *Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. [https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.8\(1st\)](https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.8(1st)).
- Gillies, Andrew. 2004. *Conference Interpreting: A New Students' Companion*. Vol. 7. Krakow: Tertium.
- . 2017. *Note-Taking for Consecutive Interpreting: A Short Course*. 2nd ed. London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315648996>.
- Goldsmith, Joshua. 2017. "Tablet Interpreting: Consecutive Interpreting 2.0." *Translation and Interpreting Studies. The Journal of the American Translation and Interpreting Studies Association* 13 (3): 342–65.
- Goldsmith, Joshua, and Josephine C. Holley. 2015. "Consecutive Interpreting 2.0: The Tablet Interpreting Experience." MA thesis, University of Geneva.
- González, Marta Abúin. 2012. "The Language of Consecutive Interpreters' Notes: Differences across Levels of Expertise." *Interpreting* 14 (1): 55–72. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.14.1.03abu>.
- González, Roseann Dueñas, Victoria Félice Vásquez, and Holly Mikkelsen. 1991. *Fundamentals of Court Interpretation: Theory, Policy, and Practice*. Durham: Carolina Academic Press.
- Herbert, Jean 1952. *The Interpreter's Handbook: How to Become a Conference Interpreter*. Genève: Librairie de l'Université.
- Hiraoka, Mari. 2010. "Erlernen von Konsektivdolmetschen im Selbststudium. Eine qualitative Studie für das Sprachenpaar Japanisch-Deutsch." MA Thesis, University of Vienna.
- Ilg, Gérard. 1980. "L'interprétation consécutive: les fondements." *Parallèles* 3: 109–36.
- . 1982. "L'interprétation consécutive: la pratique." *Parallèles* 5: 91–109.
- . 1988. "La prise de notes en interprétation consécutive. Une orientation générale." *Parallèles* 9: 9–13.
- Ilg, Gérard, and Sylvie Lambert. 1996. "Teaching Consecutive Interpreting." *Interpreting* 1 (1): 69–99. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.1.1.05ilg>.
- Jones, Roderick. (1998) 2002. *Conference Interpreting Explained*. Manchester: St Jerome. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.3.2.05mac>.
- Kalina, Sylvia. 1998. *Strategische Prozesse beim Dolmetschen: Theoretische Grundlagen, empirische Fallstudien, didaktische Konsequenzen*. Tübingen: Günther Narr.
- Kirchhoff, Hella. 1979. "Die Notationssprache als Hilfsmittel des Konferenzdolmetschers im Konsektivvorgang." In *Sprachtheorie und Sprachpraxis*, edited by Walter Mair and Edgar Sallager, 121–33. Tübingen: Günther Narr.
- Lambert, Sylvie. 1989. "Information Processing among Conference Interpreters: A Test of the Depth-of-Processing Hypothesis." In *The Theoretical and Practical Aspects of Teaching Conference Interpretation*, edited by John Dodds and Laura Gran, 83–91. Udine: Campanotto.
- Láng, Zsuzsa. G. 2002. *Tolmácsolási felkészítés: A hivatásos tolmácsok képzéséről*. [Advanced Interpreting: Training Professional Interpreters.] Budapest: Scholastica.
- Liu, Jianjun. 2010. "Note-Taking Characteristics of English Majored Undergraduates in Chinese-English Consecutive Interpreting: An Empirical Study Based on Students' Consecutive Interpreting Notes." *Foreign Language World* 2: 47–53.
- Lung, Rachel. 2003. "Taking 'Notes' Seriously in the Interpretation Classroom." In *La evaluación de la calidad en interpretación: investigación*, edited by Ángela Collados Aís, María Manuela Fernández Sánchez, Daniel Gile, and Julian Bourne, 199–205. Granada: Comares.
- Matyssek, Heinz. 1989. *Handbuch der Notizentechnik für Dolmetscher*. Heidelberg: Groos.
- Mead, Peter. 2011. "Co-Ordinating Delivery in Consecutive Interpreting." *Intralinea* 13. <http://www.intralinea.org/specials/article/1666>.
- Minyar-Beloruchev, Rurik K. 1969. *Posledovatelnyi perevod* [Consecutive Interpreting]. Moscow: Voenizdat.
- Nolan, James. 2005. *Interpretation: Techniques and Exercises*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Olalla-Soler, Christian 2020. "Practices and Attitudes toward Replication in Empirical Translation and Interpreting Studies." *Target* 32 (1): 3–36. <https://doi.org/10.1075/target.18159.ola>.

- ORCIT. n.d. "Online resources for Conference Interpreter Training." <https://www.orcit.eu>.
