

Mirek, J. (2022). Translational Self-Repairs in Trainee Conference Interpreters: Preliminary Findings from A Pilot Study. *Current Trends in Translation Teaching and Learning E*, 9, 1 – 31. <https://doi.org/10.51287/cttl20221>

# **TRANSLATIONAL SELF-REPAIRS IN TRAINEE CONFERENCE INTERPRETERS: PRELIMINARY FINDINGS FROM A PILOT STUDY**

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## **Abstract**

This article investigates the phenomenon of self-repairs in simultaneous interpreting trainees, which has so far received only limited attention in interpreting research. Conference interpreters were long denied the ability to correct their performance (cf. Kade, 1968; Seleskovitch, 1968; Reiß & Vermeer, 1984). However, it was not until 1975 that Gerver described the importance of self-repairs as sufficient evidence of interpreters' monitoring for both the source text perception and target text production. In this study, a qualitative method is used in the analysis of a corpus that comprises the interpreting performance of second-year MA students of English Studies at the John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin. The pilot study entailed recording the students' output of two distinct speeches (interpreted from English into Polish) and analysing the transcript thereof. The results prove that trainee interpreters repair not only defects *sensu stricto*, but also attend to their outputs for a number of reasons

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(cf. Petite, 2005). The article will demonstrate both a preliminary taxonomy of translational self-repairs identified in novice interpreters and put forward significant didactic implications for interpreter training.

Keywords: simultaneous interpreting, monitoring, self-correction, self-repairs, interpreter training

Symbols and abbreviations used in this article: SI–simultaneous interpreting, ST–source text, SL–source language, TT–target text, TTT–target text translation into English, TL–target language, \*–incorrect version, \*[text]\*–pronunciation in a language other than the remaining utterance.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

The phenomenon of self-repairs in simultaneous interpreting was first described by Gerver (1975, pp. 122ff.) in his seminal article on the model of SI drawing upon psychology in which he investigated self-repairs and described them as sufficient evidence of interpreters ‘monitoring’ their performance. Gerver’s pioneer research was followed by Setton (1999, p. 96f.), who subscribed to this view in his cognitive-pragmatic model of SI, and described this occurrence as ‘self-control’. Chernov (2004, pp. 178ff.), whose research rested on the evidence in form of repairs gathered by himself, and Gerver (1975), referred to this phenomenon as ‘self-monitoring’.

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As self-repairs have received only limited attention in interpreting studies (cf. Gerver, 1975; Kalina, 1998; Setton, 1999; Chernov, 2004; Petite, 2005; Woroch, 2015; Magnifico & Defrancq, 2019), especially with regard to trainee interpreters, the following pilot study was aimed at investigating translational self-repairs of student conference interpreters in the language pair Polish-English.

The point of departure of this paper are theoretical tenants of self-repairs, followed by the description of the pilot project conducted at the John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin. The main objective of this article is to: (a) present authentic examples of translational self-repairs performed by trainee conference interpreters, (b) put forward a proposal of a preliminary taxonomy of translational self-repairs as well as (c) provide didactic implications including corrective exercises which may be implemented in the interpreting classroom.

## **2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND**

Defined by Gülich and Kotschi (1983, pp. 307ff.; 1987, p. 30f.) as evidence of interpreters' work on conveying the source message, self-correction involves annulling the previously uttered text sequence (totally or partially) and replacing it with a different one, which can be signalled by a 'reformulation marker' (e.g. conjunction) (ibid.). Similarly, Magnifico and Defrancq (2019, p. 14) define self-repairs as "interpreters' corrections of their own output without external stimulus occurring in three stages: (a) the speaker's utterance (*reparandum*), (b) the interruption of the flow of

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the speech, with or without an editing term<sup>1</sup>, and (c) the repair proper, that is, the new utterance”.

