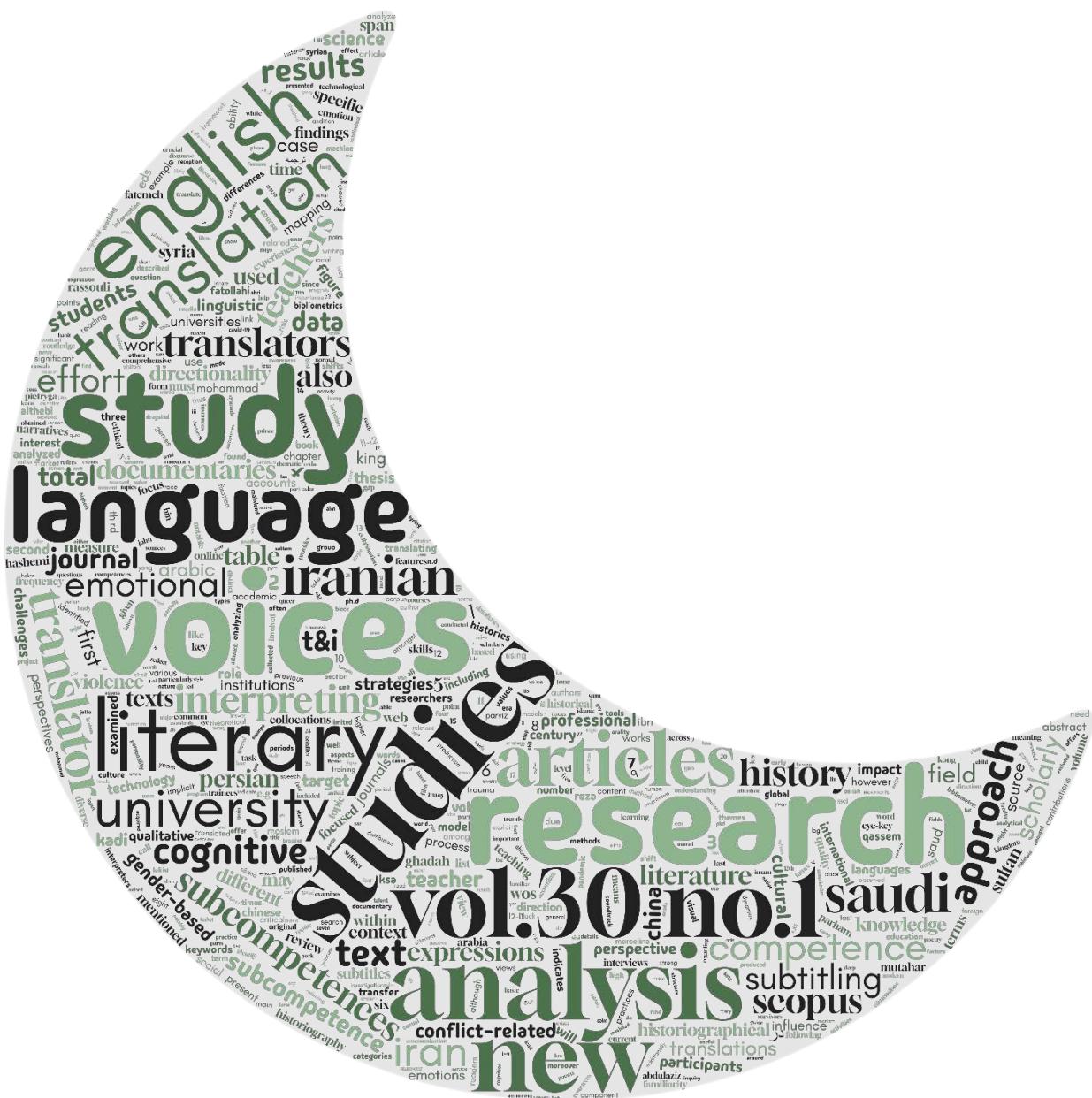




NEW VOICES IN TRANSLATION STUDIES



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Editors' Introduction

New Voices in Translation Studies is a double-blind, peer-reviewed academic journal which platforms and promotes the innovative research of early career scholars working within translation and interpreting (T&I) studies, many of whom are based within academic institutions whose global visibility and impact in T&I across many languages are growing rapidly. Each issue of *New Voices in Translation Studies* reflects the diversity of this rapid growth, and this issue (**Volume 30, Issue Number 1**) is no exception. In this issue, scholars are showcasing their cutting-edge findings within T&I while simultaneously documenting and historicising the vital role of the academic institutions across many regions of the world which have been supporting them and other T&I scholars to achieve this. This issue features contributions from **twenty-one** scholars based in **four** continents (Africa, Asia, Europe and Oceania) who are working across **seven** different languages (**Arabic, English, Farsi, Chinese, Polish, Spanish, and Thai**): five peer-reviewed articles, three book reviews and seven PhD abstracts. The authors of the five articles are from academic institutions based in **Iran, Poland, and Saudi Arabia**. The critical focus for each article is indicative of how new research methodologies and collaborations within Translation, Interpreting and Intercultural Studies emerge from – while documenting – the ever-changing epistemologies of innovation.

“Literary Translator Competence from the Iranian Teachers’ Perspective: A Qualitative Approach” by **Moslem Fatollahi** and **Mohammad Reza Hashemi**, both of whom are based at the **Ferdowsi University of Mashhad** in **IRAN**, presents the findings from a dataset of semi-structured interviews with teachers of literary translation modules. This is a very interesting small-scale research project which utilized the analysis of data from the interviews to show significant differences in the sub-competences required for literary translation (LT) as perceived by the LT teachers in Iranian universities. In a comparison based on analysis of the teachers' interviews, the present article identifies a total of six sub-competences (Linguistic-Cultural, Emotional, Personality, Literary, Transfer and Professional) and 22 components of literary translator competence. It is no surprise that most of the LT teachers interviewed ranked the most important sub-competence as Linguistic-Cultural. In the context of the Iranian literary translation market, sub-competences such as familiarity with translation tradition, flexibility, inborn talent, literary habit, and emotional competence were also crucial. This article provides a unique insight into the views of teachers in leading universities currently teaching courses in

literary translation in Iran. The discussion section raises more broadly relevant theoretical questions about the extent to which literary translators can be ‘trained’ in an academic setting.

In “**Subtitling Accounts of Conflict-Related Gender-Based Violence in Documentaries: Voices from Syria**”, **Ghadah Kadi** from **Majmaah University, SAUDI ARABIA**, explores subtitling strategies used to translate Arabic emotional expressions into English in documentaries about gender-based violence (GBV) during the conflict in Syria. The author’s research focuses on six critically acclaimed documentaries featuring first-hand GBV accounts, which include themes of rape, child marriage, and sexual harassment. In the analysis of these documentaries, the author examines how subtitling strategies affect the representation of survivors’ voices and expressions of emotional intensity. A total of 199 Arabic emotional expressions were analyzed, categorized and subtitled using various strategies. The findings reveal that subtitlers predominantly used the Transfer strategy, which closely preserves the original meaning alongside other strategies which reduced or amplified the emotional intensity of a speaker’s voice. The study highlights that subtitling constraints, such as limited space and time, compromise key features of orality such as pauses, repetitions, and disfluencies, all of which are vital for expressing trauma. Overall, the research underscores the ethical and technical challenges of subtitling emotionally charged GBV narratives and calls for greater attention to maintaining orality and emotional nuances in subtitling practices. The findings provide a foundation for further investigation into subtitling trauma narratives and developing guidelines to enhance the representation of survivors’ voices in translated audiovisual content.

The article “**A Historiographical Analysis of Translation Histories in Iran: The Case of Iranian Scholarly Journal Articles**” by **Fatemeh Parham** and **Parviz Rassouli** from **Allameh Tabataba'i University, Tehran, IRAN**, offers a comprehensive historiographical metareflection on 370 Iranian scholarly journal articles focused on translation history in Iran which have been published between 1971-2021. Using D'hulst's theoretical framework, the authors systematically analyse eight distinct aspects of these articles: historical periods, text genres, language pairs, translators, authors, works, themes, and theoretical frameworks. Their findings reveal heterogeneity and homogeneity in Iranian translation historiography, showing that the Qajar era, and the Abbasid period received the most scholarly attention, linguistic features, bibliographical analysis, and translation movements emerged as dominant research themes. The study also documents a significant focus on literary and religious genres (49.06% and 25.46% respectively), with translations from Arabic to Persian and from miscellaneous languages to Persian being the most frequently examined language pairs. This historiographical

analysis illuminates how the evolving nature of translation-history scholarship in Iran may guide scholars toward more cohesive approaches to translation historiography in Iran.

Marcelina Pietryga from **University of Silesia in Katowice, POLAND**, contributed an article titled “**Eye-Key Span as a Measure of Cognitive Effort in Translation: A Study on the Influence of Directionality on Cognitive Effort.**” This exploratory study investigates the influence of directionality on cognitive effort during translation, measured through the eye-key span (EKS). EKS, defined as the time lag between the last fixation on a source text word and the first keystroke in producing its target text equivalent, offers a measure of cognitive effort. Working to provide insights into cognitive processes during translation, this study focused on translation trainees who have yet to develop the automation seen in professional translators. The study involved 25 Polish-English advanced translation trainees who translated texts in both directions (L1-L2 and L2-L1). Using eye-tracking and key-logging, it was hypothesized that translating into L2 (L1-L2) would require greater cognitive effort, resulting in longer EKS. While the descriptive statistics suggested slightly longer EKS in the L1-L2 direction, the inferential statistical analysis (Wilcoxon test), revealed no significant differences between the two directions. The study thus highlights the variability in cognitive effort between individuals and suggests that factors such as individual preferences and abilities may influence translation directionality. Moreover, the broader context of translating longer texts may dilute observable differences in cognitive effort at the level of smaller units of analysis like collocations. This study emphasizes the complexity of translation processes and highlights the need for further investigation into directionality and cognitive effort, particularly in translation trainees.

In their article “**Mapping Saudi Institutions' Translation and Interpreting Research in the Web of Science and Scopus: A Bibliometrics Approach**”, **Mutahar Qassem** and **Sultan AlThebi** from **Najran University, SAUDI ARABIA**, offer a comprehensive bibliometric analysis of translation and interpreting (T&I) research in Saudi Arabia using data from the Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus databases. Employing analytical tools such as Excel, CiteSpace and VOSviewer, the authors work to identify key trends in publications, citation patterns, collaborative networks, journal affiliations, and research domains across 33 Saudi universities. Their findings reveal that Saudi institutions have made relatively limited contributions to WoS-indexed journals ($n = 37$) compared to Scopus-indexed journals ($n = 109$), with a notable surge in output occurring in 2022. The authors also identify predominant research themes including machine translation, translation quality, and English-Arabic translation through keyword analysis. The study documents that approximately 48.6% of WoS articles and 27.5% of Scopus

articles involved partnerships and collaborations. The statistical findings suggest that while many studies remain self-funded, some institutions in Saudi Arabia have provided significant research grants. This study provides a systematic analysis of Saudi T&I research by using selective scholarly databases while offering valuable and practical recommendations for the strengthening of Saudi Arabia's promising position in the global T&I research landscape.

The diverse ways in which seismic societal phenomena and global events are currently impacting on new and critical epistemologies of translation were the focus of the three publications reviewed in this issue. **Mariam Bouaoud** and **Brahim Barhoun** of **Abdelmalek Essaadi University, MOROCCO** review the monograph *Translation and Race* (2024) by Corine Tachtiris in which the intersections between the fields of translation and critical race theory are explored. As well as providing a detailed synopsis of each chapter and evaluating the ground-breaking nature of this work, the reviewers saliently highlight what future avenues of research are needed. In their review of Kanglong Liu and Andrew K. F. Cheung's edited volume *Translation and Interpreting in the Age of COVID-19* (2022), **Menglan Guo** and **Yu Weng** from **The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong SAR, CHINA** provide a short overview of all chapters, with a summary of the book's overall purpose: which is to highlight the critical role of Translation and Interpreting (T&I) in crisis communication, the integration of technology in T&I practices, and the evolving pedagogical approaches in the post-pandemic era. **Zhiyu Cai** of **Beijing Foreign Studies University, CHINA** and **Shanshan Yang** of **Central China Normal University, CHINA** review the edited volume *New Advances in Translation Technology: Applications and Pedagogy* (2024), by Yuhong Peng, Huihui Huang and Defeng Li, which offers a holistic overview of translation technologies in terms of their practical and pedagogical application. The reviewers explain how this work bridges the gap between academic inquiry and real-world application and in doing so, shed new light on the challenges posed by AI-driven translation technologies for human-machine collaboration.

We are delighted to present a significant number of PhD abstracts in this issue. Seven scholars from a variety of countries have successfully defended their theses in and drawing on the languages of: **Thai, Spanish, Chinese, Farsi, and English**. The title of the theses are: “Leopardi’s Voice Through Translation” by **Letizia Leonardi**, University of Aberdeen, **UNITED KINGDOM**; “Visitors’ Virtual Museum Experiences as Cross-Cultural Meaning-Making Processes: A Case Study of Museum Siam’s Virtual Exhibition” by **Pornkamol Chinprasatsak**, Hong Kong Baptist University, **HONG KONG SAR, CHINA**; “A Sensory Study for the Translation of Atmosphere in Silvina Ocampo’s Short Stories” by **Silvina Katz**,

Open University, **UNITED KINGDOM**; “The Development of Strategic Competence in C-E Consecutive Interpreting among MTI Students: A Longitudinal Study” by **Xixi Li**, Sichuan International Studies University, **PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC OF CHINA (PRC)**; “Translation and the Leftist Philosophical Discourse in the Pahlavi Period in Iran” by **Parviz Rassouli**, Allameh Tabataba'i University, **IRAN**; “Exploring the Microethics of Fansub Communities in Mainland China: A Vignette Analysis Focused on Analytical Ethical Decision-making” by **Meng Zhou**, The University of Auckland, **NEW ZEALAND**; and “Reading Homosexuality through Textuality: A Study of Chinese Translations of Call Me by Your Name in Taiwan and Mainland China” by **Ray Liehui Wang**, Hong Kong Baptist University, **HONG KONG SAR, CHINA**. We congratulate these scholars and thank them for their contributions.

The editorial team is also delighted to welcome additional ‘full’ editorial members, all of whom have been Assistant Editors for several issues: **Ziling Bai, Fernando Gabarron Barrios, Shiya Guo, Kyriaki Evlalia Iliadou (Coralia), Jiaqi Liu, Ye Tian, Yang Wu, and Lin Zhang (Robin)**. Their scholarly input has been phenomenal, and their technical expertise instrumental for *New Voices in Translation Studies* as it has been developing its interface.

We express our deep gratitude to Chalermprakiat Center of Translation and Interpretation, Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University (**Chula**), **THAILAND**, and the International Association of Translation and Intercultural Studies (**IATIS**) for their ongoing support, and our thanks to the blind peer reviewers who have been part of **Volume 30, Issue Number 1**.

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Literary Translator Competence from the Iranian Teachers' Perspective: A Qualitative Approach

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ABSTRACT

Translation teaching in Iranian universities has a history spanning several decades. One of the courses included in the bachelor's curriculum of translation and English language and literature is entitled "Literary Translation". Despite the existence of such courses, literary translation as an independent genre and type of translation has received relatively little attention from Iranian researchers. It is necessary to examine the views of the stake-holders active in this field, including teachers of literary translation, about the goals of teaching this course. The purpose of the present research is to describe and analyze the perspectives of literary translation teachers in Iran's high-ranking universities about literary-translator competence. To this end, the views of 39 teachers of literary translation were collected through semi-structured interviews and analyzed using thematic analysis, and the subcompetences that teachers considered for literary translation competence were described and categorized. By analyzing the teachers' interviews, a total of 6 subcompetences and 22 components of literary translator competence were identified. The results of the thematic analysis showed that the classification obtained in this research includes most of the subcompetences described in previous models of translation competence, and it also reveals some special subcompetences needed by literary translators in the context of the Iranian literary translation market, such as familiarity with translation tradition, flexibility, inborn talent, literary habit, and emotional competence.

KEYWORDS: literary translator, competence, subcompetence, translation teachers

1. Introduction

Translation teaching in Iranian universities has a history spanning across several decades. One of the first steps in the expansion of translation education in Iran was the establishment of a Translation University in the early 1970s. The purpose of this university was to train expert translators working between Farsi, Arabic and European languages. After the victory of the political revolution in Iran in 1979, the University of Translation was merged with the University Complex of Literature and Humanities (Kafi, Khoshsaligheh and Hashemi, 2018). The English translation program in Iran was accordingly formed more than four decades ago at the undergraduate level. The four-year bachelor's program in translation focused more on learning to translate between Farsi and English. This course improved the four main language skills and related subjects such as linguistics, literature and translation. The English language translation curriculum was designed more than twenty years ago and was criticized for not paying enough attention to the needs of translation students and the requirements of the translation market (for example, Ghazizadeh and Jamalimanesh, 2010). In 2014, the bachelor's curriculum for English language translation was revised, and course titles such as "Translation Market", "Translation Practicum" and "Technology in Translation" were added to compensate for some of the shortcomings of the previous curriculum.

The curriculum of the bachelor program in English Translation includes the "Translation of Literature" course. Two related courses are also included in the "English Language and Literature" curriculum. Considering the needs of teaching and practice of literary translation (LT), it is necessary to study the points of view of stake-holders in this field, including academic LT teachers, academic and non-academic LT learners, publishers, reviewers, critics and readers about the goals of teaching LT in universities. So far, many studies have been conducted on the objectives of teaching translation (Yazdanparast, 2012; Rastegar Moghaddam, Khoshsaligheh, and Pishghadam, 2020), the subjects required in teaching translation (Zahmatkesh, 2009; Okhravi, 2015; Varmaziari, 2017) and the methods of translation teaching (Sadeghieh, 2008; Majlesifard, 2010) in Iran. Although these studies have considered the needs of translation teaching in Iranian universities, limited research has been conducted on the views of literary translation teachers on literary-translation (LT) competence. Therefore, examining their views will provide valuable information for teachers and designers of translation curriculum.

The purpose of this research is to describe and analyze the views of university teachers of literary translation about the subcompetences of LT and their components. Another goal of this study is to compare the subcompetences desired by the LT teachers with the previous models of translation competence, so that the similarities and differences between the view of academic teachers of literary translation and the previous academic models can be understood. In addition, the current study seeks to find the specific subcompetences of LT in Iran, which may be different from the subcompetences proposed in previous models.

The special importance of this study is that it provides us with valuable insights about the target subcompetences in teaching LT in Iranian universities. The present study is significant due to its focus on a specific field and genre of translation and also because of the analysis of the views of university teachers based on a qualitative approach. The present article will therefore help to generate new knowledge and expand previous knowledge about the objectives of teaching LT in Iranian universities. Also, this research will have practical implications for teachers of literary translation and compilers of LT textbooks.

The academic translation-education system in Iran has not been successful in training professional translators for various reasons, and this weakness is most evident in the field of literary translation. Few university graduates have been present in the professional literary translation market, and most well-known and successful literary translators did not study translation at university. Emam (2021), as both an academic trainer and literary translator, believes that four factors are more involved than others in the relative failure of the translation-education system to respond to society's need for literary translation services: general and specific policies in the field of translation education at the undergraduate and graduate levels; an inefficient student admission mechanism; the dominance of non-specialized professors unrelated to the English translation field over translation education; and some content flaws in the English translation curriculum. Although Emam's findings are related to translation education in general, they can be relevant to literary translation in particular, as the aim of literary translation courses is to train professional literary translators.

This study specifically draws attention to the content flaws in the English translation curriculum and focuses on the required competences and subcompetences missing in the current LT teaching courses. As LT teachers are at the frontiers of LT training in Iranian universities and have been involved in training activities, their views can give us insights on

competences that need to be incorporated in LT teaching courses to prepare learners to make a successful contribution in the LT market. Improving the efficacy of LT teaching would in turn lead to improving the quality of translators' products and the employability of translation graduates.

As literary translators are the other important stakeholders involved in LT market whose views need to be considered, we will discuss the findings of the present study in light of our pioneer study in Iran (Fatollahi and Hashemi, 2023) that explored LT competences from literary translators' perspectives. Putting together the teachers and translators' perspectives will yield a clearer insight into the current shortcomings of academic LT teaching in Iran.

1.1 Theoretical Framework

In this study, we will use six well-known models of translation competence and compare the similarities and differences of these six models with the views of university teachers in Iran. These six models are: the model proposed by the EMT specialized group (2009), the PACTE group model (2003), and the Göpferich model (cited by Kiraly, 2013), Schäffner (2000), Nord (2005), Fox (in Schäffner, 2000), and PETRA (2017). A brief description of the six models of translation competence is given in the literature review. Another model that specifically focuses on the competence of literary translation, which we have used in the current research is, once again, the PETRA model (2017). This model and its subcompetences are also briefly explained in the Review of Literature.

1.2 Research Questions

In the current research, we set out to answer the following questions:

- (1) What subcompetences do Iranian LT teachers consider necessary for literary translators? And why?
- (2) What are the similarities and differences between the subcompetences proposed by Iranian LT teachers and the subcompetences of previous models of translation competence?

(3) According to the description of the LT teachers, what are the special competences and subcompetences of literary translators in Iran?

This research was conducted based on the concept of translation competence, which is one of the fundamental concepts of academic translation education, and the findings of the interviews are analyzed in line with previous models of translation competence and the literary translator competence model of Kiraly (2013). A full understanding of the weaknesses of academic literary translation education in Iran would require a consideration of the opinions of readers of literary works, which is beyond the scope of this article and the means of the authors. Of course, the same topic has already been researched in Iran. Bolouri and Jalali (2023) explored Iranian readers' expectations and perceptions of literary translation into Persian. The results showed that Iranian readers prefer a translation that is fluent and readable and is free from the textual and linguistic anomalies specific to the structure of the source language. The results of translation expectations also showed that readers accept methods and approaches that faithfully reflect the meaning, style, tone, context, and cultural elements of the source text in the translation. Regarding the paratexts of the translation, readers expect an introduction or critique of the work to be included in it and they consider a good translator to be someone who has linguistic knowledge, spelling ability, and a good understanding of the source text.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 *Translation Competence*

So far, many researchers have tried to identify and categorize the components of translation competence. In the meantime, several models have been proposed. Six of the most well-known ones are briefly described below:

(1) Nord (2005), in her functionalist model of translation ability, has distinguished nine subcompetences: professional subcompetences (awareness of the different functions of translation in different contexts of the target language), meta-communicative

subcompetences (awareness of the effects of the target culture on the selection of linguistic signs in translation), intercultural subcompetences (recognizing sensitive issues in translation that may lead to conflict between cultures), distributional subcompetences (knowing that language structures follow different rules in the source and target societies) writing skills (for example, rewriting a weak source text in the form of an acceptable target text), media skills (knowing how to use traditional and modern translation tools), research skills (knowing how to compensate for the lack of knowledge), stress resistance skills (the ability to work quickly and accurately in high-stress conditions) and self-confidence (awareness of the value of one's own translation). In addition to the functional nature of translation, Nord's model also considers some mental and psychological abilities related to translation.

(2) EMT expert group (2009) classified translation subcompetences into six categories: translation service provision competence (marketing, negotiating, and budgeting), language competence (e.g., paraphrasing or summarizing), intercultural competence (awareness of cultural presuppositions and implied meanings), data-mining competence (how to search and use databases), technological competence (using Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT) tools), and thematic competence (subject-specific knowledge). EMT model involves not only linguistic, cultural, and subject knowledge but also research and technological skills as its subcompetences.

(3) PACTE group (2003) proposed six subcompetences for translation: bilingual subcompetence (mastery of two languages), extralinguistic subcompetence (knowledge of the source and target languages' cultural norms), strategic subcompetence (knowing the appropriate strategies for managing projects and solving problems), instrumental subcompetence (knowing how to use translation tools in a professional career), knowledge about translation subcompetence (knowledge of translation theories and procedures), and psycho-physiological competence (having the required physiological and psychological conditions for performing and translation project) (also see PACTE, 2005). PACTE model is based on the assumption that translation is a project-based career working in a professional setting.

(4) Göpferich (cited by Kiraly, 2013) described translation subcompetences and classified them into two categories: translation competence and professional competence. The first category encompasses domain competence (subject-specific knowledge), psychomotor competence (mental ability to do translation), translation routine activation competence (familiarity with the routine activities in a translation task), tools and research competence (knowledge of searching tools and their applications), communicative competence in source and target languages, and strategic competence (knowing how to deal with and resolve translation problems). On the other hand, subcompetences of professional competence are familiarity with translation norms, professional ethos, and psycho-physical disposition. Göpferich's model is centered on mental aspects of translation competence e.g., problem-solving.

(5) Schäffner (2000) recognized six subcompetences for translation: linguistic subcompetences (mastery of the source and target languages), cultural subcompetences (familiarity with the cultural and political subtleties of the source and target countries), textual subcompetences (knowledge of various texts, genres and conventions), domain/subject specific subcompetences (knowledge of the subject of texts), research subcompetences (knowledge of using research tools to solve translation problems), and transfer subcompetences (ability to produce translation texts to meet the requirements of the translation project). Schäffner's classification mainly focuses on linguistic and cultural knowledge and strategies used in the translation process.

(6) Fox (in Schäffner, 2000) identified five subcompetences for translation: communication subcompetences (negotiating with clients to understand their wishes and expectations), socio-cultural subcompetences (awareness of socio-cultural environments) in which the source and target texts are formed), linguistic and cultural subcompetences (awareness of the mechanism of language and how meaning is formed and transferred), familiarity with the way of learning (awareness of available resources and how to use them to achieve the goals of the translation process),

problem-solving subcompetences, and instrumental subcompetences (familiarity with problems and solving them). Fox's model includes the knowledge and skills that translators need to continue their career as translators.

2.2 Literary-Translation Competence

The above models have examined translation competence without considering a specific genre or text type. One of the few models that have identified and categorized the subcompetences of literary translation is the PETRA model (2017) with eight subcompetences as follows:

- (1) Transfer subcompetences include the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to translate texts into the target language at the required level. This competence includes the ability to recognize problems in understanding the text, the ability to solve these problems appropriately, and to accept responsibility for the final produced translation.
- (2) Language subcompetences refer to the translator's mastery over the grammatical, stylistic and semantic aspects of the source and target texts, especially in terms of reading and writing.
- (3) Textual subcompetences include the knowledge of literary genres and styles and the ability to use this knowledge in analyzing the source text and producing the target text.
- (4) Heuristic subcompetences include the ability to gather the linguistic and subject knowledge needed for translation, the ability to develop strategies for effective use of digital information resources, and the ability to critique texts and distinguish different text versions.

- (5) Literary-cultural subcompetences refer to the ability to use the knowledge related to the culture and literature of the source and target societies in the process of producing literary translation, as well as the ability to manage cultural differences and the ability to recognize literary movements, schools and styles.
- (6) Professional subcompetences include the ability to gather knowledge about one's field of work and show the appropriate and expected attitude of the practitioners of that field of work.
- (7) Evaluative subcompetences refer to the ability to measure and evaluate translations, the skill of translators and the translation process.
- (8) Research subcompetences refer to the ability to conduct methodical research to improve the quality of translation.

In Iran, many studies have been conducted on translation competence. Some of these studies have explored the effect of different strategies of translation teaching on the development of translation competence (e.g., Alavi, Nemati and Ghaemi, 2014; Oraki and Tajvidi, 2020). Some others have analyzed the effectiveness of university courses in the development of students' translation competence (Ahmadi-Safa and Amraei, 2013; Davari, Noorzadeh, Firozianpour Esfahani, and Hasani, 2014). Despite this, Iranian researchers have rarely identified and described the target competences and subcompetences of translation in general and literary translation in particular. One relevant study is Khoshsaligheh (2013). In a qualitative study, he asked the opinions of English translation teachers in Iran's top universities about the shortcomings of the translation training program. These shortcomings were identified following the publication of numerous studies that identified the low competence of translation graduates to participate in the literary translation market (e.g. Mirza Ibrahim Tehrani, 2003; Ghazizadeh and Jamalimanesh, 2010; Salari and Khazaeeefar, 2015). The results of the data analysis using grounded theory showed that the translation

teachers emphasized the need to make major changes in the content of the said training course and demanded the addition of training courses for translator-assistant software programs, qualitative and quantitative improvement of translation skills courses that are related to the needs of the labor market, changing the content of foreign language courses and applied linguistics, etc. A relevant classification of literary-translation competence was proposed by Khazaefar (2022: pp. 5-6) including wide range of vocabulary, creativity in selection and combination of words, and consistency in translation approach. These subcompetences fall under language competence (mastery of source and target languages) and translational competence (mastery of translation methods and techniques).

3. Research Methodology

In this article, we set out to analyze and categorize the views of university teachers of literary translation about the competence of literary translators. This section explains the research sample, sampling method, data collection and analysis.

