ANKARA
HACI BAYRAM VELİ UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE PROGRAMS

# CURRENT PEDAGOGICAL TENDENCIES AND PRACTICES IN INTERPRETER TRAINING: A STUDY ON TURKEY

**Özge BAYRAKTAR ÖZER**

**Thesis Advisor**
**Asst. Prof. Dr. Ayşe Selmin SÖYLEMEZ**

**Ph.D. THESIS**
**DEPARTMENT OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETING**
**PROGRAM OF TRANSLATION AND CULTURAL STUDIES (ENGLISH)**

**SEPTEMBER 2022**

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Özge BAYRAKTAR ÖZER

19.09.2022

SÖZLÜ ÇEVİRİ EĞİTİMİNDE GÜNCEL PEDAGOJİK EĞİLİMLER VE UYGULAMALAR: TÜRKİYE ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA

(Doktora Tezi)

Özge BAYRAKTAR ÖZER

ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ

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## ÖZET

Çevirilim alanyazını, özellikle yazılı çevirmen eğitimi alanındaki çalışmaların işbirlikli öğrenme, durumlu öğrenme ve proje-bazlı öğrenme gibi yapılandırmacı yaklaşımlar üzerinde yoğunlaştığını göstermektedir. Yapılandırmacı pedagojiye olan bu yönelimin sözlü çeviri eğitimindeki yansımalarının izini süren bu tezde, sözlü çeviri eğitimcilerinin genel pedagojik eğilimleri, temel uygulamaları, karşılaştıkları sorunlar ve bu sorunlara karşı önerilerini belirlemek ve nihai olarak da Türkiye'de lisans düzeyinde verilen sözlü çeviri eğitiminin kalitesinin arttırılmasına katkıda bulunmak amaçlanmaktadır. Bu amaçla, eğitimcilerin deneyim ve görüşlerine derinlemesine ulaşmak için çalışmada nitel araştırma tasarımı kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler, öğrenme teorileri ile sözlü çeviri becerileri ve yetkinlikleri, yetkinlik modelleri, sözlü çevirideki temel eğitim ve değerlendirme pratiklerine ilişkin teorik çerçeveye dayanarak tartışılmıştır. İlk veri toplama yöntemi kapsamında, Türkiye'de lisans düzeyindeki Mütercim Tercümanlık ve Çeviribilim bölümlerinde ders veren 26 sözlü çeviri eğitimcisi ile görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Görüşme verilerinin incelenmesinde, nitel veri analizi yöntemlerinden tematik analiz yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Elde edilen veriler MaxQda programı ile tematik kodlamaya tabi tutulmuş ve 3 ana tema altında toplam 862 kod oluşturulmuştur. Veri toplamanın ikinci ayağında, 4 farklı sözlü çeviri dersi, ders içeriği, öğrencilerin derse katılımı, derste gerçekleştirilen yapılandırmacı uygulamalar ve eğitimci geribildirimi açısından gözlemlenmiştir. Gözlem verileri, görüşme verileriyle karşılaştırmalı olarak yorumlanmış ve tartışılmış, bu sayede iki veri seti arasındaki benzerlik ve çelişkilere dikkat çekilmiştir. Çalışmanın sonunda, katılımcıların eğitimin farklı yönlerinde hem davranışçı hem de yapılandırmacı yaklaşımları benimsedikleri görülmüştür. Bu yaklaşımların belirlenmesinde etkili olan kriterlerin arasında dersin zorunlu/seçmeli statüsü, fiziksel imkanlar, öğrencilerin dil seviyesi ve ders saati bulunmaktadır. Hedeflenen beceri ve yetkinlikler bulgusu ise lisans düzeyindeki sözlü çeviri eğitiminin profesyonel çevirmenler yetiştirmekten ziyade temel sözlü çeviri becerileri kazandırma amacına vurgu yapmaktadır. Sözlü çeviri eğitiminde en sık karşılaşılan sorunlar ve bu sorunların üstesinden gelmek için eğitimcilerin hem günümüze hem de geleceğe dair önerileri detaylı bir şekilde listelenmiştir.

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CURRENT PEDAGOGICAL TENDENCIES AND PRACTICES IN INTERPRETER TRAINING: A STUDY ON TURKEY

(Ph.D. Thesis)

Özge BAYRAKTAR ÖZER

ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

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## ABSTRACT

The literature in the field of translation and interpreting indicates the intensification of constructivist approaches underpinning the efficiency of collaborative learning, situated learning, and project-based learning, particularly on the part of translator training. Tracing the reflections of the shift to constructivist pedagogy in interpreter training, this thesis aims to scrutinize the general pedagogical tendency of interpreter trainers, main practices applied, along with possible problems and solutions to overcome them, and thus contribute to improve interpreter training in Turkey at the undergraduate level. To serve this purpose, a qualitative research design was used to reach the experiences and views of trainers in-depth, and discuss the obtained data within the theoretical framework of theories of learning, interpreting skills, interpreting competences, competence models, main training, and assessment practices of interpreter training. Within the scope of the first data collection method, interviews were held with 26 interpreter trainers who serve in T&I programs at the undergraduate level in Turkey. Among qualitative data analysis methods, (Reflexive)Thematic Analysis was used for the analysis of the interview data. To this end, thematic coding was conducted via MaxQda software, and 862 codes were created under 3 main themes. In the second step of the data collection, 4 different interpreting courses were observed by the researcher in terms of course content, class participation of students, constructivist activities applied in the class, and trainer feedback. The observational data were interpreted and discussed against the interview data by indicating parallelism and contradiction between the two datasets. It was found that the trainers adopt both behaviorist and constructivist approaches in different aspects of the training based on varying criteria such as the elective/compulsory status of the course, physical means, students' language levels, and contact hours among others. The targeted skill and competence acquisitions highlight the idea that undergraduate interpreter training targets basic interpreting skills rather than training professional interpreters. The most commonly encountered challenges in interpreter training and recommendations of the trainers to overcome them for now and the future are also listed at length.

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Upon his most rightful request, I dedicate this study to my precious son.

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations used in this thesis are presented with their explanations as follows:

| Abbreviations | Explanation |
|---|---|
| **AIIC** | The International Association of Conference Interpreters |
| **CI** | Consecutive interpreting |
| **EMCI** | The European Masters in Conference Interpreting |
| **L2** | Second language |
| **ÖSYM** | The Measurement, Selection and Placement Center |
| **SI** | Simultaneous interpreting |
| **T&I** | Translation and Interpreting |

# 1. INTRODUCTION

Globalization and, *a fortiori*, advancement of technology brought unprecedented demand and growth to the translation and interpreting market. Various surveys can be served as evidence to this market growth, the rise of demand and reach in the field (Orlando, 2016) as well as the education programs that mushroomed all over the world. The increase in the number of translation and interpreting programs at universities around the world, along with the now well-established position of translation studies as an academic discipline, has given momentum to the research in translation pedagogy in the last two decades. Colina and Angelelli (2017) exemplify this momentum with the increasing number of conferences, journals, and publications on translation pedagogy in particular.

Translators are assumed to undertake versatile roles in communication rather than acting as mere transmitters of source/target text messages. Technologies, particularly the rise of the Internet and neural machine translation bring further issues "such as stress, visual access and psycho-social factors requiring particular attention" (Pöchhacker, 2004, p.201) in a translation commission. In this regard, the literature on translation pedagogy has been emphasizing the need to expand the scope of skills to be taught to students beyond linguistic and cultural knowledge to keep up with technological advancement. Studies conducted on translation pedagogy underpin the importance of teamwork, division of labor, adaptability, and ability to work professionally (Hurtado Albir, 1996; Kiraly, 2012; PACTE 2003; Pym, 2003). These studies have recently intensified on the application of constructivist approaches such as collaborative learning, situated learning, and project-based learning in translator training (Al-Shehari 2017; Bayraktar-Özer & Hastürkoğlu, 2020; González-Davies & Díaz 2015; Li et al., 2015; Moghaddas & Khoshsaligheh, 2019; Pietrzak, 2019), replacing traditional translate-and-read activities. Translator training perceptions differ by varying professional and training experiences of trainers, student profiles, market demands, and expectations of educational institutions as well as the education system *per se*. One premise in common, however, as suggested by Pöchhacker (2004), the 21$^{st}$ century has led to a more “student-oriented and interaction-based” approach (p.178). However, an extensive body of research that has been developed on the constructivist learning theories in translator training is not vastly reflected in interpreter training although as an indispensable sub-domain of translation studies, interpreter training is not immune to the advancement of technology and new demands in the profession (machine interpreting, remote interpreting, video conference interpreting, etc.).

Contemporary educational approaches should be followed and applied in interpreter training, as well to equip student interpreters with the competences to be demanded in the professional market of tomorrow. However, in a plethora of educational settings of interpreting, training practices have been followed and recommended as in the early years of the field, mostly depending on individual hands-on practice in a master-apprenticeship model. This traditional model requires the trainer to listen to the interpreting performances of students and give them enough feedback based on some assessment criteria, which can be disputable in different approaches. There is a myriad of suggestions in the literature as regards equipping interpreter candidates with required interpreting competences including language and cognitive skills, along with real-world skills such as teamwork, communication, and organization among others. However, training activities suggested by practiresearchers may contradict each other, and the studies in favor of either side of the contradicting activities are rarely evidenced with empirical results as suggested by Kalina (2000):

> They are all based on years of experience, but, again, they constitute individual experience and in some cases are in stark contrast with each other. It is therefore of the utmost importance to have more facts on the effect of interpreting training, based on a set of empirical studies on the use and success of different teaching methods (p.10).

For instance, one of the main arguments in the literature is, as Keiser (1977) suggests, that second language acquisition and interpreting teaching should be kept separate from each other since an interpreter candidate is expected to have mastered languages before starting interpreting. However, unlike the early years of interpreting, when interpreters were mostly bilinguals, students enrolled in interpreting programs today need to master their foreign language skills while acquiring specialization in specific translation and interpreting fields. In this sense, research-based professional training standards may contradict the reality of our day. Besides, the International Association of Conference Interpreters (AIIC) standards put forth that interpreting training should be provided at the postgraduate level (https://aiic.net/page/60). However, in the Turkish context, for example, interpreter training is heavily provided at the undergraduate level with only two postgraduate conference interpreting programs that are currently active. While some of the undergraduate T&I programs in Turkey require interpreter candidates to succeed in an aptitude exam to be held in the 3rd or 4th grades to be specialized in conference interpreting courses (simultaneous interpreting, consecutive interpreting, etc.), some programs mandate all interpreting courses to all students to graduate from the program.

In Turkey, the first steps toward interpreter training started in the second half of the 1950s. The early training started with interpreting courses given for specific organizations and limited times by individuals who had good foreign language command, general knowledge, and talent (Doğan, 2009). Interpreter training started to be institutionalized with the foundation of the Conference Interpreters Association of Turkey in 1969, and four-year undergraduate departments of Translation and Interpreting, and Translation Studies at Hacettepe University in 1982 and the Bosphorus University in 1983, respectively (Diriker, 2018). Despite the proliferation of T&I training at two-year associate degree, master's, and doctorate programs up to date in Turkey, undergraduate training is still considered "the main workforce provider to the market" (Yılmaz-Gümüş, 2018, p.50). The graduates of undergraduate T&I programs are awarded with the title of Translator and Interpreter without any division specified on the diploma regarding the specialization in translation or interpreting (Yılmaz-Gümüş, 2018). In these programs, interpreter training consists of oral presentation courses in the first grade; theory and practice courses in the second and third grades, and conference interpreting courses in the fourth grade (Okuyan, 2019). In this sense, interpreter training is an integral part of translator training in Turkish undergraduate programs which aim to train translators and interpreters needed in the market.

As a factor that aggravates the gap and contradiction between the ideal world of interpreter training and the realities that may vary in different contexts, the existing situation of interpreter training that is presently applied is under-researched. However, these realities of current programs and student profiles cannot be ignored, as "academic disciplines should reflect the way the society is evolving" (Zannirato, 2008, p.21). To identify the actual learning and teaching environment of interpreter training, teaching methods and practices applied, the competences targeted by trainers, problems encountered, and their suggestions to improve training, in a holistic approach can help both trainers and researchers to develop new suggestions for promoting interpreting students' competences in line with the modern demands and needs. The question, "Do our methods and tools for training interpreters cater to the needs of future generations?" is one of the many questions that "still await a more thorough investigation" in the field of interpreter training (Diriker, 2013, pp.370-371). As accurately suggested by Pöchhacker (2004), "apart from what is described by various authors, however, little is known about actual teaching practices adopted by individual instructors or institutions" (pp.185-186). Similarly, Kalina (2000) calls for more research "to observe authentic teaching to collect data on "real life" training. This can be done either by interviewing as many interpreter trainers as possible as to their – formal or other – teaching qualifications, their teaching experience, and their methods" (p. 26). Taking a stand from these suggestions, it is believed that the analysis of the actual training practices with the theoretical instrument of educational learning theories can set a starting point to further address how to meet the rapidly-changing needs in interpreter training.

This thesis demonstrates this very attempt to identify upon which learning approaches and theories the actual interpreter training in Turkey is grounded and which pedagogical methods are applied by interpreter trainers at Turkish universities at the undergraduate level. Limited "systemic investigation" on interpreter training is pointed out by Pöchhacker (2004) as "large body of experiential description" (p.177). To situate this thesis into the context of academic research on interpreter training, Holmes' map, and Williams and Chesterman's classification can be referred to as the starting point. In his seminal work *The Name and Nature of Translation Studies*, Holmes (1988/2004) outlines the main research areas of translation studies. According to his acclaimed map of the field, the research can be divided into two main areas, being pure and applied. Under the category of applied translation studies, Holmes places translator training as the first sub-domain, which includes teaching methods, testing techniques, and curriculum design (Toury, 1995). Later, Williams and Chesterman (2002) propose four main areas of research on translator training, which also includes interpreter training. These areas are "curriculum design, implementation, typical problem areas, and professional dimension" (Williams & Chesterman, 2002, p.25). The scope of the present study falls in the category of *implementation* since it attempts to question the content and delivery of particular interpreting courses (Williams & Chesterman, 2002).

The first chapter of the thesis introduces the research problem, aim, and importance of the study. Research questions are also introduced in this chapter. The scope, assumptions, and limitations of the study are explained.

Findings of the relevant research previously conducted on the research topic are summarized in the second chapter. To this end, research conducted on interpreter training in Turkey and other countries is presented in different sections.

The third chapter introduces the methodology of the thesis by drawing the theoretical framework of the study and giving information about data collection tools. In this scope, theories of learning in education, mainly behaviorism and constructivism, main interpreting skills and competences based on certain models and approaches, main interpreter training, and assessment practices reported in the literature are presented. The implementation of behaviorist and constructivist pedagogical approaches to interpreter training is elaborated in this chapter. In the last section, the data collection procedure, including interviews and observation, is specified. Participants of the study are also introduced in a detailed way.

The fourth chapter presents the descriptive and thematic analysis of the findings regarding the interview data. These sections are then followed by the analysis of the observation data.

The final chapter dwells upon conclusions that can be drawn from this study. The aim of the study and research questions are revisited in line with the findings obtained. Suggestions are made for trainers and educational authorities to improve the efficiency of interpreter training, as well as for researchers who can conduct further studies on related subjects.

Research Questions

Against this background, this thesis aims to address the following research questions and sub-questions:

1- What pedagogical techniques and methods are applied in undergraduate interpreter training in Turkey?
    - Are constructivist methods (collaborative learning, situated learning, reflective practices) applied in interpreter training?
    - Which interpreting competence acquisitions are targeted by interpreter trainers?

2- What are the common challenges in undergraduate interpreter training in Turkey as perceived by the trainers?

3- What are the recommendations of interpreter trainers to improve the current interpreter training in Turkey?

Significance of the Study

Interpreter training has been well-researched from cognitive, sociological, and psycholinguistic perspectives among others. In this thesis, it is aimed to examine the current situation of interpreter training from an educational perspective. The interdisciplinary approach will be adopted throughout the thesis merging interpreter training models and approaches with educational theories of learning. Although a good number of academic studies on interpreter training touch upon the importance of the quality of the training and trainer as well as assessment methods of students' interpreting performances, to the best knowledge of the researcher, no study has been conducted on which pedagogical methods are being applied in academic interpreter training in Turkey. Literature review on interpreter training indicates that the studies aiming to determine the current situation of training scrutinize curricula of the interpreting courses through document analysis rather than applying in-depth interviews with trainers. It is believed that a descriptive study, which includes trainers as participants, to be conducted in this regard will help to picture the general pedagogical tendency of interpreter trainers, to detect possible problems and suggest solutions to overcome them, and thus improve interpreter training in the country at the undergraduate level.

## Assumptions and Limitations of the Study

1- All participants are assumed to share their sincere views about training and accurate information about their course contents.

2- All participants are assumed to follow their usual course flow and training practices in the online courses observed.

3- Expert opinion is assumed to be satisfactory for detecting the content validity of the interview form.

4- The investigation of interpreter training practices is confined only to the undergraduate level.

5- The participants are limited to those who actively served as interpreter trainers at the undergraduate level in Turkey in the last 3 years.

## 2. LITERATURE REVIEW

A large number of studies have examined specific pedagogies, approaches, instructional methods, and techniques in interpreter training. This chapter is devoted to the presentation of these studies which are relevant to the (social)constructivist approaches in the field. To this end, the first section presents a review of the studies conducted in the context of Turkey, and the second section reviews the studies conducted in other countries.

### 2.1. Studies in Turkey

To better analyze the position of translation pedagogy – which also includes interpreter training- in the Turkish context, related graduate theses and pieces of research in the literature are reviewed. The body of related research on translation/interpreting pedagogy can be roughly divided into two groups. The first group of studies mostly deals with the criteria of the T&I business sector, market expectations from professional interpreters, and how these criteria are taken into consideration in academic T&I training, as well as curricula analysis of the T&I departments in Turkey. The second group studies are experimental or descriptive investigating the efficacy of one specific teaching method on the T&I performance of students.

In one of the Ph.D. theses in the first group, Filazi (2017) examines the developments of standards and how they affect the profession and education. It is concluded that there is a non-agreement between the academic and business sector of the translation profession in terms of Translator Occupational Standards. Accordingly, it is suggested that Translator Occupational Standards will cause revisions in academic translator training and requires closer ties with the stakeholders in the profession.

In another study, examining the specialization ensured through undergraduate translation programs, Tosun, Akin, and Şimşek (2015) report the insufficiency of specialized courses offered in these programs in terms of the expected competences by the market. Tosun et al. (2015) also highlight the lack of systemic translation teaching by pointing out the differences in the curricula of different programs on specialized courses and recommend implementing a mutual method for future training. In a parallel study, Kuşgöz and Yıldırım (2020) report a good integration of terminology and poor CAT tool integration in specialization courses in their research based on the curricula of T&I departments in Turkey. It is recommended to revise current T&I programs in line with the contemporary approaches in order to meet the demands of the translation market, particularly in specialized translator training.

Yılmaz-Gümüş (2013) describes the general outlook of translator training programs with regard to the market needs in Turkey by interviewing graduates and administrators of T&I programs as well as an employer and a founding member of Translation Students Association of Turkey stakeholders. One of the striking findings of this study is that "27% of 125 translation graduates work as language teachers" (Yılmaz-Gümüş, 2013, Conclusion section) indicating that students enrolled in T&I programs may not necessarily target becoming professional translators, but aim to improve their foreign language skills. As another prominent finding, Yılmaz-Gümüş (2013) reports the need for a higher interaction between T&I training and the market. On the other hand, this study is confined only to translator training and does not investigate demands in the interpreting market.

In another thesis, Aka (2015) includes the interpreting market in the research and aims to explore the current situation of the labor market and the undergraduate training of translators and interpreters in Turkey in line with the demands of both translation and interpreting market. She concludes that the main problems detected in T&I training include student-related problems such as the lack of interest and knowledge of students, trainer-related problems such as trainers serving in T&I programs although they were not trained in T&I due to the young nature of the field, trainers' not following the labor market needs and demands, trainers' not being active professionals in the market, curriculum-related problems such as lack of specialization-based training, the lack of satisfactory practice opportunities and institutional problems such as the increase in the number of departments, which are covered by trainers with a linguistic profile, the poor educational system that is based on memorization rather than analytical thinking (Aka, 2015).

Another Ph.D. thesis conducted by Okuyan (2019) seeks answers to the questions "What are the expectations of the interpreting sector from academic education?" and "To what extend the sector expectations are fulfilled by the education?" (pp.5, trans. mine). The academic education on interpreting in Turkey is examined in terms of its contribution to certain competences. Accordingly, the curricula of Turkish universities are found insufficient in terms of affective competence. Besides, it is detected that courses to equip students with the knowledge of occupational ethics and business codes are lacking in the curricula. In addition, it is concluded that the curricula of the universities need to be rearranged in line with the recommendations of the business stakeholders. Okuyan (2019) also reported that classroom activities applied to improve interpreting-related skills are mostly listening, note-taking, and memory activities aided by finding the main idea, summarizing, paraphrasing, and shadowing exercises based on the course contents published on the web pages of the sample programs.

In a parallel study, Okuyan et al. (2019a) investigate interpreting courses at undergraduate programs in terms of the targeted interpreting competences such as linguistic competence, cultural competence, world knowledge, field knowledge, interpreting method knowledge, professional/ethical and market knowledge, and emotional competency. The research was conducted on the curriculum of six different universities in Turkey with a document analysis method. Accordingly, it was found that interpreting competences are offered in mostly compulsory courses, different contact hours are offered for interpreting sub-competences at different programs, and emotional competence was the most overlooked interpreting competence followed by professional/ethical and market knowledge (Okuyan et al., 2019a). To get a better perspective of the reasons why some interpreting competences are prioritized and the other differences between undergraduate programs and how the programs can be improved better, it is suggested to conduct interviews with interpreter trainers and students (Okuyan et al., 2019a).

Okuyan et al. (2019b) researched the current situation in the interpreting market in Turkey and reveal the expectations of the interpreting companies from interpreter training. The main expectations of the participants from a quality interpreter training are listed as the attendance of interpreter students to real conferences, acquisition of field expertise; affective skills such as time and stress management, sectoral and ethical knowledge; starting interpreting courses at earlier grades; increasing contact hours (Okuyan et al., 2019b). The expected competences from interpreters are “a high command of working languages, individual characteristics, and skills, field specialization, mastery in using technical equipment, keeping up with the global and local developments, professional ethics, professional knowledge, market knowledge, and experience” (Okuyan et al., 2019b, p.271).

In another study on interpreter training, Okuyan (2017) analyzes interpreting courses in three different T&I departments in Turkey. The findings can be summarized as follows:

> Daily language usage as well as technical and political texts, along with texts related to health and sport are interpreted from videos shown inside the classroom in Sakarya University. In Ege University, realistic conference recordings are employed in 7th and 8th semester. In the 7th semester, courses focuses on in-class practice for comprehension techniques, and in the 8th semester, students are expected to interpret conference recording while utilizing these techniques. Boğaziçi University, on the other hand, follows a different path from other universities due to the professional conference interpreters lecturing in this department, as well as due to the student profile and equipment in the classroom. Students are able to interpret conference recordings in the laboratory. Furthermore, they can attend specific conferences organized outside the university; and thus gain experience (p.627).

The differences between three of the programs selected are striking in terms of course content, teaching staff, and interpreting equipment. However, the data presented in the study was restricted to the interpreting courses presented on the websites of departments. No real data was collected to approve the adopted teaching strategies and approaches in the courses. These studies commonly touch upon the general curriculum design in consideration of market demands, rather than specifically analyzing training methods and activities in-depth. Although Gile (2019) suggests that "speech is selected, students are invited to interpret…it, and the result is commented on and corrected by or under the guidance of the instructor" (p.16) as a common practice applied in interpreting courses in T&I programs worldwide, there is no research investigating course procedure in interpreting courses in the context of interpreter training in Turkey.

As for the second group studies, Birkan-Baydan (2011) presents some class activities to be applied within the scope of the course titled Introduction to Translation. These classroom activities target specific translator competences based on the social constructivist approach of Kiraly. In this sense, the activities suggested in this thesis set a good alternative to traditional read-and-translate activities. Interviews made with the students at the end of the course also show that awareness of the students was raised towards fundamental translation concepts and main competence areas.

In another study that examines the efficacy of social constructivist methods in translation pedagogy, Bayraktar-Özer and Hastürkoğlu (2020) design a collaborative learning environment in a medical translation course, and report the significant positive impact of this environment on students' translation performance. Similarly, Hastürkoğlu (2019) offers applying Model United

Nations (MUN) simulations as a situated learning model in T&I programs. In her research, Hastürkoğlu (2019) designs the course titled International Politics as a MUN simulation to promote metacognitive skills of T&I students and reports that this situated learning model helps students to “experience actual settings, gain a fair knowledge of the tactics of teamwork cooperation and labour division, learn a variety of terminologies related to world affairs, improve their research, listening, speaking, and note-taking skills, adopt formal and legal language, and prepare for upcoming courses” (p.923).

One of the few studies that exemplify the social constructivist approach to interpreter training, Doğan, Ribas and Begonya (2009) recommend applying three metacognitive tools to be incorporated in an interpreting class. These are a self-assessment checklist, portfolio, and self-reflective journal. All of these three tools were used in the interpreting courses of the researchers at different universities and each of them was found an effective, and a student-centered tool in promoting reflective skills of interpreting students.

One distinctive project regarding interpreter training was conducted by integrating a virtual world program, namely Second Life into the interpreting classroom (Şahin, 2013). Accordingly, students could practice through a broad range of materials in different subject matters and hardship levels on the Internet and could receive the feedback of their instructor even out of classroom hours. This project allows a rare opportunity to practice interpreting by distance mode. Considering the insufficient number of academic interpreter trainers, busy schedule of professional conference interpreters teaching interpreting courses, and unsatisfactory booth conditions and equipment at some universities, such an approach fills a gap in the practice and can offer an equal opportunity to access authentic environments and interpreting activities. The questionnaires applied to students indicate the positive comments of the participants mostly on the opportunity to reach interpreting materials outside the classroom (Şahin & Eraslan, 2017). From the constructivist approach, it can be suggested that the implementation of this project sets a good example of situated learning in interpreter training.

### 2.2. Studies Abroad

On a global scale, there is also a good number of graduate theses (e.g. Alenezi (2016); Altuhaini (2016); Sachinis (2011)) on T&I training with a focus on the expectations and needs of the translation market of different countries. These studies will not be reviewed in this section as the current thesis is confined only to interpreter training in Turkey.

There are also studies that investigate the current situation of interpreter training from learners' and professional interpreters' perspectives. Among them, Albl-Mikasa (2013) conducted a study to investigate how professional interpreters develop and cultivate their expertise competence, which offers implications for interpreter training. Within the scope of this study, a semi-structured interview was conducted with 10 interpreters. Based on the statements of the participants, three main competences were detected, namely language competence, interpreting competence, and business competence. The first competence was defined as a prerequisite of interpreter training, which can help improve linguistic skills later. Business competence can be acquired in real working conditions, which refers to the post-training period. Interpreting competence, on the other hand, can be acquired in three different phases:

> (a) on the job, that is, learning by doing, trying to do better each time; (b) before the job, that is, efficient, targeted information gathering; and (c) over time, that is, becoming a sovereign professional who builds on his experience and affords confidence and courage, awareness, and a relentless willingness to serve the customer, as well as to make languages and interpreting an integral part of his or her life (Albl-Mikasa, 2013, p.32).

In the same direction, the participants of the study highlighted the importance of informal and implicit learning which is based on "learning by doing, practice and experience" (Albl-Mikasa, 2013, p.23) more than formal learning, which is more structured. In this perspective of the participants, interpreter training at the university level is defined as teaching the "basic skill of interpreting" (Albl-Mikasa, 2013, p.2), which refers to interpreting proper, and "special purpose content and terminological knowledge" aspects of interpreting competence are mainly acquired during professional life (p.23).

In a similar study on the development of expertise in the process of being trained to become practitioners, Chen (2014) investigates interpreter training from learners' perspectives. According to the findings, the main learning activities during the training are learning in class with tutors, group practice with peers, self-study, and working at work. Characteristics of learners, along with their expectations from the training were also researched. The interviews made with the working interpreters about the training they received show that the course content mostly includes active listening, memory training, note-taking as well as discussions on current affairs. It is not explicitly mentioned in the study whether such activities were conducted in a social constructivist environment, but it can be inferred from the narrations of the students during the interviews that the activities were conducted individually. One exception to isolated activities is a group practice, which was applied as a voluntary extracurricular exercise. The biggest difference between group practices and in-class activities was the peer feedback provided, which was mostly evaluated positively by the participants of the study.

Another research that reports student feedback towards challenges encountered in interpreter training, Takeda (2010)'s case study is on research papers of students enrolled in a master's level T&I program in the United States. Tokeada (2010) reported that interpreting students touched upon interpreting strategies and the lack of proper instruction regarding how to use these strategies in their papers. In parallel with the other findings in the literature, authenticity-related concerns in a learning environment, and compatibility between the training and the market were other common issues for the students. To overcome these concerns of students, Takeda (2010) suggests a "process-oriented instruction rather than solely focusing on error corrections in the product" (p.44) by merging profession-based tips and experiences with instruction of theoretical models and approaches to interpreting. Highlighting that an interpreting environment where live speakers, a real audience, and a boothmate take place enables students to perform better, Takeda (2010) also recommends the participation of students in real-life interpreter-mediated settings. One significant discussion of Takeda (2010) is the importance of equipping "students with relevant theoretical tools for adaptive and autonomous learning" (p.44) in consideration of new challenges that might be posed by technological advancement in the profession. With the ability to learn autonomously, students can detect, analyze and overcome upcoming problems in a highly communicative task like interpreting. To provide students with tools for autonomous learning, teacher-centered and product-based approaches to interpreter training cannot suffice alone. Instead, they should be encouraged to construct the knowledge rather than memorizing it, acquire critical thinking and adaptability skills to better adapt to the ever-changing conditions, use and learn new aspects of technology as well as adapt such knowledge in their future profession.

In other recent studies, the social constructivist approach to interpreter training has galvanized researchers. The incorporation of social constructivist learning methods, mainly collaborative learning, self-, and peer assessment, reflective learning, and situated learning in interpreting classes have been well documented, and researchers have reported positive outcomes of these methods for both students' interpreting performances and skill acquisitions, and creating a student-centered learning environment.

In one of these studies, Krystallidou et al. (2018) designed and implemented an interprofessional educational model between medical students and interpreting students targeting communicative goals in healthcare interpreting. To this end, joint practice sessions were organized with students participating in the two programs. These sessions included simulated consultations in which interpreting students assumed the roles of patient, doctor, or interpreter to practice communicative exercises in a collaborative learning environment. Throughout the practices, the formative assessment method was applied and students assuming different roles provided feedback to each other and also received feedback from the trainer. The main criterion of the assessment was detected as achieving the communicative goals rather than accuracy and completeness. At the end of the practice sessions, students were asked to fill in self-efficacy questionnaires. Krystallidou et al. (2018) concluded that such a situated and collaborative learning activity contributed to the reflective skills of the interpreting students through real-life and authentic scenarios, student-centered formative and summative assessment methods, and active participation of students in these. The activities also helped students to experience the communicative effect of the interpreting profession in healthcare settings by reflecting on key issues such as impartiality, accuracy, and completeness, which are the traditional interpreting assessment criteria.

In action research, Lee (2019), as a researcher and trainer, tested summative peer assessment, which is commonly applied in interpreter training in Korea. In this research, Lee (2019) implemented three cycles of peer assessment including (1) training students about summative peer assessment and writing reflective journals, students' filling in a questionnaire about their assessment practice, (2) homework of self-assessment and intra-class peer assessment activities, holding interviews with students, students' filling in a questionnaire about their assessment practice, and (3) inter-class peer assessment and students' filling in a questionnaire about their assessment practice. The researcher also provided oral feedback in the form of formative assessment, which reportedly increased the efficacy of summative peer assessment. The study concludes that the students' peer assessment improved over time; undergraduate interpreting students can reliably rate performances in a test setting, and they can become more active and critical peer assessors under particular conditions despite concerns and doubts about the reliability of peer assessment.

Li (2018) integrates self-assessment in a sight translation course. Within the scope of the study, students enrolled in the sight translation course assessed their own translation performance which was also assessed by their trainer based on the same criteria. Accordingly, students' self-assessment and trainer assessment were found parallel, and thus self-assessment was found valid as a measurement tool. Besides, students' self-assessment accuracy improved over time with positive perceptions of self-assessment in terms of the shift in the teacher-dominated classroom environment, creating a democratic learning setting, enhancing metacognitive skills by promoting reflection on strengths and weaknesses, ensuring autonomous learning, and improving sight translation performance among others. On the other hand, the time-consuming nature of this practice was reported as a drawback by a few students.

Investigating the role of autonomous learning in postgraduate interpreter training offered at a Hungarian university, Horváth (2007) collects data from students and head teachers via questionnaires and interviews, respectively along with classroom observation. An autonomous learner is defined as "a reflective learner, a person actively involved in reflective learning" (Horváth, 2007, p.104) within the scope of this study, and it is concluded that the postgraduate interpreter training offered at the specific institution contributes to the autonomous (reflective) learning skills of students through "student-centeredness, cooperative learning, learner training and development, and self-access and out-of-class independent practice" (p.113). Although the learner training is reported to be reflective in this study, reflective practices and/or other instruction methods applied within the program are not elaborated on.

Specific to reflective practices in interpreter training, Lee (2015) conducts a case study to research how logbooks of students, as a constructivist method, can be used as a way of reflection and self-assessment during training. It is concluded that students' reflective and self-assessment skills improved with the use of reflective notebooks along with the scaffolding tools provided. However, the study was confined only to the corpus of the logbooks written by the students. No interviews were conducted with the students about the related scaffolding tools and the task of self-reflective writing, which restricts an in-depth analysis of this particular constructivist activity.

Noting that interpreter training is inherently a hands-on and interactive experience, Bentley-Sassaman (2021) describes interpreter training as a field that reflects the fundamentals of experiential learning. In her study, Bentley-Sassaman (2021) discusses how four stages of experiential learning are followed throughout the training process. Although this study is confined only to signed language interpretation, the key point of the paper is broadly applicable. Accordingly, the first stage, Concrete Experience occurs when students are involved in an interpreting task in the class. Following this stage, students observe their own interpreting performances and reflect on them in the Reflective Observation stage. When students employ critical thinking in their performances such as possible ways to improve them, they move to the third stage namely Abstract Conceptualization. Finally, the Active Experimentation stage is reached when students can apply what they have acquired and experienced from a certain interpreting task to the next tasks. Highlighting the importance of the trainer's acquaintance with each of these stages and the mental processes of students throughout these stages, Bentley-Sassaman (2021) posits that "the more varied settings and clients that the students encounter during class simulations and their practicum, the more it helps them to refine their skills and develop their potential as interpreters" (p.65). In this sense, although experiential learning and interpreter training share a parallel nature, it is important to guide interpreting students by offering them diverse practice opportunities.

Situated learning practices have been well-documented in the literature on translator training (e.g. Calvo, 2015; Kiraly, 2005; Massey & Kiraly, 2019; Risku, 2002, 2016) as "situated learning has become a dominant goal in the translation classroom (Risku, 2016, p.12). González-Davies and Enríquez-Raído (2016) report various forms of situated learning activities embedded in T&I training, and identify three main trends. The first trend is implementing high simulation through collaborative tasks or projects and authentic materials. Mock conferences can set an example of this. The second one is the engagement of students in real professional work such as internships. The third trend, on the other hand, combines the first two by enabling students to engage in simulations in class and to work in real-life jobs outside the class. Although the application of these trends depends on contextual factors of the T&I market and educational institutions, the common pedagogical aim of all is to facilitate "the transition from (near-) authentic task- and/or project-based work to real-life professional practice" (González-Davies & Enríquez-Raído, 2016, p.3).

Likewise, Tolosa-Igualada and Echevveri (2019) report a shift from teacher-centered 'apprenticeship-approach' to situated learning approaches in the literature of interpreter training as well, to promote higher cognitive processes through authentic learning opportunities. Accordingly, in the situated learning approach, students can get engaged in meaningful activities that occur in an authentic situation, can actively construct their knowledge out of these meaningful experiences happening in a context, and have interaction with a social environment rather than working individually. In this manner, there is a copious body of research on adopting a situated learning approach in interpreter training.

One of the most frequently applied situated learning activities in interpreter training is mock conferences. Li (2015) investigates the systematic design of this activity and its educational impacts. The main principles of mock conference integrated into interpreter training as a situated activity are identified as "student-centred learning environment, authenticity, scaffolding, reflection, interactive and collaborative practice, access to a community of practice and authentic assessment" (Li, 2015, pp. 329-330). Compared to the traditional interpreting classes, the mock conference is reported to equip interpreting students with better "skills related to professionalism, psychological competence, strategic competence and many other non-linguistic dimensions" (Li, 2015, p.339). Besides, students reported advantages of mock conferences as self-reflective skills on their weaknesses and strengths, acquiring subject knowledge and research skills, and getting acquainted with authentic working conditions among others. On the other hand, the need for investing too much time and energy into the practice and the frustration experienced in cases of ill-designed mock conferences are reported as drawbacks. Li (2015) recommends increasing the frequency of mock conferences to enable trainers to design better practices, diversifying the audience and venues of the practice, improving students' confidence by selecting familiar conference topics, and recording students' interpreting performances for further assessment.

Miner and Nicodemus (2021) propose a pedagogical model to enable trainers to move their interpreting students "from the classroom into the community" (p.3). This model, namely the staircase model, consists of five consequent stages which scaffold interpreting students in reaching authentic learning experiences. The first and second steps are to lay the theoretical foundations of interpreting activity with cognitive activities rather than situated ones and to link the theoretical information with specific issues in the profession. In the third step, students engage in a real-world interpreting environment through observation. The fourth step is where students begin practicing authentic materials in simulations. In the final step, practices turn into semi- or fully authentic activities with the attendance of real consumers who rely on the interpreting service of the students. Therefore, the challenges encountered by student interpreters are authentic challenges that can be confronted in a professional setting. In this step, students are guided and encouraged by their trainers, mentors, and community members. Miner and Nicodemus (2021) report that "the authentic activities at Step 5 lead students into the real-world interpreting community of practice" (p.45). In this model, students are scaffolded through the stages to experience situated learning practices, and thus to be able to interpret in semi or fully authentic contexts. As for the assessment of simulated interpreting practices, the researchers suggest adopting a constructivist approach through which students can reflect on their own learning. To this end, Gibbs' reflective cycle is set as a framework for the assessment of situated learning practices in the interpreting class (Miner & Nicodemus, 2021).

The advancement of technology has equipped trainers with new opportunities to implement a socio-constructivist pedagogical approach, which also paved way for more academic research on interpreter training with technological tools such as virtual learning environments (VLEs), software, and computer-assisted interpreting tools. For instance, Sandrelli (2015) offers a comprehensive summary of computer-based interpreting) tools (CAITS) that have been used to promote student-centered learning by providing more real-like environments for student interpreters under training.

In another study, Motta (2016) describes a situated and blended learning environment designed to facilitate the skill acquisition of students in an interpreting program. In this learning model, master's level conference interpreter training is offered with a constructivist approach by promoting interaction between learners and the environment through feedback and enhancing the reflective skills of the students. To mirror authentic conditions of interpreting, a problem-based approach is adopted by using real-life conference materials, organizing conference simulations, inviting experts as speakers to the class, encouraging students to study in dummy booths at real conferences and to work as volunteers in non-profit organizations, practicing conference preparation and applying formative assessment including both trainer's and peers' feedbacks. Students also get engaged in a collaborative learning activity by using tools available in the virtual learning program for sharing their ideas and discussion on the online forum, uploading and downloading glossaries, and keeping track of their progress by accessing feedback online. Students' perception of this learning model, as detected by the questionnaires, was found positive in terms of actively engaging in the learning process and improved metacognitive skills such as critical thinking and self-reflection.

Similarly, Braun and Slater (2014) describe how a 3D virtual environment is used to simulate real-life practice in the training of dialogue interpreting by offering authenticity, simulation, situatedness, and a community of practice, the key elements of situated learning. Braun and Slater (2014) report the positive impact of carrying the situated learning activity to a virtual environment as the increase in authenticity and recommend blending this ICT-based environment with real-life educational opportunities such as "visits to real-life environments where interpreters work, internships and exposing students to real-life data where available" (p.481).

Another study on the incorporation of the socio-constructivist approach in interpreter training via a virtual environment was conducted by Stengers et al. (2018). In this study, it is reported that some features of virtual conference technology such as "the possibility to create instant polls, share files and screens, participate in the live chat session as well as the availability of break-out rooms" promote key socio-constructivist principles such as "student-centeredness, authenticity, collaboration and reflection" (Stengers et al., 2018, p.234). From the constructivist approach, Sandrelli and de Manuel Jerez (2007) also suggest that the use of computer-assisted interpreting tools helps move interpreting learning to a more authentic and realistic environment, thus situating the interpreting activity in a real-world context. Besides, virtual learning environments such as Moodle can promote collaborative learning among students outside the classroom (Sandrelli, 2015). In a similar vein, both synchronous and asynchronous tools embedded in virtual learning software are reported to improve the socio-constructivist aspect of interpreter training offered to trainers by Moser-Mercer et al. (2005). In another study that incorporates a virtual learning platform named Blackboard in interpreter training, Chan (2013) reports the technology's contribution to enhancing reflective learning using self-reflection and peer-review practices held online. Likewise, the use of spoken corpus for providing students with authentic speech materials was found effective for autonomous learning in undergraduate interpreting training by Bale (2015). He further recommends integrating the corpus and related exercises with virtual learning environments (VLEs) to ensure the accessibility of the given materials all the time (Bale, 2015).

Wang (2015) reports that three common challenges confronted by interpreter training programs are "insufficient practice hours, lack of authenticity in course materials and classroom activities, and lack of guidance for students' out-of-class practice" (p.66). In his study, Wang (2015) suggests the use of a blended-learning approach to overcome all these three challenges. As this approach benefits from both interpreting corpora with the repository of authentic speeches and information technologies, namely the Blackboard learning system, it has the potential to cultivate a student-centered learning environment by providing more authentic and situated learning practices. In the project, Wang (2015) describes four different steps through which a constructivist learning approach is adopted. In the first step, students practice interpreting the authentic speeches involved in the repository and upload their voice records to be assessed by the trainer. Secondly, they observe the interpreting performances of professional interpreters involved in the online repository as well. In the third step, students are expected to write down their analysis reports regarding the interpreting skills and strategies. In the final step, they share their ideas and reflections through discussion. Wang (2015) associates these four steps of the project with the elements of the experiential learning cycle, namely observation, reflection, and discussion. It is concluded that such an experiential learning-based model ensured a shift from transmissionist to the constructivist and learner-centered environment.

Braun et al. (2020) discuss that applying situated learning is not always possible and efficient for beginner interpreting students due to challenges in access to professional and authentic materials. Instead, "pedagogically guided simulations may be more useful" (p.261). In their situated and collaborative learning practice, Braun et al. (2020) preferred VLE to remove the restrictions of traditional, classroom-bound teaching. Accordingly, students had a chance to experience real-life interpreting settings, particularly dialogue and distance interpreting. The reflective thought was also highlighted in the study through reflective sessions held at the end of interpreting simulations, which improved the confidence along with the professional knowledge and identity of the students (p.275). Despite the efficiency of VLEs in providing students with real-life contexts to practice their interpreting and social skills, integrating these into interpreting curricula takes more than the personal efforts of trainers. As suggested by Braun et al. (2020) as well, it takes "concerted, inter-institutional efforts" (p.275) since technological requirements, expectations of the institution from the students and trainers as well as the prevailing teaching model of the institution, recruitment, and payment process towards trainers are important factors, which cannot be overcome with personal effort.

# 3. METHODOLOGY

In this study, the qualitative research design is used to reveal the teaching experiences of interpreter trainers in-depth and discover the whys and hows of these experiences, without bearing any intention of generalizing the findings. To this end, the case study research method, among qualitative research techniques, is preferred as this method can significantly contribute to exploring questions of how and why certain methods and approaches are used in interpreter training in Turkey. Furthermore, considering the training environment as a prominent social context, the case study method also helps investigate “a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context” (Yin, 2009, p.18). In this sense, the main purpose of using this method is to observe behaviors in a context and real-world conditions rather than manipulating the research object under controlled conditions (Saldanha & O’Brien, 2014).

## 3.1. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of the thesis is built upon fundamental principles in interpreter training under the light of interpreting (sub)competence(s) models and approaches along with the theories of learning, namely constructivism and behaviorism with a focus on main instructional models and approaches shaped by these theories. Training principles stipulated by international organizations, prominent scholars’ approaches and studies on interpreting competence, prerequisites, targeted knowledge and skill acquisitions of interpreting training, fundamental principles of interpreter training as well as the implementation of behaviorist and constructivist theories in interpreter training are summarized under this section.

### 3.1.1. Theories of Learning

Various practices among different instruction methods can be applied by a teacher to fit the needs of learners or particular contexts. These practices and methods may be replaced by others, and the choices of a teacher can be eclectic. However, instruction methods are premised on various perspectives regarding how learning occurs and how knowledge is acquired.

The conceptual underpinnings of these perspectives can be examined under two diverging epistemological theories; behaviorism and constructivism. In choosing the best teaching approach, there may not be a winner between these two theories and related teaching methods. Instead, targeted learning outcomes, circumstances of learning environment, prior knowledge and skills of learners, and different domains of education are all effective factors in applying a certain teaching method and/or merging different teaching practices. In the educational science literature, positions taken vary from a preference for direct, expository, teacher-led instruction (Kirschner, Sweller, & Clark, 2006) to fully open student-centered approaches that can be called pure discovery methods (e.g., Papert, 1980), with intermediate positions represented by more or less guided discovery methods (e.g., Mayer, 2004) (cited in De Jong, 2010) and a blend of experiential learning and discovery learning to complement each other (Kierstead, 1985).

#### 3.1.1.1. Behaviorism

Behaviorism perceives learning as an outcome of external factors and focuses attention on observable behaviors and sensory experiences. Rather than the internal mechanisms of learning, behaviorists study "the prediction and control of behavior", which can be measured and observed scientifically and objectively (Watson, 1913, p.158). The earliest experiments in the field of behavior, such as Pavlov's well-known dog experiment (Pavlov, 1902) and Thorndike's experiment with the hungry cat (Thorndike, 1911) indicate the close association between stimuli and response. Accordingly, the emergence of particular behaviors is closely associated with two environmental cues. These are antecedents which can be defined as stimuli or conditions that precede a response, thus giving rise to a particular behavior; and consequences which refer to the action following the behavior. Later, the Skinner Box experiment (Skinner, 1948) introduced a new term, reinforcement, into the field. Accordingly, the relation between stimuli and response can be sustained and strengthened through reinforcements, which constitute the essence of operant conditioning as a key concept of behaviorism. In operant conditioning, behaviors increase when positively reinforced and decrease when negatively reinforced.

It should be noted that there are a good variety of views and disagreements regarding the conceptual underpinnings of behaviorism. Therefore, there is no single concept of behaviorism. However, there are still some common properties among different forms of behaviorism such as, (1) physiological research should be made on observable data and methodologies like introspection should be avoided; (2) behaviorist learning research attempts to build links between environmental stimuli and response; (3) internal causes are rejected while external and environmental relations with behavior are considered objective (O'Donohue & Kitchener, 1999).

The behaviorist learning approach is based on the transmission of knowledge in line with predetermined goals under the control of a teacher in a structured learning environment. In this approach, trainers aim to enable students to acquire certain skills mostly through practices structured, monitored, controlled by themselves, and reviewed through feedback. In this sense, the teacher structures the learning environment by ensuring students' progress from simple to more complex tasks and skills. For learning to occur, a connection should be established between stimuli and response. Once this connection is built on easier and more structured tasks, the experience learned can be transferred to more challenging and less structured ones (Phillips & Soltis, 1998). In this understanding, teachers assume responsibility for dividing complex tasks into easier sub-tasks to encourage students to master pieces before reaching the whole. In learning methods applied with a behaviorist approach, students learn and pay attention to which behaviors are rewarded (positively reinforced) by the teacher in the classroom. Another way to strengthen the stimuli-response association is practices offered repetitively. The skills are acquired through guided and repetitive practices in this approach, however, no complex applications are made to use these skills to overcome possible challenges (Ravitz, Becker, & Wong, 2000). Finally, trainers need to assess students by looking for targeted behavior changes to determine whether learning has taken place or not (Ormrod, 2012).

#### 3.1.1.1.1. Direct instruction

One of the main teaching methods grounded on the behaviorist learning theory is the direct instruction model that was developed by Siegfried Engelmann and his colleagues. Although the term is also used as a general term to define teacher-led instruction, Adams and Engelmann (1996) clearly oppose the generic use of the term, pointing out that direct instruction differs from teacher-directed instruction.

The two main principles of the direct instruction model were presented as "teach more in less time" and "control the details of what happens" by Engelmann et al. (1988, p.303). Grounded upon the assumption that all children are teachable, it aims to increase students' time in practice and feedback, and teachers' control over structuring the learning environment and monitoring the learning progress of students (Mayer, 2004; Rosenshine, 1979). As suggested by the name, direct instruction is grounded on "teacher's leading the lesson" through "telling, showing, demonstrating, modeling the skill to be learned" (Baumann, 1984, p. 98) based on pre-determined and clearly set learning objectives. In this sense, a systematic curricular sequence is followed in the acquisition of incremental mastery. In this method, students acquire all the required tools through less complicated and more structured tasks, so that they can use those tools to resolve the problems encountered in more complicated and less structured tasks via "mental wrestling" (Adams & Engelmann, 1996, p.30). Hattie (2009) lists seven steps of direct instruction as; setting learning intentions prior to the lesson plan, setting success criteria for the evaluation of students, building commitment and engagement in the learning task to attract students' attention, and presenting the lesson through input, modeling and checking for the understanding of students, applying guided practice based on constant monitoring and feedback of the teacher, closure involving review of the lesson learned, independent practice of students who have mastered on the content with more structured practices before. Accordingly, "deliberate practice and worked examples" constitute the core of direct instruction (Liem & Martin, 2013, p. 366).

Although active participation of students in the learning process is also required as learners "do not passively absorb knowledge from the world" (Skinner, 1968, p.5), the main responsibility of teaching is undertaken by the teacher. To this end, a complex skill is divided into smaller tasks to be mastered step by step; teacher support and guidance are provided during the procedure; supportive feedback is given through systematic corrections and expert models; and finally "extensive student-independent practice" is provided (Rosenshine, 2008, pp.4-5).

Encompassing all these common elements, four different practice methods, namely controlled practice, guided practice, independent practice, and distributed practice can be applied with direct instruction (Durwin & Reese-Weber, 2019). In controlled practice, students are led by their teachers' examples and receive immediate and corrective feedback offered by the teacher to prevent fossilized errors. Guided practice is based on the teacher's reinforcement and feedback. Throughout guided practice, the teacher monitors students' activities and progress. Independent practice is applied when students are capable of completing a task with a high level of accuracy. Lastly, distributed practice is based on multiple and short practice sessions that are sustained for a long period of time and strengthened with regular reviews by the teacher.

As for the implementation of direct instruction, while Kirschner et al. (2006) claim the ultimate superiority of it against all other teaching methods for all learners at any level, Mayer (2004) takes a milder position suggesting that the level and type of guidance provided through direct instruction can be adjusted and it can even be put into use to promote constructivist learning. Direct instruction is found effective for teaching both basic and complex skills and subjects, especially for younger learners (Poncy, McCallum, & Schmitt, 2010; Lazonder & Egberink, 2014); for low-achieving students at the early stages (Good, Biddle, & Brophy, 1975; Ebmeier & Good, 1979; Solomon & Kendall, 1976). However, it gets inefficient for high-ability students (Peterson, 1979) and those who start to achieve more success in time (Dean & Kuhn, 2007).

Against the idea that it is a teacher's ultimate responsibility to teach through direct instruction, Kuhn (2007) asserts that "every student must seek and find their own academic and personal interests and construct an identity around them, which will sustain engagement and aid in their pursuit" (p.110). In this sense, teachers' roles should be limited to offering an opportunity to learn to explore and learners need to construct the meaning from what they are instructed. For the retention of more complex skills, along with the transfer of such skills in social and daily life such as skills of inquiry and skills of argument (Kuhn, 2007), less structured learning experiences such as inquiry-based practices are needed.

#### 3.1.1.1.2. Mastery learning

At the heart of direct instruction lies another significant concept of behaviorism, which is mastery learning. Grounded upon the behaviorist belief that students can demonstrate complex behaviors and learn a subject or material under appropriate environmental conditions and in sufficient time, mastery learning aims to ensure that learners have gained mastery of the given subject matter before moving to the next course material. To this end, course content and learning outcomes are divided into smaller units in a logical sentence, starting from the easier to more complex tasks. Acquisition of mastery is supported with extra materials, and the demonstration of mastery is required to be assessed with a concrete tool such as an exam at the end of each learning unit (Ormrod, 2012) in the form of formative assessment. Student learning is also reinforced through immediate teacher feedback on errors and difficulties (Block & Burns, 1976). Throughout the learning process, students typically work individually and independently at their own speed (Durwin & Reese-Weber, 2019). However, small groups of students can also come together to help each other with the difficulties detected through exams (Block & Burns, 1976).

The behaviorist approach to learning is criticized for mainly discarding mental procedures involved in learning and instead focusing solely on observable behaviors and external stimuli (Freiberg, 1999). Additional factors such as cognitive, developmental, and social, other than environmental factors, are taken into consideration in further learning theories. One of these, the constructivist approach to learning opposes the passive role of learners in the behaviorist approach and argues that learners need to be active in constructing knowledge, rather than being only exposed to it in a structured and controlled way.

#### 3.1.1.2. Constructivism & Social Constructivism

The constructivist approach adopted in the field of teaching and learning grounds on the cognitive development theory of Piaget (1936, 1954, 1955, 1970; Piaget & Inhelder, 1971), which is originally a theory on children's learning. In his theory, Piaget (1936) explains how children construct a mental model of the world as well as constructing knowledge and meaning by means of active engagement with the environment. Accordingly, the construction of knowledge is based on "the exploration of the objects (and later, the ideas) in the environment; using existing schema (organized action and mental connections)" (Bergen, 2008, p.95). The behaviorist perspective on conditioning, for instance, Pavlov's dog experiment is "explained in terms of the organism's ability to attribute meaning to objects and events and to anticipate future happenings, thereby adapting to its environment" in the constructivist approach (Kamii, 1979, p.15).

Piaget (1964) distinguishes learning, which is initiated by an external factor like a teacher, from development, which occurs spontaneously. Development is defined as "a spontaneous process tied to embryogenesis" and learning as "provoked by external situations" (Piaget, 1964, p. 176). In this classification, learning is considered a limited process while development, as the essential process, encompasses learning. It is through cognitive development that living organisms attribute meaning to things and construct knowledge.

According to Piaget, children's learning results from, four factors, namely "biological maturation (nature), active exploration of the physical environment (nurture), social experiences (nurture), equilibration (or self-regulation)" (Durwin, & Reese-Weber, 2019, p.251). Biological maturation mainly refers to the cognitive functioning level of an individual to acquire knowledge based on previous experiences. To construct knowledge on new experiences, on the other hand, active interaction with the environment through self-discovery is required. Similarly, social experiences are needed for the exchange of ideas among peers for the development of logic in children and adolescents. In this sense, the reciprocal relationship between nature and nurture plays a vital role in acquiring and constructing knowledge. Beyond nature and nurture, self-regulation is a significant factor to equilibrate past and new experiences to ensure a positive cognitive change, thus cognitive development.

Although the importance of social experiences is acknowledged, the Piagetian perspective of cognitive development was criticized for the lack of socio-cultural aspect and its limited role in explaining his developmental theory (Nicolopoulou, 1993). The higher importance of social interactions and culture in development was later emphasized by Vygotsky, the pioneer of another theory that extends the scope of constructivism to social constructivism. Vygotsky's social cognitive theory rests on unobservable aspects of human learning, namely thinking and cognition (Arends, 2012), rejecting the perception of knowledge as a concrete and objective entity. The main claim of the theory is that people learn "observationally through modeling; from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions, this coded information serves as a guide for action" (Bandura, 1977, p.22). In this framework, learning cannot be directly transmitted unless a certain level of cognitive development is achieved since learners experience and create their own meaning based on their cognitive maturation level. Following Piaget's cognitive constructivist theory, which focuses more on what a child can discover by himself, Vygotsky (1962, 1978) brings emphasis to the social context by filling the gap of the sociocultural dimension in the Piagetian theory. Vygotsky stresses the importance of adult influence and guidance, unlike Piaget who supports the interaction with things and peers through self-discovery. In this sense, Vygotsky considers learning primarily as a social process that can lead to development as opposed to the Piagetian perspective which focuses on distinct developmental levels of children as a precursor of learning (Durwin & Reese-Weber, 2019).