Interestingly enough, conference interpreters were long denied any possibility of performing corrections in the target text (cf. Seleskovitsch, 1968; Kade, 1968; Reiß and Vermeer, 1984, and their notion of ‘correctability’–*Korrigierbarkeit*)<sup>2</sup>. However, Lederer (1981, p. 137) noticed that interpreters simultaneously listen to their utterances and control the accuracy of the target text. In other words, they control their performance, hence, the fact that they correct their utterances does not always equal an error. Therefore, introducing self-repairs may be a result of adopting a strategy to track their target text production (ibid.). Kautz (2000, p. 344) also pinpointed that self-repairs prove interpreters’ cognitive activities. On the other hand, self-repairs may create an impression as if the interpreter was ‘thinking aloud’ (Tryuk, 2007, pp. 112ff.). Hence, excessive corrections may be treated as undesirable errors in interpreters’ performance, which should not only be faithful to the source text but also comprehensible and fluent (devoid of any elements disrupting the target text reception by the target audience) (ibid.).

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<sup>1</sup> Defined as „a linguistic cue uttered by the speaker to signal the listener that s/he edits his/her sentence, and which is generally characterized by hesitation or pausing”, e.g. a filled pause (‘euh’), conjunctions (‘and’, ‘or’, ‘but’), and apologetic terms, (‘sorry’) (Magnifico & Defrancq, 2019, pp. 10ff).

<sup>2</sup> As simultaneous interpreting entails a wide range of “concomitant processing capacities” (Gerver, 1975; Gile, 1995; Petite, 2005), the simultaneity and complexity of these cognitive processes were initially claimed to preclude any possibility of self-correction.

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Monitoring processes pertain to the reception and source text comprehension phase, as they allow for the verification of hypotheses formulated as a result of anticipation, as well as the target text production phase (cf. *Outputkontrolle*, Kalina, 1998, p. 120). At this stage, monitoring encompasses not only the coherence of the given sequences of both the source and target text, but also the linguistic and semantic correctness of the target text. Thus, the result of monitoring processes is the implementation of appropriate *repair strategies* (e.g. *self-corrections*) (Kalina, 1998, p. 120). According to Kalina (1998, p. 124), interpreters may resort to self-repairs once they realise that something they have already said is a misinterpretation of the originally intended meaning, or believe they have found a better idea to express something already uttered, and have extra cognitive capacities to interrupt their performance in order to introduce a repair. Hence, corrective strategies are employed upon the interpreter's discovery of a factual or supposed defect in the target text and consequently lead to introducing self-repairs. It is also worthy of a comment that repair strategies also encompass conscious decisions not to correct a given text sequence, e.g. in order to maintain the speech flow. Kalina (1998, p. 124 f.) also pinpoints that self-repairs may remove disruptions in the communication flow resulting from errors and inadequate utterances, yet may also lead to further disruptions (*ibid.*).

In what follows, two taxonomies of self-repairs will be presented (a) by Petite (2005), and (b) by Woroch (2015).

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## 2.1. Taxonomy by Petite (2005)

Drawing upon Levelt’s classification of repairs in spontaneous speech (1983, 1989), Petite (2005) puts forward a precise taxonomy of self-repairs in simultaneous interpreting. Petite arranges them into sub-categories representing four main criteria: 1) When does the repair occur? 2) What is repaired? 3) Why does the repair occur? 4) How it is perceived by listeners? The taxonomy is presented in Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. The taxonomy of repairs by Levelt (1983) and Petite (2005). Sub-categories marked with \* refer to the amendments introduced by Petite (2005)

### 1) When does the repair occur?

- Overt repairs	(post-articulatory)
- Cover repairs	(pre-articulatory)
- Mid-articulatory repairs*	(within-word interruption)

### 2) What is repaired?

A (appropriateness)      E (error)      D (different word order)      Rest category

- AA (ambiguous term)	- EL (lexical)
- AL (to a more precise term)	- ES (syntactic)
- AC (coherence)	- EF (phonetic)
- ALC (terminology or coherence)	- EG* (grammar)

### 3) Why does the repair occur?\*

- Input-generated repairs
- Output-generated repairs

### 4) How it is perceived by listeners?\*

- Disguised repairs
- Signalled repairs

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Ad. 1: Levelt (1983, 1989) distinguishes between overt and covert repairs. The former ones pertain to post-articulatory repairs (after the *reparandum*<sup>3</sup>), whereas the latter repairs occur before the utterance stage (pre-articulatory repairs). Petite puts forward a new sub-group: mid-articulatory repairs, which she defines as “instances where monitoring happens in-between stages, meaning, neither completely post-articulatory nor pre-articulatory” (Petite, 2005, p. 30).

