
RESEARCH ARTICLE

Lexical Alignment Effect of the Continuation Task on Interpreting Trainees' English-to-Chinese Sight Translation Fluency

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ABSTRACT

The present study explored the alignment effect of the sight translation continuation task (STCT) and its possible influence on sight translation (ST) fluency. Thirty-four third-year English Education majors at a Chinese university were divided into two groups in the study. The experimental group who conducted the STCT read the English source text of a speech and its translation in Chinese, while the control group only read the English source text. Afterwards, both groups sight translated the continued source text into Chinese. The results indicated that (a) the experimental group aligned with the pre-reading text at the lexical level and (b) the continuation task improved ST fluency to some extent as the experimental group produced significantly fewer self-repairs in their ST products. The study concludes by suggesting that the continuation task can be useful in ST instruction and, hence, should be more visible in the interpreting classroom.

KEYWORDS

Sight translation continuation task, lexical alignment, fluency, interpreting trainees

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1. Introduction

Sight translation (ST), viewed as a special form of interpreting by many scholars, is a common component of interpreting curriculum. Interpreting trainers have employed didactic approaches to enhancing interpreting trainees' ST performance, of which fluency is a crucial indicator. Cross-pollination of other disciplines, such as second language acquisition (SLA), is common in the interpreting classroom. In the interdisciplinary pedagogical approaches, the procedures of noticing the gap with the expert and emulating their performance have been widely adopted.

In recent years, the continuation task proposed by Wang (2016) has been shown to be a practical SLA-based approach to enhancing L2 skills, including L2 writing, L2 speaking and written translation. Take the written translation continuation task as an example. It capitalizes on the interaction with professional performances and familiarizes students with the context, which is likely to foster students' alignment with the professional performances linguistically and situationally in their continued translation (Wang, 2018). Building on the favorable findings in the written translation continuation task, it is interesting to explore if the sight translation continuation task (STCT) demonstrates an alignment effect and hence benefits interpreting trainees' ST performance. After all, while ST and written translation share the same input modality, they differ in output modality. Specifically, the former involves oral production and the latter written. Therefore, this study aimed to explore if interpreting trainees aligned lexically with the professional performances in STCT and if their ST fluency was improved accordingly.

2. Literature review

2.1 Interpreting fluency

Fluency as a criterion takes up a heavy weight on the perceived quality of interpreting output (Pradas Macías, 2006; Rennert, 2010). In an ST task, the interpreter is expected to “instantly and smoothly deliver the contents at a speed appropriate for natural oral production (Čeňková, 2010)” or sight translate a source text like reading a document in the target language (Angelelli, 1999).

In the interpreting literature, fluency has different prosodic and temporal proxies depending on research needs, such as filled and unfilled pauses, speech rate, phonation time ratio, vowel and consonant lengthening, self-repairs and repetitions. In the present study, unfilled pauses (UP), self-repairs (SR) and repetitions (R) were employed as the indices of disfluency. Their respective occurrences per minute (i.e., number of UPs/minute (NUP), number of SRs/minute (NSR) and number of Rs/minute (NR)) were calculated and analyzed.

2.1.1 Unfilled pauses

An unfilled pause (UP), or a silent pause, is a break in the speech that does not contain any phonetic content (Shreve et al., 2011) and is one type of interruption in the flow of speech (Stuckenberg & O’connell, 1988). The existence of UPs in interpreting is complex. Generally, UPs reflect cognitive processing irrespective of interpreting modes, especially when the interpreter faces difficulties in source comprehension or target production. In ST, the interpreter is prone to hesitation and grammatical pauses when they are blocked by linguistic knowledge (e.g., uncertainty about words, phrases and metaphors (Fang, 2020; Su & Li, 2019; Zheng & Xiang, 2013, 2014)) and the constant presence of source text (Shreve et al., 2011).

2.1.2 Repetitions

When the interpreter repeats a portion of their output, it is referred to as a repetition (R). Such a portion, which is non-semantic, can occur at many linguistic levels (e.g., lexical, phrasal and sentential). Rs can be a sign of uncertainty brought on by inadequate planning, which is not uncommon in interpreting, especially in SI and ST since interpreting entails online preparation and time constraints (Cecot, 2001). But that being said, excessive Rs are detrimental to interpreting fluency and hence jeopardize the overall quality of the interpreted product.