Both constructivism and social constructivism discuss knowledge from a subjective view, however, the main emphasis of the former is on the cognitive processes of an individual while the latter is more about social interaction (Guterman, 2006, p.13). In social constructivism, learners' inert knowledge and skills can be activated, in other words, co-constructed in a social environment where other learners or adults take part. Knowledge is not only individually constructed by the learner but also constructed through historical and cultural processes of social actions. From the Vygotskian perspective, culture is the key to providing learners with cognitive tools, *viz* the tools of intellectual adaptation. These tools include language, social context, and even more recent technologic means to access information and communication.

Being a significant concept of social constructivism, Vygotsky's (1978) "zone of proximal development" is defined as "the distance between the actual development level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more able peers" (p.85). In this model, it is assumed that there is a gap between the current development level and the potential development level which is desired to be reached. To help learners move through this gap, some guidance is needed. The guidance of adults, instructors, and collaboration with more skillful peers in a socially active environment is a way to ensure learning. Only through this guidance, learners can fulfill their potential and move through the zone of proximal development. The features of the guidance to be offered in the learning process were later associated with the concept of 'scaffolding', the term coined by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976), which refers to a minimally guided approach to ensure learners construct meaning and knowledge by themselves. The purpose of scaffolding is to enable learners to eventually gain autonomy. In this sense, scaffolding is adjusted to the needs of the learners, starts with easier tasks, and disappears in time as learners get independent. Meantime, more help is offered to the learner in challenging times and it is decreased gradually as the learner starts to accomplish tasks (Wood, 1991). Applebee (1986) lists the characteristics of an effective scaffolding as student ownership of the learning event, appropriateness of the instructional task, a structured learning environment, shared responsibility, and transfer of control. Although Wood et al. (1976) suggest that this support is provided by an expert or adult to a child or novice (p.92), peer-to-peer scaffolding is as important as expert-novice scaffolding considering the main premises of the social constructivist approach.

Another key figure in constructivism, John Dewey melts Piaget's cognitivism and Vygotsky's social learning into the same pot. He opposes repetitive lecturing and memorization in class. Instead, he asserts that learners can demonstrate their knowledge by engaging in real-world activities through creativity and collaboration (Behling & Hart, 2008). He also brings the notion of reflective thought to the constructivist framework by defining it as "active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further conclusions to which it tends" (Dewey, 1933, p. 118). He proclaims that learning can be achieved through experiences rather than routine habits. However, according to him, the notion that all experiences are equally educative is not accurate since some experiences can be mis-educative. To ensure learning through experience, he proclaims that reflection on experience is the key factor (Dewey, 1938). Accordingly, reflective thought is considered the main tool to turn our taken-for-granted and habitual actions into meaningful experiences that would contribute to the construction of knowledge. As for the learning environment, the basis of constructivist pedagogy is to ensure training through thoughtful engagement and meaningful activities. As such, students need to be actively constructing knowledge. One way to this end is to encourage students to monitor their own learning process as well as learning outcomes.

In line with the characteristics and main principles of constructivist and social constructivist theories, the role of the trainer can be summarized as mediating, structuring, and guiding the learning environment to scaffold students' learning, encourage them to be involved in an active engagement with each other and provide them with necessary cognitive tools to merge the incoming knowledge with the previous and reflect on their own learning process.

If knowledge is not transmitted but constructed by the learner, then the teacher's role is limited to offering suitable conditions to students to help them create meaning, and students undertake the main responsibility of learning. In this approach, students are expected to engage the new information with previous knowledge and experiences. Therefore, this approach initially regards students' interests and prior experiences. The main objective of the instruction is not the material to be taught or the predetermined goals to be achieved. Concrete problems are given to students to help them utilize their skills in problem-solving (Ravitz et al., 2000, p.3). Learning and cognitive development are also closely associated with interaction with the environment (Piaget, 1953). To achieve such interaction, the need "for active participation by the learner" (Phillips, 1995, p. 11) is also emphasized. In doing so, more place is given to active student engagement through group work, projects, etc. In summary, the social constructivist approach enables students to create their own meaning based on their prior knowledge and experiences through encountering, identifying problems, deciding how to overcome them; reflecting upon their own learning experiences, and getting into active engagement with their peers. Milrad (2002) points out that interactive environments that aim to support the construction of knowledge can be guided by "authentic activities, construction, collaboration, reflection, situating the context, multi-modal interaction" (p.80).

Assessment is also made through testing and accurate answers in traditional instruction. The *sage on stage* role of the trainer is challenged in the constructivist approach, in which teachers' observation and student activities are as important as test scores. In this approach, the assessment aims to test the quality of the education offered, rather than grading students' knowledge. Therefore, any assessment and evaluation procedure primarily aims to enable students to demonstrate their acquired skills along with problem-solving skills rather than checking what they know and do not know. The focus is not merely on the product in this approach, and the scope of the assessment is broadened to include the process as well.

Both Piagetian and Vygotskian theories of learning have been used to inform pedagogical practices such as discovery learning, cognitive apprenticeship, collaborative learning, experiential learning, reflective learning, and situated learning, will be addressed briefly in the following sections, respectively.

#### 3.1.1.2.1. Discovery learning

Discovery learning helps students learn based on their self-discovery without explicit instruction or guidance from a teacher (Bruner, 1961). The dominance of the instructor as the main transmitter of knowledge in teaching has been challenged on the premise that learners do not passively take knowledge with sensory experience, instead they actively construct the meaning after receiving the offered knowledge. In this method, students are encouraged to construct knowledge and meaning by themselves while teachers assume the role of facilitators of the learning process by designing the course in a way to arouse the curiosity of students to discover knowledge.

Bruner (1961) proposes four benefits of discovery-based learning as follows; "(1) The increase in intellectual potency, (2) the shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards, (3) learning the heuristics of discovering, (4) the aid to memory processing" (p.13). Accordingly, discovery learning makes learning more meaningful as learners go through their own information processing rather than following instructions from an authority; helps learners to be problem-solvers by taking responsibility for their own learning; enables students to experience a real-world context as not only information but also the situation learned; makes the value of information clearer by providing learners with the attitude towards science as a process, not a set of facts (Svinicki, 1998).

Discovery learning practiced without or little guidance is, however, criticized for the lack of sufficient scientific evidence (Ausubel, 1964; Mayer, 2004) and the extra burden put on working memory which does not translate itself to the accumulated knowledge in the long-term memory (Kirschner et al., 2006). Instead of a pure discovery learning approach that does not provide students with any form of guidance from the teacher, Mayer (2004) advocates the guided discovery method in which the teacher provides students with sufficient coaching, hints, strategies, and feedback as well as a correct answer to the given problem. Ausubel, Novak, and Hanesian (1978) also put forth the greater efficiency of the guided discovery method compared to the pure discovery. In this manner, to achieve Bruner's goal in discovery learning, Mayer (2004) suggests:

> Students need enough freedom to become cognitively active in the process of sense making, and students need enough guidance so that their cognitive activity results in the construction of useful knowledge. Various forms of guided discovery seem to be best suited to meet these two criteria (p.16).

As an example, pure discovery learning is practiced when students who are provided with particular materials to be used in an experiment, are expected to discover a certain physical rule in a science class without the explicit instruction of the teacher. In guided discovery learning, on the other hand, the teacher would provide students with adequate guidelines on the experiment to be conducted, ask them to explain their discovery process, provide feedback to them, and support students throughout the learning process by coaching them (Durwin & Reese-Weber, 2019). In this sense, Mayer (2004) defines guided discovery as "the best method for promoting constructivist learning" (p.17).

#### 3.1.1.2.2. Cognitive apprenticeship

Cognitive apprenticeship practices on authentic learning experiences stand out as an example of a guided learning method. Cognitive apprenticeship theory is based on the acquisition of a skill mastery through a teacher or a more skillful individual teaching the skill in question to an apprentice. As in any trade apprenticeship, in this model, an apprentice observes a master to model his behaviors and actions performed in a real-life setting. The cognitive apprenticeship, on the hand, differs from a traditional craft as it focuses on "learning-through-guided-experience on cognitive and metacognitive skills and processes" (Collins, Brown, & Newman, 1988, p. 457). Cognitive apprenticeship is when beginners or individuals with less skill work alongside experts to cultivate their cognitive skills. Throughout the learning process, the learner is substantially provided with guidance and the scaffolding is removed as the learner progresses to the more complex tasks that can be performed independently as the learner autonomy is the ultimate goal. Four components are included: 1. Modeling skills and thinking aloud, 2. scaffolding where teachers initially ask questions and provide support but withdraw support as students become more skilled, 3. having students verbalize their thoughts so that student understanding is made obvious, and 4. increasing the complexity of tasks as students' skills (Eggen & Kauchak, 2013).

Collins et al. (1988) propose six different teaching methods that can be applied within the scope of the cognitive apprenticeship model, namely, modeling, coaching, scaffolding, articulation, reflection, and exploration. The first three methods are defined as "the core of cognitive apprenticeship" (Collins et al., 1988, p.16). In *modeling*, an expert/master performs a task to be observed by the learners. In this method, learners build a conceptual model of the given process. In the *coaching* method, learners are observed by the expert while performing a task. The expert also offers scaffolding, modeling, and immediate feedback through the process. In the third method, *scaffolding* is provided either in form of suggestions or help. In doing so, the current skills and abilities of the learners are taken into consideration to adjust the difficulty of the task. The next two methods, *articulation* and *reflection*, are put into use to help students acquire problem-solving and metacognitive skills through guided practice and observation. In *articulation*, learners are asked to explain how they are carrying out a task and why they perform certain actions so that their problem-solving methods can be demonstrated to the expert. In *reflection*, learners are asked to compare their problem-solving strategies with those of the expert. In the final method, *exploration* is the step where scaffolding is removed. In this phase, learners are encouraged to work independently of the expert's support.

In this model successful learning by the student is dependent on accurate, comprehensible explanations of strategies by the mentor and the opportunity to participate in decisions during authentic tasks.

#### 3.1.1.2.3. Collaborative learning

As an active learning method, collaborative learning involves learners working together in a small group to reach a goal such as completing the given task, solving a problem, or creating a product. Although Panitz (1999) differentiates cooperative learning from collaborative learning based on stricter control of the teacher in the former one and the teacher's facilitator role in the latter, they are still considered equivalent in some sources, the two terms are generally considered equivalent (Jacobs & Renandya, 2019; Ormrod, 2012). The formation of the group may be random, depending on pupil selection or teacher selection, which is the most favorable one to create a heterogeneous group including members with varying abilities and skills (Jolliffe, 2007). Johnson and Johnson (2009) list the main characteristics of collaborative learning as positive interdependence, and individual and group accountability, face-to-face interaction, interpersonal skills, and group processing. Unlike any group work where learners do not necessarily depend on each other to complete a given task, collaborative learning requires a work division in which each group members' task depends on a piece of work completed by another member. This creates both positive interdependences, individual and group accountability. Face-to-face interaction during collaborative activities foster interpersonal skills among group members, such as negotiation, listening, problem-solving, and decision-making skills among others. Group processing is considered the final step of a collaborative learning activity. In this stage, students reflect on the benefits and drawbacks of their group work and identify the key issues for their next activity (see Johnson & Johnson, 2009). Besides, Ormrod (2012) summarizes the features of collaborative learning activity as small and teacher-assigned groups of students, at least one common goal of the group formed, clear guidelines provided to students about the given task, group interdependence, and accountability, awarding the group success. Considering all these features of collaborative learning, a clear and well-designed structure is a key factor to involve cooperation among students as a requirement for group success and task completion and to ensure a successful collaborative activity. At this point, the trainer assumes a critical role in structuring the activity and dividing the roles where necessary. Division of the roles among students "moves responsibility to the group and away from the teacher" (Jolliffe, 2007, p.50) in terms of learning, thus creating a student-centered learning environment. However, Jacobs and Renandya (2019) posit that a collaborative learning activity can be designed as a teacher-centered one if students cooperate in order to master the knowledge already transmitted by the teacher, topics and materials are selected by teachers, if the final assessment is applied by the teacher only, and extrinsic motivation is the main learning motivation of students in a group to get group award. To promote a student-centered learning environment, the importance of students' active role and participation in generating and constructing the general meaning throughout the learning process, which is facilitated by the teacher, and in selecting subject matters and materials as well as in assessment procedures are highlighted (Jacobs & Renandya, 2019).

Jigsaw activity can set an example for collaborative learning practice. In this activity, each group member is given a piece of assignment and the completion of the task depends on how each person contributes through their own pieces to complete the whole. For instance, new pieces of information are distributed to different group members who are asked to study his/her own piece and teach it to other members to reach the whole information (Aronson, 1997).

Another collaborative learning activity, peer assessment, as an inherently social process, can also be incorporated in the learning process. Hamer et al. (2008) describe collaborative learning as the key issue in “a pedagogy that encourages students to contribute to the learning of others and to value the contributions of others” (p.195). At this point, peer assessment, conducted formatively, contributes to the shared goals of a learning group and to the learning process of the group members. Søndergaard and Mulder (2012) report that peer assessment has the potential to maximize learning outcomes as it contributes to one of the main purposes of a collaborative learning environment which is “to turn a class into an environment which students feel comfortable being part of, and to use the generated trust and goodwill to enhance learning” (p.350). The positive impact of peer assessment is reported on interpersonal variables such as psychological safety (feeling safe about what to do/say in a group as a member), trust, and group interdependence, thus contributing to building a collaborative learning environment (van Gennip, Segers, & Tillema, 2010).

The key benefit of collaborative learning, along with motivational impact, is cognitive, according to Jolliffe (2007):

> …Pupils working together cooperatively promote intellectual growth because they are able to support each other’s next step in their learning. Their potential for learning is enhanced through working with a peer. In addition, cognitive elaboration theories state that, if information is to be retained, some kind of cognitive restructuring (putting information into a different format or words) needs to take place. One of the most effective means of doing this is to explain material to someone else; precisely what cooperative learning facilitates (p.46).

Collaborative learning is found effective, particularly at the elementary and secondary school level, and the same positive impact is questioned for college and university students who already acquired interpersonal skills. Based on the literature review on the effectiveness of collaborative learning in the post-secondary level of education, McWhaw et al. (2003) conclude that collaborative learning is also effective for higher levels in case implementers are trained about this learning method, and it is applied as a "process scaffolded and monitored across a semester" (p. 78). The cognitive benefits of collaborative learning such as reasoning, creative thinking and transferring the acquired knowledge (Johnson & Johnson, 1998); social skills such as interpersonal and small group skills among students who share different backgrounds, disabilities, and ethnicities (Johnson & Johnson, 2002; McMaster & Fuchs, 2002); and academic skills such as better academic achievement in reading and mathematics (Rohrbeck et al., 2003) and improved intrinsic motivation (Johnson & Johnson, 1985) are also reported. It also helps students construct knowledge based on their own and collaborative experiences, exchange of thoughts, and discussion rather than merely accepting knowledge transmitted by the teacher within a set framework (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1991).

**3.1.1.2.4. Experiential learning**

In Dewey's philosophy, which laid the ground for experiential learning, experience to be gained in a social environment is the key to learning. According to him, "people live in a world surrounded by people and other things that are a result of previous human experiences. These combined experiences construct knowledge, as we know it" (Robert, 2003, p.2). In this scope, there are kinds of learning practices based on experience, namely "trial and error" and "reflection" (Boud, Keogh & Walker, 1985, p.11). While learning through trial and error, in other words, learning from the mistakes is limited to the specific problem encountered; learning through reflection ensures the efficacy of learning by enhancing problem-solving skills and transfer of knowledge in new situations and problems. For Dewey, reflection creates a learning loop by feeding and being fed by experience (Boud, Keogh & Walker, 1985).

On the premise of learning from experience, experiential learning was later coined by Kolb (1989) who defines learning as "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience" (p.41). In this definition, Kolb (1989) places the emphasis on learning as an adaptation and transformation process, and a transformative force rather than its outcomes or content. Thus, the focus of experiential learning theory is on the dynamic nature of learning. To illustrate this dynamism, Kolb (1984) puts forth a learning cycle, which is built upon Dewey's theory of reflective thought (along with the works of Kurt Lewin and Jean Piaget) and consists of four main parts:

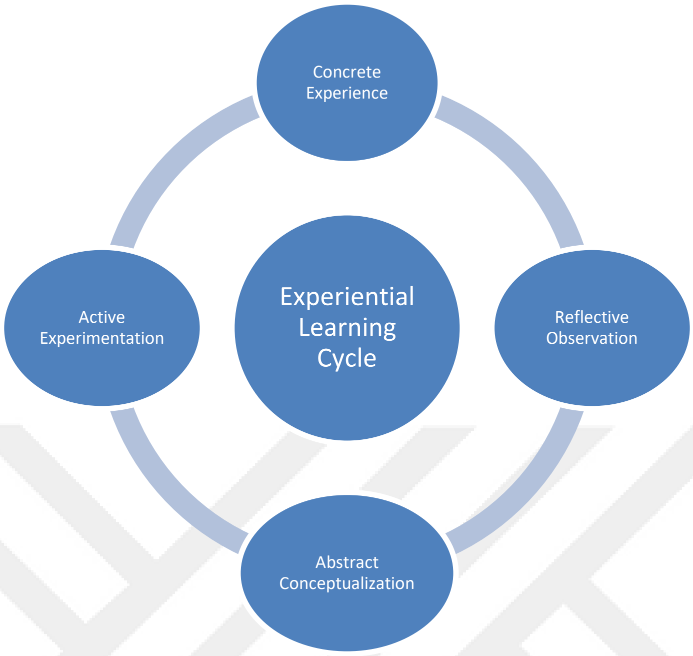



Figure 3.1: Kolb’s Experiential Learning Cycle

Among these four learning modes, *Concrete Experience* and *Abstract Conceptualization* are perceived as interrelated in terms of grasping experience while *Active Experimentation* and *Reflective Observation* are interrelated for transforming experience (Kolb, 1984). In these modes, two main concepts of learning are experience and reflection. The concrete experiences of learners are followed by their thinking on these experiences through reflection and observation. In the next step, learners conceptualize their experiences by formulating abstract concepts and generalizing them. Finally, they apply their ideas to new situations by testing the implications of those concepts (Beard & Wilson, 2013; Lee, 2015).

Kolb’s model of experiential learning is criticized for the lack of clear definitions of each mode leading to many different interpretations, for its misinterpretation of Dewey’s perception of experience, isolated nature of experience and reflection in it, and its epistemologically problematic eclecticism (Miettinen 2000). Still, the model has been a significant component of adult education in educational institutions.

In addition to Kolb's model, experiential learning is grounded upon five propositions by Boud, and Walker (2000):

1. Experience is the foundation of, and the stimulus for all learning.
2. Learners actively construct their own experiences.
3. Learning is a holistic process.
4. Learning is socially and culturally constructed.
5. Learning is influenced by socioemotional context in which it occurs (pp.8-14).

As "a process in which an experience is reflected upon and then translated into concepts which in turn become guidelines for new experiences" (Saddington, 1992, p.44), experiential learning has the capacity of moving the learning practice beyond formal education by providing "self-managed continuing professional development" (Moon, 2004, p.74).

#### 3.1.1.2.5. Reflective Learning

As demonstrated above, reflective learning is intertwined with experiential learning, which encompasses reflection as a key element to learn from experience. Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985) describe reflection as "a form of response of the learner to experience" (p.18). Reflective learning is defined as "the process of internally examining and exploring an issue of concern, triggered by an experience, which creates and clarified meaning in terms of self, and which results in a changed conceptual perspective" (Boyd & Fales, 1983, p.100).

In the same manner, Dewey (1938) affiliates learning with reflection on the experience, rather than merely experiencing. Rodgers (2002) summarizes four main criteria of reflection from the Deweyan philosophy as follows:

1- It is a meaning-making process that functions as a bridge between a learner's experience and learning.

2- It is a systematic way of thinking.

3- It happens in the community, in interaction with others.

4- It includes a set of attitudes that appreciates the personal growth of oneself and others.

Dewey (1910) proposes five steps for a reflective process. These are "(1) a felt difficulty; (2) its location and definition; (3) suggestion of possible solution; (4) development by reasoning of the bearings of the suggestion; (5) further observation and experiment leading to its acceptance or rejection; that is, the conclusion of belief or disbelief" (Dewey, 1910, p. 72). Following these steps, a reflective thinker is expected to go beyond mere observation and dwell in a deliberate observation (Dewey, 1910; Dewey 1938), through which learners describe their observation without jumping to the conclusions or finding solutions. In this sense, his systematic reflective inquiry is vital for learning from experience, which is distinguished from having an experience. For, as posited by Winter (1989), experience *per se* is not equivalent to learning from experience.

Mezirow (1990) posits that reflection is multileveled and, the levels of reflection should also be taken into consideration along with the function of reflection. According to him, the highest level of reflection is the critical reflection (Mezirow, 1990). Mezirow (1998) distinguishes critical reflection from reflection suggesting that the former refers to "making an assessment of what is being reflected upon" (p.186).

As can be seen, there is a conceptual unclarity about the vague and varying definitions of reflection and other related terms such as inquiry, reflective practice, and critical reflection. Besides, the question of how systematic reflection can be distinguished from other types of thought (Rodgers, 2002) poses a threat to the assessment of reflective skills of students, as well as to discussing and researching the concept, and putting it into use for pedagogic purposes. To apply reflective practices for pedagogic purposes, Gibb's model (1988) is in parallel with Dewey's reflective steps (1910). However, Gibbs's model can be used practically in educational settings unlike Dewey's, which is more like a philosophical discussion on reflection (Lee, 2015) Grounded upon Kolb's experiential learning model, Gibbs (1988)' reflective cycle model comprises six stages, namely D*escription, Feelings, Evaluation, Analysis, Conclusion* and *Action Plan*. The model is illustrated below:


Figure 3.2: Gibb's reflective cycle model (adapted from Gibbs, 1988)

Accordingly, a reflective learning practice is initiated with the description of the situation (e.g. a part of a formal course, workshop, group project, field trip) in detail. At this point, learners are expected to "simply describe" their experience, and not to "make judgements yet or try to draw conclusions" (Gibbs, 1988, p. 49). The next stage includes asking questions about one's feelings and thoughts about the experience. Again, this stage is for the description of feelings and thoughts as they are. In the third stage, the learning experience is evaluated objectively as regards positive and negative aspects of it. Next, based on the previous descriptions of the situation, one is expected to analyze it and make sense of the experience. The key question is 'why' at this point to comprehend the reason behind the good or bad aspects of the experience. Besides, one is expected to compare his experiences with other people's to see how they differ from each other. In the *Conclusions* stage, one summarizes his overall learning and focuses on possible improvements on his task. In the final stage, a learner has the opportunity to reflect on what different could be done in a similar task in the future.

Gibbs (1988) prioritizes a learner's self-assessment over the trainer's and peer comments, by centralizing self-assessment in reflective practice. According to Gibbs (1988):

> Both the start and the conclusion of the process of reflection should be self assessment: Initially of direct experience, and finally of what personal conclusions can be drawn, having analysed that experience. This self-assessment should ideally lead into planning for the next experience, in the form: "Next time I will…" (p.51).

Walker (1985) suggests incorporating writing into learning as an aid for reflective practice. To this end, different writing forms such as portfolios, reflective journals, diaries, reflective essays, and logbooks among others have been suggested to engage students in reflective thinking in various fields (Lee, 2015). Reflective writing practices, such as keeping learning journals, are used to facilitate the development of reflective practice. Highlighting the contribution of reflective writing on professional development, enhanced metacognitive capacity, and lifelong learning, Moon (2006) reports that keeping reflective journals:

- slows the pace of learning
- can increase the sense of ownership of learning
- acknowledges the role of emotion in learning
- give learners an experience of dealing with ill-structured material of learning
- encourages metacognition (learning about one's own process of learning)
- enhances learning through the process of writing (p.26)

To benefit from reflective writing practices, on the other hand, the concepts of reflection and reflective writing should be introduced to students. At this point, learners need to be able to distinguish reflective writing from superficial and descriptive writing. In this sense, reflective writing is deemed as a skill, development of which should be scaffolded.

#### 3.1.1.2.6. Situated learning

In the situated learning model, which is a part of the experiential learning model, learning is considered to emerge from social interactions rather than individual endeavors in line with the Vygotskian social constructivist theory. According to Lave and Wenger (1991) "in contrast with learning as internalization, learning as increasing participation in communities of practice concerns the whole person acting in the world" (p.49). In this sense, viewed as a social practice, learning takes place in an authentic context through social interactions. This social and physical context, which is meaningful for learners to apply what they have learned to real-world situations, helps learners to develop their knowledge through the connection between the past and new experiences and information, appreciate the meaning and value of the learning tasks and activities; thus acquiring a more integrated conceptual understanding (Krajcik & Blumenfeld, 2006).

For Vygotsky, in-class learning and situated learning are both complementary and reconceptualizing; as the latter ensures cognitive development from lower to higher levels (Kemp, 2010). In situated learning, learners can face immediate problems which emerge from the interaction with others in an embedded context, and need to formulate and resolve them to achieve the overall target of completing the given task within the limits of the specific context and environment rather than dealing with uncontextualized and confined problems (Collins et al. (1988).

Grounded upon the idea that every learning is situated, Lave's perspective on learning is that "knowledge is no longer seen as a possession of the individual to be carried around, unpacked, and made use of across situations, but that meaning itself is 'held' in the relationships between people, artifacts, and activity" (cited in Waite & Pratt, 2015, p.6). In this sense, the term situated refers to not only physical spaces but also authenticity and the idea that knowledge emerges through social interactions and contextual artifacts (Waite & Pratt, 2015). Although the main elements of situated learning made the concept used as an equivalent for learning by doing, Lave and Wenger (1991) posit that situated learning is a broader concept encompassing more than what is referred by learning by doing, instead participation in a social community in which learners share and debate their ideas is a significant element.

As a key term for this understanding of learning, Lave and Wenger (1991) coined the concept of Communities of Practice (CoP), which refers to a social community consisting of people who share a common knowledge domain and interact with each other to improve their skills professionally in that domain. In this term, learning is interpreted as a process crafted through sharing an identity, belonging to a community, experiencing meaning, and practicing (Wenger, 1998). It is through these CoPs, in which people share their common interests, experiences, knowledge, and skills that learning moves from participation to expertise through professional advancement.

According to Brown, Collins, and Duguid (1989), situated learning bears these six key elements, namely "apprenticeship, collaboration, reflection, coaching, multiple practice and articulation" (p.40). Although learning is perceived to be "specific to the situation in which it is learned" (Anderson et al. 1996, p.5), following these steps, students move from a context-specific activity to generalizable skills that can be transferred into different contexts (Brown, et al., 1989):

> In this sequence, apprenticeship and coaching in a domain begin by providing modeling in situ and scaffolding for students to get started in an authentic activity. As the students gain more self-confidence and control, they move into a more autonomous phase of collaborative learning, where they begin to participate consciously in the culture. The social network within the culture helps them develop its language and the belief systems and promotes the process of enculturation. Collaboration also leads to articulation of strategies, which can then be discussed and reflected on. This, in turn, fosters generalizing, grounded in the students' situated understanding. From here, students can use their fledgling conceptual knowledge in activity, seeing that activity in a new light, which in turn leads to the further development of the conceptual knowledge (p.39).

In this regard, exposure to more examples and involvement in more practice contexts increase the possibility of transferring the skills and knowledge in an embedded activity and a specific context when they arise in further, different learning contexts (Ormrod, 2012). In addition, situated learning primarily helps students to understand why and how the knowledge can be used; secondly enables them to actively use the acquired knowledge rather than making them passive receivers; encourages them to decide when to use (or not to use) the acquired knowledge in different conditions; helps students acquire abstraction of knowledge that can be embodied in multiple contexts, thus facilitating the transfer of knowledge (Collins et al., 1988).

Being a form of situated learning, project-based learning (PjBL) is based on Dewey's (1959) work on the process of inquiry, through which students also collaborate on an authentic task. According to Deweyan educational philosophy, learning should take place in real-life contexts and learners should engage in authentic and meaningful tasks to mimic real-world conditions and achieve a deeper understanding. In PjBL, through authentic materials, learners engage in real-world problems by investigating questions, generating hypotheses, explaining the phenomena, discussing and exchanging their ideas in a way similar to scientists' (Krajcik & Blumenfeld, 2006).

Krajcik et al. (1994) identify five main features of PjBL. Accordingly, a PjBL-based learning environment is initiated with a problem or a driving question that is expected to be solved by learners. A problem/driving question should be feasible, worthwhile, contextualized, meaningful, and ethical (Krajcik & Blumenfeld, 2006). In the solution of the problem/question, learners engage in authentic and situated processes by learning and applying the key ideas throughout the problem-solving procedure. To mimic an expert problem-solving situation, learners participate in collaborative activities. In the inquiry process, students' skills are scaffolded with learning technologies. In the final step, learners produce a range of artifacts to present their understanding to others, who can also review the product and provide feedback. In the overall learning process, "learners actively build knowledge as they explore the surrounding world, observe and interact with phenomena, take in new ideas, make connections between new and old ideas, discuss and interact with others" (Krajcik & Blumenfeld, 2006, p.319), thus constructing knowledge and contextual understanding via real-world practices through engagement with prior knowledge and peers. Besides, the key benefits of PjBL are parallel to 21st-century skills such as dealing with complex problems, developing critical and innovative thinking skills, and collaborative and presentation skills (Jones, 2019).

### 3.1.2. Interpreter Training

The traditional model of interpreter training is based on the transfer of interpreting experiences from bilinguals, who were generally the first practitioners, with a master-apprenticeship relationship between teachers and learners. Around the 1940s, two of the oldest institutions for interpreter training, École d'interprètes in Geneva and HEC (Ecole des Hautes Etudes Commerciales) in Paris adopted an approach based on an apprenticeship model with professional interpreters who were training future interpreters holding the belief that interpreting is an innate gift, rather than focusing on the curriculum (Seleskovitch, 1999). In this sense, early interpreters and trainers are known to rely on their heuristic principles rather than any theoretical teaching model based on scientific research. Kalina (2000) criticizes this as "a highly prescriptive teaching theory and a rather dogmatic approach by those that had developed it" (p.10). In 1959, the school policy adopted by AIIC (the International Association of Conference Interpreters), which has been among the most influential associations in the field up until today, reaffirmed the apprenticeship relation in training (Orlando, 2016), as it recommends training interpreters at the postgraduate level with practicing interpreters. In terms of historical development, the professional dimension was prioritized over the academic dimension during the 1970s when it was promoted that interpreter training should be carried out by practitioners. This belief was mostly justified by the lack of educational institutions, academic trainers, and interpreting theories. As suggested by Echeverri (2017), training traditions were generally passed on from generation to generation (p.156). From the 1980s, there was a cognitive process-oriented understanding which carried interpreter training to a more academic ground with a more theory-friendly approach with the endeavors of Daniel Gile, Barbara Moser-Mercer, and Sylvie Lambert to develop models to explain conference interpreting (Tolosa Igualada & Echeverri, 2019). In 1997, European Commission initiated EMCI (European Masters in Conference Interpreting) project to train conference interpreters to be employed at European Union Institutions. Still, EMCI puts forth the core principle for quality assurance in member universities as follows: "The course must be designed and run and interpreting classes taught by practicing conference interpreters who are accredited to the European Institutions or International Organizations or who are members of the International or a National Association of Conference Interpreters" (EMCI, 2018). According to the standards and principles of EMCI, the quality of the training is ensured by the teacher training of professional interpreters who are interested in interpreter training. As of the 1990s, a paradigm shift emerged in the research on interpreting studies as more emphasis started to be put on empirical, experimental research, and interdisciplinarity while the same research trends were sustained on interpreting process, interpreter, and quality in interpreting (Gile, 2009b). It was in this period when the current programs of translator and interpreter training programs started to be academized with the increasing need for research, which "provided stimulation and motivation to interpreter trainers" (Gile, 2009b, p.138). Based on these grounds, interpreter training benefited from more objective, empirical and theoretical research on models (Gile's Effort Model in 1995), interpreting competence, expertise and skill acquisitions (Moser-Mercer, Kalina in the 2000s), curriculum development, and student-oriented practices (Sawyer, 2004) and interpreting quality (Pöchhacker in the late 1990s and early 2000s). Following the relatively short history of the profession and its pedagogy, the field has been going through substantial changes in the 21st century for reasons such as;

a) Market growth and ever-increasing demand for interpreters due to globalization and increasing international relations in every field (Doğan, 2009, p.41; Orlando, 2016, pp. 17-18), and more different language pairs (Orlando, 2016, p.19; Setton, 2006),

b) Technological advancement and its repercussions in communication (use of mixed media) as well as Internet, dictionaries, and computer-aided tools during interpreting (Orlando, 2016, p.19; Setton, 2006) and more recent mode of remote interpreting (Özkaya, 2017),

c) Pace of communication under economic and communicative reasons which leads to more information-dense and faster speeches, adding up to the natural challenges of the profession eventually (Setton, 2006),

d) Expanding subject matters which require an interpreter to specialize in a gamut of subject areas and topics in shorter periods (Setton, 2006).

During all these transitions to a more systematic and academic attitude to interpreter training, the main research topics have evolved around "student selection, performance assessment, and teaching methods" (Orlando, 2016, p.33). This indicates that despite such extensive impacts on the profession, the basics of interpreting and its pedagogy remain the same as an interpreter is still entitled to ensure verbal communication "on the real-time interaction" (Setton, 2006) by developing and acquiring specific competences and skillset, and putting them into practice.

No one-size-fits-all approach is acceptable in interpreter training as proposed in the studies of Angelelli 2000, Baxter 2013, Garzone & Viezzi, 2002b, Gile, 2015, Wiesman, 2008 (cited by Dastyar, 2018), since different approaches have been adopted for specific and varying contexts. Still, the common elements of interpreter training around the world, albeit differences in curricula, are summarized by Sandrelli (2015) as follows:

- students are expected to have a high level of proficiency in their working languages, usually ascertained by means of an entrance test;
- trainers are active professional interpreters;
- training activities try to reproduce real assignments as closely as possible;
- students are trained in both consecutive and simultaneous interpreting;
- self-learning activities (i.e. autonomous practice sessions) are an integral part of interpreter training, and the time spent on these activities normally exceeds the available contact hours (p.114).

The second and third elements may give hints about the main pedagogical approach expected to be adopted in training. Since interpreting is a very specialized domain of the language profession, the training initially aims to equip students with the realities of professional life. Attending real conferences and exercising in dummy booths are not always feasible, thus conference simulations, speeches given by live speakers as well as authentic speeches are commonly used for training purposes to mimic real-life conditions (Sandrelli, 2015). In this sense, deliberate and frequent interpreting practices and individual effort seem to be at the core of the training to help students acquire autonomy. Besides, skill-based strategy, which is commonly preferred by interpreters to overcome interpreting problems encountered, requires automatic responses. Routine speech components in a conference environment; greetings and welcoming phrases in an opening speech or regards in a closing speech as such, require automatic responses from the interpreter to allow more working memory for further challenges increased with the time constraint. Such automated responses can be gained through reinforcement of stimuli-response activities, which in turn transform interpreting training into a practice-based transmissionist learning environment. Furthermore, complex interpreting skills such as simultaneous interpreting or sight translation are broken down into less complex pre-interpreting skills such as active listening, paraphrasing, summarizing, note-taking, etc. Before combining all these skills in an interpreting mode, students are mostly required to master each pre-interpreting skill. The incremental and gradual acquisition of sub-skills before assuming an authentic task is emphasized by Lambert (1992) through the following analogy:

> ..picture someone wishing to learn how to drive a car with a standard shift. Whether the individual took drivers' education courses or whether he was taught by a friend or relative, one thing is certain: he was not thrown into the driver's seat of a vehicle traveling down the freeway at 70 miles an hour. He probably began by turning on the ignition, letting the car idle, and learning master the brakes, clutch and gear before actually taking the car for a ride (p.264)

This task-based approach to interpreter training, along with the targeted (semi-) automated responses, creates a teacher-centered transmission model and behaviorist pedagogy in class. Likewise, Sawyer (2004) notes that as focusing on component and task-based skills is preferable in interpreter training, the curriculum approach which is based on "breaking down higher order skills into component skills…may be associated with the behaviorist/empiricist view" (p.63), by defining behaviorism as the pioneering approach in interpreter training among all the other scientific approaches. Sandrelli (2015) explains this phenomenon prevailing in interpreting pedagogy as; "However, there is an inherent contradiction between the great weight of autonomous learning in interpreter training and the prevailing teacher-centered (transmissionist) approach traditionally adopted in most institutions. That is the reason why in recent years there has been a shift towards a learner-centered (socio-constructivist) approach to interpreter training (and translator training as well)" (p.116).

Research in the literature indicates this shift to more constructivist and student-centered approaches such as peer assessment (Lee, 2016), self-assessment (Fowler, 2007; Han & Fan, 2020), mock conferences (Laet, 2010; Li, 2015), reflective learning (Chen, 2010; Lee, 2015) in interpreter training. However, such studies are still very limited, which may also hint the limited use of these activities in class. This shows the gap in the literature in the field of teaching, which is reported by Tolosa-Igualada and Echevveri (2019) as "according to our conception of interpretation as a psycho-cognitive and socially situated activity, we consider that traditional teaching has become pedagogically unfit for the training of professional interpreters" (p.37) as well. Orlando (2016) also points out the deficiency in interpreter training as "we cannot train 21st-century professionals by 20th-century methods" (p.28) since interpreter training is no longer a vocational training model in which a purely expert-novice relationship is built and professional interpreters pass down their experiences to students.

Interpreting classes are practice-based in line with the peculiarities inherent in the profession and training. However, in a highly-structured practice-based lesson plan in which pre-determined skills are targeted, the skills acquired are not actively used to overcome authentic or real-like situations, and students are not given a chance to reflect upon their performances if the main assessment is made through the final output of the students at the end of such practices manifests itself as a teacher-centered, transmissionist learning model. In the same vein, Kalina (2000) highlights the importance of authentic and real-life texts in interpreter training, and further suggests not limiting the real-life conditions with the texts offered. Instead, she posits that "in authentic interpreting situations, anything can happen. Therefore, professionals who teach should be expected to offer more than just the texts they may have had to interpret themselves" (Kalina, 2000, p.13).

The activity-based approach which is at the center of most interpreter training institutions aims to reinforce core interpreting skills. Students repeat practicing fundamental behaviors that are going to be reinforced or discouraged by direct feedback from the instructor. In this way, "students develop routine or habitual ways of dealing with objects and events in their environment" (Prawat, 2000, p.806) such as using block phrases to interpret an opening speech, memorizing common thanking phrases, etc. Prawat (2000) explains the drawback of this instruction model as follows;

> These generally adaptive responses require minimal cognitive monitoring on the students' part; indeed, they typically are unaware of the amount of processing that is going on in this type of response. This changes, however, when they find themselves in a new or uncertain situation. Routine or habitual ways of responding are no longer effective. Left to their own devices, the students soon realize that new knowledge is needed (p. 806).

Similarly, the main pedagogy grounded upon the master-apprenticeship model in interpreter training "leaves hardly any room for the development of meta-cognitive skills, which we have learned are a hallmark of adaptive expertise" (Moser-Mercer, 2008, p.10). That's why interpreter training does not undergird the standards of offering a real-like environment unless a constructivist approach is adopted. Any setting of interpreting depends on active communication between addressees, which would primarily require the interpreter to be cognitively aware of the whole process. This awareness in question can be possible through critical thinking, self-reflection, collaboration, oral communication skills, and more, which should all be targeted in the curricula of interpreter training. As suggested by Kiraly (2000), "the interchange between multiple realities in a social environment naturally leads to debate, negotiation and thus to change and growth in each individual perspective" (34). This social constructivist view in translation pedagogy is a call to abandon assigning each student the same task and merely transmitting the correct answers in a highly artificial environment that is mostly dominated by the instructor. Instead, learning is placed in an interactive and realistic context by allowing them to encounter real-life problems and acquire the necessary skills to cope with them. In such an environment, learners can construct knowledge as well as acquire professional skills such as communicating with colleagues, teamwork and stress management, and so on.

Accordingly, key issues of teacher- and student-based approaches to interpreting training can be exemplified and compared as follows:

| Feature | Teacher-centered | Student-centered |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Teacher's role | Instructor designs interpreting activities to acquire specific interpreting knowledge skills such as note-taking, paraphrasing, subject knowledge, and terminology.<br><br>The teacher offers constant feedback to student's interpreting performance.<br><br>Interpreting strategies are instructed. | Interpreting students are involved in the planning of the course material, main topics, and sources in consideration of their previous and current knowledge & experiences.<br><br>Students listen to their own and peers' performance and assess their own performance and their peers'.<br><br>Students are helped to discover their own problems and strategies to solve them. |
| Students' roles | Students take place in practices, interpret/paraphrase the given speech/piece of speech in line with the instructor's expectations. | Students are active in diverse roles interacting with other students to investigate and problem-solving activities. |
| Planning tasks | The teacher dominates over the topics to be chosen, the strategies to be applied, the speeches to be delivered. | Balance of teacher-students in preparing materials for interpreting. |
| Learning environment | Students are encouraged to practice and present their performances individually in front of the class and the instructor. | The environment is loosely structured. Students are encouraged to work in collaboration.<br><br>Grounds upon social structures for learning. |
| Assessment | The voice record of the final interpreting performance is assessed by the instructor. | The whole training process is involved in the assessment. e.g. Booth-mates are also assessed in terms of their contribution to the interpreter. |

Table 3.1. Teacher-centered vs student-centered approach in interpreter training*

*Adapted from Arends (2012, p.356) to interpreter training.

#### 3.1.2.1. Interpreting skills and competences

The main goal of T&I programs around the world is to develop translation and interpreting competence. PACTE group (2003) defines competence as "a system of underlying knowledge and abilities" (p.46). In the literature, albeit copious attention on translation competence, interpreting competence has been researched within the context of cognitive processes, novice-expert comparisons, and a specific aspect of interpreting training such as aptitude testing and assessment. Therefore, comprehensive interpreting competence models that can be applied in interpreting pedagogy are scarce (Martinez-Gomez, 2020). However, interpreting researchers mutually emphasize fundamental interpreter competences, despite variations in their approaches and classifications.

The fundamental prerequisite is linguistic skills in both native and foreign languages, which goes beyond fluency. These skills, according to Kalina (2000) include "not only command of the general or conversational but also specialized languages such as banking, medical or data processing language, differences in usage, style, register, cultural norms, and peculiarities, etc. (declarative and semantic knowledge)" (p.4). In addition to the acquisition of these knowledge types, an interpreter is also expected to have procedural knowledge which refers to the knowledge of applying the acquired knowledge to the interpreting process (Gile, 2009a; Kalina, 2000). Subject knowledge, which is used interchangeably with world knowledge, extralinguistic knowledge, and contextual knowledge in the literature (see Bayraktar-Özer, 2017, pp.40-45), is also reported as an integral part of speech comprehension, which is the first step of the interpreting process. For Chernov (2004), linguistic knowledge is required to reveal the contextual meaning, which can only be moved to sense through extralinguistic knowledge. Another significant competence of interpreters is related to memory since interpreters are expected to "reproduce chunks in units of meaning accurately, speedily, fluently and articulately" (Rudvin & Tomassini, 2011, p.87). Doğan (2009) exemplifies memory skills as "mental imagery, scheming and mapping, keeping the content of long term memory active" (p.87).

Kalina (2000) offers to benefit from Translation to acquire interpreting competence in programs where there is a common basic training for both sub-disciplines. She lists strategic text processing as the initial common competence between the two as both translation and interpreting are mainly based on the transfer of the meaning. This then requires the identification of problems and possible solutions despite obvious differences between the two mainly due to the time-constraint factor in interpreting. However, Kalina (2000) believes that "there are a number of similar or related factors at work in the two subdisciplines that can be pursued within the scope of an integrated approach" (p.19). In the same manner, Gile (2009a) lists the components of Translation competence that should be acquired by interpreters as follows;

- a good command of both passive and active languages,
- sufficient knowledge of themes and subject-matters of the texts/speeches to be Translated
- declarative and procedural knowledge about Translation (pp.8-9).

In this list, Gile (2009a) particularly emphasizes the importance of high-level language knowledge required by conference interpreters, who are expected to interpret diplomats, scientists, and intellectuals and speak at their level under the time-constraint factor of the interpreting profession. Knowledge of themes and subject matters is also a significant component as interpreters have to deal with specialized subject areas and topics. Finally, declarative knowledge refers to knowledge about the professional aspects of Translation work including customer relations, use of tools, and marketplace knowledge. Procedural knowledge is needed to put all the knowledge and skills acquired into the work to complete the interpreting task.

Moser-Mercer (1994) defines interpreting competences under three main categories, knowledge, skills, and personality traits that should be tested before admission to interpreting programs. The first category includes knowledge of the mother and foreign languages and general knowledge that could be acquired with a sound education and interest in current affairs. The skills category includes skills that are needed to complete an interpreting process such as comprehension, comprehension and production, memory capacity, the simultaneity of listening and speaking voice, and diction. In the last category, stress tolerance, resilience, and rapid learning are listed as required personality traits in a conference interpreter.

Specifying similar skills and personality traits, Doğan (2009) divides competences into two, those that should be found in interpreter-candidate students and graduates who have completed their interpreter training. Accordingly, an interpreter candidate should encompass main interpreting skills such as cognitive skills, listening and comprehension skills, speaking skills, affective skills, and kinetic skills before the training. On the other hand, a student who has successfully completed interpreter training should have acquired awareness of language and culture, general culture, world knowledge, memory skills, professional and ethical knowledge, technical knowledge, subject area and terminology knowledge, social behaviors, and improved affective features (Doğan, 2009).

Russo (2014) reports a more detailed and comprehensive list of competences expected from today's conference interprets based on AIIC's training principles:

- a polished command of their own native language over a range of registers and domains,
- a complete mastery of their non-native languages,
- a familiarity with the cultures in the countries where their working languages are spoken,
- a commitment to helping others communicate,
- an interest in and understanding of current affairs, plus an insatiable curiosity,
- world experience away from home and school and a broad general education,
- good training (and usually at least an undergraduate university degree),
- the ability to concentrate and focus as a discussion unfolds,
- a pleasant speaking voice,
- a friendly, collegial attitude,
- calm nerves, tact, judgment and a sense of humor,
- a willingness to adhere to rules of conduct (e.g. confidentiality) (p.15).

Interpreting has long been viewed as an activity that can be accomplished based on the linguistic, extralinguistic, and memory skills, *inter alia*, of the interpreter. On the other hand, all interpreting modes take place in an environment where speakers, interpreters, and audiences are all dependent on each other. Diriker's groundbreaking work (2004) on conference interpreting attracted attention to the fact that conference interpreting is a situated activity that underscores interactional skills. Rudvin and Tomassini (2011) list these skills as follows;

- Situation control / floor-management and co-ordination
- Acting on interlocutor feedback
- Coping with communication breakdown
- Coping with emotivity and tension between the interlocutors
- Flexibility and multi-tasking
- Controlling of bonding and identification with either party
- Keeping a distance
- Maintaining confidentiality (p.88).

A comprehensive model of interpreting competence has been developed by Kutz (2010). In his model, he lists sub-competences of interpreting as follows: Mother language competence, communication competence, foreign language competence, emotional competence, logic competence, translation competence, intercultural competence, and field competence (Kutz, 2010 cited in Okuyan et al., 2019).

Most recently, Martínez-Gómez (2020) proposed an interpreting competence model for curriculum design by combining elements from previous models on both translation and interpreting competences. This model consists of seven sub-competences, being bilingual, extralinguistic, knowledge of interpreting, instrumental, psycho-physiological, interpersonal, and strategic. The first two sub-competences are related to the knowledge of both native and foreign languages as well as general knowledge, subject-area knowledge, and intercultural knowledge. Knowledge of interpreting sub-competence refers to the knowledge of the definition, function, models, processes, and profession of interpreting. Instrumental sub-competence refers to the competent use of all the tools and equipment used during interpreting. Personality traits such as curiosity, self-confidence, and cognitive skills such as memory, and attention among others are categorized under the interpersonal sub-competence. Lastly, strategic sub-competence is defined as "procedural knowledge to execute the task of interpreting successfully" (Martínez-Gómez, 2020, p.306), which includes organization, planning, problem-solving, and self-monitoring among others.

In addition to these, Setton and Dawrant's (2016) Components Approach to interpreting competence and Albl-Mikasa's (2012) Interpreting Competence Model, both grounded upon professional and academic aspects of interpreting, offer a more comprehensive and structured outlook on the interpreting competence that should be acquired through academic interpreter training.

#### 3.1.2.1.1. Setton and Dawrant's Components Approach

Grounded on AIIC's teaching principles, which are based on apprenticeship-based training, and current interpreting market needs and realities, Setton and Dawrant (2016) put forth that the interpreting competence consists of four main competences, namely Language, Knowledge, Skills, and Professionalism. In this approach, all these competences should be integrated holistically to ensure the overall interpreting competence. 'Skills' refers to interpreting-related skill sets including technical skills such as note-taking, SI with text, and more personal skills such as curiosity, ability to prepare, prosody, concentration, and resistance (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p.95). The components of the remaining broad terms are defined as follows:

| Competence | Components |
|---|---|
| **Language** | readiness, lexical availability; implicit and explicit competence; selective activation; 'syntacrobatics'; 'bilingual phrasebook |
| **Knowledge** | world/encyclopaedic, specialized, relevant, local; what is 'technical'?; priming, activation |
| **Professionalism** | craft, moral and ethical, service/practical; competence, expertise |

Table 3.2: Language-Knowledge-Professionalism Components in LKSP*

*Adapted from Setton and Dawrant's (2016) "shared metalanguage for discussing interpreting" (p.42).

Among these competences, 'Language' and 'Knowledge' are the two components that can be enhanced while 'Skills' and 'Professionalism' are expected to be acquired through interpreter training. In this approach, a certain background of 'Language' and 'Knowledge' level is expected from interpreter students. Although it is encouraged to help students' language levels in interpreting classes, Setton and Dawrant (2016) point out that the lack of sufficient level of language proficiency and knowledge causes frustration and waste of efforts in training programs, and "skills training cannot even begin without solid language proficiency, and there is a limit to the amount of improvement that can be expected in the one or two years available" (p.215). To cope with these problems, it is also suggested to include language enhancement activities in the curricula based on the needs of students that vary by individual characteristics, regions, markets, and different language pairs. Despite such variations, language enhancement can be benefitted to enrich expression and improve the range and depth of comprehension (Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

In other cases, where the language proficiency of students may even equal of their trainers, Setton and Dawrant (2016) emphasize the absolute requirement of acquiring interpreting students with the knowledge, interpreting skills, and professionalism. Accordingly, interpreting students have a naturally limited knowledge of the world, and of relevant and specialized fields. This limitation, particularly in the early stages of training, hampers students' core interpreting skills such as anticipation and note-taking. Therefore, in the early stages, the interpreting strategies and tactics of students depend on their linguistic knowledge, which should be enhanced through extensive linguistic exercises including chunking and paraphrasing. To enhance students' Knowledge, as a sub-competence of interpreting competence, intensive reading and listening on current issues, systematic research and preparation on selected topics, and teaching key domain-specific modules by adopting the relevant knowledge to interpreters are recommended (Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

The acquisition of Skills in interpreter training "is overwhelmingly aimed at installing procedures that will generate appropriate autonomous responses to an ever-changing environment" (Setton & Dawrant, 2019, p.29). To this end, providing students with comprehensive feedback, lecturing and explaining process models and diagrams, practice demonstrations by the trainer, and hands-on practice that includes the trainer's immediate interruptions are implemented as the main methods in interpreting class. Through these methods, the main focal point of the training is a practice that is supported by detailed feedback, rather than expecting a transition from declarative to procedural knowledge. The incremental transition from explicit to implicit learning is ensured through materials that are selected carefully to scaffold the interpreting skills of students (Setton & Dawrant, 2019, p.74).

Professionalism competence includes the knowledge and skills required to apply professional ethics and norms, sustain relations with customers and employers, and obtain practical information about the interpreting market. The main purpose of acquiring students with this competence is to demonstrate "how competence, performance, working conditions, standards, ethics, and practice are all interdependent and intertwined" (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p. 339). To this end, by introducing interpreting history to students, codes of ethics, and professional standards, regarding confidentiality, interpreter's role, neutrality, fidelity, optimization, mediation, settings, and modes of interpreting, the importance of register and audience to students are exemplified as the Professionalism-related aspects of interpreter training. Visiting real interpreter-mediated settings, applying dumb-booth practices, and mentoring graduates are among the suggestions of Setton and Dawrant (2016). It is defined as the final competence which should follow the acquisition of high-level Language, Knowledge, and Skill competences.

#### 3.1.2.1.2. Albl-Mikasa's Interpreting Competence Model

In another systematic approach, Albl-Mikasa (2012), drawing upon Kalina's definition of interpreting as pre-,peri-, in- and post-process, offers a process-oriented model of interpreter competence. Albl-Mikasa (2012) additionally gives place to para-process skills in her model.

The model demonstrates skill components needed in different processes of interpreting. Pre-process skills include good command of two languages, computer-assisted terminology management, and general knowledge. Peri-process skills consist of interpersonal skills and personality traits such as teamwork and cooperative attitude, extrovertedness, professionalism, and resistance. In-process skills consist of skills required to complete three stages of interpreting; comprehension, transfer, and production. Para-process skills include professional know-how and ethics, life-long learning tendency, and meta-reflection on communicative goals. Knowledge of professional ethics and standards is categorized under para-process skills. In this model, diversely from the general approach to interpreting competence, post-process skills including the subskills of terminology wrap-up and quality control are also included. The following image demonstrates the components of this competence model more comprehensively:

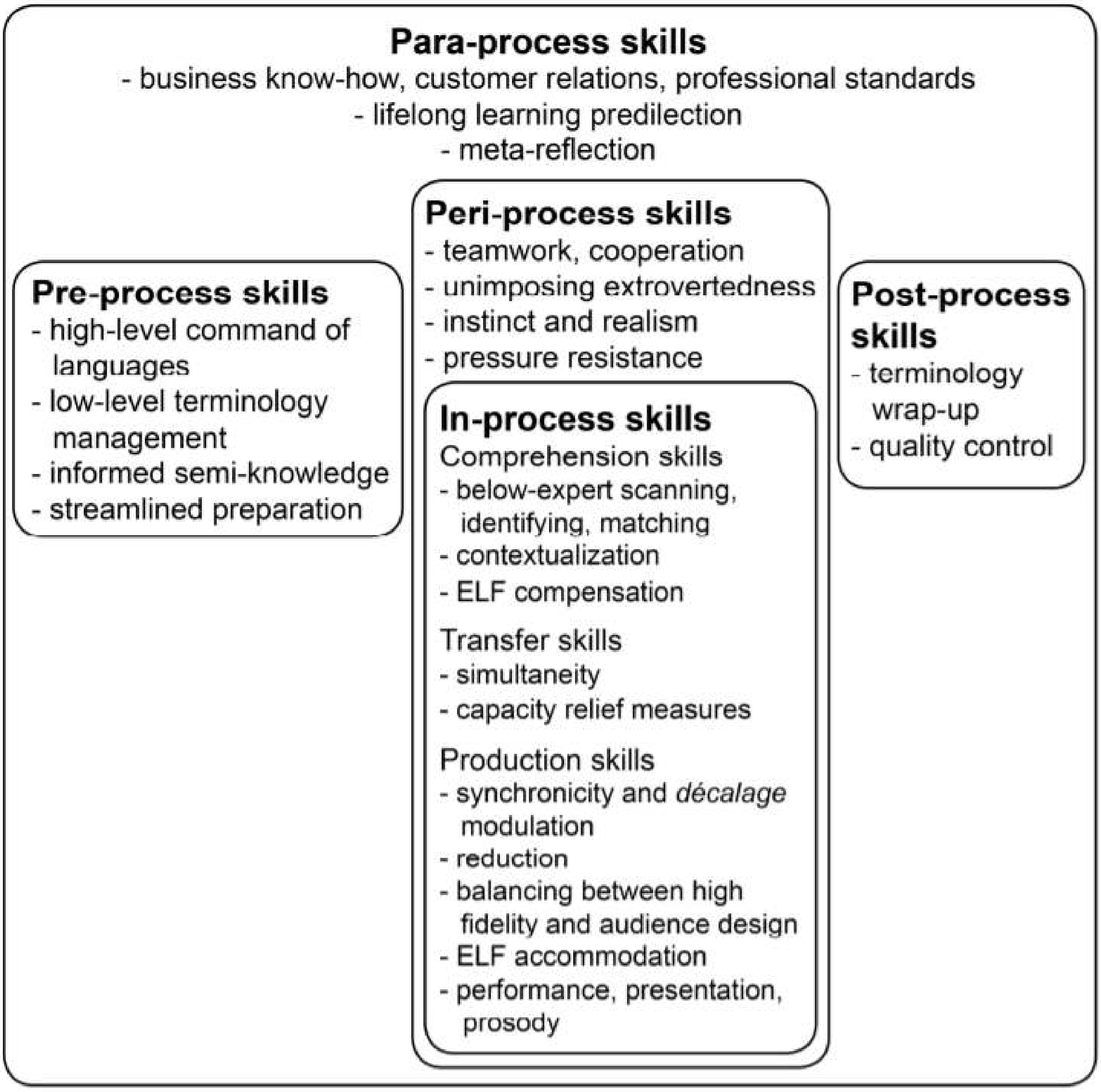



Figure 3.3: Interpreting Competence Model of Albl-Mikasa (2012, p.63).