3.1 Research Sample and Sampling Method

The statistical population for this study includes all the people who taught the “Literary Translation” or “Translation of Literature” courses in the English language departments of the relevant Iranian universities at the undergraduate level. Due to the large number of universities in Iran that offer translation courses and English language and literature at the undergraduate level, and in order to get a better picture of these universities, the statistical sample of the research was selected from among the high-ranking universities. In this regard, all undergraduate teachers and learners who had taught/learnt literary translation at rank one (international), rank two (national) and rank three (regional) public universities (according to the ranking of 2016 by the Ministry of Science, Research and Technology) and non-governmental universities of the eight large Iranian cosmopolitan cities with a population of over one million people (Tehran, Mashhad, Isfahan, Karaj, Shiraz, Tabriz, Qom and Ahvaz) were included in the research sample. As a result, after removing the universities that did not offer the translation of literary texts, 35 public universities and 18 non-governmental universities were selected as the research sample.

By referring to the websites of the English language departments of the target universities, the researcher obtained the list of names and e-mail addresses of the teachers and invited them to participate in the study if they had LT teaching experience, by sending an email to their e-mail addresses. A total of 547 emails were sent to the teachers. A total of 171 teachers declared that they had not taught the course or they were not able to participate in the research. In the first stage, 62 teachers declared their readiness to participate in the research, and finally 39 lecturers from 30 universities of the country (21 public universities and 9 non-governmental universities) participated in the study.

3.2 Methods and Tools of Data Collection

In this context, we used semi-structured interviews to collect qualitative data. The interviewees answered the questions in their chosen and desired way: some of them participated in a telephone interview, some of them sent their answers in the form of a recorded audio file, some of them answered in writing while others answered the questions through the Google Form link. The interviewees were asked to answer the following question.

- 1) What competences should LT teachers develop in their learners?

After asking the general question, the interviewer gave details and examples to the interviewees to ensure that they understood the meaning of the question correctly. Usually, after the interviewees' answers, the interviewer discussed the answer with them by posing follow-up or probing questions to clarify the details of the interviewees' points of view.

3.3 Data Analysis Method

The researcher used thematic analysis to analyze the data. Thematic analysis is a method used to find and analyze themes in qualitative data (Saldanha and O'Brien, 2014). The thematic analysis of the data was done in the following steps:

Step 1: The researcher got acquainted with the data. He read the text of the interviews several times to find the basic ideas that appear in the texts.

Step 2: The interesting features of the data were identified as “codes” and the data related to each code was specified.

Step 3: Codes were combined to form themes.

Step 4: It was checked whether the emerging themes could explain all the relevant codes and data in the texts. Finally, a map of all emerged themes was drawn.

Step 5: The specific features of each theme were determined, and the themes were defined and named.

Step 6: A useful and relevant summary of the data was found, analyzed and discussed in relation to the research questions and literature related to the research. Finally, a report of thematic analysis was presented.

First, the PDF files of the interviews of teachers of literary translation were downloaded and saved. Then the qualitative data analysis software (MAXQDA) was installed and the interview files were loaded into the software. In the following step, the researcher carefully studied the text of the interviews and searched for statements related to the LT competence. All the sentences that the interviewees expressed explicitly or implicitly about the competences needed by literary translators were identified and coded.

3.4 Trustworthiness of the Research Model

In this context, we used the inter-subjective verification method to ensure trustworthiness of the research model. For this purpose, the initial research model was reviewed by eight translation education experts, and some of these experts' points of view regarding the arrangement, components, and categorization of sub-competences were applied to the initial model to obtain the final model.

3.5 Limitations of the Study

This study, like any other research, has faced limitations. These limitations are mainly related to the scope of the study. It should be mentioned that the competences proposed in this study reflect the views of a sample of LT teachers at Iranian universities and do not necessarily show the views of the other LT stakeholders such as LT practitioners, publishers, etc. On the other hand, findings of this study have been found in the Iranian academic context and may not be generalizable to LT teaching in the other countries. The LT subcompetences found in our study are also subject to idiosyncrasies. So, LT teachers can customize the model proposed in this study to develop a toolkit for their LT classes.

4. Results

In the present study, the views of 39 teachers of literary translation about the LT competence were collected, described and categorized using semi-structured interviews. In total, 113 parts of the interviews related to the topic of LT competence were coded. By thematic analysis of the views of literary-translation teachers, we found 6 subcompetences and 22 components. In the following, the target subcompetences in literary translation obtained from the data are explained along with their components and examples of teachers' comments about each of the subcompetences. The order of presentation of subcompetences in the next section is random.

The Competences of Literary Translation from the Teachers' Point of View

In the first question of the interview, we asked the teachers of literary translation to describe their LT competences. The subcompetences described by the teachers of literary translation are listed in Table 1.

Table 1: The subcompetences of literary translation from the point of view of LT teachers

Subcompetence Number	Subcompetence	Total Frequency	Subcompetences and their components
1	Linguistic-Cultural	107	Source language proficiency, target language proficiency, linguistics knowledge, intercultural knowledge
2	Emotional	30	Interest in literature, interest in literary translation
3	Personality	11	Innate talent, literary habit
4	Literary	28	Familiarity with literary topics, familiarity with local literature, familiarity with foreign literature
5	Transfer	32	Familiarity with translation theories, familiarity with translation methods, familiarity with principles of editing
6	Professional	23	Technological skills, interaction skills, adaptation skills, familiarity with the translation market, familiarity with the tradition of translation, criticism skills, compliance with ethical principles, effort and resilience

As we can see from Table 1, the first subcompetence of literary translation from the teachers' point of view is linguistic-cultural subcompetence. This competence means the translator's mastery of the source and target language and culture, and has four components which are described below.

The first component of linguistic-cultural subcompetence is proficiency of source language, which means the translator's mastery of the potential and actual possibilities of the English

language: “The most important thing I think I should do in the classroom is to help them learn the source language and understand the English text well” (Teacher 1¹); “The literary translator must have complete mastery of the source language and understand it completely (Teacher 17); “One of the goals I pursue in class is to develop the ability to understand English literary text through participation and group work” (Teacher 30).

The second component of linguistic-cultural subcompetence is the proficiency of the target language, which means the translator's mastery of the potential and actual possibilities of the Persian language: “The first is that the scope of Persian literary vocabulary of the students should be increased. Many students use colloquial words in translating poetry, which is not correct” (Teacher 8); “Persian language should be like a soft dough for a literary translator. He must have read literary texts and literary translations of the past” (Teacher 2); “From the very first session, I encourage students to read authentic and good Persian texts” (Teacher 1).

The third component of linguistic-cultural subcompetence is linguistic subcompetence, which means the translator's familiarity with linguistic topics such as morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, etc. “They should pay attention to the fact that these words can have different translations” (Teacher 9); “Comparative analysis of the text is very important. It is necessary to find the correct equivalents and learn new words in the context in which they are used” (Teacher 31); “I dedicate about half an hour of the session to analyzing the vocabulary, structure and style of the source text” (Teacher 3).

The fourth component of linguistic-cultural subcompetence is intercultural knowledge which means the translator's familiarity with source and target cultures and their similarities and differences: “Students must be fluent in both languages and be familiar with both cultures and their historical memories” (Teacher 14); “The translator must be able to recognize the cultural aspects of the work and the implicit meanings of the original text and transfer it to the target language” (Teacher 15); “The literary translator must explain the cultural dimensions of the work to the readers who are not familiar with those specific cultural aspects” (Teacher 17).

As we can see from Table 1, the second subcompetence of literary translation from the teachers' point of view is the emotional subcompetence. This subcompetence means the

¹ As the original interviews were in Persian, the authors transcribed and translated the responses into English as accurately as possible.

translator's emotional attachment to literature and has two components which are described below.

The first component of emotional subcompetence is interest in literature: “A literary translator must be very interested in literature and have a lot of experience in reading authored and translated literary texts” (Teacher 35); “Literature should be the teacher's field of interest and he should see a connection between himself and literature” (Teacher 3).

The second component of emotional subcompetence is interest in literary translation: “Literary translation is a kind of love to read more and understand the subtleties of literary translation such as the tone of speech” (Teacher 11); “The teacher himself must be fascinated by this path and must spend a lot of time to expand his or her knowledge in the field of literature” (Teacher 11).

The third subcompetence of literary translation is personality subcompetence. This subcompetence refers to the personality traits that enable a literary translator to fulfill his or her task as a literary translator and has two components which are described below.

The first component of personality subcompetence is innate talent: “Literary translation is a mixture of skill, knowledge and art. Of course, part of his or her ability is inherent and in the nature of the individual” (Teacher 7); “Talent is also very important in literary translation because maybe we can translate scientific texts with software, but this is not the case in literary texts” (Teacher 11); “My teaching experience shows that success in this field, especially in poetry translation, is inherent and not everyone should have this inherent ability” (Teacher 2).

The second component of personality subcompetence is literary habit: “The translator should be familiar with literary works and should never abandon the study of literature” (Teacher 21); “A literary translator must be interested in literature and his or her² regular habit be to read literary works of both languages” (Teacher 35); “I am familiar with reading old and new literary works and novels and I like to get acquainted with different literary styles and genres” (Teacher 23).

² This phrase was not in the main transcript but has been added to observe gender neutrality

The fourth subcompetence of literary translation is literary subcompetence. This subcompetence refers to the literary translator's knowledge of literature and has three components which are described below.

The first component of literary subcompetence is familiarity with literary topics such as anthology, literary criticism, literary devices, and literary schools: "He or she must have full knowledge of two languages and have a deep understanding of the literary tradition of both countries" (Teacher 10); "A literary translator must be familiar with genres, styles, industries and literary movements" (Teacher 16); "The translator must be familiar with the literature and literary system of the source and target languages" (Teacher 18).

The second component of literary subcompetence is familiarity with local literature and its poetry and prose texts: "A literary translator must be completely familiar with Iranian literature and know the style of Iranian literary writers" (Teacher 4); "The translator must also be a serious reader of literary texts. He or she should study literary works of two languages widely" (Teacher 7); "The translator must have a long experience in studying literary works of both languages" (Teacher 35).

The third component of literary subcompetence is familiarity with foreign literature and its poetry and prose texts: "Students should have good knowledge of general language and be familiar with English literature" (Teacher 28); "Familiarity with English literature is very important; Familiarity with authors and their various works" (Teacher 8); "Literary translator must be familiar with world literature and the publishing market of literary works" (Teacher 28).

The fifth subcompetence of literary translation is transfer subcompetence which means the skill of rendering a text from the source text to the target text and has three components which are described below.

The first component of transfer subcompetence is familiarity with translation theories: "A literary translator must be aware of the abilities needed by a literary translator and the theories and strategies of translation" (Teacher 18); "A literary translator must be aware of the general theoretical issues related to translation, especially literary translation, and know the difference between literary translation and the translation of other texts" (Teacher 23);

“Students should acquire theoretical knowledge about literary translation and understand its challenges correctly” (Teacher 12).

The second component of transfer subcompetence is familiarity with translation method: “The translator must be familiar with the principles and methods of translating literary texts and understand the lexical, grammatical and semantic complexities of the original text” (Teacher 21); “The aim of the literary translation classes is to familiarize the student with the basic methods and techniques of translating texts from English to Persian” (Teacher 23); “Students should be familiar with different methods and strategies of translating literary texts in the literary translation class” (Teacher 34).

The third component of transfer subcompetence is familiarity with principles of editing: “Topics of editing are also discussed in class. Students should be familiar with the types of editing and its application” (Teacher 9); “Students should review and edit the initial version several times and see what other interpretations can be used” (Teacher 8); “Students must have the ability to analyze text and context, as well as the ability to edit their translation and the translation of others” (Teacher 20).

The sixth subcompetence of literary translation is professional subcompetence which means the abilities needed for successful presence in the LT market. This subcompetence has eight components as described below.

The first component of professional subcompetence is technological skills which refers to the ability of using technology in translation: “In addition to the above, it is worth mentioning the ability to translate all kinds of texts and the ability to use translation software” (Teacher 9); “Literary translators should be familiar with different translation tools and technologies” (Teacher 34); “The translator must be familiar with different translation tools and be able to work with different types of texts” (Teacher 34).

The second component of professional subcompetence is interaction skills which means the ability to have successful interaction with the agents involved in translation process: “Students should know that they are going to enter this field professionally and should use the experiences of experts in this field” (Teacher 6); “The translator should be able to negotiate with the publisher on the draft contract and reach an agreement” (Teacher 7);

“Students should learn how to interact with each other and offer a translation to the professional translation market by working together” (Teacher 34).

The third component of professional subcompetence is adaptation skills which means adaptability to demands of different market agents such as publishers, critiques and auditors: “Student translators might even sometimes be asked to work for relatively low pay, while a more senior / experienced translator, who has checked and possibly edited their work, is credited with the publication³“ (Teacher 30); “Students must learn to cope with urgent work deadlines and adapt to the requirements of different texts” (Teacher 34).

The fourth component of professional subcompetence is familiarity with the translation market and its needs: “I tell my students what book to choose and how and by what criteria should they choose the work” (Teacher 7); “Students should be familiar with well-known literary publishers and publishing agents of literary works” (Teacher 18); “A literary translator must be professionally familiar with the translated literature and the literary translation market” (Teacher 18).

The fifth component of professional subcompetence is familiarity with the tradition of translation or the rules and norms agreed upon by the literary translators’ community: “A literary translator must be professionally familiar with the translated literature and the literary translation market” (Teacher 18); “He or she should know the style of the translators of Iranian literature and be completely familiar with the history of Iranian literary translation” (Teacher 4); “We compare the Persian translations of literary works with their originals, especially the translation of literary masterpieces so that students get to know the tradition of translation in Iran” (Teacher 18).

The sixth component of professional subcompetence is critical skill which refers to the ability to evaluate and detect the positive and negative points of translations: “A literary translator must have the ability to evaluate previous translations and recognize the weaknesses of these translations” (Teacher 15); “Students should be able to compare and evaluate different

³ This comment from a LT teacher who has been active in the publishing market makes sense. Novice literary translators in Iran have a hard time opening their way into the literary translation market. Well-reputed literary publishers rarely trust novice translators and often refuse to invest directly in their translations. Further, most of the novice translators cannot afford to publish their works independently without publishers’ support. That is why, they need to co-author their first works with well-known translators so that they gain enough social capital to publish their next works independently.

translations of literary works in order to get acquainted with creative writing" (Teacher 23); "Students should have the ability to criticize the printed translations available in the market and discuss the quality of the translations in a group" (Teacher 30).

The seventh component of professional subcompetence is compliance with ethical principles in their career: "The literary translator must remain loyal to the author and the work in the structural, stylistic and thematic dimensions" (Teacher 33); "I must treat the text as if I were its author. I must try to respect all the aesthetic, thematic, stylistic and linguistic bases of the original text" (Teacher 33); "Students should learn to respect the ethical standards in translation and respect the author's intention and his or her cultural sensitivities" (Teacher 39).

The eighth component of professional subcompetence is effort and resilience. It means the translator's readiness to spend time and energy on his or her path to becoming a successful LT translator: "Literary translation requires continuous and endless study because the language is always changing and transforming" (Teacher 17); "I talk to my students about the challenges of literary translation and the difficulty of becoming a translator" (Teacher 30); "A literary translator must have read literary texts and literary translations of the past. One should not enter this field first and expect success. This work requires practice" (Teacher 2).

5. Discussion

In the present study, the views of 39 teachers of literary translation about LT competence were collected, described and categorized using semi-structured interviews. In total, 731 parts of the interviews related to the topic of literary translation competence were coded. By thematic analysis of the views of the LT teachers, we found 6 subcompetences and 22 components.

As we can see in Table 1, in their interviews, the LT teachers emphasized linguistic-cultural subcompetence (107 cases), transfer subcompetence (32 cases) and emotional subcompetence (30 cases), respectively. The teachers of literary translation have emphasized above all the importance of language and cultural knowledge and ability in the LT competence. Linguistic-cultural competence includes source language proficiency, target language proficiency, linguistic knowledge, and intercultural knowledge. Linguistic-cultural competence in this

research corresponds to the language competence in the LT competence model of PETRA (2009), which means the translator's mastery of grammatical, stylistic and semantic aspects of the source and target texts, especially in the fields of reading and writing.

The second most frequent competence that LT teachers have emphasized is the transfer subcompetence, which means familiarity with the translation theories, translation method, and editing principles. The transfer subcompetence in this research corresponds to the transfer competence in the PETRA model. In the mentioned model, the transfer competence includes the knowledge, skills, and attitudes needed to translate texts into the target language at the required level. This competence includes the ability to recognize problems in understanding the text, the ability to solve these problems appropriately, and to accept responsibility for the final produced translation.

The third most frequent subcompetence that LT teachers have emphasized is emotional subcompetence. This subcompetence means the translator's emotional attachment to literature. This subcompetence has no corresponding competence in PETRA model. This difference might be attributed to the different perspectives of European and Iranian societies towards the essence of literary translation and its motives. Due to the long history of devotion to literature and poetry in Iranian society, literary translation for Iranian translators and teachers is a matter of emotion and devotion that cannot be pursued effectively without internal interest in literature.

Table 2. Comparison of the model of literary translator competence with the previous models

LT Competence Model	PACTE (2005)	EMT (2022)	Schäffner (2000)	Nord (2005)	Fox (in Schäffner, 2000)	Göpferich (2013)	PETRA (2017)
Linguistic-cultural	Bilingual	Language and cultural	Language	Writing	Linguistic-cultural	Translation routine activation	Language
Professional	Instrumental-strategic	Translation service provision,	Research, cultural	Professional	Communicative, instrumental	Instrumental,	Professional

		technological				professional ethics	
Emotional	Psycho-physiological	Personal and inter-personal	Self-assurance	Problem-solving	Psycho-motor
Personality	Personal and inter-personal	Self-assurance	Psycho-physiological
Literary	Specific field/area	Specific field	Domain	Literary-cultural
Transfer	Strategic	Translation al	Transfer	Distribution	Linguistic-cultural	Translation routine activation	Transfer

As we can see in Table 2, the subcompetences described in the present study have total or partial correspondence with the ones described in the previous competence models. Components of the personality competence (innate talent and literary habit) have no corresponding components in the previous models. This is due to the essential difference between literary translation and the other genres. In literary translation, personal talent and familiarity with the language of literature is crucial. Literary subcompetence is another factor in the present study that is missing in some of the previous competence models because the previous models were not focused on the literary genre in particular.

In response to the first question of the research, the results of the study showed that the participating teachers mentioned a total of 6 subcompetences and 22 components. These competences and subcompetences are listed in Table 1.

In response to the second question of the research, the findings of the study showed that the classification obtained from the current research (Table 1) includes most of the subcompetences proposed in previous models, although some subcompetences are named with different titles in different models (for example, the communicative subcompetence in the Götferich model is equivalent to the interaction component in our research model).

In response to the third question of the research, our findings showed that some of the subcompetences described in the current research were not included in the previous models of translation competence. For example, flexibility competence, innate talent, literary habit, and emotional competence. One of the possible reasons for this is that most of these subcompetences or components (especially flexibility component, emotional subcompetence) play a key role in the LT competence, but they may not be very important in the translation of other types of texts. One of the other reasons for obtaining the mentioned subcompetences in the current research was the source of data collection. The previous models of translation competence were obtained by asking the views of LT teachers and translators, while the current research model was derived only from the views of LT teachers.

As to comprehensiveness and applicability of the competences and subcompetences proposed in the present study, it should be mentioned that the competences reflect the views of a sample of LT teachers at Iranian universities and do not necessarily show the views of the other LT stakeholders such as LT practitioners, publishers, etc. Comparison of the present research findings with those of our pioneer study on Iranian literary translators shows that although literary translators had proposed almost the same competences, they had emphasized the importance of professional and emotional subcompetences which have low weight in the view of academic teachers.

On the other hand, findings of this study were found in the Iranian academic context and may not be generalizable to LT teaching in the other countries. In the model of the present research, emotional subcompetence emerges while the same subcompetence is not seen in the previous translation competence models developed around the world. On the other hand, personality subcompetence and literary subcompetence have different components from those of the previous models.

The LT subcompetences found in our study are also subject to idiosyncrasies. For example, one of the interviewees who is an expert in CAT tools and corpora strongly emphasized technological competence and recommended using the same tools in literary translation while the other teachers did not consider familiarity with corpora and CAT tools to be so useful for literary translators. Another example is the importance of innate talent that was emphasized by three of the interviewees while was not mentioned by the others.

The competences and subcompetences proposed in this study do not have equal weightings. The linguistic-cultural subcompetence has the highest weighting. This makes sense as translation is a linguistic transfer ability in the first place. The personal subcompetence holds the least weight which indicates that individual talent and acquired habits have the least important role in LT competence, and LT is a skill that should be acquired through training. The other subcompetences have almost the same weighting. Although teachers and learners need to consider all of the subcompetences in Table 1, some are considered by LT teachers to be more important.

One of the main concerns in designing syllabi and lesson plans for LT is the arrangement of the skills and subcompetences to be acquired. Based on the interview results, personality subcompetence is related to the natural talent that is either inborn or acquired during life in the environment. This subcompetence precedes training and is effective in recognizing talented LT learners: “My teaching experience shows that success in this field, especially in poetry translation, is innate and not everyone should have this innate ability” (Teacher 2); “A translator must have an innate talent and innate ability, which is manifested in poetry translation” (Teacher 15). Previous studies have also highlighted the role of personality in literary translation competence. Shadman, Khoshsaligheh and Steca (2022) explored the personality profile of Iranian literary translators through a qualitative study and reported that Introversion, Emotionality, Perseverance, Self-confidence and Disorganization are among the main personality features of literary translators.

One basic subcompetence of LT is the linguistic-cultural subcompetence that needs to be acquired through passing the basic general English courses offered in the initial semesters. In fact, most of the respondents presupposed that LT learners have already mastered their general English skills before taking LT lessons: “One part of the learner’s ability in literary translation is general language: If a student is weak in grammar, he or she will not be able to do literary translation” (Teacher 5); “A person who wants to enter the field of literary translation will not be able to do it without knowledge of English, and of course, this is not enough” (Teacher 2).

According to the respondents, literary subcompetence needs to be improved in the very beginning sessions of the course. Learners’ exposure to interesting literary works will in turn enhance their interest in literature and LT: “Literary translation is a kind of love for reading

more and understanding the subtleties of literary translation, such as the tone of the words” (Teacher 11); “A literary translator must have a great interest in literature and have a lot of experience in reading written and translated literary texts” (Teacher 35). Of course, translation learners in Iran often pass several courses on literature including poetry, prose, and drama before taking LT courses.

Transfer subcompetence is the next ability to be developed in LT courses. It is a basic subcompetence involved in all genres of translation and in LT as well: “A literary translator must be able to correctly select the appropriate strategy for translating a literary text” (Teacher 19); “A translator must be familiar with the principles and methods of translating literary texts and understand the lexical, grammatical, and semantic complexities of the original text” (Teacher 21).

Finally, professional subcompetence is the key to entering LT market. This is the complement to the previous subcompetences and the missing link in the LT training courses in Iran: “A translator must be familiar with different translation tools and be able to work with different types of texts” (Teacher 34); “A translator must be able to negotiate and reach an agreement with the publisher on a draft contract” (Teacher 7); “Students must learn to cope with urgent work deadlines and adapt themselves to the requirements of different texts” (Teacher 34); “I tell my students to choose what books, and by what criteria” (Teacher 7); “A literary translator must remain faithful to the author and the work in structural, stylistic and thematic dimensions” (Teacher 33).

In respect to the above discussion, the following presumptive flowchart can be depicted for LT courses at Iranian universities. Again, it is worth mentioning that this flowchart merely reflects the views of Iranian academic LT teachers but it can still inform LT teachers in arranging their course materials. This arrangement reflects the chronological order of competences and not their importance.

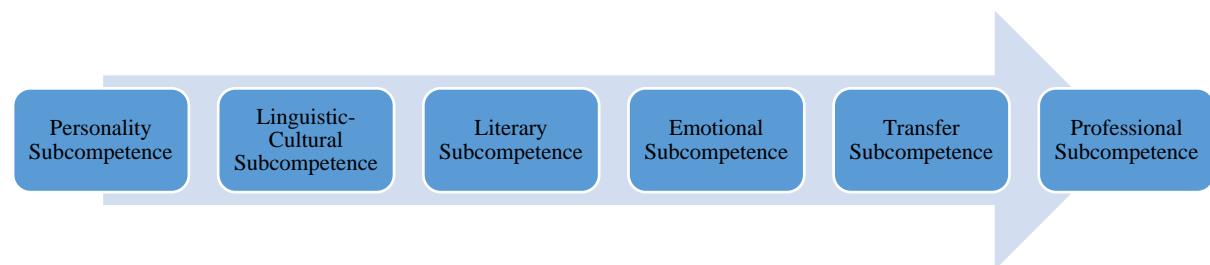


Figure 1. LT course flowchart

Comparison of the subcompetences found in this study with those of our pioneer study exploring professional literary translators' views (Fatollahi and Hashemi, 2023) reveals that the subcompetences arising from both studies are almost the same. However, Iranian LT teachers and practitioners have highlighted different subcompetences. While LT teachers have mostly focused on language subcompetence and transfer subcompetence, professional literary translators have highlighted professional, emotional, and literary subcompetences which are pivotal for succeeding in the professional market. In other words, the subcompetences highlighted by the Iranian LT teachers are not aligned with real-life market demands.

6. Conclusion

In the present study, the subcompetences involved in the translation of literary texts were described and categorized by analyzing group interviews of teachers of literary translation. The results of the research showed that, according to the LT teachers, a total of 6 subcompetences and 22 components are involved in literary translation.

The results of the study indicated that the classification obtained in this research includes most of the subcompetences described in previous models of translation competence like language subcompetence, transfer subcompetence, professional subcompetence, and personality subcompetence. It also reveals some special subcompetences needed by literary translators in the context of the Iranian literary translation market, such as familiarity with translation tradition, flexibility, inborn talent, literary habit, and emotional competence. On the other hand, some of the subcompetences described in previous models were not highlighted by Iranian LT teachers, such as technological subcompetence, team-working, and strategic subcompetence. This is mainly due to the essence of literary translation activity which is mostly regarded as an individual activity in Iran.

The views of Iranian LT teachers are somehow different from those of the Iranian professional literary translators explored in the authors' pioneer study. The teachers highlighted language and transfer subcompetences, two aspects mostly covered in university classes. On the other hand, literary translators highlighted emotional and professional

subcompetences. To them, literary translation is a matter of emotion, love and devotion. Literary translators have accordingly highlighted the skills needed for successful presence in the publishing market such as coping with censorship and cooperating with editors. These aspects are not covered in university classes as the teachers are not professional literary translators themselves.

Comparison of our results with the PETRA model revealed that literary translation might be perceived differently in Iran and western countries. The emotional subcompetence in our model is missing in the PETRA model. It seems that Iranian translators are mainly motivated by literary enjoyment and are devoted to their career. The PETRA model has highlighted the professional aspect of literary translation and the skills needed for activity in the market. So, it is predicted that conducting the same research in different countries might yield different subcompetences and different weightings.

The findings of this research will be useful for literary translators and academic and non-academic learners of literary translation in Iran and will familiarize them with the wide range of subcompetences required to enter the profession of literary translation. In addition, the results of the current research will be a guide for educational policy makers in compiling and revising the content of courses related to literary translation in English language translation curriculum. Due to the fact that there is no evidence of the difference in the LT competence from different languages (such as Arabic, English, French, etc.) into Persian in Iranian society, the results of this research can be useful for the readers of other educational groups (other than English). Considering that the current research is the first research of this kind on LT competence in Iranian society, this research provides readers with the views of Iranian LT teachers in the form of a broad classification.

The current research has mainly focused on the views of teachers of literary translation. Future researchers can also check the views of the other actors involved literary translation such as professional translators, publishers, etc. On the other hand, our study has focused on the LT teachers of English language departments in a number of public and private universities. Collecting the views of the teachers from other universities and foreign language departments will help to deepen and expand the classification of the current research.

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Subtitling Accounts of Conflict-Related Gender-Based Violence in Documentaries: Voices from Syria

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ABSTRACT

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a global issue that has received much media attention aimed at tackling the problem itself and listening to the voices of those who experienced it. Those who speak up want their voices heard, so the English translations of their first-hand experiences are crucial in making these accounts widely known. The translation of such accounts is largely overlooked in translation studies research. This paper sheds light on the current subtitling behaviour in documentaries featuring Arabic first-hand accounts of GBV associated with the conflict in Syria, focusing on the subtitling of emotional expressions as an integral dimension of recounting first-hand experiences in documentaries. The English subtitles of six documentaries were extracted to compile a parallel corpus of emotional expressions and analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. The analysis of 199 Arabic emotional expressions shows that subtitlers use various strategies to render them into English, with 'Transfer' and 'Condensation' being the most common. The results indicate that some nuances of trauma in the original GBV narratives are not captured in the translated subtitles.

KEYWORDS: Audiovisual translation, emotional expressions, gender-based violence documentaries, subtitling strategies

Introduction

Gender-based violence (GBV) is a broad term for harmful acts perpetrated against a person's will on the basis of socially ascribed gender differences (Inter-Agency Standing Committee 2018). While the term is inclusive of all genders, it is often equated to violence against women, even though men are also sometimes victims of such violence (UN Women n.d.). During periods of armed conflict, women are more vulnerable to GBV, particularly sexual violence. The World Health Organization (2021) reported that GBV is "endemic in every country and culture", as one in three women worldwide experiences sexual or physical violence in their lifetime. According to UN Women (n.d.), GBV against women includes domestic violence, femicide, sexual violence, human trafficking, and child marriage.