Ad. 2: Levelt (1983; 1989) put forward the following sub-groups within overt repairs: A (appropriateness), E (error), D (different word order), and a ‘rest category’ for other sorts of repairs. These are followed by further subdivisions: AA (repairing an ambiguous term), AL (repairing a less precise term with a more precise one), AC (monitoring for coherence), and ALC (where it is impossible to determine whether establishing coherence or a terminology change is the case). Another sub-group (E) is divided into EL (lexical), ES (syntactic), and EF (phonetic). Petite (2005: 44) introduces her own sub-category for grammatical errors (EG), whereas repairs of a speaker offering an alternative syntax are included in the remaining sub-group (D).

Ad. 3: Petite (ibid.) proposes input-generated and output-generated repairs. The former ones are source-text oriented repairs and refer to an interpreter’s attempt to “reach greater resemblance with the original input”, whereas the latter ones are target-text oriented, as they aim at “achieving greater

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<sup>3</sup> *Reparandum*—the item to be repaired, *reparatum*—the repaired item (cf. Petite, 2005, p. 35).

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relevance by maximizing the effect of his/her output and minimizing the effort in producing and receiving it” (ibid.).

Ad. 4: Petite also investigates the question of whether repairs are exposed to the audience. She distinguishes between signalled repairs (e.g. an explicit apology) and disguised repairs (e.g. by linking the *reparandum* and the *reparatum* with a conjunction).

As can be inferred from the taxonomy presented above, according to Petite (2005), the phenomenon of self-repairs reaches far beyond correcting errors *sensu stricto*. For instance, interpreters can correct appropriateness, decide to use a more precise or general term, adjust the stylistic register, or modify the word order to complete their utterances. Hence, Petite refers to the notion as ‘trouble’ rather than error and defines repairs as “matching the output against fitness for the purpose rather than simply as the correction of errors” (Petite, 2005, p. 30).

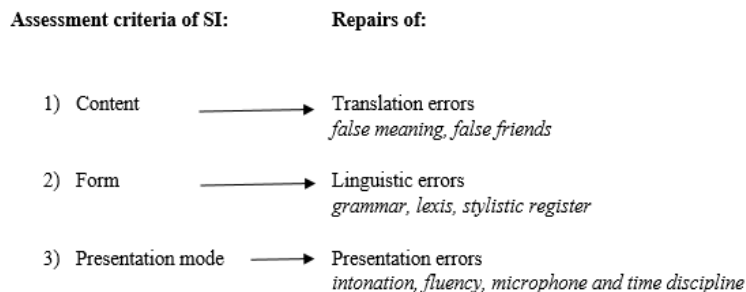
## **2.2. Taxonomy by Woroch (2015)**

Woroch (2015, p. 271) emphasises that assessment criteria of interpreting performance refer to three major aspects: (1) content, (2) form, and (3) presentation mode, which implies the necessity of a multi-levelled control of the interpreting performance. Therefore, interpreters need to control the sense and fidelity of the utterance, monitor for the linguistic correctness, and integrate presentation skills, juggling all these activities simultaneously (ibid.).

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In contrast to Petite’s (2005) broad understanding of self-correction, Woroch classifies self-repairs as the correction of errors pertaining to (1) translation, (2) linguistic correctness, and (3) presentation, respectively, corresponding to the above-mentioned criteria (Woroch, 2015, pp. 272ff.). This division pertains to Kopczyński’s (1980) classification of errors, which stems from the tradition of linguistic errors analysis, and incorporates errors of translation (e.g. lack of equivalence), linguistic competence (syntactic and lexical errors), and performance (e.g. hesitations, repetitions, and false starts).

Figure 2. The taxonomy of self-repairs by Woroch (2015)



As demonstrated in Figure 2, according to Woroch (2015, pp. 272ff.) correcting translational errors<sup>4</sup> encompass false

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<sup>4</sup> The taxonomy presented by Woroch (2015) is based on Delisle et al.’s (2006, pp. 30ff.) definition of translational errors as target text errors that may result from a methodological error, unfamiliarity or inaccurate use of translation techniques, or incorrect interpretation of the source text sequence. Translational errors include

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meaning<sup>5</sup>, and false friends, correcting linguistic errors relate to grammatical, lexical, and stylistic incorrectness, whereas presentation errors are related to improper intonation, fluency problems, lack of microphone discipline (e.g. unarticulated disturbing sounds) as well as time discipline (e.g. EVS management).