**Pre-process skills:** This group refers to the fundamental skills, that can be deemed as a prerequisite for an interpreting task. However, these skills are not learned once and are kept for a lifetime. Instead, an interpreter should be striving to acquire, maintain and polish these skills constantly. For example, although high-level command of languages is considered the primary prerequisite for interpreters, Albl-Mikasa (2012) notes varying expectations of the interpreting market as regards proficiency level. The relatively low expectations of the private market and the increasing number of non-native speakers can pose a threat to the foreign language skills of interpreters and their improvement. Therefore, during their professional life, interpreters need to resort to various measures to improve and maintain their language competence. Similarly, terminology work is a must for every interpreting commission undertaken. However, conducting a terminology work by the use of technological tools such as terminology management and software has additional advantages to interpreters such as adding extra information to the terms, flexibility, and easy access to the glossary.

**Peri-process skills:** These skills are highly relevant to interpersonal skills. As a highly communicative action, interpreting initially requires openness to communication defined as 'unimposing extrovertedness', which can also be demonstrated through teamwork and cooperation skills. Considering the real-time nature of all different interpreting models as well as the working conditions that include sudden meetings and immediate public exposure, interpreters mostly work under pressure. To cope with this challenge that can impair the cognitive capacity of an interpreter resistance to pressure is an important asset. Professionalism between instinct and sense of realism sub-components refers to what Albl-Mikasa (2012) calls "intuitive competence" (p.72). These competences can help interpreters develop empathy with the speaker in order to read between the lines and anticipate the upcoming message. In doing so, an interpreter should also have a realistic sense of appraisal regarding her own interpreting performance, a professional attitude, particularly in moments of crisis, and self-confidence to cope with all.

**In-process skills:** These are directly related to three main interpreting stages namely comprehension, transfer, and production. In the first stage, comprehension can be affected by a good number of factors including the interpreter's subject knowledge which is generally below the speaker's expertise level; contextualization of the speaker and the subject matter; and the growing factor of English as lingua franca which refers to the high number of non-native English language speakers. Accordingly, despite being the initial step of an interpreting performance, comprehension can be impaired or improved at many different levels. As for the transfer stage, simultaneity characteristics of interpreting require acting ‘here and now’, and thus a high level of concentration and alertness of interpreters all the time. Similarly, to keep the focus high, it is important for interpreters to keep calm and apply various strategies to deal with exceeded cognitive capacity to this end. The final step of production also includes some sub-competences such as synchrony with the speaker, the use of a particular strategy of reduction, keeping a balance between fidelity to the speaker and the expectations of the audience, and adjusting language use to listeners, and prosodic skills.

**Post-process skills:** Two components of this group of skills are related to the improvement of the current interpreting performance for the next tasks. To this end, updating glossaries and terminologies at the end of a completed task and being open to criticism regarding the completed interpreting performance are deemed crucial.

**Para-process skills:** These are related to the entrepreneurial tasks undertaken by the interpreter aside from the interpreting proper. Accordingly, the knowledge of how to acquire a customer and how to keep good relations with him/her requires para-process skills including knowledge of professional standards and codes of ethics among others. Willingness to be a lifelong learner fueled by intellectual curiosity is also among the characteristics of an interpreter. Meta-reflection skills of interpreters are also vital as interpreters need to reflect on their own cognitive, linguistic and behavioral processes all the time.

In this model, Albl-Mikasa (2012) particularly emphasizes the individual and subjective ways professional interpreters develop regarding coping strategies, views, and perceptions on different competences elaborated above. Therefore, she posits that interpreting competence does not occur in isolation, yet it is closely associated with the personal requirements of interpreters (Albl-Mikasa, 2012). Although it can be challenging to apply the model to interpreting pedagogy due to this emphasis on individuality, Albl-Mikasa’s interpreting competence model offers a systematic structure regarding different phases based on the market experiences of professional interpreters.

With regards to the question of which competences should be acquired prior to the training and which ones can be acquired during training, Albl-Mikasa (2013) divides the timeline into three phases, namely general education phase, interpreter training phase, and professional on-the-job phase. Accordingly, language competence should be acquired at an excellent level prior to the interpreter training, and it can be later improved during interpreter training and on-the-job phases.

Interpreting competence, which includes knowledge of interpreting modes, strategies, fundamental strategies, and memory techniques among others, can be acquired through interpreter training. In the context of the chronology of skill acquisition, Albl-Mikasa (2013) defines interpreting competence as "special purpose content and terminological knowledge" (p.2). Business competence which refers to the professional and ethical aspects of interpreting can be acquired in the final phase, professional on-the-job competence.

In all different approaches and models to interpreting competence, there is a consensus on a good command of linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge that ensure comprehension and reproduction stages of interpreting; cognitive skills that are required to carry out any interpreting task such as memory, multitasking, attention-split, self-reflection; certain personality traits such as openness, adaptability, resilience, cooperation, curiosity among others, and knowledge of profession and ethics of interpreting which includes customer relations, organizational and planning skills as well as the use of necessary tools and equipment.

#### 3.1.2.2. Training practices

In line with the historical development of interpreter training, competence models, and approaches summarized above, interpreter training practices have evolved over time. In the early years of interpreter training which was based on the apprenticeship model, conference interpreter candidates used to "practice in and out of class on more or less real-life tasks, first in consecutive, then in simultaneous, receive feedback from their instructors, and undergo strict eliminatory exams at admission, midpoint and graduation" (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p.57) through intuitive and experience-based methods until the call for scientific data for interpreter training in the 1980s. This call led to a paradigm shift in training when the traditional training model was challenged for being unscientific and its holistic aptitude exams using authentic materials and testing expert interpreting skills prior to the training. Addressing the varying definitions of interpreting competence and requirements stipulated by different models and approaches, Kalina (2000) interrogates the training methodology of the apprenticeship model:

> Should they be trained – as in the past – by exposing them to a trial-and-error method, with abundant practicing but no systematic methodological guidance? Interpreting schools in search of interpreter trainers usually require candidates to work as professional interpreters, preferably with some years of experience, and they expect them, above all,

> to confront students with real life conditions. The literature on interpreting training agrees that authentic, real-life texts should be used in class…. However, what are real-life texts? In authentic interpreting situations, anything can happen. Therefore, professionals who teach should be expected to offer more than just the texts they may have had to interpret themselves (p.13).

Instead of the holistic training approach adopted in the standard training model, the part-task approach which is based on the division of a whole interpreting task into sub-tasks and acquisition of sub-skills started to be adopted. Embracing this approach, Lambert (1989) defines SI as "a complex human information processing activity composed of a series of interdependent skills" (p.265) and recommends the completion of the following 12 steps before starting SI activities:

1. listening and memory exercises,
2. shadowing,
3. shared attention (dual-task training),
4. paraphrasing,
5. abstracting,
6. closing,
7. sight translation,
8. sight interpretation (SI with text),
9. processing digits, proper names, technical words and acronyms,
10. ear-voice span exercises,
11. anticipation,
12. lateralization (left/right ear processing) (p.736)

To decide whether partial, task-based teaching or holistic and integrated activities are used during teaching, Setton and Dawrant (2016) suggest considering the automatic or non-automatic features of interpreting sub-skills are taken into consideration. Interpreting includes both automatic and non-automatic operations throughout the process. Non-automatic operations require attentional resources of the interpreter and consume the processing capacity which is already limited, while automatic operations do not take time to process and occur very fast (Gile, 2009a). Accordingly, automated and routine operations such as number conversion, word abbreviation, and some set phrases can be trained through "isolated task drills" (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p.66). A holistic approach is suggested for the practice of higher-level cognitive tasks such as "analysis, pattern recognition, schema retrieval, conceptualization, reformulation, conscious monitoring of own production and situation" through "full-task simulations" (pp.65, 68).

Shadowing, word-for-word repetition of the message heard, can be among the most frequent practices that can set an example for partial, task-based training. Shadowing exercises such as phonemic shadowing, phrase shadowing, adjusted lag shadowing, and semantic shadowing are commonly applied in interpreting classes to contribute to the cognitive processing capacity of students to automize some operations or as a preparatory exercise before SI (Esmerligil, 2012; Lambert, 1992; Setton & Dawrant, 2016; Doğan, 2003; De Groot, 2000). Among other preparatory practices, "attention-division exercises such as listening to a speech and counting backwards" (Gile, 2009a, p.186) are also applied in interpreting classes to increase cognitive capacity. Kalina (1992) includes exercises towards "discourse processing in adverse processing conditions" (such as sight translation with gradually increasing text segments demonstrated, answering a question while listening to the upcoming question at the same time); "anticipation tasks" such as applying cloze exercises while shadowing; and shadowing a text that contains "syntactical and morphological mistakes of varying seriousness" (pp.255-256) among preparatory exercises specifically for SI. In line with the skills progression, shadowing is followed by paraphrasing in the native language and then in B language in contemporary interpreting pedagogy as well (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). Partial tasks such as dual-tasking activities, shadowing, and CI without note-taking are still being applied commonly in interpreter training programs around the world (Setton & Dawrant, 2016).

Although the early apprenticeship model that was commonly applied in interpreter training has been replaced by a task- and skill-based approach, contemporary practices in today's interpreting pedagogy indicate that the master-apprenticeship model is still prevailing in instructor and student relations in class. Setton and Dawrant (2016) explain this through the role of the interpreter trainer:

> The trainer's role is to guide, facilitate and encourage the development of these competences in the student and their progressive integration in an all-round operational expertise. This relationship is necessarily one of apprenticeship, but it should also be a cooperative partnership that is rewarding and satisfactory for both sides (p.6).

Interpreters resort to various strategies, as another significant part of interpreter competence (Kalina, 2000), to overcome constraints and difficulties imposed by the nature of interpreting, *per se*. While experts rely on their background knowledge, lexical flexibility, and field experience, novices and interpreting students need to learn and effectively use these strategies to cope with specific problems during interpreting (e.g. for the use of anticipation strategy, see Riccardi, (1993)). Riccardi (1998) classifies interpreting strategies as skill-based and knowledge-based, where the former refers to the use of automatic responses (e.g. greeting phrases) and the latter refers to conscious processes (e.g. language comprehension). Regarding the preference for these strategies by experts and novices, Riccardi (1998) defines skill-based strategies as "the hallmarks of expertise" (p.175), reporting that students need to rely on more effortful knowledge-based strategies to cope with problems. For the acquisition of skills regarding the use of interpreting strategies and tactics, a task-based approach which targets specifically pre-determined purposes or problems is found effective (Riccardi, 1993; Gran, 1998).

Gile (2009a), on the other hand, divides strategies defined as "overall action plans" from coping tactics referring to "decisions made when encountering difficulties" (p.14). In line with these definitions, interpreters need to put certain coping tactics into use immediately when they encounter constraints during interpreting. He divides tactics into three main categories, naamely comprehension, preventive and reformulation tactics (Gile, 2009a) based on when they are used during the interpreting process. As a practical skill, coping tactics are taught through in-class practices and activities. Advocating teaching coping tactics through practices and by asking students to explain the reason why a certain tactic was preferred during interpreting, Gile (2009a) narrates the usual course flow on teaching coping tactics in an interpreting class as follows:

> Basically, they are taught within the framework of practical exercises. In most training programmes, this is done by trial and correction, with trial on the student's part and corrections from the instructor. Such corrections are generally prescriptive; instructors sometimes refer to the communication impact of the tactics in order to explain their preferences, but are not necessarily aware of other factors which influence them (p.191).

In this process- and practice-oriented approach, Setton, and Dawrant (2016) point out the importance of explicit instruction of these techniques to students who cannot be expected to apply them naturally. Therefore, Setton and Dawrant (2016) recommend demonstrating new strategies/tactics to students, letting them try these through practice, giving detailed feedback, and encouraging students to do self-correction before moving on to more difficult material. For strategy training, Li (2015) recommends integrating main interpreting exercises into strategy training as presented in the table below (p.187):

| Exercise | Strategies to be taught |
|---|---|
| Oral clozing | Inference, resorting to world knowledge, personal association, personal involvement, etc. |
| Paraphrasing | Restructuring, changing order, syntactic transformation, addition, neutralization, etc. |
| Shadowing | Ear-voice span regulation, waiting, repetition, etc. |
| Retelling | Use of prosodic elements, monitoring, repair, no repair, visualization, etc. |
| Summarizing | Compression, omission, etc. |
| Sight translation and timed sight translation | Chunking, anticipation, transfer, substitution, approximation, transcoding, adaptation, reproduction, etc. |

Table 3.3: Exercises and interpreting strategies to be taught

In this process, the trainer assumes a facilitator role in selecting appropriate materials considering students' progression, and in eliciting problems of students' interpreting, and providing feedback accordingly (Li, 2015). Thus, strategy-use skills of students should be scaffolded through practices, the difficulty level of which increase incrementally. In this way, the automated use of strategies, which is the main goal of teaching strategies can be achieved.

#### 3.1.2.3. Assessment and evaluation practices

In interpreting pedagogy, assessment and evaluation can be either towards product or process through quality or performance evaluation, respectively. While performance evaluation aims to test the acquisition of specific skills that are needed to complete an interpreting task successfully, quality evaluation addresses interpreting as a product (Sawyer, 2004), from various aspects such as accuracy, prosody, language quality, and so on. Even in different assessment and evaluation methods, the main concepts of interpreter training "such as accuracy, clarity or fidelity are invariably deemed essential" (Pöchhacker, 2001). However, considering different purposes of assessment in interpreting from different perspectives, and varying criteria sought accordingly, scoring and evaluating quality in interpreting can be deemed highly subjective. In the context of interpreter training, assessments during exams are also perceived as subjective by evaluators in consideration of the artificial testing conditions (Kalina, 2005).

Pöchhacker (2001) puts forth two main edges of quality assessment, being service- and product-oriented based on whether the interpreter's task is conceived as "text processing" or "facilitating communicative action" (p.413). Accordingly, accurate rendition of an interpreting text is the main standard for quality assessment in the perception of interpreting as a text-production activity while achieving communicative interaction is prioritized in a service-oriented approach.

Pointing out the differences between training and profession, Gile (2001) calls for a more process-oriented approach in the early stages of the training in order to guide students' learning process, and then a shift to the product-oriented assessment, which is closer to the interpreting quality assessment in the field, as students progress. Gile (2001) suggests that one of the key differences between product- and process-oriented assessment in interpreting pedagogy is that the latter does not attach much importance to the type of errors in rendition unless these errors help the trainer diagnose certain interpreting processes. For instance, a student's misinterpretation stemming from the high density of the speech is evaluated as the fact that the student has reached his cognitive saturation by the trainer while such a misinterpretation of a message would be unacceptable in a product-quality assessment.

In this division of assessment purposes, Kutz (1997) emphasizes the intention behind interpreting assessment depending on the evaluator, who can be a client, researcher, or trainer. In his evaluation scheme, Kutz (2005) offers well-described assessment criteria for the evaluation of students' renditions. In another evaluation scheme, Riccardi (2001) categorizes her quality assessment under micro- and macro-criteria. In this scheme, micro-criteria, which consist of equivalence, precision, and adequacy, evaluates an interpreting performance in professional settings. For educational settings, on the other hand, micro-criteria which include pronunciation, omissions, and solutions to problems among others are used. In her model, as an example of process-oriented assessment, micro-criteria can be scored for a feedback sheet (Riccardi, 2001).

In another classification, assessment can be divided into three main categories based on the objectives. These are summative, formative, and ipsative assessments. Summative assessment refers to in-course feedback procedures while formative assessment is conducted at the end of a semester or the final exam of a course. Ipsative assessment refers to the self-assessment of a student based on his/her previous performance (Sawyer, 2004). Based on Bachman's research on language testing, Sawyer (2004) defines interpreter tests as "indirect, incomplete, imprecise, subjective and relative" (p.120) stemming from the natural limitations inherent in testing language performance. To overcome these limitations, Sawyer (2004) recommends the use of multiple assessment methods for different purposes. Among various assessment methods, Sawyer (2004) particularly sheds light on the use of portfolio, which "combines ipsative, formative, and summative forms of assessment and represents both process and product" (p.126). Components of a well-structured and comprehensive portfolio to be prepared by interpreting students throughout a course are listed as a statement of students' personal goals, voice records of students practicing, trainer's comments, glossaries, self-assessment, and peer-review reports among others (Sawyer, 2004), which apparently is not limited to a random collection of student homework or in-class studies. The use of a portfolio as an assessment method in interpreting class is advised for encompassing multiple assessment methods, enabling trainers to both monitor the learning process and assess the product quality, and encouraging reflective practice albeit its main drawback which is costing a substantial amount of time of trainer.

Being one of, if not the most common, summative assessment methods in interpreter training, trainer feedback is also an essential component of skill acquisition, language enhancement, and monitoring tasks and learning process in interpreting classes. The constructive feedback from the instructor is undoubtedly among the main tenets of interpreter training since "students learning a new skill will often expect more direct, even 'intrusive' correction and guidance" (Setton& Dawrant, 2016, p.28). However, the constant dependence of students on the instructor's approval or correction assumably hampers a fruitful learning environment and instead creates "a didactic performance by a teacher" in the words of Kiraly (1997, p.152). In this traditional method, interpreting performance of a student turns into a product to be assessed, mostly, based on the errors. However, the training offered to prospective interpreters comprises a long process through which multiple and versatile interpreting skills along with domain-specific knowledge should be acquired. Focusing weightily on the products of student interpreters may mean leaving the process-oriented approach behind and receiving negative feedback can be perceived as an error-hunting by students. Providing feedback based on the errors of the students also hampers confidence building (Kiraly, 1995). Besides, generic feedback, which does not demonstrate possible reasons for the problems detected and does not offer guidance about how to overcome these problems, cannot possibly help students to find ways to master their interpreting skills. As eliciting the problematic or inaccurate part of the task does not go beyond error-hunting, constructive feedback is needed to address the underlying causes of possible problems related to linguistic issues, extralinguistic knowledge, memory, prosody, and so on. Setton and Dawrant (2016) recommend "the right combination and sequence must be found to lead the student to an autonomous, implicit (procedural) mastery of the process" (p.13) rather than fixing the issues on behalf of the student. Thus, "for students to reflect on their own performance they need continuous feedback" (Moser-Mercer, 2008, p.18).

Feedback is also a significant part of "deliberate practice" concept of Ericsson (2000) regarding expertise development. Deliberate practices are specifically structured and designed for a purpose, such as "to improve specific aspects of performance in a way that improvements can be successfully integrated into reproducible expert performance" (Moser-Mercer et al., 2005). Accordingly, deliberate practice should target weak points by integrating more repetition and coaching into the learning process, which is unlike any random practice (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). In deliberate practices, students are provided with comprehensive feedback and asked to repeat the same task immediately following the feedback. However, the repetition at this point aims to ensure learning through reflection rather than routinizing certain skills. In this way, the student who is engaged in the given task can put the recommendations into use by monitoring their own performance (Moser-Mercer, 2008; Motta, 2016). Hence, the development of meta-cognitive skills is among the key outcomes of deliberate practices. In this sense, the feedback procedure in an interpreting class ideally involves not only trainer feedback, but also trainer guidance and active participation of students in self-assessment and peer assessment.

Another significant component in interpreter assessment and evaluation is aptitude testing applied for admission to conference interpreting programs or conference interpreting courses in the enrolled program. An aptitude exam tests "linguistic, cognitive and communicative prerequisites of conference interpreter training" (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p.130). Against the idea that interpreters are 'not made but born', aptitude testing is applied to detect interpreter candidates who possess the ability to learn interpreting skills through training. The selection of students to be trained for interpreting has been motivated by limited practice time and financial considerations (Timarová & Salaets, 2011), and thus has been applied on a scientific ground since the 1980s (Pöchhacker & Liu, 2014). The questions on which pre-existing knowledge and skills of candidates are tested and how they are tested may differ by each academic institution depending on the training expectations and by different periods having varying educational approaches. Therefore, it is suggested that "standardized tests have hardly ever been used in the testing and selection of conference interpreters" (Moser-Mercer, 1994, p.65). Still, the core elements of aptitude testing are prevailing. Aptitude tests commonly include interviews, consecutive interpreting, sight translation, paraphrasing exercises, and cloze-tests (Russo, 2011).

#### 3.1.2.4. Transferable skills

Globalization and the ever-increasing advancement of technology bring along swift changes to the way we conduct business, learn, produce, consume and live, as does the way we solve problems in daily life and business. A 21st-century individual is now expected to have *savoir-être* and *savoir-faire* along with savoirs. Wagner (2010) lists these skills and attitudes needed to overcome today's fast-changing challenges and calls them survival skills:

- critical thinking and problem-solving;
- collaboration across networks and leading by influence;
- agility and adaptability;
- initiative and entrepreneurialism;
- effective oral and written communication;
- accessing and analyzing information;
- curiosity and imagination.

Being another common term used to define such skills, transferable skills refer to "generic capabilities which allow people to succeed in a wide range of different tasks and jobs" (Training Agency, 1990, p.5). As the name suggests, the essence is to acquire such skills that would be useful not only in one business or context but can be utilized in different areas of work life and adopted into different contexts. Terms of transferable skills, generic skills, and cross-curricular skills are used interchangeably despite slight differences between these terms. For instance, cross-curricular skills refer to cognitive domains while transferable skills are more about social domains. Generic skills are listed as "interpersonal relations ('interpersonal skills'), written and oral communications, problem-solving, analytical thinking, teamwork; and often self-organisation, information management, flexibility and responsiveness, the capacity to take initiatives, sometimes critical thinking" as well as " collecting, analysing and organising ideas and information; expressing ideas and information; planning and organising activities; working with others and in teams; using mathematical ideas and techniques; solving problems; using technology" (Marginson, 1994, p.8). While generic skills are widely used to define work-related skills and context-free skills that are transferable between different domains, transferable skills are used to emphasize the context-free transferability of the competences (Marginson, 1994). On the other hand, they all refer to a common set of skills, which can be applied "across different cognitive domains or subject areas" and "across a variety of social and in particular employment, situations" (Bridges, 1993, p.45). It is the overall ability to adjust and apply skills in different social contexts. Skills in interpersonal communication, management skills, and collaborative group skills (Bridges, 1993, p. 45) are a few examples. Bridges (1993) further interprets these skills as competences rather than skills, since the latter refers to "something relatively routinisable, low in cognitive content, something typically learned through rehearsal" while transferable skills "rest upon considerable and sophisticated knowledge understanding, sensitivity" (p.43-44).

The rapid change of contexts in industrial, academic, and professional life where the acquired knowledge and skills can be employed is emphasized along with the significance of transferable skills. While our knowledge is context-bound, the skills that are needed in different aspects of life are context-free. Marginson (1994) turns this perspective into a motto claiming "generic skill is power" by replacing "knowledge is power" (p.8). Despite criticism towards the concept of transferring skills that are specific to one social or cognitive context into a different one, Bridges (1993) suggests narrowing different categories into one, such as considering history and anthropology into one big category of science.

Marginson (1994) offers three interacting methods to improve the transferability of skills. One of these, providing cooperative education programs during university education, can be applied by universities at the institutional level. The second one is "placing greater emphasis on certain educational experiences which can facilitate work behaviors: oral skills, teamwork, training in job search and workplace interaction", and the third one, is "to work directly on the acquisition of certain attributes which are strategic to the process of transfer itself" which include "confidence and the capacity to be proactive in new and familiar situations, learning how to learn, flexibility, adaptability" and critical thinking among others (p.22). The capability of knowing and learning how to handle complexity and multiplicity is among the key transferability skill.

Transferability may occur in two ways. In low-road transfer, common stimuli in two different contexts are close to each other enough to trigger semi-automatic responses to the new context. Repetitive practices can ensure giving semi-automatic responses to the common stimuli which have been experienced in a different context before. This reflexive process leaves little room for deliberate thinking and planning. In high-road transfer, on the other hand, abstract generalizations made for one context need to be applied to the new context. This requires deliberate and mindful thinking and effort (Salomon & Perkins, 1987, 1989). In this respect, Salomon and Perkins (1992) suggest that planning and conducting real-life tasks with students rather than telling them how to achieve a task can ensure high-road transfer. Likewise, encouraging students to make abstractions, search for possible connections, mindfulness, and metacognition by asking them to reflect upon certain experiences would emphasize deliberate abstract analysis and planning, which eventually leads to high road transfer (Salomon & Perkins, 1992, p.8).

The repetitive interpreting practices which are similar to real interpreting work and the goal of reaching a certain level of automation in interpreting classes may help students acquire low-road transfer skills. In this case, the educational context of these practices is similar to the professional context of interpreting in terms of the task undertaken. Such routinized practices encountered in educational settings trigger stimulus conditions in the workplace. On the other hand, in keeping with the views of Perkins & Salomon (1992) and Marginson (1994), interpreting courses can be enriched with complex and unroutinized practices which would ensure an environment where students can reflect on their and peers' performances, learn how to be flexible and adapt their skills to different problems, take part in teamwork. In this way, moving from low road transfer, students can learn how to put deliberate effort into the transfer of their linguistic and interpreting skills into different social and professional spheres. The possible shift to this end in interpreting pedagogy is summarized by Orlando (2016) as follows:

> In this regard, it is important to note that, in recent years, a new discourse in tertiary educational studies and curricula renewal has developed: it concerns transferable skills, which are seen as preparing the student to be mobile and adaptable between various jobs, whereas traditional vocational skills equip the student for a more specific job. It is often this new set of transferable skills that academics are in charge of in T&I training in the university context, a function which legitimises further the need for their presence in the training process (p.52).

Unlike the knowledge transfer prioritized in educational institutions, modern businesses pay great attention to soft skills. In a study conducted by Okuyan (2019) on the interpreting market in Turkey, the results demonstrate that the main needs of the sector are valuable. According to the data collected from 34 interpreting enterprises, 19% of the enterprises prioritized having "experience of interpreting" as the most important expectation from interpreters followed by "having professional ethic and consciousness" (16%) and "having field expertise" (16%). In this study, enterprises reported the biggest strength of their interpreters as "being able to research terminology and field expertise" (%17) (pp.126-128). It is noteworthy that soft skills such as researching, professional ethics, and consciousness are mentioned by employers as much as knowledge or qualifications such as core interpreting competences. In a similar vein, another study conducted by Schnell and Rodríguez (2017) in the context of Spanish translation and interpreting market reports that the majority (above 60%) of the employer participants of the study believe that major generic skills such as time "management, planning and organizational skills, the ability to work in a team, concern for quality and self-evaluation capacity" should be developed within the study program (p.177).

The new expectations and demands of the T&I market reiterate the need for teaching transferable skills such as communication, cooperation, adaptability, teamwork, organization, leadership, and technology literacy at universities, which is also suggested by Way (2008) and Orlando (2016) to prepare students to be mobile and adaptable between various jobs as well as to succeed in social and professional life. One of the most recent studies that underpin the importance of transferable skills in T&I training was published by Hao and Pym (2022). In this research, only one-third of the Master's graduates were found to be employed as translators or interpreters while around half of the graduates work in jobs that require multilingual communication skills; thus it is suggested to recontextualize T&I curricula by giving more weight to transferable skills (Hao & Pym, 2022).

### 3.2. Data Collection

In this section, two main data collection methods of the study, namely interviews and observation are elaborated. Information regarding the participants interviewed and observed is also provided under related sub-sections below.

### 3.2.1. Interview & participants

Interviews provide valuable tools to gather insight into the experiences of the others narrated from their points of view. They offer "privileged access to people's basic experience of the lived world" (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015, p. 32) and "privileged access to a person's thoughts and opinions about a particular subject, which are difficult to access through direct observation of behaviour" (Saldanha, 2014, p. 169). The use of interviews as a data collection method in this thesis has a twofold purpose. First, it aims to enable participants to describe their methods, mode of teaching, evaluation criteria, in-class activities, homework, etc. in their interpreting courses. Secondly, it aims to unfold their beliefs, attitudes, and approaches to the teaching process. In this sense, the interview questions also target at revealing the opinions of the trainers about learning and teaching in general, roles assigned to students and instructors, common problems encountered in class, and their specific methods to overcome them along with the main method of the course.

A semi-structured interview was used for data collection purposes. To ensure the appropriateness and comprehensibility of the questions, the interview was tested on two professional interpreters who have previously taught interpreting courses at the undergraduate level. Opinions of two experts; one professional interpreter who is experienced in interpreter training and one professor in the field of educational sciences, were taken to ensure content validity.

The interview consists of three main parts. The first part includes 10 close-ended questions regarding the demographic information (age, gender, years of experience, academic titles, courses given, etc.) of the participants. The second part includes six close-ended questions aiming to reveal the most commonly applied techniques in courses and the interpreting competences targeted by trainers (including the main course content, mode of materials, and preferred subject area). The third part of the interview includes eight loosely structured and open-ended questions to obtain in-depth views of trainers on education, the role of students and instructors, the profession, the future of the profession, the learning and teaching environment, problems encountered in classes, and their methods to overcome these problems, and detailed description of a usual flow of course among others. The follow-up questions and probes were used where needed to keep the respondent back on track and to get more detailed answers. At the end of the interview, further comments were also asked.

The main questions and probes used during the interviews are listed as follows:

**1-** How can you describe ‘effective training’?

**2-** Do you think interpreting skills can be taught?

*Probe1: How do you describe your role?*

*Probe 2: How do you describe students’ roles?*

**3-** Can you describe the most common course flow in one of your courses?

*Probe 1: Do they practice this individually, in pairs, or as a group?*

*Probe 2: Can you give an example of those activities/group works?*

**4-** What is the most common difficulty you encounter in class?

*Probe 1: Why do you think such a problem occurs?*

*Probe 2: Have you done anything to overcome that problem?*

**5-** How do you evaluate students for in-class feedback and exams?

*Probe 1: Do you follow any rubric?*

*Probe 2: What are your main criteria?*

**6-** How do you choose subject areas to practice?

*Probe 1: Are students involved?*

**7-** What are your opinions about the future of the profession?

*Probe 1: Do you think different skill sets are going to be needed for students?*

**8-** Do you think the current training is sufficient now?

*Probe 1: What sort of changes would you recommend?*

In the beginning, it was not planned to ask all of the questions above. Participants were allowed to guide the interview as of the first question. However, most participants started to elucidate their thoughts on their course content, material selection processes, evaluation methods, and mostly encountered problems even before they were asked. As the number of participants who spared quite a time to share their thoughts on foreign language command of students and the need for master’s level training for interpreting increased throughout the interview, 3 new questions emerged. The following 3 questions were added to the question pool in line with the development of discussions with the interviewees.

**9-** Do you pay special attention to the foreign language use of students?

*Probe 1: Do you fix language-related errors?*

**10-** Do you think master’s level interpreter training is needed?

**11-** Do you think your interpreting course aims to train future interpreters in the interpreting sector?

*Probe 1: How many of your graduate students work as interpreters?*

Due to geographical distance and social distance limitations imposed by the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, respondents could not be reached physically. Instead, individual online interviews were conducted through Zoom, a videoconference platform. Before starting the interviews, the participants were informed that the meeting would be recorded and kept for research purposes. All participants signed a consent form before the interviews.

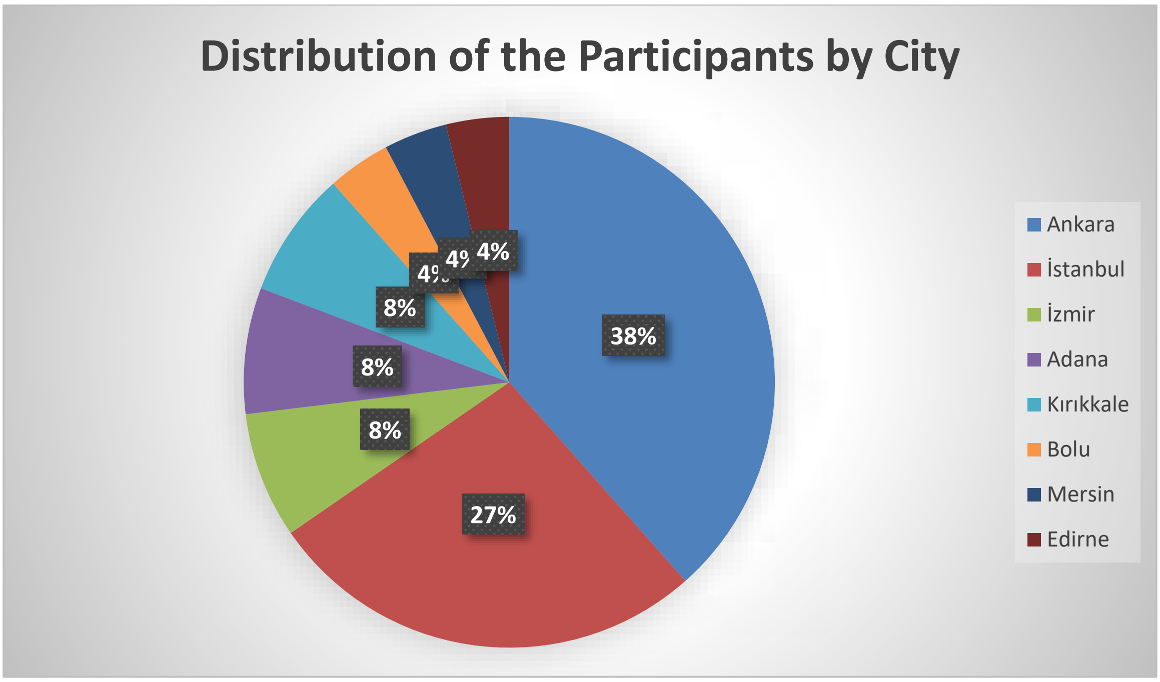
The target population of the study is interpreter trainers at the undergraduate level in Turkey. According to the Handbook of Higher Education Programs and Quotas issued by ÖSYM (Assessment Selection and Placement Center) in 2019, there are more than 60 undergraduate Translation and Interpreting programs in language pairs between Turkish and English/French/English-French/German/Arabic/Russian/Chinese/Persian/Bulgarian at universities in the boundaries of Turkey.

The participants of the study are selected through the purposive sampling method. The criteria to be an interview respondent in the study are listed as follows;

- to be a professional conference interpreter or a full-time/part-time academic staff,
- to be actively giving an interpreting course at the undergraduate level in Turkey or to have given such a course in the last 3 years,
- to give consent to participate in the study.

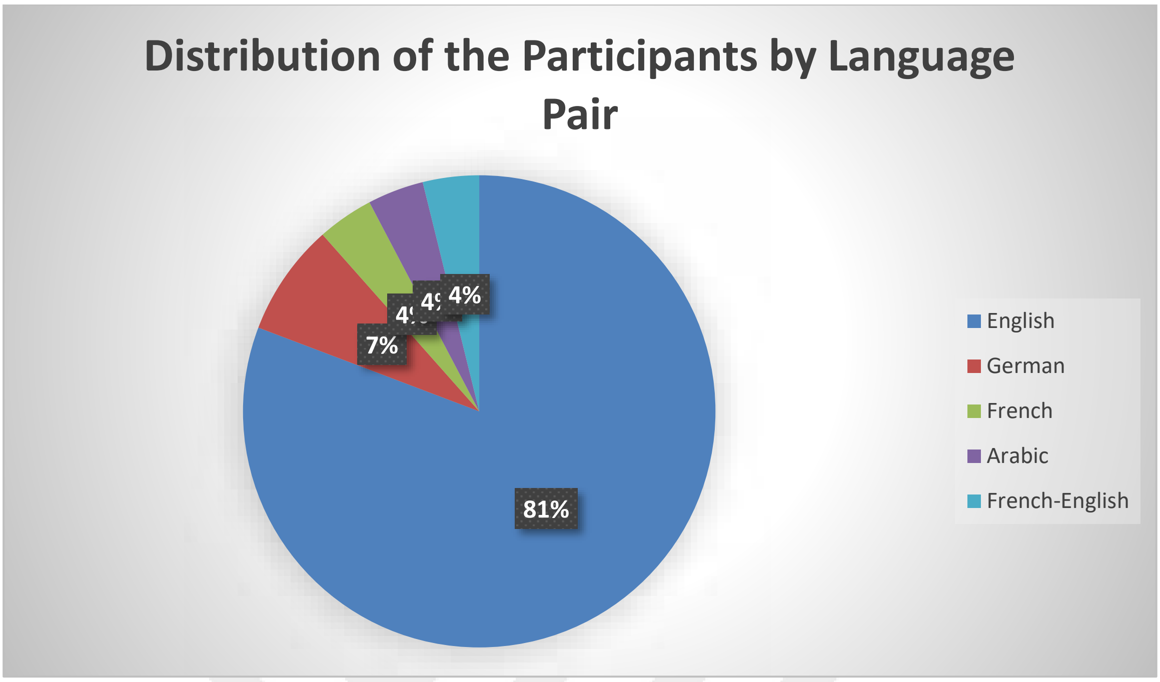
Webpages of all Translation and Interpreting departments were investigated to reach the e-mail addresses of the trainers who teach interpreting courses. Invitation emails explaining the aim, method, and participation criteria of the study were sent to 116 trainers from 38 Translation and Interpreting departments. Besides, the snowball technique was used to invite 3 professional interpreters who have given courses in the last 3 years but are not currently affiliated with universities. Nine of the invited instructors responded to the e-mail by stating not being able to meet the participation criteria due to the limitations such as the lack of students and/or of interpreting-related courses in these departments. Besides, interviews could not be conducted with 5 instructors who were willing to take part in the study since a common meeting time could not be arranged between them and the researcher. Finally, a total of 26 respondents took part in the interviews. As the participants of the study include instructors in Turkish-French, Turkish-German, and Turkish-Arabic language pairs in addition to Turkish-English, the interview questions were prepared in Turkish, which is the native language of all participants and the language of habitual use for all. The average duration of interviews was 41 minutes.

The following graphs present the distribution of the participants by age, academic title, the city where their working university takes place, language pair, and professional interpreting experience.



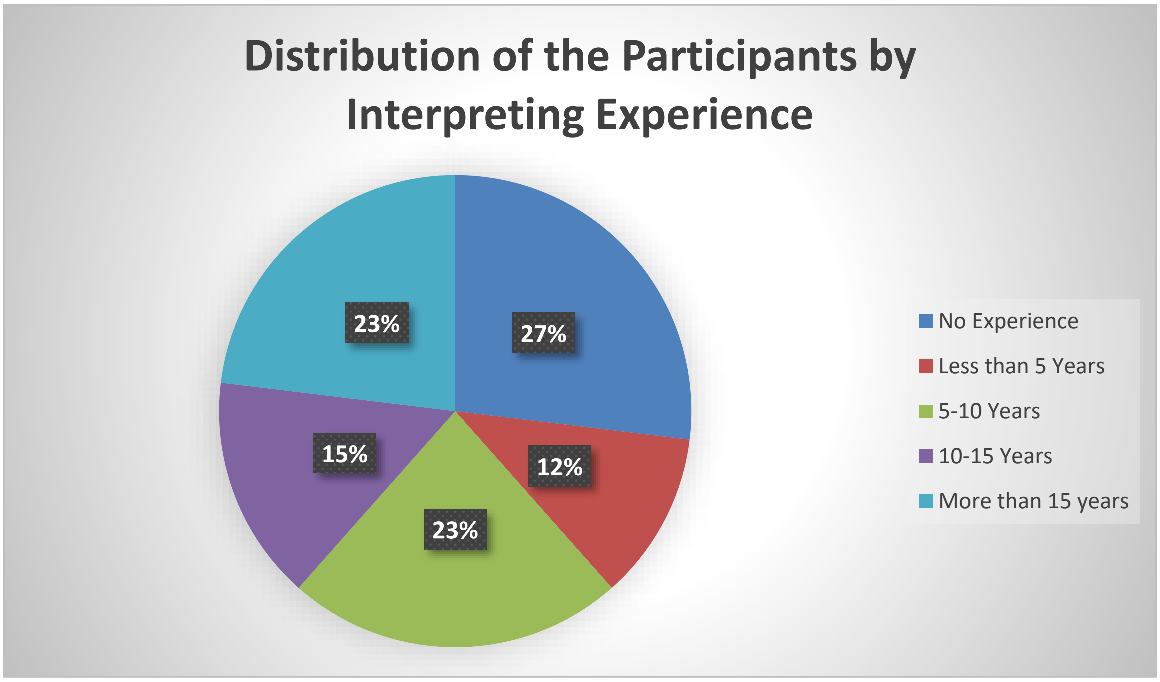

Graph 3.1: Distribution of the Participants by City

As presented above, most (38%) of the participants (10) were working at the universities located in Ankara, followed by 27% (7) in İstanbul, 8% (2) in İzmir, 8% (2) in Adana, 8% (2) in Kırıkkale, 4% (1) in Bolu, and 4% (1) in Mersin and 4% (1) in Edirne.



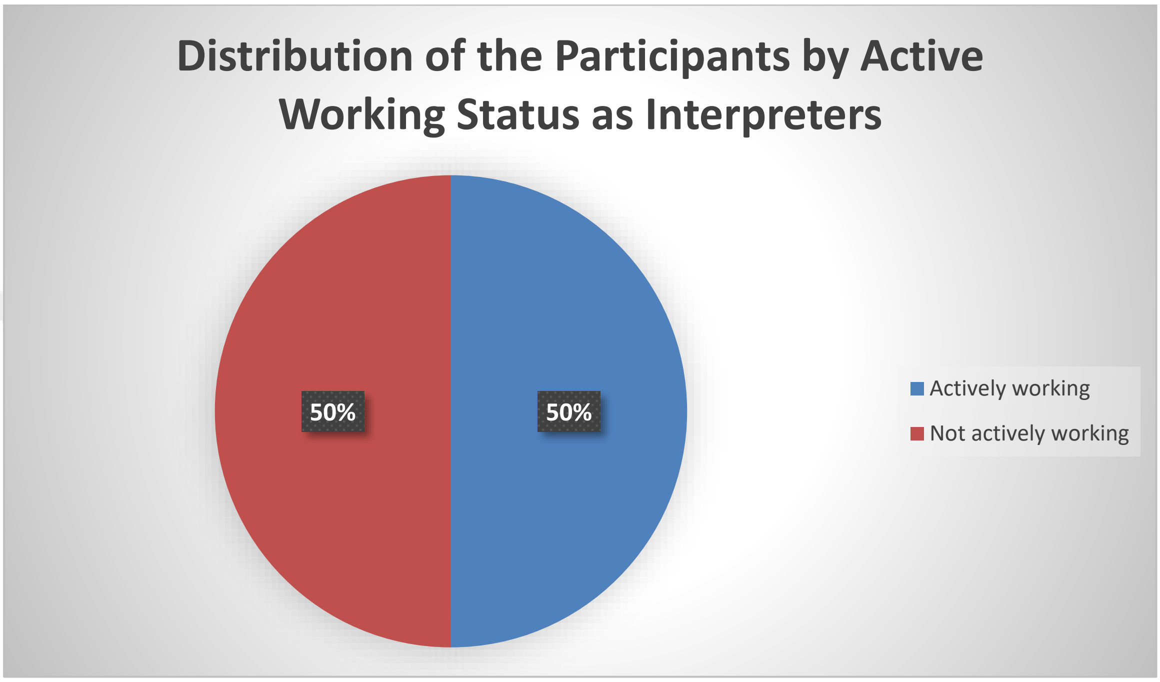

Graph 3.2: Distribution of the Participants by Language Pair

Most (81%) of the participants (21) were working in Turkish-English language pair, followed by 7% (2) in Turkish-German, 4% (1) in Turkish-French, 4% (1) in Arabic and 4% (1) in both Turkish-English and Turkish-French language pairs.



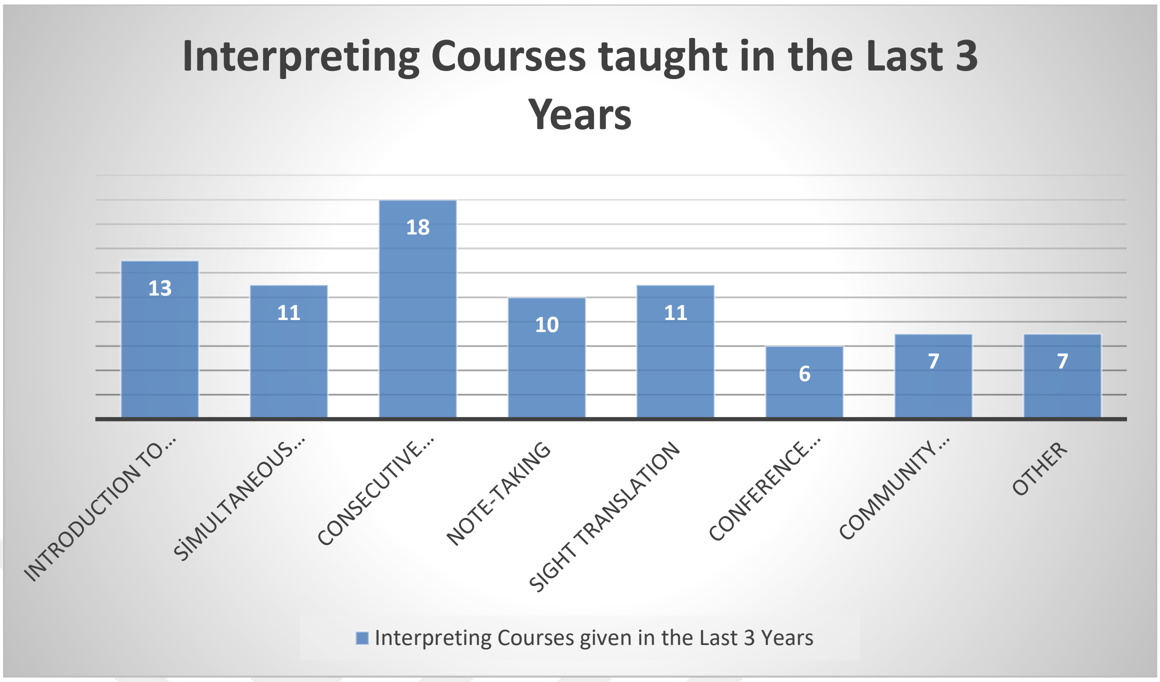

Graph 3.3: Distribution of the Participants by Interpreting Experience

27% of the participants (7) reported not having any professional interpreting experience while 12% (3) had less than 5 years, 23% (6) had 5-10 years, 15%(4) had 10-15 years and 23% (6) had more than 15 years of experience.



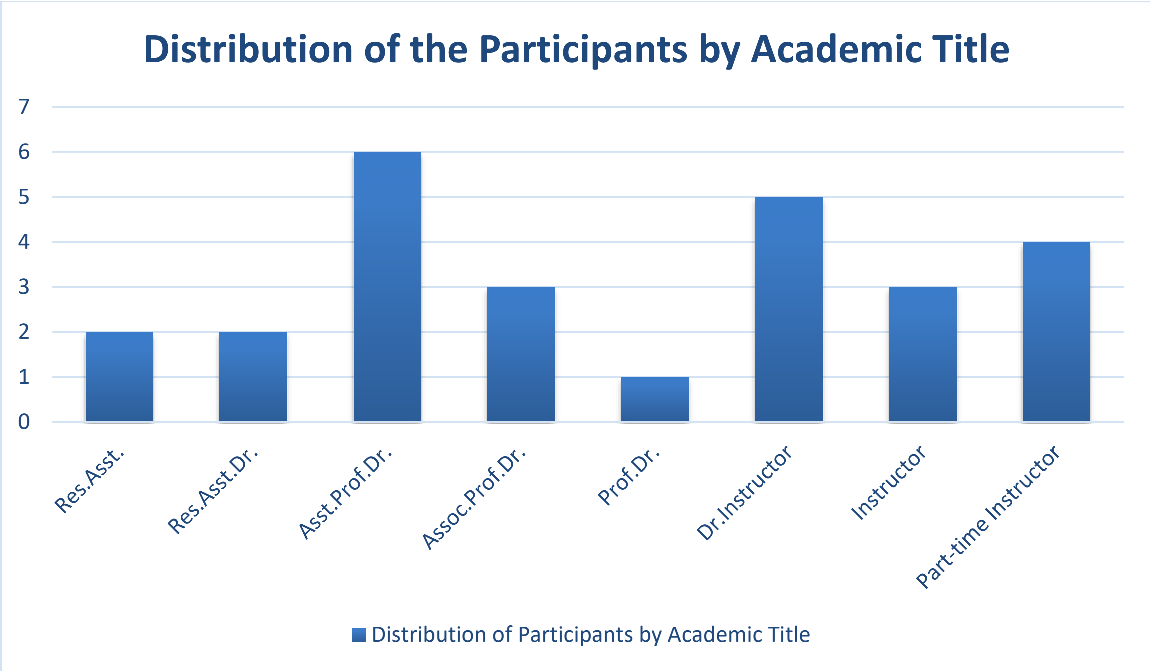

Graph 3.4: Distribution of the Participants by Active Working Status as Interpreters

Of all the participants, 50% (13) reported being actively working as professional interpreters while the other half is not actively working.



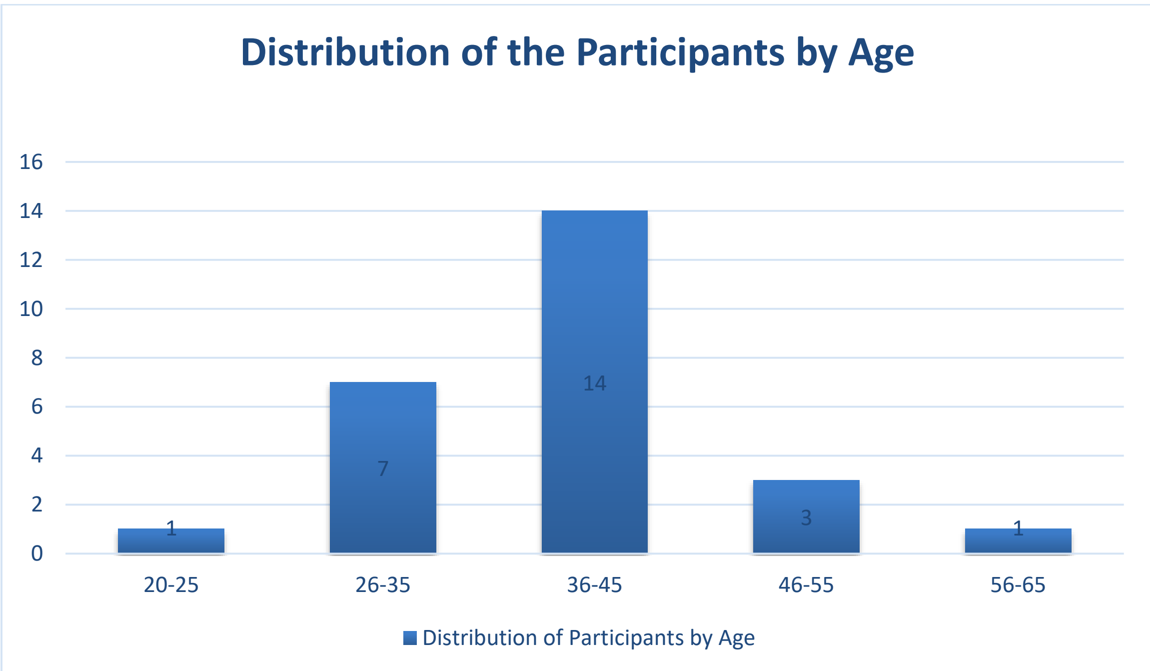

Graph 3.5: Interpreting Courses Taught by the Participants in the Last 3 Years

Interpreting-related courses given by the participants in the last 3 years are listed as consecutive interpreting (specified by 18 participants), introduction to interpreting (13), simultaneous interpreting (11), sight translation (11), note-taking (10), community interpreting (7) and conference interpreting (6). The Other option consists of field-specific courses such as Interpreting in Healthcare, Special Topics in Conference Interpreting, and Terminology Studies in Interpreting specified by 7 different participants.



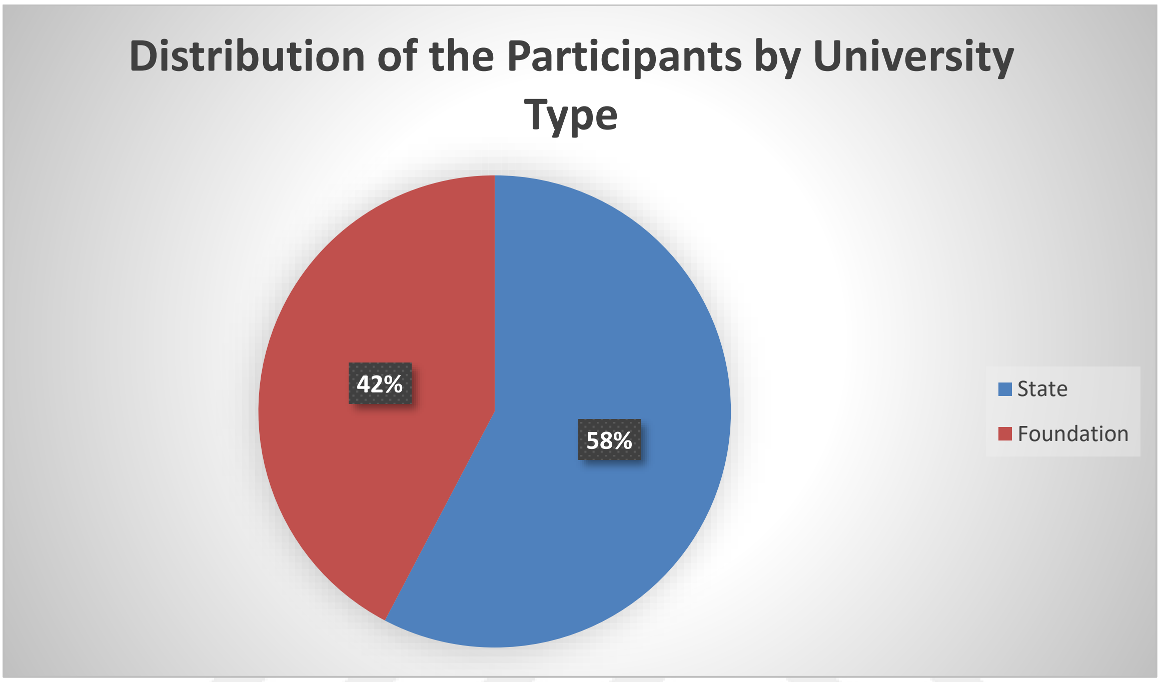

Graph 3.6: Distribution of the Participants by Academic Title

As for academic titles of the participants, 8% were research assistant (2), 8% were research assistant doctor (2), 19% were doctor instructor (5), 12% were instructor (3), 23% were assistant professor (6), 11% associate professor (3) and 4% professor (1).




Graph 3.7: Distribution of the Participants by Age

Of all the participants, 14 were in the age range of 36-45; 7 in 26-35; 3 in 46-55; 1 in 20-25 and 1 in 56-65 years.




Graph 3.8: Distribution of the Participants by University Type

As presented above, 58% of the participants (15) teach at state universities while 42% (11) at foundation universities.