2.1.3 Self-repairs

A self-repair (SR) occurs when the interpreter interrupts the flow of their output to alter or modify what they previously uttered. Drawing on a corpus-based analysis of interpreted products, Petite (2005) pointed out that modification in interpreting was triggered not only by error detection when the interpreter monitored their output. The pursuit of appropriateness and fitness of the target output also motivates self-repairs of the interpreter. Regarding the language pair of Chinese and English, Yuan and Wan (2019) found that interpreting trainees’ SR patterns was inconsistent with those of improper pauses. Specifically, more SRs were detected in into-L1 (i.e., E-to-C) interpreting, while improper pauses were more commonly seen in the opposite directionality (i.e., C-to-E).

2.2 Alignment

Alignment has piqued the interest of psychologists and second language scholars (Wang & Wang, 2015). According to Pickering and Garrod’s (2004) interactive alignment model (IAM), interlocutors in dialogue get aligned at various levels, such as linguistic and situational levels, and, more importantly, alignment can percolate between levels to form effective first language (L1) communication. Pickering and Garrod (2004) also contend that structural priming and parity of representation contribute to linguistic alignment, such as lexical and syntactic alignment. Structural priming pins down that an activated representation induced by comprehension is likely to generate subsequent production using that representation (Bock, 1986).

Interactive alignment has been extended to L2 research. Costa et al. (2008) argued that “the basic alignment mechanisms proposed for dialogues between L1 speakers should function in dialogues involving L2 speakers.” From the sociocognitive perspective, Atkinson et al. (2007) claimed that alignment, which takes place in not only people-to-people but also people-to-environment interaction, was necessary and crucial for L2 development based on their observation of a Japanese EFL student and her English tutor. Flanked by valid theoretical foundations, both psychologically and sociocognitively, alignment has come to the fore of SLA research (Dao et al., 2018; Michel & Cappellini, 2019; Wang & Wang, 2015).

In the didactic approaches to enhancing interpreting trainees’ ST performance, master emulation, which encourages imitating professional performances, comes into play in the interpreting classroom. Master emulation expects interpreting trainees’ alignment with the experts, who, undoubtedly, produce much better interpreted products than the novices. Therefore, a pedagogical method conducive to alignment, such as the SLA-based continuation task (Wang, 2012, 2015, 2016), is worth being examined by interpreting trainers.

2.3 The continuation task and its application in L2 learning

The continuation task propounded by Wang (2012, 2015, 2016) has witnessed burgeoning research attention. It entails not only learning from the experts but also learning by extension. Wang (2021) enunciates that the alignment effect is indeed a learning effect incurred by interaction and that L2 learners progress via interactive alignment with those of advanced L2 proficiency, such as native speakers, as well as their works. The continuation task is guided by Wang's (2012, 2015, 2016) *xu*-argument. In the *xu*-argument, alignment underlies creative imitation between language comprehension and production. To be specific, creative imitation entails language imitation and idea creation (Wang, 2014). The former is a meaning-driven and context-based emulation of the original for communicative needs; the latter pinpoints the novel and creative content and meaning in language production (Wang 2021).

The continuation task, which now has several variants, was first investigated in L2 writing. In a typical writing continuation task, students continue a story in L2 with its ending removed. The coupling of comprehension and production propels alignment and, hence, L2 learning efficiency. By aligning with the original text, L2 learners are expected to imitate the idiomatic language and extend the story in a legitimate storyline with creativity. So far, quite plentiful empirical studies have shed light on the facilitative effect of the continuation task in L2 writing, many of which affirm the alignment effect at different linguistic levels (e.g., Jiang & Chen, 2015; Wang & Wang, 2015; Xie & Zhu, 2023; Zhang & Zhang, 2021). Inspired by the positive empirical evidence obtained from the reading-to-writing continuation task, the continuation task has been promoted and examined in other input-output constellations: reading-to-listening (Miao, 2021; Hong & Shen, 2021), audiovisual presentation/reading-to-speaking (Dong et al. 2023; Jiang et al. 2021; Wu & Xu 2022; Xu 2019; Xu et al. 2022) and reading-to-translation (Huang & Xiao 2021; Li et al. 2020; Xu 2016; Xu & Deng 2021; Zhang 2019a, 2019b; Zhang & Ren 2022; Zhang et al. 2021). Empirical findings showed that the alignment effect occurred in the continuation tasks irrespective of the input-output configurations.