### 3. PILOT STUDY

The pilot study described in this article involved 7 second-year MA students of English Studies at the John Paul II Catholic University of Lublin. The students were aged 22-28 and had Polish as their A and English as their B language. The curriculum offers initial training in interpreting: one-term consecutive and simultaneous interpreting courses between Polish and English, respectively. It must be emphasised that at the stage of conducting the study the novice interpreters had had a two-and-a-half-month interpreting training in simultaneous interpreting, which means that at that point they were still largely inexperienced. The project was conducted at a simultaneous interpreting laboratory at the Institute of Linguistics at the John Paul II

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interference (e.g. false friends), unnecessary paraphrasing, hyper-translation, incorrect meaning, and misinterpretation (ibid.).

<sup>5</sup> Ascribing an incorrect linguistic meaning to a word or phrase of the source text that changes the sense of the given text sequence but does not change the meaning of the source text completely; it usually occurs when a contextual meaning of a word is misinterpreted, e.g.: *A reasonable amount of stress is necessary to keep us productive* could be mistranslated into Polish as: *Rozsądna* [‘sensible’] *doza stresu jest nam potrzebna, abyśmy byli wydajni* or translated as: *Pewna* [‘certain’] *doza stresu jest nam potrzebna, abyśmy byli wydajni*. (Delisle et al., 2006, pp. 128 ff.).

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Catholic University of Lublin, where regular interpreting classes were held.

The study involved recording students' output of two speeches interpreted from English into Polish (the students' native language), and audio-transcription thereof. The speeches used for this study comprised recordings of two real-life source speeches of a popular scientific character (TED Conferences) delivered by English native speakers: Winch (2017), psychologist, and MacKey (2014), academic physicist. The length of the latter speech was limited to a duration of 12 minutes in order to both match the full length of the former speech, and to minimise fatigue effects, as at this stage the trainee interpreters had not yet built the stamina to interpret longer speeches.

The data batch was collected from each participant in two sessions, each for the given speech, respectively. It should be noted that permission to use the recordings for the purpose of academic research was obtained from all the interpreting trainees, and the confidentiality of the interpreting performance was guaranteed. Moreover, the interpreters were asked to introduce themselves with nicknames of their choice, so that they would remain anonymous.

The students were informed about the approximate length and the topic of each speech, as well as provided with in-depth instructions concerning the study two weeks prior to each interpreting session. They were also encouraged to do research on the respective topic and prepare glossaries. On the day of the respective interpreting session, the trainees listened to a two-minute warm-up speech delivered by the

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same speaker on a similar subject they were about to interpret in order to familiarise themselves with both the topic and the speaker's performance. They were also provided with a detailed debriefing about the pragmatic setting of each speech: the subject matter, the speaker's identity, the target audience's profile, venue, time, and the occasion of the speech. In order to simulate a real-life interpreting assignment, the students were also offered a written summary of each speech, a list of proper names, and potentially difficult terms occurring in a given speech as an equivalent to materials delivered to professional interpreters prior to a real-life conference. The participants were given a few minutes to consult the debriefing process and were given the opportunity to decide when they wanted to start interpreting. Prior to each interpreting session, the statement of the study purpose was explained and the rules of the procedure were repeated.

Following the interpreting sessions, both original speeches and the students' interpretation were fully transcribed, analysed, and classified accordingly to separate categories, which will be discussed in the following section.

### **3.1. Preliminary Taxonomy**

Drawing upon the above-mentioned classifications and the authentic examples of self-repairs introduced by novice interpreters in the pilot project, a new taxonomy of translational self-repairs has been designed and is presented below. Following Petite's (2005) line of argumentation, the

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preliminary taxonomy of self-repairs presented in this article is not restricted merely to errors *sensu stricto*, considering that interpreters may correct their utterances even if they are technically correct. Thus, in this article, such self-repairs are referred to as ‘translational’ ones, and not self-repairs of ‘translational errors’.