Although the majority of the participants (81%) teach interpreting courses in Turkish-English language pairs, the inclusion of Turkish -French, -German, and -Arabic language pairs and the diverse profiles of the interviewees in terms of age, academic title, city, university type, and professional interpreting experience reflect the diversity of the undergraduate interpreter training in Turkey. In this respect, the data is believed to provide useful and multifaceted insights on interpreter trainers' pedagogical stance along with course contents, activities, evaluation criteria, common problems, and solutions regarding the interpreting courses.

### 3.2.2. Observation & participants

To ensure the data triangulation, another qualitative method, participant observation was used as another data collection tool. As suggested by Saldanha and O'Brien (2014), "when two methods are used to collect and analyze data on the same research question, this is called triangulation, which means cross-checking the results one set of data provides with results from another set of data" (p.23). The use of two different methods is also in line with Pöchhacker's (2004) summary on data collection tools in interpreting studies, which is “watch, ask and record” (p.64). Despite the strength of the interview method in discovering the thoughts of participants, interviews are still limited to the statements of the participants who “say they believe or do, not into what they actually think or do” (Edley & Litoseeliti, 2010, p. 173). To examine the parallel between the interview statements and in-class actions of the trainers, courses delivered by 3 interpreter trainers were observed.

Saldanha and O’Brien (2014) highlight the efficiency of observation as a data collection method as this method “can give us unrestricted access to what people do as opposed to what they say they do, or what we infer they do from analyzing the products of their work” (p.221). In this regard, the statements of the participants given throughout the interviews were complemented by the actions and behaviors exhibited in class through the observation method.

To this end, interpreting courses that were delivered online and recorded between October 2020 and December 2020 due to the pandemic conditions were obtained and watched. The participants of the observation were among the trainers who previously took part in the interviews. Four different online interpreting courses, namely Note-Taking, Introduction to Interpreting, Consecutive Interpreting, and Simultaneous Interpreting, were observed by the researcher. Three hours of each course were observed. Required permissions were taken to randomly select and use the videos submitted. In this sense, the covert and detached observation method was used since neither the students nor the trainers knew that they would be observed for research purposes and the researcher did not actively take part in the courses in real-time. Therefore, the Hawthorne effect of the observation method was prevented as the participants could not change their behaviors in the presence of the observer.

On the other hand, online teaching was initiated under emergency conditions in the given period. Therefore, it can be assumed that usual face-to-face components of the training can be modified during online interpreting courses due to both inexperience of trainers and students with remote interpreting and remote teaching technologies, and the stress caused by uncertainty through pandemic conditions. This limitation should be taken into consideration while interpreting the data observed.

The course content, activities involved in the course, questions of the students, and the attitude of the trainer and students towards the course and each other were carefully observed. The whole course flow was written down by the researcher, mostly synchronically with the recorded video.

The data was then checked against the videos for a second round of observation. Later, the observational codes were created to define the recurring behaviors, expressions, and actions of the trainers and students. In this way, the self-reported interview data were triangulated with the observation.

The following table presents information about the trainers of the observed interpreting courses:

| Trainer No | Type of University | City of the University | Interpreting Experience of the Trainer | The Title of the Course(s) Observed | Course Grade | Course Status |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Observed Trainer 1 (O.B.1) | Foundation | Ankara | No experience | Note-Taking Introduction to Interpreting | 3rd | Compulsory |
| O.B.2 | Foundation | İstanbul | 5-10 years | Consecutive Interpreting | 3rd | Compulsory |
| O.B.3 | Foundation | Ankara | 1-4 years | Simultaneous Interpreting | 4th | Elective after Aptitude Test |

Table 3.4: Information regarding Participants and Courses in Observation

As presented in the table above, the first observed trainer has no professional interpreting experience, serves at a foundation university in Ankara, and delivers two compulsory interpreting courses in the 3rd grade, namely Note-Taking and Introduction to Interpreting. The second observed trainer has 5-10 years of professional interpreting experience, works at a foundation university in İstanbul, and teaches a compulsory course in 3rd grade, namely Consecutive Interpreting. The last participant has 1-4 years of interpreting experience, teaches at a foundation university in Ankara, and delivers an expertise course that is elected by students who succeed in the aptitude test in the 4th grade.

# 4. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The results obtained from the semi-structured interview are analyzed through thematic coding among qualitative data analysis methods. Thematic analysis is used for “identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.79) in order to “describe the ‘lived experiences’ of particular social groups” or “examine the ‘factors’ that influence, underpin, or contextualize particular processes or phenomena” (Braun et al., 2019, p.850). To this end, the obtained data are defined and labeled by the researcher in line with their relation to the research question and topic. Then, the researcher undertakes an active role to develop themes from the codes generated. Braun and Clarke (2006, p.80, 2020) highlight the importance of the subjectivity of the researcher in the process of generating themes and criticizes the definitions such as ‘emerging’ themes or themes ‘being discovered’. Instead, the researcher’s subjectivity is considered as a form of the source rather than a bias factor to the positivist concept of reliability since the meaning is constructed by the researcher oneself. To highlight the researcher’s reflexivity during the analysis process, and distinguish their approach from other approaches to thematic analysis, Braun and Clarke (2019) renamed their approach as reflexive thematic analysis. Accordingly, Braun and Clarke (2020) summarize the role of the researcher throughout the thematic analysis as follows:

> Demonstrating coding reliability and the avoidance of ‘bias’ is illogical, incoherent and ultimately meaningless in a qualitative paradigm and reflexive TA, because meaning and knowledge are understood as situated and contextual, and researcher subjectivity is conceptualised as a resource for knowledge production, which inevitably sculpts the knowledge produced, rather than a must-be-contained threat to credibility.

Braun and Clarke (2020) list the six phases for (reflexive) thematic analysis:

1) data familiarisation and writing familiarisation notes;
2) systematic data codings;
3) generating initial themes from coded and collated data;
4) developing and reviewing themes;
5) refining, defining and naming themes; and
6) writing the report (p.4)

In line with the abovementioned phases, first, the recorded online interviews were deciphered manually and each document was renamed with numbers to anonymize the participants (e.g. I-1 refers to Instructor No.1, I-2 to Instructor No. 2).

In the second phase, systematic data coding, MaxQda 2020, a qualitative analysis software, was used. Initially, a deductive approach was adopted and the main themes of the interview questions were created before the codes. In parallel with the main topics of the questions asked in the semi-structured interview, the following themes were created: *Instructors' perception of interpreter training, roles of instructors in interpreter training, roles of students in interpreter training, course content, material selection, common problems, feedback criteria, future skills for future interpreters.*

In the third phase, the codes and sub-themes were categorized under related theme titles. This early sketch of descriptive coding ended up with 1094 codes.

In the fourth phase, developing and reviewing themes, it was realized that the deductive approach described above was not comprehensive for all codes and limited the researcher to narrate the overall story that can be depicted with the data. For example, the early codes were categorized under the theme "Feedback Criteria". Following the first coding, it was realized that the codes under the same theme refer to different contexts. For example, "*I prefer to give negative feedback because I believe constant positive feedback brings no good to the students*" and "*The hardest part for students to welcome feedback. Because they are very fragile*" were under the same theme of "Feedback Criteria". On the other hand, the first in-vivo coding refers to the researcher's attitude towards in-class assessment criteria, which is more specifically related to the product- or process-oriented assessment while the latter indicates a common struggle for the instructor about student's attitude towards in-class assessment, student’s motivation and self-confidence. This version of themes, which is limited to “explicit or surface meanings of the data” is defined as “semantic level of themes” by Braun and Clarke (2006, p.84).

In the fifth phase, to ensure the latent level of themes, which moves data analysis beyond the words to “the underlying ideas, assumptions, and conceptualisations” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.94), expert opinion was asked from two researchers who are experienced in thematic coding. In line with their suggestions:

1- Codes categorized under two main themes, namely Feedback criteria and Poor language command were re-categorized under new themes of *Process-Oriented Assessment* and *Assigning Students Responsibility*, respectively.
2- Some codes were renamed to avoid confusion.
3- Two new themes (*Pandemic* and *Distrust in Automation*) were formed.

To this end, the existing codes were reviewed and contextualized. With an inductive and data-driven approach this time, 5 new themes were created: *Content, Goals, Roles, Pandemic,* and *Distrust in Automation*. After the re-categorization of the existing codes and new ones created, the total code number fell to 952.

The first three themes were directly related to the research question of the thesis. The fourth theme, *Pandemic* reflects the impacts of the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic conditions on course content, attitudes of instructors, and students towards the course. The final theme was obtained in line with the related question in the interview. Although the question targeted revealing the opinions of the instructors about the skills to be needed by the future interpreters in line with the technological advancements in the field, participants discussed more why automation in interpreting cannot be successful and compared it with machine translation technologies. Therefore, the last two themes are regarded to be out of the thesis scope and the data analysis will include only the first three themes and 862 codes as presented below.

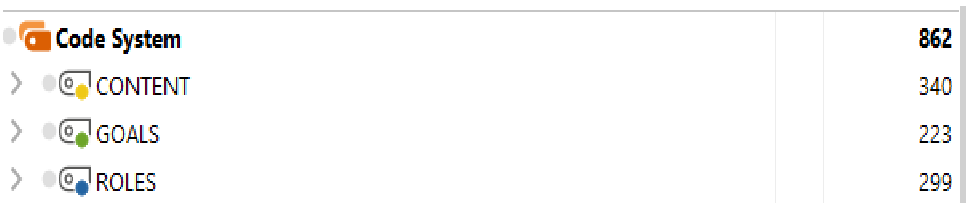


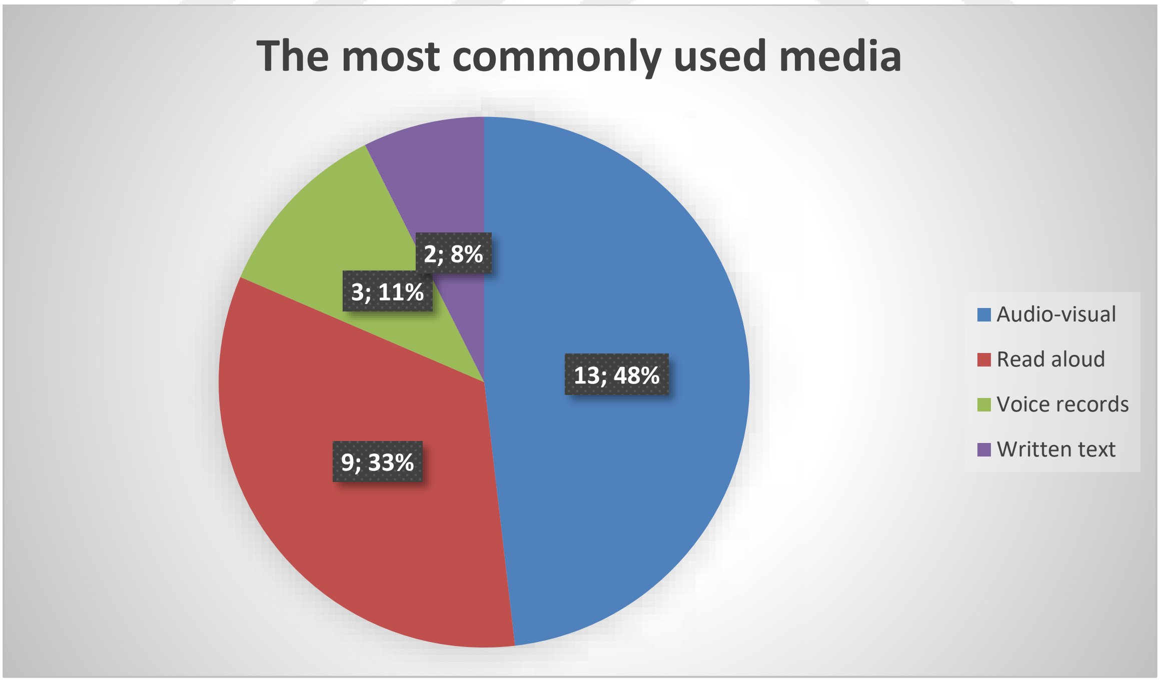

Figure 4.1: Themes

In these themes, some codes are related to others. For instance, *poor language command of students* has been one of the key codes created at the beginning of the coding process. However, sub-codes of this code were later categorized under different sub-themes such as *Language use* in *Product-oriented assessment* theme and *Guiding* in *Roles* theme. Bearing this in mind, related codes and sub-codes are given in footnotes in this fourth chapter to refer readers to the other related issues under different themes.

In this chapter, the first descriptive analysis of the findings obtained from the close-ended questions in the interview form is presented in graphs. Thematic analysis of the findings is then presented with in-vivo statements. As the interviews were held in Turkish, relevant statements were translated into English by the researcher through the literal translation method. The statements demonstrated *in italic* show the literal translation of the participants' statements. Further explanations and clarifications were added to the statements as extra notes in parentheses. The findings are discussed with a reference to the interpreter training literature. As a part of the thematic analysis, code relations are also visualized through maps and discussed in the following section. In the final section, observation findings are presented in comparison with the thematic and descriptive analysis of the data.

## 4.1. Descriptive Analysis of the Findings

This part presents the descriptive findings of the close-ended questions in the interview. One of the questions is about the most commonly used media in interpreting courses. Findings regarding this question are presented below:




Graph 4.1**:** The most commonly used media in interpreting courses

Audio-visual materials are the most commonly used media in interpreting courses at the rate of 48%, which is followed by texts read aloud in the class at 33%, and voice records at 11%. Of all the participants, 8% reported using written texts as material in courses of sight translation and note-taking. The most preferred source of audio-visual materials was reported as EU Speech Repository, TEDTalk, news, and video records taken from real conferences.

As argued by Ardito (1999), material selection needs to mirror a variety of real working situations of interpreting such as "press conferences, debates, media events, interviews, and round table discussions" (p.379). The use of authentic and impromptu speeches is encouraged in interpreting classes to mimic real conference conditions, as well as offering a variety of accents and delivery styles. On the other hand, reading aloud written texts or transcribed speeches is discouraged for causing information density and extra challenge for interpreting particularly in early training (Gile, 2005). The data obtained showed that most instructors prefer using authentic speeches from Internet sources or real conference records with videos to expose students to as many as different accents possible and real-life interpreting conditions. However, the language proficiency and motivation of students were reported among the reasons why some instructors still prefer reading the texts/speeches aloud:

*"There is a real student-driven difference between the use of these two media* (audio-visual vs reading aloud). *I can use more videos and more authentic content, which does not require my intervention, in cases when students have higher language proficiency and motivation" (I-17).*

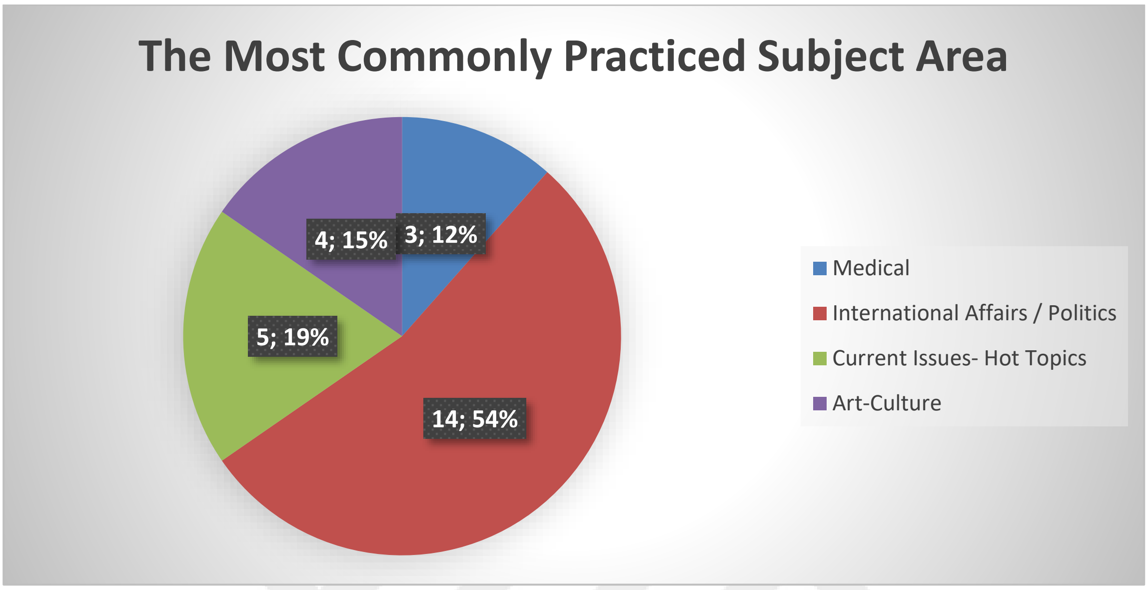
Likewise, I-12 reported that they need to revise the language of the speeches in conformity with the language proficiency level of the students:

*"I take speeches from written sources or the Internet and revise them to the students' levels. In other words, I try to re-arrange the language density. Because students are admitted to department with English knowledge and learn German in preparatory school and their command of German is not at the desired level".*

The main media preferred by the instructors also changes throughout the weeks of the course process as students get more acquainted with listening to foreign numbers and proper names. For example, I-1 reported a transition from reading aloud to audio-visual materials:

*"We first start with my voice. I read aloud a structured speech emphasizing figures, and proper names more slowly. Then, we start to listen to podcasts or videos after 2 months. Still, I have not used videos very much" (I-1).*

As for the interview question regarding the most commonly practiced subject areas in interpreting classes, findings are presented in the graph below:




Graph 4.2: The most commonly practiced subject area in interpreting courses

The most practiced subject area was reported to be international affairs speeches delivered by politicians (54%), which is followed by speeches/texts on current issues or hot topics in the course week (19%), speeches/texts about art and culture (15%) and medical speeches (12%). There are different reasons why the majority of the instructors mostly prefer international affairs speeches most. The first one is the reluctance of instructors to practice technical texts as they include intense terminology. Secondly, the structured and error-free nature of politicians' speeches comforts instructors throughout the courses, by limiting the chance to encounter the unexpected. Third, this subject area is particularly preferred as they also reflect the current issues discussed in the media and everyday life.

*"I prefer politics because the most recent topics are from this subject area" (I-23).*

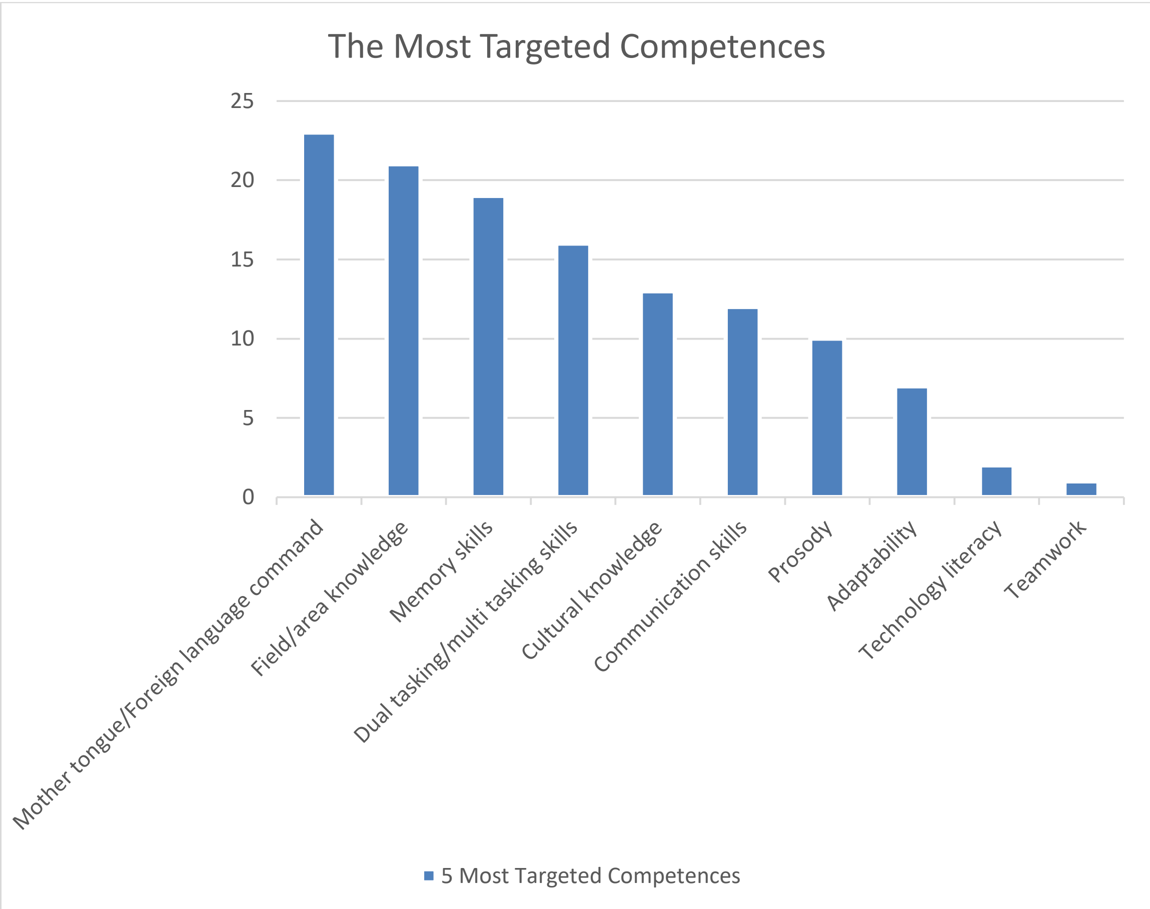
*"I prefer practicing on current issues, which includes politics" (I-22).*

*"Politics is a part of their daily life. They can better comprehend the topic. Speeches in this area include phrases that students can use in their life. Phrases used in politics are merged with those to be in interpreting in any topic or area. Because nothing is free of politics" (I-21).*

Finally, the ease of finding course material in this subject area is a factor for instructors, particularly those who attend diplomatic meetings in Ankara as interpreters, due to the density of conferences and meetings held in politics and international affairs in the capital:

*"Politics. As I work in Ankara. Here, we mostly attend such meetings. So, the texts we have are mostly in politics" (I-19).*

In the interview, the participants were asked to pick five of the competences that are mostly targeted in the courses. The results are presented below:




Graph 4.3: The most targeted competences in interpreting courses

Mother tongue/foreign language command was reported as the primary competence by the majority of the instructors (23/24). Field/area knowledge (21), memory skills (19), dual-/multi-tasking skills (16), cultural knowledge (13), and communication skills (12) were also reported as the most important competences for interpreters and targeted throughout their courses. Prosody

(10) was reported by less than half of the participants, while adaptability (7), technology literacy (2), and teamwork (1) were reported by few.

Mother tongue/foreign language command was reported as a prerequisite of the interpreting profession and course:

*"Unless linguistic skills are at the desired level, students can panic and try to take notes of everything heard no matter how you teach note-taking techniques. Then, the whole process is disrupted. Both mother tongue and foreign language command is a prerequisite" (I-14).*

The linguistic command is also regarded as a prerequisite for teaching further skills as it is deemed to be a competency that students should have before the interpreting courses:

*"Interpreting skills can be taught only under certain conditions. For example, if a student is willing to learn…if s/he has competency in both languages. Our main problem with the students is comprehension, they do not understand what they hear. So, we cannot move forward. Also, they have problems with expressing themselves, they are not good readers of their native language. Therefore, I cannot teach them anything" (I-12).*

*"I want interpreting students to have good mother tongue command. Otherwise, how can you address a target society if you are not competent in your own language?... Even the least successful student, who has problems during 4 years, can meet the deficiency of foreign language when s/he goes abroad for 6 months…. But the deficiency of mother tongue command is not resolved" (I-22).*

*"I think, if both mother tongue and foreign language command* (of students*) are not very good, there occurs a problem undoubtedly" (I-17).*

The consistency of instructors' views on the importance of core interpreting competences such as source and target language command, extralinguistic knowledge, and multitasking skills was not found for prosody. While 10 of the participants involved it among the 5 most important competences, some others discussed that they do not prefer focusing on it as a primary competence during their courses. I-21, I-25, and I-17 highlight the importance of prosody from the receivers' approach:

*"What assesses you is actually your prosody, not even the content. Audience assesses you by the prosody" (I-21)*

*"Prosody entitles you as a reliable or non-reliable communication expert. If an interpreter speaks decently, her intonation is appropriate and I can understand what she utters, then her purpose of existence is fulfilled"(I-17).*

*"As I always say, prosody is important. You need to produce a comprehensible interpreting, your voice must sound reliable, otherwise people will never listen to you" (I-25).*

According to these statements, prosody is regarded and emphasized as a professional skill that makes a difference in the field. Likewise, the participants, who did not list prosody in the first 5 competences, consider it as a competence that should be acquired for professional life rather than a learning acquisition. I-7 reports that they need to focus on other fundamental skills throughout interpreting courses:

*"They need to develop all other skills first, then we can move to performance criteria such as voice tone, intonation, etc. at the very end" (I-7).*

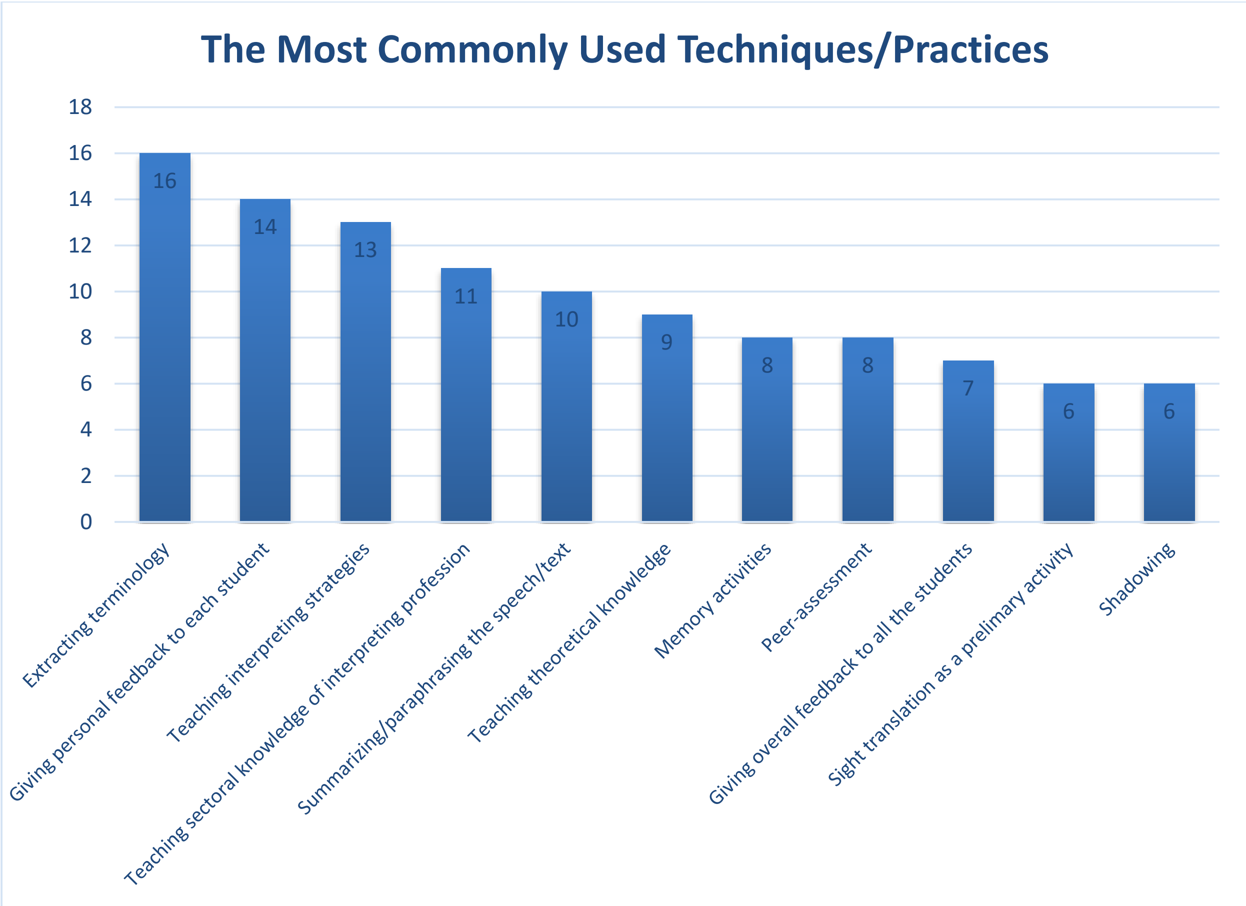
In a similar vein, instructors of introduction to interpreting and sight translation courses also reported not to involve prosody in their performance criteria:

*"We do not study prosody because we have never tried CI" (I-20).*

*"I only check the accuracy. Prosody can be studied in SI" (I-13).*

*"I did not put much focus on prosody as professionals will deal with in further courses. Students can learn prosody in SI and CI courses from the experts" (I-14).*

To reveal the common practices applied in course content, the participants were asked about the most commonly used 5 techniques/practices in interpreting courses. The results are presented below with the number of instructors using the given technique/practice:




Graph 4.4: Techniques/practices that are most commonly used in interpreting courses.

As presented above, the most commonly used technique among the interpreter trainers was reported to be extracting terminology. In this method, students are previously given a topic or the text of the speech to be interpreted in the course and they are held responsible to extract terminology prior to the course:

*"I definitely give the topic a week before the course. All the students have their terminology and research on the topic when they get to the course" (I-15).*

*"I give these conference topics prior to the course. Students bring their hard copies and terminology to the class" (I-18).*

*"I tell students that 'We will interpret one of these speeches, so please extract terminology on them' (I-9).*

A participant reported preparing a terminology list herself and asking students to find equivalents to the terms:

*"We first talk about the topic before seeing the speech text, for instance, artificial intelligence. I ask them to research artificial intelligence from Turkish resources. With such research, they build their vocabulary on the topic in their native language. Then, I give a German text. I prepare a glossary with only German terms and ask them to find Turkish equivalents" (I-12).*

Another different implementation of terminology task is reported as "*preparing a group glossary as a classwork"* (I-10).

With these two exceptions only, students are mostly asked to conduct individual terminology work/prepare a glossary prior to the course. The terminology work and glossary of the students are discussed before the interpreting activity in class.

*Giving personal feedback to each student* was the second most reported practice applied in interpreting courses. I-17 highlights the importance of individual feedback as follows: "*Without feedback, the student may not reach the desired changes in behavior and approach"*. The main approach of instructors in providing students with individual feedback varies. Some instructors prefer process-oriented feedback by touching upon the contextual factors which are effective in interpreting the process and encouraging students to reflect upon their own process.

"*In every course, I use feedback on strategy use such as, 'you have used this strategy very good' or 'you have forgotten it, 'do you remember the strategy called chunking?'" (I-25).*

*"I use both positive and negative feedback. I say: 'You interpreted like this, which is completely incorrect. How could you make it up?' or 'You definitely dealt with it perfectly. The speaker was lisping; his accent was incomprehensible. Still, you could cope with these challenges. You got the notes of your boothmate very well' or 'You did not take the notes from your boothmate although s/he gave you all the numbers etc.'. Because multitasking skills should be activated and I check whether the concentration is disrupted with multitasking. I give feedback to this end" (I-9).*

Some instructors opt for product-oriented feedback by immediate intervention into the errors during interpreting performance:

*"When there is an error, I stop the student and ask him to start over" (I-18).*

*"Giving feedback, I always stop students. I do not take notes about the student's performance and say them at the end of the interpreting. I immediately tell the student to stop and ask 'why did you use this word?', 'this term is incorrect', 'we need to use this word instead', 'you hesitated a lot here'" (I-8).*

*"The number of students in our classes is low. Therefore, I have no problem in giving personal feedback, because we have aptitude test at the 4th grade" (I-23).*

One common pattern followed in the responses of the participants in giving personal feedback was the student capacity of the interpreting class.

*"In crowded classes, I cannot give personal feedback" (I-21).*

*"As for individual feedback, I wish we had fewer students…Then, I could evaluate every individual performance homework, and voice record. Most of the time I cannot listen to all the performances. In some weeks, I cannot listen to any" (I-17).*

*Teaching interpreting strategies* is another common practice/technique applied by instructors. The common approach of the instructors in teaching strategies is to apply strategies to related parts of the speech/text where necessary rather than to instruct them all. Besides, strategy use is regarded as a skill to be required at higher levels of the training, particularly for CI and SI courses. The instructors reported not teaching strategies in the introduction to interpreting courses as they are taught in CI and SI courses:

*"I do not support teaching them all at once. It is better to teach each strategy in parallel to the text to be interpreted" (I-20).*

*"I teach strategies when we start practicing in the second semester rather than at the beginning of the training "(I-24)*

*"I do not teach strategies at first. They are at the next level". (I-21).*

The participants adopt a similar approach to teaching sectoral knowledge as well. Sectoral knowledge (ethics, standards, working conditions, etc.) is regarded necessary for students who have expertise in interpreting following an aptitude test:

*"I don't teach theoretical and sectoral knowledge in the note-taking course, because the student already learns these in consecutive interpreting course" (I-16).*

Another common approach towards teaching sectoral knowledge is to touch upon related phenomena throughout courses rather than a structured instruction. The participants reported mostly having a chat about sectoral knowledge. Another reason for a quick discussion on sectoral knowledge is the limited course hours:

*"We have this course for two hours each week. I cannot give much information. I offer a brief ontology and tell students to research .... We have to give very brief information about the interpreting market and ethics" (I-24).*

Summarizing/paraphrasing is also among the most commonly applied practices. This practice is preferred by the instructors for two purposes. The first one is to advance the linguistic skills of students such as comprehension and vocabulary:

*"Then, we practice paraphrasing to enhance the language" (I-20).*

*"Our biggest problem is that students do not comprehend a text; we have problems about understanding the main idea. So, we summarize the main idea or paraphrase the text" (I-13).*

The second one is to improve the main interpreting skill, which is reformulating the sense. I-17 highlights the importance of paraphrasing skill as a preliminary skill of interpreting as follows:

*"I think paraphrasing skill is about language skill both in terms of grammar and vocabulary knowledge…When the student is not aware of the differences between words, s/he produces fewer alternatives. I believe the most important skill is paraphrasing, which is the skill of expressing the same meaning with different words" (I-17).*

*"When students interpret from Turkish to English, we encounter big problems, we have great difficulty. Although I tell students to form short and simple sentences, and to interpret more*

*simply, it is not always possible. There is little comprehension problem. They understand, they are good at writing, but they have a problem with expressing what they mean orally" (I-26).*

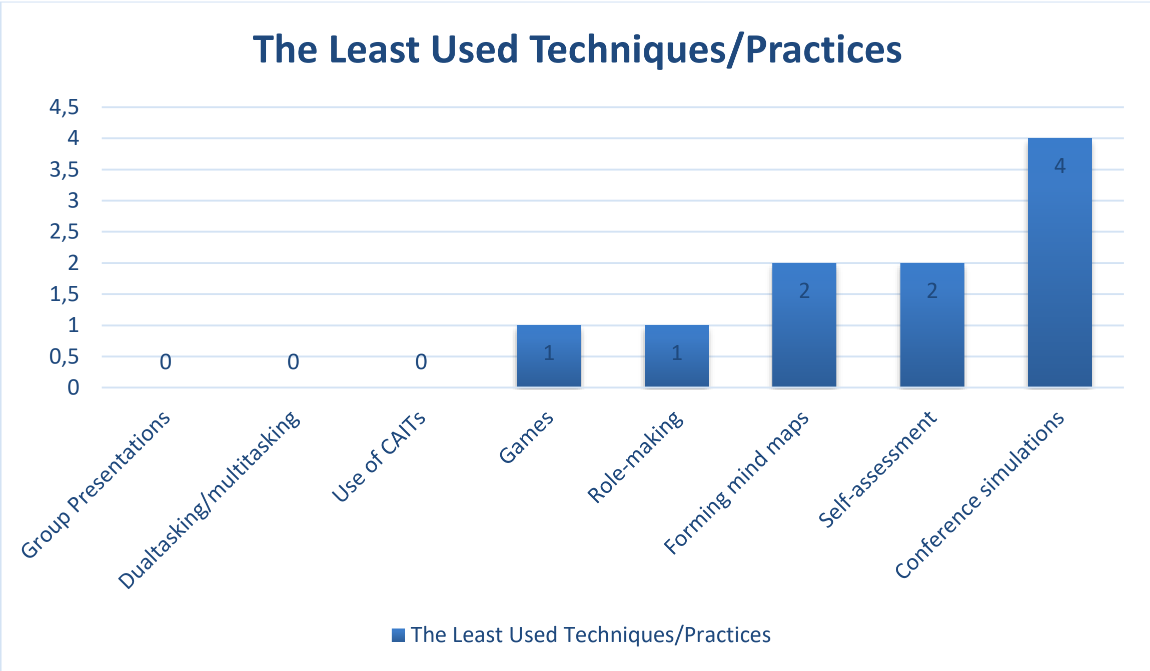
The typical mode of practicing summarizing and paraphrasing in interpreting classes is expressed by I-12 as follows:

*"For summarizing or paraphrasing the speech or text, first I read a text. In the first weeks, I start with a Turkish text…. Students listen till the end while taking notes and then summarize what they heard in Turkish" (I-12).*

Among all the items presented in the graph above, peer assessment, which was reported as a commonly applied technique/practice by only 8 of the participants, deserves a specific focus. Although a few numbers of the instructors selected it among the other options, it came out as a prominent and recurring code in their responses to the open-ended questions. As shall be discussed in further sections, peer assessment[1], though unstructured, is generally accompanied by self-assessment and one-to-one feedback.

The least preferred and applied techniques/practices in interpreting classes can indicate the current pedagogical approach as much as the most commonly used practices. According to the answers of the participants, the least preferred techniques and practices are found and presented below.

[1] see 4.2.1.2.1.1. Peer assessment




Graph 4.5: Techniques/practices that are least commonly applied in interpreting courses

None of the participants included group presentations, dual-/multi-tasking activities, and the use of CAITs among commonly used techniques/practices. One exception to the practices demonstrated on the graph is the use of a computer-assisted interpreting tool named InterpretBank)- by one instructor, as stated during open-ended questions. Another exception is the self-assessment item. Although the item was chosen by few (2) participants in the close-ended questions, it was found in the open-ended interview questions that the participants involve the students in the assessment/feedback processes during the in-class activities. Despite being informal and unstructured, self-assessment is frequently applied in interpreting classes unlike demonstrated in the analysis of the close-ended questions. The participant titled I-3 explains the rare use of such techniques as follows:

*"We are still sustaining our efforts to structuralize the field, which is still not a stable discipline. I cannot apply peer assessment. We cannot perform group presentations"* (I-3).

This approach of I-3 focuses on the structure of the field itself and the lack of structured activities to be applied in classes.

Forming mind maps and dual tasking/multitasking skills target cognitive skills. It can be suggested that cognitive skills underlying the interpreting skills are not prioritized along with interpreting skills. A trainer points out how s/he overlooks cognitive tasks by highlighting the practice-based nature of interpreting courses:

*"I don't use mind maps, games, etc. I have never used computer-assisted tools. I don't use memory techniques. I always believe that students can learn via sink and soak. I think that such theoretical pieces of training are waste of time… Students need to discover these things. I do not believe in shadowing (*activities*). SI is a field where the instructor's intervention is the minimum. It is a highly cognitive field….Student needs to practice constantly…. I do not believe in elements such as memory" (I-15).*

Role-play activities and conference simulations like mock conferences are among the main situated-learning practices that help to mimic the real-life working conditions of interpreters. These practices were found to be applied very rarely. This finding is parallel with the statements of the trainers regarding their suggestions for further training practices. Accordingly, the participants notes the lack of situated learning practices as a deficiency of the current training practices and suggested applying more intense training by creating more real-work conditions in class in the future[2].

Classroom games that can be applied to enhance the foreign language skills of students are rarely applied according to the findings. This result can be attributed to the fact that improving foreign language skills are considered as students' responsibility and that responsibility is expected to be fulfilled out of the classroom[3] due to crowded classes, limited contact hours, and trainers' role addressed as a guide more than a teacher[4].

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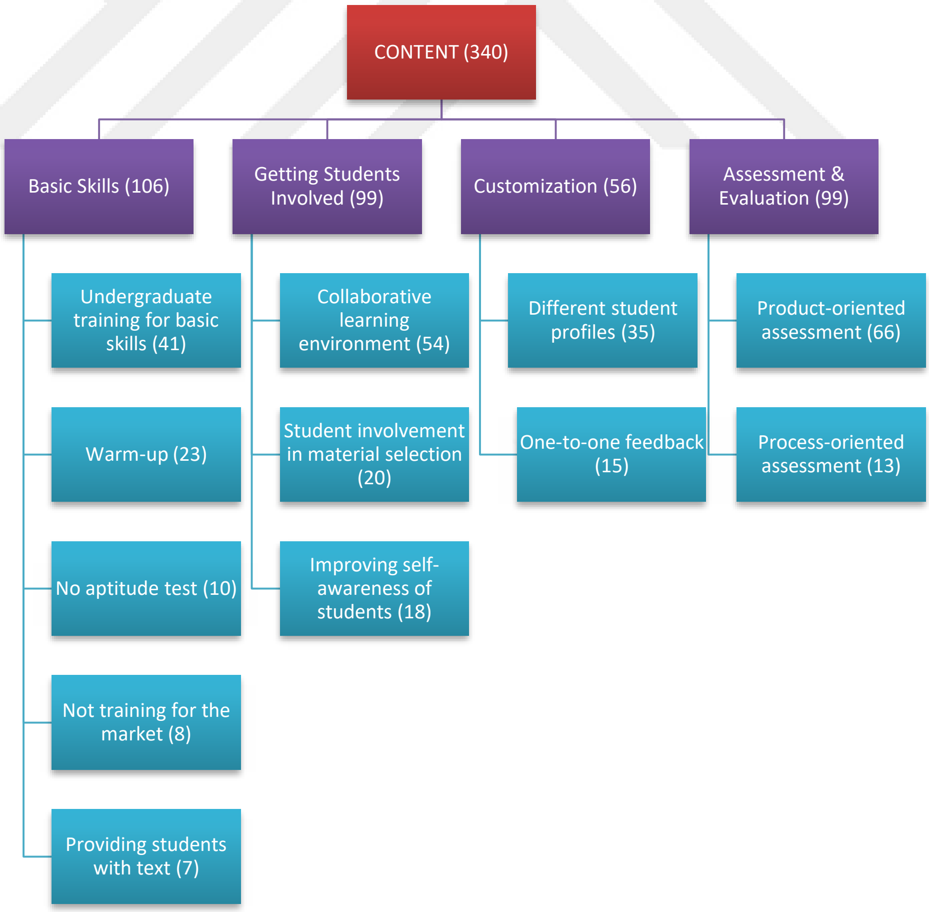
[2] see 4.2.2.2.4.1. Mimicking real-work conditions
[3] see 4.2.3.3. Assigning students responsibility
[4] see 4.2.3.1. Teaching and 4.2.3.2.Guiding

### 4.2. Thematic Analysis and Discussion of the Findings

In this chapter, each of the three themes will be analyzed and discussed along with the related sub-themes, codes, and sub-codes.

#### 4.2.1. Content

The responses of the participants to the interview questions primarily depicted a usual interpreting class with a glance at targeted acquisitions of the given training, in-class activities including individual and collaborative practices, engagement between students-students and students-trainer, formative and summative assessment methods. Hence, this theme refers to the overall content of a typical interpreting course, which can offer holistic insight into the general pedagogical tendencies in undergraduate interpreter training. The sub-themes, codes, and sub-codes under this theme are illustrated below with the number of the codes associated:




Graph 4.6: Sub-themes and codes associated with the theme *Content*.

As the first theme of the analysis, *Content* contains 340 codes and 4 main sub-themes, namely *basic skills, getting students involved, customization*, and *assessment & evaluation*.

#### 4.2.1.1. Basic skills

The first sub-theme created under the theme of *Content* is *basic skills*, which includes 106 codes. One of the most commonly mentioned concepts during the interviews was that interpreting courses target at providing students with basic skills of interpreting. The main reason for setting the educational goal as improving basic interpreting skills, but not raising future interpreters reportedly results from the structure of the undergraduate training, lack of aptitude test, and not specifically training students to work in the interpreting market. The most concrete educational outcomes of this approach manifest themselves in the sub-codes of *warm-up* and *providing students with texts*.

According to the expertise categories put forth by Hoffman (1997) and adapted to interpreting by Moser-Mercer (2000) and Kiraly (2009), the classification of developmental levels of interpreting students includes novices, initiates, apprentices, journeymen, expert and master (cited in Sawyer, 2004). According to these categories, interpreting students that move beyond the introductory stage can be classified as apprentices while those who graduate and are ready to work in a simultaneous interpreting booth are journeymen. According to Sawyer (2004), "a program of instruction hypothetically takes the naïve or novice to the journeyman level" (p.73). At this point, expert and master stages can be acquired through experience more than the training received. Situating Hoffman's classification into the context of undergraduate interpreter training in Turkey, it was found that the trainers target equipping students with the introductory level of interpreting skills, rather than ensuring them to independently work on challenging consecutive and simultaneous interpreting tasks upon graduation.

##### 4.2.1.1.1. Undergraduate training for basic skills

In line with the training principles of international organizations, mainly EMT and AIIC, interpreting courses are expected to be taught by professional conference interpreters with teaching skills at the postgraduate level. In Turkey, on the other hand, there are only two programs that offer Master's level conference interpreter training as opposed to around 60 undergraduate programs that are active as of the time of this study. The difference between postgraduate and undergraduate interpreting programs in terms of student selection, contact hours, and targeted acquisitions is surely remarkable. To point out this difference, Setton and Dawrant (2016) make a distinction between "partial training in interpreting skills offered at the undergraduate level" and "full professional training" at the postgraduate level (p.532). In parallel with this division, the participants of this thesis reported that undergraduate interpreter training targets basic interpreting skills due to the structure of the undergraduate program *per se*. Accordingly, interpreting courses take place in the curriculum of T&I programs along with translation courses. These programs in Turkey can be roughly divided into three in terms of the status of the interpreting courses delivered:

a) Only the introductory interpreting courses (note-taking, introduction to interpreting, interpreting-I etc.) are compulsory, and both SI and CI courses can be elected only by students who succeed in an aptitude test.
b) Interpreting courses including CI are compulsory, and SI and/or conference interpreting course can be elected only by students who succeed in an aptitude test.
c) All interpreting courses are compulsory.

In all three options applied at different universities, all students of T&I programs have to complete and fulfill the course requirements of multiple interpreting courses in order to graduate. In cases of the compulsory status of all interpreting courses, even those who do not want expertise in interpreting, still have to accomplish conference interpreting courses with a high number of other students[5].

In this sense, interpreting courses are structurally offered as primary and compulsory contact with the practice of interpreting. The compulsory status of the courses indicates that all the students of the given grade will be in the classroom. This means that undergraduate interpreter trainers need to provide a high number of students with basic interpreting skills in limited contact hours (from 2 to 4 hours a week for each course), contrary to intensive training offered to a few students in a postgraduate program. In this regard, I-24 initially highlights the limited contact hours to describe the need for limiting the training goal to basic skills at the undergraduate level:

[5] The number of the student quota for entrance to undergraduate T&I programs in English-, German-, French- and Arabic- Turkish language pairs was announced to be around 30-70 by ÖSYM for the year 2019.

*"The courses such as Interpreting-1 are two hours a week. We cannot give much. I give very brief information and ask students to research it. Our university's goal is not to train conference interpreters, we do not have such a target. Unfortunately, the opportunities* (that we have) *are very limited, we need a whole other formation to do that* (to train conference interpreters). *Our goal here is to lay grounds" (I-24).*

This phenomenon is also closely associated with the general target of the introductory interpreting courses:

*"The course Introduction to Interpreting is like an eliminating course in which students can test themselves and see if they can succeed. They can see if they will be successful in the 4th-grade courses* (elective interpreting courses). *It also offers some motivation. Because students can be better prepared* (for the 4th grade) *by recognizing their deficiencies and studying more on them." (I-14)*

In this educational structure, the selection of course materials and subject areas in interpreting courses emerge as a prominent phenomenon that reflects the target of providing and improving basic skills[6]. Accordingly, non-complex speeches on non-technical topics are frequently used as main course materials in classes. The main aim of material selection is to improve general world knowledge as well as the language use skills of the students:

*"I did not prefer a specific topic. I tried to select more general topics that everyone can relate to" (I-16).*

*"In consecutive interpreting course, we practice on news.* (I prefer) *mostly non-technical, general topics…" (I-24).*

*"Mostly art & culture….We choose daily texts on topics such as artificial intelligence. These are the texts in that students can get some information …. I get speech texts from written resources or online news and revise the text according to the level of the students. I try to arrange language level" (I-22).*

[6] See Graph 10: The most commonly practiced subject area

Material selection can also be enriched with speeches from different fields targeting to improve different interpreting skills based on task-based activities. According to Weber (1989), commercial speeches train students to focus on sequential logic and accurate terminology; political speeches teach trainees to pay attention to the words used, nuances of meaning, tone of speech, etc.; and technical speeches train students to focus on pictorial representation and accurate terminology. However, the low language mastery of students, which is an issue that was frequently specified by the trainers, leads to practice on easier speeches with simple terms and content. Thus, the language level of students is an effective factor in material selection:

*"In consecutive interpreting, I choose videos that students may encounter in real life. I choose among the simple ones" (I-11).*

*"If we study on a recorded speech, then I make sure that the record does not include very complex language structures because the speed and content of the speech are very important" (I-4).*

*"The most commonly used subject area is international affairs. I mostly apply to such resources because* (in such speeches/texts)*, the content is not intense. For example, a speech by IMF Director on international development is lighter than a speech on economics. I do not give texts of technical fields due to the language levels of the students" (I-17).*

Material selection by the instructors is also found related to non-technical terminology of the speeches to be practiced on. Accordingly, terminology acquisition, as a significant part of interpreter training, is not always targeted when the general knowledge and language competence of students are not at the desired level:

*"In terms of terminology…For example, in the medical subject area, we mostly practice public health" (I-26).*

"(I prefer) *slower speeches that are not challenging in terms of the terminology" (I-4).*

*"My first choice is medicine. Because students are accustomed to the subject area, terms are left as they are* (pronounced) *and it is still demanded in the market. Students can succeed in it very easily as they have self-confidence in the subject area. They can interpret without getting stuck in terminology research" (I-15).*

*“*(I prefer) *politics…Because medicine is an area that needs to come at later stages. First, certain skill sets should be learned well. Others are very specific expertise fields. (*Our aim is) *to improve skills independent of terminology and practice skill techniques….We do not focus on very technical topics that involve terminology such as laws, medical, etc. Because, at the early stage, we do not focus on terminology” (I-7).*

This approach of the trainers to the training goes in parallel with what Gile (2005) puts forth: “Without an adequate baseline in terms of cognitive aptitudes, language mastery and knowledge of the world, they may gain too little from the training” (p.148). In this sense, terminology knowledge is regarded as a higher level of knowledge acquisition in interpreter training. Instead, the trainers assure that students practice on easier texts involving limited or no technical terminology, and can eventually take part in interpreting exercises without having comprehension problems.

#### 4.2.1.1.2. No aptitude test

The second code, *no aptitude test*, manifests itself as a strong reason why basic skills are targeted rather than preparation for the interpreting market. Aptitude testing for interpreting is about detecting students who have a “natural tendency or capacity to pursue the study of” interpreting skills (Moser-Mercer et al., 2000, p.111). For the undergraduate level, taking the aptitude test is an important indicator of students’ willingness to become professional interpreters. The lack of such a screening process that is applied before electing interpreting expertise courses was reported as a weakness by the trainers whose programs do not apply such a test. The lack of any aptitude test in a program makes conference interpreting courses compulsory for all the students to succeed to be able to graduate. This was particularly reported to be problematic for the motivation of the students who do not even think about working as an interpreter:

*“We cannot apply aptitude test. Students who take the courses do not aim to become interpreters. In fact, most of them do not even want* (to take the course), *but, they still have to do so” (I-24).*

*“There are so many students who take the course compulsorily… This* (compulsory status of the course) *should not be a case in interpreting, because motivation is the core of this profession. Students tell me at the beginning, ‘I really have no intention of doing the job, I had to take the*

*course and I don't think that I can do it'… This is unfair to other students who can really do well in this profession" (I-9).*

In cases when an aptitude test is applied, criteria for the admission of students into the interpreting track or specific interpreting courses may differ by programs and trainers. Personality traits of the students, course grades, and in-class activities in previous courses can be taken into consideration or even prioritized rather than the screening test performance. I-19 discusses the validity of the aptitude tests she took part in as a jury member, suggesting that the trainers of the students can act biased, and evaluate the candidates with their previous in-class performances rather than the test performance:

*"In screening exams, you can see students for a limited time and test them. Sometimes a trainer in the jury may say "this student is very hardworking". The selection mechanism can be very different.… In another university, there were some students that I found insufficient on the test. The instructors of the students were surprised and tried to change my mind by saying that "But they are very hardworking!" (I-19).*

Bearing in mind the main target of interpreting courses which is improving basic interpreting skills, some trainers emphasized that the lack of aptitude test is not necessarily disadvantageous. Instead, they assert that the compulsory status of such courses offers an opportunity to every student:

*"Last year, students adopted an approach like: 'I do not want to take this course but I have to. I will not be a conference interpreter anyway'. They know that this note-taking course is a preparatory course for consecutive interpreting. Still, the simultaneous nature of note notetaking was cognitively overwhelming to them. After a few practices, they realized there is nothing to fear about. They can make mistakes. At this point, if the trainer is more welcoming and offers lots of practice…Even the students who were most distant to the course can feel comfortable with your positive attitude" (I-16).*

*"I never ever push students* (to participate). *My course is compulsory and there is already a prejudice towards it. Students tell me that they do not want to be interpreters. So, I move on with*

*little pieces to let them taste. But, at the end of the semester, every student has the experience of getting into the booth" (I-22).*

In addition, reflecting the criticism of the screening processes in terms of the reliability and validity in the literature (Pippa & Russo 2002; Pöchhacker, 2011; Setton & Dawrant, 2016, Shang & Xie, 2020), some instructors find an aptitude test unfair. Likewise, I-11 and I-3 discourage the aptitude test at the undergraduate level suggesting that they cannot detect the readiness of students for interpreter training due to other variables that are not taken into consideration:

*"I believe this training* (simultaneous interpreting) *should be as broad as possible. We did not select only 5 students for the SI course. We did it with the whole class. I made sure that every student got into the booth. They need to try being in the booth. I tell students that every one of them should try interpreting when they graduate. Because we cannot know who has the talent. There are many factors* (during the aptitude test) *such as peer pressure, shaming, and stress with the microphone. Such tests are not decisive" (I-11).*

*"Yes, we teach SI course to all. But it would be a mistake to expect every one of them to be successful….* (an aptitude test*) would be unfair to the students. Can we as instructors achieve what we expect them to achieve?" (I-3).*

The lack of aptitude test, whether it is evaluated as a disadvantage or advantage for the interpreter training offered to all students by the trainers, is an important factor that prevents offering expertise training to the students who have this natural capacity to become conference interpreters. Instead, the target of the compulsory interpreting courses, albeit specialized, was reported to teach interpreting skills and let every student, whether s/he has the capacity or not, try interpreting at least.

**4.2.1.1.3. Not training for the market**

Taking a stand from the structural issues, the participants highlighted the importance of more intense and postgraduate training to train conference interpreters making references to insufficient undergraduate training. In parallel, Setton and Dawrant (2016) call it simply "unrealistic" to train "conference interpreters to face today's market from 'scratch' (an undergraduate degree) in less than 18–24 months" (p.6). I-26 also defines a possible goal of training interpreters for the market as an unrealistic task via the undergraduate level training:

*"I do not teach the course with the claim that the students will be interpreters. Instead, I tell them, when you have a job and you have to interpret, you need to be capable of doing it. If you want to be a conference interpreter, you need to improve yourself (*after undergraduate education) *or you need to get into a postgraduate program. Because this* (level of education) *is not realistic, you cannot reach that capacity as soon as you graduate" (I-26).*

*"We definitely guide students who want to become conference interpreters to postgraduate programs" (I-24).*

*"The conditions do not allow us. Even if we wanted, students do not show the performance to be in the booth. So, we do not have a claim of training students to interpret in a booth" (I-12).*

The close association between the goal of interpreter training, which is not necessarily "to train large number of interpreters" and the need for seeking out "those young people who are most likely to succeed at this very difficult, worthy and socially important profession" through an aptitude test is well addressed by Seleskovitch (Gravier, 1968/1978, cited in Pöchhacker, 2014, p.147). The undergraduate level of training, along with the limited contact hours, lack of aptitude tests, and limited foreign language mastery of students creates restrictive conditions to train interpreters for the market.