However, little is known about the effectiveness of the continuation task on interpreting due to scanty empirical research. Wang (2018) argues the feasibility of the continuation task in interpreter training, such as the sight translation continuation task (STCT). Interactive alignment in STCT is a safe bet between interpreting trainees and the experts' exemplary performances and is likely to take place at the linguistic level through language imitation as in the translation continuation task (Huang & Xiao, 2021; Zhang & Ren, 2022; Zhang et al., 2021). So far, there has been only one empirical study examining the interpreting continuation task. Lai (2020) found that in C-to-E STCT, undergraduate interpreting trainees produced fewer pauses and repetitions and aligned with the professional performance at the lexical level. Still, much remains unexplored in this research line. For example, will the outcomes remain the same if STCT is conducted in the opposite directionality (i.e., E-to-C)? Thus, the present study served as an exploratory investigation of the alignment effect of E-to-C STCT and its influence on ST fluency. It addressed the following two research questions:

- 1) Does lexical alignment occur in E-to-C STCT?
- 2) Does STCT improve interpreting trainees' E-to-C ST fluency?

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

Thirty-four third-year undergraduate English Education majors (2 males; mean age=20.94, SD=.694, range: 20-22) participated in the study. They were from one intact class at a university in southern China. By the time of participation, they had all passed the College English Test Band 4 (CET-4), a national ELF test examining the English proficiency of undergraduate students in China, and had already had interpreting courses for 30 weeks (90 mins/week) with the second author, an interpreter instructor with 15 years of teaching experience. All participants were native speakers of Chinese and had studied English in school for about ten years. In other words, the participants had Chinese as their L1 and English as their L2. Moreover, they had no experience staying in an English-speaking country or region for more than two weeks.

A pre-study E-to-C ST test was conducted one week before the main study. The source text was about global settlements and climate change (215 words). Students' ST disfluencies (i.e., NFP, NSR and NR) were coded as per the operational definitions mentioned in section 2.1.1-2.1.3. Based on the results of the pre-study, two groups with no significant differences in ST fluency (NUP ($t[32]=-0.94, p=.35$); NSR ($t[32]=-0.90, p=.35$); NR ($t[32]=0.60, p=.55$)) were formed: the experimental group ($n=17$) and the control group ($n=17$).

3.2 Materials

For the sake of ecological validity and rigor of the experiment (Mellinger & Hanson, 2022), the source text was an excerpt from an authentic conference speech delivered by a Mauritius official on Sustainable Cities and Sustainable Urbanization. A professional interpreter was invited to sight translate the source text. He is a Level-2 interpreter of CATTI, a state-level vocational qualification examination entrusted by the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security of China, and has served more than 250 conferences

in six years. The source text and the transcribed rendition were assessed by four experienced conference interpreters, each of whom had provided interpreting services at more than 400 conferences, on a 5-point Likert scale (from 1: strongly disagree to 5: strongly agree). Results showed that the rendition's accuracy (M=4.75), fluency (M=4.75), intelligibility (M=4.5) and cohesion and coherence (M=4.75) were good enough to be an example for the students. The source text was divided into two parts, with the pre-reading part (292 English words) longer than the continued part (241 English words). Li (2018) suggested that students' levels should be taken into account when choosing in-class interpreting materials; hence, Eng-Editor, an online evaluation system that matches English reading text to specific proficiency levels mirroring major national English exams in China, was applied to evaluate the lexical and syntactic difficulties of the materials (available at: <http://languagedata.net/tester>). Results showed that the text difficulty of the pre-reading and the continued texts resembled that of a CET-4 reading passage, indicating that the materials matched the students' L2 level.

3.3 Procedures

The experiment took place in a language lab during a regular class slot. The experimental group members were seated on the right half of the classroom and the control group on the left half, with at least two rows or an aisle between every two participants. The task had two sessions (Table 3-1). A pilot study on a parallel class determined the duration of each session.

