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Repair Strategies in Consecutive Interpreting: Comparing Professional Interpreters and Interpreting Trainees

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Abstract

This empirical study investigates features of interpreters' use of repair strategies in Chinese-English consecutive interpreting. The data were collected from a consecutive interpreting experiment in which nine professional interpreters and nine interpreting trainees (all native speakers of Chinese with English as their B language) were invited to interpret an authentic speech from Chinese into English. A parallel bilingual corpus was built comprising transcripts of the speech and the interpreting output. All the repair strategies therein were coded for analysis. Follow-up interviews were conducted to elicit interpreters' recall of their adoption of such strategies. Results show that in general, professional interpreters made significantly fewer repairs. Striking differences between the two groups were found in (a) trainees' more frequent use of repetitions, restart repairs, as well as grammatical and lexical error repairs, which can be attributed to trainees' lower proficiency in formulating ideas in English with proper lexical choices, correct collocations, and efficient syntactical structures; and (b) professionals' more frequent use of synonym repairs, which are presented mainly in disguised forms and applied skillfully as buffer strategies. The pedagogical implications and possible extensions of the study are also discussed.

Keywords: repair strategy; Chinese-English consecutive interpreting; professional interpreters; interpreting trainees

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Repair Strategies in Consecutive Interpreting: Comparing Professional Interpreters and Interpreting Trainees

1. Introduction

This study examines repairs, an important index of fluency (Koponen & Riggenbach, 2000; Skehan, 2003), in Chinese-to-English consecutive interpreting. Interpreters have often been advised to avoid repairs for improving the fluency of their delivery (Tang, 2020a; Tissi, 2000). Yet, few scholars have gone deeper into this subject and questions remain as to whether such strategies would present different features with the improvement of interpreters' expertise. It is the aim of this study to contribute to the literature regarding repair strategies that interpreters use, and to examine their possible changes with interpreters' expertise by way of an experimental study. To start investigating this subject, a professional group and a trainee group were invited to interpret the same speech. Repairs used by both groups were coded and then compared, revealing differences that have implications for interpreting pedagogy as well as further studies.

2. Resolving a moot point of repair in interpreting

The concept of *repair* was initially discussed by Schegloff, Jefferson, and Sacks (1977) in their analysis of people's daily conversation. They made a distinction between *repair* and *correction*. Whereas *correction* refers to the replacement of speech errors by what is correct, *repair* is a broader concept not limited to error replacement. Because repairs can also be commonly found in interpreting and can help unveil interpreters' monitoring mechanisms, they were later analyzed in the field of interpreting studies as an indicator for enriching understanding of the interpreting process. Repair in interpreting is commonly known as "an utterance rectifying what the interpreter has just said or certain errors because of slip of tongue" (Tissi, 2000, p. 114).

Although there is consensus on the definition of repair, its classification in interpreting has been heterogeneous. A first step in a systematic comparison of the repair strategies of professional interpreters with those of interpreting trainees must be to resolve this moot point of repair research and produce a taxonomy that can be applied specifically to the analysis of interpreted discourse.

Three systematic taxonomies of interpreting were relevant to this investigation. Petite (2005) created the first such categorization in a corpus-based analysis of repair mechanisms in simultaneous interpreting. After analyzing data collected from eight professional interpreters recorded at four international conferences on topics of general interest, she established a classification model based mainly on Levelt's (1983, 1989) taxonomy. Because Levelt's classification was originally established for self-repairs made in spontaneous speech production, Petite made the following amendments: (a) breaking the trichotomy of overt repairs, covert repairs and rest repairs into a dichotomy of overt repairs and mid-articulatory repairs; (b) introducing a new dimension and dividing occurrences into input-generated and output-generated repairs; (c) deleting ALC (a repair made by the speaker to make a level adoption or

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establish coherence); and (d) adding EG (a repair to correct a grammatical error). This taxonomy eliminates categories virtually impossible to analyze, like covert repairs, and puts more emphasis on the interpreting process by proposing mid-articulatory repairs. Yet Petite's taxonomy is problematic for two reasons: first, Levelt's proposal of ALC indicates that there are cases in which it is impossible to determine whether a repair belongs to AL (moving from a less to a more precise term) or AC (creating coherence with previous text or terminology). Petite did not draw a clear line between these two categories either. Second, although Petite added EG, there are still certain interpreting-specific repairs that have not been included, for example, repairs to correct semantic errors after the interpreter realizes s/he misunderstood the original meaning. Such corrections are not rare in interpreting and should not be neglected.