Under these conditions, trainers teach interpreting skills as transferable skills to be put into use in real life. I-5 reiterates Seleskovitch's thoughts in her approach to training by reminding us that training for market aims can be fulfilled with a limited number of students. Instead of such an ambitious goal under structural limitations as discussed above, she summarizes the language-based goals of interpreter training as follows:

"*Interpreter training is not taught to prepare all of the students for the market, anyways. If there are 20 people in an interpreting class, 3 students at maximum can be active in the market. On the other hand, those who get interpreter training can learn to use language very well, use* *language at maximum level in terms of listening and speaking, can easily adapt to different environments, can speak of different terminologies, and so on" (I-5).*

Likewise, I-26 defines basic interpreting skills as transferable communication skills to be used in many other areas of learners' lives, and as a realistic objective of the training offered:

"*Experience this work, take the basic skills here, I tell my students. These are actually communication skills, for instance, note-taking skills. These are not only used in interpreting, but in many different areas. So, my stance is more realistic. Because we are very crowded with only 2 or 3 willing students. I do not have an approach of training interpreters" (I-26).*

Although excellent command of foreign language, which is not confined only to fluency (Kalina, 2000), is an indisputable prerequisite for students at T&I departments, the instructors frequently commented on the poor foreign language command of students in interpreting classes[7]. They reported fixing and studying language errors. The selection of a different career path by T&I students is also considered a reason for the language enhancement efforts of the instructors:

*"I do not only think of students as future interpreters but to train them in the best way. Even if they become teachers… I need to fix a grammar mistake when I see it. Otherwise, she might transfer that pronunciation error to her students. If she doesn't know public speaking rules, she can't be a good teacher. I look from a broad perspective" (I-26).*

*"Not all of them become interpreters. In fact, most of them become teachers. It is our duty to fix grammar mistakes" (I-10).*

The stance of the trainers who prefer focusing on the linguistic skills of students is related to their approach to training language experts as a broader term than translators and interpreters, and the fact that not all graduates of T&I programs work as translators or interpreters. In this sense, interpreting courses are perceived as a way to improve the general language skills of students who can work in many different fields, mainly teaching a foreign language.

[7] For more detailed findings on the topic, see Poor foreign language command under the section 4.2.3.3.1.

#### 4.2.1.1.4. Warm-up

Active listening, message analysis, and recalling techniques such as clozing, chunking, and visualization for consecutive interpreting; and shadowing, simultaneous paraphrasing, shadowing tasks combined with cloze exercises, or simultaneous interpreting of well-known fairy tales for simultaneous interpreting are suggested as preliminary exercises in the literature (Pöcchakker, 2004). In this part of the study, such preliminary exercises are called warm-up exercises as they are performed before almost every actual interpreting practice in a course. Although the "interpreting exercises are the main pillar of the training" (Gile, 2005, p.135), warm-up activities, carried out before the interpreting exercises were found to constitute a big part of the course content in this study. The most commonly used warm-up activities prior to the interpreting practice were reported as text/speech analysis (genre, target reader, etc.), paraphrasing, discussion on current issues, discussion on the given topic, terminology-work, skimming-scanning, shadowing, sight translation, and memory exercises, respectively.

The general procedure is to provide students with a speech text or a topic and give homework to students to study terminology and the topic before the course hour. The warm-up activities aim to get students ready for the upcoming interpreting activity. The most commonly applied warm-up activity, text analysis is applied when the speech text to be interpreted is provided to the students beforehand. Text analysis is a crucial element of getting prepared for interpreter-mediated communication where text is provided to the interpreter before the delivery of the speech. In training settings, situating the practice speech in a context is also crucial to inform students about what to encounter in terms of the speaker's background, target audience, conference setting, etc. Such activity ensures the simulation nature of in-class interpreting practices (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). However, the main approach of the instructors who apply text analysis is to conduct a comprehensive analysis of the given text of the speech, with a focus on comprehension before listening to the speech, terminology, and language-related problems to be encountered during the interpreting activity:

*"We start with text analysis. I give comprehension questions* (to students)*" (I-10).*

*"When the course begins, we first go through the terms in the video or text. We make a general evaluation of the speech and the speaker, discussing the challenging parts and how to overcome them" (I-23).*

*"At first glance, we discuss the genre, source, target reader of the text... I ask students to take a look at the text for 30 seconds. Then, I ask what the text is about, and what the general features are. Then, I ask if there is anything incomprehensible" (I-1).*

Here, text analysis is used primarily to ensure comprehension of the speech/text, particularly in L2, to ensure a smooth reformulation process in interpreting by preventing any language- and world knowledge-related comprehension problems beforehand. Gile (2005) encourages providing students with a parallel text to study terminology and extralinguistic knowledge preparation for those whose foreign language command is insufficient. As a scaffolding strategy, this comprehension aid to the students can be eliminated as students progress through more speeches and practices. Likewise, warm-up activities are left gradually with a group of students who have practiced enough on text content:

*"At the beginning of the semester, first we study the text content and then move to the actual speech. As students gain practice, we start directly with the speech. In simultaneous interpreting, I make sure that they interpret a speech which they hear for the first time" (I-17).*

The other objectives of warm-up activities are providing students with hot topics during the course week, raising their awareness of the national and international news, and improving their world knowledge, and vocabulary:

*"I make an introduction with the current issues…. It is a good way to start the course since they discuss the current issues and acquire the terminology of the current issues, to some extend" (I-1).*

*"We share world knowledge and discuss what happened in the world the week before. Students share their knowledge one by one, for example, we discuss headlines on politics, art and culture, economy, and so on in the USA, Britain, Germany, and Turkey. Here, I intend to show students the importance of world knowledge. I actually make it compulsory for each student to read at least 5 newspapers. They start to read newspapers and follow the news. This way, they improve their world knowledge, cultural knowledge, and vocabulary… When they read common news in*

*three different languages (*Turkish, German and English*), you automatically acquire terminology of the topic" (I-22).*

The common approach of the instructors in acquiring students with world knowledge is to emphasize its importance for interpreting and to entitle students to read and follow the news outside the classroom. The interpreting class is depicted as a place where students can share what they have learned themselves and present them individually, thus creating a brainstorming activity before the interpreting. This can also be evaluated as an expert-novice scaffolding method as the trainer selects a specific instructional task and supports the gradual acquisition of the knowledge required for the interpreting activity.

#### 4.2.1.1.5. Providing students with text

The main practice resource in interpreting classes differs by the goals of the given course and the language level of the students. Gile (2005) discourages the use of actual practice texts or speech excerpts that are memorized by the students before the interpreting exercise in the classroom to prevent information density, particularly at the beginning of the interpreter training. However, some instructors described their weekly course content as providing students with texts or excerpts ahead of the course and letting students work on terminology, topic, and the text itself to ensure smooth interpreting in class.

I-20 describes how she provides students with text for the introduction to interpreting course:

*"I give the text at the beginning of the semester. I do not ask students to read the text before. I randomly select some parts of the text as I want. I do not read the text in class" (I-20).*

*"I tell students, if you listen to this speech a few times, you will be more acquainted with that. For each speech, they send the first two minutes of the speech. So, students know and listen to the speech before the course" (I-8).*

*"We gave documents to the students beforehand and they directly started to interpret in the class" (I-3)*

*"Students get more motivated when they interpret the text which they previously read and studied on terminology" (I-1).*

Contrary to what is recommended by Gile (2005) above, it is found that some instructors encourage students to study more on the text before the actual interpreting exercise, which naturally motivates students as they start to memorize and exactly know what is coming next throughout the interpreting practice. This approach of the instructors indicates that they target basic skills of interpreting such as improving subject knowledge and terminology, rather than focusing on coping strategies to overcome difficulties of interpreting.

Another approach is the use of texts until the students feel motivated towards the course and acquire fundamental phraseology, and directing them to study on the topic instead, and giving the text to students only 10 minutes before the course, to bring the course closer to the real interpreting activity:

*"We decide on the topic together* (with students)*, and I expect terminology work from students. As we move to the end of the semester, I upload the text to be interpreted about 10 minutes before the course, so that they can take a look at it"(I-13).*

Such an approach can help students get acquainted with the terminology and subject matter through their own research as a part of conference preparation skills. Besides, having the actual text in the last 10 minutes can also help students practice last-minute preparation as it will not be possible for students to memorize the whole body of the text in the given time.

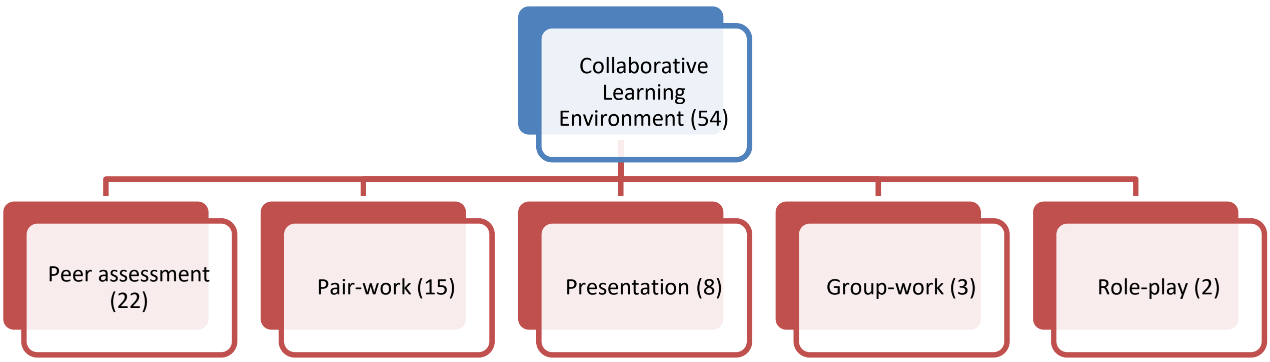
Specific interpreting courses, SI, in particular, are suggested to be taught to students who are keen to work as conference interpreters in the literature (Gile, 2005). Otherwise, as found in this thesis, lack of aptitude tests along with limited language competency and low motivation of students, who have to accomplish these courses, urge instructors to allocate more time to warm-up exercises, focus on comprehension and language issues, and practice on less natural and more pedagogical materials, with the non-technical texts provided before the actual interpreting exercise. When the classroom is full of students who do not have an aim of getting expertise in interpreting, the training focuses more on basic skills. Hence, capable students attend less than an ideal interpreting course as instructors try to overcome the risks of teaching basic interpreting skills to less capable students by choosing less challenging source materials.

#### 4.2.1.2. Getting students involved

The second sub-theme created under the theme of *Content* was *getting students involved* with 99 sub-codes. Instructors reported applying different methods and approaches in their interpreting courses to involve students in the learning process. Constructivist learning practices were not specifically highlighted as an important part of the learning process by the trainers throughout the interviews. Nevertheless, specific social constructivist learning patterns were found in the activities and attitudes of trainers who endeavor to make students take an active role in class activities, learn from their peers and reflect on their own performance.

##### 4.2.1.2.1. Collaborative learning environment

The *collaborative learning environment* is the most prominent code of this sub-theme.




Graph 4.7: Sub-codes associated with the code *Collaborative Learning Environment*.

The main collaborative learning activities commonly applied in undergraduate interpreter training include *peer assessment, pair-work, presentation, group work,* and *role-play.*

#### 4.2.1.2.1.1 Peer assessment

*Peer assessment* including 22 sub-codes was found to be among the indispensable elements of course content in interpreting classes. Although the term peer assessment may refer to grading a peer's performance, it is also valued as an important form of formative assessment and is practiced in interpreting courses (Lee, 2016; Lim, 2013). Within the scope of this sub-code, peer assessment is used as a broader term to include peer-feedback and peer-review as well. In this sense, it should be noted that this sub-code is mostly related to informal and in-class feedback received from peers on a student's performance rather than using peer-review as a method or component in student evaluation. Therefore, it is more in the form of formative assessment taking place in the class rather than summative assessment which actually tests the learning (Lee, 2019, p.154).

In interpreting classes, peer assessment was found to be the key component of feedback, which precedes the instructor's comments and suggestions on interpreting the performances of students. I-1 sees this process as a way to boost students' confidence before presenting their interpretation to the instructor as well as to improve the efficacy of feedback:

*"If the student could not understand (*the problem in his performance*), I ask students: 'anyone understood the problematic part?' Their (*students'*) feedback is more effective than mine…Before presenting their interpreting performance to the class, I divide them into pairs and let them fix their mistakes with each other. After then, they can have more self-confidence" (I-1).*

Similarly, I-6 uses peer assessment in pair-work as a way to improve the self-confidence of students before interpreting to the crowd in the class:

*"First they discuss the interpreting performance in pairs and complete the missing parts. Then they interpret in front of the class" (I-6).*

I-11 considers peer assessment as an opportunity for students to observe their peers purposefully and reflect on their performance to improve their skills:

*"I sometimes get feedback from the students. One can learn how to complete a task by criticizing others undertaking that the task" (I-11).*

To ensure that peer-feedback is constructive and non-judgemental, students may need guidance. One instructor, I-25 highlighted the importance of teaching students how to give feedback to their peers to prevent hurtful and disrespectful comments that would disturb collaborative classroom culture:

*"In the first two weeks, I instruct how to give feedback…Otherwise, students comment on each other's interpretation as "it was terrible, it was disgusting" (I-25).*

Peer assessment involved in the feedback process is in line with the product-oriented assessment approach adopted majorly by the instructors[8]. In this approach, students are not given a rubric or criteria to assess their peers. Although students are warned to use a respectful tone to criticize their peer's interpretation, they are encouraged to look for the errors and incompleteness in the interpretation, and the instructor still acts as the final evaluator of the performance following the peer assessment:

*"We use feedback. I do not generally ask 'how was your friend's interpreting?'. Instead I ask 'Was there a missing part in his interpreting?" (I-8).*

*"One part was missing, Ayşe can you tell us that part? Can you try interpreting as well? Ahmet, I heard a grammar error, but what do you think? In this way, I ask them to fix each other's mistakes" (I-10).*

*"After pair-work, they present their interpreting in front of the classroom. If there is a missing point, I ask the classmates to find that point. They make comments. Then, I give feedback" (I-15).*

In this sense, it was found that the trainers do not provide an assessment or feedback criteria to their students. Instead, they model their own feedback method, which focuses on specific missing content and errors in interpreting. In the literature, drawbacks of unguided peer assessment are highlighted (Gile, 1995; Pietrzak, 2014; S.B.Lee, 2019) and it is recommended to propose "a set of parameters or a typology of errors to follow and address" (Pietrzak, 2014). Otherwise, feedback sessions may turn into language error fixing rather than focusing on the overall content accuracy and delivery style. Bearing this in mind, peer assessment can be a great tool for students to understand what is essential in an interpreting performance by observing their peers

[8] see 4.2.1.3.1. Product-oriented assessment

purposefully and creating a collaborative learning environment, the lack of clear assessment and feedback criteria, as well as the role of the instructor as the final assessor, set a pitfall for students to learn collaboratively.

#### 4.2.1.2.1.2. Pair-work

The second most common way followed by the instructors to build a collaborative learning environment is found to be *pair-work* including 15 sub-codes. The main pair-work activity carried out in class is interpreting an extract of the speech to each other before presenting the actual interpreting performance to the instructor.

*"The first (*step*) is interpreting for each other as a pair-work. Practice on this paragraph, interpret this part to each other" (I-1).*

*"Before reading (*from their notes*), they practice with their peers and get their feedback" (I-26).*

*"They start with pair-work. I ask them to practice with each other, complete the missing parts and then stand in front of the board to present" (I-15).*

*"At first, they discuss with each other and complete the missing parts of their interpreting. Then, they present in front of the class" (I-6).*

Accordingly, the first aim of pair-work in interpreting classes is to make students comfortable and confident by practicing with peers for the first time; checking the quality of their interpreting performance in terms of completeness and accuracy; observing their peer's performance, and learning from them:

*"First we watch 3-4 min videos. Then, they reproduce from their notes together. Pairs help each other to complete the interpreting" (I-16).*

Terminology extraction is another practice that is used with pair-work:

*"First, I ask students to pair up. Let's assume we have a title of the topic (*to be interpreted*), I ask students to prepare terminology. In this way, they extract the terms that they expect to encounter" (I-2).*

It is noteworthy that the instructors define these pair-work activities with the verbs such as "discuss, practice together, help each other, etc." rather than finding out the errors. Unlike peer assessment which is used as a tool to point out the errors of the performing student, pair-work on a given task enables students to learn from each other and perfect their performance as a small team. At this point, the grouping of students by the instructors according to their linguistic or interpreting skill levels may be a good option to ensure the ultimate target of the pair-work activities, which is learning from a peer by observing. I-1 makes a specific focus on pairing students up considering their levels to ensure some students learn from more skillful pairs, thus maximizing the positive impact of pair-work:

*"I do not put three close friends into one group. Instead, I put a student with lower potential among those who can achieve more, so I aim to ensure that student's achievement as well. I do not let them free in grouping" (I-1).*

Another aim is to provide students with boothmate principles which are indispensable in SI. As a simulation of real-work SI conditions, interpreting in pairs in booths is also a significant example of pair-work:

*"We get a conference from Youtube and interpret it. All the students have their pairs (*in the booth*). They also have a backup partner. They get into booth always with the same partner" (I-18).*

Boothmates are actively involved in SI processes and cooperate with the performing interpreter by taking notes, using a dictionary/glossary, etc., where necessary. Unlike other pair-work activities, interpreting with a boothmate mainly targets teaching booth etiquette (assisting the mate with dates, names, numbers, learning how to take turns, last-minute preparation, etc.) rather than observing and learning the main interpreting skills from the performing pair:

*" I want students to experience being boothmates, they need to learn about writing for each other and helping each other" (I-4).*

In this sense, working-with-boothmate activities are taught as an auxiliary skill as recommended by Chimel (2008). I-25 makes a distinction between different training levels in interpreting with a boothmate:

*"In early stages, they work alone in the booth. Later on, they get into the booth in pairs to learn getting help from the boothmate" (I-25).*

Accordingly, the main purpose of the training is to equip students with the fundamental interpreting skills individually, and the cooperative activity of working as boothmates is the secondary purpose.

#### 4.2.1.2.1.3. Presentation

Presentation was found among the collaborative learning activities applied in interpreting classes. This primarily aims to improve the public speaking skills of students. I-25 involves the aim of improving current issues and world knowledge in the learning process:

*"We also have a news presentation. Each week, we have a volunteer student who presents and summarizes the news of the week in the world and Turkey by reflecting the register and style with the language of news. They try to make more appropriate sentences and we get informed about the current issues. The topic is not limited to politics, but includes sports, economy, music, and art… This is not interpreted. First, we listen to news scans which may last up to 20 minutes because we discuss terminology. Then, students may ask questions and offer parallel or conflicting news to discuss further" (I-25).*

This activity, news presentation as the instructor calls it, sets a useful example of improving interpreting students' knowledge of current issues and world knowledge, which are among significant interpreting competences. Despite the common approach of the instructors to hold students responsible for improving their knowledge of the daily news, this approach creates an environment where students can share their knowledge, brainstorm on their learning and also acquire good public speaking skills by mimicking the news genre. I-14 adds interpreting as another goal into a similar activity:

*"In first weeks, they watch the news in Turkish and English. Then, they prepare pieces of news and present them in the class. Other students in the class interpret the news or take notes about them" (I-14).*

Along with news presentation and interpreting of the news, a more common procedure in presentation activity is as follows: One student or a group of students prepares a speech on a given topic and presents the speech in front of the class while other students or groups are taking notes and interpret the speech consecutively at the end. In this approach, students assume the role of not only interpreters but also speakers who need to learn about a topic and prepare a speech about it. Another advantage of this activity is that students may hear their friends speaking in different accents and speaking paces. However, I-12 draws attention to the drawback of prresentation and explains why she no longer applies this in her courses:

*"They used to present on the stage and interpret the speaker presenting. But, I no longer apply this because we had some problems in pronunciation, intonation, and comprehensibility… It was not fair to all students. Therefore, I prefer reading the speech text to be interpreted" (I-12).*

In real-life interpreting, interpreters are naturally expected to encounter many different speakers who have different language levels and accents, particularly in English due to the *lingua franca* status of the language. Presentation of students with different language levels and even with some linguistic and prosodic problems may also mimic real-life conditions and exemplify the true challenges to a future interpreter. However, as stated above, if the main goal of the interpreting courses is to equip students with basic language and interpreting skills, rather than preparing them to be in a real interpreting environment, this would only hamper the process of learning. In this approach of I-12, it can be seen that the student profile (e.g. foreign language proficiency, motivation) and the main target of the given training are determinants in the methods applied in interpreting classes.

**4.2.1.2.1.4. Group work**

Group work, which consists of more than two students, is found to be applied less common than pair-work, for preparing a glossary, working on it as a group, and creating a common glossary for the whole class:

*"First, they prepare a terminology and upload it to an Excel sheet on Google Drive. They support each other on a document and expand their terminology" (I-25).*

In this activity, whether students work individually on terminology or not, they can check their terms as well as others', correct their mistakes, and expand their knowledge while working as a team at the end. The final work of the glossary becomes the product of the joint efforts and contributions of the students.

**4.2.1.2.1.5. Role-play**

The use of role-play as a collaborative learning activity has been, though rarely, reported by the instructors. One instructor noted using role-play only in community interpreting courses while another reported using it in interpreting courses particularly to demonstrate the intercultural difference between Arabic-speaking countries:

"*I ask students to prepare case scenarios. Let's assume that you are working as an escort interpreter. You are in a hotel for a commercial meeting and there is nothing to eat for the breakfast. What would you do?... My students prepared scenarios and homework to analyze intercultural differences. Because there are differences in cuisine, dressing between the cultures of Morocco, Egypt, Tunisia, Jordan, and Libya" (I-3).*

### 4.2.1.2.2. Student involvement in material selection

Subject knowledge is a significant interpreting competence (Kalina, 2000), along with *ad-hoc* knowledge acquisition during the actual interpreting task (Gile, 2005). However, information-dense materials are not recommended in early interpreting training (Gile, 2005). Because the failure in such activities does not necessarily indicate a lack of knowledge of the subject matter. What's more, such materials hamper students' cognitive processing capacity.

In a similar vein, the participants of the study used their interpreting materials as a way to introduce fundamental terminology and concepts of a subject area to students, rather than seeing subject-matter knowledge as the ultimate goal of the course. In this study, the trainers reported that they select speech materials mostly in line with the students' interests, demands, and inadequacy to enable their participation in interpreting practices:

*"I determine subjects with the students. They are not only the topics I dictate, it is important to select those in which the students are interested. I write the suggested topics on the board" (I-19).*

Students' ideas are also valued for the duration that a certain subject is practiced. For instance, I-19 notes the flexibility in the syllabus based on students' demands:

*"Sometimes students recommend studying on an economics speech for one more week. Then, we can extend (*time for*) that subject area".*

Along with asking students about their interests, letting students experience as many subjects as possible in order to enable them to discover their interests is another approach:

*" In early weeks, I offer as many subjects as possible, so that students can prefer the areas they want to work in…. So that they can discover their areas of interest. Observing them through different subjects, I can see what they are interested in by their reactions" (I-22).*

In addition to the interests, weaknesses of students are also taken into consideration when involving them in material selection:

*"I always ask students if there is a certain field they feel weak in… Some groups take courses in limited areas and are insufficient in others such as law, economy, medicine, technology, etc. I select subjects from these areas" (I-23).*

I-25 narrates how students with self-awareness steer the material selection process:

*"I tell students that the next week's material will be about banking and finance. Then, students tell me that they have already practiced a lot on such materials and they have nothing new to acquire. Instead, they suggest technology as they have never studied such a material" (I-25)*

I-17 attracts attention to the high self-awareness of students in material subjects in courses as well. She also notes that her main focus is not teaching the subject matter, but interpreting skills via a subject only:

*"Some students suggest subjects based on their insufficiency. Some say we feel incompetent in sports. I would agree with the subject they offer because what we study is not the subject itself. The subject can be anything. What we focus on is skills rather than subject knowledge" (I-17).*

In the same manner, in order to provide students with more opportunities for practice in class rather than focusing on one subject or material, I-17 notes:

"*I immediately change the speech when I realize that that speech is not interesting or too hard for students" (I-17).*

I-9 highlights that there are trend subject areas in the interpreting market in certain periods and students need to study various materials. However, she still gives voice to students to add subjects to those offered by the trainer:

*"I give a list of the trend subjects of the conferences I attend at the beginning of the semester. These are the must subjects. Students can also add other subjects on which they want to practice. I can say that my share and students' share in material selection is %50-%50"(I-9).*

The common approach of the trainers is to involve students in the material selection process by asking for their recommendations on the subject matter to increase their motivation in participating in interpreting practices. Although students' selection of topics may depend on their inadequacy or interests in certain fields, the trainers' main concern is to keep students active in the interpreting practices regardless of the subject matter. Besides, the trainers still undertake the role of the selection of the practice texts or audiovisual material among the subjects suggested by students. This approach is compatible with the material selection suggestions of Li (2019) as well as Setton and Dawrant (2016) who suggest that trainers should select among the materials to be appropriate for the students' competences, particularly in the early stages of interpreter training.

#### 4.2.1.2.3. Improving self-awareness of students

The participants reported to target improving the self-awareness of students in their courses by guiding them to elicit their language-related issues in interpreting practices and realize their own learning progress. In this sense, the trainers get students involved in the learning environment through self-reflection, mostly at the end of the interpreting practices.

I-2 describes how the note-taking practice of consecutive interpreting students can be used as a way of awareness-raising towards learning:

*"In consecutive interpreting, I ask students to take their notes on a notebook, not random papers. In this way, each student can see the differences between the notes taken on the first day and the last day of the course, and observe their own learning process" (I-2).*

The participants highlighted the importance of students' self-awareness towards their learning progress particularly in receiving feedback:

*"The most problematic part for students is to accept criticism. The best solution to alleviate this is to support the student to recognize the problematic part" (I-24).*

As suggested by Moser-Mercer (2008), self-realization of the challenges by the student himself is considered to be more important than receiving feedback from trainer particularly in the earlier stages of interpreter training (p.60). In this regard, to ensure a more welcoming approach of students to the trainer's feedback on interpreting performance, first, students are guided to realize their own weaknesses and errors:

*"If there is a grammar error in interpreting. I do not interfere in students' interpreting and just ask them to try one more time. Until I warn a student about a grammar error, he already realizes and fixes it" (I-1)*

Self-awareness of particularly foreign language use is deemed crucial by Freihoff (1993) "as students will not always have access to instructors and native speakers and must learn to judge the quality of their performance independently" (cited in Sawyer, 2004, p.81). At this point, a student is encouraged to self-reflect on his language-related errors as the trainer guides him to repeat the erroneous sentence or phrase multiple times. The most common approach adopted by the trainers to improve the self-awareness of the students is oral self-assessment performed in a formative way. Typically, a student is asked to comment on their own performance at the end of each in-class interpreting activity:

*"A student finishes her performance. I ask her to assess herself. She may or may not find errors" (I-24).*

*"We apply self-criticism at the end of every performance. Students love this method. We observe that they get more comfortable and accept criticism more easily* (after self-criticism*)" (I-24).*

Self-assessment is usually followed by peer assessment and finalized by the trainer's feedback.

*"After the performance, a student makes a self-assessment about himself. Then, his peers make an assessment. If something is missing following the self- and peer assessment, I evaluate them at the end. This is a common procedure in every course" (I-25).*

*"Self-assessment is followed by peer assessment and then my feedback" (I-2).*

Along with oral and instant self-assessment at the end of the in-class performance, students are guided into out-of-class reflective writing practices as a solution to fossilized errors:

"I *encourage students to extract a profile of their performances and make a self-criticism" (I-21).*

*"They write their comments on their voice records of interpreting" (I-2).*

I-19 noted that enabling students to see their mistakes was a more effective way than telling them:

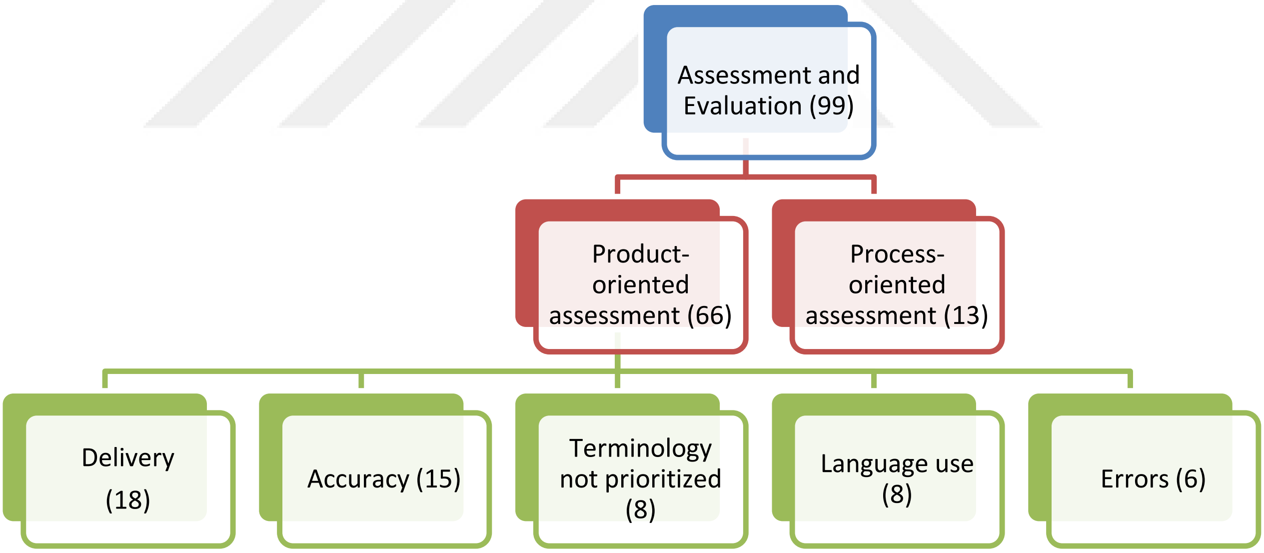
*"I asked students to record their interpreting, then to decipher their record. No matter how frequently you give feedback, they may not be hearing you. But, when they see their mistakes written in front of them, those mistakes just hit them. Two of my students, who could never fix their errors through feedback, overcame their problems by deciphering their interpreting. Because they have everything to fix their errors, they just need to realize" (I-19).*

As a key factor to enable learners to construct meaning based on their experiences in a constructivist approach, self-reflection is considered an important tool to promote learning and metacognitive skills (Coulson & Harvey, 2013), by improving both language awareness and learning autonomy (Alderson, 2005; Gonzalez, 2009; Horváth, 2007). In a similar vein, the formative assessment method based on students' self-comments only was found the most common way to incorporate self-reflection into interpreting class. Although continuous assessment improves student participation and engagement in interpreting classes, this practice is not strengthened with self-reflective journals, logs, or portfolios to further improve the self-reflective skills of students in a more organized and structured way. On the other hand, the awareness-raising practice defined and exemplified by the trainers as "self-assessment" does not entirely reflect an ideal. According to Han and Fan (2020), a practice in which students are asked to evaluate their own interpreting performance without identifying and establishing assessment criteria and being trained in using them should be referred to as "self-grading" or "self-marking" (p.111) rather than self-assessment.

In parallel, the participants apply this formative assessment method to steer students mostly on detecting their errors only rather than to guide students to use rubrics or assessment criteria (see Doğan et al. (2009); Su (2020), write down their thoughts and feelings (see Gibb, 1988; Lee, 2015), or using an ipsative method where students assess their performance in comparison to the previous performances, with an emphasis "placed on each student's progress and learning" (Gipps, 1994, p.42).

### 4.2.1.3. Assessment and evaluation

This sub-theme consists of two different codes, namely *product-oriented assessment*, and *process-oriented assessment*. The codes in question were formed based on the approach adopted by the trainers while assessing and the interpreting performance of students and determining the overall course evaluation.




Graph 4.8: The codes and sub-codes associated with the sub-theme *Assessment and Evaluation.*

#### 4.2.1.3.1. Product-oriented assessment

Formative assessment, which is frequently used in class for every possible interpreting performance along with the exams, stands out as an important element in interpreting classes. It is an indispensable part of the in-class content, yet the feedback and exam assessment criteria differ among the instructors. The findings indicate that the instructors apply a product-oriented assessment, which focuses on the evaluation of the completed interpreting performance by a variety of criteria more than a process-oriented assessment method.

Rating scales based on giving marks to different components of interpreting quality are used by a few instructors. Rubrics developed for interpreting quality in the literature are generally adopted and modified by these instructors for their courses and student profiles. On the other hand, the unstructured assessment method is preferred by the majority of the instructors:

*"I informally give feedback. For exam assessment, I have separate scales for consecutive and simultaneous interpreting that I compiled from the literature. Those scales have criteria of language use, content, accuracy, cohesion, and delivery" (I*-25).

In the literature, scholars have proposed the criteria of completeness, accuracy, intonation, voice projection, language use, and logical cohesion to ensure interpreting quality (Wang, et al. 2020). Similarly, the most commonly mentioned phenomena that lead to the emergence of product-oriented assessment codes in this study were *accuracy, delivery, terminology, language use, errors,* and *use of rubric*, respectively.

*"All components are equal to me, I cannot pick a more important one. I see all holistically" (I-4).*

*"In fact, prosody, accuracy, and all have equal weights. No matter how good is delivery, it is not good interpreting without accuracy. On the other hand, accuracy can be 100%, but there might be a problem if the delivery is insufficient…. A student may come up with the argument: 'But I interpreted everything!'. Yes you did, but how about the delivery, and rhetoric? Was there any grammar error, did you pick the rhetorically-appropriate terminology?" (I-19).*

Although some instructors reported giving equal weights to the components of interpreting assessment, the main pattern showed that most of the instructors focus on and prioritize certain components.

#### 4.2.1.3.1.1. Delivery

Delivery, as a broad concept, refers to communication skills including a pleasant voice, prosody (intonation, speech, and rhythm), accent, speech-rate, fluency, and so on as well as “the absence of long pauses, hesitation, false starts, fillers, excessive repairs or frequent self-corrections” (Lee, 2008, p.170). Although the instructors used the term ‘prosody’ for the delivery-related issues, the code was named *delivery,* because the prosodic elements that the participants touched upon referred to broader delivery-related issues. In this sense, the importance of delivery was discussed from two perspectives. On one side, it was considered the key factor in assessing students’ interpreting performance while on the other side, it was regarded as an expert skill to be acquired in later stages of the training or following the completion of formal training.

Some of the participants regarded delivery as the most important assessment criterion in an interpreting class that should be acquired by students during the training. Adopting a profession-oriented approach, they highlight the interpreting audience’s reception of the performance in a real-life setting:

*“My main criterion in giving feedback is the intonation and the way the student uses her voice. Because it is the most important thing” (I-9).*

*“I think those who do not attach importance to prosody, do not see this job from the perspective of the audience. What evaluates an interpreter is prosody in fact, not even the content. Prosody is the evaluation dimension. It is about how your interpreting is reflected* (to the audience)*” (I-21).*

*“Prosody is what makes you trustworthy or ruins the trust in you as a communication expert. If the interpreter speaks eloquently, her intonation is appropriate, the audience can understand and fulfill the reason d’etre of the interpreter” (I-17).*

On the other hand, most of the instructors including professional conference interpreters reported that they do not pay special attention to delivery. In line with the main target of instructors, which is to improve the basic skills of interpreting, delivery is considered a further skill to be acquired either in expertise courses or in the market.

*"First, all other skills should be established… Performance criteria such as tone of voice and intonation come at the end" (I-7).*

*"Until we get there* (delivery issues)*, there is a long way. When the student cannot even give the main message during the interpreting, eye contact in consecutive interpreting is a minor issue. I never deduce marks from such issues. I guess I keep my expectations low" (I-26).*

*"For me, hesitations and delivery-related problems are not a big deal. If the content is true, they* (delivery problems) *can be developed later" (I-2).*

This approach reflects the idea that delivery, and prosodic elements, in particular, are considered a more professional trait and unlike accuracy, which is the fundamental criterion, delivery is not necessarily focused on interpreting courses:

*"I always say that self-confidence in your voice is very important. But I did not force the students (*to improve delivery) *considering that professional interpreters will address this issue more in simultaneous interpreting and consecutive interpreting courses" (I-14).*

The key difference between these two approaches to the inclusion of delivery in the assessment can be related to the language competency of students. As stated by I-26 above, trainers, who need to deal with language-related issues, which lead to comprehension problems and inaccurate rendering of the content, may not find enough time to polish delivery issues. The structure of compulsory and introductory interpreting courses that host a high number of students may also diminish delivery-oriented feedback given by the trainers. Because in such courses, trainers like I-14 may feel the urge to lay the ground for the basic interpreting skills which focus on content accuracy and leave delivery as a professional issue to be addressed in expertise courses offered to voluntary students only with a more profession-oriented approach.

**4.2.1.3.1.2 Accuracy**

Accurate rendition of the source message is put forth as the main component of both in-class feedback and exam scoring for most of the instructors:

*"I give the highest score to the transfer of the message…. The accurate and appropriate transfer of the message" (I-24).*

*"If the message is transferred inaccurately, I directly intervene. For example, if the student interpreted the negative meaning as positive or confused the cause-effect relation, in such cases, I intervene" (I-14).*

The emphasis that the instructors particularly made was on the comprehensibility of the interpreted message in line with the goals of the speaker rather than strict fidelity to the words or phrases uttered:

*"Accurate transfer of the message is the most important. You may know the terminology well, but the audience may not understand you" (I-28).*

In this scope, accuracy is considered to be achieved as long as the interpretation is free of the inaccurate message rather than omissions and/or missing information. The fidelity in question is towards the message rather than the style, and accurate interpretation is prioritized over complete interpretation:

*"What dislike most and I intervene in is when the accuracy is not achieved. The student may omit something, may forget to add some information, may make mistakes with the numbers… these can be fixed. But accuracy is the most important. If the meaning is transferred completely, it does not matter if the student makes this with 5 or 3 sentences" (I-1).*

*"The interpretation can be incomplete, but can a student make it up? It is possible to make up terms and dates* (when they are omitted). *You can interpret incompletely, but you cannot interpret inaccurately" (I-15).*

A common pattern among the instructors while discussing the important criteria for assessment and feedback under the code of accuracy is the evaluation of the interpreted message as a product.

The interpreting performance is the end-product for the audience in real life. In a learning environment, the instructors seem to adopt a similar approach to the performances of the students. In this case, it can be asserted that the instructors adopt a profession-oriented assessment focusing on the quality of the product unlike the suggestion of Gile (2001) to begin with a process-oriented assessment in the early interpreter training[9]. On the other hand, professional focus in the assessment process may have adverse impacts from the pedagogical standpoint on tracking students' progress and effectiveness of the training unless the student's standpoint is taken into consideration (Choi, 2006). Besides, the concept accuracy, as referred to by the participants, compasses the presence of mistranslation only, overlooking completeness elements such as addition and omission. The prioritization of detecting mistranslation over the completeness of the interpreting product indicates that error marking is the standpoint for the assessment in interpreting classes. Accuracy at this point also refers to content accuracy as linguistic accuracy is overlooked by some instructors and linguistic errors do not cause any mark deduction:

*"As long as they interpret the message, I do not mind little grammar errors. If the meaning is interpreted accurately with a grammar error, I give full score despite the error" (I-16).*

Besides, this attitude of the instructors in assessment and feedback procedures can be interpreted as their relatively low expectations from the students, who are not expected to give the full meaning. They are primarily expected not to make major content mistakes. Further elements of the interpreting quality are also attached to expertise courses:

*"I only paid attention to accuracy for sight translation course. Intonation issues should be dealt with in simultaneous interpreting course…" (I-13).*

This approach also shows that the instructors focus on the basic skills of interpreting such as comprehension and reformulation, considering delivery as an expertise issue that should be addressed later in expertise courses.

**4.2.1.3.1.3. Terminology not prioritized**

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[9] see 3.1.2.3. Asessment and Evaluation Practices

Terminology is an important part of quality in interpreting. Apart from being an indispensable component of the accuracy of the message, accurate use of terminology is also closely associated with the audience's trust in the interpreting service received. Gile (2009a) highlights that "correct terminology inspires confidence and incorrect terminology breeds distrust in the interpreter's expertise and reliability" (p.96).

Terminology has been a commonly discussed component of assessment and feedback processes throughout the interviews. However, it was particularly discussed as a non-primary element in assessment criteria or it was deliberately eliminated from the practice materials:

*"We did not practice on terminology-intensive texts. If the students cannot transfer the very basic terms, I deduce marks of course" (I-11).*

*"Terminology is not important in the first stage. I teach students how to interpret without terminology" (I-21).*

The elimination of terminology-intensive materials during interpreting courses indicates that basic skills of interpreting such as listening and comprehending the source message and reformulating in the target language are prioritized. This leads the instructors to use more simple and non-technical speech materials/texts for the practice[10], thus overlooking the terminology used during the in-class and exam assessments:

*"Accurate transfer of the message is the most important. You may know the terminology very well but the audience may not understand you. As long as the message is inaccurate, terminology makes no sense" (I-18).*

In a similar vein, interpreter training at the undergraduate level seems to deal with students' good comprehension and accurate rendition of the message rather than further expertise issues:

[10] see 4.2.1.1. Basic skills

*"In terms of terminology…. I do not mind little errors like the use of equivalent words, different words or lightening the meaning. I do not mention these errors not to demoralize students" (I-14).*

In parallel with the delivery, terminology use is also associated with expertise, which is expected to be achieved later in professional life:

*"I may make compromises with the missing parts… They may not comprehend fully…they may not know* (the term) *at that moment if they do not study the text. In professional life, they will have a certain topic and extract terminology by themselves. Our texts are different for each week…" (I-6).*

As discussed above, assessment of terminology is not prioritized in interpreting class as the focus of the trainers is on the content accuracy of the rendered message. Besides, the terminology is domain-specific knowledge while the undergraduate interpreter training offered does not target domain-specific expertise. Therefore, terminology knowledge and accurate use of terminology are believed to be acquired eventually in professional settings.

#### 4.2.1.3.1.4. Language use

*Language use* of students, particularly referring to foreign language use, has been a key code under the sub-theme of *Assessment and Evaluation*. Good command of mother tongue and foreign language is a non-disputable prerequisite of any interpreting activity. In this line, language mastery is also a prerequisite for admission to a T&I program. Gile (2009a) notes that incompetence in language use should never be a case in a theoretical ideal world of training while the reality can be quite different. The trainers elaborated on their expectations from students, and their approach to evaluating language use in the class and exams:

*"Language level should be at a certain level, where students do not make any grammar mistakes or make very few mistakes at least in speaking. Of course, we will add terminology and subjects from law, economy, and politics to that (*language use*). More importantly, we will add conference phraseology. This is also our duty. But, if I focus on the subject-verb agreement in the fourth*

*grade, this means that the learning environment is not suitable for interpreting…Still, I would never accept to turn interpreting courses into foreign language courses" (I-25).*

On the other hand, the assumption that all students in interpreting classes have good language use skills may not always be reflected in reality. In Turkish programs as well, insufficient foreign language use of students causes a barrier to the fulfillment of the training expectations. I-25 attracts attention to that prerequisite, saying that interpreter training is hampered otherwise. On the other hand, it can be seen that as an interpreter trainer, she does not undertake the role of teaching the foreign language or improving the basic language skills of the interpreting students. Instead, she asserts that it should be the student's responsibility to improve foreign language skills:

*"… I would suggest students apply to Erasmus for a year, graduate from the written translation track of the program, and go abroad because they have such a great talent and will. They need to improve language skills and do this job" (I-25).*

In a similar vein, I-22 completely disassociates language use skills and levels of students from teaching interpreting:

*"I am not a grammar teacher. I would never teach students grammar… I may teach theory, I may teach terminology. But the language is their responsibility and I would never deduce mark from language use mistakes" (I-22).*

Accordingly, she does not include language use as a valid component in interpreting quality assessment and undertakes the full responsibility of language skills to the students. Similarly, I-16 believes that language use should not be the focal point in interpreting courses and assessment processes. Although it is an indispensable component of interpreting courses, the trainer tends to not put language competency in the center:

*"As long as the meaning is accurate, I do not deduce marks from little grammar errors…. If we deduce a mark from every grammar error in exams (*there would be lots of mark deductions*)…. This is not a grammar course. This is not the course where grammar errors should be evaluated" (I-16).*

Adopting a similar approach, I-26 also draws a thick line between encouraging students to improve their linguistic skills and undertaking responsibility in teaching them fundamental language rules and skills. In parallel, I-21 narrates how she motivated her student who failed in an interpreting course due to language-related issues:

*"This morning I texted my student: My dear, you failed but you need to do these things to fix your errors until the make-up exam. Your language level is very low. Then, I asked questions adjusted to his level, to enable him to activate his brain. I found texts from the subjects without information gap" (I-21).*

As presented from the excerpts above, the trainers do not extend their roles to improving language use, which is perceived as students' responsibility. In parallel, language use is overlooked while marking exams. Instead, they encourage students to take action to improve their foreign language skills. On the other hand, limited language use of interpreting students causes problems in the teaching of skills. As suggested by Setton and Dawrant (2016), the lack of sufficient level of language proficiency and knowledge causes frustration and waste of efforts in training programs, and "skills training cannot even begin without solid language proficiency, and there is a limit to the amount of improvement that can be expected in the one or two years available" (p.215).

#### 4.2.1.3.1.5. Errors

In all different assessment criteria such as accuracy, delivery, terminology, and language use, error-marking emerged as the focal point of the trainers. While giving feedback and marking the exam, the instructors primarily check the errors of the students during the performance. This shows that the interpretation of students is considered a product, which can be evaluated as the final form of the performance, knowledge, and skills of the learners:

*"In student-based performance assessment, I ask students 'you have interpreted like that, but what about this option? Could you say it differently?' Or, if many students make the same mistake, I make a general assessment and warn students 'do not use past perfect tense, do not report the words of the speaker'" (I-24).*

*"I ask general questions to the class (*about a student's interpreting*) such as 'Was there something missing or inaccurate?... Then I give general feedback, 'you could have said like this in that part, you missed that part, etc.'" (I-8).*

Accordingly, a product-oriented assessment process based on error-marking is applied more commonly. In this assessment method, the learning process of students is not addressed elaborately, and students' performances are marked based on certain criteria such as accuracy, delivery, language use, and possible errors rather than the progress the students have made from the beginning.

#### 4.2.1.3.2. Process-oriented assessment

Unlike the direct intervention of the instructor the product-oriented assessment, students' inaccurate or inappropriate choices are not directly pointed out and corrected by the instructors in a process-oriented assessment. Instead, a student is encouraged to elicit them, justify their decisions and fix their errors or complete the missing part, by questioning the choices of the student in a communicative context by asking;

> How do you think the reader will react to that? Do you not think that term X will be easier to understand than term Y? Do you feel the speaker would recognize the idea as you have interpreted it, with the particular connotation contributed by term Z? (Gile, 2009a, p.47)

A relatively low number of trainers described their assessment and feedback processes as process-oriented. Instead of marking and evaluating the interpretation as a final product, these trainers pay greater attention to the learning process and the tasks carried out by the students.

The first sub-code of process-oriented assessment is *fixing language-use mistakes*. The participants who reported fixing language-use mistakes of students during interpreting do it as a part of students' education process, not necessarily for the sake of interpreting. Accordingly, those who fix language-related mistakes of students do not attempt to improve the quality of interpreting performance as a product. Instead, they aim to improve the overall language skills of students based on their interpreting. Here, the rendering of students is considered as the ultimate product, but a learning process through which linguistic skills can be improved. Even more, I-26 and I-10 point to the importance of improving students' language skills in different career paths other than interpreting as well:

*"I do not only think of students as future interpreters but to train them in the best way. Even if they become teachers… I need to fix a grammar mistake when I see it. Otherwise, she might transfer that pronunciation error to her students. If she doesn't know public speaking rules, she can't be a good teacher. I look from a broad perspective" (I-26).*

*"I think we must fix language errors. We do not have students with high language skills. We need to train them as well as possible in 4 years. Not all of them become interpreters. Most of them work as teachers and teach English" (I-10).*

From a different perspective, I-24 draws a line between teaching language and fixing linguistic problems not to hamper the comprehension stage of interpreting:

*"We are not language teachers, we do not teach language in courses but we fix linguistic mistakes. My aim in doing so is not to teach language. But, it is very important because comprehension problems arise from linguistic reasons most of the time" (I-24).*

The stance of I-24 can be a sample for demonstrating a process-oriented approach in interpreter training as she touches upon a key component of the interpreting process and the root cause of many errors, which is comprehension. Rather than evaluating the interpreting of students in terms of errors and marking those errors, she addresses the impacts of these errors in the interpreting process and aims to improve the overall learning process.

Providing feedback on the overall performance and appreciating the effort of students also demonstrate a process-oriented approach adopted by some trainers. I-22 describes her formative feedback process as giving feedback on the progress and participation of students in the course rather than evaluating the product:

*"In my course (*introduction to interpr*eting), what is really important to me is students' willingness. You can see how much they make effort. Did they complete the previous week's*

*practice at home? Did they have an out-of-class activity to improve themselves? Of course, it is a bit hard to reflect these into marking, but you can still see how active they are in the class" (I-22).*

Adopting a similar approach to I-22, another trainer I-10 gives weight to in-class practices and assignments as much as to exam scores, thus reflecting students' efforts in marking overall scores:

*"Process is more important to me than a product. I check if students make an effort to learn. Therefore, I give 20 points to the weekly assignments. I apply 2 quizzes, which make up another 20 points. They have group presentations and files for these, which make up 20 points. All class is interactive. Then I give a maximum of 20 points for midterm and 20 for the final exam" (I-10).*

In this evaluation method, in-class efforts of the students are included concretely in the evaluation scores and given equal weight with the exams evaluating the product of interpreting. Another method to involve the process of interpreter training in the evaluation is narrated by I-18 and I-12:

*"At the end of the semester, the SWOT analysis of each student emerges. One by one, I show students their strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats" (I-18).*

*"I use tables (*rubrics*) for each student. At the end of the semester, I take out these tables and tell students 'Look, you have done these in the first week. You have done these mistakes for weeks and I have warned you. Here, this week, you started to fix them' or 'you need to study on this issue'" (I-12).*

In this method, although a product-oriented assessment is made on each performance, the instructors use the rubrics as a portfolio for each student and elicit the process of the students in acquiring interpreting skills at the end of the semester rather than solely evaluating the final interpreting product.

Another common method applied in process-oriented assessment/feedback on interpreting is to evaluate interpreting in terms of strategy use. In this method, the interpreting performance is not defined as accurate, inaccurate, or missing, instead, students' choices are discussed and related strategies such as macroprocessing, segmentation, omission, etc. are offered and addressed. In this way, interpreting is addressed as a process through which students can put what they learned into practice:

*"I use strategies in every feedback, saying ' you used this strategy very well' or 'how did you forget this strategy', 'do you remember chunking?'. In higher levels, I do not give feedback on 'why did you leave your sentence incomplete?' or 'you could have saved that sentence'" (I-25).*

All in all, process-oriented assessment is applied through improving overall language skills through in-class feedback, evaluation of homework, quizzes, and other assignments, feedback on strategy use, and SWOT analysis on all interpreting performances of students.

#### 4.2.1.4 Customization

Under the theme of *Content*, the final sub-theme is *customization* as the need for customizing interpreter training for different student profiles, physical conditions, and expectations was a commonly discussed concept during the interview. The code includes the sub-codes of *different student profiles* and *one-to-one feedback*. The first sub-code, emerged as the reason for the customization while *one-to-one feedback* can be interpreted as the way that instructors follow to ensure customized training for the varying competences and expectations of the students.

##### 4.2.1.4.1. Different student profiles

The trainers reported different student profiles in interpreting classes either as a common problem or a frequently encountered phenomenon that requires special attention and effort to customize the training methods and approaches. The differences in student profiles mostly refer to different foreign language levels (speaking, vocabulary, etc.), memory skills, academic and professional motivation, and personality traits (socializing, stage fright, etc.):

*"Each student may have different needs with different levels. We cannot control it. Particularly in universities such as X, classrooms are very crowded" (I-19).*

*"In this case, education is not significant. Everyone is assumed to be at similar levels, but it does not happen in every condition…" (I-17).*

*"The living profiles of the students are very different. One is from an Agean province, another is from Çankırı. At first, I had a problem in socializing with them. An interpreter should be extrovert" (I-3).*

Individual differences between students' different skill sets were reported as an important part of interpreting classes, which requires a customized approach:

*"Some have better language analysis, some have strong memory... I bring customized recommendations" (I-24).*

*"I believe the individualized approach is the most useful.... Some students are really good at sight translation, some get better practice with shadowing, and some are good at speaking in front of their classmates. Therefore, the most useful way to observe students and offer customized practice to all" (I-5).*

*"Student-specific techniques should be definitely developed. For example, some students have problems with memory. Some students have problems with numbers, some students are not competent in English in some fields and need terminology work" (I-4).*

One factor that was mostly associated with the different student profiles is crowded classes. The high number of students who take interpreting courses can be seen as a natural cause of the compulsory status of such courses in the program. This leads to more variation in student skills and levels, thus requiring more customized training for students at different levels. Paradoxically, a crowded class population makes it harder for the trainer to prepare materials for different levels and offer customized feedback and suggestions in class:

*"There were around 64 students in my course Introduction to Interpreting, including those who came from different universities with Vertical Transfer Exam. Those students had different courses with different techniques. This mitigates the personal feedback only to the volunteers who share their performance " (I-17).*

*"It is very crowded. I try to take everyone to the booths and we only have two booths. Trying to listen to each student and offering feedback…. It is not possible in every course" (I-26).*

*"As for individual feedback, I wish we had fewer students…Then, I could evaluate every individual performance homework, and voice record. Most of the time I cannot listen to all the performances. In some weeks, I cannot listen to any" (I-17).*

*"It is not reasonable to give this course to 40 students. The willing students may never take a turn. You cannot give feedback to them, you cannot work on them" (I-8).*

Along with crowded classes, limited contact hours and compulsory interpreting courses were also reported as a major problem that diminishes the active participation of each student in practice. In this way, trainers also have limited time to focus on the needs of students who may need more help, and to offer a more customized course content to them:

"*The biggest problem is the crowded classes in interpreting courses. Maybe* (it is) *not* (the case) *in simultaneous interpreting, but in consecutive interpreting which is a compulsory course in the 3rd grade. We need to interpret with 50-60 students and it is very hard to involve every student as it is a practice-based course. Not everyone has the same practice chance" (I-26).*

*"Before the aptitude test, I had to give the simultaneous interpreting course with 27 students. The course hour was not enough to get everyone into booths in pairs. This is why the aptitude test is very important"(I-18).*

The trainers suggest decreasing the number of students in interpreting courses, ensuring that every student practices interpreting equally, giving individual feedback on every student's performance, ensuring peer assessment and peer-feedback, assessing and evaluating individual homework and out-of-class voice records, and following each student's progress throughout the training process. As for the expertise courses in interpreting, this can be ensured with an aptitude test. However, a screening procedure can only help for SI, CI, and sight interpreting, if these courses are offered as electives to the students who want expertise in conference interpreting. The preliminary introduction to interpreting courses are compulsory for all student population in programs. To improve the quality of these courses, the only solution offered was the quota limit on the student admission to the programs.