Prior to the first session, detailed instructions were given to ensure all participants understood the procedures. Participants were prohibited from using digital devices, checking documents, or talking with each other throughout the process.

Participants completed the pre-reading part in the first session, which lasted for 20 minutes. Specifically, the experimental group was asked to carefully read the beginning of the source text and its Chinese rendition. Meanwhile, the control group was required to carefully read the beginning of the monolingual source text and translate three sentences from the text. The two groups spent similar time on their respective work and were allowed to mark on the printed materials. Furthermore, the control group's pre-reading material had a glossary (Table 3-2) comprising eight proper names and keywords as well as their possible translations. Given their linguistic proficiency and knowledge background, such words and phrases were considered difficult or essential for them to sight translate the continued part. In the second session, all participants got the continued text and kept the pre-reading material. They were given 10 minutes to read and annotate the continued text and another five minutes to sight translate it into Chinese. Their oral output was recorded via the microphone on the headset.

After the two sessions, three students from the experimental group were randomly selected for a semi-structured interview. They were asked to talk about their perception of STCT. The interview was audio-recorded with the interviewees' consent.

Table 3-1 Experiment procedures

	Experimental group	Control group
Session 1	Carefully read the bilingual texts and make a glossary (20 mins)	Carefully read the monolingual text and the glossary and then translate three sentences of the text (20 mins)
Session 2	Read the continued text (10 mins) and sight translate it into Chinese (5 mins)	

Table 3-2 Glossary for the control group

Vocabulary	Chinese translation
1 Mauritius	毛里求斯
2 land use	土地使用; 土地利用
3 planning	规划
4 sustainable	可持续的
5 urban mobility	城市交通出行; 城市流动性
7 public transport	公共交通; 公共运输
8 settlements	人居环境; 居住地

3.4 Data coding and analysis

3.4.1 Coding and analysis of disfluency

The rates of three disfluency indicators (i.e., NUP, NSR and NR) were measured to answer the first research question. After the first author transcribed students' recordings verbatim with the help of iFLYREC, an intelligent multilingual audio/video transcriber (available at <https://www.iflyrec.com/>), the second author double-checked the accuracy of the transcriptions.

The two authors coded the SRs, Rs and UPs separately in the next step. The threshold of UPs in the present study was set at 0.5s. In other words, only UPs no shorter than 0.5s would be marked and numbered. A cut-off point of 0.5s was determined by an

empirical examination of the correlations between UP-related temporal variables and rater-generated fluency ratings for interpreting trainees' CI performance (Han & An, 2020). Drawing on the experimental results, the researchers regarded a UP threshold between 0.35s and 0.5s as appropriate in the E-to-C direction. In view of the interpreting competence and bilingual proficiency of the participants, the present study settled on 0.5s as the UP threshold. While SRs and Rs were annotated directly in the transcriptions, UPs and the utterance length were marked and calculated via Praat, a software that visualizes acoustic signals by converting them into oscillograms (Figure 3-1). Inter-coder reliability between the two authors was high (Cronbach's $\alpha=.912$).

In data analysis, according to the Shapiro-Wilk tests, the two groups' NSR, NR and NUP were compared via independent-samples t-tests. All statistical calculation was conducted on SPSS 26.0.

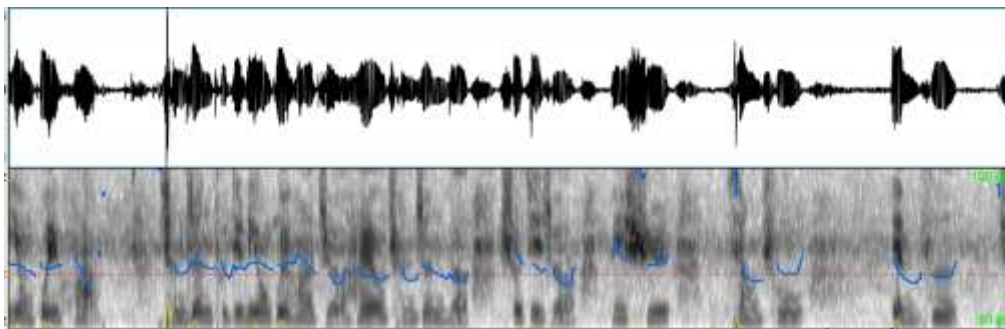


Figure 3-1 An example of an oscillogram

3.4.2 Coding and analysis of lexical alignment

To answer the second research question, the present study adopted the procedures of Xu and Deng (2021) and Li et al. (2020) to determine the lexical alignment effect. To be specific, the authors first listed the lexical items (i.e., identical words, vocabulary of the same word family and fixed expressions) that appeared in both the pre-reading material and the continued text and then calculated the frequency they were used by both groups.