Shen & Liang's (2020) taxonomy, derived from a study of consecutive interpreting, identified five major repair forms: repetition, restart, replacement, rephrasing, and delayed repair. These repairs are clearly defined, with no overlaps. However, likely due to a small sample size and the selection of source speech, their taxonomy fails to include some repairs common in interpreting (i.e. repairs for correcting semantic error mentioned above) and thus may not be universally applicable.

In an earlier study for the investigation of repair strategies, Tang (2020b) built a parallel corpus of source speech and interpreting output provided by invited interpreting trainees. She then classified all the repair cases identified from that corpus based on (a) the linguistic information in the output, (b) the paralinguistic features of the output, (c) the participating trainees' notes, and (d) the participating trainees' report from retrospective interviews conducted following the interpreting session. The resulting taxonomy model sorts interpreters' repair strategies into five major categories and nine subcategories (see Figure 1).

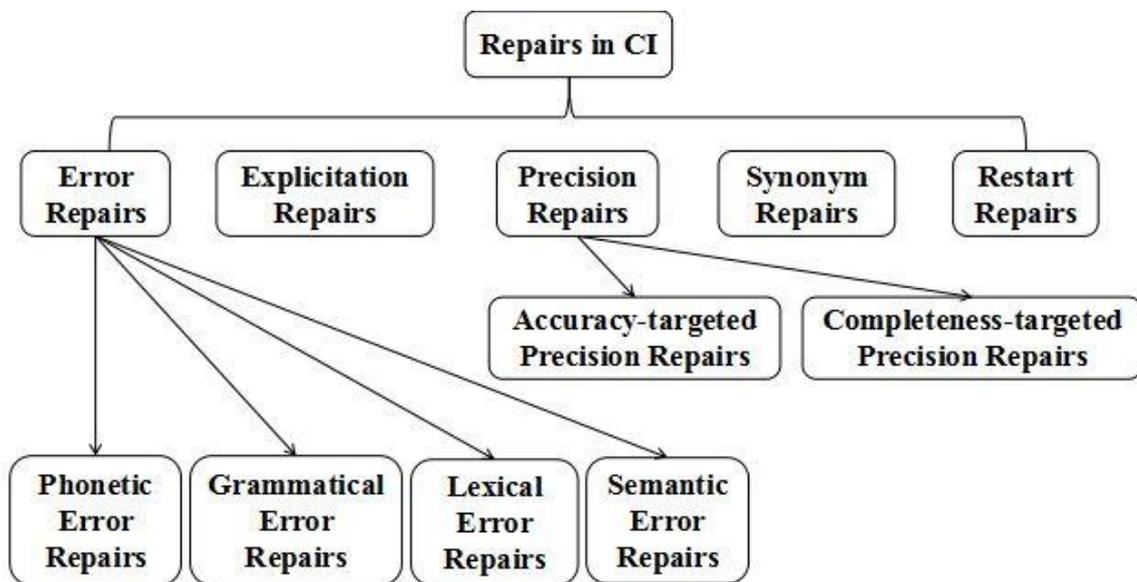


Figure 1. Taxonomy of repairs in consecutive interpreting (translated from Tang, 2020b, p. 75).

Due to the data-driven nature of the above taxonomy, there may be repair categories which failed to be listed since they did not appear in the corpus. However, compared with the two others described above, the third taxonomy has already covered a wider range of repair strategies used commonly by interpreters and can help present features of repair strategies in interpreting with a broader vision. As it has resolved the moot point of repairs in interpreting to a greater extent, the third taxonomy will work as a theoretical basis for categorizing repairs in the current study.

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3. Research design

Two groups of participants were asked to complete a Chinese-English consecutive interpreting task. A follow-up interview was then conducted with each participant to explore the interpreting process and identify the underlying differences between professional interpreters and interpreting trainees in their interpreting performance and monitoring mechanisms.