In the following taxonomy, translational self-repairs may involve (1) literal interpretation (translation), which is either: (a) comprehensible in the target language, or (b) context-dependent; (2) code-switching (shadowing intertwined with interpreting proper), and (3) content proper. As can be inferred, Woroch’s (2015) category of repairing mistranslation of false friends has been amended: the following taxonomy is not constrained to correcting mistranslated false friends *sensu stricto*, as the author adopts a broader perspective of literal interpretation, which may be either comprehensible or context-dependent in the target language. Furthermore, an entirely new category has been introduced (code-switching).

The examples are presented in the following manner: the first line is the source text (ST) (the speaker’s input in English), the second line is the target text (TT) (the interpreter’s input in Polish), and the third line is a gloss (TTT) (target text translation into English provided by the author). The bold typeface in the examples indicates the self-repair in question. The examples are enumerated and explained further below. It must be emphasised that for the reasons of space only

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selected instances of translational self-repairs identified in the corpus are presented.<sup>6</sup>

## **Ad. 1) Literal Interpretation**

As previously mentioned, in contrast to Woroch's (2015) taxonomy, the following category is not limited to mistranslating false friends *sensu sticto*, as it encompasses the literal interpretation with regard to equivalents that can be either comprehensible to the target audience, or context-dependent.

### **A) Comprehensible in the Target Language**

The following examples represent the correction of literally translated lexical units that are comprehensible to the target audience into their dictionary (appropriate) equivalents.

(1)

(ST) *Solar panels*, when you put them on a roof, deliver about 20 watts per square meter in England.

(TT) *Panele solarne/ panele słoneczne produkują dwadzieścia watów na metr kwadratowy przynajmniej takie standardowe w Zjednoczonym Królestwie.*

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<sup>6</sup> Linguistic self-repairs, uncorrected instances, or any other kind of self-repairs are not subject to analysis in this article.

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(TTT) ‘**Solar panels** produce 20 watts per square metre, at least the standard ones in the United Kingdom’

(2)

(ST) *There are other options for generating power as well, which don't involve fossil fuels. So there's **nuclear power**, and on this ordinance survey map, you can see there's a Sizewell B inside a blue square kilometre. That's one gigawatt in a square kilometre, which works out to 1,000 watts per square meter.*

(TT) *Są oczywiście inne opcje, żeby produkować energię, takie jak na przykład **energia nuklearna czy jądrowa** produkują one najwięcej energii, na przykład tysiąc watów na metr kwadratowy.*

(TTT) ‘There are of course other options to produce energy, such as for example nuclear power they produce the most energy for example 1000 watts per square metre’.

In the examples presented above, the first literal equivalent is comprehensible in Polish but is accompanied by a correction into a more commonly used version that is regarded as a correct translation.

(3)

(ST) *So let's start in the United Kingdom, since that's where we are today. **The energy consumption** of the United Kingdom, the total energy consumption -- not just transport, but everything -- I like to quantify it in lightbulbs. It's as if we've all got 125 lightbulbs on all the time, 125 kilowatt-*

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*hours per day per person is the energy consumption of the UK.*

(TT) *Zacznijmy od Zjednoczonego Królestwa, **konsumpcja energii/ zużycie energii** w Wielkiej Brytanii to sto dwadzieścia pięć kilowatogodzin na osobę dziennie.*

(TTT) ‘Let’s start with the United Kingdom **the energy consumption** in Great Britain is 125 kilowatt-hours per person per day’.

In this context, ‘consumption’ should be translated as *zużycie*, seeing that the literal translation (*konsumpcja*) is mainly associated with both the act of partaking food as well as purchasing and using objects.

## **B) Context-Dependent**

The following category pertains to self-repairs performed by interpreters who realised that the literal equivalent did not match the context of the source text. In other words, the translation could be proper if the context was different. However, if no correction was to be introduced, the conveyed content would be inaccurate.