4. Results

4.1 Lexical alignment in STCT

The fixed expressions and terms that appeared in both the pre-reading and the continued texts and the frequency they were interpreted correctly by both groups were listed in Table 4-1. Drawing on the consensus reached by the professional interpreters who had assessed the experimental materials, the Chinese equivalents in Table 4-1 were deemed most appropriate in the specific context. Only those students who used identical or comparable renditions were counted. For example, if a student sight translated "urban mobility" into "城市流动性," a more literal but less context-specific translation, (s)he was ruled out from the counting. Generally speaking, more students in the experimental group retrieved and used the proper equivalents in their renditions, except for the case of "public transport." In other words, the experimental group show alignment with the lexical items in STCT.

Table 4-1 Frequency of repeated lexical items used by both groups

Repeated lexical items	Chinese equivalents	Experimental group		Control group	
		Freq.	Prop.	Freq.	Prop.
urban mobility	城市交通出行	11	64.71%	3	17.65%
density	密度	14	82.35%	4	23.53%
land use planning	土地(使)用规划	5	29.41%	2	11.76%
concern	担忧	6	35.29%	1	5.88%
settlements	人居环境	4	23.53%	2	11.76%
expansion/expanding	扩张/扩张	11	64.71%	7	41.18%
accessible/accessibility	便利的/便利性	8	47.06%	1	5.88%
sustainable	可持续的	17	100%	17	100%
public transport	公共交通	10	58.82%	14	82.35%

Freq.=frequency, Prop.=proportion

Five items in Table 4-1 (i.e., settlements, urban mobility, public transport, land use planning and sustainable) were also in the glossary provided for the control group. Except for “sustainable,” which was rendered precisely by all participants, the other four were not sight translated identically by both groups. As shown in Table 3-2, “settlements” and “urban mobility” had two translations respectively in the glossary, with one being more tailored to the context (i.e., “人居环境” and “城市交通出行”) and the other being a little awkward given the context but more literal (i.e., “居住地” and “城市流动性”). It turned out that most students in the control group chose the more literal ones in both cases in part because they were more familiar to them. On the contrary, more students in the experimental group followed the pre-reading material and interpreted the words in question as the more suitable Chinese equivalents. In addition, similar findings were found in the rendition of “land use planning.” Studying the pre-reading material, rather than the glossary, appeared more effective in inducing lexical alignment in most cases. However, in the case of “public transport,” which was not jargon compared to the three lexical items just analyzed, the control group outnumbered the experimental group in using the proper equivalent.

Other than aligning with identical words/phrases, the alignment effect also worked for derivatives (i.e., “expansion” and “expanding”; “accessible” and “accessibility”). For example, after studying “accessible” and its Chinese equivalent in the pre-reading material, eight members (47.06%) of the experimental group rendered “accessibility” in the continued task accurately, while only one member of the control group did so.

4.2 Fluency of the continued ST output

In the present study, the three parameters of NSR, NUP and NR reflected participants’ ST fluency of the continued text. NSR and NUP were examined by independent-samples *t*-tests comparing the values of each rate of both groups. The results (Table 4-2) indicated that the experimental group produced significantly fewer SRs ($t[32]=-2.173, p=.037$) than the control group. Further, Cohen’s effect size value ($d=.747$) suggested a medium to large practical significance (Cohen, 1988). On the other hand, although the experimental group presented more UPs per minute than the control group, such differences did not reach statistical significance ($t[32]=.963, p=.343$). The effect size of NUP was relatively small (Cohen’s $d=0.327$). The boxplots in Figures 4-2 and 4-3 demonstrated both groups’ NSR and NUP ranges.