*"Number of students should be decreased. CoHE* (The Council of Higher Education) *should cut down on the quota" (I-15).*

*"To ensure in-class and out-of-class practices with peer feedback and general feedback, the student population should be ideally 12 in the class. So that we can move the training forward with individual feedback" (I-14).*

However, it was also reported that even the selection of students for expertise courses does not necessarily guarantee a homogenous distribution of the students. Yet, customization can be ensured more easily with fewer students:

*"The selection mechanism can be very different there (*in an aptitude test*). You may have 8-10 students with different levels. You need to apply a flexible program to get them all to a certain level" (I-19).*

Whether students were selected with a screening test or not, individual differences among the student population in interpreting classes are prevailing and impactful for the *Content.* These differences are addressed with customized and individualized suggestions and the attention of the instructor. To this end, instructors reported preferring a flexible curriculum rather than a pre-determined one:

*"You need to apply a flexible curriculum to move every student to a certain level. Therefore, the training should be flexible and based on student's needs" (I-19).*

*"Personal traits of the students should be taken into consideration when choosing topics" (I-3).*

#### 4.2.1.4.2. One-to-one feedback

Setton and Dawrant (2016) define feedback as a challenge to instructors as it primarily requires determining the cause of a possible problem such as "language comprehension; background or general knowledge; analysis and memory; noting technique; adaptation to the speaker's rhythm and changing discourse texture; linguistic issues in production; problems of translation proper; or issues with delivery, communicativity, or posture" (p.13). The detection of a problem in a student's interpreting definitely necessitates the careful observation of the student's progress throughout the classes. This can naturally be achieved in smaller populations. Therefore, one-to-one feedback stands out as the common approach of the instructors towards ensuring customized training for all in the interpreting classes unless the class population is crowded:

*"I definitely give feedback. I may move from individual to general feedback. But, I definitely try to listen to each student" (I-26).*

*"I give individual feedback following the self-assessment and peer assessment. I have around 4-5 students in the class, so I can give individual feedback to all" (I-25).*

*"Following the performance in consecutive or simultaneous interpreting…they have feedback from their peers and me" (I-23).*

Although individual and general feedback are given together after each interpreting performance, one-to-one feedback is  prioritized by the trainers:

*"While giving feedback, I immediately stop the student and ask "why did you use this word?" Then I correct the vocabulary and tell "you hesitated a lot in this part, what else could you do"?" (I-4).*

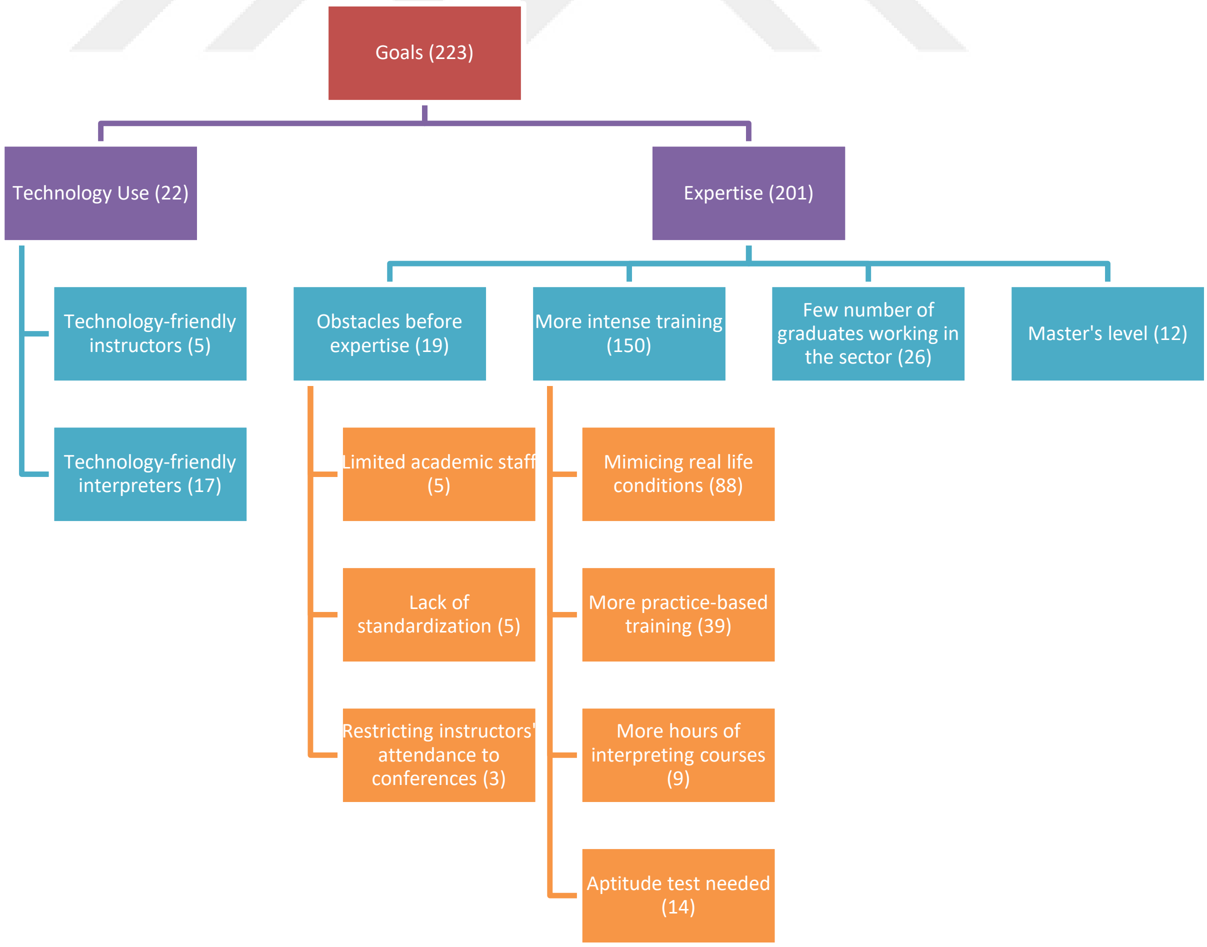
*"I stop the performance and tell the student to start over. Then I give feedback" (I-18).*

*"Then I give feedback if something is missing. You have forgotten this part or you could have taken notes for his part. Sometimes, they interpret perfectly, I give that positive feedback as well" (I-6)*

At this point, one-to-one feedback can be seen as a significant part of a customized approach to challenges facing students and their different needs. A well-designed interpreting course is known to involve all three types of feedback; peer-feedback, self-feedback, and trainer-feedback (Behr, 2015). Along with the benefits of other types, trainer-to-student feedback is particularly linked to the master-apprenticeship model (Ahrens, Beaton-Thome, & Rütten, 2021) and is considered indispensable when offered in a constructive and diagnostic way (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). In a similar vein, trainer-to-student feedback is perceived by the participants, as a must in interpreting classes to give customized suggestions to every performing student to improve their interpreting quality.

### 4.2.2. Goals

Throughout the interviews, the common challenges that hamper quality in current interpreter training, and amendments that should be done to overcome them as well as to improve training quality in the future were highly discussed and elaborated by the participants. Sub-themes, related codes, and the number of the codes associated with the theme *Goals* are illustrated below:



Graph 4.9: Sub-themes, codes, and sub-codes associated with the theme *Goals.*

The second theme of the analysis, *Goals* contains 223 codes and 2 main sub-themes, namely *technology use* and *expertise*.

#### 4.2.2.1. Technology use

In response to the question "Do you think the current training is sufficient now? If not, what kind of changes would you recommend?", participants commonly highlighted the need for more competent use of technology by both interpreter trainers and students. The use of technology in interpreter training was emphasized in two aspects. The first one is to improve the technology-use skills of instructors so that they can easily use current technological tools to integrate them into their courses. In this way, trainers can catch up with remote interpreting and artificial intelligence technologies in the interpreting market to teach technological advancement to their students. The second one is to train technology-friendly interpreters who can use the technological tools in the workplace easily.

##### 4.2.2.1.1. Technology-friendly instructors

The need for competent technology use regarding interpreter training has been even more striking with the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic, which turned on-site courses online. As the interviews were conducted under pandemic conditions, the participants touched upon the need for integrating online and hybrid teaching into a traditional face-to-face learning environment in the future. The need for teacher training in T&I programs for the efficient use of technology was noted:

*"Instructors should be definitely trained. They should learn how to actively integrate technologies into courses. Most instructors cannot use Moodle. Many things can be done with Zoom such as breakout rooms for interpreting. I think universities should train instructors. Young students are always a step ahead of their trainers" (I-10).*

Another participant, I-9 highlighted the importance of getting acquainted with the technological advancement and new settings such as RI before introducing these to students:

*"We used to carry heavy Oxford dictionaries to the conferences. Now, there is no need. Despite being more practical, these should be added to the coping strategies and multitasking skills. We, as educators, are responsible for improving these skills, because we need to make sure that our students are familiar with new settings along with conference rooms. But first, we need to get into such fields, we need to be competent in these fields so that students can navigate in such places safely. Soon, everything will be hybrid" (I-9).*

For a further future including artificial intelligence and more automized interpreting programs, trainers' technology-use skills and technology literacy have also been a key point discussed by the participants:

*"All recent articles discuss the progress of machine translation. If such a machine is developed* (for interpreting)*, we as instructors need to improve ourselves first, and then think about how to improve the current curricula" (I-6).*

Current technological tools that can be used in interpreting are categorized under computer-assisted interpreting tools (term banks, interpreting memory software), automatic interpreting tools (mobile and Web-based interpreting applications and programs), and process-oriented interpreting tools (digital pens and other note-taking applications, recording and achieving tools), tools used in interpreter training (booths, microphones, etc.) by Balkul and Akıncı (2019). The training of such current technologies, as well as the future technologies, can be incorporated into interpreting classrooms can be mainly achieved by skillful trainers who are capable of using these tools as pointed out by the trainers.

**4.2.2.1.2. Technology-friendly interpreters**

Getting students acquainted with the technologies being actively used in a real working context is an important aspect of constructivist learning. Under the working conditions of a real conference, interpreters ideally have access to the Internet and auxiliary documents throughout the interpreting activity. Incorporating these realistic elements into the learning environment would equip students with experience and knowledge of how to put research skills into the work. I-10 summarizes how she helps students to benefit from online sources in her courses:

*"I attach great importance to research. I always tell my students that they can use their cellphones during the course. We download all the online dictionaries and Google Translate, on our cellphones on the first day of the course. We actively use research techniques and technology. I think we can actively use online dictionaries because written dictionaries are not sufficient anymore (I-10).*

Apart from online dictionaries, the use of CAIT, mainly InterpretBank has been reported by 2 of the participants. The inclusion of training on technological tools such as CAIT and virtual reality in the curricula has been highly emphasized in regards to participants' suggestions for future training programs:

*"I think IT skills, which are not included in our curricula but taught with our efforts, should be acquired. These skills are about how to get into the booth on Zoom, how to use a term bank etc. Some developments remained in the R&D stage such as automatically extracting the terminology of the speaker to help the interpreter. Such IT skills should be added to the curriculum" (I-25).*

*"We can add simulation to our program. We try to implement role-play but people do not feel it. I believe role-playing can be supported via virtual reality. Today's students in particular are very open to such a digital experience, it is possible to achieve this. It is possible to make everything in a digital environment, where you can give feedback and they can practice" (I-17).*

Remote interpreting skills have been another focal point of the participants in their recommendations for the future. The participants highlighted the importance of RI as a new interpreting setting, which gained momentum through the pandemic conditions and is believed to be here to stay. It was recommended to add RI as a separate course into T&I programs in the near future:

*"I believe that remote interpreting can be incorporated into training. When everything gets normal (*after the pandemic*), employers will find remote interpreting easier. It has both advantages and disadvantages, and students need to experience this setting. Therefore, it should be added to the curriculum" (I-23).*

*"Remote interpreting has already been a part of the interpreting profession. Soon, we will see some initiatives towards remote interpreting in training as well" (I-7).*

Limited technology use in both the general sense and interpreting context has been highlighted as a common drawback of the current interpreter training. Therefore, the incorporation of technological tools in education to train technology-friendly interpreters has been the common recommendation of the participants for future interpreter training.

### 4.2.2.2. Expertise

The main pedagogical goal of the trainers for the future of interpreting programs manifested itself as acquiring students with expertise in interpreting, rather than with basic skills[11]. The current training mostly targets basic interpreting skills rather than training interpreters who can easily start working in the sector following graduation. The reasons why the goal of expertise, as defined by the participants, cannot be reached at the current status of interpreter training in Turkey have been collected under the codes of *obstacles before expertise* and *master's level* while the outcomes of the lack of expertise have been discussed under the code of *few number of graduates working in the market*, and the suggestions towards ensuring expertise have been collected under the code of *more intense training.*

Despite the lack of a precise definition of interpreting expertise, Moser-Mercer et al. (2000), assert that developing interpreting expertise depends on the acquisition of related sub-skills and processes regarding language processing such as language comprehension processes, activating both source and foreign languages simultaneously, and language production skills (p.107). Although the term 'expert' can be justly used for a student who has a T&I diploma, long years of experience are still needed to acquire actual expertise (Moser-Mercer et al., 2000, p.108). Setton and Dawrant (2016) put forth four different stages for mastery that can be followed in interpreting pedagogy, namely, Initiation, Coordination, Experimentation, and Consolidation. While teaching consecutive interpreting, for instance, students are expected to make sense by capturing the key point and acquire basic note-taking techniques in the Initiation phase; achieve

[11] See 4.2.1.1. Basic skills

completeness of information in the Coordination phase; ensure coherence in the Experimentation phase; and ensure all-around competence with improved accuracy and prosody on longer (3-5 mins) and harder speeches (authentic and domain-specific) in Consolidation phase (Setton & Dawrant, 2016). This level corresponds to the journeyman stage of Hoffman's classification where graduates are expected to complete an interpreting task in the booth (Sawyer, 2004). Considering the Consolidation or journeyman here as the final phase of the training, the participants of this thesis particularly noted that they cannot reach that phase to train experts. The term 'expert' as used by the participants, at this point, refers to that developmental level that interpreting students can show a quasi-professional input on authentic materials during courses and eventually sit in a booth or assume a professional consecutive interpreter role upon graduation. This level, although it should be evolved to fully-fledged professionalism through long years of experience, is not considered a reachable outcome under current circumstances. Instead, the participants report the realistic expectation from graduates is to acquire fundamental interpreting skills.

#### 4.2.2.2.1. Obstacles before expertise

The main obstacles before offering expertise interpreting skills in current interpreter training have been found as *limited academic staff, lack of standardization,* and *restricting instructors' attendance to conferences.*

*Limited academic staff* is the key reason why the current training cannot target getting students experts in interpreting. The high number of undergraduate programs in Turkey does not match the few doctorate programs in T&I that can raise the required academic personnel. It is primarily needed to train academic staff who are specialized in interpreting so that they can know how to improve undergraduate students' interpreting skills:

"*There are no students in some programs, and no instructors in others. I believe this can be overcome as new instructors are trained at doctorate level in interpreting*" (I-18).

*"In our department, there is no instructor who can teach interpreting courses, but me. I have very little experience in interpreting. However, I graduated from Hacettepe University and completed interpreting courses for a master's degree" (I-26).*

In T&I departments where all of the instructors' research and teaching interests are about translation and a high number of students are admitted, interpreting courses are not the favorite courses to teach:

*"Generally my colleagues do not want to teach this interpreting course. Besides, the exams of this course can be very challenging with 60-70 students. These exams sometimes last for a day. Therefore, no one is willing to teach" (I-26).*

Another participant attracts attention to the personnel-derived inequality in education quality by referring to the cognitive skills of students in different parts of the country:

*"Cognitive skills of students at better universities and those at rural universities are different. This is not related to children themselves. This is about the quality of the education they receive due to the lack of academic staff " (I-21).*

The fields of graduate education received by interpreter trainers can also be significant for the quality of education. Instructors who completed their graduate degrees in fields other than T&I may not have enough professional experience in interpreting. The lack of academic staff that is competent in interpreting leads to a more theoretical course flow rather than a practice-based one according to I-17:

*"There are some differences between being a graduate of T&I and of other fields. Coming from different Ecoles leads to differences in expectations. Professional experience* (in interpreting) *is also a determinant. When you experience something in practice, you know what is important and what can be a problem. Many people have to teach courses that they are not competent in. Because no instructor is specialized in that field and a compulsory course should be included in the program somehow. In such a case, that instructor studies before teaching that course. I worked at two different universities and I can tell that instructors, who have not graduated from T&I departments and have not worked long enough in this field, teach more theoretical information and less practice. This, in turn, reduces the efficacy of the courses and the acquisitions of the students that are needed for the market" (I-17).*

In this line, restricting the attendance of academic personnel, who teach interpreting courses, to conferences and meetings where they take part as interpreters aggravates the problem and disables instructors to increase their experience in the field:

*"I need to inform students about goals in education by showing them where they are getting prepared to… Otherwise, I cannot get a good result. When they restrict me from getting into the market, they restrict my students from getting into the market" (I-21).*

*"I have asked for the university administration's permission to work as an interpreter out of the university. I always wanted to gain experience as a practicing interpreter and instructor, but it is impossible when we are supposed to work 9-5" (I-8).*

Attendance of interpreter trainers in the real working environment as interpreters is desirable both for trainers to brush up on their interpreting skills, to catch up with the advancements in the sector, to maintain and build up networks; and for interpreter students to attend real interpreter-mediated environments to observe, learn and practice interpreting skills. To this end, I-21 calls for a substantial change in the university regulations to let interpreter instructors be active in the sector. I-8 recommends that interpreter trainers, who wish to gain experience in the field, can be paid to work as interpreters at university organizations. In the light of participants' views and experiences, it can be suggested that the expertise of instructors should be ensured through quality graduate programs in T&I as well as ensuring the professional interpreting experience of instructors to achieve teaching expertise interpreting courses at the undergraduate level.

Another key factor put forth by the participants in terms of obstacles before expertise was the lack of standardization. It was asserted that the short history of academic programs of T&I, limited graduate programs, and limited academic staff specialized in interpreting led to coincidental training programs and goals rather than structured ones. I-16 narrated how different goals and course activities can be among different universities based on her experience in the note-taking course as a compulsory course offered to all T&I students in the department:

*"For the note-taking course, one of my colleagues recommended to me some materials that he used in another university before. They were more like TOEFL preparation activities such as fill-in-the-blanks and listening activities. I did not think that note-taking is related to such activities.*

*He told me that he used these materials due to the high number of students. I also had a student from another university, and she told me that they used the same materials as I did in her previous education. Note-taking is a very fundamental course, I don't think such deep differences between material use is acceptable among universities" (I-16).*

In addition to course materials, the lack of standardization in assessment was also interpreted as a problematic point. The lack of standardization in performance evaluation has been reported in different studies (Durukan, 2018; Hatim & Mason, 1997; Moser-Mercer, 1994; Sawyer, 2004) leading to the adoption of different criteria by each institution and "impressionistic judgment" of the evaluators (Setton & Dawrant, 2016, p.382). I-12 suggests that standardization in assessment is a way to ensure fairness as well as standardization in the whole training process:

*"We are assessing students somewhat. Each department gives the same diploma, yet each instructor has a different way to teach a course. Everybody has different criteria and opinions, but the question is: Is every student going through the same training process? I believe it would be useful to get a standard and common ground in the training process" (I-12)*

In a similar vein, another participant asserts that standardized training can be achieved as interpreter training gains a status of a more structured discipline in time:

*"We should not proceed coincidentally. The structuring in the field is still underway. We still do not have a stable discipline that has decided on how to get things done…To ensure quality in higher education, programs should not be coincidental" (I-3).*

#### 4.2.2.2.2. Master's level

The lack of practitioners who teach interpreting courses was also reported as among the problems before expertise in the training. In compliance with the training principles of international organizations, mainly EMTS and AIIC, interpreting courses should be taught by professional conference interpreters with teaching skills at the postgraduate level. There is also a consensus that interpreter training should be at the postgraduate level and an interpreting course should be taught by a professional interpreter (Kurz, 2002). The non-compliance with these international standards and principles was noted by the participants as an obstacle before offering expertise training. To remove this key obstacle, I-7 suggests changing the whole educational structure for interpreter training in Turkey:

"*The practitioners should teach these courses. These are the EU's educational principles and AIIC's standards*" (I-7).

Along with professional interpreter instructors, another key component of intense and expertise training is master's level in line with the principles of conference interpreter training. I-25 defines a master's level of interpreter training as the ideal:

*"According to the training standards, students should graduate from postgraduate programs. These standards were set for a purpose. I once taught at the EMCI program which only willing students attend. You can shape students there. It is a very exciting process. (*The student*) has a very broad general knowledge gained with a bachelor's degree education and is ready to be shaped. That's the ideal" (I-25).*

The main suggestion of other trainers towards ensuring expertise in training is the master's level education as well:

*"I think this training should be at a postgraduate level rather than undergraduate as in Europe…I observe that people who have a bachelor's degree in a field and want to become conference interpreters have more success in the postgraduate program" (I-19).*

*"Interpreting can only be taught at the master's level" (I-7).*

*"Students are generally experts of a field at the undergraduate level and then receive conference interpreter training in a master's program abroad… In Turkey, these programs are limited to one or two. That's why we have some problems here" (I-2).*

Master's level was also considered as a tool to replace the traditional mentor system based on the master-apprenticeship relationship that long prevailed in interpreter training in the absence of university-level training:

*"In the past, there was no master's program and a high number of interpreters. Therefore, skilled people could become conference interpreters upon graduation by attending conferences along with an expert. Now, there are master programs" (I-26).*

Bearing in mind the current deficiencies of undergraduate interpreting programs, I-26 notes how to ensure expertise in lack of a master's training:

*"That's the ideal. But I cannot say it is a prerequisite. There are very good undergraduate programs (*in Turkey*). If the graduates attend conferences, take notes, and improve their knowledge and manners, why not?" (I-25).*

Adopting a similar approach, I-26 highlights the necessity of master's level education to be a conference interpreter while drawing a line between training staff interpreters and conference interpreters. She suggests that the lack of a master's degree in interpreting can only be compensated with self-improvement following the acquisition of a bachelor's degree:

*"After undergraduate training, you should be able to undertake interpreting tasks at your workplace. But, if you want to become a conference interpreter, you need to improve yourselves after the undergraduate courses or you should attend master's level programs…Because students do not reach that capacity after undergraduate training" (I-26).*

Like I-26, I-4 and I-24 also suggest that graduate interpreters are usually employed as staff interpreters, but not conference interpreters:

*"Without a master's program, the employment in the conference interpreting sector is very weak. This is also related to market dynamics. But I can say 100% percent of our graduates are now working as staff interpreters at ministries and other official institutions" (I-4).*

*"We definitely steer students to get master's level if they want to become conference interpreters" (I-24).*

Accordingly, postgraduate training is considered indispensable for getting expertise in conference interpreting in parallel with EMTS and AIIC principles. In Weber (1989/2008)'s words "ideal candidates for conference interpretation already hold a university degree" (p.14). However, graduates of undergraduate programs can be considered competent enough to work as staff interpreters. I-4 explains why their program targets training staff interpreters rather than conference interpreters by focusing on the uncertainty factor in conference environments:

*"A staff interpreter can work in stable subject areas. But conference interpreting is full of uncertainty, a student cannot be ready for such an environment without a master's degree. Therefore, undergraduate interpreter training can only target training staff interpreters" (I-4).*

Considering all the statements collected under this code, it can be suggested that the undergraduate status of the current training itself is one of the strongest reasons why expertise training cannot be offered in the first place along with the obstacles discussed under Section 4.2.2.2.1. Weber (1989/2008) criticizes the undergraduate level training for conflicting with the professional association of conference interpreting suggesting that offering interpreting courses "on an undergraduate level adds to the suspicion that the academic establishment naturally harbors against our profession and its teaching within their "sacred walls"" (p.9). In line with this criticism, moving the training to the postgraduate level as required by the international standards of the profession is the primary suggestion of trainers to ensure expertise-based conference interpreting training.

From a different perspective, on the other hand, some participants like I-21, I-11, I-25, I-7, and I-19 highlight the importance of sustaining the master-apprenticeship tradition along with undergraduate level training to compensate for the lack of master's level programs:

*"If language command is good, students can advance by practicing next to experts. If they had a good (*undergraduate*) education, they can be more competent" (I-21).*

*"Our profession develops with master-apprenticeship relation to an extend" (I-19).*

*"If possible, I suggest all trainers match their interpreting students with professional interpreters as masters and apprentices. In this way, students can get into booths, get feedback and take notes, etc." (I-11).*

Accordingly, master-apprenticeship relation to be built by trainers and interpreting programs between students and professional interpreters is put forth as a solution to fill the gap between undergraduate and master's level programs. This solution is believed to get students to acquire intense training, -feedback, and –observation opportunities in real working conditions which cannot be necessarily ensured in undergraduate training and cannot be easily reached due to the scarce postgraduate programs in Turkey.

#### 4.2.2.2.3. Few number of graduates working in the sector

Under the sub-theme of *Expertise*, few number of graduates of T&I in the interpreting market has been a key element indicating the outcome of the interpreter training in Turkey. Regardless of the target of T&I programs and interpreting courses, whether they target training conference and staff interpreters through interpreting courses or acquiring students with fundamental interpreting skills that can be useful and transferable in other fields of work as well, the number of graduates who are employed as interpreters was reported to be few.  Despite the high number of departments and interpreting courses offered as compulsory courses in some departments, this few number can be an important point to consider while discussing the need for expertise, as put forth by the participants, in interpreter training.

The questions "Do you think your interpreting course aims to train future interpreters in the interpreting sector? How many of your graduates work as interpreters?" were added to the interview form after the interviews started. During early interviews, every participant highlighted the importance of training students for the interpreting market. Thus, the question was asked to steer the participants to reflect on such a goal of interpreting courses, their achievements, and outcome. The findings were interesting because the answers; "*Not many, not more than 1 or 2*" (I-18), "*Maximum 3 of 20 students in an interpreting course can be active in the sector*" (I-5), "*3-4 in last 2 years*" (I-2) were common.

The employment of graduates is surely not the single indicator of the quality or target of an education program. The participants highlighted the significant (un)employability factors in interpreting such as "*national economy, narrowing sector, big companies dominating the market, low-wage for beginners*" (I-2), "*yearly sector dynamics*" (I-4), "*graduates' incapability to compete against well-known interpreting companies*" (I-18).

Taking a stand from these factors, some instructors shared that their goal is not to train interpreters, but to equip students with interpreting skills, as transferable skills:

*"These courses are not necessarily about the sector. These skills are main life skills such as communication skills, teamwork, note-taking, and so on, that can be used in many fields of life other than interpreting. Therefore, my stance is more realistic. I do not claim to train interpreters"* (I-26).

The other stance on this issue was perceiving few number of graduates working as interpreters as a sensible reason to offer expertise-based training to only a few students during undergraduate training:

*"Among my peers, only I have become a conference interpreter. This should not be the case. Students get disappointed. Very very few people can be trained instead" (I-4).*

"*Only 6 of more than 400 graduates work as interpreters. These 6 graduates are not even active, they are part-time interpreters working for extra income. None of our graduates has worked as* *interpreters actively. Therefore, I think this training should be offered to a fewer number of students in a more intense way and they should be trained with a market-oriented approach" (I-8).*

Considering all the reasons put forth by the trainers above, the low interest of graduates in the interpreting profession may be evaluated in curriculum development in T&I departments. Particularly, the compulsory status of interpreting courses should be reconsidered and the design of interpreting courses should be discussed again to target market-oriented skills or transferable skills based on these findings and the profiles of the graduates at every T&I program.

As Gile (2005) points out, SI in particular should not be taught to students who will not be doing conference interpreting as it "may actually be counterproductive in letting them slip back into word-for-word transcoding" (p. 148). SI is a highly specific skill that (unlike consecutive) is of little or no value to individuals who will go on to other careers. Also, teaching SI to these students may encourage them to seek conference interpreting assignments without the necessary qualifications (Gile, 2005).

For instance, students who want expertise in different translation domains such as law translation, literary translation, medical translation, etc. may focus more on the targeted fields through more domain-specific translation courses rather than receiving compulsory and labor-intensive interpreting courses like CI and SI. The elective status of such interpreting courses, on the other hand, can be offered to the willing students only by giving students more time to practice, and trainers to provide personalized feedback in the class avoiding the crowd of the whole class population, most of whom will not even consider practicing the interpreting profession.

#### 4.2.2.2.4. More intense training

As the reasons of the trainers for not being able to ensure expertise in undergraduate interpreter training could be summarized under a few titles, the need for ensuring expertise revealed more detailed answers. Accordingly, overcoming the deficiencies related to *limited academic staff* and *lack of standardization* is not enough alone to ensure expertise training. The holistic answer would be that *more intense training* is needed and the intensity of such an ideal training depends on a good number of factors. Suggestions of the participants towards improving the current interpreter training concentrated on offering more intense training, which can be divided into 4 sub-codes. These are *mimicking real-work conditions*, *more practice-based courses*, *aptitude test needed*, *more hours of interpreting courses*.

#### 4.2.2.2.4.1. Mimicking real-work conditions

*Mimicking real-work conditions* in interpreting classes has been put forward as the primary suggestion to improve the current interpreter training. To reflect a professional environment in the classroom, the key factor was manifested as offering market-driven subjects to interpreter students. In this way, students can get experience in working with the actual subjects being highly addressed in interpreter-mediated settings. In the same manner, the participants reported that they select subjects to be practiced in the class from the current sector dynamics:

*"Before selecting a subject for practice, I check the current meeting topics in the sector"* (I-18).

*"Cosmetics and product advertisements are our main topics to practice on. Because these are the main subject areas that need Arabic interpreting in the field* (I-3).

In addition to focusing on market-driven subjects as primary practice materials, exposing students to a variety of texts and subject areas was also reported as an important acquisition of intense training:

"*It is necessary for students to practice with as many subjects as possible"* (I-5).

"*We have studied almost every topic including reputation management and entomology*" (I-18).

This approach, particularly adopted at earlier stages of training such as in the introduction to interpreting course, aims to enable students to experience as many subjects as possible to let them discover the areas they are interested in and their possible expertise domains for further stages:

*"I actually offer them* (students) *a wide range of subjects rather than progressing on a specific area. Because I teach an introductory course. During two semesters of the introduction to interpreting course, I try to let students experience every subject area so that they can later prefer the field they want to be an expert in and they can discover their interests….. In interpreting, you need to select your own area quickly" (I-22).*

Introducing only the topic to students rather than the full speeches/texts is another way commonly used and suggested by the participants in order to better reflect the working conditions of interpreters, equip students with research and conference-preparation skills and prevent their memorization of the previously offered materials:

"*I share a conference program with students. They can see only speech titles on the program. I ask them to pair up and prepare a glossary based on a speech title. In this way, students study on the terms that they think encountering during interpreting in class"* (I-2).

"*A week before, I share the subject with students and tell them that next week we will be working on this topic and the conference program have not reached us yet. Please make a preliminary preparation such as a parallel text study or parallel video study if the speaker's name is known. Please listen to other speeches of the same speaker, and prepare the terminology of the given topics" (I-9).*

Particularly in further stages of interpreter training as in SI course, previous exposure to the exact practice material is prevented:

"*At the beginning of the semester, we first study text before interpreting. As students gain more experience, we directly start interpreting the text. In SI, I make sure that students interpret a speech that they hear for the first time"* (I-17).

This approach of preventing multiple exposures to the same speech while practicing is in line with Seleskovitch (1989/2008)'s statement suggesting that "no single speech is ever interpreted twice in real life, so working over one speech in class is of little use" (p.73). In this sense, the first-time encounter with the speech to be interpreted during the in-class practice could better reflect the real-life conditions.

Another important asset to ensure more intense training and acquire students with expertise in the field was reported as exposure to a real conference environment. Thus, learners can experience the real professional environment and prerequisites, possible challenges and opportunities offered firsthand. I-21, I-4, and I-8 consider this experience as a very valuable tool to boost students' self-awareness to undertake professional interpreter attitude and decide to become conference interpreters or not:

*"As students do not know which skills are needed in real work, they cannot possibly know (*how to strive to get these skills*) it. Because they have never been in a real conference environment" (I-21).*

*"They definitely need to see the real environment. A few of my students, who wanted to be conference interpreters, gave up upon seeing a conference environment and booths"(I-4).*

*"They still report rather than interpret no matter how many times I warn them. They still did not adopt the idea of being interpreter because they have never been to a real conference environment" (I-4).*

Attending a real conference environment enables students to observe strategies adopted by interpreters and to fill the gap between the artificial class environment and the actual world:

*"Students should attend as many conferences as possible and learn the conference language, which is different than our language in class…. Because none of us can interpret perfectly all the time and coping tactics and strategies are very important at this point. They need to observe such solutions as well*" (I-25).

The concept of conference language as a wholly professional attitude can be observed by student interpreters as suggested by I-25. Furthermore, extending formal training to real conferences has been another suggestion to learn this specific language, to ensure more intense training and thus, expertise.

The participants who consider undergraduate training insufficient for expertise asserted that getting expertise in the field is a significant part of interpreter training and it should be ensured by extending the scope of the training offered. Although the internship is a must before graduation from T&I departments, I-22 suggests the period and the scope of the current internship should be revised to ensure expertise:

*"I believe the training should be extended one more year, just like* (medical*) interns, they should get their diploma after actively working in the market. They have to work for a year in practice… I do not mean traditional internship for interpreters, this is not enough"(I-22).*

A comparison of interpreting as a practice-based profession and training to the medical degree was made by I-18 and I-7 as well, to highlight the importance of getting involved in actual practice:

"*Most things are learned in practice, not at school. Medical doctors receive six years of education, yet this is not for expertise. They learn their field only after they select their expertise field and start working in that field"* (I-18).

"*A doctor also studies for years but comprehends how to get things done only when he holds a bistoury. Our practices should be more skills-oriented*" (I-7).

I-18 notes that being trained in interpreting does not guarantee one to become a good conference interpreter, which depends more on experience to be gained from working in the field:

"*I also remind students that you cannot go to a simultaneous interpreting event the next day of your graduation. This profession is not only learned through education but through getting into sector and the work itself*" (I-18).

Simulations are considered significant to let students experience real-work conditions under a safe and predictable classroom environment. In this regard, I-22 summarizes that simulations are the key to learning in the field of interpreting :

*"In our field, the best way to learn is to experience a market-compatible simulation. Rather than an imagination, experiencing and turning experience into practice is the best learning method as far as I observe with my students" (I-22).*

Simulations can be found as role-plays and mock conferences in interpreting pedagogy. In cases when exposure to a real conference environment is limited due to geographical conditions of the university where international conferences are not frequently held, mock conferences can offer the opportunity to mimic the real-world environment such as the use of technical equipment, and solidarity with boothmates, learning conference phraseology, etc.

"*In our interpreting laboratory, we hold mock conferences and students practice with boothmates"* (I-2).

Although exposure to interpreter-mediated conferences and simulations is considered key elements of interpreter training (Sawyer, 2004; Setton & Dawrant, 2016), the fulfillment of this exposure heavily depends on the physical means of the institution and the city where the university takes place. In programs admitting students without proper equipment for conference interpreter training such as laboratory, booths, microphone, and so on, students cannot experience situated learning practices. I-25 stresses the importance of physical means as follows:

"*We (*professional conference interpreters and members of the Turkish Conference Interpreters Association*) were invited as speakers to a program in Anatolia. The academic staff did not even have room to design a curriculum. I am talking about a department that was opened without physical means. There are also departments without necessary human resources. There are* *recognized interpreter training principles such as EMTS consortium. Such departments did not have proper means to apply these principles" (I-25).*

I-9 and I-15 address the lack of necessary physical equipment that hampers the quality of practice-based training in some of the programs:

*"First of all, the physical environment should be prepared for practice-based courses." (I-9).*

*"There is no laboratory, and academic staff is not sufficient. High-level authorities should be informed about the quality of interpreters. It should be addressed in every platform" (I-15).*

I-8, as a trainer without professional interpreting experience, narrates how her lack of professional experience has an adverse impact on the course and course acquisitions:

*"I believe the quality of a trainer is very important, for example, I am not an interpreter. Therefore, I feel incompetent at some points… because I cannot give clear, practical examples from the field. Instead, I have to invite some of my professional friends to share their experiences with students*" (I-8).

All in all, according to the abovementioned statements of the participants, the real-world working conditions of an interpreter can be carried to the class environment and interpreting laboratories in different ways. The first one is to choose practice materials among the market-driven subjects along with a wide range of domain-specific subjects. The second way is to let students practice a speech that is encountered at the moment of the interpreting exercise. In this way, students can acquire the conference preparation skills on a given topic only, rather than memorizing the full speech. The third one is to guide students to attend as many interpreting-mediated events to observe professional ethics, working conditions as well as interpreting strategies and tactics. The last one is to simulate the real-world conditions in class through role-plays and mock conferences, among situated-learning practices. This is particularly important for those who do not have the chance to attend real conferences and meetings.

The trainers believe that all these ways can ensure mimicking real-world conditions in a learning environment and create more intense training to ensure interpreting expertise during undergraduate interpreting courses. The main challenges before trainers to mimic real-work conditions in their classes were reported to derive from the insufficient physical structure of the

T&I departments and non-practicing trainers who are not experienced in working conditions of interpreting.

#### 4.2.2.2.4.2. More practice-based training

Expertise and intense training is also associated with providing practice-based training, which can help students experience as many speech types and genres as possible, cope with possible problems, receive feedback, and observe peers practicing:

*"For education to be effective, there should be lots of practice" (I-4).*

*"Interpreting can be learned just like an athlete improving his muscles. The more you practice, the better you get" (I-22).*

Recommendations of the trainers to involve more practice in the class are twofold. Firstly, class hours are found insufficient for plenty of practice:

"*Course hours should be increased to have more fields of practice*" (I-8).

Drawing attention to limited contact hours during the undergraduate program, I-14 recommends compensating in-class practices with out-of-class practices:

*"Practices can be increased, particularly out-of-class practices gain importance" (I-14).*

The second phenomenon related to more practice during training is class population:

*"We try to offer training based on practice and even close to real life as much as possible. The lower the number of students is, the more is the practice opportunity" (I-23).*

*"If the class population is around 12, it* (training) *can be moved to the advanced levels with increased one-to-one feedback" (I-14).*

The participants particularly touched upon the importance of laying grounds for theoretical information, which is then supported by plenty of in-class practices:

*"…contact with the real-life should be improved through a lot of practices. The theoretical background should be offered and then supported through practice" (I-21).*

Combining theory with practice leads to designing deliberate practice, which could be customized to the needs of students. In this sense, unlike I-22 likening interpreting practices to sports practices, I-17 makes a distinction between repetitive practices and deliberate practices strengthened with theory:

*"The practice is not practicing solely. Because we are not manufacturing shoes. For muscle strength, continuous practice is needed, not for us. For instance, shadowing… It can benefit only to an extent. If it is deliberate, you can apply one practice and have 8 different outcomes… Therefore, T&I training should feed both channels (*theory & practice*). Without practice and feedback, the desired changes in the behaviors and approaches of students may not be obtained. Without deliberate practice, a student cannot know why and how something is practiced" (I-17).*

The concept of deliberate practice, as addressed to be a key element of expertise by Ericsson (2000), has been well-adopted into interpreter training. Setton and Dawrant (2016) define deliberate practice as " highly targeted forms of individual training that focus on weak points, involve repetition and coaching" (p.84). On the other hand, in line with I-17's statement above, deliberate practice is what distinguishes a structured and skill-oriented practice from simply repeating the same exercise. In the context of interpreter training, students are expected to be involved in deliberate practice, be monitored by their trainers, and receive feedback to be able to evaluate their own performances (Moser-Mercer, 2008). At this point, trainers are expected to guide students to deliberate practice and theoretical lecturing before or along with practices also equips students with the knowledge of cognitive processes in interpreting activity to understand why they may have challenges throughout this activity while practicing:

*"They need theory to understand things. They need to know that, these (*cognitive processes*) are not automatic, and many processes are involved and can be affected by even tiny changes… I try to give examples to support practices" (I-24).*

The common approach in reflecting the marriage of theory and practice in interpreting classes was found to offer a theoretical background in the first few weeks of the semester as introductory information, and then sustain practices based on the theoretical framework:

*"I teach theory, but we can call it a light theory. Because the aim of theories is to explain things such as word-for-word translation is not needed, Effort Model, etc. The theory instruction I teach is not at the graduate level"* (I-24).

*"I always believe that students can learn via sink-and-soak. I believe such theoretical training is a waste of time. It can be offered a little bit but should be completed during* (the course titled)

*introduction to interpreting. Students should find these* (pieces of information) *by getting involved* (in practice)*…" (I-15).*

*"In a real professional context, everything will be about practice. But, little theoretical information is needed to improve practice. I can say theory and practice should be offered together, but at different rates like 30% to 70%, respectively" (I-6).*

In this sense, theory is taught to reinforce practices and turn them into deliberate practice trainers. Theoretical information on interpreting is considered an integral part of academic training, yet more intense training towards expertise is associated with plenty of practice opportunities provided to students based on theory.

On the contrary, two of the participants argued against the incorporation of theory into the practice-based courses and discuss in favor of practice over theory:

*"I believe that this is a profession completely based on practice. This is a job, not a theory. You need to attend* (conferences)*, do it, and get used to it by doing it. Therefore, more practice should be involved with as many subject areas as possible (I-5).*

*"I did not follow any methodology in my courses. I only wanted to show them how practice is done by setting an example as a trainer from the sector. In this way, they could really see how this job can be done. I can say that students really appreciated this effort…. I did not systematically teach based on an academic method…But it really meant a lot for students that I showed them things through practice. Students have an insatiable desire for practice. Interpreting courses should be designed in a way to ensure students' practices" (I-11).*

It is noteworthy that both of these participants were professional conference interpreters who teach interpreting courses at undergraduate programs as part-time instructors. In this sense, it can be asserted that practitioners' approaches to theory differ from academics'. While academics tend to benefit from theory to design deliberate practices and guide students to reflect on their performances and cognitive processes, professional interpreters who teach interpreting courses aim to achieve intense training by offering a high quantity of speeches and practice means during contact hours.

#### 4.2.2.2.4.3. Aptitude test needed

Aptitude tests are the most commonly used entry examinations for interpreting courses at universities. Testing various prerequisites of interpreting such as linguistic command, cognitive skills, and personality traits, aptitude testing may involve different tasks such as shadowing, paraphrasing, gisting, impromptu speeches, as well as an interview with the candidate to check motivation and willingness. Despite criticism on the subjectivity of such tests considering the lack of a standard instrument with established validity and reliability (Arjona-Tseng, 1993; Dodds 1990; Gringiani 1990; Pearl, 1995 among others), aptitude tests are still frequently held in the training programs and recommended by AIIC (n.d.) best practice guidelines for conference interpreting programs.

The presence of compulsory interpreting courses, which require more intense training towards conference interpreting with constant feedback, is a problem in crowded undergraduate programs, where the student population can be around 40-60 students in some programs depending on the student quota designated by CoHE (Council of Higher Education). In such cases, students, who do not have any will to have expertise in interpreting, have to attend and complete such courses successfully to graduate. This, in turn, leads to crowded interpreting classes where not every student has a chance to practice and gets feedback on interpreting performance. Aptitude testing at this point may play a vital role as an admission exam limiting the class population in interpreting-expertise courses, based on both skill, competences, and willingness, motivation of students to be professional interpreters.

In programs where expertise courses are offered following an aptitude test, the participants reported implementing a robust curriculum, giving more individualized feedback, and putting more constructivist pedagogy into practice through pair-work and role-play:

"*I have no problem with offering individual feedback to every student in the class. Because students pass through an aptitude test to be involved in interpreting track at the beginning of the fourth grade" (I-23).*

*"At most 5 students pass aptitude test every year at our university. In simultaneous track, we can easily lay the grounds of these skills" (I-4).*

In programs where aptitude test does not exist, a crowded class population limits the one-to-one mentoring potential of the trainers, who reported not being able to listen to every student and give feedback:

*"Without a division of interpreting courses, I have to deliver a simultaneous interpreting course to 27 students. Let's imagine getting 27 students into pairs to practice in booths. Course hours are not enough to listen to all. This is such a huge problem" (I-18).*

*"We used to take simultaneous interpreting courses as students after an aptitude test. The class population was very low and we were very lucky. Here, I teach simultaneous interpreting to all students. Aptitude test should be at every T&I department because even those in the interpreting track do not necessarily become conference interpreters. There is no need to teach these skills to all students* (in the program)*" (I-5).*

In addition to the need for an aptitude test, adding an aptitude test at an earlier grade level in the curricula of T&I programs was also suggested by the trainers to ensure expertise in interpreting:

"*Current training is not sufficient despite the strong academic competency. Students who can do this job can be known even in the listening course taught in the 2nd grade. Those students are already willing. Fourth grade is too late to be prepared for the market. In the 4th grade, we expect zero grammar errors from interpreting students* (I-1)".

*"If there was an aptitude test as of the 2nd grade, then we could train conference interpreters" (I-24).*

I-14 also suggests that the 2nd grade of the program is ideal to administer an aptitude test to students who want to be on the interpreting track.

In the same vein, I-19 suggests that undergraduate training programs should be intensified to ensure expertise through an aptitude test to be applied at an earlier stage. Otherwise skillful students are not trained well enough, as she asserts by using a metaphor of precious fabric:

*"Screening test can be done at the end of the 2nd grade. I think more intense interpreter training is particularly necessary for the last 2 years. Three hours of SI and 3 hours of CI courses per week are not enough to process students well. You cannot embroider on that precious fabric. I think a good infrastructure can be laid in the first 2 years" (I-19).*

In sum, the inclusion of aptitude tests into programs at earlier stages of undergraduate training can help to restrict the crowded class population, thus giving trainers more opportunities to offer more individualized and detailed course materials, more chances to practice and in-class activities, and feedback. In this way, a few students who pass the aptitude test can focus more on interpreting skills through interpreting-expertise courses and be more qualified to work in the market after graduation. In this regard, the *aptitude test needed* is among the sub-codes of the sub-theme *Expertise* and code *more intense training*. This sub-code is compatible with the code *no aptitude test* created under the sub-theme of *Basic skills*[12]. As the lack of aptitude tests was elicited to be one of the reasons why basic skills only can be targetted at undergraduate programs, it was suggested to involve aptitude tests in programs to ensure more intense training with more practicing opportunities towards expertise training.

#### 4.2.2.2.4.4. More hours of interpreting courses

The contact hours for interpreting courses usually range between 2 to 4 hours a week. Adding a crowded population, and limited physical means in programs to this restricts practice times of students. Increasing the contact hours of interpreting courses has been another suggestion of the participants to ensure more intense training. More contact hours are associated with more practice chances for students:

*"How good can it be with 14 week-long courses, 2 hours a week? Contact hours should be increased to involve more practice areas" (I-8).*

Trainers I-12 and I-4 note that they have to steer students to undertake more responsibility towards their learning rather than engaging them in intense practices due to insufficient contact hours:

*"You can tell a lot by seeing that a practice-based interpreting course which requires intense exercises are taught for 2 hours a week.... I give them a lot of suggestions to improve themselves... Yet, we don't have the ideal environment" (I-12).*

*"My course is 3 hours a week. I can only offer some tactics and feedback… They* (students*) need to interpret to be able to sustain these skills (*after classwork*)" (I-4).*

Limited contact hours was among the reasons why undergraduate training targets basic skills rather than expertise, as reported by the trainers.[13] In line with the findings, increasing contact hours in interpreting courses was highlighted as one of the ways to ensure more intense training to achieve expertise. More contact hours may help to increase students' access to practices, and

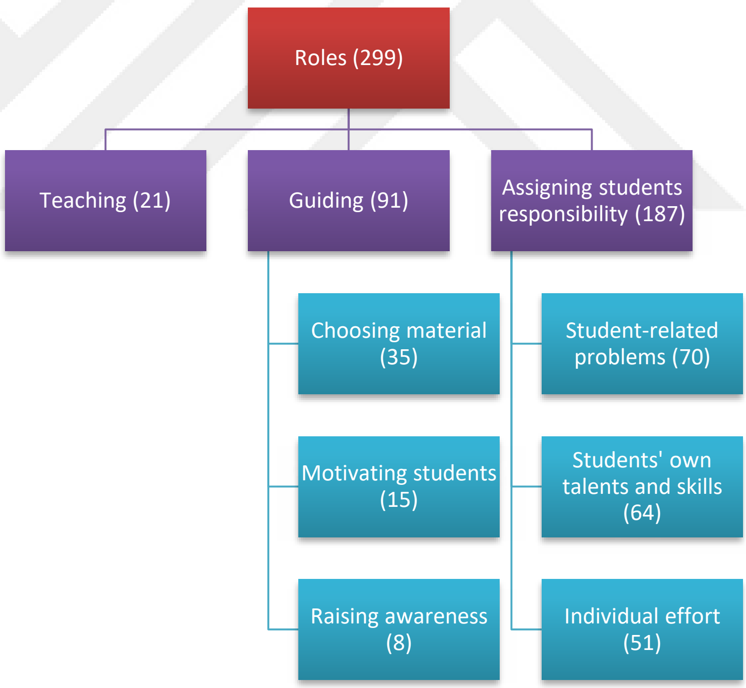
[12] *see* 4.2.1.1.2. No aptitude test
[13] *see* 4.2.1.1.1. Undergraduate training for basic skills

theoretical information and decrease their need for out-of-class practices and self-study. As for the trainers, they reported that higher contact hours for their interpreting courses could help them to equip students with more skills to ensure expertise in the given courses through more intense training.

### 4.2.3. Roles

The trainers described their roles in interpreter training from different angles while addressing various issues such as effective education, teachability of interpreting skills, and in-class and out-of-class activities. In addition to the roles to be undertaken by the trainers, they also asserted that interpreting students need to assume certain roles to accomplish successful interpreter training. All the roles associated with trainers themselves and students are the final theme of the study.

Related sub-themes and codes are presented below:




Graph 4.10: Sub-themes and codes associated with the theme *Roles.*

The theme *Roles* consists of three main sub-themes; *teaching, guiding,* and *assigning students responsibility.*

As presented above with the number of codes associated, the primary role of trainers was defined as assigning students responsibility to learn and acquire interpreting skills through practice and self-study. Besides, more trainers described their roles as guiding compared to those opting for teaching. In this sense, it can be discussed that the trainers believe students bear more responsibility in learning, which is supported by trainers' guidance rather than their teaching.

#### 4.2.3.1. Teaching

The main teaching role of trainers in interpreting courses has been associated with interpreting strategies and coping tactics, and the overall theoretical knowledge. It was reported that trainers' motivation should be high to teach interpreting techniques and theoretical background:

*"The method* (of how to teach) *depends on the trainer…A trainer should adopt the methodology well in order to teach it well, which is more related to trainer's motivation" (I-6).*

Such a theory-grounded education, which is advised to be offered at the beginning of the courses and lectured for a short time throughout the interviews, is considered helpful for students to comprehend the nature of interpreting, as a communicative activity. The comprehension of this nature is believed to be ensured by the trainers through theoretical background:

*"A training which ensures crisis-management… the skill of overcoming unknown terms or subject area... Teaching crisis management precedes teaching terminology and how to research the subject. First, it should be taught how to cope with crisis and express oneself clearly, and the fact that interpreters are also communicators" (I-15).*

*"I try to teach cognitive models to all students. If they know how the system works, they develop their methods to cope with the possible problems" (I-17).*

Other than general theoretical information (interpreting modalities, ethical and professional standards, cognitive models, etc.), interpreting strategies are either taught through lecturing at the beginning of the semester and reinforced through practices throughout the semester, or each strategy is demonstrated through related examples in the usual practice-based flow of the course. In both cases, learning coping strategies was evaluated independently of students' efforts and skills, and considered among the teaching responsibility of trainers:

*"Training can teach you techniques about how to get prepared and cope with challenges. These can make your work easier, but the rest is upon you" (I-5).*

*"I teach strategies at the beginning of the 3rd year… After students are separated into interpreting track, I apply more detailed practices on strategies" (I-18).*

Strategy training is among the major elements of interpreting pedagogy. Interpreting students are trained about some of the strategies that can be put into use to overcome linguistic, cognitive, and situational challenges. Advocating teaching coping tactics through practices and by asking students to explain the reason why a certain tactic was preferred during interpreting, Gile (2009a) narrates the usual course flow on teaching coping tactics in an interpreting class as follows:

> Basically, they are taught within the framework of practical exercises. In most training programmes, this is done by trial and correction, with trial on the student's part and corrections from the instructor. Such corrections are generally prescriptive; instructors sometimes refer to the communication impact of the tactics in order to explain their preferences, but are not necessarily aware of other factors which influence them (p.191).

Ricaddi (1996) recommends implementing "problem-oriented training" in order to help students "recognize, separate and focus on single difficulties thus facilitating and fostering a conscious development of diversified simultaneous interpreting strategies" (p.221). Emphasizing the lack of a structure model to teach strategy in interpreter training, Wu and Liao (2018) suggest presenting strategies to students via direct instruction, for example, a PowerPoint presentation demonstrating authentic examples of strategy use by interpreters. During strategy presentation and presenting relevant examples to students, a trainer ideally assumes an active role in teaching as "use of strategies needs to be justified by taking contexts, constraints, and interpreting norms into account, and strategies should be presented clearly and concisely to facilitate students' intuitive understanding" (Wu & Liao, 2018, p.186). Only after such a presentation, a trainer can assume a mentoring role by choosing "diversified materials (speeches with fast delivery rate, high information density, unknown words, strong accents, etc.) which create situations in which the students can apply different types of strategies; he or she elicits students' problems and solutions in their interpreting and provides comments" (Li, 2015b, p.187). Although strategy training ultimately targets the automation of strategy use, it should not be taken for granted by trainers and relevant exercises should be involved in in-class practices (Li, 2015).

Against this background and the participants' views, it can be suggested that direct instruction is commonly used by interpreter trainers to teach interpreting strategies and coping tactics. Thus teaching role of the trainers is prevailing over the guiding role at the stage of strategy presentation.

#### 4.2.3.2. Guiding

Unlike the teaching role of trainers, which is more limited to instructing strategies and theoretical information, guiding is discussed more comprehensively and addressed as the main role of interpreter trainers. Different participants titled their roles as a person triggering learning (I-23), shaping the fabric and mentoring (I-19), coordinator (I-8), and guide (I-3), underscoring the importance of having well-equipped and skillful students to carry out these roles. These roles and how they have been defined by the participants indicate that more student-centered pedagogy is targeted in classes by restricting the sage-on-stage presence of trainers in the class:

*"In an interpreting class, a trainer should never be at the center. He should not be a leader, either. The number one duty of trainer should be exposing students to interpreting" (I-3).*

Instead, students' potentials are triggered by careful observation of trainers, these potentials are put into use with target-oriented practices through which students are guided and motivated. I-3 highlights the importance of getting students into reflective practices and hands-on practices in interpreting classes by moving trainers away from the center:

*"A trainer should never be a reference of solutions…If you give solutions, students only remain behind your shadow and code your solution. I believe failed interpreting experiences should also take place in class… Theories, methodologies, and approaches can be lectured, but a solution to a speech should never be offered. In this sense, interpreting pedagogy should not be restricted, but be eye-opening" (I-3).*

In a similar vein, I-1 narrates that she learned about the constructivist approach in pedagogy and started to apply it in her courses by bringing students into the center:

*"I learned that I should not teach a subject* (of the speech) *to students…If students do not know anything about orthopedy, for instance, I should not instruct them. I can only guide them to research and get prepared to practice in that subject. If they still have gaps in their minds, only then a trainer intervenes in" (I-1).*

In line with the statements discussed under 4.2.3.1. Teaching, these statements also indicate that the trainers undertake the role of a teacher to transmit knowledge to students only in teaching theoretical information. In the practice phase of the given information, they define themselves as guides who facilitate the learning process, steer students to practice, help them reflect on their performances, and monitor performing students meanwhile. As presented before, the trainers' guiding role includes advising students to improve themselves through self-study, mostly out-of-class. Advises offered by the trainers are mostly about improving L2 competence, which cannot be addressed comprehensively in interpreting courses due to the time limitation and interpreting skills-oriented scope of the courses:

*" …in terms of foreign language competence…For example, if a student is interested in football, I advise him to read football news in German, read books, use opportunities to go to Germany and such recommendations I make" (I-12).*

*"In the first few weeks, I recommend listening passages in the field of English as a second language, podcasts, and news from BBC, Guardian, CBC, etc. They can listen to speeches and improve themselves" (I-14).*

Students' need for improving their foreign language competences also poses a challenge for learning and teaching further interpreting skills as language command is the fundamental prerequisite for interpreting courses. To be successful in acquiring interpreting skills, a good command of a foreign language along with the native language is a must. In cases when the students' language mastery is limited, Gile (2005) suggests that implementing intense language training is necessary although such an approach " goes against the principles of the major interpreter training programs" (p.145). In cases where this need is observed, trainers adopt an approach against this suggestion of Gile (2005), noting that they believe that it should be students' responsibility, and trainers' duty is limited to guide them through self-study recommendations and carefully selected in-class materials.