Crises often separate families and communities, weaken institutions that provide support, and make basic necessities inaccessible, increasing vulnerability to GBV (Inter-Agency Standing Committee 2018). The media are widely believed to help prevent GBV in conflict zones by raising awareness and moving the issue from the private to the public sphere, making the media a stakeholder in mitigating GBV risks (Inter-Agency Standing Committee 2015). In this context, translation poses additional challenges in international projects that aim to combat GBV, as the dominance of English may shape, simplify, or even limit how GBV experiences are represented (Guizzo et al. 2018). In documentaries, first-hand accounts of GBV aim to "tell the story of the self, a story of abuse from which someone has survived, with a view to breaking the silence ... and raising awareness of the multifaceted nature of GBV" (Bosseaux 2020:90). Bosseaux identified a research gap in the translation of GBV documentaries (2023:22), calling for more research to identify common practices and challenges. My research places itself within this background and aims to reveal current practices in the subtitling of conflict-related GBV documentaries and the possible impact of such practices on the survivors' voices. This article is part of a broader PhD project on translating emotions and culture in GBV documentaries. The article focuses specifically on subtitling emotional expressions from Arabic into English. It highlights the strategies used and the resulting shifts in emotional intensity.

In documentaries, narrators' explicit emotional disclosures through terms denoting emotions are key strategies for constructing relationships with the audience (Shvanyukova 2021:181). Trauma narrative research identifies linguistic emotional expressions as narrative content features (Jaeger et al. 2014; Truong et al. 2014; Wardecker et al. 2017). Translating emotionally loaded content, particularly abuse narratives, poses challenges for subtitlers (Perdikaki and Georgiou 2020), who often use coping mechanisms to distance themselves from affecting emotions in the source text (ST). Bosseaux's (2023) practice-based research on translating GBV yielded guidelines for emotional content in documentaries, validated in English, French, and Chinese translations but not in Arabic, which is a UN official language. Given these gaps, it is significant to examine how Arabic emotional expressions in conflict-related GBV documentaries are subtitled, considering the limitations of subtitling as a translation mode and the sensitivity of the STs.

The aim of my work was to identify common practices in subtitling conflict-related GBV documentaries by investigating the strategies used in subtitling emotional expressions in Arabic GBV narratives into English. It focuses on subtitled first-hand GBV accounts within the Syrian conflict, which began in 2011 and saw significant shifts in power, with the fall of the Assad regime on 8 December 2024 marking a crucial turning point.

The UN's 2024 report highlights conflict-related sexual violence in Syria, noting that child marriage and forced marriage are used as coping mechanisms during financial hardship. The Syrian crisis escalated into the world's largest refugee crisis (UNHCR 2024), as emphasized by international media coverage of the 2015 "refugee crisis" in Europe. That year marked a significant movement of refugees, many escaping Syria (Georgiou and Zaborowski 2017:4). Media coverage brought GBV issues into the global spotlight, and translation into English shaped how these conflict-related GBV accounts travelled across languages and cultures. The following sections will review relevant literature, outline the data, introduce the analytical framework and methods, and present the results, followed by a discussion of the main findings.

Trauma Narratives: Characteristics and Translation Challenges

Trauma can be a result of witnessing death, suffering serious injury or sexual violence (American Psychiatric Association 2013:271). While studies on trauma have particularly focused on the impact of wars (Van der Kolk 2014:11), some consider that traumatic events can include an attack on one's identity or security, not necessarily a physical one (Gordon and Szymanski 2014:250-252). Others extend the concept to include any emotionally overwhelming experience, including disappointment (Busch and McNamara 2020:325). The present article deals with traumatic experiences involving exposure to GBV in the context of war, with a specific focus on the recounting of personal experiences of trauma (GBV) within conflict.

Exposure to traumatic experiences can disrupt the brain's ability to process events, leading to psychological symptoms such as emotional numbing, shame, or even post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), with women – particularly rape survivors – being at higher risk for PTSD (American Psychiatric Association 2013: 272; Alvarez-Conrad et al. 2001; Reyes et al. 2008). Trauma often involves experiences that are outside the realm of the ordinary. As such, language can be inadequate in conveying traumatic experiences, and recalling these experiences in order to relay them has the potential to create a sense of discontinuity and silence, also known as the 'discourse of the unsayable' (Rogers 2006; Stroińska et al. 2014). Given the emotionally charged state associated with conveying trauma narratives, such narratives also often contain speech fillers, repetition and incomplete sentences (Foa 1997:414). Furthermore, linguistic markers, such as words conveying emotions and references to death, are key content features (Alvarez-Conrad et al. 2001; Jaeger et al. 2014). Speech disfluencies, i.e. interruptions in the normal flow of spoken language, (e.g. 'uh', 'um', 'er') and fillers (e.g. 'you know', 'I mean', 'I don't know', 'like') are structural indicators of disorganization and fragmentation in trauma narratives (Jones et al. 2007:1; Jaeger et al. 2014:5).

Translating trauma narratives demands fidelity to both the survivors' emotional expression and factual accuracy (d'Ardenne et al. 2007:307-308). Concerns with the authenticity of trauma survivors' voices, particularly when the narrative is part of a historical event, have been acknowledged in the translation of Holocaust testimonies. For instance, in 1946 Boder recorded and translated interviews with Holocaust survivors using a literal method. Boder

also indicated: “[W]ords describing the emotional range in the voices of the narrators, and their gestures at the time of speaking, have been italicized and enclosed in brackets” (Boder 1949:xiv). Müller (2014) claimed that Boder’s desire to trace linguistic markers of trauma led to his translation sounding eccentric and ungrammatical. However, Bosseaux (2023:11) recommends maintaining the emotional tone when subtitling GBV documentaries to help the target audience access the original experience.

Documentaries portray real-life issues in order to persuade the viewer of a particular viewpoint or raise awareness (Kuhn and Westwell 2020:13), and the use of storytelling in such documentaries enhances emotional engagement (Chattoo 2020:208). Audiovisual texts convey meaning through audio-verbal, audio-nonverbal, visual-verbal and visual-nonverbal elements (Delabastita 1989; Baños 2017). Subtitling involves translating and recounting spoken dialogue, as well as verbal information that is transmitted visually (e.g. inserts) and aurally (e.g. songs) (Díaz-Cintas and Remael 2021:9). However, it can be particularly challenging in GBV documentaries, where speakers may conceal their identities, limiting access to some visual meaning-making codes such as facial expressions.

GBV narration often involves references to personal emotions and the social stigma associated with such violence. However, temporal and spatial constraints on subtitling can impact how these emotions are rendered. Subtitles must fit within a limited space and time, allowing 37–42 characters per line (Díaz-Cintas and Remael 2021:97–8). Traditionally, the six-second rule states that 70–74 characters can be read in six seconds, or approximately 12 characters per second (Martí Ferriol 2013:203). Platforms such as Netflix use subtitles with up to 20 characters per second (Szarkowska et al. 2020:663–4), suggesting that traditional subtitling constraints have evolved. However, faster subtitles reduce comprehension (Kruger et al. 2022:18). As a result, emotions expressed in the ST may be compromised to maintain other details in the narrative. The change from speech to text in subtitling may also affect how the emotions expressed in the ST are conveyed. Bosseaux’s (2023) guidelines address this challenge by recommending techniques such as segmenting subtitles in synchrony with speech, using varied fonts and including orality features such as pauses and hesitations within the subtitles. These guidelines align with Boder’s (1949) method of reproducing speech errors to reflect the speaker’s emotional state.

Some subtitlers found the translation of emotionally loaded content, particularly that recounting abuse, the most challenging (Perdikaki and Georgiou 2020). Documentaries can heighten the emotional burden on some subtitlers, who reported using coping mechanisms such as lowering the audio or relying on written templates, taking breaks (e.g. crying) and speeding up the subtitling process (Georgiou and Perdikaki 2020:195). While most participants in Perdikaki and Georgiou's (2020) study reported that they did not think emotions affect their subtitling performance, the authors indicated that one way in which "emotional impact manifests itself in subtitling performance lies in the linguistic treatment of sensitive content" (2020:170). Alexandra (2015) observed that, when documentaries deal with harrowing stories, translators tend to either over- or underplay the emotion in the speaker's words. Moreover, translated works could contain the emotions of both the ST author and the translator (Hubscher-Davidson 2021). In this respect, Hermans (2014) observed that, while translation makes the author of the ST heard in another language, the translator's voice can also be heard in the target text (TT). This is apparent in the translation decisions. Translators inevitably adopt a particular position in how they approach a text – the way in which they choose to be loyal to the ST, to be critical of it or indifferent to it (Hermans 2014:299). Thus, I argue that examining the strategies used by subtitlers when translating speakers' emotional expressions can deepen our understanding of how these strategies affect the way in which GBV narratives are represented.

There has been limited research on the audiovisual translation (AVT) of GBV accounts, particularly from Arabic to English. While AVT research has focused on feature films, documentaries require distinct subtitling practices (Díaz-Cintas 2013). Bosseaux's (2023) work helped bridge this gap by providing guidelines for translating from multiple source languages: Kurdish, French, Spanish and English. However, there is a need for more research to identify practices applied in subtitling Arabic testimonies on conflict-related GBV.

Initial attempts to scrutinize this field include building a descriptive profile of the common strategies used in the English subtitling of Arabic emotional expressions in GBV documentaries. Baker (2011:190-91) indicated that the best method of revealing the norms of translation behaviour is to research a corpus of authentic translations and identify the regular

patterns of translation, including the types of strategies typically chosen by the translators of that corpus. Using this advice as a starting point, the present study was established to investigate how emotional expressions in first-hand accounts of conflict-related GBV documentaries are subtitled from Arabic into English in terms of strategies and intensity shifts. Specifically, the study addresses the following questions: What are the most frequently used subtitling strategies for the verbal expressions of emotions in these accounts, and do the emotional expressions undergo shifts in the subtitled version that result in either intensifying or toning down the speaker's original expressions?

Considering these questions should reveal the current practices in subtitling strategies in this context and the possible impact of such strategies on how GBV survivors' voices are conveyed. My work is thus intended to act as a foundation for further studies on GBV documentaries by presenting descriptive observations of the subtitling strategies most commonly used when translating Arabic GBV narratives into English and reflecting on the impact of such strategies on how such narratives are represented in translated English versions.

Data, Analytical Framework and Procedures

I collected 20 subtitled documentaries on GBV in Syria and selected six of them that have been critically acclaimed or screened on well-respected TV channels. All were collected between 2018 and 2019 from platforms such as Netflix, Hulu, YouTube, and Aljazeera Documentaries. The documentaries present various first-hand accounts of GBV faced during the Syrian Conflict (2011-19). Table 1 describes and classifies the films.

Table 1: List of the films used in the study

Documentary	Documentary Mode (Nichols 2017)	Form of GBV	Producer/ Filmmaker/ Publisher	Release	Subtitler
<i>Syria Documentary</i>	Expository ¹	Rape in detention	Al Arabiya	2015	-
<i>The Price of Refuge</i>	Participatory ²	Sexual harassment	Special Broadcasting Service (SBS)	2013	Credited
<i>Jalila</i>	Expository	Rape and discrimination	Adnan Jetto	2014	-
<i>Not Who We Are</i>	Expository	Child marriage in displacement	Heinrich Boell Foundation	2013	-
<i>Silent War</i>	Observational ³	Rape in detention or by armed groups	Magneto Presse	2017	Credited
<i>Syria: Brides for Sale</i>	Expository	Sexual exploitation in displacement	Sharron Ward	2013	-

Syria Documentary was released on the *Special Mission* program for Al Arabiya Channel. The documentary was republished on YouTube by HydraSlayer as “*Syria Documentary: A Young Girl’s Heart-Wrenching Story of her Time in a Syrian Prison*” (HydraSlayer n.d.). The documentary was narrated in Modern Standard Arabic by journalist *Rima Maktabi* with English subtitles. Interviews were in Syrian and Lebanese Arabic.

The Price of Refuge was produced by SBS Australia, and Journeyman Pictures rereleased it online in 2016. Journeyman Pictures retitled the documentary *Aid Workers Are Sexually*

¹ Expository: uses an authoritative voice to present arguments, which narrates over corresponding footage. The narration of a documentary can be shared between a number of speakers ('talking heads').

² Participatory: involves direct interaction between the filmmaker and subjects through interviews.

³ Observational: captures subjects without interruption, allowing viewers to draw their own conclusions.

Abusing Syrian Refugees on YouTube (Journeyman Pictures 2016). Its mode features English narration and subtitled Syrian Arabic testimonies.

Silent War was directed by journalist *Manon Loizeau* and screened on France 2, the British Film Institute, and the International Film Festival and Forum on Human Rights (FIFDH). The documentary, which features Syrian Arabic narration with English and French subtitles, won awards at DOK Leipzig.

Jalila, by Syrian filmmaker *Jetto*, is in Modern Standard Arabic narration with English subtitles. It was screened at The Middle East Institute in Washington, cine|lokal in Dresden, Université Paris-Est Créteil in Paris, and the University of Sussex in London (Jetto n.d.; Middle East Institute n.d.).

Syria: Brides for Sale was released by Channel 4 News in its ‘Syria’s Descent’ series. The documentary won an International Emmy in 2014 (Katalyst Productions n.d.). It features an English narration and interviews in Syrian Arabic.

Not Who We Are by Lebanese Palestinian filmmaker *Mansour* won awards at the SR Socially Relevant Film Festival in New York and FIFOG Geneva (Global Thinkers Forum n.d.). The documentary portrayed the refugee experiences of five Syrian women. It features English narration and Syrian-Arabic interviews.

The films are rich in emotional expressions related to experiences of GBV, mainly shame, sadness and fear. For instance, speakers disclose the social stigma of rape: “Until now, we didn’t dare to say the word rape. It’s very difficult, very... We cannot even express it” and “now I’m ashamed to take the bus” (two speakers). Survivors of rape in detention recalled fear, e.g. “I screamed, screamed, screamed. But who heard me? Who could hear me?”

The analytical framework applied on the above-mentioned documentaries incorporates Shaver et al.’s (2001) list of emotion concepts to identify emotional expressions in the corpus. Gottlieb’s (1992) taxonomy is used to determine how emotional expressions were rendered in the subtitles, while Coromines i Calders’ (2010) categories of emotional intensity are adapted

to investigate further what shifts in emotional intensity were produced in the subtitled versions (see Figure 3).

While identifying emotional expressions might seem straightforward, accurately and consistently detecting them through rigorous methods is complex. As Fehr and Russell (1984:464) put it, “Everyone knows what an emotion is until asked to give a definition. Then, it seems no one knows”. There are two main approaches to emotion identification: the classical and the constructionist. The classical view treats each emotion as a biologically distinct entity. For example, basic emotion theories assert that a limited set of emotions is universally recognizable across all cultures, especially through facial expressions. Meanwhile, the constructionist approach argues that emotions are constructed experiences, with no fixed relationships between behaviour, physiology and emotion words (Barrett 2016).

The constructionist approach views emotions as perceiver-dependent phenomena, best studied through self-reports (Barrett 2016:47-49). In terms of identifying emotions, Shaver et al. (2001) employed a prototype approach to study people’s knowledge of emotions. Their method relies on individuals’ self-reported understanding and experiences of emotions rather than assuming pre-existing, biologically distinct emotional categories. They categorized emotions hierarchically, as shown in Figure 1. These hierarchies are:

- Superordinate level: Positive (love, joy) and negative (anger, sadness, fear) emotions
 - Basic level: Love, joy, anger, sadness, fear, and surprise (in blue)
 - Subordinate level: Variations in intensity or context (in yellow)
 - The subordinate level designates a generic, core or nonspecialized form of the emotion in question (in white)

Although this categorization was based on English-speaking participants, it has been tested on Arabic speakers (Elasri 2018). Considering the view of emotions as fuzzy categories that are difficult to define, the list of emotions in Figure 1 serves as the basis on which the expressions of emotions in the corpus analyzed in this study were identified or extracted. It was useful to determine what is an emotional expression (i.e. referring to emotions) and what is not. The following will explain further how this figure was incorporated.

Figure 1: The list of emotions of Shaver et al. (2001)



Emotional expressions in language can be explicit, using direct, emotive lexicon, or implicit, employing figurative language (Schwarz-Friesel 2015:164). This study analyses both types of emotional expressions in GBV documentaries, considering multimodal context and following Torrent-Lenzen's (2005 as cited in Coromines i Calders 2010:6-8) categories:

- Explicit expressions use direct emotion words, as defined by dictionaries, and align with the list of emotions provided by Shaver et al. (2001). For instance, “I am happy” explicitly references the emotion of “happiness” listed in Figure 1.
- Implicit expressions convey emotions through context-dependent linguistic devices such as repetitions, interjections, emotion-related metaphors and figurative language. For example, in Table 13, “I mean, mmm you would just want to leave because mmm...” in the context of sexual harassment was categorized as an implicit expression of annoyance, which is an emotion concept in Figure 1.

Figure 2: Categories of emotional expression



The analysis presented in this manuscript uses Gottlieb's (1992) subtitling taxonomy to examine how emotional expressions in accounts of GBV from the conflict in Syria were subtitled, as this taxonomy allows a consideration of semantic and stylistic aspects of subtitling. The semantic content of emotional utterances is an important aspect of emotional expressions since studies on emotion identification use semantics to identify abstract concepts of emotions (Lindquist 2021:92). Analyzing the rendering of the semantic and stylistic loads of the emotional expressions in subtitles can thus be a good indicator of how subtitlers have rendered the emotional expressions in GBV narratives. Gottlieb's taxonomy, albeit not recent, analyses the rendering strategy broadly in terms of adequacy, reduction and omission, which are typical subtitling features. These are broken down further into more specific strategies, as

explained below. While the strategies were elicited from corpora of English and Danish subtitles, they have been tested in other language pairs, including Arabic/English (Kendenan 2019; Kuo 2020). The following section provides a brief overview of all the strategies, along with detailed descriptions of those identified in the corpus.

Gottlieb's (1992) taxonomy

- *Expansion* adequately renders special references using expanded expressions. Expansion, often employed to clarify cultural nuances absent in the target culture (Gottlieb 1992:166), resembles Pedersen's (2011) Specification Strategy, as it also involves adding information in subtitles.
- *Paraphrase* adequately alters the phraseology of the ST to convey the same meaning in subtitles (Gottlieb, 1992). It is often employed when the ST contains culture- or language-specific content that cannot be translated literally. Pedersen (2011) classifies Paraphrase as a type of Generalization.
- *Transfer* involves adequately rendering the entire expression (Gottlieb 1992:166-67). It captures as much of the original message as possible (Taylor 2003).
- *Imitation* refers to the use of an identical expression in the subtitles.
- *Transcription* involves transliterating the ST utterance in the subtitles.
- *Dislocation*, although the term carries a negative connotation, involves adjusting the ST expression to maintain its effect in subtitles using a different expression (Gottlieb 1992:166-7). For example, a metaphor in the ST might be replaced with a similar metaphor in the subtitles, denoting a similar effect to that of the ST expression.
- *Condensation* involves quantitatively reducing characters in the subtitle while retaining the semantic content and most stylistic elements (Gottlieb 1992). This involves creatively reducing the space occupied by the ST segments in the subtitles.
- *Decimation*, although not a common term in translation strategies, involves subtitling ST segments with abridged expressions, which leads to partial content loss as described by Gottlieb (1992). Placed between Condensation and Deletion, Decimation handles rapid speech or redundancy by reducing semantic content, though not as drastically as Deletion, which removes entire lines.
- *Deletion* refers to the complete omission of verbal content.
- *Resignation* involves producing distorted content for untranslatable elements.

The analysis identified six strategies in the documentaries: Expansion, Paraphrase, Transfer, Dislocation, Condensation, and Decimation. While not all are subtitling-specific, Gottlieb (1992:166) suggests they generally produce adequate subtitles, with Decimation being an exception due to content reduction. Examples of each strategy are provided in the results section.

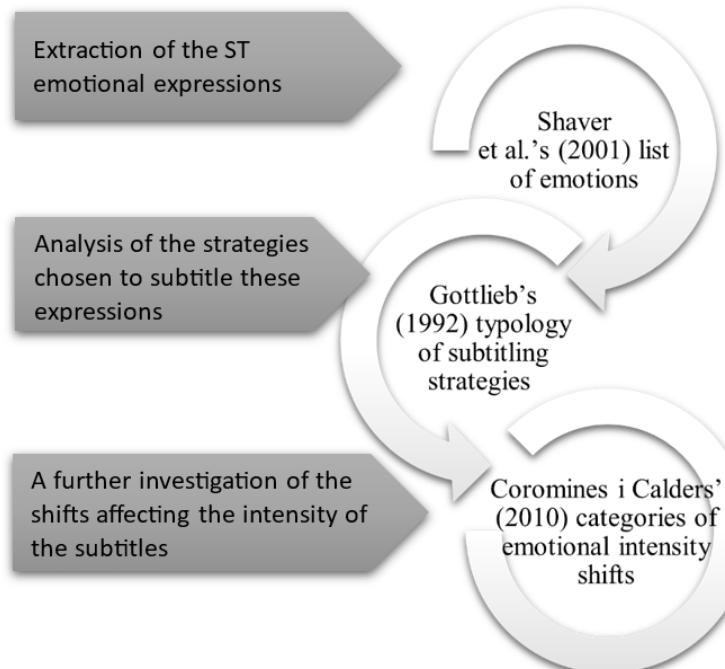
Gottlieb's subtitling strategies provide a framework to analyze the subtitling of emotional expressions in GBV accounts. This study expands on Coromines i Calders' categories to investigate intensity shifts in translated emotional expressions. Coromines i Calders' categories were based on the work of van Leuven-Zwart (1990) on shifts in the translation of narratives. They were extended in this study to include grammatical shifts, considering the psychological features of trauma narratives such as pronoun use that reflect the speaker's psychological state (Campbell and Pennebaker 2003; Kaplow et al. 2018). Van Leuven-Zwart's (1990:78-81) definition of "syntactic-semantic shift" was applied to classify grammatical shifts (see Table 2). This expansion allows for a more comprehensive analysis of how subtitlers navigate the complexities of conveying emotional content in GBV documentaries, identifying strategies and potential shifts in emotional tone.

Table 2: Expanded categories of linguistic emotional intensity based on Coromines i Calders (2010)

Intensity shift	Explanation
Lexical shifts	The translation of a lexical item produces stronger or weaker feelings than the original lexical item.
Register shifts	A change in the register in the translation (e.g. from vulgar to familiar) causes an emotional intensity shift.
Orality shifts	Features of oral speech produce a shift in emotional intensity.
Grammatical shifts	When a shift in grammatical feature of a person, verb tenses, classes or functions causes a shift in meaning.

As the present study does not include audience reception as part of its focus, the observation of intensity shifts is applied from an analytical perspective. Three shifts (lexical, orality and grammatical) were identified in the subtitled version of the GBV documentaries, which affected the emotional intensity of the STs' expressions. These shifts were identified as follows: lexical (+/-), orality (+/-), grammatical (+/-), and absence of shifts (=). For instance, orality in unscripted speech, such as documentary interviews, refers to spoken language features such as hesitations and speech fillers (Jucker 2021:342-3). Orality shifts involve changes in these spoken markers, which can also affect emotional intensity (Coromines i Calders 2010). When a subtitled emotional expression reduced the emotional tone of the original by condensing orality features, it was identified as orality (-).

Figure 3: The analytical framework



Alongside the framework adopted in this work, which incorporates models from the literature of psychology, subtitling, and translation studies (Figure 3), external sources were also used to reduce the subjectivity of the analysis. These external sources included Stowasser's (2004) Dictionary of Syrian Arabic: English-Arabic and Omar's (2008) Modern Standard Arabic Dictionary. In addition, Bosseaux's (2023) guidelines for ethically subtitling emotional content in GBV documentaries were used to reflect on the impact of the strategies identified

in the analysis. Furthermore, the documentaries were classified based on Nichols' documentary modes (as shown in Table 1), which analyze the film's structure and the filmmaker's voice (Nichols 2017:104-32).

Procedure

This study is situated within the product-oriented branch of Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS), which focuses on the analysis of translated texts with the aim of identifying translation norms through recurring patterns in the TTs. It follows Toury's (2012:33) three-stage system for research within DTS, as applied in Pedersen's (2011:27) study on subtitling norms:

1. The TTs (the subtitled GBV documentaries) are presented.
2. Coupled pairs (emotional expressions) are extracted, and the relationship between the individual pairs is analyzed.
3. Cautious observations are formulated.

The analysis method aligns with the transformational approach (Saldanha and O'Brien 2013). This approach involves the transformation of one type of data – qualitative – into another type – quantitative. In this approach, it is more common to transform qualitative data into quantitative data by producing a numerical presentation of some aspects of the qualitative data in order to illustrate the frequency of, for example, a particular subtitling strategy identified in the qualitative analysis. The term 'quantitative' as used here indicates patterns and does not involve statistical analysis. The following steps were undertaken:

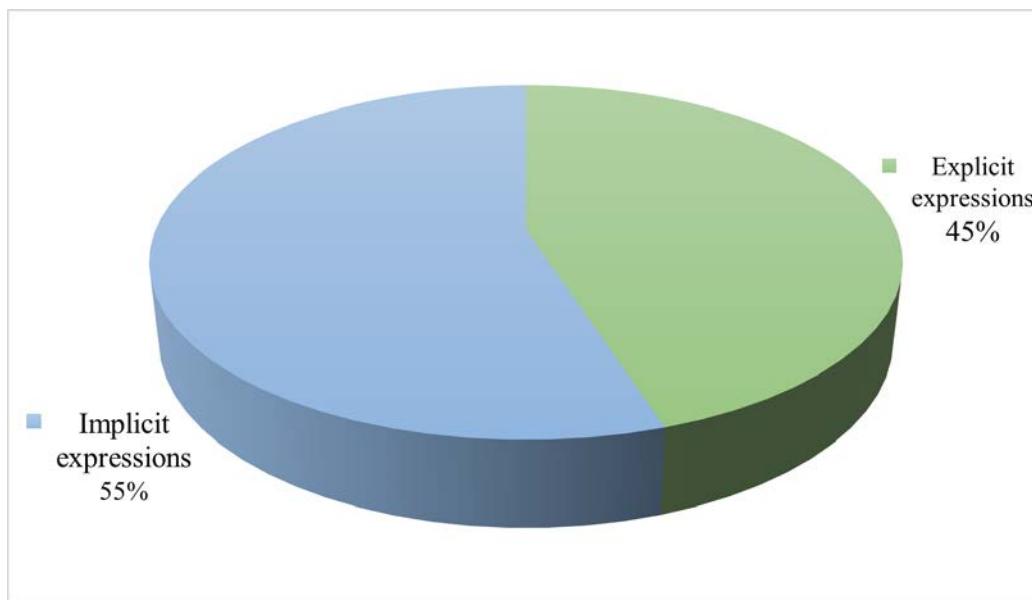
1. Given the lack of accurate transcription tools for Syrian Arabic dialects, I transcribed the Arabic audio manually.
2. Open subtitles that cannot be downloaded or removed were extracted manually, except in the case of *Silent War* (English subtitles, not available online, were offered to me in a Word document by the producer).
3. Emotional expressions (as defined in the Analytical Framework section) were extracted manually to ensure that figurative or implicit expressions referring to emotions were not overlooked.

4. ELAN (2024) software was used for annotation, aligning the original Arabic utterances (STs) with the subtitles (TTs).
5. A literal English translation of the ST was added, including orality features, using a similar approach to back translation, which aims at, as indicated by Taylor (2020: 414), “helping us see the footprints that translators leave behind”. Arabic interjections were transliterated using the DIN 31635 standard.
6. The subtitling strategy as per Gottlieb’s taxonomy was recorded and reviewed by my native English- and Arabic-speaking PhD supervisors.
7. Emotional intensity shifts were recorded as follows: + (intensified), – (toned down) or = (unchanged).
8. The number of subtitling strategies used in all the films was calculated. Emotional expressions were grouped by type (implicit and explicit), with the results displayed visually for implicit, explicit and total (both) expressions. Quantitative results of the intensity shifts, and basic emotions were not presented visually. Instead, the work presented in this article focused on *identifying* intensity shifts, which were qualitatively analyzed.