- Rozañ, Jean-François. (1956) 2004. *Note-Taking in Consecutive Interpreting*. Cracow: Cracow Tertium Society for the Promotion of Language Studies.
- Russell, Debra, and Kayoko Takeda. 2015. "Consecutive Interpreting." In *The Routledge Handbook of Interpreting*, edited by Renée Jourdenais and Holly Mikkelsen, 96–111. London: Routledge.
- Sanchez, Maria T. 2018. "(Over) Note-Taking in Consecutive Interpreting." *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies* 6 (3): 150–56.
- Sawyer, David. B. 2004. *Fundamental Aspects of Interpreter Education: Curriculum and Assessment*. Vol. 47. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.47>.
- Seleskovitch, Danica. (1975) 2002. "Language and Memory: A Study of Note-Taking in Consecutive Interpreting." In *The Interpreting Studies Reader*, edited by Franz Pöchhacker and Miriam Shlesinger, 121–29. London: Routledge.
- Seleskovitch, Danica, and Marianne Lederer. 1989. *A Systematic Approach to Teaching Interpretation*. Luxembourg: Pédagogie Raisonnée de l'interprétation.
- . 1995. *A Systematic Approach to Teaching Interpretation*. Silver Spring: Registry of Interpreters for the Deaf.
- . 1999. "The Teaching of Conference Interpretation in the Course of the Last 50 Years." *Interpreting* 4 (1): 55–66. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.4.1.07sel>.
- Setton, Robin, and Andrew Dawrant. 2016a. *Conference Interpreting: A Complete Course*. Vol. 120. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.120>.
- . 2016b. *Conference Interpreting: A Trainer's Guide*. Vol. 121. Amsterdam: John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/btl.121>.
- Siantova, Gabriela. 2015. "Consecutive Interpretation and Note-Taking from the Perspective of Some Translatology Schools and Researchers." *International Journal of Scientific Research and Innovative Technology* 2 (1): 44–51.
- Stecher, Liesa. 2016. "Notes, Notation and Notizen. An Empirical Study on the Choice of Form and Language of Consecutive Notes within the French-German Language Pair." MA Research Project, London Metropolitan University.
- Szabó, Csilla. 2003. *From Preparation to Performance: Recipes for Practitioners and Teachers*. Budapest: British Council.
- . 2005. "Note-Taking Techniques and Strategies in Consecutive Interpreting: An Empirical Investigation of the Choice of Language, Choice of Form and Means of Compression." PhD diss., University of Pécs.
- . 2006. "Language Choice in Note-Taking for Consecutive Interpreting." *Interpreting* 8 (2): 129–47. <https://doi.org/10.1075/intp.8.2.02sza>.
- . 2017. "Real-Life Scenarios and Field Trips in the Training of Interpreters." In *Interpreting Studies at the Crossroads of Disciplines*, edited by Simon Zupan and Alexandra Nuč, 32–43. Frankfurt & Timme: Berlin.
- . 2020. "Fejlesztő értékelési technikák a tolmácsolás oktatásában. [Formative Assessment Techniques in Interpreter Training]." In *Irányít a tolmácsolás oktatásához. A kompetenciafejlesztés új fókuszai*. [Compass to the Training of Interpreters: New Perspectives on Competence Development.], edited by Csilla Szabó and Mária Bakfi. Szeged: Juhász Gyula Felsőoktatási Kiadó.
- Taylor-Bouladon, Valerie. 2007. *Conference Interpreting: Principles and Practice*. Charleston: BookSurge Publishing.
- Thiéry, Christopher. 1981. "L'enseignement de la prise de notes en interprétation consécutive: un faux problème?" In *L'Enseignement de la Traduction et de l'Interprétation. De la Théorie à la Pédagogie*, edited by Jean Delisle, 99–112. Ottawa: Éditions de l'Université d'Ottawa.
- Wang, Wei-Tsong, Dandan Zhao, and Ling Wang. 2010. "An Empirical Study of Note-Taking Characteristics and Output Quality in Interpreting." *Foreign Language World* 4: 9–18.
- Windiar, Luh Ni. 2012. "Note Taking and the Power of Mapping in Consecutive Interpreting." Udayana University. https://www.academia.edu/1478502/NOTE_TAKING_AND_THE_POWER_OF_MIND_MAPPING_IN_CONSECUTIVE_INTERPRETING.
- Yamada, Hiroko. 2018. "Validity of Note-taking for New Consecutive Interpreting Learners: An Empirical Study of University Interpretation Courses." *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 8 (11): 1387–96. <https://doi.org/10.17507/tpls.0811.02>.