#### 4.2.3.2.1. Choosing materials

*Choosing materials* is perceived as a key guiding task of trainers to let students discover potential challenges and overcome them for improving not only linguistic but also interpreting skills. This requires an educational look towards the materials to be put in use:

*"A trainer has a responsibility to choose the materials to be used. Because students cannot critically evaluate a material" (I-17).*

An example of students' selection of their own pedagogical material was given by I-7, and the guiding role of trainers in selecting both in-class materials and recommending auxiliary self-study materials to students was highlighted:

*"Students may find something and listen to it* (for consecutive interpreting practice). *But I see that the material is not appropriate to the students' level. It might be too rapid or colloquial" (I-7).*

I-7 also stresses the importance of careful material selection by the trainer so that the needs of students can be fulfilled. In doing so, trainers are also expected to offer accurate and properly-structured speeches that mimic real-life interpreting materials, instead of texts written to be read. In addition, it is important to "assess the difficulty or the cognitive load imposed by the interpreting task" (Jiang & Jiang, 2020, p.2) to ensure the fulfillment of the targeted educational outcomes with realistic expectations. In this sense, material selection is considered among the main duties of trainers to scaffold interpreting skills by arranging the difficulty level of the tasks and incrementally increasing the challenges (Li, 2019; Setton & Dawrant, 2016; Yuan, 2021). Otherwise, wrong materials may also result in loss of motivation among students. To this end, structured, pedagogized speeches that include key terminology, world knowledge, domain-specific knowledge, and conference phraseology are particularly selected by the trainers to guide students' learning based on their language level and the target of the curriculum.

I-6 and I-17 prioritize improving world knowledge through material selection in their courses and highlight that related material which could contribute to extralinguistic knowledge of students, also improve students' research skills, linguistic skills along with coping skills in interpreting. Throughout the interviews, the participants prioritized various aspects of material selection. One of them is to improve world knowledge and extralinguistic knowledge of students on current issues:

*"Materials can be about an African country or Norwegian fishermen…. In this way, they can gain more general knowledge and such topics lead them to research more" (I-6).*

*"My main concern is (*practicing with*) current issues. Because, based on my observations in the profession, the interpreting work gets 70% easier when you follow current issues. Because the rest is terminology…Some people work in fields that are not directly related to current issues, but even in their fields, 30% is domain-specific knowledge and 70% is current issues.. I include expertise fields such as economic and law only if they are related to current issues" (I-17).*

In a similar vein, I-14 stresses the close connection between extralinguistic knowledge and terminology, asserting to improve students' overall motivation to learn through more interesting hot topics:

*"I try to touch upon current issues and topics that are related to popular culture and that can attract the attention of students. In this way, they can follow current terminologies and be more motivated to learn" (I-14).*

Choosing materials from current issues also increases students' exposure to the subject and terminology, accelerating the learning process:

*"I try to select topics related to current issues. I make sure that the selected speech is related to a hot topic of the week such as Davos, G-7, G-20 summits so that students can see it everywhere" (I-17).*

Similarly, I-8 offers to choose a subject that students have superficial knowledge to improve their knowledge. A prior acquaintance of students with such a subject may improve students' motivation in taking part in practices as well:

*"When I select a topic that students are acquainted with, they are very interested in participating. For example, a topic like why Euro and US dollar currency increases attracted the attention of all students and even those who do not participate in practice were very active in the preparation and practicing" (I-8).*

Another way to guide students to acquire knowledge of current issues and related terminology along with research skills and conference preparation skills through self-study is exemplified by I-9:

*"In the election period, I told students that Biden and Trump would have a debate, just watch it and try to make a discourse analysis on their speeches, as our next course might be about those speeches. I ask students to observe the most frequently used words by the speakers and interpreter, if available, and compare what solutions the interpreter found for the challenges" (I-9).*

I-12 makes a distinction between compulsory introductory courses and elective expertise courses in terms of material selection:

*"I mostly select current issues speeches from art-culture and politics, such as artificial intelligence. From such texts, students can gain knowledge. In the 3rd grade, I do not get involved in specific fields such as law and medicine" (I-12).*

For students with poorer linguistic skills, the language level in the speeches is arranged to their level by the trainers. The presence or absence of aptitude tests, on the other hand, has an impact on the content of materials. Although the use of authentic materials is encouraged in interpreter training (Kalina, 2000; Gile, 2009a; Gile, 2005; González-Davies, 2004; Sawyer 2004; Seleskovitch, 1989/2008) to bring training closer to the real-life conditions in professional contexts, pedagogical materials can be deliberately preferred by the trainer in line with the students' competences. Authentic materials are reported to have four advantages compared to pedagogical materials, namely exposing students to real-life communication in natural contexts, increasing students' motivation by improving their confidence in linguistic skills; ensuring more efficient learning, and adopting a more creative teaching approach (Li, 2019). The higher use of pedagogical materials over authentic ones is an indicator of targeting basic skills, mainly language enhancing, rather than professional interpreting skills:

*"In the last 3 years, I have been working with students who are not separated into interpreting expertise courses. Therefore, few students are ready to practice on video and audiovisual materials while the majority are only capable of practicing with pedagogized and slower-paced speeches. We cannot move beyond it. Because they naturally get paralyzed and cannot perform anything" (I-17).*

*"I take speeches from published sources or Internet and revise the language based on students' level" (I-12).*

For students having higher linguistic skills and career motivation, trainers have more means of using authentic speeches without revising the original text:

*"I can use more videos, non-touched and non-pedagogized authentic content for students having higher language level and professional motivation in general" (I-17).*

Even though student involvement in material selection is highly prioritized by the instructors[14], the role of instructors in choosing materials in line with the needs of learners and targetted

[14] *see* 4.2.1.2.2.Student involvement in material selection

outcomes of education is not dismissed. At this point, the instructors carry out their guiding role in bringing the useful material to help students to reveal and improve their linguistic, extralinguistic, and interpreting skills while students' interests and needs are also taken into consideration for higher motivation in participation in practices.

#### 4.2.3.2.2. Motivating students

In addition, motivating students is found to be another key guiding task assumed by the trainers. Motivating students has also been emphasized as a key factor along with the high-quality training in effective education by the participants titled I-26, I-25, I-23, I-6, and I-4. In interpreter training, the trainers emphasize their guiding role in motivating students while giving feedback to interpreting performances. In all feedback methods, the participants stressed that their priority is to motivate students while evaluating their in-class performance and activities. I-24 draws attention to the need for giving constructive feedback by pointing out the errors and using a soft tone not to demotivate students at the same time:

"(I prefer)… *warmer and softer feedback… Criticism is never easy. They are so young…and so sensitive. Therefore motivation is very important" (I-24).*

As the overall course content heavily depends on the performance of students in front of their peers and instructor, students can be easily fragile in accepting feedback. Taking the sensitivity of students into account while pointing out the errors, general feedback is offered more than individual feedback by some trainers not to cause personal resentment of performing students.

In one-to-one feedback, although the strengths of students are appreciated in the class, the main focus point of in-class feedback is on the weaknesses of the students, as a part of the trainers' role of guiding students towards a better interpreting quality:

*"I mostly give negative feedback by softening it with positive…I do not think it is necessary to stress the strengths all the time" (I-2).*

*"I do not give positive feedback all the time. Otherwise, it leads to an unnecessary ego" (I-9).*

The guiding role of the instructors is more apparent in their efforts to offer constructive feedback rather than solely eliciting the weaknesses and strengths. Instead, solutions to the possible weaknesses can be identified:

*"What I pay attention to most, as a mother, is not to destruct. I do not give the negative part first. First, I appreciate and suggest new ways. I never say 'you found this part challenging'. Instead, I say, 'you could fix the challenging part like this'. In sum, I never give feedback without offering a solution (I-17).*

In this sense, although peer-feedback and self-assessment are commonly put into use in interpreting courses in line with the constructivist approach to training, trainer feedback on interpreting performance can be considered more authoritative, formal, and accurate by students (Lee, 2018). Therefore, instructors assume a significant role in guiding students to recognize their weaknesses and strengths, as well as offering them constructive feedback and suggestions to motivate them to learn and practice interpreting skills.

#### 4.2.3.2.3. Raising awareness

*Raising awareness* of students was another code associated with the *Guiding* sub-theme. Accordingly, more instructors defined their roles as raising awareness of students rather than teaching or instructing them. In parallel with other related codes of this sub-theme, the participants expect students to undertake the main duty of learning, and they believe that instructors' main role is to raise students' awareness of their own interests, possible strengths and weakness, cognitive skills, subject area knowledge, personality traits they have to work as interpreters in the market, and self-confidence. Introductory courses are particularly shaped around this target of raising awareness of students:

*"In my course* (introduction to interpreting)*, we do not actively practice actual interpreting. I only demonstrate preliminary exercises, expectations from interpreters, and skills that should be improved…I only help them to discover their potential, wishes, and willingness... Those, who believe that they will be successful, continue getting elective interpreting courses" (I-22).*

*"My goal in interpreting courses is to help students recognize their insufficiencies in their knowledge of different subject areas" (I-17).*

*"It is important to reveal and emphasize the awareness of students. Interpreter training is to mentor students in order to let them overcome their insufficiencies" (I-9).*

All the three statements above can summarize that the role of learning is expected to be assigned by students and the role of the instructor is assumed to be guiding students through careful material selection, deliberate practices, constructive feedback, motivating students, and raising their awareness of current knowledge and skills as well as their deficiencies, so that they can better work through their interpreting skills.

#### 4.2.3.3. Assigning students responsibility

In defining the roles of learners and instructors in education, the main responsibility of gaining interpreting skills was put on students with the limited guiding duty of the instructor in line with the principles of constructivist pedagogy. This sub-theme has three main codes. In the first code named *student-related problems*, the instructors defined problems that hamper teaching skills and the acquisition of these skills by students. Accordingly, it was suggested that students need to overcome these problems to succeed in interpreting courses. In the second code, *students' own talents & skills*, prior knowledge, and prerequisite characteristics of an interpreting student are discussed. In the third code, *individual efforts*, studies, and exercises that should be completed by students through individual efforts were suggested by the instructors.

##### 4.2.3.3.1. Student-related problems

Poor foreign language command has been reported as the main student-related problem that concerns the instructors most about the quality of the training. At this point, poor language command mostly refers to foreign language competency, which is commented on as "*not enough at all" (I-4), "really insufficient and below expectations" (I-8), "problematic" (I-10), "not at desired level" (I-12), "at a very low level" (I-22*) by the participants. As a prerequisite of any translation activity, a good language command should be acquired before the interpreting practices started in the related courses. Otherwise, instructors need to spend their contact time with linguistic issues rather than interpreting skills such as memory skills, extralinguistic knowledge, interpreting strategies, professional attitude, and situated-learning practices:

*"We need to uphold linguistic knowledge to the highest level, which is a deficiency right now. When we start to deal with language skills such as grammar and pronunciation, interpreter training is hampered. Language training is a must before interpreting courses… Otherwise, students lose their motivation. Because they feel very incompetent when they cannot understand every three or five words in an authentic speech" (I-14).*

It is suggested that "more extensive and precise linguistic and extralinguistic knowledge is required" (Gile, 2009a, p.15) beyond the fundamental foreign language skills for a quality T&I product. On the other hand, in cases when even the fundamental linguistic skills are so poor that students have significant problems in comprehension, interpreter training cannot reach the ideal teaching & learning environment, expectedly:

*"Language skills of our students are insufficient… We have severe problems while interpreting from A to B language. No matter how many times I tell students to make simple and short sentences… Their English level is moderate, and it* (high-quality interpreting) *just does not happen*" (I-26).

Despite the well-known prerequisites of T&I programs, students still may lack such fundamental skills. I-25 stresses that nonfulfillment of this prerequisite is about the university entrance exam, in which students get scores to admit universities and programs through multiple-choice exams including a foreign language exam without any speaking and listening sections:

*"This job cannot be performed without language* (command). *Students enter this program with multiple-choice exam, but speaking skills are very different and needed for interpreting" (I-25).*

In this sense, trainees may have a good level of grammar, writing, and reading skills in a foreign language in most cases. However, they may still lack linguistic flexibility which refers to the use of "language devices known as figures of speech including such common poetic devices as metaphor, simile, and analogy" (Johnson, 1975, p.89), "broad range of language practices, characterized by hybridity and variation" (Durán & Henderson, 2018, p.77). In the context of interpreting, linguistic flexibility can manifest itself as language use in terms of collocations, idiomatic expressions, register, and the overall resourcefulness of language use in compensation and paraphrasing skills particularly while interpreting into B language (EMCI, 2002). The problem of linguistic flexibility in B language is noted by the participants as follows:

"*We are not able to perform consecutive interpreting from Turkish to German…They can comprehend* (in German)*, but have problems in expressing* (reformulating) *the message" (I-12).*

"*Interpreting into Turkish is more proper and students can understand in English. They have self-expression skills and general knowledge to some extent… But, the lack of flexibility while interpreting in English and the speaking problem is a real issue" (I-25).*

It was also reported that some students do not want to participate in interpreting practice if the language direction is from A to B:

*"… due to the insufficient English background, they do not want to interpret from Turkish to English" (I-18).*

Programs offering T&I training in other languages than English have another difficulty. Unless specified as a special condition in the guideline of ÖSYM, admission into a T&I program in a foreign language, other than English, does not require competence in the given language. Accordingly, a student who has a sufficient score on the Foreign Language Test in English, as a part of the University Entrance Exam, can be accepted to German-Turkish T&I program without any prior knowledge of German. For German T&I programs in Turkey, only two universities require successful completion of the Foreign Language Test in the German language (ÖSYM, n.d). In other programs, students need to learn German in preparatory school before the T&I training:

"*Students start with English background and learn German in the preparatory school. Their foreign language level is not at the desired level. We find it very challenging, the level of our interpreting courses is not compatible with foreseen or the desired level, unfortunately" (I-12).*

There are no French T&I programs that require absolute competence in the French language only before admission. Instead, they offer candidates to pass the Foreign Language Test either in English or French (ÖSYM, n.d). In another program in French, the same problem was reported as well:

*"French-language level of students is around B1. They have learned the language for a year in preparatory school, which is a problem (I-17).*

Lack of motivation was the second most common concern for students under the code of *student-related problems*. I-21 asserts that this problem results from the fact that students do not observe a real conference environment to be motivated. I-17 and I-10 note that they experience motivation problems with students who are not competent in the foreign language. Similarly, poor foreign language command is interpreted as a reason for lack of motivation by another trainer:

*"Without a language education, students can experience a great deal of motivation loss. After then, regardless of the method you apply, they cannot succeed in interpreting courses" (I-14).*

Compulsory interpreting courses also lead to a lack of motivation among students who do not want expertise in interpreting as exemplified by I-16, I-9, and I-6:

*"Some students have strong prejudice against the course. They do not want to be there, but have to take the course. It is hard to change their mindset" (I-16).*

*"At the beginning of the course, some students tell me 'I really have zero intention to do this* (job), *I only had to take the course to graduate. I do not think that I will ever be able to do'…Only 3 or 4 students out of 20 have the motivation to interpret in my course" (I-9).*

*"I feel like students attend my course by force although they do not want to be there" (I-6).*

In a similar vein, I-18 reports a rise in motivation among students after the program started to apply aptitude test. He noted to have all motivated students in his classes after the selection of students via aptitude test in the conference interpreting course.

I-11 suggests that the elitism perceived in the interpreting profession leads to low self-confidence among students*:*

*"There is a myth suggesting that this profession can be done by a few elite people. Some people suggest there are more F16 pilots than conference interpreters in Turkey to prove that they perform a very rare job. This is not true at all" (I-11).*

I-2 defines the same approach as "*mystifying the job*" as if interpreting is completely about a natural gift, which he opposes to:

"(According to students) *this work has nothing to do with preparation as if a divine power should come from the above. On the contrary, professional interpreters need to get prepared. If you get well-prepared, you can exhibit a good performance" (I-2).*

Lack of subject knowledge, background knowledge, and contextual knowledge have also been reported as common problems among interpreting students. All these different concepts related to extralinguistic knowledge are collected under the sub-code of *world knowledge* in line with Dascal (2003)'s and Gile (2009)'s definitions of world knowledge as "information about the universe of references" (p.19) and "knowledge of 'reality' as opposed to knowledge of the language or linguistic knowledge" (p.260), respectively. In these definitions, world knowledge refers to a broader concept than general knowledge or subject knowledge. I-17 suggests that, unlike students who are incompetent in the foreign language and lack motivation, those who have motivation have another problem:

"*Those who believe that they can succeed, have the problem of subject matter knowledge. They have deficiencies in current knowledge. When students have a general deficiency in world knowledge, the ways to paraphrase are stuck. They have difficulty in finding alternative words. Even if they have good language skills, students who do not know how concepts of the world function have difficulties" (I-17).*

I-14, similarly stresses the importance of world knowledge for comprehension, as the first step of interpreting:

*"As an important part of interpreting, world knowledge is needed to know a fair level of knowledge in every topic, to know what is going on in the world and what will happen, to understand a reference to the history. This can be acquired by reading and following the current issues…When a student cannot build connections and put the message into a context, he can get lost while interpreting" (I-14).*

As the first phase of interpreting is disrupted by a lack of world knowledge, interpreting activity cannot be meaningful. Therefore, contact time is weighted more on subject knowledge by reducing actual practice time:

"*When they do not have the necessary background knowledge, they just take a wild guess about the meaning… If students do not study the background knowledge of the speech to be practiced one week later, I cannot directly start practicing the speech. Instead, I have to reduce the practice time and increase the time to learn about that topic" (I-1).*

Stage fright, which withholds students from participating in particularly consecutive interpreting, insufficient native language command, and lack of pre-class study are other commonly reported problems of interpreting students.

#### 4.2.3.3.2. Students' own talents & skills

Being successful in interpreting courses was associated with *students' own talents & skills* frequently throughout the interviews. The approach of the trainers to the teachability of interpreting skills was to offer education that would add up to the existing fundamental skills of the students. Accordingly, in the beginning, students are expected to have certain characteristics in order to receive useful training. I-8 and I-12 summarize their approaches to the discussion of nature vs nurture in interpreter training in favor of nature improved and trained through nurture:

*"The fact that few people are doing this job shows that it is necessary to be gifted…First there should be a talent, which can be trained" (I-8).*

This approach is narrated with a tailor-fabric metaphor by I-19:

*"Let's assume that you have a fabric. Can you make a dress with that fabric? If your fabric is suitable for tailoring that dress, you can use your tailoring techniques and stitch the dress. If the fabric is not suitable for the dress model, where the talent gets involved, no matter how hard you try, the dress will be torn" (I-9).*

She explains that pedagogical tools, techniques, and methods can be put into use by trainers only on those who have a core interpreting skill, indicating that without talent, training would be useless.

The vague term of interpreting skill or talent is clarified as personality traits such as self-confidence, being practical, extrovertedness, and quick decision-making along with good language use in both native and foreign languages:

*"This* (interpreting skill) *is not innate and is completely teachable. But, there should be some characteristics like self-confidence. This is very important. A student who lacks self-confidence cannot communicate. He cannot suppress his excitement and can face negative feedback about it" (I-22).*

*"I believe it should be about being born interpreter. Some who speak too slowly and cannot produce practical solutions cannot do this job. Some students just do not have this skill. What you can teach in class are flexible and intervening skills. If a student has good speaking and memory skills, you can add something to him. With someone else who does not like to intervene in different fields, you cannot be successful* (in teaching)*" (I-15).*

*"There are some introverted students, who have problems in speaking in public. I do not like pushing them forward in my course" (I-13).*

Curiosity and demanding to know more were also reported among the prerequisite characteristics of interpreting students along with language command and other personality traits. These characteristics were also considered important and necessary for students to be able to acquire interpreting skills:

*"I think interpreting skills can be taught under certain conditions. If a student is really willing and interested and competent in two languages… Then we can be at least guiding them throughout their training" (I-12).*

Another perception is that the special requirement of SI is students' own talent and knowledge rather than teaching techniques and practice in a class environment:

*"SI requires years of experience. This is not like the education of psychology or sociology. If you have not carried it for years, you cannot build it. It is an accumulation. Language is the accumulation of some years. It is a set of skills and knowledge. It cannot be performed at the undergraduate. It is a special thing. There is no such way of teaching students. This is why very few people can perform it". (I-15).*

All different aspects of students' own talents and skills are considered to be under the full responsibility of students and should already be acquired until the interpreter training started. Trainers consider their role to be guiding and supporting the current skills to be put into use in interpreting.

#### 4.2.3.3.3. Individual effort

In addition to the teaching methods and techniques used by the trainers, the acquisition of interpreting skills is assigned to the individual effort of students in and out of the classroom environment, including participation in practices in class and improving foreign language command, researching the subject matter and terminology out of the class.

The responsibility of participation in class practices assigned to the students can be observed in the voluntary participation principle commonly applied in courses. Although the in-class practice is the core course content in interpreting courses, trainers do not usually apply compulsory participation as a rule:

*"If the silent majority does not try, I cannot give feedback and contribute to the behavior change... I only let the voluntary students practice. I tried to make the participation compulsory, but could not achieve it" (I-17).*

*"I separate students who believe they cannot interpret. I tell them to be observers only and I let them interpret only when they are ready" (I-22).*

Voluntary participation of students in courses may result from the abovementioned codes and sub-codes such as crowded classes, the compulsory status of courses, the unwillingness and incompetent language skills of students, and so on. Therefore, trainers let voluntary students perform more in the class activities:

*"I never oblige students to perform. My course is compulsory and students already have a prejudice against the course" (I-22).*

*"There are lots of students who take my course because it is compulsory. I never push them… If they want, they practice individually… 'If you are not ready* (to interpret)*, the efforts you spare to accomplish the course requirements are enough for me', I tell them" (I-9).*

As exemplified by I-9 and I-22, expectations of trainers can be different from voluntary, motivated students and those who do not want expertise in interpreting in terms of the efforts to be spared for participation.

Another significant individual effort of students is considered to be improving their language skills. As linguistic knowledge is the accumulation of years of knowledge, practice, and experience, indeficiencies cannot be adequately addressed in the limited contact hours of interpreting courses. I-22 sets a firm boundary between interpreting and linguistic skills, suggesting that her role as an interpreter trainer is limited to teaching interpreting skills:

*"I never see language incompetency as a problem. It should already be acquired, I would not question this skill. It would be like asking a footballer, 'Are you able to run?' I tell my students, 'this is your problem, I can teach you the rest…, you should overcome this problem. I can show you to how to overcome other problems, how to get to the conclusion, but your foreign language skill is none of my concern'" (I-22).*

Similarly, another participant shares the view that acquiring four fundamental language skills, particularly speaking is students' responsibility while improving the terminology and subject knowledge is trainers' responsibility in interpreting courses. Teaching linguistic skills to interpreting students is evaluated as a part of a foreign-language teaching course rather than an interpreting course by I-24[15]:

*" Language skills are very important. These should be improved by students initially… We are not foreign language teachers, we do not teach language… My goal is not teaching the language" (I-24).*

Apart from a long-term study on fundamental linguistic skills, out-of-class study expected from the students includes short-term and target-oriented tasks such as interpreting practices, individual terminology work and researching the subject matter.

I-4 stresses the importance of self-study in practicing interpreting by referring to limited contact hours and the role of students in improving their interpreting skills.

*"There are some websites including various speeches to improve SI and CI technique with the possibility of arranging the speed. Students should practice through self-study from such websites. My course is only for 3 hours. What I teach them can only be tactical and I can only give feedback based on their performance in class. In order to sustain this profession, they need to interpret on their own" (I-4).*

In his response to the question of how to improve the current interpreter training, I-14 touches upon the same issue by suggesting that *"means of practice should be increased. Out-of-class practices in particular gain more importance".*

In the same vein, in-class practices are recommended to be reinforced through pre-class studies on both subject matter and terminology:

*"Generally, we ask students to read on the given topic before the class. For example, COVID-19 vaccine, as a hot topic… They need to read at least six different texts both in English and Turkish" (I-10).*

*"Students should study on the topic before a week or two" (I-1).*

[15] see also 4.2.1.3.1.4. Language use and 4.2.3.3.1. Student-related problems

*"Before getting into the course, students extract terminology and research the topic. I assume them to know all the words in the course. If they do not know, I expect them to guess the meaning from the context" (I-15).*

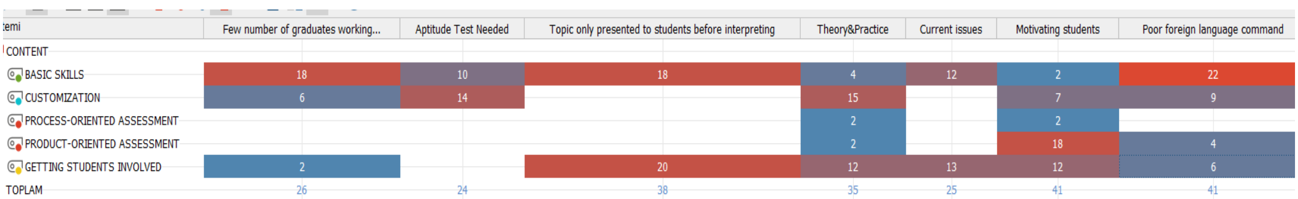
Extracting terminology, in particular, is expected to be complete by the course hour. The terminology work of the students can be addressed at the beginning of the interpreting exercise in the class:

*"On the predetermined speech topic, students prepare a glossary… In the course, we go through the glossary together and discuss the terms on which students could not reach a consensus" (I-4).*

Based on the common pattern followed through out-of-class study including practice, subject matter research, and terminology work, students are expected to accomplish the tasks individually, unlike pair-work and peer assessment practices applied during in-class activities.

### 4.2.4. Code Relations

In this section, relations between the codes are demonstrated and discussed. Code relations help to visualize the co-occurrence of themes, and thus the relationship between them. To this end, MaxQda Code Relations Browser was used to visualize the relations between the codes based on the analysis type of '*occurrence of codes in the same document*'. Accordingly, the co-occurrent codes that are coded in the same document are presented as follows:



| temi | Few number of graduates working... | Aptitude Test Needed | Topic only presented to students before interpreting | Theory&Practice | Current issues | Motivating students | Poor foreign language command |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| CONTENT | | | | | | | |
| BASIC SKILLS | 18 | 10 | 18 | 4 | 12 | 2 | 22 |
| CUSTOMIZATION | 6 | 14 | | 15 | | 7 | 9 |
| PROCESS-ORIENTED ASSESSMENT | | | | 2 | | 2 | |
| PRODUCT-ORIENTED ASSESSMENT | | | | 2 | | 18 | 4 |
| GETTING STUDENTS INVOLVED | 2 | | 20 | 12 | 13 | 12 | 6 |
| TOPLAM | 26 | 24 | 38 | 35 | 25 | 41 | 41 |

Figure 4.2: Code Relations

As presented above, the codes that mostly co-occur are:

a) *poor foreign language command* and *basic skills* (22);

*b) getting students involve*d and *topic only presented to students before interpreting* (20);

*c) few number of graduates working in the sector* and *basic skills* (18)

d) *product-oriented assessment* and *motivating students* (18).

A high level of co-occurrence of these codes can help discuss the relationship between these phenomena in a more detailed way. To this end, code relations regarding these co-occurrent codes are presented in the figures below.

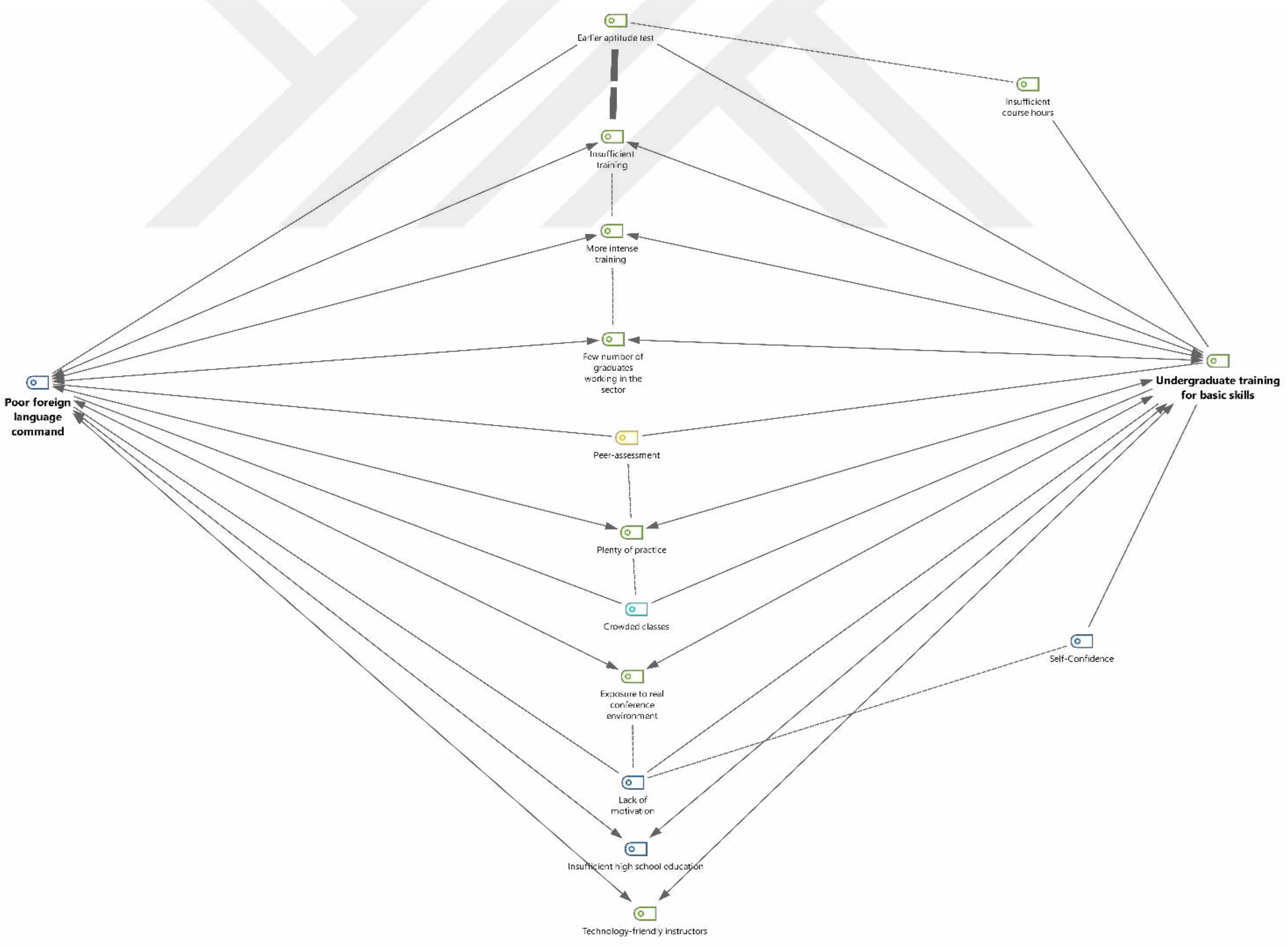



Figure 4.3: Code Relations between *Poor Foreign Language Command* and *Basic Skills*

As presented above, the reason why undergraduate training for interpreting targets basic interpreting skills can be affiliated with the *poor foreign language command* of the students. *Insufficient high school education* in the foreign language was also reported as one of the reasons for the poor language command of students, thus resulting in a *lack of motivation* among students in participating in interpreting practices. This problem is aggravated by *crowded classes, insufficient course hours,* and aptitude tests held at later stages of interpreter training, thus leading to *insufficient training*.

I-9, I-14, and I-17 summarize the relation between poor foreign language command of students and basic skills targetted in interpreting courses:

*"Students are admitted to the program with their problems with tenses. I really worked hard to lift the barrier of speaking English while thinking Turkish…They are very hardworking and successful in being admitted to one of the best universities in Turkey… But they need to lift that language barrier and start thinking in the foreign language before starting the interpreting courses. Unfortunately, they cannot" (I-19).*

*"Once we start dealing with language skills, interpreter training is hampered. When we focus on grammar and pronunciation, interpreter training is hampered" (I-14).*

*"Economy speeches are not intense for instance…. We can only practice on lighter topics of the economy such as a speech…on international news. I cannot give texts in technical fields due to the language levels of students" (I-17).*

Accordingly, the primary prerequisite of interpreting practice and profession is not fulfilled when students' language command is not at the desired level. Therefore, *limited contact hours* are allocated to improve or guide students to improve foreign language skills, thus restricting the practice time for interpreting exercises even more. In this sense, only basic skills of interpreting such as listening and comprehension; paraphrasing, and gisting are targeted in the course as students' foreign language levels are not sufficient to practice on domain-specific materials.

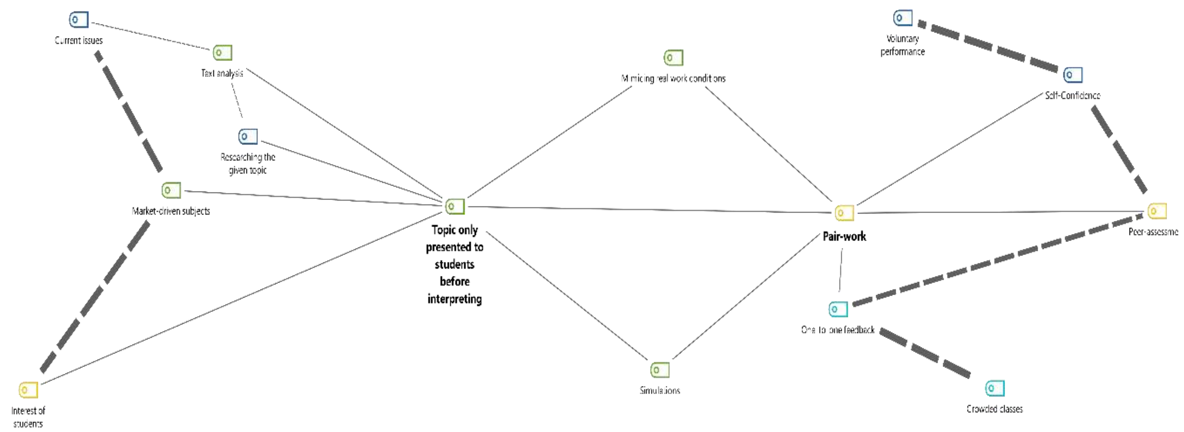



Figure 4.4: Code Relations between *Topic only Presented to Students before Interpreting* and *Getting Students Involved*

As presented above, as a practice method applied in course content, presenting the topic only to students before the interpreting practice in class is associated with collaborative learning practices such as *pair-work, peer assessment,* and students' involvement in material selection. The statement of I-9, which narrates a common course flow applying this method, can show how students are involved in the learning process by guiding students for conference preparation:

*"I give a hint of the topic to be interpreted in the upcoming week. I tell students; 'this is your meeting for the next week. The conference program has not reached us yet. Therefore, you need to make a preliminary preparation about the topic, and make a parallel text study. You may need to practice on parallel videos if the speaker's name is known… Please get prepared on the terminology of the field before coming to the class next week'" (I-9).*

Based on the figure and statement above, it can be suggested that trainers, who share the topic of the speech to be interpreted rather than submitting the full speech text, create a more student-centered learning environment by providing realistic practice conditions for interpreting students.

Interpreters do not necessarily reach, study and even memorize the actual speech texts in professional settings. That's why this code is also associated with *mimicking real work conditions* and *simulations*. In this method, trainers select among *market-driven subjects, current issues,* or topics that are most relevant to the *interest of students*. Students are held responsible to research the given topic as a preliminary self-study instead of studying on previously provided speech text. As for in-class practices, *pair-work* and *peer assessment* are commonly applied before and after the interpreting practice. Students' participation in interpreting practice is voluntary, which is later supported by *one-to-one feedback* from the trainer if the class population is not crowded.

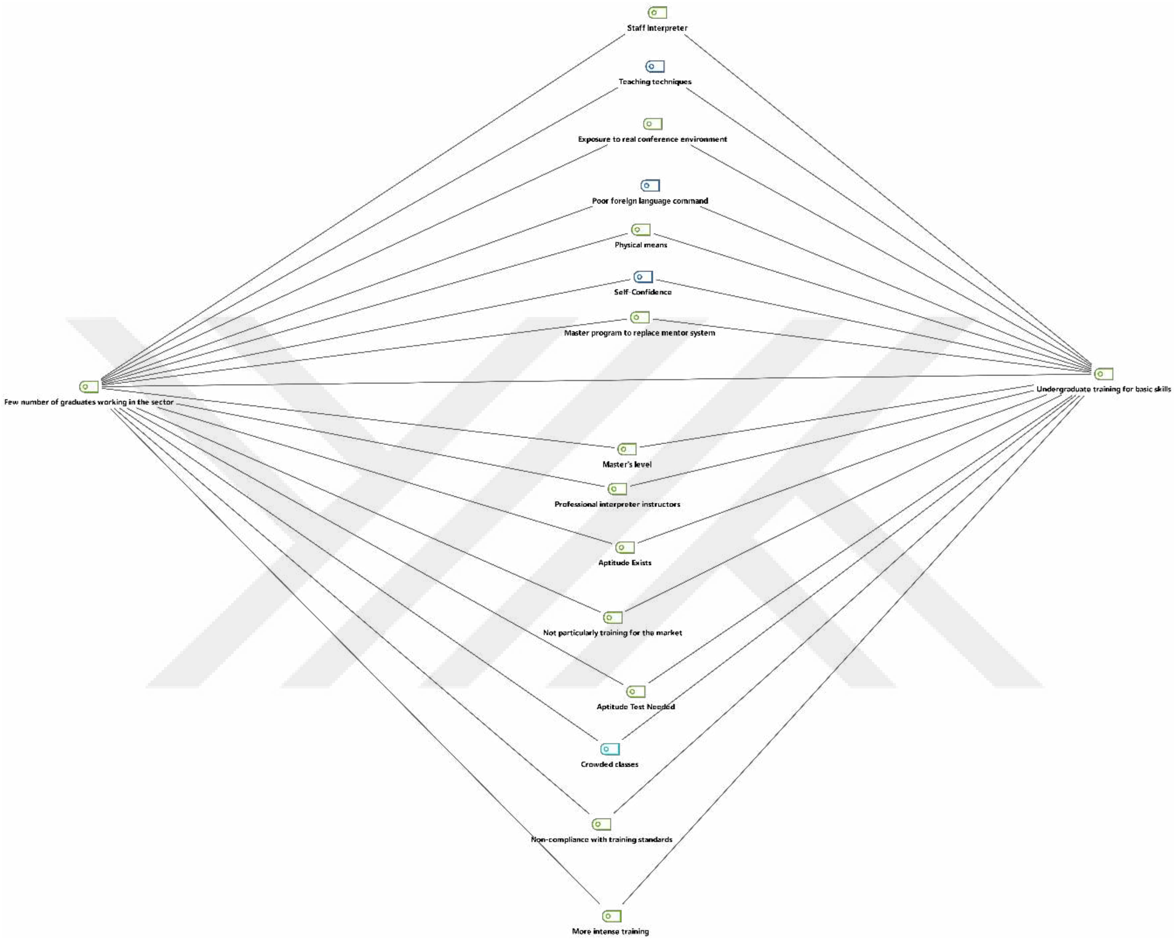



Figure 4.5: Code Relations between *Few Number of Graduates Working in the Sector* and *Undergraduate Training for Basic Skills.*

As presented above, few number of graduates from T&I programs in the interpreting market is closely associated with *undergraduate training for basic skills* which is under the sub-theme of *Basic Skills*. At this point, the reasons why the low number of interpreters work in the interpreting market and why basic skills are targeted at the undergraduate level are intertwined. Accordingly, basic skills are targeted at the undergraduate level due to *non-compliance with training standards*, *crowded classes*, *poor foreign language command* of students, low *self-confidence*, and limited *physical means* needed for interpreter training. Thus, current interpreter training at the undergraduate level does not particularly train students for the conference market although it is considered sufficient for training staff interpreters. Trainers' suggestions to improve the number of interpreters are to provide more intense training by applying aptitude tests at an earlier stage of training, exposing students to real conference environments, and offering this training at the *master's level*. Overall, offering conference interpreter training at a master's degree, as stipulated by international standards, can materialize all the other suggestions of the trainers. Serving at a university program where a master's program also exists, I-4 reports the difference a master's program can make in the employability of graduates as conference interpreters:

*"80% percent of my students can get into the master's program, which is the actual target. But in academic semesters when master's program was not active, none of my students started to work as conference interpreters" (I-4).*

In this sense, the undergraduate level of the main interpreting programs in Turkey seems to be the primary reason why few number of graduates work as conference interpreters. Considering all the reasons for this, along with statements and suggestions of the trainers to improve the current training, it can be suggested that a master's level training is needed to ensure more intense training to raise future conference interpreters.

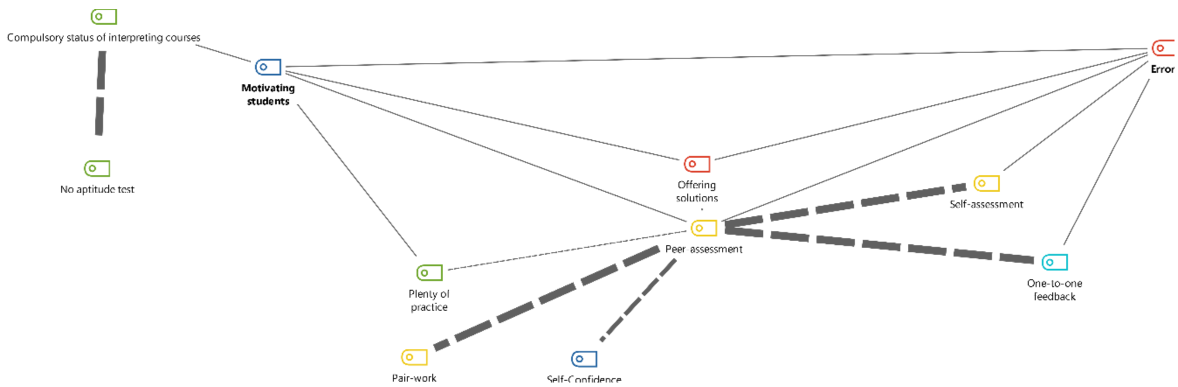



Figure 4.6: Code relations between *Errors* and *Motivating Students*.

As presented above, *motivating students* was found associated with *errors* and *offering solutions* to students as a part of the sub-theme of *Product-Oriented Assessment*. Accordingly, students' motivation is closely related to the assessment of their errors during the interpreting practice. In-class, *product-oriented assessment* approaches of trainers focus on *errors* of the students during interpreting performance. In error-fixing, *pair-work* activities, *self-assessment*, *peer assessment,* and trainer's *one-to-one feedback* are commonly applied. *Offering solutions* to students regarding their interpreting performance is also found related to *motivating students*. All these practices, which prioritize fixing the errors in the interpreting performance of the student, are carefully applied not to decrease students' motivation. I-24 describes her method to provide feedback while paying attention to students' motivation:

*"(*My feedback*) is warmer and softer… criticizing is not easy… First, students evaluate themselves. Then, we ask peers about which parts could be interpreted in different ways" (I-24).*

Accordingly, involvement of student-centered practices such as self-assessment and peer assessment is considered a way to soften the trainer's criticism, which can be perceived as more authoritative by students. The compulsory status of some interpreting courses and the lack of aptitude tests are also factors that aggravate the fragile position of students in receiving feedback. Considering the fact that not all students want expertise in interpreting and some students do not have sufficient competences to do so, trainers consciously soften their tone of in-class feedback by involving students in the process. On the other hand, applying a more process-oriented assessment to address the training from a holistic perspective rather than focusing on error-hunting during the assessment can also help students to understand their strengths and weaknesses. Thus, pressure to deliver an error-free interpreting performance can be mitigated by involving in-class activities in the assessment and evaluation process as well.

### 4.3. Observation Findings

In this section, findings obtained from the observations of four different interpreting courses delivered by three different trainers are presented. The observational findings are analyzed and discussed under four main categories, being c*ourse content, class participation, constructivist activities,* and *trainer feedback*.

#### 4.3.1. Course content

The courses observed offer significant data on the content of interpreting courses. The characteristics of practicing material, type, and duration of the interpreting activities applied in each of the observed courses are presented in the table below:

| Course Content | Sight Translation | Introduction to Interpreting | Consecutive Interpreting | Simultaneous Interpreting |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Subject Matter** | • Water pollution | • Covid-19 and climate change | • Marine litter<br>• Palm oil | • Refugee response plan |

| | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | • Women rights<br>• Covid-19 | • Food allergies<br>• Fake news on social media | • Gender gap<br>• Opening speech in a diplomatic setting | • Diplomatic speech a trade agreement<br>• Speeches prepared by students on various topics cryptocurrenc y, cruelty-free cosmetic products, etc.) |
| **Media** | • Shared on screen<br>• Read aloud by the trainer | • Read aloud by the trainer | • Read aloud by the trainer | • Read aloud by the trainer<br>• Video of a speech delivered at TedTalk |
| **Sharing Material** | • Speech/text is not shared with students before. | • Speech/text is not shared with students before. | • Speech/text is not shared with students before. | • Speech/text is not shared with students before.<br>• The topic is shared with students before. |
| **Type of Interpreting Practice** | • Terminology work by students at the beginning<br>• Terms are discussed and finalized by the trainer.<br>• Sentence-by-sentence sight translation | • Theoretical knowledge is reminded.<br>• Sentence-by-sentence intralingual paraphrasing/ gisting. | • Terminology work at the beginning.<br>• Terms presented by the trainer.<br>• A theoretical framework is introduced by the trainer.<br>• Interpreting/ paraphrasing for every 2-3 sentences. | • Terminology work by students at the beginning<br>• Terms are discussed and finalized by the trainer.<br>• Simultaneous interpreting and bilateral interpreting |
| **Duration of Interpreting Practice** | 2-3 minutes | 1 minute | 2-3 minutes | 5-6 minutes |

Table 4.1: Observational Findings on Material Selection

As presented in the table above, current issues/hot topics and more general subjects from medical and political speeches that do not include intense terminology are selected for practice materials as demonstrated in the interviews[16]. In the CI course observed, the trainer explains why she does not prefer authentic speeches all the time by highlighting the compulsory status of the course and the lack of aptitude test as follows:

*"I also use original speeches. Some schools prefer authentic speeches as they apply an aptitude test for such interpreting courses. On the other hand, some schools do not prefer this (*using authentic material*) as all students (*of the program*) take this course. I use both structured and original speeches. We do not really follow a certain Ecole, because we apply methods based on needs".*

The trainers ensure that students do not encounter any unknown words during the practice not to hamper their comprehension stage. Therefore, terminology work completed either by students through searching online or by the trainer presenting the terms to students is an integral part of course content before the interpreting practice starts. This finding is in line with the interview findings which demonstrate that extracting terminology is the most commonly applied practice in interpreting classes. The lack of domain-specific terminology is particularly highlighted by the trainer of the CI course during the practice to encourage students to participate:

*"You can do it, as you can see, there is no unknown word or highly-specialized term"*

As a common point among all the courses, the use of a term discussed in the class is decided and declared by the trainer. In this sense, the trainer's authority is present for the in-class terminology work as exemplified in the dialogue between students and the trainer in the sight translation course:

Trainer: *Anything remarkable here? (*any remarkable term?*)*

Student 1: *Vibrant*

T: *What does it mean?*

S.2: *Isn't it 'canlı'?*

[16] see Graph 4.2: The most commonly practiced subject area

T: *Exactly! Anything else? Is there any unknown word?*

*S2: (*What is) *NRDC?*

T: *Have you checked it on the internet?*

S2: *Doğal kaynaklar savunma konseyi?*

*T: Well done!*

Although the students are encouraged to do their research on the terms unknown, the trainer mostly presents one true equivalence of the term discussed. In another example in the same course, the trainer asks students to find the Turkish equivalence of the term 'clean water act' by searching it online. After students come up with multiple alternatives, the trainer asks students to use 'temiz su yasası' in their interpreting in the end.

The acquisition of domain-specific terminology or coping skills with unknown terms is not prioritized in any of the courses observed, which conforms with the interview findings[17]. In all the observed courses, speech materials are selected from different areas, rather than focusing on the same specific subject area over weeks. This can be associated with the trainers' target of improving students' world knowledge rather than acquiring them expert knowledge in specific subject areas. This contradicts the interview findings which show that field/area knowledge is the second most commonly targeted competence[18]. However, as discussed by some participants in the interview[19], this finding may suggest that material selection in the observed courses aims to improve the insufficient extralinguistic knowledge of the students.

The most commonly used media is the speech texts read aloud by trainers rather than audio-visual materials. In the observed courses, audio-visual materials were used only in the SI course. This preference of the trainers can be related to students' low language proficiency in compulsory courses as narrated through interviews[20]. The student involvement in material selection was not observed clearly in the courses, except for the SI course where the trainer asks students for suggestions for the next week's topic:

[17] see 4.2.1.3.1.3. Terminology not prioritized
[18] see Graph 4.3: The most targeted competences in interpreting courses
[19] see 4.2.3.2.1. Choosing materials
[20] see Graph 4.1: The most commonly used media in interpreting courses

T: *Next week, there will be a lockdown. So, I want to do something lighter, something that really interests you in the next week's course.*

S1: *What about a press announcement?*

T*: Announcement on what? I want it to be something about current issues. I always find materials about COVID.*

S1: *What about climate change?*

T: *It might be. I also like such topics. But we have studied climate change a lot.*

S2: *Do you think a surgery video would be too hard for us to interpret? In my internship, they always interpret surgery videos at medical congresses.*

T: *It might be. It would be interesting. I will check it. You also search on the Internet. If you find a good one, please send me.*

This dialogue indicating student involvement in material selection was observed only in the SI course. However, in the other three courses observed, students' interests, language levels, weaknesses, and strengths in certain subject areas could be previously known by other trainers or the topics could have been selected in line with the students' views at the beginning of the semester.

As for practice duration, sight translation and CI practices lasted for approximately 2-3 minutes while SI practices lasted for 5 to 6 minutes at most. In the introduction to interpreting course, on the other hand, no rendering was made between two languages. Instead, the course was designed to improve the intralingual paraphrasing skills of students, as a core preliminary skill for interpreting. The students were also given choice to select practicing gisting or paraphrasing throughout the in-class activities. In this course, paraphrasing/gisting activities were carried out for every 2-3 sentences.

The lecturing of theoretical information was observed only in the CI course, and it was clear that the trainer had previously introduced a theoretical framework to the students in the introduction to interpreting course. In the SI course, strategy use was frequently mentioned by the trainer and students. Therefore, it can be inferred that students were equipped with the theoretical information within the scope of the course beforehand. In this regard, the theory and practice marriage, as a commonly narrated concept in interpreting, is well reflected in the observed courses[21].

In the interview, sharing the practice material with students before the course was a significant concept elaborated by the participants as an indicator of targeting basic interpreting skills rather than reflecting real-life conditions[22]. In the courses observed, on the other hand, the findings suggested the opposite. In the SI course, the trainer shared only the topic of the speech with the students for preliminary preparation. In this course, the trainer reminded students that the subject of the week had been uploaded on Moodle a week before and every student was entitled to find two parallel texts and do a glossary work. In other courses as well, it was observed that practicing materials were not shared with the students before the class. The students were exposed to the speeches at the moment of the practice. This, along with the duration of practices observed, can be evaluated as a factor that mimics real-life working conditions.

### 4.3.2. Class participation

Apart from *course content*, class participation and trainers' attitude in encouraging students to participate are other significant findings of the observation. The table below presents the information about number of students attending each course and students' active participation in interpreting practices.

| **Class Participation** | **Sight Translation** | **Introduction to Interpreting** | **Consecutive Interpreting** | **Simultaneous Interpreting** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Class Population** | 15-18 students | 20-23 students | 22-28 students | 8 students |
| **Participation in interpreting activities** | Same students (3-4) are voluntary to practice. | Same students (4-5) are voluntary to practice. | Same students (2-3) are voluntary to practice. | All students are actively participating. |

Table 4.2: Class participation

As presented in the table above, the class population is much higher in the three compulsory courses as opposed to the elective course which could be elected according to an aptitude test.

[21] see 4.2.2.2.4.2 More practice-based training
[22] see 4.2.1.1.5. Providing students with text

Similarly, very few number of students among the class population participate in interpreting practices in compulsory courses while SI students were not hesitant in practicing. It should also be noted that the trainers in all courses expected students to participate voluntarily without imposing any obligation. Upon seeing the same few students volunteer to take part in practices, the trainer of the CI course asks:

T: *Is this text hard for you? S1, would you like to try the last part?*

S1:….

T: *S.1, if you are here, knock on the screen 3 times (*smiling*).*

S1: ….

T: *OK, then…S.2 would you like to try?*

S.2: *I don't feel ready.*

T: *But this is very simple!*

Although the trainer tries to involve non-participating students in practices one by one, students mostly refuse. In another dialogue in the same course, the trainer encourages a hesitant student by comforting her about making mistakes:

T: *Anyone wants to practice on this part?*

S1: *Me!*

T: *Anyone else? Anyone else volunteers?*

S2: *Can I decide after you read the text?*

T: *What do you mean?*

S2: *If comprehend it well, then I can volunteer.*

T: *Is this really a life-and-death matter? Have I ever been rude to any of you about your performance?*

*S2: No, never.*

T: *You will always get nervous, but if we are meant to make mistakes, let's make them here. Even if you do not comprehend it all, you can interpret only the part you understand.*

In another course, sight translation, the same hesitant behavior of a student was observed. Although terminology work was made at the beginning of the course, the student was anxious about translating a term incorrectly during the activity:

T: *Anyone wants to move on?*

(No one volunteers for a long time)

T: *There is nothing you cannot do because we have already studied on all the terms.*

S1: *What did we say for 'outdrown'? Let me remember that term and then I can volunteer to translate.*

Along with the class population and status of the courses, the low class participation of students may also derive from the emergency remote teaching imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic and the pandemic-related stress, isolation, fear, and uncertainty as the courses observed were held online during the pandemic conditions.

Another factor in-class participation was observed to be related to engagement with peers. For example, in the introduction to interpreting courses, the trainer waits for volunteers to participate in gisting/paraphrasing activities for a long time. Then, she pairs up students through the Break-Out Rooms function of Zoom software. The trainer shares the speech text with students through the Chat function and the students are asked to read it once and then summarize it to their peers in break-out rooms. The students practice the given task with their peers and it is assumed that the trainer navigated through the rooms to monitor students. This part was not observed as the break-out sessions were not recorded. The course record was limited to the main room. After students come back to the main room, the trainer comments:

*T: If you are all able to do the task this good, why did not you volunteer to practice in the first place?*

This comment shows that the trainer was pleased with the students' practices in pairs in the break-out rooms, and she looked surprised and happy that the students could actually comprehend and summarize the given part although they were not raising their hands to practice before. Once the students practiced with their peers and come back to the main room, a higher number of students were eager to summarize the given part. Similarly, such constructivist practices applied in the course were observed to naturally involve students in class activity as will be discussed in the next section.

### 4.3.3. Constructivist activities

The following table summarizes constructivist activities applied in the observed interpreting courses.

| Constructivist activities | Sight Translation | Introduction to Interpreting | Consecutive Interpreting | Simultaneous Interpreting |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | • Individual work<br>• Pair-work<br>• Peer assessment<br>• Self-assessment | • Individual work<br>• Pair-work | • Individual work<br>• Self-assessment | • Pair-work<br>• Peer assessment<br>• Self-assessment<br>• Situated learning |

Table 4.3: Constructivist Activities

As presented above, individual work of students in terminology work and interpreting practice is commonly applied. In line with the interview findings, pair-work and peer assessment were the most commonly applied collaborative practices as a part of the constructivist approach[23]. Pair-work in an interpreting practice is always applied in the SI course while it is occasionally applied in sight translation and introduction to interpreting courses. In these courses, students were given time to practice the given part of the speech with their peers in break-out rooms and then expected to present their interpreting in the main room to the whole class. It was not applied in the CI course. It should be noted that the trainer's acquaintance with and knowledge of the remote teaching software can be a factor at this point.

Peer assessment is also an integral part of pair-work activities as well as the evaluation of the performing student's rendering in the main room. In the CI course, a very low number of students who were eager to speak up can be a factor for why the trainer did not opt for peer assessment.

[23] see 4.2.1.2.1. Collaborative learning environment

It was used at the end of almost every rendering in both sight translation and SI courses. In both courses, no rubric or evaluation criteria were followed by the students while giving feedback to their peers. In SI, students were observed to provide mostly positive feedback to their peers in an informal way focusing on delivery:

S1: *He already has a very good dictation. I feel like he is not interpreting, but speaking. At some point, I think he missed one sentence but he did not hesitate*.