Results and Discussion

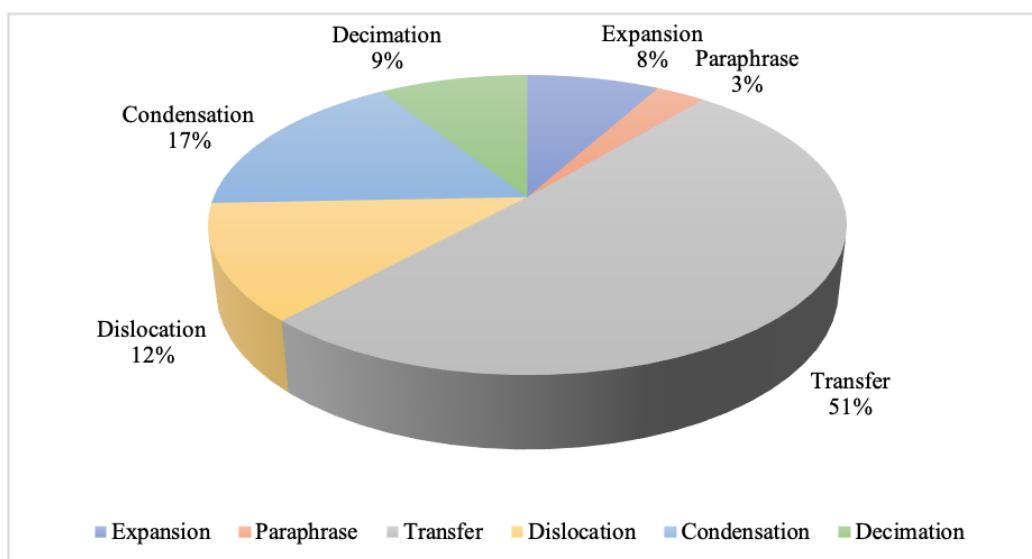
As shown in Figure 4, the 199 emotional expressions in the corpus were expressed almost equally, with 90 explicit (45%) and 109 implicit expressions (55%). The relatively high proportion of implicit expressions likely stems from the nature of trauma, as some emotions were conveyed through metaphors and repetitions. The 199 emotional expressions from the six GBV documentaries included all basic emotions identified by Shaver et al. (2001), with negative emotions (sadness and fear) outnumbering positive ones.

Figure 4: Occurrence of implicit and explicit expressions



Six subtitling strategies were identified. Figure 5 illustrates the frequency of each strategy among the total 199 expressions, while Figures 6 and 7 show the percentages for explicit and implicit expressions.

Figure 5: Subtitling strategies used for the overall emotional expressions



Overall, it was found that subtitlers used different strategies to convey emotional expressions without compromising the emotional dimension of the narrative. This is evident in the high frequency of the Transfer strategy, which was used in more than half (101) of the 199 emotional expressions. The Transfer was common for explicitly expressed emotions (Figure 6), with almost 59% of 90 Arabic explicit expressions transferred into English, compared with 44% of 109 implicit expressions. The Paraphrase strategy was not used for explicit emotions, but 6% of implicit expressions, particularly Arabic interjections, were paraphrased in English (Figures 6 and 7).

Figure 6: Subtitling strategies used for explicit emotional expressions

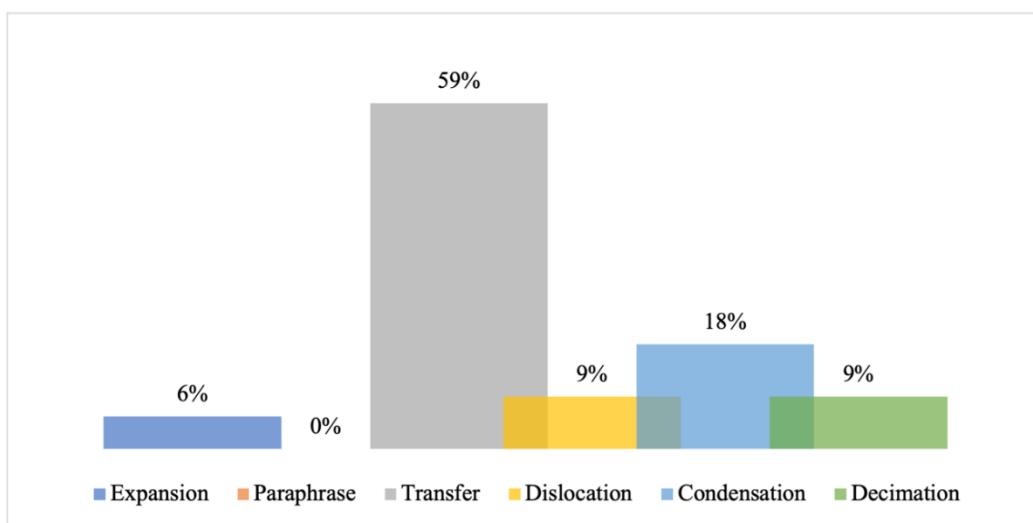
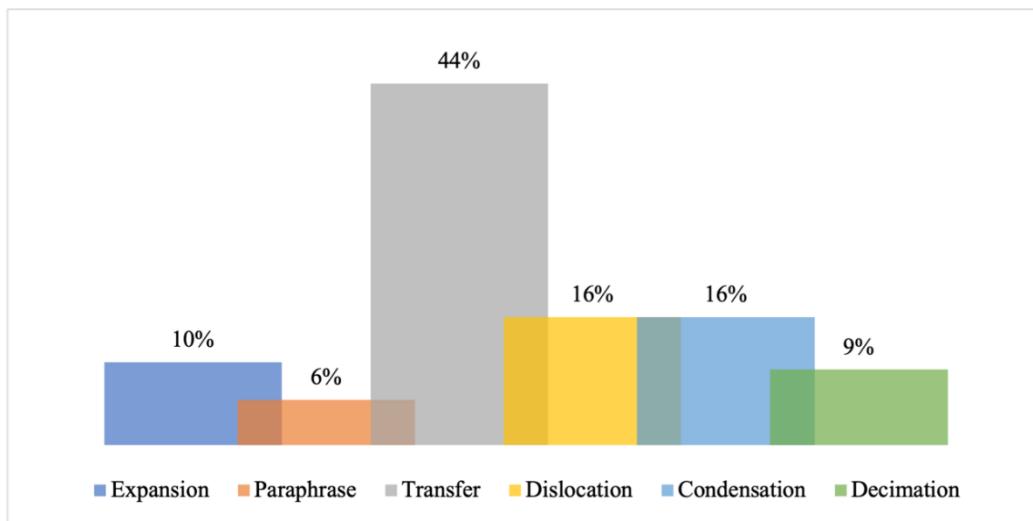


Figure 7: Subtitling strategies used for implicit emotional expressions



The following section discusses the frequency of each strategy with examples (in bold) from the corpus.

Expansion

Expansion, a strategy used to add content to the ST utterance, was used for both implicit and explicit expressions. Expansion occurred in 10% and 6% of the Arabic implicit and explicit emotional expressions, respectively (Figures 6 and 7). Although typically providing cultural nuances, Expansion was used to emphasize the speaker's emotional expression or to enhance their message in the subtitles.

The subtitled version sometimes intensified fear at the lexical level using Expansion. For instance, in Table 3, the 17-year-old rape survivor, *Amal*, sounded in control of her emotions in the ST, although she was in silhouette.

Table 3: Expansion (Al Arabiya 2015: 00:13:41:392-00:13:43:544)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Calm and collected	فصرت صرخ، زعق، خفت	So, I started to shout, scream; I was scared.	So I shouted, screamed out loud, I was very scared.

Table 4: Expansion (Al Arabiya 2015: 00:18:03.564-00:18:06.837)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		

	Calm and collected	وصلت صرخ وابكي.	and I started to scream and cry.	I collapsed and started screaming and crying.
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As demonstrated in Tables 3 and 4, *Amal*'s emotions were intensified in the subtitles with the addition of “collapsed” and “very” to “scared”.

Table 5: Expansion – (Al Arabiya 2015: 00:17:50:614-00:17:55:657)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Calm and collected	هون أنا كنت... وقت هذا الشاب، وقتها كانت المرة الوحيدة اللي أنا ببكي	At this moment... in the incident of this young guy, it was the only time I cried	At this moment, in this incident, I couldn't hold myself more. I burst into tears for the first time.

Similarly, Table 5 shows the intensifying shift in bold from “cried” in the ST to “burst into tears” in the subtitle and the addition of “I couldn’t hold myself more”. The two-line subtitle was followed by the subtitle “It was the only time I cried”.

Expansion was used to subtitle implicit emotional expressions nearly twice as often as it was used to render emotions expressed explicitly. In some cases, as in Table 6 (2), it altered an implicit expression into an explicit one by adding “exhausted” and an intensifier “totally” to

“I could not move at all.” However, less than 10% of the 199 emotional expressions were expanded (Figure 5).

Table 6: Expansion (Al-Arabiya 2015: 00:20:01.958-00:20:05.049, 00:20:01:958-00:20:05:049)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Calm and collected	كانت المقاومة أقل ما كان في عندي حاليل نفسه	The resistance was less; I did not have the same power.	My resistance was less. I lost my power (because of resisting the first one). (1)
	Calm and collected	ثالث واحد مافني تحركت نهائيا... يعني ظللتني مرمية بالأرض	[With] the third one, I could not move at all ... I mean, I remained thrown [lying] on the floor.	When the third one came I was totally exhausted. I couldn't move at all. I was lying on the floor. (2)

In Table 6 (1), *Amal* described losing strength during multiple rapes, in synchrony with a verbal-visual Arabic text on screen, which translates as “Al Arabiya was not able to verify *Amal*’s account from other sources as it was not possible.” The subtitler expanded on why she lost strength in brackets while leaving the channel’s statement untranslated. Forced narratives as such, text on screen that is not part of the language dialogue, are critical, particularly in conflict-related GBV narratives, as GBV accounts can be used by the media to provoke a

political reaction in conflicts. This intensification of emotional content aligns with the republished version of the documentary on YouTube, which was renamed “... A Young Girl’s Heart-Wrenching Story...” and flagged for distressing content (HydraSlayer n.d.).

Paraphrase

Paraphrase was the strategy least used in the corpus when subtitling Arabic emotional expressions into English. This could be largely explained by the fact that this strategy was not used at all for explicit emotional expressions, as such terms often have English corresponding terms (Kayyal and Russell 2013), rendering the Paraphrase strategy unnecessary. As shown in Figure 5, only 3% of the emotional expressions in the corpus were paraphrased, all of which were implicit. Specifically, 6% of the 109 implicit emotional expressions were subtitled using Paraphrase to address the challenge of translating Arabic interjections.

Paraphrase was used mainly for Arabic emotional interjections, which convey emotion implicitly (Bühler, 1990, as cited in Goddard 2014:54). These interjections lack clear emotional words, and their interpretation depends on context (Goddard 2014:54). Two examples from the corpus show how the Arabic interjection *āh*, a vocal expression of grief and pain (Omar 2008:68), was paraphrased differently (pain/cry) in two contexts within the same documentary. In Table 7, the speaker used *āh* to symbolize her fear of self-expression, conveying that even vocalizing pain and suffering was impossible.

Table 7: Paraphrase (Jetto 2014: 00:02:11.36 -00:02:14.150)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Resentful angry tone	ما بنفتح تمنا... نحكي... نقول آخ.	We do not open our mouths... to speak... to say <i>āh</i>	To open our mouths... to speak... to express our pain!

		[eyebrows raised]	!	
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The subtitle rendered *āh* as “our pain!” as suggested by the context and the speaker’s hand and facial expressions. These visual codes illustrate how even a word expressing a feeling cannot leave the mouth as in being muffled.

In the same documentary, another speaker expressed pride in not vocalizing suffering in detention using the same Arabic interjection, which was subtitled as “cry” (Table 8).

Table 8: Paraphrase (Jetto 2014: 00:12:10.270-00:12:14.639)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Calm	حتى هن تجاكروا أنه قد يه عم يضربونني ما قول آخ يعني ولا فلن أنسو وقفوا ضرب.	They were even upset that no matter how much they beat me, I did not say ‘ah’, I mean, or ask them to stop beating.	While being beaten, I didn't cry nor did ask them to stop.

Paraphrase was helpful in solving the problem of translating Arabic interjections. As shown above, Arabic emotional interjections, which lack direct equivalents in the target language, are subject to the subtitler’s own interpretation (e.g. cry/pain). This interpretation was supported by the context and the available multimodal cues. However, in GBV documentaries, many speakers avoid showing their faces. Thus, subtitlers and viewers rely on tone of voice and

verbal cues to interpret their emotions, which is why linguistic expressions of emotion were the primary focus of this study. This situation makes the viewers even more dependent on how subtitlers capture and paraphrase such expressions in the subtitles.

Transfer

Over half of the 199 emotional expressions were fully transferred without content reduction (Figure 5). Explicit expressions were transferred at 59%, whereas implicit ones were transferred at 44%, which suggests that explicit emotions were more likely to be fully transferred. However, the sample sizes differ (90 explicit and 109 implicit).

Transfer was used to subtitle a survivor's implicit expression of the ongoing suffering of recalling her perpetrators' voices manifested in repetition (Table 9).

Table 9: Transfer (Loizeau 2017: 00:42:38.765-00:42:41.030)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Choked	ما بنسي. ما بنسي أصواتن.	I do not forget. I do not forget their voices.	I don't forget. I don't forget their voices.

The transferred repetition "I do not forget" maintained the original emotional intensity. Bosseaux (2023) recommends transferring repetitions to preserve the same narration style when subtitling emotional content in GBV documentaries.

Some transferred expressions exhibit shifts in emotional intensity, often involving personal pronoun changes, which are crucial in trauma narratives (Dunnack and Park 2009). While

altering pronouns may still convey the overall meaning, the speaker's original choice of pronouns is essential for maintaining their voice and perspective in the subtitled version.

Table 10 illustrates a grammatical shift in the narrative of a displaced mother who had to marry off her daughter at 14 years old for financial reasons, expressing guilt over not explaining physical marital relations to her child.

Table 10: Transfer (Mansour 2013: 00:40:04.048-00:40:06.760)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Confused	برجع بقول لا بيجوز أعملها صدمة نفسية للبنت.	Then I tell myself, no, I might cause the girl a psychological shock.	But then I think to myself that it might give her an emotional shock.

The snapshot in Figure 8 shows an unidentified child bride trying to follow the speaker as she walks away.

Figure 8 Snapshot from Mansour (2013: 00:38:23.021-00:38:26.498)



The example in Table 10 shows how the self-referential pronoun “I”, associated with an implicit acknowledgement of guilt, was altered to the impersonal “it”, making the subtitle more abstract and less direct. This inaccurately conveyed the mother’s emotions, though the film footage highlights the mother’s guilt and confusion over leaving her child to navigate marriage alone.

Dislocation

A Dislocation strategy was commonly used, with 16% implicit emotional expressions (Figure 7) and 9% explicit expressions (Figure 6). Dislocation frequently occurred with metaphorical expressions referring to emotions. The basic emotion of sadness in the corpus and its subordinate and related emotions (Figure 1) were figuratively associated with death and darkness, while anger was compared with wars and erupting volcanoes. Intense happiness was sometimes linked to rainbows and flowers, and fear was represented as a wall or barrier. Dislocation of such ST implicit emotional expressions generally created a similar effect in the subtitles, preserving or altering the metaphorical vehicle.

For instance, in Table 11 a rape survivor describes herself as a rock. This metaphor reflects her sense of losing her soul, leaving only a “mere body”. Emotional numbing is a common defence mechanism against trauma. Van der Kolk (2014:235) notes that expressions such as

“I feel dead inside” and “I feel like an object, not a person” indicate PTSD. Similar expressions in Arabic GBV accounts, such as “Even my soul had disappeared” (00:43:10-00:43:12) and “My heart is dead. My soul is dead” (Loizeau 2017) appeared in the analyzed films.

Table 11: Dislocation (Loizeau 2017: 01:06:52.206-01:06:55.874)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Broken	صخر، صرت صخر. أبداً بس جسد قدامك أنا.	A rock, I have become a rock. Here, I am nothing but a mere body.	A ghost, I've become a ghost. Only my body is left.

The post-traumatic feeling of lifelessness, originally expressed as being a rock, was changed in the subtitles to “being a ghost” to evoke a similar effect. This ST metaphor draws from the ancient comparison of a heart’s loss of feeling to a stone, as in the Qur’anic verse translated by Khan and al-Hilali: “Then, after that, your hearts were hardened and became as stones or even worse in hardness” (Qur'an 2:74). Both ST and TT metaphor vehicles share the characteristic of lifelessness.

Condensation

Condensation was the second most common strategy used in subtitling: 16% of both implicit and explicit emotional expressions (Figure 5). Condensation often coincided with intensity shifts, likely due to the reduction of stylistic features such as repetition in ST utterances. This sometimes affected the emotional tone, particularly in terms of orality, where repetitions and disfluencies emphasized emotions or conveyed shame. Table 12 presents an example of Condensation that affects orality, where repetition of “very” to express strong emotions was reduced in the subtitle.

Table 12: Condensation (Mansour 2013: 00:40:31.559-00:40:33.504)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
	Confused	بس كتير، كتير أنا متضايقه أنه ...	But I am very very disturbed that...	But I'm very disturbed..

Bosseaux's (2023) guidelines recommend retaining repeated words when subtitling GBV emotional content because they reflect the speaker's vulnerability and emotions.

Condensation also affected speech with disfluencies such as hesitation, often linked to shame. In *The Price of Refuge*, abused women speak to the camera, showing their real identities to explain their experiences with aid distributors. One woman struggled to recall on screen the obscene language and behaviour she encountered while seeking aid from the International Red Cross, explicitly stating, "We find it difficult" (Parish and Strobl 2013:10:52:469). Another speaker recalls sexual harassment inside the aid distributor office, saying "Touching you", pausing while making a facial expression that suggests recalling an uncomfortable memory, and then continuing with "your thighs, your shoulder," followed by a sigh and concluding with "or grabs your shoulder". This statement is complemented by the implicit expression of annoyance 'I mean, mmm...'. Table 13 illustrates this context.

Table 13: Condensation (Parish and Strobl 2013: 00:12:21:920-00:12:24:510)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		

		Soft and heavy	ييلاحمساك	He touches	Touching your thighs, your shoulder... (1) (00:12:13:500 - 00:12:16:910)
<p>[eyes closed and eyebrows raised] Visual codes per frame:</p>			00:12:14:700 - 00:12:15:095 [pause]		
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					

9.					
10.					
			على فخاك.. على كتفك	your thighs... your shoulder	
			(تنفس)	(sigh)	[subtitle gap]
			يعني ممم بس بدق تطلعى مشان ممم ...	I mean, mmm you would just want to leave because mmm... (3) (00:12:21:920 - 00:12:24:510)	I mean, you'd just want to get out of there. (3) (00:12:21:920 - 00:12:24:510)

The visual codes in Table 13 (1) show the facial expressions coinciding with a pause, which was not reflected in the subtitle. Bosseaux's (2023) recommendation to convey similar pauses by segmentation effectively addresses the challenge of maintaining the speaker's rhythm in subtitles. The speaker continued to express implicit annoyance during the visit, with the Arabic speech filler "ya 'nī" (I mean) subtitled. "Ya 'nī" can indicate elaboration when placed at the start of a phrase (Al-Khalil 2005, as cited in Kurdi 2008:94). In this example of condensation of stylistic features (hesitation and pauses), following "ya 'nī" were omitted in the subtitle (3). Bosseaux's (2023) guidelines advise finding equivalents for non-lexical sounds as "ummm" in the target language because this reflects the speakers' emotions and helps viewers access the original pace. It is worth noting that the subtitler maintained the

speaker's use of the second-person pronoun (you) while narrating a personal experience, as this can indicate the distancing of oneself from a traumatic event while recollecting it (Castiglioni et al. 2023).

Decimation

Finally, Decimation was the only content-reduction strategy in subtitling emotional expressions, with a frequency of 9%, while no instances of Deletion were identified (Figure 5). Table 14 shows an example of Decimation when a survivor described her life before the Syrian crisis: “I looked at the world around me, and I saw it budding ... Everywhere I went, I only saw rainbows” (Loizeau 2017: 00:06:46).

Table 14: Decimation: (Loizeau 2017: 00:06:33.520 - 00:06:36.315)

Visual	Soundtrack		ST (Literal translation)	English subtitles
	Tone of Voice	ST		
 des bouquets de fleurs tombant du ciel.	Passionate	السماء اشوفها مزهرة السماء عم تنزل قطوف قطوف زهر	I saw the sky blooming. The sky was dropping bunches bunches of flowers.	Bouquets of flowers falling from the sky.

The speaker's metaphorical depiction of happiness above in “I saw the sky blooming” in the subsequent utterance and the emphasis “bunches bunches” were partially reduced in the subtitle. However, this reduction did not show a significant shift in the emotional tone of the subtitle because the subtitle maintained the speaker's metaphorical expression of a happy worldview.

Conclusion

This article examined common subtitling strategies used to translate Arabic emotional expressions in GBV narratives into English in the context of documentaries on GBV in the Syrian conflict. The investigation showed that nearly half of the emotional expressions were subtitled using the Transfer strategy, closely adhering to the original. However, some aspects of trauma narratives, such as pronoun use and orality features, were altered or compromised. Moreover, Condensation was used to reduce stylistic features such as repetition and speech disfluencies, which are key to emotional content in trauma narratives.

As shown in Table 10, in some instances, emotional expressions originally narrated from a personal perspective (first person) were sometimes generalized, affecting the speaker's emotional ownership. Conversely, emotional expressions in the corpus originally narrated from a less personal perspective (second person or general) were sometimes shifted to a more personal one in the subtitles. This suggests that subtitling in the documentary context may overlook crucial aspects of trauma narratives, highlighting the need to pay attention to their nuances.

My analysis also demonstrates that orality features such as repetition and speech disfluencies were sometimes deemed redundant despite their role in conveying emotions. This shift in orality is significant given the specific nature of documentary films and the impact of the translation mode (subtitling) on the GBV narrative. The features mentioned above are essential in GBV documentaries, reflecting the essence of the trauma narratives – the ‘unspeakable discourse’. Silent pauses, hesitations and repetitions are markers of an unspeakable traumatic experience and are vital to understand survivors’ accounts fully. The loss of these features in subtitles may detract from the original expression of emotions, aligning with previous studies on trauma narratives (Cordella 2006; Batchelor 2015), subtitling (Yang 2022) and Bosseaux’s (2023) recent experimental guidelines on subtitling emotional content in GBV narratives.

The loss of some orality features may be interpreted as a disadvantage to the original voices owing to the constraints of subtitling as a mode. However, Guillot (2012:483) argues that subtitling is a discrete form of expression whose peculiarities can be an asset rather than a

constraint; for example, a few cues of orality can create the experience of speech. Indeed, Bosseaux's (2023) guidelines offer creative ways to maintain these elements in English subtitles. Orality nuances in unscripted texts, such as documentary interviews, reflect the speaker's state of mind when recounting a personal experience. However, excluding these oral cues in subtitles adversely affects the representation of the ST's emotional expressions.

Analysis of 90 explicit emotional expressions revealed that subtitlers predominantly used the Transfer strategy (59%), notably avoiding Paraphrase entirely. For the 109 implicit emotional expressions, subtitlers favoured the Expansion strategy. This preference suggests a conscious effort to preserve and sometimes intensify speakers' emotional voices. These findings echo Perdikaki and Georgiou's (2020:171) research, which found that subtitlers handling sensitive content felt a heightened responsibility as the speaker's voice to the target audience, often prioritizing authenticity in their translations.

Overall, this research has shed light on strategies for subtitling Arabic GBV documentaries, underscoring the need for further investigation. The findings offer a foundation for refining subtitling practices and understanding the subtitling of emotional expressions from Arabic into English. However, the study generated more questions than answers, partly because of the absence of interviews with the subtitlers, constrained by their invisibility and the time limitations of this study. Furthermore, the analysis of the subtitling of the emotional expressions was based on a qualitative method, which could have involved potentially distracting subjectivity. Future research could extend this work by examining a larger sample and surveying subtitlers' awareness of the characteristics of war-related trauma narratives and their perspectives on how dealing with such narratives impacts their work to understand better and address the associated translation challenges.

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A Historiographical Analysis of Translation Histories in Iran: The Case of Iranian Scholarly Journal Articles

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ABSTRACT

Translation history has emerged as a vibrant field of inquiry stimulating a wealth of scholarship on translation traditions. There is a need for a historiographical metareflection of the relevant scholarly publications to delineate diverse features of translation histories. This study thus aims to offer a historiographical analysis of the Iranian scholarly journal articles concerned with the history of translation in Iran. The aim was to unravel different historiographical aspects therein, including the examined historical periods, text genres, language pairs, individuals (translator and authors), and works, as well as the frequent research themes and employed theoretical frameworks. The findings indicate that the study of translation history in Iran houses diverse methodologies and points of emphasis. This body of research reflects the historical and contextual particularities of Persian translation tradition as well as Iranian academia, displaying a unique historiographical tradition at work. Although the relevant scholarship remains fragmented, recent advancements in translation studies in Iran have the potential to introduce new perspectives, guiding the scholarly community towards a more cohesive and informed approach to doing translation history in Iran.

KEYWORDS: historiographical tradition, historiography, Iran, metareflection, translation history

Introduction

The recent surge in scholarship on translation in Iran has prompted a critical need for metareflection to illuminate both past and present trajectories, at the same time as anticipating future prospects. Translation history, in particular, has emerged as a vibrant field of inquiry fostering a wealth of scholarship on the history of translation in Iran. This burgeoning body of research necessitates a comprehensive investigation into diverse aspects of history writing. The objective of this study is to provide a historiographical analysis of research on the history of translation in Iran. Such historiographical analysis, meaning the analysis of publications on translation history, can be useful for identifying potential gaps and avenues in the field. Findings of historiographical analysis carry significant implications for both academia and policymaking, not only enhancing our understanding of the historiographical discourse on translation history in Iran but also informing research policy and educational planning initiatives. The present study examines Iranian scholarly journal articles concerned with the history of translation in Iran. The articles published during 1350/1971–1399/2021 were analyzed to investigate which historical periods, text genres, language pairs, individuals (translator and authors), and works were subjected to scholarly analysis, as well as the frequent research themes and employed theoretical frameworks. These eight distinct points correspond to the following eight research questions that are addressed in this study:

- 1 Which **historical periods** are investigated?
- 2 Which **textual genres** are explored?
- 3 Which **language pairs** are examined?
- 4 Which **translators** are studied?
- 5 Which **authors** are analyzed?
- 6 Which **works** are examined?
- 7 Which **themes** are explored?
- 8 Which **theoretical frameworks** are employed?

Literature Review

Any reflection on translation history and translation historiography is bound to a recognition of two controversial terms: *history* and *historiography*. The controversy over the definitions of these terms extends far beyond translation studies. *History* is generally said to have three senses: “the field of knowledge, its results, and what is spoken about” (Vašíček 2009:27). In

any sense, *translation history* aligns with a broader conception of *history* as Tucker writes, “the scope of history is all of the past: societies have a history, but so do rocks, languages, species, and indeed the universe” (2009:2–3)—so one might say, so does translation.

However, the term *historiography* has proved to be even more difficult to define. Cheng (2012:1) lists the possible definitions of *historiography*: “the writing of history, the study of historical methodology, the analysis of the different schools of interpretation on a particular historical topic, or the history of historical writing.” A common theme running in all these definitions is the emphasis on a metareflection practiced on historical writings. In this light, historiography can be seen as “meta-history or the study, from various standpoints, of the writing of history by others” (Cartledge 1997:2).

The definitional controversy also finds its way into translation studies, albeit characterized with more confusion and indeterminacy compared to the field of historical studies. As for the distinction between *history* and *historiography*, history is “understood as the events of the past recounted in narrative form”, while historiography “is the discourse upon historical data, organized and analysed along certain principles” (Woodsworth 1998:101). According to Gürçağlar (2013), *translation history* denotes two different meanings among translation scholars: one is the history of translation theories, practice, and function and the other, which is normally called *translation historiography*, refers to the exploration of how scholars have written the history of translation. A neat categorization can be found in D’hulst (2010), where three levels of historical focus are proposed. The first one is *history*, which refers to “the proper sequence of facts, events, ideas, discourses, etc.” (D’hulst 2010:397). *History* “is also understood as … an oral or written mode of presentation of these facts, events, etc.; a strong tradition favors a narrative mode of presentation” (D’hulst 2010:397; cf. Vašíček 2009). The second level is “Historiography in its traditional sense,” which can be defined as “the history of histories, i.e., the history of the practices of history-writing.” The third one is “metahistoriography,” meaning “the explicit reflection on the concepts and methods to write history” (D’hulst 2010:397). In a more or less similar fashion, Rundle (2020) states that historiography investigates how history of translation “is written about from a theoretical and methodological point of view” (2020:232).

The literature on translation history and historiography has offered different definitions of historiography; however, they share one specific aspect, namely a metareflection on historical

writings about translation. This is the sense which is meant in the present analysis; specifically *historiography* as “the study of historical knowledge, that is, how histories are produced, which includes the study of the works of individual historians” (Fernández-Sánchez 2016:98). Terminological confusion aside, there are several studies representing a historiographical metareflection in the field. They have emerged either from translation historians’ reflections on their own research projects or from independent research efforts. An example of the former is a series of metareflections by Pym (1992a; 1992b; 1998) originated from his focus on Hispanic translation history. Yet the studies originating from independent research efforts are more than a few. For instance, Singerman (2002) complied a bibliography of Jewish translation history. Venuti (2005) used Hayden White’s theory of history as narrative to analyze different pieces of writings on translation history. Venuti’s study is an instance of a historiographical analysis based on a specific methodology and analytical framework. The literature has also addressed specific issues of historiography, such as the problematic of periodization (Foz 2006; Herrero-López 2019) or history of translation during colonialism (Howland 2003).

More important is the research on different historiographical traditions operating in researching translation history in different parts of the world. The exemplary studies include the historiography of translation in Brazil (Wyler 2005), in the Latin American culture (Bastin 2006; Vega and Pulido 2013), in the Japanese context (Wakabayashi 2012), in Spain (Pérez-Blázquez 2013), in Finland (Paloposki 2013), in seventeenth-century English translation history and criticism (Belle 2014), and in Portugal (Seruya 2016). Analyzing individual histories of translation and scholarly publications, each of these studies shows how research trends and traditions in doing translation history are shaped by the very context in which the historian works.