Table 4-2 Descriptive statistics and results of independent-samples *t*-tests on NSR and NUP in the two groups

	Experimental group	Control group	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Cohen’s <i>d</i>
	(<i>n</i> =17)	(<i>n</i> =17)			
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)			
NSR	2.42 (1.09)	3.34 (1.36)	-2.173*	.037*	0.747
NUP	16.45 (2.06)	15.67 (2.67)	.963	.343	0.327

NSR=number of self-repairs per minute, NUP=number of unfilled pauses per minute; **p* < .05

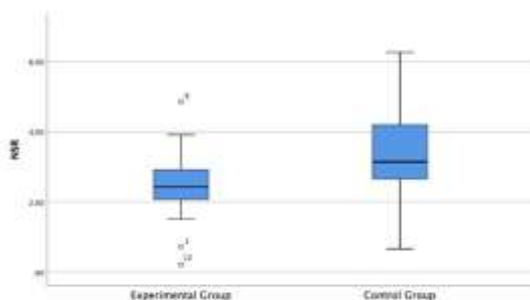


Figure 4-1 Boxplots of NSRs of the two groups

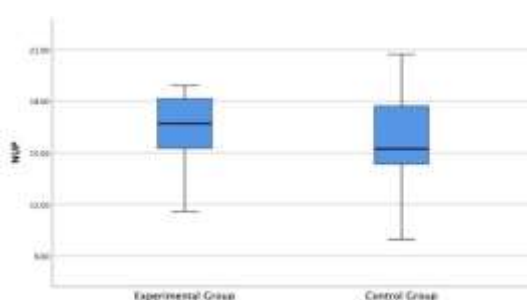


Figure 4-2 Boxplots of NUPs of the two groups

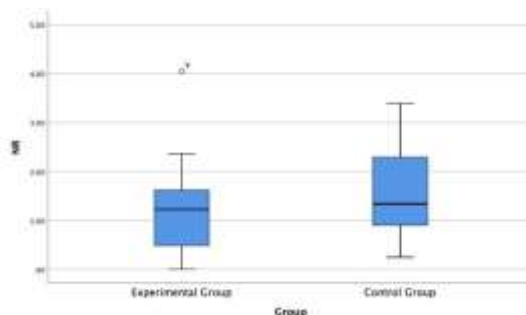
As for NR, one outlier in the experimental group was excluded from the analysis as it was far-out. Similar to NSR and NUP, an independent-samples *t*-test was performed to evaluate whether NR differed by task conditions (i.e., with and without bilingual pre-reading text). Table 4-3 indicated that, despite the experimental group having a lower NR rate than the control group, there was no significant difference between the two groups ($t[31]=-0.894, p=.378$). Further, Cohen’s effect size value ($d=.312$) suggested low practical significance. The boxplots shown in Figure 4-3 demonstrated both groups’ NR ranges.

In brief, compared with those reading the monolingual text in the first session, participants reading the E-to-C parallel texts repaired their interpretation much less in the continued ST task. But other than that, the two groups had rather similar showcases for the other two disfluency indicators (i.e., NR and NUP).

Table 4-3 Descriptive statistics and results of independent-samples *t*-test on NR in the two groups

	Experimental group (n=16)	Control group (n=17)	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Cohen's <i>d</i>
	Mean (SD)	Mean (SD)			
NR	1.27 (1.02)	1.59 (1.03)	-.894	.378	0.312

NR=number of repetitions per minute; **p* < .05

**Figure 4-3** Boxplots of NRs of the two groups

5. Discussion

The present study is an exploratory attempt to apply the *xu*-based continuation task (Wang, 2015) to ST. According to the *xu*-argument, language acquisition requires bridging the gap between comprehension and production, which is made possible by interactive alignment. Since ST involves code-switching of two languages and necessitates a close linking between comprehension and production, the continuation task seems feasible in ST instruction. The present study investigated the alignment effect of STCT on undergraduate interpreting trainees' E-to-C ST fluency. The major findings are discussed below.