3.1 Participants

The research involved nine professional interpreters and nine interpreting trainees, all Chinese native speakers with English as their second language. All trainees were postgraduate students majoring in Translation and Interpreting at a university in China. Having attended one semester of interpreting courses, they were familiar with the basic principles and ethics of interpreting and trained to develop CI-related skills such as active listening, chunking, logic integration, note-taking, and others. However, their field experience was quite limited. The professional group consisted of five interpreting trainers working at universities and four in-house interpreters, two in government departments and two in foreign companies.

3.2 Source material

The original speech for the CI task was excerpted from the former Minister of Education's press conference, which was impromptu and delivered in Chinese. It is 6 minutes and 50 seconds long with 1,566 Chinese characters in total. In the audio excerpt, the former minister answered a question raised by a journalist on China's educational reform.

3.3 Procedure

Participants completed the interpretation task one at a time. The task began with a short briefing to inform participants of the procedure of the experiment. Participants received a handout containing information about the speaker, the audience, the length and topic of the speech, and a glossary. They were permitted to take notes as a physical aid for memorizing information. The source speech, followed by each participant's interpreted version, were recorded as audio files and later transcribed for analysis.

Following the briefing session, participants participated in a warm-up session in which they listened to an excerpt of a speech delivered by the same speaker, to familiarize themselves with the delivery style of the speaker and the working condition. Participants then completed the interpretation task individually in a quiet room with broadcasting and recording facilities.

A follow-up interview took place immediately after the CI task. Because all the participants were compound bilinguals who were more fluent in their A language than their B language, it was easier for them to express ideas and provide explanations in their mother tongue. Thus, the interview was conducted in Chinese. They were asked to describe the interpreting process while listening to the recording of their interpreting output and reading the transcript of the original speech. Participants had been briefed at the beginning of the experiment that the interview would not be used to evaluate their performance but to investigate the difficulties they encountered and the strategies they adopted during the interpreting process. Hence, their major task was to recall and verbalize what they had been thinking about when they used certain strategies, that is, to help identify the main triggers for those strategies.

During the interview, participants could stop the recording at any time to comment. When researchers identified repairs that the participants had not commented on, they stopped the recording and elicited recalls by raising questions for clarification, such as "Why did you restart the sentence here?" and "Did you encounter any difficulty here?" Each interview was recorded and transcribed for analysis.

3.4 Data analysis

After all follow-up interviews had been completed, recordings of both the source speech and the interpreting product by each participant were transcribed and aligned, and a bilingual parallel corpus was built from the transcripts of

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one source text and 18 target texts. Paralinguistic features were also transcribed with special markers (e.g., <uh> for hesitations; <p> for pauses; ~ for stretched pronunciations) (Tang, 2018). The corpus analysis was also supported by interpreters' protocols provided in their self-reports; their explanations of their repairs were highlighted and considered when analyzing motivations for the use of different repair strategies.

4. Results and discussion

The analysis resulted in the identification of 439 repairs. Based on features of the collected data and also for the convenience of intergroup comparison, repairs were put into the following nine categories (see Figure 2): error repair (ER), explicitation repair (XR), precision repair (PR), synonym repair (SR), restart repair (RR), and repetition (RP). Error repairs were subdivided into phonetic error repairs (ERPs), grammatical error repairs (ERGs), lexical error repairs (ERLs), and semantic error repairs (ERSs).