There are also a few studies about analyzing histories of translation in Iran. For instance, Azadibougar (2010) examined the historiographical narrative on translation between 1851 and 1921 in Iran. Although his analysis is neither systematic nor representative of histories of translation in Iran, it merits further attention in its questioning of epistemological foundations in the historical conception of translation in Iran. In another attempt, Khazaeefarid and Malekshahi (2016) adopted Pym’s methodology to analyze an excerpt of history of translation and the evolution of modern Persian poetry in a book on the history of literature in

Iran. The researchers found consistencies between Pym's methodology and the underlying foundations used—wittingly or unwittingly—by the respective historian. The same line of research can be seen in Noura and Malekshahi (2020) in which Pym's methodological principles were used to analyze a number of general histories of translation in Iran, as well as histories of literature that included some data on translation and translators. Moreover, Abdolhossein Azarang's seminal book *History of Translation in Iran: From Antiquity to the End of the Qajar Era* has been subjected to a series of critical reviews (Amini 2021; Odabaei 2022). Mousavi Razavi and Gholami's (2019) analysis of two major translation movements is yet another attempt to advance the scholarly understanding of translation history through a comprehensive examination of the cultural and socio-political impacts. In a different study, Farahzad, Mohammadi Shahrokh and Ehteshami (2016) focused on women translators in contemporary Iran and explored the relation of women translators' choices and their social presence. These studies point to contested aspects of the field of translation history in Iran; however, they are limited to individual cases and suffer from a lack of methodical treatment of the topic. The present inquiry intends to offer a holistic analysis of research on translation history in Iran, relying on a larger dataset and a comprehensive analytical focus.

Theoretical Framework

The study used D'hulst's reflections as the analytical framework to examine a set of research articles on translation history in Iran. D'hulst (2010) outlines several items in the form of *wh*-questions that should be addressed by histories of translation. These potential research subjects are summarized below:

- Who? – focused on the single translator, a group of translators, or translation scholars;
- What? – focused on (non)selection of works for translation, establishment of bibliographies, and writings on translation or (theoretical) discourse on translation;
- Where? – focused on geographical and spatial characteristics of translation process (printing, editing, publishing, distributing, etc.) and the agents involved, geographical space and places where translators and translation scholars or students live and work, the origin of theoretical trends, and the educational and research centers hosting translation studies;
- By what means? – focused on support, patronage, mechanisms of control, and social-political power relations directed at translators, translations, and translation scholars;

- Why? – focused on the reason behind translation, characteristics of translations, and TT-ST relations;
- How? – focused on process of translation, spatial and temporal evolution of translation norms, and construction and evolution of translation theories and conceptualizations;
- When? – focused on periodization and on the time when translation practice or theory emerges, evolves, and declines under different circumstances;
- To whom is it a benefit? – focused on the effect, function, use, and reception of translation in society.

D’hulst’s *wh*-questions were initially designed to guide research on translation history. However, they can also be effectively used to analyze how these histories are written and constructed from a historiographical perspective.

Methodology

To collect data for the present project, first a list of Persian and English keywords relating to the history of translation in Iran was developed. The lists are presented below:

List of Persian keywords:

تاریخ ترجمه، سنت ترجمه، نهضت ترجمه، مکتب ترجمه، نقش ترجمه، کارکرد ترجمه، تأثیر ترجمه، سیر ترجمه، ترجمه در گذر، ترجمه در دوره، ترجمه در دوران، ترجمه در عصر، ترجمه در سده، ترجمه در عهد، نقش مترجم، نقش مترجمان، دیرینه‌شناسی ترجمه، اسامی مترجمان، تاریخنگاری ترجمه، تاریخ نشر، تاریخچه ترجمه، ترجمه متون تاریخی، کتابشناسی ترجمه، ترجمه و تألیف، فهرست ترجمه

List of English keywords:

History of translation, translation history, translation movement, movement, history, Persian, Farsi, Arabic, Baghdad, Persia, Iran, translation, translator.

These English and Persian keywords – which refer to general and specific points in translation history in Iran – were used to guide data collection and search process. The starting point for the data collection was set at 1971 since access to works published prior to this date was either difficult, impossible or irrelevant. The endpoint of data collection period was determined as 2021, aligning with the project’s commencement in 2022. The list of Persian keywords was used to conduct the search in three databases: Noormags

(www.noormags.ir), Magiran (www.magiran.com), and Humanities Portal (www.ensani.ir). These databases are well-regarded for their extensive archives of Persian-language academic journals, articles, and other scholarly resources, making them essential for thorough research in the humanities and social sciences.

In the advanced search available at these databases, each keyword was inserted in the field assigned for the exact search of keywords. In the case of Magiran, which hosts various types of articles, the type of article was also delimited to the scholarly article. The keywords were inserted in the fields of TITLE, ABSTRACT, and KEYWORDS in the case of Magiran which lacks the search function in the body text of articles. Concerning Noormags and Humanities Portal, the keywords were looked for in TITLE, ABSTRACT, KEYWORDS, and in TEXT of the articles. Unlike Magiran whose search function concerning publication year did not work properly, both Noormags and Humanities Portal enabled the researchers to retrieve the works published during 1971–2021. In addition, there were a few significant journals (e.g. Iranian Journal of Translation Studies) that were not indexed in the three aforementioned databases. In such cases, the journals' official websites were checked to identify relevant articles.

The whole search process at Magiran, Noormags, Humanities Portal, and the journals' official websites led to 1006, 6401, 230 and 117 records, respectively. In each instance, the initial records were briefly examined in terms of their content and publication year (1971–2021) and irrelevant records were excluded. Moreover, the status of each journal was verified to ensure it held a “scientific-research rank” – a designation in the Iranian system granted exclusively to academic journals by the Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology. Articles published in journals classified as “review journals” or “cultural journals” were therefore excluded. Finally, the filtering of the records (database search and autonomous search in journals' websites) resulted in a total of 370 scholarly journal articles that were published during 1971–2021 in Iran and were primarily concerned with history of translation in Iran.

The bibliographical information of the final list of scholarly articles was recorded in an Excel file. The bibliographical items included publication year, document title (Persian and non-Persian), journal title (Persian and non-Persian), journal series, translated/authored, authors'

first and last names, translators' first and last names, number of authors, document language, document type (i.e., journal article), document status (i.e., scholarly), journal affiliation, and place of publication. Moreover, academic and professional information of authors, as far as it was available, was also collected and saved in the same Excel file. This included information on academic affiliation (university and department), academic field, and academic rank of authors at the time of publication.

After preparing the bibliographical information for 370 scholarly journal articles, the historiographical analysis of these articles commenced, involving a thematic analysis and full reading of each article. Relying on D'hulst's theoretical framework (2010), the analysis focused on identifying eight categories within these articles: 1) time periods, 2) text genres, 3) language pairs, 4) specific translators, 5) specific authors, 6) specific works, 7) themes, and 8) theoretical frameworks.

The historiographical analysis initially started with a team of five researchers which was later expanded with the recruitment of 12 more research assistants. The team structure was organized as follows: one project director, three senior research assistants, and thirteen junior research assistants. In collaborative sessions involving the project directors and senior research assistants, a protocol was designed to train junior assistants in order to analyze the identified articles in terms of the eight categories, and document them in an Excel template for further analysis. One of the senior assistants took responsibility for training the junior assistants. An online session was organized, during which the thirteen junior assistants were instructed on the procedure for conducting thematic analysis of the articles. Each junior assistant was tasked with reading 28 articles, analyzing their abstracts, and skimming through the main body of each article. They were required to input the data from the 28 articles into the designated template and then submit the completed template to the assigned senior assistant. Within the online session, a few articles were examined as samples, followed by a question-and-answer session at the conclusion to make sure everyone learnt how to carry out the task.

In the next step, the three senior assistants reviewed the data submitted by the junior assistants. This review included cross-checking the data with the article title and abstract. In cases where the title and abstract did not clearly reveal all the eight categories, the body of the article was meticulously examined by the senior assistants. Following this initial review,

one senior assistant undertook the final consistency check. This rigorous process involved addressing discrepancies, such as instances where different terms were used to describe the same feature. For example, if one junior assistant described the text genre of an article as *literary* while another used *literature*, these terms were integrated and recorded consistently as *literary*. Similarly, if varying terms like *linguistic analysis*, *linguistic investigation* and *comparative linguistics*, were all identified as themes of articles, they were reconciled and recorded uniformly as *linguistics*.

The finalized data was subsequently analyzed in terms of the eight categories separately. The results of the analysis are presented in the following sections.

Findings

1. Time Periods

Almost any research on translation history confines itself to a specific historical period in which translation activity occurred. This section addresses the question: Which historical periods are investigated in the journal articles?

Among the 370 papers, the temporal scope in 94 instances was left unspecified. This absence of specificity may be attributed to the extensive temporal span encompassed by these articles, making it impractical to confine them to a particular period. Alternatively, some works might have delved into multiple time periods, possibly exploring four or more distinct historical eras, thereby eluding a precise temporal demarcation. Consequently, 276 articles in which the time period was explicitly specified, either by name or by date, remained for further analysis.

For these 276 articles, the specified time periods were subsequently marked and tabulated. This process was followed by the identification of recurring and analogous categories, ultimately resulting in a classification of 25 distinct time periods, which are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Analysis of Time Periods

No.	Time Period	Frequency of Works
1	Modern (18th century onwards)	66
2	Qajar (1794–1925)	41
3	Abbasid (750–1258)	39
4	Islamic Republic of Iran (1979 onwards)	33
5	Pahlavi (1925–1979)	19
6	Safavid (1501–1736)	14
7	Ghaznavid (977–1186)	10
8	Samanid (819–999)	7
9	Ilkhanid (1256–1335)	6
10	Ancient Iran and Early Islam (before the 9th century)	5
11	Early Islam (c. 7th–8th centuries)	4
12	Timurid (1370–1507)	4
13	Ancient Iran (before the 7th century)	3
14	Mongol/Ilkhanid (c. 1219–1335)	3
15	Pre-Mongol (before the 13th century)	3
16	Renaissance in Europe (15th–17th centuries)	3
17	Victorian Era in England (1837–1901)	3
18	Ghaznavid and Seljuq (10th–12th centuries)	2
19	Khwarazmian (1077–1231)	2
20	Middle Ages in Europe (500–1400)	2
21	Ottoman in Turkey (1300–1922)	2
22	Salghurid (1148–1282)	2
23	Ilkhanid and Timurid (1256–1507)	1
24	Post-Soviet Russia (1992 onwards)	1
25	Seljuq (1037–1194)	1
Total		276

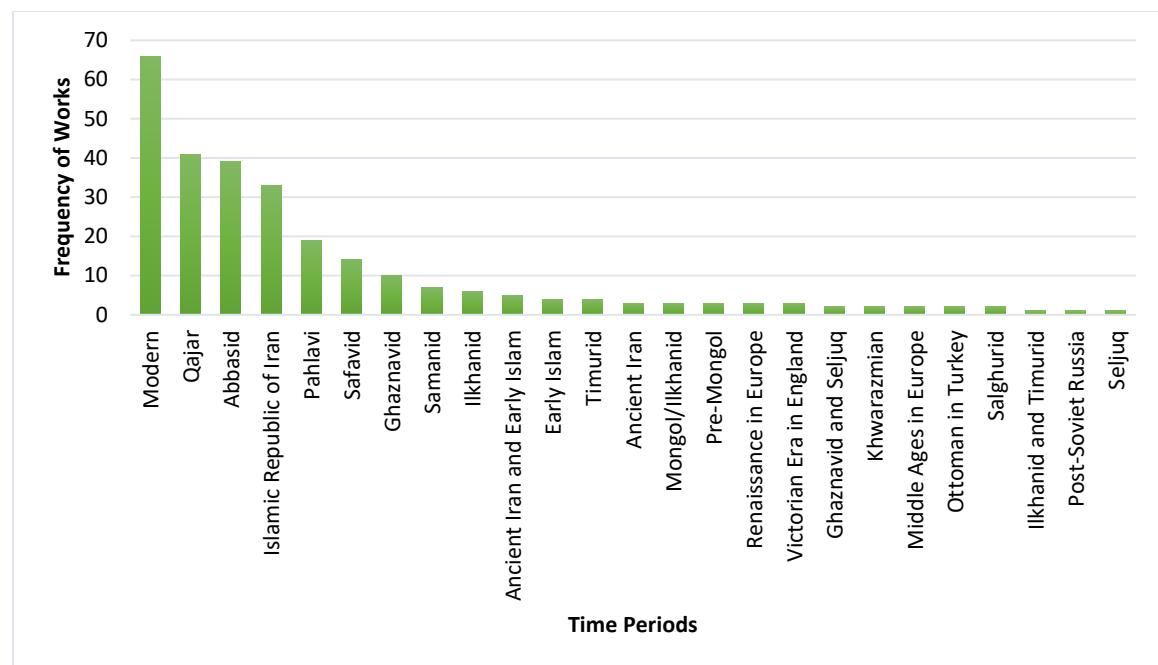
Most articles focused on a single historical period (e.g., *Timurid* or *Safavid*), which allowed for straightforward categorization. However, some articles spanned one to three periods. These were grouped under broader terms such as *early Islam*, *ancient*, *pre-Mongol*, or

Modern, reflecting the exploration of multiple time periods or comparative examinations within a single study. Articles that addressed four or more periods were excluded from further analysis due to the difficulty of categorizing them into a specific timeframe.

The designation of *Modern* corresponds to the timeframe starting from the 18th century, encompassing the Qajar and Pahlavi eras, as well as the Islamic Republic of Iran. This nomenclature (i.e. *Modern*) was chosen to account for instances where certain articles concurrently examined all these historical periods in a single piece of research.

The categories *post-Soviet*, *Renaissance*, *Victorian Era*, and *Middle Ages* are indicative of articles focusing on Europe as the target society. These categories were explicitly mentioned in the respective articles.

Figure 1. Historical Periods Addressed in Iranian Scholarly Journal Articles



As Figure 1 indicates, the notable frequencies observed in the categories of *Modern*, *Qajar*, *Islamic Republic of Iran*, and *Pahlavi* may be ascribed to the increased availability of the sources related to these periods. Furthermore, the prevalence of a robust translation movement since the Qajar period has likely contributed to the heightened attention these eras received in research. Additionally, the establishment of new connections between Iran and Europe might underscore the growing significance of translation in modern times, thereby prompting a surge in research activities on the subject.

Fatemeh Parham and Parviz Rassouli, A Historiographical Analysis of Translation Histories in Iran: The Case of Iranian Scholarly Journal Articles, 72–103

Similarly, the increased frequency of references to the Abbasid period can be attributed to the occurrence of a significant translation movement during this historical era, rendering it a focal point for extensive scholarly inquiry. Among the 39 articles dedicated to examining the Abbasid period, a substantial majority centered around the topic of translation movement.

2. Themes

Different researches tend to focus on different topics or themes. The present section addresses the question as to which themes are explored in Iranian scholarly journal articles on the history of translation in Iran.

All 370 articles had dealt with specific topics, meaning that each had a distinct theme. The search for topical themes made clear the recurring patterns which were later categorized under 56 distinct thematic categories, as presented in Table 2. *Linguistic feature*, *bibliographical features*, and *translation movement* were the most frequently occurring themes, with 58 (15.68%), 49 (13.25%), and 42 (11.36%) instances, respectively.

Table 2. Analysis of Themes

No.	Themes	Frequency	
1	Linguistic Features	58	15.68%
2	Bibliographical Features	49	13.25%
3	Translation Movement	42	11.36%
4	Reception of Translation	28	7.57%
5	Translation Trend	27	7.30%
6	Bibliography	16	4.33%
7	Literary System	12	3.25%
8	Bibliographical and Linguistic Features (<i>both themes within a single piece of research</i>)	11	2.97%
9	Historical Discourse	11	2.97%
10	Function of Translation	9	2.43%
11	Gender and Translation	8	2.16%
12	Evolution of Translation	8	2.16%
13	Concept of Translation	6	1.62%

14	Translation Discourse	6	1.62%
15	(Un)translatability	5	1.35%
16	Translation Criticism	4	1.08%
17	Adaptation	3	0.81%
18	Agency	3	0.81%
19	Censorship	3	0.81%
20	Exegesis	3	0.81%
21	Historiography	3	0.81%
22	Translation Center	3	0.81%
23	Translation Norms	3	0.81%
24	Translation Theory	3	0.81%
25	Book Review	2	0.54%
26	Habitus	2	0.54%
27	Identity	2	0.54%
28	Literary Forms	2	0.54%
29	Modernization	2	0.54%
30	Paratextual Narrative	2	0.54%
31	Poetics of Translation	2	0.54%
32	Pseudo-translation	2	0.54%
33	Re-writing	2	0.54%
34	Translation Field	2	0.54%
35	Translation Mode	2	0.54%
36	Translation Purpose	2	0.54%
37	Translation System	2	0.54%
38	War	2	0.54%
39	Activism	1	0.27%
40	Domestication	1	0.27%
41	Ideology	1	0.27%
42	<i>Illusio</i>	1	0.27%
43	Imprisoned Translators	1	0.27%
44	Intertextuality	1	0.27%
45	Knowledge Production	1	0.27%
46	Literary Narrative	1	0.27%
47	Manipulation	1	0.27%

48	Minority Languages	1	0.27%
49	Orientalism	1	0.27%
50	Postcolonialism	1	0.27%
51	Re-translation	1	0.27%
52	Self-translation	1	0.27%
53	Agents of Translation	1	0.27%
54	Translation Editing	1	0.27%
55	Translation Policy	1	0.27%
56	School of Translation	1	0.27%
Total		370	100%

The recurring theme of *linguistic features* suggests that historical research on translation has predominantly remained at a foundational level, focusing primarily on linguistic analyses of works. The prevalence of linguistic issues and discussions in research on translation in Iran over several decades further contributes to this trend. Another contributing factor may be that the articles examined in this project do not exclusively originate from translation studies; some belonged to neighboring fields where a linguistic approach to translation holds prominence. The prominence of the second most frequent theme (i.e., *bibliographical features*) indicates that analysis in many works have been confined to the textual and bibliographical aspects of STs and TTs. This observation suggests that novel methods of historical research in translation studies may not have fully developed in the Iranian context or may not have been widely employed. *Translation movement* is the third most frequent theme in the scholarly articles. Iran has experienced several significant translation movements in its history. The historical importance of these movements, particularly the movement during the Islamic golden age, has received substantial attention from researchers.

3. Theoretical Frameworks

The development of translation studies as a discipline or an interdiscipline has highlighted the relevance of theoretical frameworks in analyzing the translation phenomenon. The subfield of translation history is no exception, given the recent methodological influx from the neighboring disciplines. In the case of the present study, it can prove helpful to see which theoretical frameworks are employed by Iranian scholarly journal articles concerned with the history of translation in Iran.

Among the 370 articles examined, 280 lacked a specific theoretical framework, which suggests that a substantial portion of the studies lack a robust methodological basis. This finding supports the claim that historical research on translation in Iran lacks the methodological rigor characteristic of the mainstream historiography of translation, especially in the Western academia (e.g., Belle and Hosington 2017; Munday 2014).

Concerning the remaining 90 articles that incorporated theoretical frameworks, they were predominantly authored by specialists in translation studies. The majority of these articles relied on a single framework, with only a small number utilizing two frameworks for the purpose of the study. The specific frameworks employed are listed in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Analysis of Theoretical Frameworks

No.	Theoretical Frameworks	Frequency
1	Polysystems – Even-Zohar	15
2	Theory of Social Fields – Bourdieu	9
3	Reception Theory	8
4	Discourse Analysis	7
5	Norms – Toury	6
6	Narrative Theory	5
7	Patronage and Rewriting – Lefevere	5
8	Theory of Translation – Ladmiral	3
9	Postcolonial Theory	3
10	Agency Theory	2
11	Bibliometrics	2
12	Social Systems Theory – Luhmann	2
13	Microhistory	2
14	Model of Historiography – Pym	2
15	Pseudo-translation – Toury	2
16	Poetics of Translation	2
17	Domestication – Venuti	2
18	Activism Theory – Baker	1
19	Comparative Literary Theory – Gayen	1
20	Content Analysis – De Shazer and Harlow	1

21	Manipulation Strategies – Dukat	1
22	Hypertextuality – Genette	1
23	Imagology	1
24	Hermeneutics of Dithey – Burckhardt	1
25	Types of Translation – Jakobson	1
26	Classification of Equivalents – Koller	1
27	Classification of Equivalents – Nida	1
28	Paratext Theory – Pellatt	1
29	Actor-Network Theory – Latour	1
30	Gender Theory – Sandra Bem	1
31	Speech Representation – Simon and Shorts	1
32	Skopos Theory – Reiss and Vermeer	1
33	Socio-Historical Literary Translation Model	1
34	Socio-linguistics – Edwards and Gonzalez	1
35	Time Series Analysis	1
Total		95

4. Text Genres

What concerns us here is the often-accepted assumption that translation deals with some kind of text genre, so does any analysis of translation. The historical research on translation is often oriented towards text genres, be they literary, non-literary, etc. This section offers the results concerning the textual genres investigated in Iranian scholarly journal articles on the history of translation in Iran.

Out of the 370 articles examined, it was found that 103 did not focus on any specific text genre. In the remaining 267 articles, the examination of a specific text genre was evident, as these articles explicitly declared their focus on a distinct genre. The identified text genres are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Analysis of Text Genres

No.	Text Genre	Frequency	
1	Historical	15	5.61%
2	Historical Inscriptions	1	0.37%

3	Legal	1	0.37%
4	Literary	131	49.06%
5	Mystical	5	1.87%
6	Philosophical	18	6.74%
7	Political	2	0.74%
8	Religious	68	25.46%
9	Scientific	26	9.73
Total		267	100%

As indicated by the results of the genre analysis in Table 4, the two predominant genres are literary and religious, with frequencies of 131 (49.06%) and 68 (25.46%), respectively. The notable prevalence of the literary genre may be attributed to the literary heritage of Iran as well as the rich literary character of translation activities in Iran, thus capturing the interest of numerous researchers. In modern Iran, literature has witnessed increased popularity and accessibility due to the influx of foreign literature into Persian book market, potentially contributing to its higher representation in research endeavors. It is worth noting that more specialized genres may have a narrower audience, potentially receiving less attention from researchers. Furthermore, the religious genre is also prevalent, and this could most probably be attributed to the religious context of the country, particularly the historically significant role of the Quran translation in Iran as an Islamic territory.

5. Language Pairs

Almost any research on translation (history) deals with two or more languages. The present section attempts to answer the research question: Which language pairs are examined in the journal articles?

Out of the 370 articles examined, 54 did not specify any particular language pairs. In the remaining 316 articles, translation was analyzed in relation to specific language pairs, as illustrated in Table 5. In the table, the symbol (\leftrightarrow) denotes bi-directional translation. For instance, *Arabic \leftrightarrow Persian* indicates translation both from Arabic into Persian and from Persian into Arabic. The arrow symbol (\rightarrow) signifies one-directional translation. For example, *Arabic \rightarrow English* denotes translation from Arabic into English.

Table 5. Analysis of Language Pairs

No.	Language Pairs	Frequency	
1	Arabic ↔ Persian	1	0.32%
2	Arabic → Daylami	1	0.32%
3	Arabic → English	3	0.95%
4	Arabic → German	3	0.95%
5	Arabic → Latin	4	1.26%
6	Arabic → Miscellaneous	5	1.58%
7	Arabic → Persian	73	23.10%
8	Arabic → Persian-Kurdish	1	0.32%
9	Arabic → Russian	1	0.32%
10	Arabic → Tabari	1	0.32%
11	Arabic → Urdu	1	0.32%
12	Aramaic → Judeo Persian	1	0.32%
13	Avestan → Miscellaneous	1	0.32%
14	Avestan → Pahlavi	2	0.63%
15	Chinese → Persian	1	0.32%
16	English-French → Persian	4	1.26%
17	English → Persian	15	4.74%
18	French → Persian	20	6.32%
19	German → Persian	1	0.32%
20	Greek-Hebrew → Judeo Persian	1	0.32%
21	Greek → Arabic	10	3.16%
22	Hebrew → Persian	2	0.63%
23	Hindi → Persian	1	0.32%
24	Miscellaneous ↔ Persian	1	0.32%
25	Miscellaneous → Arabic	16	5.06%
26	Miscellaneous → Arabic-Persian	1	0.32%
27	Miscellaneous → Armenian	1	0.32%
28	Miscellaneous → Azerbaijani	3	0.95%
29	Miscellaneous → French	1	0.32%
30	Miscellaneous → Persian	78	24.68%
31	Miscellaneous → Turkish	1	0.32%

32	Pahlavi → Arabic	11	3.48%
33	Pahlavi → Persian	3	0.95%
34	Persian ↔ Armenian	2	0.63%
35	Persian → Russian	1	0.32%
36	Persian → Arabic	11	3.48%
37	Persian → English	10	3.16%
38	Persian → French	4	1.26%
39	Persian → Georgian	2	0.63%
40	Persian → German	2	0.63%
41	Persian → Hungarian	1	0.32%
42	Persian → Miscellaneous	2	0.63%
43	Persian → Russian	1	0.32%
44	Persian → Turkish	4	1.26%
45	Persian → Turkish-Arabic	1	0.32%
46	Persian → Uzbek	1	0.32%
47	Turkish → Persian	5	1.58%
Total		316	100%

The language pair analysis reveals that *Miscellaneous → Persian* (78 instances or 24.68%) and *Arabic → Persian* (73 instances or 23.10%) are the most frequently addressed language pairs in the examined articles. The term *Miscellaneous → Persian* denotes translations from several foreign languages into Persian. This prominence could be attributed to the historical significance of Persian and Arabic, both being important and dominant target languages in Iran's history. Persian has served as the official language of the country, and at certain periods, Arabic has held official status for religious purposes in Iran. Arabic is also recognized as the language of Quran and Islam, the predominant religion in Iran with a long history. Additionally, translation from various Latin languages into Persian has been a continual practice, particularly in the contemporary history of Iran.

6. Specific Translators

Recently, the surge of interest in translator studies has found its way into historical translation studies as well. In fact, the biographical and professional investigation into translators throughout history is now a legitimate field of analysis in translation studies. In this respect,

this section provides the answer to the research question of which translators are studied in the journal articles.

Among the 370 examined articles, 305 instances did not focus on any specific translator. In only 65 articles, a particular translator was the subject of the study and a case of analysis. It is worth noting that articles exploring two or three translations comparatively are excluded from this count.

Table 6. Analysis of Specific Translators

No.	Specific Translators	Frequency
1	Abu Ali Bal'ami (10th century)	2
2	Habib Esfahani (1835–1893)	3
3	Ibn al-Muqaffa (c. 724–759)	2
4	Mahvash Ghavimi (1947–)	2
5	Matthew Arnold (1822–1888)	2
6	Mohammad Taghi Ghiasi (1932–2024)	3
7	Nasrollah Monshi (12th century)	2
8	Zabihollah Mansouri (1899–1986)	2
9	Sadegh Hedayat (1903–1951)	2
10	Khalil Khan Thaqafi (1862–1944)	2
11	Abban ibn Abd al-Hamid Laheqi (c. 750–815)	1
12	Subhi Salih (1926–1986)	1
13	Abdul Latif Tasuji (–1879)	1
14	Abdul Rasul Khayampoor (1898–1979)	1
15	Abdul Wahab Azzam (1894–1959)	1
16	Abolfazl Rashiduddin Meybodi (12th century)	1
17	Abu Ali Osmani (11th century)	1
18	Abu Ishaq al-Kubunani (15th century)	1
19	Agha Jamal Khansari (18th century)	1
20	Ali ibn Hasan Zavareh-i (16th century)	1
21	Ali Asghar Hekmat (1892–1980)	1
22	Ali Shariati (1933–1977)	1
23	Amir Alishir (1441–1501)	1

24	André Gide (1869–1951)	1
25	Avicenna (c. 970–1037)	1
26	Coleman Barks (1937–)	1
27	Edward FitzGerald (1809–1883)	1
28	Emad al-Din Esfarayeni (11th century)	1
29	Etemad al-Saltanah (1843–1896)	1
30	Hassan Gilani (17th century)	1
31	Hunayn ibn Ishaq (809–873)	1
32	Ibn Zafir al-Shirazi (14th century)	1
33	Jami (1414–1492)	1
34	Joseph von Hammer-Purgstall (1774–1859)	1
35	Rashid al-Din Hamedani (1247–1318)	1
36	Mirza Abdul Ghaffar Najm al-Dawlah (1839–1908)	1
37	Mirza Jahangir Khan Hosseini (1858–1933)	1
38	Mirza Zaki Mazandarani (19th century)	1
39	Mohammad Aref Espanaqchi Pashazadeh (–1892)	1
40	Mohammad Qazi (1913–1998)	1
41	Mohammad Taghi Tabrizi (17th century)	1
42	Mohammad Taher Mirza (1834–1899)	1
43	Molana Shoghi Baghadtadi (15th century)	1
44	Naser Khusraw (1004–1072/77)	1
45	Nasrollah Salehi (1964–)	1
46	Qutb al-Din Shirazi (1236–1311)	1
47	Sahl bin Haroun (758–830)	1
48	Saadi (c. 1210–1292)	1
49	Sayyed Muhammad ibn Muhammad Baqir Husayni Mukhtari (1669–c. 1717)	1
50	Sirajuddin Abdulaziz al-Yazdi (13th–14th century)	1
51	Talibov Tabrizi (1834–1911)	1
52	Teimour Ghaderi (1956–)	1
53	Yussef Etessami (1874–1938)	1
Total		65

The top three analyzed translators (i.e., Abu Ali Bal'ami, Habib Esfahani, and Ibn al-Muqaffa) are known as prominent figures in the literary and intellectual history of Iran. Abu Ali Bal'ami was a 10th-century Persian historian and writer who translated (or rewrote) al-Tabari's *History of the Prophets and Kings* – a significant work of history in Iran. Mirza Habib Esfahani (1835–1893) is known as one of the pioneers of modern Persian prose, thanks to his Persian translation of *The Adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan* by James Morier. This work brought the translator into focus, hence the research significance attached to him. Among the translators analyzed, perhaps the most well-known is Ibn al-Muqaffa. He played a crucial role in translating and transferring ancient Iran's intellectual heritage into the Arabic language and context. Ibn al-Muqaffa was a key figure in the translation movement that took place during the early Islamic age in Iran.