S2: *She interpreted some figures inaccurately. But I do not think it is a big deal.*

Likewise, in the sight translation course, peer assessment is in the form of informal peer-feedback. The trainer asks peers if they have any other alternative to the translation of the performing student. Students' alternatives to interpreting are confined only to the use of different terms:

T: *If we have handled the terms…Who wants to start?*

(S1 starts sight translation on the first sentence.)

T: *What else can you use for this term?*

(S1 offers an alternative term.)

T: *Omit the term 'provide foundation', and insert something that makes more sense by yourself.*

S1: *Can I " it is 'very important'?*

T: *Exactly! Anyone else can also offer an alternative?*

S2 offers an alternative.

T: *Very good!*

Self-assessment is also commonly applied in the observed interpreting courses, except for the introduction to interpreting course, as an unstructured reflective practice at the end of the interpreting practices. Self-assessment is completely based on students' oral comments about their rendering rather than the use of more structured reflective practices such as writing logbooks, self-reflective journals, and so on. In the sight translation course, students are asked to record their voices for further self-assessment, and before listening to the records, the trainer asks about students' interpreting process:

T: *Before listening to your speech, how was it?*

Multiple students*: It was good.*

T: *Did anyone completely lose concentration while interpreting?*

S1: *I did! I was completely lost.*

T: *In the 4th grade I do not want to hear this 'I lost my concentration and left interpreting'. In this 3rd grade, you need to learn how to catch up with the missing information from the context. We are already interpreting the text that we studied. If you solve some problems now, you will be very comfortable in the 4th grade".*

Then, the trainer moves from a process-oriented assessment to the product-oriented one by asking students to listen to their voice records and take notes about their rendering. The content of the notes or the assessment criteria are not specified by the trainer:

T: *Now listen to yourself and criticize yourself by taking notes.*

....

*T: So, how was it? Did you like your voice?*

*S1: I have a question. I always use inverted sentences. Do you think this is a problem?*

*T: It is not really advised but sometimes you have to interpret that way due to the different sentence structures of Turkish and English. Anything else?*

*S2: I did not really like my voice and intonation.*

T: *You may not like your voice in the record but your intonation is really good. In the 4th grade courses, intonation is included in marking. For this course, I did not include it in the marking.*

In the same course of sight translation, the trainer includes SI with text practices into the course content and makes modifications to the speech text that is shared on the screen. She asks students to listen to their voice records to see if they could catch up with the speaker's deviations from the text:

*T: Now listen to your own recording. Could you omit the parts I omitted? Or have you just followed the text?*

*S1: I followed you. It is easier to follow you than to follow the text.*

*T: This is what I exactly expect from you because you are more inclined to SI.*

*S2: I looked at the text when I could not follow you.*

*T: There is no sight translation course in the next semester. You need to learn how to improve this skill (*interpreting with text*). You cannot master this skill in just one semester. This course supports your further SI course.*

In the CI course, note-taking techniques of the students were also involved in the process-oriented self-assessment:

T: *How did you take notes?*

*S1: I realize that it is better for me to write from top to bottom. It is very hard to note down numbers. I need to study that.*

The trainers were also observed to encourage students' self-reflective skills throughout the learning process. For example, in the introduction to interpreting course, the trainer does not offer an instant solution to a part that challenged the performing student with a product-oriented approach. Instead, she focuses on the process and helps the student to activate his memory to complete the paraphrasing exercise by referring to theoretical knowledge presented before and his world knowledge:

S1: *The way COVID affects people differ. It affects people….some people more. Sorry, I just forgot.*

T: *You may forget or miss a part, but you can still complement it with your background information. You need to say something, you cannot leave the sentence in half like that… Whom do you think COVID has affected more so far? Can you try to complete the sentence now?*

S1*: It affects elder people and those with chronic diseases?*

T: *Exactly!*

In the CI course, similarly, the trainer initially tries to activate students' background information by involving them in reflective practice:

T: *Our next speech is about the gender gap. What would you expect from the speech?*

S1: *I would expect terms related to income and a lot of numbers.*

A role-play exercise is planned in the CI course. Although the implementation of the practice was not among the observed course hours, the trainer entitles students to prepare a speech for the upcoming course week. Apparently, students will be expected to interpret consecutively a peer's speech:

T: *Next week we will move to opening speeches. I will ask you to prepare a speech for around 3 minutes. Have you received any speaking-related courses?*

*S1: I guess we had in the first grade*

*T: Then, you know how to prepare a speech. I expect you to prepare a speech like the ones we studied before. While preparing a speech, you can understand how a text is structured and how ideas are connected. Now, you are equipped to do it. You can upload your speech on EdMudo. A rating sheet will also be uploaded. You can see the content of a speech to be interpreted. We, interpreters, are initially speakers in front of the audience. You can also understand what to expect from a speech with this exercise.*

This practice is collaborative as the active participation of two students assuming the roles of speaker and interpreter is needed. However, it is unlikely to apply this interpreting practice in a highly simulated environment. Instead, it prioritizes the capacity of students to prepare a speech, rather than creating a realistic environment for interpreting. Because, the full speeches are previously shared with student interpreters, who can have enough time to memorize the content beforehand rather than putting effort into comprehending the message at the time of the in-class exercise as in a professional context.

A similar, yet more contextual and simulated role-play exercise was observed in the form of a situated learning practice in the SI course. The trainer reminds students that they were expected to prepare a multilingual interview text in pairs, one student asking in English and the other in Turkish, and a student would interpret a certain topic. In the course, a student, who assumes the interpreter role, consecutively interprets the dialogue between two other students for 4-5 minutes. In this role-play practice, at least three students should be active and work collaboratively to complete the task, and other students are also active as they assume the role of the audience who could also ask questions in either Turkish or English. Such a contextual setting created a highly active learning environment particularly when the interpreter student did not accurately render the question. The respondent of the question wanted the interpreter to repeat the sentence again, and the interpreter asked the interviewer for the correct meaning. The misunderstanding in this practice, which could also take place in a real conference setting, was observed to give students a chance to experience crisis management and coping skills. Besides, the non-intervention of the trainer in any phase of this contextual practice is a factor that can contribute to the capacity of students to act like professional interpreters. Despite being a consecutive interpreting exercise, this activity can also be seen as a way to mimic bilateral interpreting that is commonly used in conference settings and can be practiced with SI students as well. At the time of the observed courses held, this activity could have been designed as a way to replace or compensate for larger-scaled, mock conferences that would normally involve simultaneous interpreting, but could not be held in an online setting as well. This activity indicates a good example of a situated learning exercise that can be incorporated into many interpreting courses such as introduction to interpreting, note-taking, and conference interpreting. With this learning practice, trainers can target acquiring students with speech preparation and speaking skills. As the observational findings show that speech materials are mostly read aloud by the trainers, this exercise can also enable students to hear more speakers to deal with different speaking styles, accents, and speed.

### 4.3.4. Trainer feedback

Following the interpreting practice of students, self-assessment, and peer assessment, trainer feedback was a remarkable component of the usual course flow in all the observed courses. The form of the feedback provided and the feedback criteria followed by the trainer are presented in the table below:

| Feedback | Sight Translation | Introduction to Interpreting | Consecutive Interpreting | Simultaneous Interpreting |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| **Feedback Type** | • One-to-one feedback<br>• Sentence-based feedback | • General feedback | • Positive, one-to-one feedback.<br>• Encouraging students to participate.<br>• Out-of-class study and feedback with a rubric | • Detailed one-to-one feedback |
| **Feedback Criteria** | • Accuracy and terminology use<br>• Linguistic issues are not addressed. | • The importance of sense is emphasized.<br>• Linguistic issues are not addressed. | • Target language quality<br>• Note-taking | • Use of rubric: accuracy, delivery, and target language quality<br>• Linguistic issues are addressed. |

Table 4.4: Trainer Feedback

The general feedback on students' performances was observed only in the introduction to interpreting course which is confined to intralingual paraphrasing. Providing students with general feedback, the trainer evaluates students' paraphrases with a process-oriented approach by referring to the importance of rendering the sense in interpreting rather than ensuring equivalence:

*"I realized that you are still trying to memorize all the words (*uttered by the speaker*). In the speech, the speaker lists 'mothers, sisters, learners, citizens, leaders' and so on. Remember that you have a limited cognitive capacity…. Instead of using this limited capacity with these words, save it up for the key message. You can easily categorize these words as 'different roles of women'. Let's try to paraphrase this way for this next exercise".*

It is noteworthy that apparent grammar mistakes of students in practice are not fixed by the trainer, yet accurate transfer of the meaning is praised. Accordingly, it can be inferred that acquiring students with the skill of comprehending the sense of the message and reformulating it in different words as a core interpreting skill is prioritized over improving language use or fixing language errors. This observation is compatible with the interview findings suggesting that improving language-related issues are considered to be students' own responsibility[24] rather than an interpreter trainer's task.

In other courses where interpreting activities are conducted between languages, one-to-one feedback is provided to every performing student as demonstrated in the interview findings[25]. In the sight translation course, trainer feedback is provided at the end of self-assessment and peer assessment. It mostly targets accuracy and terminology use. If the key message is interpreted accurately with the terms agreed at the beginning of the course, the trainer only comments as *"good", "there was no problem", "no need to improve this I guess."* In this course, language-related issues are not addressed by the trainer either.

In the CI course, the trainer mostly focuses on target language quality to guide students to a more natural rendering. For example, the following feedback was provided to a student who interpreted a speech part into Turkish by sticking to the English language structure:

*"While interpreting, you can think of how you would say it if you were speaking, not interpreting. In craft videos where instructions are given, the speaker usually says "Now, what you are gonna do is…". To interpret this into Turkish, you would not literally interpret, right? You would interpret like, "Now you have to do this…" How can I say it in a more natural way? We should ask ourselves this question while interpreting".*

Another remarkable feedback criterion in this course is the symbols and reminder links used in the note-taking phase. In this criterion, the trainer adopts a more process-oriented approach by referring to the cognitive aspects of note-taking rather than evaluating the rendering as a product. For example, at the end of an interpreting performance, she asks the student:

T: "*What kind of reminder links have you used to remember the key points in your notes?"*

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[24] see 4.2.3.3.3. Individual effort
[25] see 4.2.1.4.2. One-to-one feedback

S: "*At first, I actually did not use much… Then, I used the greater-than sign to remember the phrase 'our ancestors were more… than us'. To remember the phrase 'it was eight times more', I used a fraction line".*

*T: "If it works for you, it is great! Because we need to show the logical link…in our notes. You can use any symbol that suits you. The only criterion is to make sure that the symbols you use are stable and efficient".*

In this course, the trainer also applies an out-of-class exercise at the end of some of the courses. She reads a speech for two minutes. Beforehand, she tells students that they can take notes if they want while listening to the speech, consecutively interpret the speech, record their voices and upload their records on Moodle if they wish to get feedback. In this exercise, students are expected to interpret within class hours, yet their microphones are muted. The trainer can only hear and provide feedback to the volunteer students who ask for feedback by uploading their records for the evaluation of the trainer. In this exercise, the trainer notes that an evaluation rubric will also be shared with students to inform them how their renderings will be evaluated. As this rubric is shared online through Moodle, the feedback criteria in the rubric could not be observed. The trainer's preference of rubric use for out-of-class activity, but not for in-class activity may also result from limited contact hours and crowded class population. It can indicate that out-of-class feedback provided based on a rubric can be more detailed and systematic than more general and short in-class feedback.

In this regard, it was observed that rubric-based in-class feedback is commonly used only in the SI course. One-to-one feedback is detailed in terms of accuracy, delivery, and target language quality. Language issues of students, though observed to be minor most of the time, are noted and fixed by the trainer while providing feedback. It can be associated with few number of students in the class which makes the contact hours sufficient for the trainer to offer detailed in-class feedback. An example of the feedback provided by the trainer by referring to three main criteria, namely accuracy, target language quality, and delivery is as follows:

*T: What happened? You stopped interpreting at some parts, but you still did not miss a thing.*

*S: I interpreted one sentence very quickly and shortly by anticipating. But the speaker started to speak too slowly by adding some fillers towards the end of the sentence. So, he was still talking when I finished interpreting.*

*T: I see. First, there was no problem in terms of accuracy… The use of Turkish in your rendering was also great. The only problem was that you remained silent for a long time and this is a problem in terms of delivery. While I was listening to you, I wondered what happened and why you stopped interpreting. Such long silences should be avoided as I always tell you. If you feel like there will be a blank, or you have missed a part, you may paraphrase the last sentence to fill the void".*

As presented in this example, although more structured and product-oriented feedback is provided in the SI course, the trainer also pays attention to the interpreting process.

In all categories where observational findings are discussed, there is a remarkable difference between compulsory courses (sight translation, introduction to interpreting, and CI) and the elective course (SI). Accordingly, in all compulsory courses, the subjects of the interpreting practices are more general and do not require domain-specific terminology. The course material consists of structured texts read aloud by the trainer. The class participation is low and limited to few voluntary students despite the crowded population. Constructivist activities are limited to pair-work on interpreting practice, informal and unstructured self-assessment, and peer assessment. The trainer's feedback is also informal and is not based on a rubric. In the SI course, on the other hand, the class population is limited to eight students who have passed the aptitude test to elect the course. Therefore, it was observed that students' motivation is higher both in the profession and course of interpreting. In addition, students' language levels were also higher compared to those in compulsory courses. Hence, the trainer can use authentic and more content-intense materials, and provide more detailed one-to-one feedback to ensure more intense training. The trainer is also able to spare more time for constructivist activities such as a situated learning practice, and thus ensure more active class participation. These observational findings are in line with the suggestions of the participants towards ensuring expertise in interpreting courses. Accordingly, aptitude tests applied before conference interpreting courses, limited class population, and changing the status of these courses from compulsory to elective can enable trainers to mimic real-life conditions more in their courses and offer more practices and, thus intense training.[26]

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[26] see 4.2.2.2. Expertise

## 5. CONCLUSION

This study sheds light on the current pedagogical practices applied in interpreter training to bridge the gap between the ideal interpreting pedagogy depicted in the literature and real-world interpreting classes. To this end, interview- and observation-based real data were collected from trainers serving in interpreting courses at undergraduate translation and interpreting programs in Turkey.

In the first part of the data collection process, a semi-structured interview was applied to 26 trainers. Their responses to close-ended questions were analyzed descriptively and demonstrated via graphs. The responses to the open-ended questions data were analyzed through the thematic analysis via MaxQda software. In this analysis, a total of 862 codes were obtained under three main themes, namely *Content, Goals,* and *Roles*. The first theme *Content* consists of 340 codes regarding the structure of the course content, usual course flow, in-class practices and activities, material selection, the structure of the feedback and assessment procedures, and so on. The second theme *Goals* consists of 223 codes regarding how to ensure expertise and technology use in interpreter training, which is defined as the ideal goals of the training and areas that need improvement in the future. The last theme *Roles* consists of 299 codes regarding the roles assigned to trainers and students for learning and teaching overall interpreting skills and knowledge as well as expectations from students for in-class and outside class practices. The relationship between the codes under all these themes was detected via the Code Relations Browser feature of the MaxQda software. In this analysis, codes that co-occur in the same document were detected and illustrated via figures. Accordingly, a strong relationship was found between poor foreign language command of interpreting students and basic skills defined to be the main target al interpreting courses; getting students involved in interpreting courses and presenting only the topic to the students prior to the course as in authentic interpreter-mediated settings; the low number of graduates working in the sector and basic skills targeted in interpreting courses; and product-oriented assessment and motivating students through positive feedback.

In the second part of the data collection, four different interpreting courses namely, Introduction to Interpreting, Sight Translation, Consecutive Interpreting, and Simultaneous Interpreting taught by three different trainers at three different universities were observed. The observed courses were taught online due to the ongoing COVID-19 pandemic. The observational data were analyzed under four main categories, being c*ourse content, class participation, constructivist* *activities,* and *trainer feedback*. The obtained data were demonstrated in tables in comparison with each other. The findings were also discussed against their conformity and/or contradiction with the interview data.

The research questions and sub-questions are answered in the light of the descriptive findings and thematic analysis of the interview questions along with the findings obtained from the observed interpreting courses as follows:

<u>R.Q.1. What pedagogical techniques and methods are applied in undergraduate interpreter training in Turkey?</u>

The data obtained within the scope of this thesis resists the exact categorization of interpreter training in Turkey under a specific pedagogical dichotomy as purely behaviorist or constructivist due to the diverse views and practices of the trainers as well as the complex natures and interpretations of the theories of learning. Instead, it was found that interpreter trainers adopt both behaviorist and constructivist approaches in their classes from different aspects. Accordingly, a transmissionist and behaviorist approach is adopted in interpreter training in the following aspects and matters:

a) Trainers undertake the responsibility of teaching interpreting strategies and theoretical information about interpreting, believing that students cannot acquire such knowledge through discovery; and they need direct instruction.

b) The direct instruction method, where the main responsibility of teaching is undertaken by the trainers, is applied for teaching sectoral and theoretical information including knowledge of interpreting strategies. In line with the main principles of direct instruction, guided and deliberate practices are held in the class, followed by the constant monitoring and feedback of trainers.

c) As for practices towards skill and competence acquisition, the mastery learning method is adopted. In this method, the task-based learning model is applied as students are given sufficient time to master certain subject matter or skill before moving to the next one. Interpreter trainers offer constant feedback on students' errors and difficulties in interpreting. In line with the behaviorist learning approach, trainers entitle students to work individually and independently during text-based in-class activities such as extracting terminology, reading and comprehending a text, paraphrasing/gisting, and sight translation. Trainers believe that constant and plenty of practice ensures reinforcement to create automatic responses during interpreting activities.

d) Trainers create a highly structured learning environment where most of the course content and practices are known and familiar to students, and thus the uncertainty in a professional context is not reflected in interpreting class. Allocating more course time to warm-up practices, providing students with a full speech text before the interpreting practice and trainers' reading the speech text aloud rather than using authentic speeches can set examples for the structured learning environment created for interpreter training.

e) The mastery acquisition is demonstrated through product-oriented assessment tools. Trainers mostly resort to product-oriented assessment and evaluation methods based on a set of predetermined criteria, mainly delivery, accuracy, and language use. Both formative and summative assessment processes are grounded upon detecting the errors in the interpreting performance. Trainers are also positioned as the final evaluator of the interpreting performance in both formative and summative assessment processes.

f) In-class feedback provided by trainers is mostly based on systematic corrections as the students' performances are closely monitored by the trainer. In this model, students are encouraged to demonstrate the 'accepted' behaviors in interpreting and discouraged through immediate interruption by the trainer. In this sense, trainer feedback functions as a reinforcement tool to build and sustain the relationship between stimuli-response.

g) As in assessment and evaluation, trainers make the final decision in approving course materials, course content, use of specific terminology, and the accurate rendering of the in-class activities.

<u>S.R.Q.1 Are constructivist methods (collaborative learning, situated learning, reflective practices) applied in interpreter training?</u>

A constructivist and student-centered approach is adopted by the trainers in the following aspects:

a) Trainers define their roles as ‘guides’ and ‘coaches’ and assign the main responsibility of learning to students who are expected to mentally construct skill use, and subject knowledge, foreign language skills by means of being active learners in the class and self-study outside the class. They define one of their main goals as raising students’ awareness towards key interpreting skills rather than teaching and instructing them. In this sense, trainers do not undertake the role of the transmitter of knowledge and facts, instead define their roles as guides and coaches of students’ self-learning.

b) Despite using mastery learning for skill-based practices, trainers advise against a teacher-centered pedagogy and instead encourage a student-centered learning environment and course design by guiding the learning process, steering students to practice deliberately, helping them reflect on their performances, and monitoring the performing students meanwhile and offering them constructive feedback, consequently to raise students’ awareness towards their own learning process.

c) Different student profiles are taken into consideration by trainers in terms of curriculum development, material selection, and providing customized training and feedback.

d) Students’ interests, needs, and suggestions are asked and taken into consideration in material selection rather than the materials that are pre-set by the trainer. Even though all the material subjects are predetermined, they can be easily changed in line with students’ needs and levels throughout the semester. Besides, different strengths and weaknesses of students in an interpreting class are taken into consideration to adapt the curriculum to varying student profiles. In this sense, a more flexible, customizable, and student-centered curriculum is designed.

e) Collaborative learning practices are commonly applied for interpreting practices through pair-work and peer assessment to help students learn from their peers. In these practices, students are asked to present their interpreting performance to their pairs first and get their feedback before presenting their interpreting to the whole class and the trainer.

f) Collaborative learning methods are used more commonly when students are provided with the topic of the interpreting practice rather than the full speech text. In these cases, a student-centered learning environment is created through simulations, and topics selected among the market-driven subjects, current issues, and subject areas that interest students.

g) Although simulations, mock conferences, and role-plays were stated to be used rarely in the interview, a situated learning model was observed to be actively and successfully applied only in the SI course observed. It is concluded that low student population, high motivation of students, application of aptitude test, the elective status of the course, and high language proficiency of students can enable trainers to apply situated learning model.

h) Students are encouraged for self-reflection on their interpreting performance. Although students are not provided with proper guidance on self-reflective practices, self-assessment is commonly used as a reflective practice. It is aimed to raise students' awareness of their own cognitive processes and help them construct knowledge by themselves.

<u>S.R.Q.2. Which interpreting competence acquisitions are targeted by interpreter trainers through the applied techniques and methods?</u>

The participants selected mother tongue/foreign language command as the most important competence targeted in their interpreting classes in their responses to the relevant close-ended question. However, the interview and observational findings revealed a contradiction regarding the targeted competences in the courses. Accordingly, mother tongue/ foreign language command is considered a prerequisite of all interpreting courses which should not tackle linguistic issues in limited contact hours. In this sense, improving linguistic skills is considered to be students' responsibility rather than an outcome objective of an interpreting course. One of the most prominent findings of the study is that the trainers do not assume any responsibility for the language-related errors and incompetences of the students.

Likewise, field/area knowledge was specified as the second most important competency in the close-ended question. However, the interview and observational findings revealed the opposite. It was specifically elaborated during the interviews that acquiring students with knowledge of a specific subject area in regards to the domain-specific and terminology knowledge could not be achieved at the undergraduate level. In observation sessions, practicing in diverse subject areas was observed as well. During the interviews, the trainers explained the reason behind selecting these diverse areas as the main topics of the courses to improve students' background information.

The contradiction between the trainer's choice of these two competences as top priorities and their behaviors and practices applied in courses may result from trainers' self-study expectations from students. In other words, interpreter trainers may be expecting their students to improve their mother tongue/foreign language command and acquire field/area knowledge as an outcome of their courses. However, these competences are not thoroughly addressed in restricted contact hours, yet are expected to be obtained through self-study.

World knowledge and current issues knowledge are other targeted competences. This is mostly ensured through the material selection that includes hot topics of the semester or course week. Students are asked to research the given topic, follow news and prepare a glossary on the topics.

Interpreting-related theories are generally instructed to students in the first few weeks of the semester to lay the ground for the fundamental concepts, and the course flow is then followed with deliberate practices. Learning of interpreting strategies and related coping mechanisms along with cognitive models and theories is deemed under the trainer's responsibility. On the other hand, the trainer's role is limited to guiding students toward acquiring interpreting skills.

Although the responses to the close-ended questions showed that transferable skills are not targeted in the interpreting courses, trainers elaborated more on their views on transferable skills while responding to the open-ended questions. They defined some of the core skills of interpreting, mainly listening and speaking skills, proficiency in a foreign language, note-taking skills, and communication skills as transferable skills that can be acquired in interpreting classes and put into use in different professions as well.

It is found that the main assessment criterion of trainers is to ensure accuracy during interpreting practices. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the main competences targeted by trainers are knowledge of basic theories and concepts of interpreting, and basic interpreting skills of listening and comprehension, world knowledge, dual-tasking, gisting/ paraphrasing/explaining along with source text analysis and terminology work prior to the interpreting.

Overall, both behaviorist and constructivist approaches are put into use by trainers to address specific aspects of interpreter training in terms of acquiring learners with interpreting competence. To better illustrate which specific pedagogical practices are preferred in targeted acquisitions are briefly presented in the table below with reference to the Components Approach and Mikasa's Interpreting Competence Model:

| **Pedagogical practice applied** | **Targeted acquisition** | **Components Approach** | **Mikasa's Interpreting Competence Model** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Direct instruction | • Theoretical knowledge and concepts of interpreting<br>• Sectoral knowledge of interpreting | • Knowledge competence | • Pre-process skills |
| Mastery learning | • Interpreting-related skill sets including dual tasking, terminology extraction, paraphrasing/gisting, sight translation, strategies, and coping tactics, etc. | • Skills competence | • In-process skills |
| Guided, deliberate practices | • Interpreting-related skill sets including dual tasking, terminology extraction, paraphrasing/gisting, sight translation, strategies, and coping tactics, etc. | • Skills competence | • In-process skills |
| Structured learning environment | • Acquaintance with the interpreting material | • Knowledge competence | • Pre-process skills |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| Product-oriented assessment | • Accurate rendition | • Language competence<br>• Skills competence | • Pre-process skills<br>• In-process skills |
| Systematic corrections during in-class feedback | • Prevention of fossilized errors<br>• Accurate rendition | • Language competence | • Pre-process skills |
| Peer assessment | • Reflective skills of students<br>• Improving the self-confidence and motivation of students<br>• Accurate rendition | • Language competence | • Pre-process skills |
| Self-assessment | • Reflective skills of students<br>• Accurate rendition | • Language competence<br>• Skills competence | • Pre-process skills |
| Pair-work | • Improving the self-confidence and motivation of students<br>• Reflective skills of students<br>• Accurate rendition | • Language competence<br>• Skills competence | • Pre-process skills<br>• In-process skills |
| Presentation | • Communication skills like public speaking<br>• Current issues & world knowledge | • Language competence<br>• Knowledge competence | • Pre-process skills |
| Group-work | • Terminology extraction | • Language Competence | • Pre-process skills |
| Warm-up activities | • Terminology extraction<br>• Current issues & world knowledge | • Knowledge competence<br>• Language competence | • Pre-process skills |
| Providing students with text prior to the | • Foreign language command<br>• Subject knowledge | • Language competence | • Pre-process skills |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| interpreting activity | • Terminology<br>• Comprehension skills of students | • Knowledge competence | |
| Role-play | • Awareness of intercultural differences<br>• Interpreting-related skills | • Knowledge competence<br>• Skills competence | • Pre-process skills<br>• In-process skills |
| Situated Learning | • Interpreting-related skill sets including communicative aspects | • Skills competence | • In-process skills |
| Self-study of students | • Foreign language command<br>• Field/area knowledge | • Language competence<br>• Knowledge competence | • Pre-process skills |

Table 5.1: Pedagogical practices applied and targeted acquisitions

In conformity with the Components Approach, the main interpreting competences targeted by the trainers can be classified under four categories of Language, Knowledge, Skill, and Professionalism. As the final competence that should be acquired through training, Professionalism should follow the acquisition of high-level Language, Knowledge, and Skill competence. Due to the challenges encountered in interpreter training at the undergraduate level in Turkey, trainers generally cannot focus the Professionalism competence in their courses.

Similarly, the targeted skills can contribute vastly to the pre-process which includes a high-level command of two languages, satisfactory level of terminology and subject knowledge, and preparation skills; and partially to in-process skills which include comprehension, production, and transfer skills in Mikasa's Interpreting Competence Model. On the other hand, the already-low language competence of students in interpreting courses disables trainers to focus further on peri-, para- and post- skills. To overcome this problem, trainers suggested admitting students who have already acquired language competence at an excellent level to the T&I programs and interpreting courses in particular.

R.Q.2. What are the common challenges in undergraduate interpreter training in Turkey as perceived by the trainers?

The common challenges discussed by the participants are listed as follows;

a) Poor foreign language command of students, particularly in their B language, hampers students' comprehension skills, and thus reduces their motivations for interpreting courses and profession.
b) Limited foreign language proficiency of students restricts the already-limited contact hours with basic skills of interpreting such as listening and comprehension, paraphrasing and gisting as students' foreign language levels are not sufficient to practice on domain-specific materials.
c) Similarly, limited world knowledge of interpreting students is another challenge frequently encountered by trainers and it limits practice time while it increases course time allocated to pre-interpreting and subject-knowledge practices.
d) Another factor that leads to a lack of motivation is crowded classes, insufficient course hours, and aptitude tests held at later stages of interpreter training, thus leading to insufficient training.
e) Low-student motivation perceived as a challenge by the trainers in the interviews is demonstrated in the observation sessions as well. It was also observed that student participation in the practices was very low in crowded classes.
f) The lack of aptitude test and compulsory status of some interpreting courses, particularly SI, leads to a crowded student population in class and restricts close observation of the trainer.
g) The crowded class population limits the in-class practice and restricts process-oriented approaches and detailed feedback to be offered by the trainer. In these courses, trainer feedback is mostly limited to the accuracy of the rendition, and other issues like delivery, linguistic issues, and terminology use are overlooked. In the same manner, process-oriented and rubric-based, comprehensive feedback was observed to be offered only in the SI course in which the student population is not high due to the aptitude test being applied prior to the course selection.
h) There is a lack of physical means that are needed for interpreter training, such as laboratory, sound-proof booths, other technical equipment like headphones and microphones, etc. in some programs.

i) All the abovementioned challenges lead trainers to equip students with basic skills of interpreting rather than training conference interpreters.

j) Limited academic staff, who had degrees in other relevant areas such as ELT, linguistics, and literature rather than T&I, was reported to hesitate teaching interpreting courses and T&I programs have hardships in finding competent interpreter trainers who are specialized in interpreting studies.

k) Lack of standardization in interpreter training in terms of course content and assessment practices was reported as a challenge before objective and scientific teaching and as a factor leading to subjectivity and instinct-based pedagogy.

l) The main obstacles before offering expertise interpreting skills in current interpreter training have been found as limited academic staff, lack of standardization, and restricting instructors' attendance to conferences.

m) The undergraduate level of training is considered sufficient to train staff interpreters, but unsatisfactory for conference interpreters in terms of the acquisition of expertise in the field and implementation of authentic learning environments.

n) Trainers reported that very few people who receive interpreting courses work as interpreters after their graduation. Although this outcome is not perceived as a challenge, it indicates that there is a contradiction between the high number of T&I programs opened in Turkey and the number of graduates who strive to be professional interpreters.

o) Trainers are not able to mimic real-work conditions as in their interpreting classes as;

- They cannot apply a cognitive apprenticeship model where students attend real conference environments and observe professionals, due to limited international events held in rural cities; crowded student population, and lack of motivation of students towards becoming professional interpreters.
- They are also not able to apply an experiential learning model through which students can experience real working conditions of interpreting through simulations due to limited physical means in some educational institutions.
- Limited course hours (2/3 hours per week) are deemed insufficient for offering plenty of practice and giving intensive, personalized feedback.

R.Q.3. What are the recommendations of interpreter trainers to improve the current interpreter training in Turkey?

The participants' suggestions for improving the quality of the current interpreter training at the undergraduate level in Turkey are listed as follows:

a) Excellent command of a foreign language is a prerequisite for any interpreting activity. To ensure this prerequisite in the programs following suggestions were made:

1) Foreign language teaching requires a different formation than interpreter training, thus an interpreting course cannot acquire students who need language teaching with targeted interpreting skills. Therefore, the weight of foreign language knowledge in admission to T&I departments should be revised and increased to promote quality interpreter training.

2) Besides, an aptitude test that examines the linguistic competence of students along with the aptitude of students to interpreting should be applied before expertise-based interpreting courses such as SI, CI, and conference interpreting to train competent interpreters for the market. An aptitude test can also limit expertise courses with the students who are motivated and competent to become interpreters. In this way, crowded class populations can be prevented in expertise courses in which more practice-based and intense training can be ensured by applying more constructivist approaches such as collaborative, reflective, and situated learning practices in a real-like and simulated learning environment.

3) Another suggestion towards increasing students' foreign language levels in interpreting classes is about changing the conditions for admission to T&I programs. Admission conditions to non-English departments should include proficiency in the given B language (French, German, Arabic, etc.). Besides, current foreign language exams evaluated for the final university entrance score and ranking of students are advised to be updated to evaluate students' four skills of language use.

b) More programs should be opened at the master's level to train conference interpreters with a more intense, and practice- and expertise-based training in which the experiential learning model is extensively applied. Postgraduate level training can also shift the target of interpreter training to training interpreters for the market from acquiring students with fundamental interpreting skills along with some transferable skills.

c) The compulsory status of some interpreting courses should be readdressed. Expertise-based conference interpreting courses, particularly SI should be offered electively so that willing students who carry the ambition of being interpreters can join.

d) Physical means such as an interpreting laboratory, sound-proof booths, sound systems, tools, etc. required to provide quality interpreter training should be provided in all institutions.

e) To ensure expertise-based training, material selection should be market-driven and include as many subjects and genres as possible; students should not be previously exposed to the exact practice material to be interpreted in the class.

f) An aptitude test should be applied before conference interpreting courses such as CI and SI in particular. For institutions that already apply an aptitude test, it is suggested to implement the screening process earlier to ensure more intense training with less number of students, increased practice time, and one-to-one feedback.

g) Contact hours of interpreting courses should be increased. If not possible, limited course hours should be compensated with outside the class and self-study exercises.

h) Trainers should be equipped with technological knowledge to catch up with the advancements in the field such as remote interpreting. They should also incorporate these advancements in their courses to train competent interpreters who can be present in the future interpreting market.

i) Limited academic staff who can deliver interpreting courses, despite the mushrooming T&I departments in Turkey can be overcome through doctorate programs to be opened to train competent, academic interpreter trainers, and teacher training programs to be offered to professional interpreters who can be hired as part-time trainers. Quality doctorate programs in the field of T&I[27] should be increased to pave the way for training interpreter trainers to have sufficient expertise in the field to teach better, to overcome the problem of limited academic staff who are able to teach interpreting with sufficient academic background.

j) From the professional aspect, trainers' participation in conferences as conference interpreters should be encouraged and supported by the university administrations as ensuring the professional interpreting experience of instructors is deemed crucial to achieving teaching expertise in interpreting courses at the undergraduate level.

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[27] As of 2022, there are only 9 doctorate programs in T&I while there are more than 80 undergraduate programs.

k) Lack of standardization in training in terms of course content and assessment criteria may be prevailing as long as heterogeneous groups of students are admitted to T&I programs. However, more academic research on field practices can contribute to promoting more sound knowledge and understanding of interpreter pedagogy.

The present study demonstrates the overall picture of interpreter training at the undergraduate level in Turkey. The real data collected via interviews and observation complement other studies conducted through curriculum analysis on undergraduate programs in Turkey. Although studies in the literature suggest improving current training curricula in line with the market demands and new developments in the sector, the current study concludes that not all interpreting courses in T&I departments in Turkey have the intention of meeting the market needs due to numerous challenges encountered throughout the training process. In this sense, it can be concluded that the objectives and outcomes stipulated in the curriculum do not necessarily correspond to the real learning environment. Although there is a copious of research that focuses on how T&I programs meet market demands or comply with professional standards, the present study shows that market-related concerns are not prioritized in most interpreting courses at the undergraduate courses. Instead, interpreter trainers pointed out the need for the postgraduate level for training that complies with professional standards and market needs. In this sense, comprehensive and in-depth research on postgraduate interpreter training in Turkey can point out the compliance of the interpreter training with market needs and demands.

Course content and pedagogical stance of trainers are observed to differ in general interpreting courses (e.g. introduction to interpreting) and conference interpreting courses (e.g.simultaneous interpreting, consecutive interpreting), in this study. Further studies on interpreter training are suggested to be conducted on specific courses of interpreting modes separately. For instance, interpreter training practices applied at different programs on consecutive interpreting can set concrete examples of activities and exercises specific to teaching consecutive interpreting skills.

The ongoing pandemic conditions restricted the observation of on-site interpreting courses in this thesis. As the pandemic measures started to be lifted, such an observation can be carried out in on-site courses with the higher number of observed courses. Similarly, the pandemic also accelerated the shift to remote/hybrid interpreting while this thesis was being written. In line with this impact, future studies will be needed to investigate the remote interpreting training in this continuously increasing mode as well.

The present study discussed interpreter training from the trainers' perspective. A parallel study investigating the problems in learning and teaching, activities applied, self-study practices, and so on from the perspective of interpreting students can complement this study.

One of the striking findings of this study is that participants frequently reported a low number of graduates that are actively working in the interpreting sector. Taking a stand from this, a more comprehensive study can be conducted to investigate the employment rates of both translators and interpreters to redesign T&I curricula with a focus on transferable skills if necessary, and set new goals toward learning outcomes and skill acquisition.

The participants of the current study highlighted the different course requirements and outcomes for training staff interpreters and conference interpreters, suggesting that more graduates are employed as staff interpreters than conference interpreters. Thus, further research is needed to investigate the employability rates in staff interpreting and conference interpreting as well as their pedagogical implications by differentiating interpreting markets.

A similar study can be conducted to investigate the real-life training practices in translation courses in Turkey via interviews with trainers and the observation of the courses. In this way, the pedagogical approach currently adopted and problems encountered in translator training can pave the way for more sound practical suggestions to improve the quality of the training. Besides, good-practice examples to be discovered by such research can set an example for all translator trainers and researchers in the field.

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# APPENDICES

## Appendix I- Code system

- Kod Sistemi 952
  - CONTENT 0
    - BASIC SKILLS 1
      - Easier than translation 2
      - Warm up 4
        - Memory exercises 1
        - Current issues 3
        - Paraphrasing 4
        - Shadowing 3
        - Skimming scanning 3
        - Text analysis 5
      - Undergraduate training for basic skills 16
        - More focus on background information 1
        - Preparation for written translation course 2
        - Easier tasks 4
        - Non-technical 6
        - Low expectations 3
        - Less complex content 3
        - Terminology not prioritized 4
          - Easier terminology 2
      - No aptitude test 7
        - Perceiving aptitude test as unfair 3
      - Not particularly training for the market 5
        - Future teachers 2
        - Experience over years needed in SI 1
      - Providing students with text before interpreting 7
      - Compulsory status of interpreting courses 5
      - Written tasks in interpreting 4
      - Insufficient training 3
        - More research 2
    - CUSTOMIZATION 2
      - Step-by-step 3
      - Process and product-oriented 1

| | |
|---|---|
| One-to-one feedback | 15 |
| Different student profiles | 4 |
| Crowded classes | 19 |
| Flexible curriculum | 4 |
| Individual differences between students | 6 |
| DGS students | 2 |
| PROCESS-ORIENTED ASSESSMENT | 1 |
| Fixing language-use mistakes | 4 |
| Informal performance feedback | 1 |
| Strategy use | 2 |
| Assessment on assignment | 1 |
| Skill use | 1 |
| SWOT analysis | 2 |
| Portfolio feedback | 1 |
| PRODUCT-ORIENTED ASSESSMENT | 0 |
| Delivery | 0 |
| Fluency | 1 |
| Prononciation | 1 |
| Prosody | 6 |
| Prosody not prioritized | 10 |
| Accuracy | 15 |
| Terminology use not prioritized | 8 |
| Language use | 4 |
| Language use not prioritized | 4 |
| Offering solutions | 3 |
| Errors | 6 |
| Use of rubric | 4 |
| Equal components | 3 |
| Coherence | 1 |

| | |
|---|---|
| GETTING STUDENTS INVOLVED | 0 |
| Improving self-awareness of students | 6 |
| Self-assessment | 9 |
| Transcription homework | 3 |
| Speaker role of the students | 3 |
| Preparing speech | 2 |
| Motivating class participation | 2 |
| Student involvement in material selection | 5 |
| Interest of students | 15 |
| Collaborative Learning Environment | 1 |
| Group glossary | 3 |
| Games | 1 |
| Presentation | 4 |
| Interpreting the presenting student | 4 |
| Peer-assessment | 21 |
| Teaching feedback | 1 |
| Role-play | 1 |
| Role-play community interpreting | 1 |
| Pair-work | 10 |
| Boothmate | 4 |
| Pair work group organized by instructor | 1 |
| Group work | 2 |

- GOALS — 0
  - TECHNOLOGY USE — 0
    - Technology-friendly instructors — 4
      - Learning AI — 1
    - Technology-friendly interpreters — 4
      - Term banks — 2
      - Inclusion of technological advancements into curricula — 6
      - Inclusion of remote interpreting into curricula — 5
  - EXPERTISE — 0
    - Obstacles before expertise — 0
      - Instructor's participation to conference — 3
      - Non-compliance with training standards — 1
      - Academic staff — 8
      - Lack of materials — 2
      - Lack of standardization — 5
    - More intense training — 3
      - Subject-field expertise — 1
      - More interpreting courses — 1
        - Insufficient course hours — 7
        - Increasing course hours — 1
      - Master's level — 6
      - Few number of graduates working in the sector — 14
        - Few students expertise — 1
        - Internship at early career — 4
        - Narrowing market — 3
      - Aptitude Test Needed — 7
        - Aptitude Exists — 3
        - Earlier aptitude test — 4
      - Mimicing real work conditions — 3
        - Market-driven subjects — 14
        - Professional interpreter instructors — 4
        - Training for the market — 1
          - Staff interpreter — 3

| | |
|---|---|
| Engagement with professionals | 3 |
| Getting expertise in the field | 7 |
| Doctor | 2 |
| Mentor system | 5 |
| Master program to replace mentor system | 6 |
| Authentic speeches | 1 |
| Topic only presented to students before interpreting | 11 |
| Reading text only once | 1 |
| Simulations | 3 |
| Mock conference | 1 |
| Physical means | 6 |
| Text/speech variety | 6 |
| Simulation | 1 |
| Exposure to real conference environment | 9 |
| Limited means in the city | 1 |
| More practice-based training | 9 |
| Plenty of practice | 4 |
| Deliberate practice | 2 |
| Practice over theory | 4 |
| Theory&Practice | 15 |
| Multiple speeches/texts | 3 |
| Admission to department via special talent test | 2 |
| ROLES | 0 |
| TEACHING | 0 |
| Being motivated | 2 |
| Teaching how to be communicator | 2 |
| Giving good linguistic knowledge | 1 |
| Teaching strategies | 6 |
| Teaching techniques | 2 |
| Offering prepratory information | 1 |
| Giving good theoretical knowledge | 1 |
| Teaching techniques | 1 |
| Cognitive processing | 1 |

- Education over practice 2
  - Nurture over nature 1
  - Cognitive models 1
- GUIDING 6
  - Trigerring 1
  - Shaping 1
  - Coordinator 1
  - Mentor 1
  - Ensuring well-being of students 2
  - Not to transmit knowledge 3
  - Choosing material 2
    - Teacher-centred material selection 6
    - Improving world knowledge 3
      - Giving homework 2
    - Current issues 14
    - Structured speeches 4
    - Fundamental phrases 1
    - Structured materials 3
  - Taking a final look at the task 1
  - Instructor's interpreting/taking notes in class 5
  - Motivating students 15
  - Giving advices for out-of-class practice 5
  - Feeding from multiple channels 1
  - Building connections 2
  - Setting clear goals 3
  - Sharing personal experience 1
  - Raising awareness 8
- ASSIGNING STUDENTS RESPONSIBILITY 2
  - Student-related problems 0
    - Lack of motivation 15
    - Lack of pre-class study 4
    - Lack of communication skills 1
    - Poor foreign language command 18

| | |
|---|---|
| Preparatory exam grade | 2 |
| Insufficient high school education | 3 |
| Unwillingness to interpreter from A-B | 1 |
| Non-flexibility | 4 |
| Stage fright | 5 |
| World knowledge | 4 |
| Lack of background information | 2 |
| Understanding the "sense" | 3 |
| Mother tongue command | 6 |
| Reporting | 2 |
| Students' own talent & skills | 8 |
| Adding up to the fundamental skills | 8 |
| Improving self | 1 |
| Practice | 2 |
| Athlete | 1 |
| Self-Confidence | 11 |
| Accepting feedback | 2 |
| Language use | 5 |
| Demanding knowledge | 6 |
| Adaptation skills | 1 |
| Appreciation | 3 |
| Student's motivation | 4 |
| Having goals in interpreting career | 1 |
| Being gifted | 10 |
| Fabric-tailer metaphor | 1 |
| Inidividual effort | 4 |
| Participation | 3 |
| Voluntary performance | 8 |
| Compulsory performance | 3 |
| Out-of-class study | 5 |
| Students' individual terminology work | 15 |
| Researching the given topic | 5 |
| Improving foreign language command | 5 |
| Going abroad | 2 |
| Building connections | 1 |

## Appendix II- Approval of the Ethics Committee

**Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 26.02.2021-10448**

**T.C.**
**ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ**
**ÜNİVERSİTESİ**
**Etik Komisyonu**

Sayı : E-11054618-302.08.01-10448
Konu : Bilimsel ve Eğitim Amaçlı

**LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE**

İlgi : 21.01.2021 tarih ve E.3937 sayılı yazı.

İlgi yazınız ile göndermiş olduğunuz, Enstitünüz Mütercim Tercümanlık Anabilim Dalı **Doktora öğrencisi Özge BAYRAKTAR ÖZER, Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Ayşe Selmin SÖYLEMEZ'in** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü ***"Current Pedagogical Tendencies and Practical Suggestions Towards a Constructivist Approach in Interpreter Training: Scaffolding Interpreting Skills (Sözlü Çeviri Eğitimindeki Mevcut Pedagojik Eğilimler ve Yapılandırmacı Yaklaşıma Yönelik Uygulama Önerileri: Sözlü Çeviri Becerilerinin Desteklenmesi)"*** adlı tez çalışması ile ilgili konu Komisyonumuzun 24.02.2021 tarih ve 02 sayılı toplantısında görüşülmüş olup,

Etik Komisyonunca onaylanan ilgilinin çalışmasının, yapılması planlanan yerlerden izin alınması koşuluyla yapılmasında etik açıdan bir sakınca bulunmadığına oybirliği ile karar verilmiş; karara ilişkin katılım listesi ve onaylanan çalışmalar ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Araştırma Kod No:2021/34

**Prof. Dr. İlhan ÜZÜLMEZ**
**Komisyon Başkanı**

Ek:
1- Katılımcı Listesi
2- Onaylı Çalışma



Adres:Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi Yücetepe Mahallesi 85. Cadde No 8 06570 Çankaya / Ankara
Telefon:+90 (312) 231 73 60
Kep Adresi:hacibayramveli@hs01.kep.tr

Bilgi için: Saliha GEMALMAZ
Unvanı: Genel Evrak Sorumlusu

# Appendix III: Informed Consent Form

**Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 26.02.2021-10448**

**T.C.**
**ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ**
**Etik Komisyonu**

Sayı : E-11054618-302.08.01-10448
Konu : Bilimsel ve Eğitim Amaçlı

**LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE**

İlgi : 21.01.2021 tarih ve E.3937 sayılı yazı.

İlgi yazınız ile göndermiş olduğunuz, Enstitünüz Mütercim Tercümanlık Anabilim Dalı **Doktora öğrencisi Özge BAYRAKTAR ÖZER, Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Ayşe Selmin SÖYLEMEZ'in** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü ***"Current Pedagogical Tendencies and Practical Suggestions Towards a Constructivist Approach in Interpreter Training: Scaffolding Interpreting Skills (Sözlü Çeviri Eğitimindeki Mevcut Pedagojik Eğilimler ve Yapılandırmacı Yaklaşıma Yönelik Uygulama Önerileri: Sözlü Çeviri Becerilerinin Desteklenmesi)"*** adlı tez çalışması ile ilgili konu Komisyonumuzun 24.02.2021 tarih ve 02 sayılı toplantısında görüşülmüş olup,

Etik Komisyonunca onaylanan ilgilinin çalışmasının, yapılması planlanan yerlerden izin alınması koşuluyla yapılmasında etik açıdan bir sakınca bulunmadığına oybirliği ile karar verilmiş; karara ilişkin katılım listesi ve onaylanan çalışmalar ekte gönderilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Araştırma Kod No:2021/34

**Prof. Dr. İlhan ÜZÜLMEZ**
**Komisyon Başkanı**

Ek:
1- Katılımcı Listesi
2- Onaylı Çalışma



Adres:Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi Yücetepe Mahallesi 85. Cadde No 8 06570 Çankaya / Ankara
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Kep Adresi:hacibayramveli@hs01.kep.tr

Bilgi için: Saliha GEMALMAZ
Unvanı: Genel Evrak Sorumlusu

**Appendix IV-Interview form**

**GÖRÜŞME SORULARI**

Bu çalışma, Türkiye'de sözlü çeviri eğitiminde benimsenen pedagojik yaklaşım ve uygulanan yöntemleri araştırmayı hedefleyen bir doktora tezinin bir parçasını oluşturmaktadır. Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çevrimiçi görüşme kayıt altına alınacak ve alınan kayıtlar yalnızca görüşmede verilen cevapların yazıya aktarılmasında araştırmacı tarafından kullanılacaktır. Tüm katılımcı bilgileri ve yanıtları gizli tutulacak ve üçüncü taraflarla paylaşılmayacaktır.

Sorulara vereceğiniz içten ve detaylı yanıtlar, sözlü çeviri eğitiminin geliştirilmesi için eğitimciler ve öğrencilere ışık tutacaktır.

**BÖLÜM 1- Demografik Bilgiler**

1. Yaş: ☐20-25 ☐26-35 ☐36-45 ☐46-55 ☐56-65 ☐66+
2. Cinsiyet:
3. Eğitim düzeyi:
4. Akademik ünvan:
5. Üniversitede çalışma şekli: ☐Tam zamanlı ☐Yarı zamanlı
6. Ders verilen üniversite adı:
7. Ders verilen dil çifti:
8. Profesyonel sözlü çeviri tecrübeniz var mı? ☐Evet____ yıl. ☐ Hayır
9. Aktif şekilde sözlü çevirmen olarak çalışıyor musunuz? ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır
10. Son 3 yılda verdiğiniz sözlü çeviri dersleri hangileridir?

☐ Simultane/andaş çeviri

☐ Ardıl çeviri

☐ Not alma teknikleri

☐ Yazılı metinden sözlü çeviri

☐ Konferans çevirmenliği

☐ Toplum çevirmenliği

☐ Diğer (Lütfen belirtin):_________

**BÖLÜM 2- TEMEL YÖNTEM VE TEKNİKLER İLE HEDEFLENEN YETKİNLİKLER**

11. Sözlü çeviri alıştırmalarında (yazılı metinden sözlü çeviri dersi hariç) en sık kullandığınız araç hangisidir? (Yalnızca birini seçin)

☐Sınıf içerisinde, ders sorumlusu tarafından sesli okunan yazılı metinler

☐Ders sorumlusu tarafından sınıf dışında sesli okunan ve sesli kayıt altına alınan yazılı metinler

☐Konferans ortamlarından alınmış ses kayıtları

☐Görsel-işitsel metinler (videolar, filmler vb.)

☐Diğer (Lütfen belirtin):_________________

12. En çok alıştırma yaptığınız konu alanı? (Yalnızca birini seçin)

☐Tıp

☐Teknik

☐Politika

☐Hukuk

☐Ekonomi

☐Tarih

☐Sanat&Kültür

☐Diğer (Lütfen belirtin): _______

13. Sözlü çevirmenler için en önemli olduğunu düşündüğünüz yetkinlikler nelerdir? Aşağıda listelenenler arasından 5 yetkinliği önem sırasına göre sıralar mısınız? (1: En önemli, 5: En az önemli)

a) Ana dil & yabancı dil bilgisi
b) Kültür bilgisi
c) Konu/alan bilgisi
d) İkili görev/çoklu görev becerileri
e) Prozodi (Doğru tonlama, vurgu, ses tonu vb.)
f) Hafıza/bellek becerileri
g) Takım çalışması
h) İletişim becerileri
i) Uyum sağlayabilme becerisi
j) Teknolojik okuryazarlık
k) Liderlik
l) Planlama becerileri
m) Organizasyon becerileri

Diğer (Lütfen belirtin): ____________________

14.Verdiğiniz sözlü çeviri derslerinde en sık uyguladığınız 5 yöntemi/tekniği seçiniz:.

a) Sözlü çeviri ile ilgili kuramsal bilginin (tarihi gelişim, teorileri bilişsel modeller vb.) öğretilmesi
b) Sözlü çeviri ile sektörel bilginin öğretilmesi (etik kurallar, piyasa talepleri, standartlar, yönetmelikler vb.)
c) Sözlü çeviri stratejilerinin öğretilmesi (erteleme, açımlama, genelleme vb.)
d) Her bir öğrenciye bireysel geribildirim verilmesi
e) Tüm öğrencilere genel geribildirim verilmesi
f) Terminoloji çıkarma
g) Terminoloji sınavları/quizleri
h) Konuşmanın/metnin özetlenmesi/açımlanması (summarizing/paraphrasing)
i) Sözlü çeviriye hazırlık niteliğinde yazılı metinden sözlü çeviri alıştırmaları
j) Verilen bir ödev/görev üzerinde eşli ya da grup çalışması
k) Kabin arkadaşıyla çalışma
l) Gölgeleme çalışmaları
m) Hafıza/bellek çalışmaları
n) Not alma çalışmaları
o) İkili işlem/çoklu işlem
p) Akran değerlendirme
q) Öz-değerlendirme
r) Konferans simülasyonları
s) Rol yapma çalışmaları (konferans simülasyonları haricinde)
t) Zihin haritaları oluşturma
u) Öz değerlendirme raporları/defterleri yazma
v) Bireysel sunumlar
w) Grup sunumları
x) Jigsaw tekniği, çalışmaları
y) Fishbowl/akvaryum tekniği, çalışmaları
z) Oyunlar
aa) Gerçek sözlü çeviri etkinliğini gözlemleme
bb) Bilgisayar destekli sözlü çeviri araçlarının kullanımı

Diğer (Lütfen belirtin): _________________________

14. Yukarıdaki yöntemlerden hiç uygulamadığınız hangileri?

**BÖLÜM 3- SÖZLÜ ÇEVİRİ EĞİTİMİNE YÖNELİK PEDAGOJİK YAKLAŞIM**

15. Eğitimin etkili olması nasıl sağlanabilir? Belirli bir yöntemle mi, yoksa eğitici ya da öğrencilerin tutumlarındaki değişikliklerle mi?
    *Prob 1 : Kendinizin tecrübe ettiği en iyi öğrenme yöntemi nedir?*

16. Sizce sözlü çeviri öğretilebilir mi? Sözlü çeviride uygulamada karşılaşılan sorunların üstesinden gelmede öğrencinin kendi beceri ve öğrenme stratejileri ne derece önemli?

17. Herhangi bir sözlü çeviri dersindeki en yaygın ders akış sürecini anlatır mısınız? Sınıfa girdiğiniz andan dersin sonuna kadar yaptığınız uygulamalar, alıştırmalar vb.?
18. Sözlü çeviri derslerinde öğrencilerinizle ilgili yaşadığınız en yaygın sorun nedir? Bu sorunu ortadan kaldırmak için nasıl bir yol izliyorsunuz? Örnek verebilir misiniz?
19. Ders içinde ya da dönem sonunda öğrencileri nasıl değerlendiriyorsunuz? En temel değerlendirme ölçütünüz nedir? Hangi kriterlere göre puan, not, geribildirim veriyorsunuz?
    *Prob 1: Temelde hangi yetkinlikleri değerlendiriyorsunuz? Terminoloji, alan bilgisi, genel sözlü çeviri performansı?*
20. Alıştırma ve uygulamalarda çalışacağınız konuları nasıl seçiyorsunuz? Güncel konulara göre mi karar veriyorsunuz ya da öğrencilerin belirli konulardaki ilgileri ya da eksikliklerine göre mi? Örnek verebilir misiniz?
21. Mesleğin geleceği hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz? Sizce bu alanda otomasyon mümkün mü? Gelecekte sözlü çevirmenlerde hangi beceriler gerekli olacaktır?
22. Sizce mevcut eğitim gelecekteki gerekli becerileri öğrencilere kazandırmada yeterli mi? Değilse, eğitimde ne gibi değişiklikler önerirsiniz?

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Yorum ve görüşler:

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# ÖZGEÇMİŞ

**Kişisel Bilgiler**

Soyadı, adı : BAYRAKTAR ÖZER, Özge

**Eğitim**

| **Derece** | **Eğitim Birimi** | **Mezuniyet tarihi** |
|---|---|---|
| Yüksek lisans | Hacettepe Üniversitesi | 2017 |
| Lisans | Hacettepe Üniversitesi | 2013 |
| Lise | Bursa Hürriyet Anadolu Lisesi | 2009 |

**İş Deneyimi**

| **Yıl** | **Yer** | **Görev** |
|---|---|---|
| 2016-… | Atılım Üniversitesi | Araştırma Görevlisi |
| 2014-2016 | Ufuk Üniversitesi | Okutman |

ankara HBV

ankara
HBV