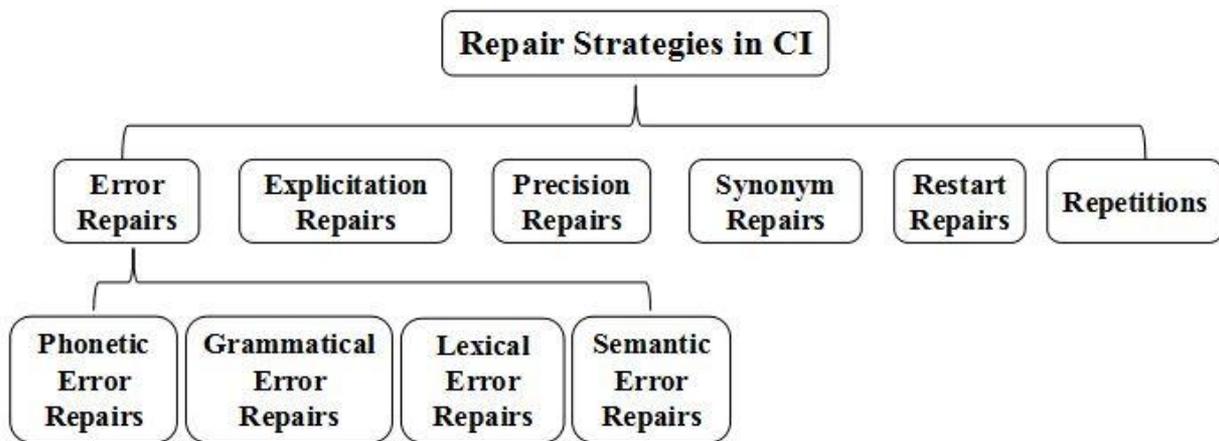


Figure 2. Categorization of repair strategies in CI.

Two amendments were made to Tang's (2020b) taxonomy (see Figure 1): First, precision repairs were no longer subdivided into accuracy-targeted precision repairs and completeness-targeted precision repair. As only a limited number of precision repairs could be found in the collected data, no further division was needed for analysis and difference measurement. Second, repetition was added as a category. Although Dailidénaité (2009) and Shen & Liang (2020) classified repetition as "no repair", since repetitions made by interpreters in the current study functioned similarly to repairs, they were classified here as a form of repair strategy.

The Mann-Whitney test (Corder & Foreman, 2009), a nonparametric test used to measure intergroup differences, was applied to measure differences between the professional and the trainee group. The nonparametric test was used because a sample size of 30 is required for parameter tests (Salkind, 2011) and this study included only nine participants in each group.

Table 1 shows the frequency, percentage, and relative ranking of each repair category identified by each group, together with the *p* value yielded from the Mann-Whitney test (using SPSS v.22.0). A total 273 repairs made by interpreting trainees and 166 by professional interpreters signifies a significant intergroup difference. The finding that interpreting trainees made noticeably more repairs than their professional counterparts indicates, as expected, that professional interpreters with a higher level of expertise interpreted more fluently than interpreting trainees.

Table 1. Statistical comparison of repair strategy between trainee and professional groups.

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Repair Type	Trainees	Ranking	Professionals	Ranking	<i>p</i> value
ERP	8 (3%)	9	6 (3%)	7	0.667
ERG	23 (8.5%)	3	5 (3%)	8	0.002*
ERL	12 (4%)	7	2 (1%)	9	0.008*
ERS	21 (8%)	6	15 (9%)	5	0.570
XR	12 (4%)	7	11 (7%)	6	0.963
PR	22 (8%)	5	23 (14%)	4	0.928
SR	23 (8.5%)	3	45 (27%)	1	0.131
RR	56 (21%)	2	23 (14%)	3	0.006*
RP	96 (35%)	1	36 (22%)	2	0.008*
Total	273 (100%)		166 (100%)		0.021*

*[All significant differences were marked with an asterisk.]

Quantitative and qualitative analysis of interpreters' output addressed the following questions: Why did interpreting trainees perform less fluently? What repair forms were used most frequently by trainees and professional interpreters? Which repair forms presented statistically significant intergroup differences?

4.1 Differences in high-frequency repairs

Analysis revealed that repetition was the major repair strategy across both groups; synonym repair was the repair strategy most frequently used by professional interpreters; and restart repair was the second most frequent repair strategy (after repetition) used by interpreting trainees.

Not only did repetition rank as one of the most-used strategies by both groups, but also a significant difference existed in the way the two groups used this strategy. To be specific, interpreting trainees used repetitions more frequently than professional interpreters ($p = 0.008$), a finding that contradicts Shen and Liang's finding (2020) that repetition accounted for about 20% of the total repairs in either group, with no significant intergroup difference. The notable intergroup difference found in the current study derives from the two groups' differing motivations for using repetition in their interpretation. Example 1 illustrates typical scenarios in which both trainees and professionals made repetitions. TT1 was excerpted from trainees' output, TT2 from professionals' output.

Example 1.

ST: 我们经过多年的努力, 我们希望大大改进农村教师的质量, 能够为我们农村的孩子们, 能够提供更加优质的教育资源, 使得他们接受良好的教育。

Gloss: Through years of efforts, we hope to greatly improve the quality of rural teachers, to be able to provide our rural children with more quality education resources, so that they can receive good education.