7. Specific Authors

Similar to the previous case on translator studies, several research endeavors tend to take the author of the so-called original text as the starting point for analysis. This section provides the answer to the question as to which authors are studied in the journal articles.

In the examination of 370 articles, 259 did not specifically address any author. However, in 111 instances, the translations of works of a particular author have been the subject of the study. The list of these authors is provided in Table 7 below.

Table 7. Analysis of Specific Authors

No.	Specific Authors	Frequency
1	Ferdowsi (940–1020)	8
2	James Morier (1782–1849)	6
3	Saadi (c. 1210–1292)	6
4	Aristotle (384–322 B.C.)	5
5	Sayyid Razi (970–1015)	4
6	Muhammad ibn Jarir al-Tabari (839–923)	4
7	Omar Khayyam (1048–1131)	4
8	Rumi (1207–1273)	4
9	Suhrawardi (1154–1191)	4
10	Albert Camus (1913–1960)	2

11	Avicenna (c. 970–1037)	2
12	Emile Zola (1840–1902)	2
13	Ibn al-Muqaffa (c. 724–759)	2
14	Mohammadreza Shafiei Kadkani (1939–)	2
15	Sheikh Saduq (c. 923–991)	2
16	Abu al-Qasem Qushayri (986–1072)	2
17	Al-Damiri (1341–1405)	2
18	Wassaf (c. 1265–1328)	1
19	Abdul Jabbar Khojandi (13th century)	1
20	Abdul Qadir Gilani (c. 1077–1166)	1
21	Abu Bakr ibn Abdallah (16th century)	1
22	Abu Muhammad Joveiri (10th century)	1
23	Abu Tahir Tarsusi (12th century)	1
24	Ahmad Shamlou (1925–2000)	1
25	Alexandre Dumas (1802–1870)	1
26	Ali ibn Abdolsamad Tamimi Neyshabouri (12th century)	1
27	Ali Shariati (Chandelle) (1933–1977)	1
28	Al-Jahiz (c. 776–868)	1
29	Al-Raghib al-Isfahani (11th century)	1
30	Attar Neishaburi (c. 1145–1221)	1
31	Badi' al-Zaman ibn al-Razzaz al-Jazari (1136–1206)	1
32	Charles Darwin (1809–1882)	1
33	Christian Bobin (1951–2022)	1
34	Dioscorides (c. 40–90)	1
35	Ernest Hemingway (1899–1961)	1
36	Etemad al-Saltanah (1843–1896)	1
37	Euclid (c. 300 B.C.)	1
38	Forugh Farrokhzad (1934–1967)	1
39	Friedrich Schiller (1759–1805)	1
40	Graham Greene (1904–1991)	1
41	Gustave Flaubert (1821–1880)	1
42	Guy de Maupassant (1850–1893)	1
43	Hafez (c. 1325–1390)	1

44	Honoré de Balzac (1799–1850)	1
45	Ibn Farez (1181–1235)	1
46	Jean-Marie Gustave Le Clézio (1940–)	1
47	Jean-Paul Sartre (1905–1980)	1
48	Jules Simon (1814–1896)	1
49	Kahlil Gibran (1883–1931)	1
50	Kriziz Namsavi (19th century)	1
51	La Fotaine (1621–1695)	1
52	Mirza Ahmad Mirza Khodaverdi (19th century)	1
53	Mirza Ghalib Dehlavi (1797–1869)	1
54	Mohammad ibn Abdullah Kisai (c. 1100)	1
55	Morteza Motahhari (1919–1979)	1
56	Naser Khusraw (1004–1072/77)	1
57	Nasr ibn Ya'qub Dinawari (11th century)	1
58	Plato (c. 428–348 B.C.)	1
59	Sadeghi Beig Afshar (940–1017)	1
60	Samuel Beckett (1906–1989)	1
61	Sayyid ibn Tawus (1193–1266)	1
62	Shakespeare (c. 1564–1616)	1
63	Sheikh Bahaei (1547–1621)	1
64	Talibov Tabrizi (1834–1911)	1
65	Tughra'i (1061–c. 1121)	1
66	Walter Whitman (1819–1892)	1
67	Zoroaster (c. 1000 B.C.)	1
Total		111

Among the most studied authors, Ferdowsi, Saadi, Omar Khayyam, and Rumi are esteemed figures in Persian poetry whose works have been extensively translated and examined. Additionally, James Morier, the author of *The Adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan*, is notable. The Persian translation of Morier's work by Mirza Habib Esfahani is regarded as a pioneering effort in modern Persian prose. Furthermore, the works of Aristotle, Suhrawardi, and al-Tabari proved to be significant not only in Iran but also globally. Most of these

authors, as well as their works (see below), do belong to classical canon of Persian literature, hence their importance as the subject matter of research studies.

8. Specific Works

In most cases, a single piece of work, mostly chosen due to its significance, is the subject of investigation in research on translation history. For the sake of the present inquiry, the relevant research question is: Which works are examined in the journal articles?

Out of the 370 articles, 149 addressed a specific work, while 221 articles did not focus on any particular work. Among the frequently studied works, the Holy Quran stands out with 35 instances (23.48%). This prominence could be attributed to the Quran's status and significance as a sacred and sensitive text in Iran's historical and intellectual trajectory. Other works frequently referred to include *Shahnameh*, *Kalila and Demna*, *The Adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan*, *Gulistan*, *One Thousand and One Nights*, *Awarif al-Ma'arif*, *Omar Khayyam's Poems*, and *Tafsir al-Tabari*. This may be due to their widespread recognition and popularity in Persian classics, as well as their seminal status in the Persian translation tradition. The list of works addressed in Iranian scholarly journal articles is presented in Table 8 below.

Table 8. Analysis of Specific Works

No.	Specific Works	Frequency	
1	The Quran (610–632)*	35	23.48%
2	Shahnameh (c. 977–1010)	8	5.36%
3	Kalila and Demna (8th century)	7	4.69%
4	The Adventures of Hajji Baba of Ispahan (1824)	6	4.02%
5	One Thousand and One Nights (9th century)	5	3.35%
6	Gulistan (1258)	4	2.68%
7	Awarif al-Ma'arif (13th century)	4	2.68%
8	Omar Khayyam's Poems (10th–11th century)	4	2.68%
9	Tafsir al-Tabari (c. 10th century)	4	2.68%
10	Nahjolbalagheh (11th century)	3	2.01%
11	Old Testament	3	2.01%
12	Al-Risala Al-Qushayriyya (1045)	2	1.34%

13	Ba Cheragh va Ayeneh (2011)	2	1.34%
14	Mathnavi (13th century)	2	1.34%
15	Organon (A Collection of Aristotle's Works) (c. 40 B.C.)	2	1.34%
16	Aristotle's Poetics (c. 335 B.C.)	2	1.34%
17	Qisas al-Anbiya (10th–12th century)	2	1.34%
18	Tarikh al-Tabari (10th century)	2	1.34%
19	Theologia Aristotelis (9th century)	2	1.34%
20	Treatise on Time & Space (1892)	2	1.34%
21	Zand-i Wahman Yasn (the late antiquity in Iran)	2	1.34%
22	Akhbar-Nameh (1883)	1	0.67%
23	Al-Hasha'ish (1st century)	1	0.67%
24	Ali ibn Abi Talib's Letter to Malik al-Ashtar (7th century)	1	0.67%
25	Al-Qadiri fi 'l-Ta'bir (11th century)	1	0.67%
26	Al-Risala tul-Ghausia (c. 11th century)	1	0.67%
27	Al-Zari'a Men al Makarem al-Shari'a (12th century)	1	0.67%
28	Belauhar and Buzasaf (c. 2nd–4th century)	1	0.67%
29	Bisotun Inscription (c. 522–486 B.C.)	1	0.67%
30	Euclid's Elements (c. 300 B.C.)	1	0.67%
31	Bustan (1257)	1	0.67%
32	Hayat al-Hayawan (14th century)	1	0.67%
33	Jame' al-Qisas (17th century)	1	0.67%
34	Jame' al-Hikmatayn (1069)	1	0.67%
35	Kashf al-Asrar wa 'Uddat al-Abdar (1126)	1	0.67%
36	Kharnameh (1860)	1	0.67%
37	Khavas al-Hayvan (14th century)	1	0.67%
38	Khwadayanmag (6th–7th centuries)	1	0.67%
39	Khordeh Avesta (4th century)	1	0.67%
40	Kitab al-Hiyal (850)	1	0.67%
41	Lamia al-Ajam (11th century)	1	0.67%
42	Lohoof (c. 12th century)	1	0.67%
43	Metaphysics (350 B.C.)	1	0.67%
44	Miftah al-Falah (16th–17th centuries)	1	0.67%

45	Mirza Ghalib Dehlavi's Poems (19th century)	1	0.67%
46	Molana Shoghi's Poems (15th century)	1	0.67%
47	Namsavi's Physics (19th century)	1	0.67%
48	Osman Pasha's History (2001)	1	0.67%
49	Qiran-i Habashi (12th century)	1	0.67%
50	The Quran and Hadith	1	0.67%
51	Rumi's Poems (13th century)	1	0.67%
52	Taiyeh Kubra (12th–13th centuries)	1	0.67%
53	Tankalusha (3rd–7th centuries)	1	0.67%
54	Tanksugh Nama (13th–14th centuries)	1	0.67%
55	Tarikh-i Bayhaqi (11th century)	1	0.67%
56	Tarikh-i Wassaf (12th–13th centuries)	1	0.67%
57	The Avesta (Vandidad) (141 B.C.–224 A.D.)	1	0.67%
58	The Avesta (Zend-Avesta) (3rd–7th centuries)	1	0.67%
59	The Bible	1	0.67%
60	The Cambridge History of Islam (1970)	1	0.67%
61	The Canon of Medicine (1025)	1	0.67%
62	The Origin of Species (1859)	1	0.67%
63	The Power and the Glory (1940)	1	0.67%
64	The Three Musketeers (1844)	1	0.67%
65	The Wisdom of Philosophy (1846) Cours élémentaire de philosophie	1	0.67%
66	Zakhirat ul-Akhera (c. 12th century)	1	0.67%
67	Majma' al-Khawas (1607)	1	0.67%
68	Gulistan and Bustan (13th century)	1	0.67%
Total		149	100%

*The years indicate the publication or writing year of the original text.

Conclusion

In the field of historical studies, the distinction between history and historiography has become increasingly appreciated, although confusing variations in definitions still persist. In translation studies, these terms have often been used haphazardly and sometimes interchangeably. However, recent literature emphasizes the importance of differentiating between histories of translation and metareflections on how those histories are shaped and *Fatemeh Parham and Parviz Rassouli, A Historiographical Analysis of Translation Histories in Iran: The Case of Iranian Scholarly Journal Articles, 72–103*

written. The latter corresponds to the increasing interest in historiographical analysis, which proves to be a useful way of uncovering underlying patterns shaping histories of translation in a given context. The diverse approaches by scholars and historians to the history of translation underscore the unique characteristics inherent in doing and writing translation history within any particular context, which may point to multiple historiographical traditions around the world.

Translation assumes a central position in historical and intellectual trajectory of the Persianate world and has thus become a well-received topic of investigation among scholars of translation and related fields. The increasing number of studies on translation history in Iran provided the impetus for the present study, which aimed to analyze various elements in research on translation history in Iran. The analysis uncovered various theoretical, methodological, disciplinary, and technical aspects of doing or writing translation history in Iran, allowing a historiographical tradition to emerge from the findings. This tradition indicates both heterogeneity and homogeneity. The homogeneity can be seen, for example, in cases of language pairs and text genres selected by the studies, while other categories, such as the study of a specific translator, author, or work are shown to be more heterogeneous than expected.

Both the diversity and unity in the research focus, alongside their instances, significantly reflect the influence of contextual specifications, both of the Iranian academia and of Persian translation tradition, on scholarly approaches to the topic. Nevertheless, the historiographical landscape revealed here appears fragmented, especially in terms of theoretical frameworks and themes examined. This fragmentation may be attributed to the nascent nature of the field in Iran, which often finds itself in a limbo between indigenous perspectives and trends of Western academia—albeit tending toward the latter. Though it might seem premature to assign the research on translation history in Iran a distinct place of its own, recent advancements in translation studies in Iran, alongside the increasing historical consciousness of humanities scholars, could introduce fresh perspectives and guide the scholarly community towards a more cohesive and informed approach to doing translation history in Iran.

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Eye-key Span as a Measure of Cognitive Effort in Translation: A Study on the Influence of Directionality on Cognitive Effort

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ABSTRACT

This exploratory study aims to analyze the influence of directionality on cognitive effort operationalized in the eye-key span (EKS). Following the definition developed by Dragsted (2010), EKS is measured as a time lag that lasts from the last fixation on the analyzed point of interest in a ST to the moment when a translator starts translating it. A set of collocations occurring in the Polish and English source texts was defined as the “point of interest” for the study. The data were collected from 25 translation trainees using eye-tracking and keylogging. Participants worked in both directions in the Polish-English language pair. It was hypothesized that the participants would produce longer EKS in the L1-L2 translation direction. Although the descriptive statistics revealed differences in the mean duration of the EKS and in the data distribution that were visible on histograms, the results of the inferential statistics did not reach the level of statistical significance. The adopted hypothesis was not confirmed.

KEYWORDS: cognitive effort, directionality, EKS, translation trainees, translation process

1. Introduction

Time lag, defined by Šárka Timarová and her colleagues (2011: 121) as “the temporal delay between source text (ST) input and target text (TT) output,” is described as a reliable measure of cognitive effort, requiring the use of the latest process methods. They continue to explain that “[t]ime lag provides insight into the temporal characteristics of simultaneity in interpreting, speed of translation and also into the cognitive load and cognitive processing involved in the translation/ interpreting process” (*ibid.*). There are various types of time lag

measurements. Ear-voice span (EVS) is measured in simultaneous interpreting (for example, Gumul 2006 and Chmiel et al. 2017). Eye-voice span (IVS) is used to study time lag in sight translation (for example, Chmiel and Lijewska 2022 and Wenchao 2023). Chen (2020) attempted to analyze the time lag in consecutive interpreting by introducing an ear-pen span. In the case of translation, only eye-key span (EKS) can be measured. EKS is defined by Dragsted (2010: 50) as “the time lag between a fixation on an ST [source text] word and the first keystroke related to producing its TT [target text] equivalent.” Nevertheless, Timarová et al. (2011: 134) pointed out a significant research gap, stating that there is a scarcity of studies analyzing the topic of EKS in translation. To the best of my knowledge, only a few studies exploring this issue appeared since 2011, and none of them analyzed EKS solely among translation trainees. Since translation trainees have not developed the automation of the translation process, frequently associated with professional translators, their performance could provide valuable information about the cognitive effort. Moreover, Timarová et al. (2011: 122) suggest that “time lag [for example, EKS] is indeed a sensible variable reflecting interpreters’ and translators’ cognitive processing.” Therefore, I analyze EKS as a measure of cognitive effort in a new, under-researched spectrum, which is translating in and out of the native language (i.e., directionality) performed by translation trainees. It is worth noting that the influence of directionality on the translation process is believed to need further investigation. This topic has not been analyzed based on the EKS yet. Interestingly, in the existing studies, the EKS was usually measured based on random word pairs. However, a study analyzing the EKS based on fixed units of texts, like collocations, can hardly be found. Thus, this study, which is part of a broader research project, aims to investigate the influence of directionality on cognitive effort, which is operationalized in EKS. In this study, the EKS is measured based on collocations defined by Teubert (2004: 174) as units of meaning with “the co-occurrence of two or more words” (see Appendix).

Since I address the issues of directionality and cognitive effort operationalized in the EKS, I would like to begin with a literature review discussing the current state of research on the influence of directionality on cognitive effort. Because EKS has not yet been analyzed in the context of directionality, I move on in the next section, to the issue of the EKS. I put a particular emphasis on two manners of measurement and the current state of research. Next, I discuss the study's design and present the analysis and discussion of the results. I also devote

attention to the important limitations of this study and provide some suggestions for possible further implementation of the EKS in the context of directionality and the process of translating collocations.

2. Directionality and Cognitive Effort

According to Whyatt (2019: 79), directionality refers to whether translators “work into their first or ‘native’ (L1) language or out of their L1 and produce translations into their ‘first foreign’ language (L2).” De Lima Fonseca (2015: 123) observes that the L1-L2 translation direction is frequently believed to require significantly higher cognitive effort compared to the L2-L1 direction. Nevertheless, since the beginning of the 21st century, researchers have employed various translation process methods to verify this view.

The notion of cognitive effort has been present in translation and interpreting studies for years. For example, Gile (1995) developed an Effort Model, referring primarily to various modes of interpreting. There have been numerous attempts to define cognitive effort and its relation to cognitive load (for example, in studies by Seeber 2013, Ehrensberger-Dow et al. 2020, Gieshoff and Hunziker Heeb 2023). However, while referring to cognitive effort, I will follow a recent definition of translator effort developed by Hunziker Heeb (2020: 48), who defines it as “[t]he total effort the translator expends during the translation task [and] the target text is then the product of this translator effort.” A straightforward relationship between the cognitive effort and translator effort can be observed. Hunziker Heeb (2020: 66) considers “different indicators of effort as different representations of the same cognitive effort and not as different types of effort. I, therefore, do not distinguish between (...) technical, temporal or cognitive effort but instead, call it translator effort.” Many researchers have tried to verify whether the L2-L1 translation direction can be unambiguously related to a decreased cognitive effort. This discussion holds a special place among countries where the L1-L2 direction is a common translation practice. This can frequently be observed in countries that use languages of limited diffusion, defined as languages that are “not widely used outside [their] primary linguistic community or frequently acquired as a second language” (Pavlović 2007b: 7). Countries like Poland, Czechia, and Croatia belong to this group (Pavlović 2010, Whyatt and Kościuczuk 2013, Mraček 2018).

It should be emphasized that the studies discussing the influence of directionality on cognitive effort led to inconclusive results. Only some studies confirmed that the L1-L2 translation direction evokes higher cognitive effort. For example, Buchweitz and Alves (2006) utilized keylogging to analyze the translation process in the Portuguese (L1) – English (L2) language pair. By comparing total task time, segmentation of the TTs, and the keystrokes used for revision, they unequivocally showed that L1-L2 translation is more effortful than the L2-L1 direction of translation.

Pavlović and Jensen (2009) used eye-tracking to analyze the influence of directionality on cognitive effort in the Danish-English language pair, with Danish as the participants' L1. Interestingly, they fully confirmed only one out of four hypotheses. Statistically significant results show that regardless of the translation direction, participants struggled with higher cognitive effort while processing the TT rather than the ST. Moreover, two out of four hypotheses were partially corroborated. The results from only one variable indicated that L1-L2 translation in general and TT production during L1-L2 translation require higher cognitive effort. Pavlović and Jensen (2009) also did not manage to confirm that ST processing requires higher cognitive effort during L2-L1 translation. What is more, some of the variables analyzed in their study point to a reverse trend, according to which the L2-L1 translation direction requires higher cognitive effort.

Eye-tracking was also utilized to study directionality by Ferreira and her colleagues (2016), who focused on the Spanish-English language pair. The data indicated that the L1-L2 translation direction may evoke higher cognitive effort. This hypothesis was confirmed by statistically significant results from total task time and fixation count. Ferreira and her colleagues also partially confirmed that translators need more cognitive effort to process ST during the L1-L2 translation. However, the obtained results did not allow them to conclude that L2 TT processing requires more effort and that translators tend to spend more time in the Internet browser during the L1-L2 translation. It should also be noted that the analyzed group was very small, as it included only four participants. Quite the opposite results could be found in the latter study by Ferreira and her colleagues (2021). This time, they analyzed eye-tracking and keylogging variables. However, the results from only one of the eye-tracking

variables, gaze event duration, indicated that the L1-L2 evokes significantly higher cognitive effort. The remaining results did not reach the level of statistical significance.

Another example of studies analyzing the influence of directionality on cognitive effort are the works by Whyatt (2018, 2019), who, like this study, focused on the Polish-English language pair. Utilizing eye-tracking and keylogging, Whyatt observed that the orientation phase (Jakobsen 2002) is more cognitively demanding in the L2-L1 direction. This means that participants have to invest more cognitive resources to analyze the ST written in their L2. However, not all variables analyzed in the drafting phase indicated that more effort is required by the L1-L2 translation direction since the differences between the two directions were minimal. Likewise, the revision phase was only slightly longer in the L1-L2 translation. Thus Whyatt (2019) concluded that these results did not indicate L1-L2 as a more cognitively demanding translation direction.

3. Eye-key Span as a Measure of Cognitive Effort

The definition of the eye-key span (EKS) developed by Dragsted (2010: 50) was already mentioned in Section 1. The main idea behind EKS lies in the length of typing inactivity that occurs from the last fixation on a given point of interest in a ST to the moment of its translation. Timarová et al. (2011: 122) pointed out that the main advantage of EKS lies in its objectivity and relative ease of observation. Moreover, they believe that EKS can be analyzed as a valuable measure of cognitive effort (Timarová et al. 2011: 121). Thus, they highly emphasize the need for further and consistent investigation of EKS in translation process research. However, it should also be noted that triangulating very precise eye-tracking and keylogging data, such as fixations as keystrokes, that are required to analyze EKS may also be a time-consuming process.

Two main manners of measuring EKS prevail in translation process studies: from the first fixation until a word is being typed and from the last fixation until a word is being typed. However, as suggested by Dragsted (2010: 51), any fixation that appears between these two points can serve to measure EKS. The first manner of measuring is believed “to span the entire preparation or planning phase preceding the production of a word” (Dragsted 2010: 51). The possibility of tracing back the planning process that precedes translating points of interest

is a huge advantage that may lead to the identification of main problem triggers. For example, in the study by Dragsted (2010: 54), a student fixated multiple times on a word that caused difficulties before they managed to translate it. The process of measuring EKS from the first fixation also has some drawbacks. Apart from refixations on the points of interest, people tend to additionally look at many different words in the text, which may be a distorting condition. Another important factor is that reading the whole text beforehand is not always a common practice among translation trainees and professionals. Dragsted (2010: 52) observes in her study that “[t]here were no indicators in the data that any of the participants read the whole text before they started translating it (possibly because they had already done so during the reading-for-translation task).” Thus, a problem in defining the concept of first fixation emerges. Only some participants may produce the first fixation on the analyzed point of interest as early as during the orientation phase.

The second manner of measuring EKS is from the last fixation until the analyzed word is being typed. Dragsted (2010: 51) points out that it “invariably involves a coordination/transformation effort, because, during this time span, a fixation on an ST word is actively transformed into a TT equivalent which is typed in the TT window of the screen.” Therefore, it “indicates the immediate effort of switching from the reading mode to the writing mode” (*ibid.*). Moreover, EKS measured from the last fixation gives the researchers the possibility to examine whether the participant is able to coordinate work on the ST and TT or whether they have to work in turns. It usually distinguishes professionals from translation trainees. However, some distortions in the form of fixations on words other than points of interest may also appear in this case (Dragsted 2010: 52).

EKS has probably been most thoroughly discussed by Dragsted (2010) and Timarová et al. (2011). In her study, Dragsted (2010) focused on the analysis of coordination of the translation process and source text comprehension. She compared the results of translation trainees and professional translators. The task of 14 students and eight translators was to read and then translate a short text from English (L2) into Danish (L1). Thirty random words constituted points of interest. The results indicated that students tend to exhibit a longer EKS than professional translators. This suggests that in contrast to professional translators, translation trainees have not yet developed the ability to coordinate ST reading and TT

writing. Thus, their translation behavior could be described as sequential coordination, as they process both texts separately.

Timarová and her colleagues (2011) analyzed EKS in various conditions and among various subjects, based on random 30-word-pairs points of interest that varied between the subjects. They focused on the following categories: intra-subject analysis, inter-subject analysis, analysis of the EKS based on parts of speech and sentence position, and comparison of the EKS during translation and copying tasks. They studied two groups of participants: translation trainees and professional translators. Like Dragsted (2010), Timarová and her colleagues (2011) observed differences between translation trainees and professionals. The translation process of trainees is characterized by many fluctuations. At the same time, the EKS produced by professionals was stable both when analyzed from the first and from the last fixation. Additionally, professionals produced shorter EKS values than translation trainees. During the inter-subject analysis of students' translations, Timarová et al. (2011) observed frequent refixations or fixations on various words preceding the translation of points of interest. Professionals usually manage to produce their translations right after reading a given word. Interestingly, the analysis of the EKS in relation to parts of speech did not reveal any trend, as outliers tend to appear among all parts of speech and in all sentence positions. Finally, a correlation was observed between EKS in typing and copying tasks performed solely by professionals. However, Timarová and her colleagues (2011: 134) highlight that the obtained results may be influenced by the differences in typing behavior among participants.

Another study in which EKS is the subject of analysis is the work by Schaeffer and Carl (2017), who studied EKS from the first fixation. They replicated the study design by Dragsted (2010), introducing as many as five target languages. The results suggest that EKS may be influenced by features such as the length, frequency, and position of words for which EKS is analyzed. The results of the study by Schaeffer and Carl (2017) showed that translation trainees tend to produce longer EKS values than professional translators, which was in line with the results obtained by Dragsted (2010). Shorter EKS values were also observed in the coping task rather than the translation task.

4. Aim and Hypothesis

The aim of this study is to analyze the influence of directionality on cognitive effort operationalized in the EKS. Following the categories introduced by Dragsted (2010: 51), I am interested in the EKS measured from the last fixation as it allows me to analyze the immediate cognitive effort appearing right before translating points of interest. Although EKS has not so far been analyzed in the context of directionality, there are other eye-tracking and keylogging variables which have been analyzed, for example, in studies by Pavlović and Jensen (2009), Ferreira et al. (2016) or Whyatt (2019) as discussed in Section 2. These indicate that the L1-L2 translation may require higher cognitive effort. Following these studies, I predict that participants of this study will produce longer EKS in the L1-L2 direction, which translates into increased cognitive effort. The language pair analyzed in this study joins the language of limited diffusion (Pavlović 2007b), Polish, with the contemporary lingua franca (Pavlović 2007a, Rodríguez-Inés 2022), English. It should be emphasized that in the case of the Polish translation market, translation frequently occurs in both directions between Polish and English (Whyatt and Kościuczuk 2013).

Participants translated short texts, one in each direction; however, I chose collocations as my points of interest (See details of the source texts in Section 5.2). The rationale behind this was the results obtained in my previous study (Pietryga 2022). It showed that participants identified vocabulary, including collocations, as a main problem trigger regardless of the translation direction. Moreover, researchers are unanimous that although collocations play a crucial role in fluent language speaking, they frequently pose a serious problem in foreign language acquisition and, consequently, also in the translation process (Wolter and Yamashita 2015, Pellicer-Sánchez et al., 2022, Sonbul et al. 2022). There is a considerable research gap in the analysis of the EKS in the context of collocations and directionality. Previous studies, for example, by Dragsted (2010), Timarová et al. (2011), and Schaeffer and Carl (2017), focused on different units like random single words and compared the translation process of professionals and trainees. All of them focused on translation performed from foreign into native languages, which is believed to require less cognitive effort. This study analyzes EKS, particularly within the group of translation trainees, which allows insight into the translation process occurring in their minds which are frequently referred to as the “black boxes” (for example, in studies by Dragsted 2010, Chmiel 2020, Rojo López and Muñoz Martín 2022). Since EKS has not been analyzed in the context of directionality before, my study can be

characterized as exploratory. I will test a theoretical model suggesting that participants may produce longer EKS in the L1-L2 translation direction. The study received a positive opinion no: KEUS192/12.2021 issued by the Ethics Committee at the University of Silesia in Katowice.