(4)

(ST) *In due course, Britain started using **oil** and gas from the North Sea, and in the year 2000, oil and gas production from the North Sea also peaked, and they're now on the decline.*

(TT) *W dwutysięcznym roku Wielka Brytania zaczęła używać **oleju/ ropy** z Morza Północnego do dwutysięcznego roku*

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*zasoby się zwiększały, natomiast po dwutysięcznym roku zauważalny jest ich spadek.*

(TTT) ‘In the year 2000 Great Britain started using **oil/ petroleum** from the North Sea until the year 2000 the resources were getting bigger however after the year 2000 their decline has been observed’.

In this example, ‘oil’ was initially translated in a literal way (*olej*) and later corrected into the intended petroleum (*ropa naftowa*).

(5)

(ST) *You have to recognize that, as compelling as the urge is, with every trip down memory lane, **every text you send**, every second you spend stalking your ex on social media, you are just feeding your addiction, deepening your emotional pain and complicating your recovery.*

(TT) *Jeżeli **każdy tekst każdy esemes**, który wysłałaś, czy stronę fejsbukową, którą odwiedziłaś, swojego eks, to jest napędzanie ciągle tego złamanego serca.*

(TTT) ‘If **every text/ every message** that you have sent or the Facebook page you have visited, of your ex, that is propelling all the time of this broken heart’

In this context, ‘text’ refers to a text message sent via phone, which is commonly referred to in Polish as *esemes* or *SMS* (an acronym of the English “Short Message Service”). The correction was introduced upon the interpreter’s realisation of the originally intended meaning.

(6)

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(ST) *So if you know someone who is heartbroken, have compassion, because social support has been found to be important for their recovery.*

(TT) *Jeśli wiecie kogoś/ znacie kogoś, kto ma złamane serce musicie go wspierać.*

(TTT) ‘If you **know** someone who has a broken heart, you need to support them’.

(7)

(ST) *Miguel didn't just lose his girlfriend.*

(TT) *Miguel nie zgubił/ nie stracił swojej dziewczyny.*

(TTT) ‘Miguel didn’t **lose** his girlfriend.’

The examples presented above indicate ambiguity of the verbs ‘know’ and ‘lose’ in their translation into Polish, which is context-dependent: to know something (*wiedzieć*) vs. to know someone (*znać*); to lose something (*zgubić*) vs. to lose someone (*stracić*).

## 2) Code-Switching

As it has not been included in any taxonomies of self-repairs before, the following category represents a unique view on translational self-repairs in trainee interpreters.

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Self-repairs with regard to code-switching have been identified when novice interpreters interrupt their performance for the sake of shadowing (repeating after the speaker in the source language). Therefore, in one sequence, listeners receive both the target text in the target language and the source text in the source language, which can be corrected into the target language. The original English pronunciation is marked by two asterisks and square brackets (e.g. \*[UK]\*).

In the examples presented below, the English word was initially repeated after the speaker (shadowed) and followed by the Polish translation.

(8)

(ST) *People are anti-everything, and we've got to keep all the options on the table.*

(TT) \*[**People**]\* *sq /ludzie sq przeciwni wszystkiemu.*

(TTT) 'People are/ people are against everything.'

(9)

(ST) *When your heart is broken, the same instincts you ordinarily rely on will time and again lead you down the wrong path.*

(TT) *Kiedy twoje \*[**heart**]\* / serce jest złamane tylko czas może cię uleczyć.*

(TTT) 'When your heart is broken only time can heal you.'

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These two examples prove that adopting the original pronunciation may happen both at the beginning and within the sentence.

(10)

(ST) *Top left, we have Canada and Australia, with enormous land areas, very high per capita consumption -- 200 or 300 lightbulbs per person.*

(TT) *W górnym lewym rogu mamy Kanadę i Australię, które mają **\*[two hundr]\***/ **dwieście** albo trzysta żarówek na osobę.*

(TTT) ‘In the top left corner we have Canada and Australia which have 200 or 300 lightbulbs per person.’

In this example, the interpreter started pronouncing the number in English, stopped in mid-flow, and introduced a self-repair by translating this sequence into Polish.

### 3) Content<sup>7</sup>

The following category illustrates instances of self-repairs with regard to fidelity to the source text.

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<sup>7</sup> For the reasons of space, uncorrected instances are not included.