TT1: <uh> After <uh> a lot of year's <uh> hard working, we've already made a lot of <uh> progress in improving teacher's <uh> performance and, quality. <uh> And **our stu-, our~ students** <uh> have a lot of opportunity to enjoy this resources, and to have more~ chances to <uh> receive higher education.

TT2: The ultimate goal, is **to pro- to provide**, high quality education, to children in the rural areas, through high quality teachers.

In TT1, the trainee, having not finished saying the word "student," stopped and repeated the expression "our~ student." The trainee's hesitation <uh> at the beginning and the stretched way of pronouncing "our" indicated that

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she may have encountered difficulties here. The trainee reported that while verbalizing “our stu-,” she recalled that the original word used by the speaker is “孩子(children).” After hesitating, she became convinced that “student” is an English word that can express the original meaning and said “our student” again. Other trainees’ use of repetition was similarly mainly triggered by uncertainty regarding the meaning of the original expression.

In TT2, while saying the word “pro(vide),” the professional interpreter suddenly stopped and later repeated “to provide.” The professional recalled that knowing that the original information can be expressed more concisely, she opted not to follow the original syntactical structure but to rephrase this part. Instead of keeping the order of the original information by expressing “high-quality teachers” first and “high-quality education” later, the professional reversed the terms’ positions; that is, the point of this repetition was syntactical restructuring. Similar to this case, other repetitions made by professionals were triggered largely by splitting attention on formulating ideas that followed.

Example 1 demonstrates that repetitions made by interpreting trainees were usually motivated by their uncertainty about the uttered expressions *per se*, indicating that they were less proficient in finding proper lexical resources to express ideas in their second language. In contrast, repetitions made by professional interpreters were principally motivated by them being less skillful in attention-sharing, or in the “coordination” of “efforts” (Gile, 2009, p. 176), suggesting that they may use repetition to delay the delivery of new information.

The significant intergroup difference in using repetition can be further explained by professional interpreters’ preference for synonym repairs, the most frequently used repair strategy among professional interpreters. Synonym repair is, to some extent, similar to repetition; however, although this strategy is labeled as a form of repair, semantically it repairs nothing. The added synonym exerts barely any impact on the semantic meaning of the output. So why did interpreters make such repairs? Retrospective feedback shows that synonym repairs and repetitions made by professionals were not triggered by lexical-level difficulties. Instead, they were mostly adopted as buffer strategies, through which interpreters could slow down the information production and gain extra time to organize the ideas that followed.

Example 2.

ST: 我们的一个基本思想就是要吸引社会上优秀的人才来当老师，要吸引优秀人才到农村，到基层，去长期从教，终身从教。

Gloss: One of our basic principles is to attract outstanding talents from the society to become teachers, to attract outstanding talents to rural areas [and] grassroot units, to teach for a long time, [and] to teach for life.

TT: But one principle for us is, we want to make sure that we have the, we have the condition, to attract high quality talents in, to become teachers in the rural areas, and not just **ad hoc or temporary** teacher, but a teacher <p> but a life-time teacher.

In Example 2, the interpreter reported that while saying “ad hoc or temporary”, s/he split half of his/her attention to figuring out an appropriate translation for “去长期从教，终身从教 (to teach for a long time, to teach for life)”. The expressions “ad hoc teacher” and “temporary teacher” are synonymous. With or without the added “temporary,” the semantic meaning of the output does not change. Yet, the semantically unchanged synonym addition helped the interpreter delay the rendition of the original phrase.

Example 3.

ST: 如果说现在城乡之间教育还存在着比较大的差距的话，硬件差距还有，但是不是最重要的。

Gloss: If [we] say there is still a large gap between urban and rural education, there is still a gap in hardware, but it is not the most important one.

TT: We all realize that there are [sic] still a huge gap, between the education in rural and urban areas, especially in <p> **the facilities and equipments**. However, these are not the most important <p> discrepancies.

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In Example 3, the professional interpreter first translated “硬件(hardware)” as “facilities” and then added a synonym, “equipments” [sic]. The interpreter reported in retrospect that she did not think “hardware” was a good choice, because it usually referred to smaller items. According to her understanding, the gap here referred to things like classroom, multimedia, and so forth, so she used “facilities.” Afraid of being too general, however, she decided to add a repetitive expression, “equipments” [sic]. Because the added synonym did not change the semantic meaning of the output, she could then gain some time to check if she had missed any information.