5. Methodology

5.1 Participants

Thirty-five 5-year advanced translation trainees (who have been in higher education for five years, including three years of the BA program and 2 years of the MA program) attending the translation and interpreting program at the University of Silesia in Katowice participated in this study. Translation trainees took part in the study right before their MA thesis defense. Although all participants reported normal or corrected-to-normal vision, the data from 10 of them had to be discarded due to some calibration issues. Therefore, the final sample comprises 25 translation trainees (21 women and four men). Their age ranged from 23 to 24 years old ($M= 23.9$; $SD= 0.78$). Following good practices and suggestions of the Ethics Committee, all participants received university merchandise, such as USB sticks, pens and notebooks as a form of compensation for their work and time.

Participants' L1 was Polish, and L2 was English. According to the University curriculum, translation trainees are taught translating both in and out of their L1. Therefore, they are supposed to demonstrate proficiency in both translation directions. Moreover, all participants completed at least 90 hours of translation training devoted to practicing both L1-L2 and L2-L1 translation. It is worth noting that contrary to many Western European universities; there is a common practice to teach both L1-L2 and L2-L1 translation and interpreting at Polish universities (Gumul 2017: 314). However, I decided to additionally verify participants' skills in both languages to avoid confounding variables in the form of poor knowledge of English.

Since Polish is the participants' native language, I decided to first assess their proficiency in English. Many researchers use the Lextale test for this purpose also in the context of directionality (for example, in studies by Whyatt 2018 and Jankowiak and Lehka-Paul 2022). The Lextale test is conducted via an online platform, and the participants' task is to decide

whether a word they see on the screen can be an existing English word. As the authors of the test, Lemhöfer and Broersma (2012: 326) point out, “[t]he target population of the test is adult learners who started learning English at school at an age of about 10-12 years, which is standard in many countries, and who continue to use English in daily life.” For example, in the study by Chmiel and Lijewska (2022: 7), the participants’ mean results in the Lextale test were 89.31, which they assessed as “indicating very high, close to native-like proficiency for most of the participants.” Participants of this study obtained the mean Lextale test results at the level of 77.3 (SD= 11), which means that they demonstrated high proficiency in English. The second measure used in this study was the self-assessment grid table prepared by the Council of Europe (2001), designed to be used in multiple languages. Participants’ task was to assess their six skills in L1 and L2. These are listening, reading, spoken interactions, spoken production, and writing. They all assessed their abilities in L1 as being at the C1-C2 level. In the case of L2, the participants also indicated the C1-C2 level, with just a few cases in which the B2 level was reported. The results indicated that the abilities required for translating were assessed as being at equally high levels in both directions. To avoid a confounding variable in the form of too-slow typing, participants’ typing speed in L1 and L2 was also measured. They demonstrated comparable typing skills in both languages. In the case of Polish, the average typing speed was 47.4 words per minute, while in the case of English, 44.9 words per minute. The details of the participants’ skills are summarized in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Details of the participants’ skills

Participants’ skills	L1	L2
Proficiency	native	77.3% (Lextale test)
Listening	C2	B2-C2
Reading	C1-C2	C1-C2
Spoken interactions	C1-C2	B2-C2
Spoken production	C1-C2	B2-C2
Writing	C1-C2	C1-C2
Typing speed	47.4	44.9

5.2 Materials

The materials used for the study are two authentic texts, one in Polish and one in English, obtained from the National Geographic website. The website contains texts that can be classified as popular science texts. Participants were not familiar with the content of the text before the study. However, the texts do not contain highly specialised vocabulary and resemble the materials and the difficulty level that students were used to during their translation classes. Therefore, I chose them as source texts for this study. Both texts were related to the topic of animals: tortoises and dogs. The Polish text discussed the topic of the oldest tortoise in the world, and the topic of the English text was the processing of praise by dogs. The texts were modified to fit the purpose of this study. They were counterbalanced in terms of length, difficulty, and the number of collocations appearing in each text. Each text contained collocations¹ obtained from the well-known corpora British National Corpus (2004) and Narodowy Korpus Języka Polskiego (2012). Initially, there were 14 collocations in each text; however, as some of them occurred too close to each other in the text and may be wrongly perceived as one long phrase, I decided to reduce the number of collocations to 12 in each text. Collocations were controlled for their frequency and difficulty level. Although my modifications of the source texts were limited by the content of the original texts and requirements of the eye-tracking software, I managed to apply common and well-known collocations in both languages. According to the frequency data obtained from the corpora, the analyzed collocations belong to the 25 most frequent collocations in each language. All of them are composed of words that are known to translation trainees. Only the collocation ‘to respond correctly’ was noted as the 46th most common collocation, including the verb ‘to respond.’ The difficulty of the texts was also assessed through the readability formula, the Fog Index. The Polish text was assessed at 11 points and the English text at 11.3 points, meaning that at least secondary education is required to understand both texts. Thus, the results indicated similar difficulty levels of both texts. The length of the Polish text was 168 words, and the English text had 171 words. The details of the materials are presented in Table 2 below.

¹ The list of collocations is included in the Appendix.

Table 2. Details of the source texts

	POLISH TEXT	ENGLISH TEXT
Length	168 words	171 words
Fog index	11	11.3
Number of collocations	(12)14	(12)14
Frequency of collocations	25 most common collocations	25 most common collocations + one collocation listed as 46 th most common

5.3 Equipment

To analyze EKS, the researcher has to record eye-tracking and keylogging data. Eyelink Portable Duo eye-tracker was utilized to record participants' gaze data. The eye-tracking data were recorded monocularly at the sampling rate of 1000 Hz with 13-point calibration. Since the remote mode was used, participants could move their heads freely. As a result, it did not restrict their usual use of the screen and the keyboard during the translation process, increasing the ecological validity of the study. However, participants were asked to substantially reduce their movements to avoid losing eye-tracking data. The typing data were recorded by the keylogging program Translog II (Carl 2012). The texts were presented in black font, size 22, double-spaced, on a grey background.

5.4 Procedure

The experiment consisted of three tasks in two directions, L1-L2 and L2-L1, preceded by some pre-tests. The order of directions of translation was randomized by Randomiser.org to avoid fatigue resulting from the length of the experiment. The experimental tasks were translation, retrospective session, and filling in some questionnaires. The scope of this article is limited to data obtained solely during the translation task. The data were collected between April and June 2022 at the University of Silesia. At the beginning of the experiment, participants were informed about the course of the study. They also gave written consent for participating in the study and recording and analyzing their data. Participants were also presented with the General Data Protection Regulation form and informed that they should

work at their normal pace, as there were no time constraints. Nevertheless, using any online or paper resources was forbidden. It is believed that such behavior may significantly decrease the perceived cognitive effort, which is analyzed in this study. After the calibration process was finished and the equipment was prepared to record the data, the experimental procedure began.

5.5 Data analysis

As already mentioned, the EKS was measured as a time lag that passes from the last fixation on a given collocation to the moment the first key was pressed to translate it. Because I was interested in the immediate cognitive effort leading to a correct translation, I decided to exclude EKS that appeared before all the inaccurate or incomplete translations. After the experimental procedure was finished, I extracted translated collocations from the translated texts. In the next step, four experts assessed translations of collocations in terms of their accuracy. The experts were linguists and native speakers of either Polish or English. For the purpose of the accuracy assessment, the scale proposed by Andermann and Rogers (1997: 61) was adopted. They introduced three categories: 'task not completed,' 'task partially completed,' and 'task completed.' The scale was created for educational purposes to assess translations produced by students. I also decided to assign 0-2 points to each category in my study. 0 points were assigned to the category of 'task not completed,' 1 point was assigned to 'task partially completed,' and 2 points were assigned to the category of 'task completed.'

In the next step, I excluded the EKS values that appeared before the translations of collocations, which received 0 points from at least one of the experts. These translations were assessed as inaccurate; therefore, I believe they do not reflect the actual cognitive effort. I also decided to exclude from the analysis the EKS preceding translations of collocations that were modified during the translation process, regardless of whether such modifications were implemented in the drafting or the revision phase (Jakobsen 2002). I believe that these EKS values also do not indicate the immediate effort analyzed in this study. Some cognitive processes may still occur in participants' black boxes, leading to further modifications of translations of collocations. There were also cases when a participant translated just one component of a collocation, and the second component was added later in the translation

process. Such EKS values were also not included in the analysis. To sum up, in the case of the L2-L1 translation direction, 170 out of 350 EKS values preceding translations of collocations were excluded from the analysis. In the L1-L2 translation direction, 172 out of 350 EKS values preceding translations of collocations were excluded from further analysis.

6. Results and Discussion

In the first part of this section, I will present the results of descriptive statistics. Next, I will move on to the results of the inferential statistics. Finally, the last part of this section is devoted to a discussion of the results. Statistical analysis presented in this section was conducted using the SPSS program.

The mean values of the EKS indicated some difference between L1-L2 ($M= 6591.3\text{ms}$; $SD= 4969.3$) and L2-L1 translations ($M= 6250.3\text{ms}$ $SD= 3238.3$). It can be observed that participants produced slightly longer EKS during the L1-L2 translation. A detailed distribution of the mean values of the EKS variable is presented in the histograms in Figure 1 below. Some differences between the two graphs can be observed. There are quantitative differences among the L1-L2 results, with an observable peak of the greatest number of EKS longer than 5000ms. There are also relatively few extreme values and no outliers. A classic normal distribution shape can be observed in the first part of the graph until the moment when the results reach mode. The extremely high results, higher than the mode, are flattened. There are smaller quantitative differences among the L1-L2 results. The graph is more flattened, with a greater number of results that are close to the mode. Another crucial difference is that in contrast to the L2-L1 direction, some outliers in the form of a very long EKS appear in the L1-L2 translation direction. However, as Timarová et al. (2011: 129) pointed out, one should be cautious while analyzing outliers, especially if they are substantially longer than the mean values. Considering memory constraints, such long EKS values may frequently mean data loss of some refixations. In line with the results obtained by Timarová et al. (2011), the results produced by translation trainees are characterized by many fluctuations. Moreover, the histograms indicate that the L1-L2 EKS values are more prone to fluctuations.

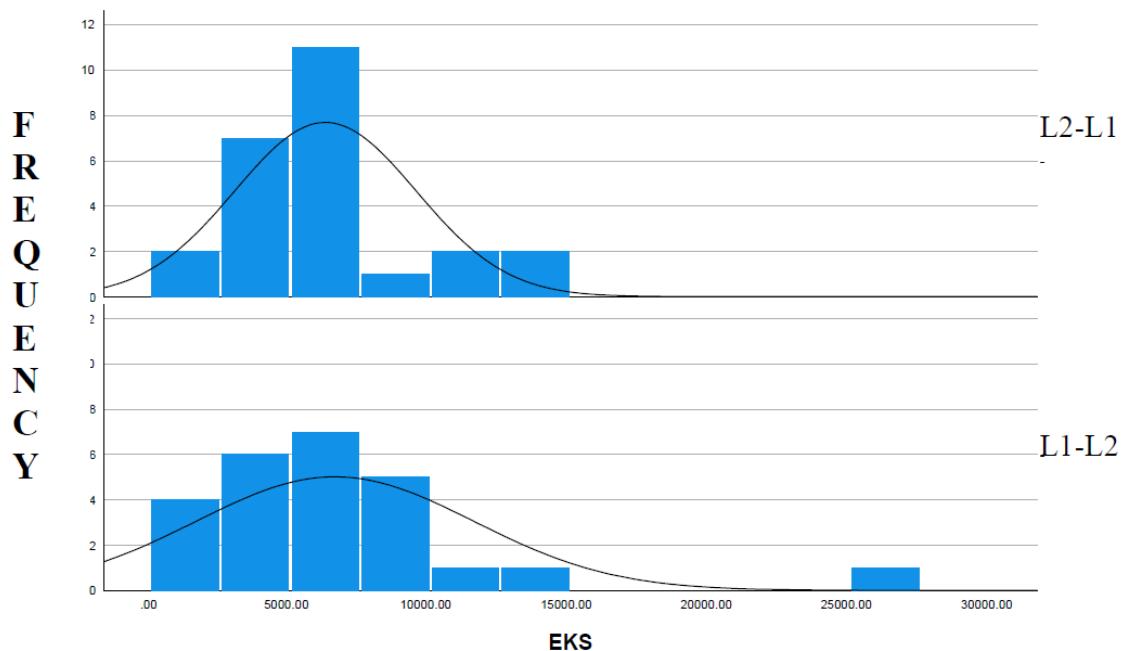


Figure 1. L1-L2 and L2-L1 EKS presented on histograms

For further analysis, I decided to verify the distribution of the EKS in both directions. The results of the Shapiro-Wilk test revealed a lack of normal distribution of the EKS variable both in the L1-L2 and in the L2-L1 translation direction. In the case of the L2-L1 direction $p < 0.001$, and in the L1-L2 translation direction $p = 0.014$. This allowed me to compare the kurtosis and skewness of the EKS results in both directions. The data summarized in Table 3 indicate a leptokurtic distribution in the case of the L1-L2 translation direction. Moreover, regardless of the translation direction, right-skewed histograms can be observed.

Table 3. Kurtosis and skewness

	L1-L2	L2-L1
kurtosis	8.9	0.8
skewness	2.6	1.1

Going into detail, the shortest EKS in the case of the L2-L1 translation was 10ms, and it was produced when one of the participants translated the collocation *acoustic information*. The longest EKS in the case of the L2-L1 translation was 85919ms, and it was produced when a

participant translated the collocation *human language*. For the L1-L2 direction of translation, the longest EKS was as long as 103595ms, and it was found before the translation of *odcisk jego łapy*, which was translated as a *footprint*. The shortest EKS in this direction was 66ms, and it was produced when translating *pamiątkowy certyfikat*, which the participant translated just as a *certificate*, omitting its first part, which can be translated as a *commemorative certificate*.

Inferential statistics was conducted to further verify the results. Since there was no normal distribution of the EKS variable, I conducted the nonparametric Wilcoxon test. The result of the test did not reach the level of statistical significance ($p= 0.545$). As the difference between the L1-L2 and L2-L1 EKS is statistically insignificant, it can be concluded that the L1-L2 translation direction did not require a higher cognitive effort measured in the form of EKS. Thus, the adopted hypothesis was not confirmed.

Because no statistical significance was found, I was interested in whether the results of the statistical test are different when all the EKS values, coming from all 350 translations of 14 collocations in both directions of translation, are included, regardless of the points assigned by the experts, or the moment when the participants typed the translation of collocations. Therefore, I decided to include all EKS values obtained during the experiment to verify the results. This time, the mean values also indicated higher cognitive effort operationalized by longer EKS in the L1-L2 direction of translation ($M= 6408.4\text{ms}$; $SD= 3529.3$) compared to the L2-L1 direction of translation ($M= 6188.9\text{ms}$; $SD= 3543.7$). The results of the Wilcoxon test were in line with the previously obtained results. Once again, no statistically significant difference was found ($p= 0.81$).

It can be observed that the hypothesis adopted in this study assuming that the participants will produce longer EKS in the L1-L2 direction of translation, indicating the increased cognitive effort cannot be confirmed. Although the mean values indicated longer EKS in the L1-L2 direction of translation and some differences could be observed between the histograms in Figure 1, the results did not reach the level of statistical significance. Even though the participants of this study were translation trainees who may be more prone to translation asymmetry (Kroll and Stewart 1994) and problems with L1-L2 translation, the results do not

confirm the view that working into L2 is always more cognitively demanding. It may also mean that the translation process in the L1-L2 direction depends highly on participants' individual preferences and abilities. Since this is the first study devoted to the analysis of the EKS in the context of directionality it is not possible to compare these results with the results from other studies discussing the same topic. However, it is possible to refer to studies discussing directionality based on other eye-tracking and keylogging variables. In line with the study by Whyatt (2019) and Ferreira et al. (2021), the differences between the L1-L2 and L2-L1 translation directions were minimal, and therefore, it cannot be unequivocally stated that working into a foreign language always results in a higher cognitive effort. As Whyatt (2019) and Ferreira et al. (2021) point out, individual differences between the participants may strongly influence such results.

The design of the study may also have some influence on the results. To ensure ecological validity and to avoid the so-called white coat effect, the participants were not informed that the collocations constitute points of interest. Their task was to translate the text they saw on the screen, as they usually do during translation classes or home assignments. Therefore, I am wondering whether the length of the source text and the context surrounding the collocations may cause any interference. While translating longer passages of texts, trainees may take a holistic approach, focusing on the whole text rather than on its parts. They have to remember about the target text coherence, register, and punctuation, and plan their target text ahead. As a result, possible differences between the two directions of translation may not directly translate into significant differences visible in smaller units of meaning, such as collocations. A solution to that may be limiting the context in which EKS is analyzed. This was successfully adopted, for example, in the study by Chmiel et al. (2020), who analyzed EVS and IVS based on single sentences where the points of interest in the form of cognates or non-cognates were placed. Placing points of interest in single sentences or shorter phrases may result in a more precise time-lag measurement, as it will allow participants to focus directly on the analyzed point.

7. Conclusions

This exploratory study aimed to analyze the influence of directionality on cognitive effort operationalized in the EKS, which was measured as a time lag between the last fixation on a collocation in a ST and the moment of typing its translation (Dragsted 2010). Although the mean values indicated that longer EKS are produced during the L1-L2 translation, the Wilcoxon test results did not reach the level of statistical significance. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that the L1-L2 translation direction is directly linked with a higher cognitive effort. It is worth mentioning that this was the first study analyzing EKS in the context of directionality; thus, considerable further investigation is still required. Firstly, its advantage lies in the very high precision of the obtained data. We can analyze very detailed millisecond results related to points of interest and go into detail about the influence of directionality on cognitive effort. Secondly, EKS can also be used to analyze different units of meaning in the context of directionality, such as idioms or metaphors. Thirdly, following the research design of some interpreting studies, EKS can be studied in reference to smaller units like single words or phrases rather than paragraphs or longer text. This may reduce the distracting effect of a surrounding context, making the results of the EKS measure even more precise. Therefore, the EKS values will not be distorted by other elements of the translation process, such as remembering the coherence of the target text and overcoming the interference of the preceding paragraphs. However, this idea is not devoid of obstacles. Reducing the target text length will disenable the analysis of global measures like the number of pauses and total gaze time. Finally, further investigation may also be related to testing whether EKS is a good predictor of other eye-tracking or keylogging measures of cognitive effort and directionality, such as average fixation duration and total gaze time. Linear regression analysis can be used for this purpose. Although the current study concentrates solely on EKS, preventing comparison with other measures, this topic warrants further investigation in subsequent research.

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Appendix

Polish collocations analyzed in the study:

świętować urodziny

przyjść na świat

stracić węch

być ślepym

przynosić komuś jedzenie

kogoś rozpiera energia

skupiać uwagę

zwierze lądowe

przybliżona data

branża turystyczna

huczne obchody

limitowana seria

pamiątkowy certyfikat

odcisk łapy

English collocations analyzed in the study:

- to provoke a reaction
- to make somebody curious
- to process information
- to analyze intonation
- to raise a question
- to respond correctly
- to develop understanding
- a good dog
- a high-pitched voice
- an acoustic information
- spoken words
- a brain region
- a human language
- a common ancestor

Mapping Saudi Institutions' Translation and Interpreting Research in the Web of Science and Scopus: A Bibliometrics Approach

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ABSTRACT

This bibliometric study examines the field of translation and interpreting (T&I) research in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) by using data from the Web of Science (WoS) (SSCI, SCI-E, AHCI) and Scopus databases. Our objective is to identify key trends in publications, citation patterns, collaborative networks, journal affiliations, historical developments, research domains and funding sources across 33 Saudi universities. In this study, we employed analytical tools such as Excel, CiteSpace and VOSviewer to process, analyse and visualise the data, adhering to strict selection criteria for the indexation of journals in WoS and Scopus and excluding predatory journals. Results indicate that KSA universities have made relatively limited contributions to WoS-indexed journals ($n = 37$) compared to Scopus-indexed journals ($n = 109$). A notable increase in published research output and collaboration occurred in 2022, particularly in WoS (11/37, 29.7%) and Scopus (30/109, 27.5%). Key contributors include King Saud University, King Abdulaziz University, Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University and Najran University. These findings emphasise the need for further research incentivisation, enhanced collaboration and securing research grants to advance T&I research in KSA.

KEYWORDS: translation, interpreting, bibliometric, Saudi Arabia, Web of Science, Scopus

1. Introduction

This bibliometric study examines translation and interpreting (T&I) research published in journals indexed in the Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus, focusing on the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). The selection of Saudi Arabia as the focal point is based on its active support for T&I, as reflected in initiatives such as the ‘establishment of translation training programmes’, research centres, state-funded projects and the creation of the ‘Literature, Publishing and Translation Commission¹’—all aimed at advancing T&I scholarship (Al-Amri, 2025: 286). Considering these efforts, documenting the research output of Saudi academic institutions, in internationally recognised journals indexed in WoS and Scopus, is crucial. These journals are known for their ‘high visibility and substantial impact’ (i.e. global reach, citation impact and scholarly influence) on university rankings (Alyami & Qassem, 2024: 14). There is however a noticeable gap in the existing literature, particularly in comprehensive bibliometric analyses of T&I research in the Saudi context. Whilst studies have been conducted (Al-Amri, 2025; Alangri, 2023), they focus on the King Fahd National Library, Scopus and the general index of WoS only. This current study however examines T&I research in KSA, incorporating the selective indexes of WoS (i.e. SSCI, SCI-E and A&HCI) and systematically excluding predatory journals from the data retrieved from Scopus.

This study addresses this gap by providing a systematic and visually enhanced analysis of T&I research affiliated to Saudi institutions. Specifically, the study maps the research output and impact of Saudi institutions in WoS- and Scopus-indexed journals, identifying key trends, thematic focuses and the alignment of Saudi research with global T&I academic trajectories. By placing Saudi contributions within the broader international landscape, this study emphasises the achievements of Saudi academic institutions and highlights their growing role in advancing T&I scholarship globally.

2. Literature Review

The bibliometric approach is defined as ‘a way of measuring and analysing scientific output, studying the evolution and trends of academic disciplines and evaluating scholarly communities’ (Doorslaer and Gambier, 2015:306). This approach involves the statistical

¹ <https://lpt.moc.gov.sa/en>

analysis of written documents, emphasising the productivity of authors, institutions and countries (Ellegaard & Wallin, 2015). Additionally, this approach visualises networks of journals, researchers, keywords and publications through co-citation, coupling and co-authorship, yielding clear and interpretable results (Alyami and Qassem, 2023). Since the 1970s, bibliometrics has become an accepted branch (Doorslaer and Gambier, 2015:306). A review of the existing literature shows that one of the earliest studies in translation and interpreting (T&I) research was conducted by Šajkevič (1992), who adopted a statistical analysis approach using data from the Index Translationum. The bibliometric approach, in its real sense, was introduced in translation studies through the work of Castro-Prieto and Olvera-Lobo (2007), who analysed nine academic journals related to translation studies and investigated a total of 1072 articles contributed by 750 scholars between 1967 and 2001. By contrast, from a quantitative perspective, Toury (2009) examined articles published in *Target* (an international journal of translation studies) during its first two decades. Toury analysed articles by major contributing nations, the geographical distribution of journal articles and the gender of contributing authors. He offered profound insights, substantially contributing to a socio-cultural comprehension of research activities within the field of translation studies.

Doorslaer and Gambier (2015) also analysed several aspects of academic publishing in translation studies, using information available in the online TSB database. They identified 20 prominent institutions that have generated a substantial volume of articles, including Autonoma Barcelona, KU Leuven, University of Granada, University of Montreal, University of Trieste and University of Ottawa, amongst others. Their findings revealed that certain regions, such as Europe and North America, demonstrate a higher concentration of research activity in T&I. According to the TSB, the journals with the highest number of articles in the field of translation studies include *Cadernos de Tradução*, *TTR*, *Chinese Translators Journal*, *The Translator*, *Perspectives* and *Target*. Furthermore, Dong and Chen (2015) investigated publication patterns and thematic areas within translation studies from 2000 to 2015. They employed bibliometric techniques and visualisation tools using the Web of Science (WoS) databases: Science Citation Index Expanded (SCI-E), Social Sciences Citation Index (SSCI) and Arts and Humanities Citation Index (AHCI). Their findings emphasised that the primary literature in translation studies mainly focuses on ‘linguistic theories’, ‘research methodology’, ‘theoretical models’, ‘interpreting’ and ‘new perspectives’ (Dong and Chen, 2015:1120) Additionally, they found that the United States led in article contributions, with

410 articles (18.5%), followed by England (269), Spain (206), China (149), Germany (109) and Australia (101), amongst others.

In the context of Saudi Arabia, studies documenting research articles published in journals indexed in WoS and Scopus are limited (Alangari, 2023; Al- Alkhatnai, 2021; Otaibi 2015; Alkhamis, 2012; Fatani, 2009). The earliest explorations of the Saudi translation industry were conducted by Fatani (2009) and Alkhamis (2012), who examined its evolution and sociological dimensions between 2009 and 2011. These foundational studies emphasised the early stages of professionalisation in the field, highlighting how translation began to gain recognition as a critical discipline in Saudi Arabia. They also investigated the societal implications of translation, offering a baseline understanding of the industry's role in bridging cultural and linguistic gaps.

Building on these early studies, Al-Otaibi (2015) assessed translation activities in Saudi Arabia from 2010 to 2015. Although this study did not explicitly focus on T&I research, it offered a broader perspective on the practical applications of translation across various sectors, including media, literature and government. Alkahtani (2021) examined the status of the Saudi translation industry in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. This study emphasised the integration of novel remote work modalities within the field, reflecting the global shift towards digitalisation and remote work. He also highlighted how the pandemic accelerated the adoption of digital tools and remote workflows in the translation industry, whilst also addressing the challenges and opportunities that emerged from this transformation. Alangari (2023) recently conducted a comprehensive bibliometric investigation of T&I research in Saudi Arabia over three decades (1990–2019). This study revealed a lack of research during the first two decades (1990–1999 and 2000–2009), followed by a substantial increase in scholarly output from 2010 to 2019, with a total of 111 studies identified. The analysis of Alangari used a dataset of 180 journal articles sourced from the King Fahad National Library, Scopus and Arabic secondary references, focusing on articles published by Saudi-based journals or authored by researchers affiliated with Saudi institutions. She found that '2010–2019 witnessed the sharpest increase of Saudi-affiliated journal articles in terms of publication count' (2023:6). One of the key findings of Alangari's study involved the prevalent emphasis on pedagogical inquiries within T&I research across all three phases (early years, academic advancements and industry progression). This emphasis on teaching and learning in T&I reflects the increasing importance of education and training in the development of the profession in Saudi Arabia. The increase in research output *Mutahar Qassem and Sultan AlThebi, Mapping Saudi Institutions' Translation and Interpreting Research in the Web of Science and Scopus: A Bibliometrics Approach, 128–161*

during the third phase (2010–2019) was attributed to the expansion of translation programmes at Saudi universities and the growing availability of scholarships for students to study abroad, providing opportunities for academic and professional growth.

This study aims to introduce new dimensions on the research activities in Saudi Arabia (referred to forthwith as KSA) focusing on published studies in top-quality international databases such as SSCI, SCI-E and AHCI within the WoS and Scopus, whilst excluding predatory journals and publishers based on Beal's List². This approach raises the question: 'Why are Scopus and WoS included in this bibliometric study?' Articles indexed in both databases indicate the increasing international recognition of scholars and their contributions to the field. The inclusion of Saudi T&I research in Scopus and WoS demonstrates that these studies have undergone a thorough evaluation process. Being indexed in these databases improves the visibility of research from Saudi Arabia universities, enabling scholars in KSA to share their findings with a global audience and promoting international collaboration and knowledge dissemination. Furthermore, indexed articles are more likely to be cited by researchers worldwide, which not only emphasises the influence of KSA T&I research but also fosters a culture of academic excellence and collaboration.

3. Research Questions

The present research work addresses the following questions:

1. Which university currently holds the distinction of having the most extensive publication record in the WoS database (SSCI, SCI-E and AHCI) and Scopus?
2. Which global and/or local institutions have collaborated with Saudi universities and research centres on T&I research?
3. Which academic journals indexed in the WoS and Scopus databases are the leading platforms for publishing T&I research from KSA?
4. Are there any critical transitions in the history of T&I research in KSA? If so, what are the turning points?
5. Based on input data sets, what are the major research areas in T&I studies in KSA?
6. Which Saudi institutions offer the highest number of funding grants for researchers in the field of T&I?

² <https://beallslslist.net/>

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4. Methodology

This study employed a bibliometric approach to examine the landscape of T&I studies within Saudi Arabian academia. Using quantitative and qualitative analyses of bibliographic data, the study provided a comprehensive understanding of research trends, impact and quality in the field. The authors collected a dataset of research publications on T&I studies from Saudi institutions, sourced from the WoS and Scopus databases to ensure the inclusion of relevant scholarly articles. Citation analysis was then conducted to evaluate the influence and importance of these contributions, assessing their academic impact based on citation frequency. Additionally, the study identified research trends within collaborative networks, offering insights into the dynamics that influence the field. The analysis also examined publication outlets and their role in scholarly recognition. Keyword and co-keyword analyses revealed dominant research themes, emphasising the primary focus areas within Saudi translation and interpreting studies. Furthermore, the study mapped the geographical distribution of collaborative research and identified international institutions partnering with Saudi universities and research centres, placing the research within a global context. Finally, temporal trends were analysed to track the evolution of research output and impact, identifying periods of growth and shifts in research priorities.