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(11)

(ST) *So let's start in the United Kingdom, since that's where we are today. The energy consumption of **the United Kingdom**, the total energy consumption -- not just transport, but everything -- I like to quantify it in lightbulbs. It's as if we've all got 125 lightbulbs on all the time, 125 kilowatt-hours per day per person is the energy consumption of the UK.*

(TT) *Zużytek energii w **Stanach/ w Wielkiej Brytanii** to sto dwadzieścia pięć kilowatów na osobę na każdy dzień.*

(TTT) ‘The use of energy in **the US/ in Great Britain** is 125 kilowatts per person per each day.’

In this example, the interpreter registered the first phrase as “the United”, and automatically associated it with “the United States of America”. Hence, the interpreter started uttering the Polish equivalent of this country (*Stanach Zjednoczonych*–‘United States’), stopped in mid-flow, and introduced a self-repair upon the realisation that the topic of the speech referred to the UK.

(12)

(ST) *None of us is immune to heartbreak. My patient Miguel was a 56-year-old senior executive in a software company. Five years after his wife died, he finally felt ready to start dating again. He soon met Sharon.*

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(TT) *Nikt z nas nie jest odporny na złamane serce **mój** \*[[friend]\* / **mój przyjaciel** / **pacjent** szyb/ zaczął na nowo randkować poznał Sharon.*

(TTT) ‘None of us is immune to heartbreak my friend my patient started quick/ anew dating and got to know Sharon’.

Here, the interpreter initially rendered ‘patient’ as ‘friend’ (in English, then in Polish, see Category 2). Having articulated that, s/he realized that it did not correspond to the source text and decided to correct this sequence.

(13)

(ST) *So let's start in the United Kingdom, since that's where we are today. The energy consumption of the United Kingdom, the total energy consumption -- **not just transport, but everything.***

(TT) *Trzeba zacząć od Zjednoczonego Królestwa bo tu jesteśmy teraz zużycie energii Zjednoczonego Królestwa **tylko w ramach/ nie tylko w ramach transportu, ale całkowicie.***

(TTT) ‘It’s necessary to start with the UK because we are here now the energy consumption of the UK **only within the framework of/ not only within the framework of transport but overall**’.

(14)

(ST) *He didn't just lose his girlfriend, he lost his entire social life.*

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(TT) *On nie tylko **stracił żonę/ dziewczynę** ale również swoje życie.*

(TTT) ‘He **lost not only his wife/ girlfriend** but also his life’.

Here, as the interpreters realised that the conveyed meaning was inaccurate and the lack of correction would have misled the listeners, they corrected precision of their utterances.

### 3.2. Didactic Implications

Considering that both linguistic correctness and source text fidelity are of utmost importance for interpreters, self-repairs should not be neglected in interpreter training. The major pedagogical objective is to design exercises that would prepare trainees to introduce as few self-repairs as possible (cf. Tryuk, 2007, pp. 112ff.) or correct their interpreting performance as unobtrusively for the target audience as possible while producing a faithful and linguistically correct rendition of the source text. With interpreting training in mind, the following exercises have been designed with regard to the areas identified in the aforementioned taxonomy: (1) literal interpretation, (2) code-switching, and (3) content accuracy.

1.1.) Preparing and/or asking students to prepare text corpora abundant with false friends in language A and/or B in order to raise students’ both linguistic and interpreting awareness<sup>8</sup>.

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<sup>8</sup> The scope of this article does not allow for providing examples other than those presented in Section 3.1. For instances of the most prevalent false friends and ambiguous words in Polish and English that could be incorporated into the above-

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Students should be advised to work in pairs: the co-interpreter's task is to control the overall performance (fluency, correction manner), e.g. by noting down exemplary repairs and the number of corrected and uncorrected instances. Alternatively, students can be encouraged to record and analyse their own interpreting performance e.g. by noting down exact quotes of the repairs they introduced, brainstorming about possible translational solutions, and drawing conclusions for future performance.<sup>9</sup>

a) Sight translation: The text is to be translated aloud into the target language without translating false friends literally.

b) SI: The text is to be interpreted seamlessly without translating false friends literally.