Compared with repetition, synonym repair is less detectable. Moreover, 69% of the synonym repairs in the professional group share a common feature with Examples 2 and 3: the “reparandum” and the “reparatum”² are connected by the linking words “or” or “and.” Such “disguised repairs” were less likely to be detected by listeners and less likely to influence the fluency of the delivery. Listeners may even regard those synonym repairs as interpreters’ active strategies for further clarification and give higher evaluation for interpreters’ performance.

The second most frequently used repair strategy among trainees was restart repair. In Shen and Liang’s (2020) study, students were found to restart sentences more frequently than professionals, yielding a significant intergroup difference ($p = 0.000$). Again, a significant difference was found in this study between the way the two groups used restart repairs ($p = 0.006$). Comparatively speaking, professional interpreters employed remarkably fewer restart repairs than their trainee counterparts. Trainees’ tendency to restart a sentence suggested that they encountered more difficulties at the syntactical level. After starting a sentence, even though the first version can express the original meaning, they tended to reorganize the information and change the initial syntactical structure. Generally, this was because they found it hard to finish the formulation of the following information based on the initial starts.

Example 4.

ST: 我们已经从一个人口大国建设成为一个人力资源大国，但我们现在要向人力资源强国进军。

Gloss: *We have already, from a country with a big population, become a big country with human resources, but we now are going to march towards a powerful country of human resources.*

TT: China, now~, has developed, from~ a country with large number of population **to <uh> it solved the <uh> it satisfied** the human resources <uh> and now~ it is going to a <uh> stronger level.

Example 4 provides two typical cases of restart repairs among trainees. After verbalizing “from a country with large number of population to”, the trainee suspended the ongoing encoding and started a new sentence, “it solved the”. Having not finished the second try, the trainee started again, saying “it satisfied the human resources”. The hesitation marker <uh> appeared twice, indicating possible difficulties. The trainee later recalled that the two changes mentioned in the original information — “从一个人口大国建设成为一个人力资源大国...向人力资源强国进军” (from a country with a big population to a big country with human resources ... to a strong country with human resources) — were not what she had anticipated, which influenced the encoding process. In fact, the initial start “from a country with large number of population to” is unproblematic and can be followed by “a country with large number of human resources,” through which the original meaning is well conveyed. Instead of figuring out ways to express the original idea with the start which had already been verbalized, the trainee abandoned the initial start. The frequent use of restart repairs increases the number of fragmented sentences and decreases the fluency of the output, showing that trainees, compared with professionals, lack flexibility and proficiency in formulating ideas in English.

The striking differences between the two groups’ use and type of high-frequency repair strategies clearly demonstrate that professionals interpret more fluently than trainees, because their higher level of expertise makes them less likely to become stuck on lexical or syntactic difficulties and more skillful in avoiding unfinished sentences and adopting well-disguised synonym repairs.

² The term “reparandum” refers to the item to be repaired and “reparatum” refers to the repaired item (see Levelt, 1983; Petite 2005).

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4.2 Differences in error repairs

Researchers have found a tendency to associate repairs with errors. For instance, Postma and Kolk (1993, p. 474) proposed three stages in a repair — “error detection, interruption or cut-off, and the correction itself” — that limited the scope of repairs to error correction. However, previous studies had already shown that only a small part of repairs in interpreting are error-triggered (Petite, 2005; Sheng & Liang, 2020). Statistics in the current study also confirm that for both interpreter trainees and professionals, the majority of those identified repairs were not related to error detection or correction: only 16% of professionals’ and 24% of trainees’ identified repairs involved error correction. Among the four types of error-related repairs, no significant differences were found in phonetic error ($p = 0.667$) and semantic error repairs ($p = 0.570$). Yet, striking differences were identified between the two groups’ use of grammatical error ($p = 0.002$) and lexical error repairs ($p = 0.008$).

Grammatical error repair was a repair strategy used by only three participating professionals but by every single participating trainee. The revised grammatical errors involved errors of tense, preposition, subject-predicate consistency, and singular-plural consistency, among which the revision of incorrect tenses and subject-predicate inconsistency was found to be the most common.

Example 5.