The present study found that the alignment effect occurred at the lexical level in STCT. Moreover, context-specific and unfamiliar words could be acquired by students more effectively via STCT than a glossary. In the semi-structured interview, Interviewee A mentioned that "the bilingual material in the first session helped me a lot in determining the meaning of the proper nouns in the given context. I used the same translation for the same term in the second session." Interviewee B used "urban mobility" as an example, saying that "I saw 'urban mobility' and its translation several times in the first session. I had no idea that it meant '城市交通出行' without the professional translation. I followed the professional version in the second session." Interviewee C also thought she aligned with the pre-reading text's use of terminology. She told the interviewer that she would interpret "planning" as "计划 (a shorter arrangement)" instead of "规划 (a more detailed and long-term arrangement)" if not for the professional translation. Also, Interviewee B said that, compared with a glossary, the bilingual parallel text felt "more trustworthy and authoritative" because an experienced interpreter provided the translation. That was another reason why she tended to align with it. This study found that interpreting trainees aligned with the pre-reading text lexically in E-to-C STCT, echoing many investigations on the alignment effect of the continuation task in L2 learning.

Three proxies for ST disfluency (i.e., NSR, NUP and NR) were compared in the present study. Statistical analysis showed that the experimental group produced significantly less SRs per minute than the control group, but substantial differences were not found in UPs and Rs. The result indicated that STCT could, to some extent, improve interpreting trainees' ST fluency when they interpreted from L2 (English) to L1 (Chinese). Interestingly, the findings were in contrast to an empirical study on the opposite directionality (Lai, 2020). Lai (2020) reported that in C-to-E STCT, the STCT group generated significantly fewer pauses and Rs rather than SRs than the non-STCT group. As Yuan and Wan (2019) pointed out, directionality exerted an impact on ST fluency in that interpreting trainees paused more in C-to-E ST and repaired their output more in E-to-C ST. This might help to explain the conflicting outcomes of the effect of STCT on ST fluency in different directionalities. A smaller NSR in the experimental group could result from exposure to and interaction with the bilingual pre-reading text. SR has been deemed as error correction in a narrow sense. Meanwhile, interpreters also repair for a more appropriate and suitable output. As in Petite (2005), self-repair is "seen as matching the output against fitness for purpose rather than simply as the correction of errors." Because the experimental group interacted and aligned with the professional translation, they had a model to emulate when sight translating the continued text, and they realized what linguistic style was expected and held appropriate in the context. Also, the professional translation assisted the students in correctly understanding the pre-reading source text, making it easier to comprehend and sight translate the following part. In short, the experimental group was likely to be more aware of the ST standards and have less erroneous interpretation of the continued text owing to the interaction with the bilingual material, hence fewer SRs than the control group.

6. Conclusion

This study investigated the alignment effect of the continuation task on interpreting trainees' E-to-C ST fluency. It tried to answer two research questions concerning the existence of lexical alignment in E-to-C ST as well as the effect of lexical alignment on ST fluency. Quantitative and qualitative data show that an alignment effect occurs in STCT, especially for context-specific and unfamiliar words. Meanwhile, the findings also indicate that the continuation task can somewhat improve ST fluency, as demonstrated by a decrease in SRs probably triggered by the interaction and alignment with superior performance.

There are two pedagogical implications of this study. First, while modeling has long been used in interpreter training, allowing students to imitate and align with exceptional performance is crucial to utilizing such modeling fully. The continuation task rightly serves the purpose of closely linking comprehension and production. Second, instead of providing the interpreting trainees with a glossary, interpreter trainers could offer them bilingual materials and ask them to create their respective word lists. Based on the present study's findings, a context might be more effective than a glossary in explaining unfamiliar and context-specific words.

Despite its findings, this study has limitations. First, it only recruited a small number of participants with similar educational backgrounds and L2 proficiency. Therefore, the results might not be very generalizable. Second, it focused solely on the lexical alignment of STCT. Alignment at other linguistic and non-linguistic levels is worth further investigation to gain a deeper knowledge of STCT. Third, it only included one round of STCT in one directionality. Future research might test a more extensive and diverse sample to examine the continuation task's effect on interpreting trainees' ST performance. Moreover, researchers could conduct additional rounds of L1-L2 and L2-L1 STCT to explore STCT's long-term influence. Future studies may also look into whether STCT's alignment effect extends to other linguistic as well as non-linguistic levels. More studies are needed to further evaluate and promote the continuation task in interpreting classrooms.

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