1.2.) Preparing and/or asking students to prepare text corpora abundant with the literal (incorrect) translation of false friends in language A and/or B, which should not be marked in any way in the text. Students should be advised to work in pairs: the co-interpreter's task is to control the overall performance (fluency, correction manner), e.g. by noting down exemplary repairs and the number of corrected and uncorrected instances. Alternatively, students can be encouraged to record and analyse their own interpreting performance e.g. by noting down exact quotes of the repairs

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mentioned text corpora, see e.g. Szpila (2003), Rudolf (2003), Douglas-Kozłowska (2004).

<sup>9</sup> Self-reflection in SI training can be also encouraged through the implementation of the 'SI Portfolio' (cf. Mirek 2020) in which trainees can "reflect upon and document their progress, evaluate themselves, and develop effective strategies leading to their goals" (Mirek, 2020, p. 153).

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they introduced, brainstorming about possible translational solutions, and drawing conclusions for future performance.

a) Reading aloud: The text is to be read out fluently and corrected without drawing the listener's attention to correcting the literal translation of false friends.

b) Shadowing: The text is to be shadowed without drawing the listener's attention to correcting the literal translation of false friends.

2) Aware code-switching: Practising shadowing intertwined with interpreting, whereby each activity should be preceded with agreed-upon instructions and cues (e.g. an appropriate slide should appear to signal the activity change). The co-interpreter's task is to control the code-switching process. In case of mixing up the languages, an appropriate reaction should appear (e.g. a red card, thumbs down).

3) Content accuracy: Preparing and/or asking to prepare a text including well-known facts (general knowledge) incorporating intentionally added gross errors that should be obvious and blatant to students (e.g. the population of the students' country, the current prime minister's name, etc.) in language A and/or B. Errors should be included in the text (e.g. as multiple choice). However, it is imperative that students need to be explicitly instructed that they are supposed to correct the source text for the purpose of this exercise.<sup>10</sup> Students should be advised to work in pairs: the co-interpreter's task is to control the overall performance (fluency, correction manner), e.g. by noting down exemplary

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<sup>10</sup> In professional settings, correcting the speaker may be risky for a variety of reasons, however, in this exercise, students are supposed to practice their attention span.

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repairs and number of corrected and uncorrected errors. Alternatively, students can be encouraged to record and analyse their own interpreting performance e.g. by noting down exact quotes of the repairs they introduced, brainstorming about possible translational solutions, and drawing conclusions for future performance.

a) Sight translation: The text is to be corrected and interpreted. The target text should not contain any content-related errors.

b) Shadowing: The text is to be read out by a speaker. Students are asked to correct and shadow the text.

c) SI: The text is to be read out by a speaker. Students are asked to correct and interpret the text.

Seeing that any activity performed by interpreters in a real-life situation is immediately registered by the target audience, in each of the exercises put forward above, students should be encouraged to correct themselves in “a disguised way” (cf. Petite, 2005). For instance, students may be advised not to draw the listeners’ attention explicitly to the *reparatum* and *reparandum* (e.g. by apologising), or to provide the listeners with the correct version further in the further segments of the text.

#### **4. CONCLUSIONS**

The pilot study has proved that interpreters are able to introduce self-repairs into their performance even at the early stages of their interpreting education. In conclusion, it must be emphasised that self-repairs should be seen as a positive phenomenon, as they testify to the interpreter’s conscious

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control of both sense (fidelity) and form (linguistic correctness) of the target text. Nonetheless, their presence may cause disfluencies and disrupt the communication flow. Thus, self-repairs should be performed as non-disturbingly as possible, which should be reflected in interpreter training.

It must be noted that self-repairs may not only correct errors *sensu stricto* (cf. Petite, 2005), but they also may serve other purposes, such as striving for enhanced appropriateness (e.g. correcting mistranslated false friends), precision (e.g. correcting terminology), and accuracy (e.g. correcting the intended meaning). Self-repairs may refer to the correction of the literal translation, inaccurate meaning, and code-switching.

The conclusions presented above are of a preliminary nature—the corpus subject to analysis in this paper requires further investigation, and the study needs to be enlarged by new groups of novice interpreters. Nonetheless, at this stage, the conclusions and corrective exercises presented in this article may serve as pedagogical implications for interpreting trainers, especially considering that self-repairs in simultaneous interpreting remain both a largely understudied area and a rather neglected aspect of interpreter training.

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