ST: 温家宝总理专门到北京 35 中听了 5 节课, 这个, 召开了教师座谈会

Gloss: Premier Wen Jiabao actually attended five classes in the No. 35 Middle School of Beijing, held a meeting with the faculty members

TT: Premier Wen Jiabao visited Beijing <uh> thirty <p> fifth <uh> middle school and~ visited~ five lessons, with students there and he also <p> **have a has a had a** meeting with staff there

Example 5 presents a typical scenario in which trainees made grammatical error repairs. The example contains two grammatical error repairs, one to correct an error of subject-predicate consistency and the other to correct an error of tense. The trainee initially said “have,” then, realizing that “have” cannot collocate with the subject “he,” used “has” instead. Upon recalling that the action occurred in the past, she made another revision which changed the predicate to “had.” Such repairs demonstrate that trainees still lack mastery of English grammar.

Lexical error repair was identified in the output of seven of the nine participating trainees, yet appeared in the output of only two of the nine professional interpreters. Lexical errors revised by trainees primarily resulted from their lack of proficiency in accessing appropriate English collocations.

Example 6.

ST: 当然, 绩效工资制度不仅仅是收入的提高, 同时也是一次人事分配制度的改革。

Gloss: Of course, the merit pay system means not only an increase in income, meanwhile [it] is also a reform about personnel distribution system.

TT: We can say that the merit paid system is not only~ about the improvement about teachers’ salary, but also about **the re~composition or the resoursh, resource distribution** in teaching team.

Example 6 illustrates two error repairs, one lexical error and one phonetic, made by a trainee. The trainee later reported that because the reference of “it” was unclear, she intended to change “人事分配制度 (personnel distribution system)” to “资源的重新调配 (reallocation of resources)”; however, she failed to find the proper English translation of “资源的重新调配”. Realizing that “re~composition,” was not a good collocation with “resource distribution,” she abandoned this word and verbalized “resource distribution” directly. Maybe triggered by the uncertainty, the trainee mispronounced “resource” as “resoursh” but immediately corrected that error.

The striking differences between the two groups’ use of grammatical and lexical error repairs demonstrate that professional interpreters interpret in a more fluent manner, because they are less likely to make grammatical errors

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and lexical errors, and because they are more capable of retrieving appropriate collocations to express ideas in English.

5. Conclusion

The results of the present study show that expertise does impact types and frequency of interpreters' repair strategy. Interpreting trainees' fluency was severely diminished by a higher frequency of repetitions, restart repairs, lexical error repairs, and grammatical error repairs, triggered mostly by uncertainty in lexical choice, inflexibility in syntactical construction, and unfamiliarity with English grammar. On the other hand, professional interpreters, with their higher level of expertise, delivered with better fluency through more skillful use of synonyms and conjunctions to disguise repairs and to gain extra information-processing time. They also had faster responses in finding proper lexical and syntactical choices so as to avoid the appearance of repetitions, broken sentences, and grammatical errors.

These results have a bearing on interpreting pedagogy. For instance, upon completing self-assessments of their Chinese-English interpreting output, trainees could be asked to (a) identify all the improper lexical collocations, ungrammatical expressions, and unfinished sentences, then (b) present at least two revised versions, and, finally, (c) apply those revisions in the second or following practice of the same material. Identification may help trainees become more sensitive to errors and improper collocations. Revision may enrich their English lexical and syntactical repository (reducing lexical and grammatical error repairs) and help them formulate ideas in a more flexible manner (reducing restart repairs). Application may activate their English lexical and syntactical repository and help them express their intentional meaning in a quicker and more automatic manner. In addition, upon teaching buffer strategies, interpreter trainers can remind trainees that if they need more time to process information, using the "and/or + synonym" structure can better maintain fluency than using abrupt repetitions (reducing repetitions).

The different findings on repetitions between this study and that conducted by Sheng & Liang (2020) (see Section 4.1 above) suggest that further studies comparing interpreters with different levels of expertise are needed, because results may be influenced by factors such as competence of each invited participant, language proficiency gap between groups, features of the selected original speeches, and others. Additionally, the current repair investigation explored only the consecutive mode of interpreting and focused only on the Chinese-English language pair. Future research could extend a similar comparison to other language pairs and other modes of interpreting, such as simultaneous interpreting or sight interpreting.

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