4.1 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

We applied specific inclusion and exclusion criteria to ensure a comprehensive search and collect data from the WoS and Scopus. The following key entry terms were used to extract relevant data: *translate*, *subtitle*, *interpret*, *translation* and *translations* across WoS and Scopus databases. Although the same criteria were applied to both databases, the data collection procedures varied slightly due to differences in their indexing systems and categorisation. The WoS provides a highly detailed index structure, categorising journals into '254 subject disciplines', such as Biochemistry & Molecular Biology, Economics and Linguistics (Singh, et al., 2021:5116). By contrast, Scopus utilises a broader classification system, with '334 subcategories' grouped under 'four major subject areas: Life Sciences, Social Sciences, Physical Sciences and Health Sciences' (Takahashi, et al., 2023 :3511). Additionally, whilst WoS focuses on highly selective citation indices such as 'SCIE', 'SSCI', 'A&HCI' and 'ESCI', Scopus offers broader coverage across disciplines (Singh, et al.,

2021:5115). This difference in indexing and categorisation between WoS and Scopus resulted in slight variations in the search procedures. However, the same criteria were maintained across both platforms to maintain consistency in the data collection process.

For the WoS, the search produced 1,359,785 results, spanning all years of interest (1919–2022). The authors then refined the results to include only *articles*, *review articles* and *early access publications*, yielding 1,187,940 results. Next, considering that the field of translation studies is interdisciplinary, the authors restricted the results to categories such as *linguistics*, *languages*, *sociology*, *literary criticism*, *educational*, *educational science* and *terminology*, which produced 175,491 results. Subsequently, the authors restricted the search to the following indices: *Social Science Citation Expanded*, *Arts and Humanities Citation Index* and *Science Citation Index Expanded*, resulting in 133,887 articles. A total of 620 results were obtained after narrowing the focus to Saudi Arabia. Confining the search to Saudi universities yielded only 581 results. Two ‘raters’ (researchers assigning ratings) filtered the results based on their relevance to T&I to ensure their reliability, identifying only 37 studies as relevant.

In this study, two rates were used to assess the data based on predefined criteria. Kappa statistics were calculated to evaluate the degree of agreement between the raters, with values ranging from –1 to 1. The inter-rater reliability, measured by Kappa, was 0.95, indicating strong agreement between the raters. This high level of inter-rater reliability emphasises the consistency and objectivity of the data analysis process, ensuring the validity of the study’s findings (Mellinger and Hanson, 2017).

A similar process was conducted for Scopus, using the same criteria with minimal differences in the categories. In Scopus, the social science category was selected, as most journals published in translation studies fall within this category. Applying these search parameters led to the initial identification of 2,661,712 articles. However, after application of the specified filters and exclusions, the search ultimately yielded 1201 articles that were closely aligned with the predefined criteria, ensuring a notably focused and relevant set of research articles for further exploration and analysis. These results were then filtered, excluding predatory journals and publishers in the Beal List of Predatory Journals and Publishers. A total of 109 articles remained after filtering. Kappa’s inter-rater reliability was calculated to assess agreement, yielding a value of 0.90.

Notably, journal articles were included in the analysis only if they met one of two categories: they were published in Saudi-based journals or authored by researchers affiliated with Saudi-based institutions. Articles without acknowledged affiliations were excluded. Additionally, book chapters, postgraduate dissertations, calls for papers and conference proceedings were excluded from the analysis because they were outside the scope of the study.

Regarding the language of the articles, all retrieved articles from journals that met the inclusion and exclusion criteria mentioned earlier were written in English, regardless of the region or the primary language of the journals. Additionally, few WoS- and Scopus-indexed journals publish articles in Arabic, and in Translation Studies. In this regard, Meddah (2023: 63) argues that "there is a problem with the lack of journals indexed in Scopus that adopt the Arabic language."

4.2 Software

Three software applications, namely, CiteSpace (Chen, 2006), VOSviewer and Excel, were used for data analysis, network visualisation and trend analysis. Data extracted from the WoS/SSCI (SSCI, SCI-E and AHCI) were in plain text format, whilst the data extracted from Scopus were in Research Information Systems and comma-separated value formats to ensure compatibility with the chosen software. CiteSpace was employed for citation analysis, whilst VOSviewer was preferred for visualising the relationships between authors and publication sources due to its clear node visualisation.

5. Results

This section is organised in accordance with the research questions. Considering the first question, the investigation focused on identifying the institutions with the most substantial contributions to translation and interpreting research in Saudi Arabia academia. This study found a relatively low number of articles associated with Saudi universities, with only 37 articles published since the beginning of WoS indexation from 1919 to 2022. In terms of the contributions by Saudi universities, *King Saud University*, *King Abdulaziz University*, *Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University* and *Najran University* have notably higher publication numbers in SSCI, SCI-E and AHCI, with 7, 5, 4 and 4 publications, respectively. In terms of citations, *King Saud University*, *Electronic Saudi University*, *Imam Mohammad Mutahar Qassem and Sultan AlThebi, Mapping Saudi Institutions' Translation and Interpreting Research in the Web of Science and Scopus: A Bibliometrics Approach, 128–161*

bin Saud University and *Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University* have received the highest numbers (Table 1 and Figure 1).

Table 1. Production and citations of articles in WoS

No.	Affiliations	Articles	Citations	Total Link of Strength
1.	King Saud University	7	62	0
2.	King Abdulaziz University	5	7 ³	0
3.	Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University	4	18	0
4.	Najran University	4	5	0
5.	Taif University	2	2	0
6.	Prince Sultan	2	0	0
7.	Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University	2	7	0
8.	Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University	2	14	0
9.	Umm Al Qura University	2	3	0
10.	Saudi Electronic University	2	26	0
11.	Qassim University	1	2	0
12.	Others	4	4	0
	Total	37	150	0

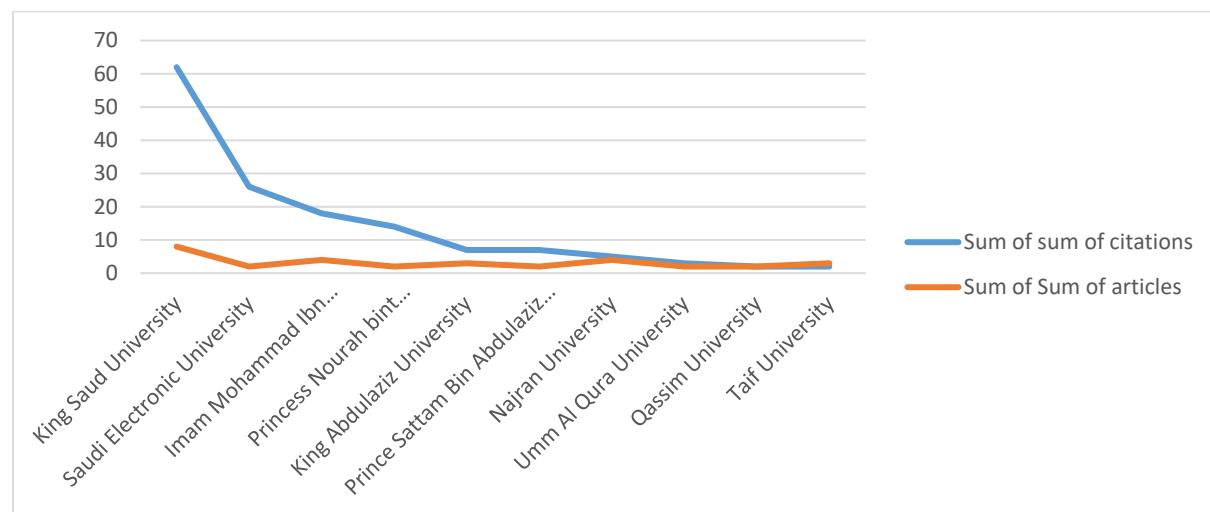


Figure 1. Number of articles and citations in the WoS

In Scopus, Saudi universities have contributed 109 articles, excluding those from predatory journals and publishers based on Beall's List of Predatory Journals and Publishers. Amongst these, *King Saud University* maintains its top ranking with 17 articles. *Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University* ranks second place with 16 articles, followed by *King Abdulaziz*

³Five citations shared with Imam Saudi University

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University and *Najran University*, each with 14 articles. In terms of citations, *King Abdulaziz University* leads with 169 citations, followed by *Saudi Electronic University* with 63 citations and *King Saud University* with 49 citations. Additional details are presented in Table 2 and Figures 2 and 3.

Table 2. Production and citations of articles in Scopus

No.	Organisation	Articles	Citations	Total link strength
1.	King Saud University	17	49	0
2.	Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University	16	14	0
3.	King Abdulaziz University	14	169	0
4.	Najran University	12	25	0
5.	Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University	11	25	0
6.	Qassim University	8	1	0
7.	Umm Al-Qura University	7	11	0
8.	King Khalid University	6	18	0
9.	University Of Tabuk	4	19	0
10.	Saudi Electronic University	3	63	0
Others			354	
Total		113	528	

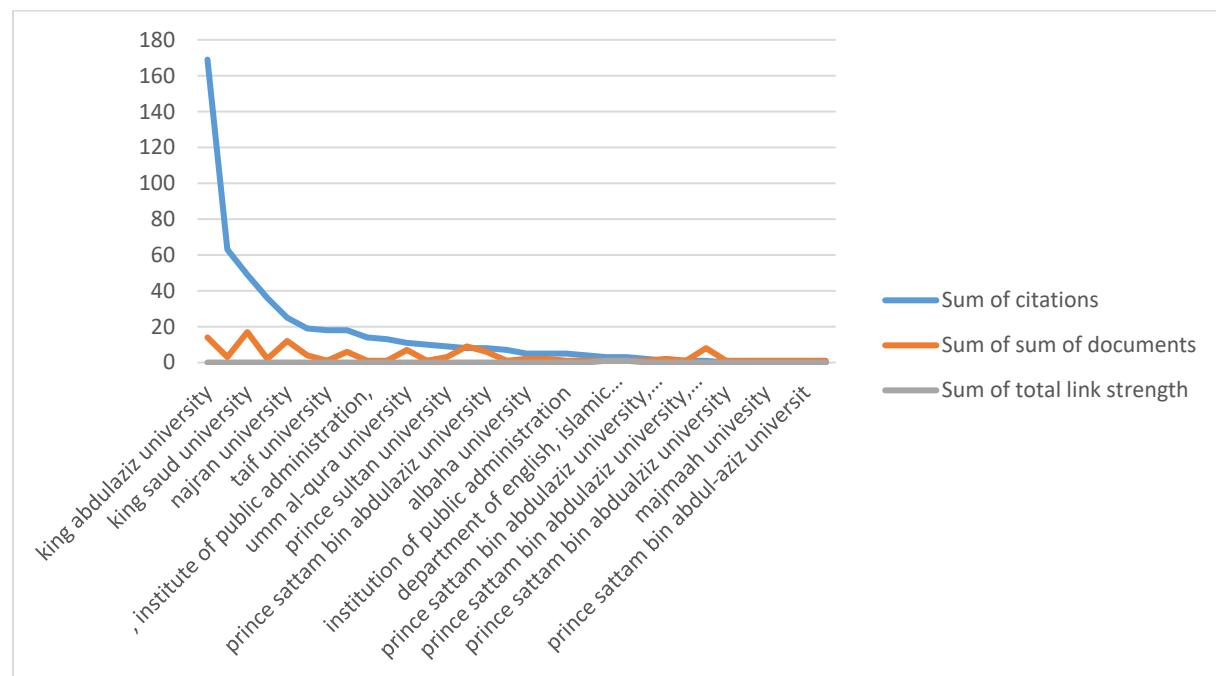


Figure 2. Production of articles and citations in Scopus

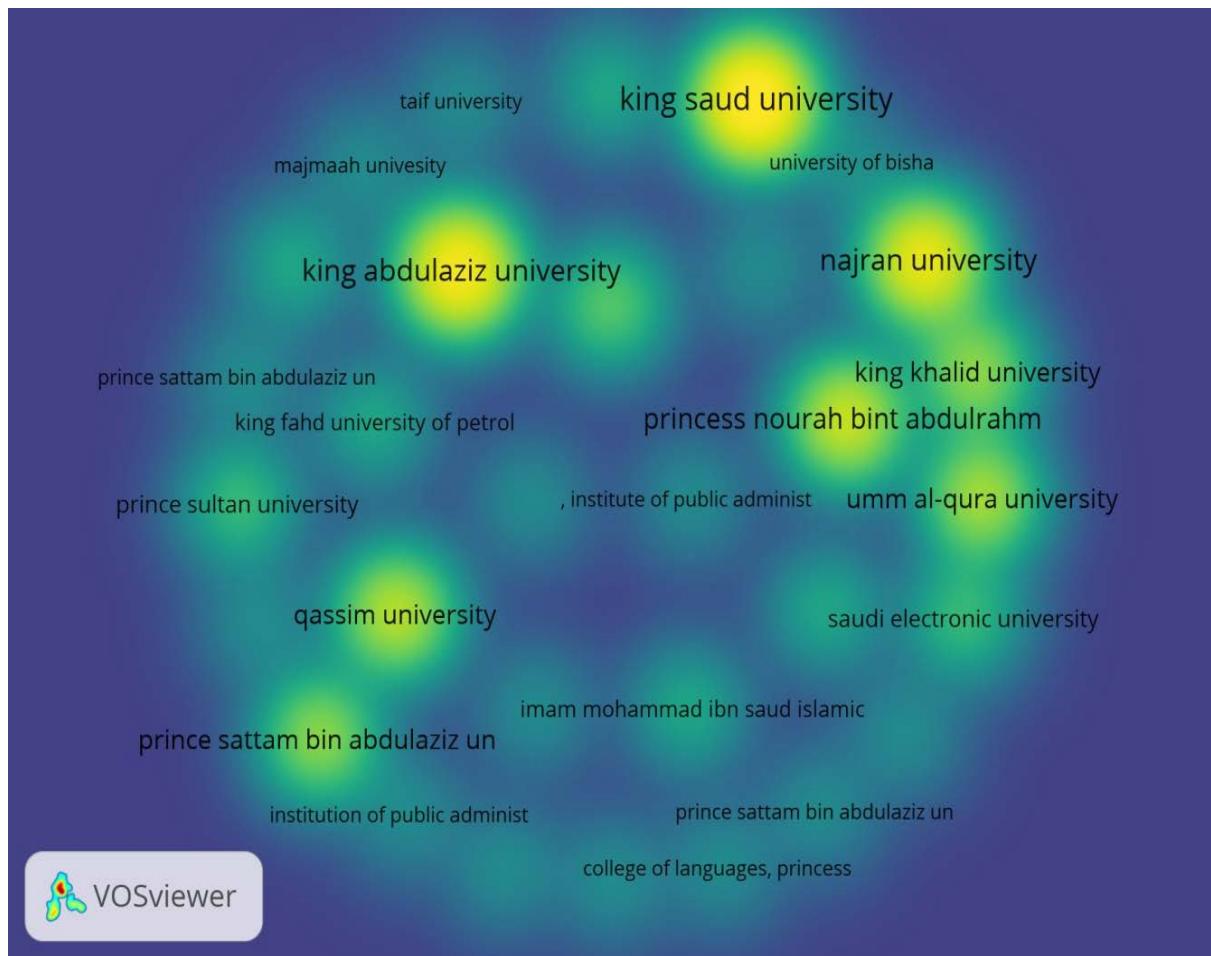


Figure 3. Production of articles in Scopus

The second question, *Which global and/or local institutions have engaged in collaborative research on T&I together with Saudi universities and research centres?*, addresses the collaborative efforts between Saudi universities and institutions locally and internationally. Saudi universities were found to have engaged in collaborative research with other universities in 18 of the 37 articles indexed in WoS. Hence, 48.6% of the articles produced by Saudi universities in this subject area involved partnerships with either local or international universities. Amongst these, *King Abdulaziz University* had the highest number of collaborative articles (4), followed by *King Saud University* and *Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University*, each with three articles (Table 3 and Figure 4 for details).

Table 3. Collaboration of Saudi universities with other universities (inside and outside KSA)

Saudi University	Order affiliation	Collaborated university	Articles
King Abdulaziz University	Second	Jordan University of Science & Technology, Jordan	1
	Second	Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University, KSA	1
	Third	Duke University, USA	1
	First	University of Leeds, UK	1
King Saud University	Second	Hashemite University, Jordan	2
	Third	Umm Al Qura University, KSA	1
Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University	First	Al-Azhar University, Egypt	2
	First	King Abdulaziz University, KSA	1
Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University	First	Mansoura University, Egypt	1
Taif University	First	University of Liverpool, UK	1
	Third	Kohat University of Science & Technology, Pakistan	1
Umm Al Qura University	Fourth	Kohat University of Science & Technology, Pakistan	1
	First	Prince Sultan University, King Saud University, KSA	1
Princess Nourah	Third	Shanmuga Arts, Science, Technology & Research Academy; Symbiosis International University, India	1
Prince Sultan University	Second	Shanghai International Studies University, China	1
	Second	Umm Al Qura University, KSA	1
Total			18

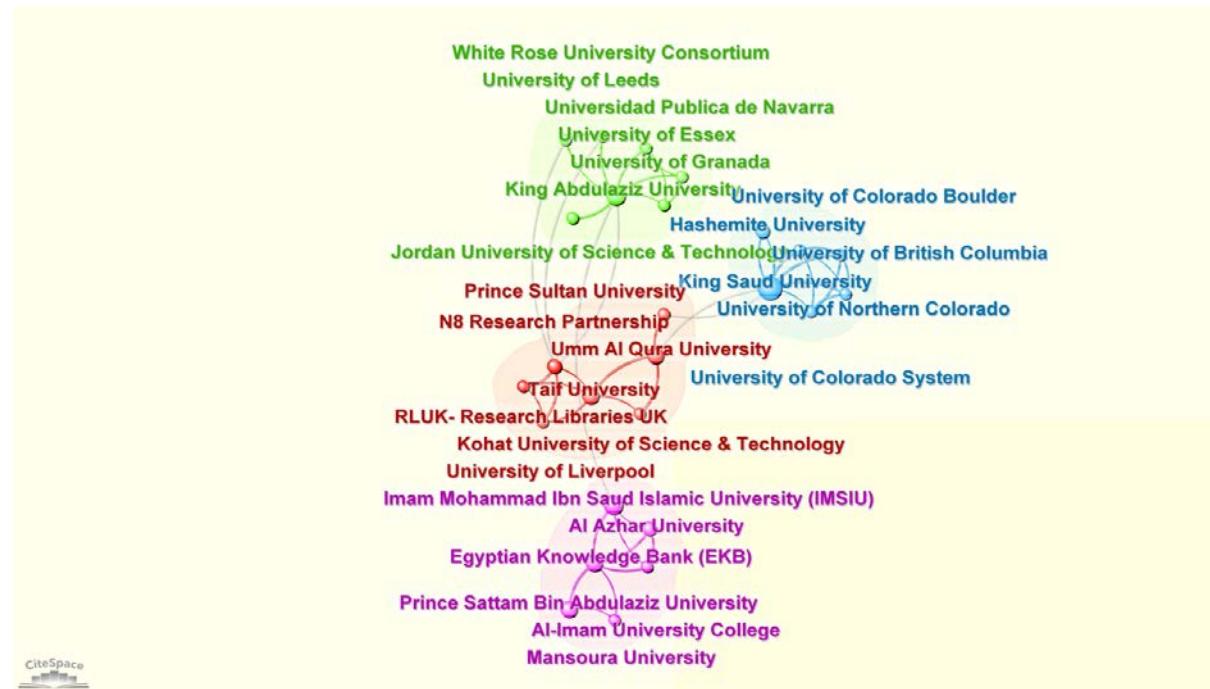


Figure 4. Collaboration with other universities

In Scopus, a notable finding is that a total of 30 articles written in collaboration with other universities, accounted for 27.5% of the entire body of work by KSA universities. *King Abdulaziz University* recorded the highest number (6). *Princess Noura bint Abdulrahman University* contributed 4, whilst *King Saud University* was involved in 3 (Table 4 and Fig. 5).

Table 4. Collaboration of KSA universities with universities, inside and outside of KSA (Scopus)

Saudi University	Order of affiliation	International University	No. of articles
King Abdulaziz University	Second	University of Zurich, Switzerland	2
	Fourth	Gomal University, University of Science and Technology, University of Swat, Pakistan	1
	Second	Duke University, USA Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Iran	1
	Second	Duke University, USA Shiraz University of Medical Sciences, Iran	1
	Second	Jordan University of Science and Technology, Jordan	1
King Saud University	Fourth	University of Michigan, USA King Salman Centre for Disability Research, KSA King Faisal Specialist Hospital and Research Centre, KSA Leiden University, Netherlands	1
	First	Université de la Manouba, Tunisia	1
	First	Hashemite University, Jordan	1
Princess Noura bint Abdulrahman	First	Mammeri University of Tizi Ouzou, Algeria	1
	Second	Queen Arwa University, Yemen	1
	First	Sousse University, Tunisia University Mohamed Boudiaf, M'sila, Algeria	1
	First	University of Algiers, Algeria	1
Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University	First	Al-Azhar University, Egypt	2
	First	King Abdulaziz University, KSA	1
Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University	First	New Valley University, Egypt	1
		Qassim University, Buraydah, KSA	1
	Second	Jahrom University, Iran	1
Saudi Electronic University	Second	University College of Bahrain, Bahrain	1
	First	Indian Institute of Technology, Banaras Hindu University, India	1
Umm Al Qura University	First	King Abdulaziz University, KSA	1
	First	Prince Sultan University, KSA King Saud University, KSA	1
Prince Sultan University	First	King Saud University, KSA	1
	Second	Shanghai International Studies University, Shanghai, China	1

		University of Sahiwal, Pakistan	
University of Tabuk	Second	Jerash University, Jordan	1
	Second	Xinyang Normal University, China	1
Qassim University	First	King Khalid University, Abha, KSA	1
Najran University	Second	Applied Science Private University, Jordan	1
University of Bisha	Second	Babasaheb Ambedkar Marathwada University, India	1
Total			30

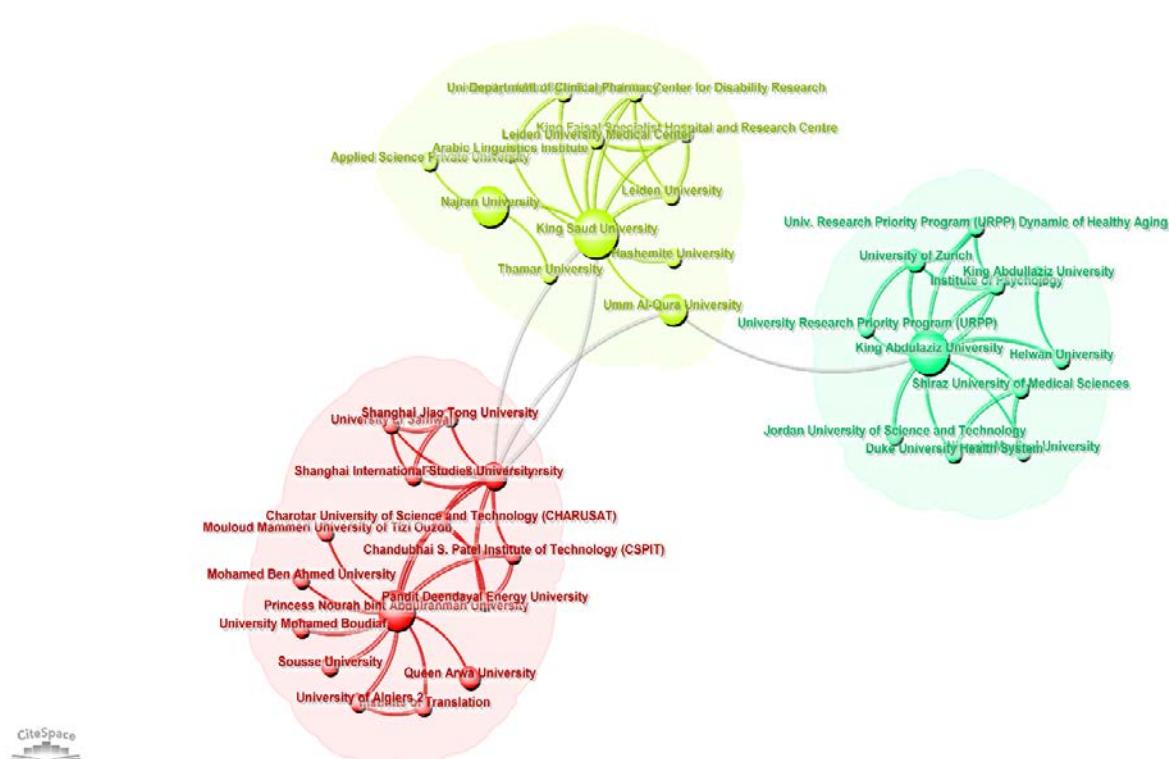


Figure 5. Collaboration between Saudi universities and other universities (Scopus)

The third question focuses on journals which published articles on T&I in Saudi Arabia. Table 5 and Figure 6 indicate a wide range of journals/ Translation-specialised journals, specifically *Babel*, *Meta*, *Perspectives*, *Translator*, *Across Languages and Cultures* and *Translator and Interpreter Trainer* attracted most articles, with *Babel*, *Meta* and *Interpreter and Translator Trainer* publishing five, three and two articles, respectively. Interdisciplinary journal *IEEE Access* published four articles and *Interactive Learning Environment* featured two articles.

Table 5. Distribution of articles amongst journals in WoS

Translation Specialised Journals	No. of articles	Other Journals (non-specialised)	No. of articles
Babel	5	Linguistics Journals	4
META	3	Computer &	10
Interpreter and Translator Trainer	2	Education	1
Translator	1	Culture	2
Across Languages and Cultures		Multidisciplinary	6
Perspectives-Studies in Translation	1	Total	23
Translation and Interpreting Studies	1		
Journal of Psycholinguistic Research	1		
Total	14		

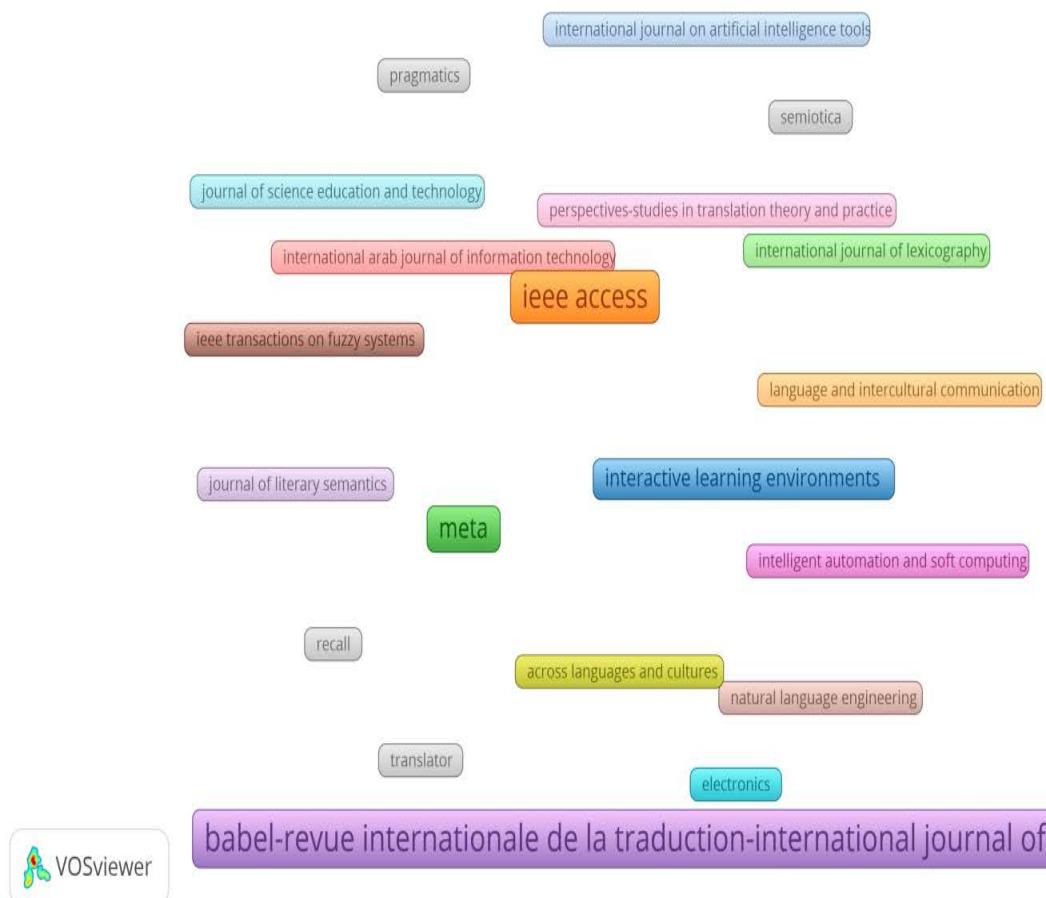


Figure 6. Distribution of articles amongst journals indexed in WoS

When reviewing the most prolific journals in Scopus based on article count, highlighting a distinct leader amongst the 71 journals studied is essential. *Babel*, which is the predominant *Mutahar Qassem and Sultan AlThebi, Mapping Saudi Institutions' Translation and Interpreting Research in the Web of Science and Scopus: A Bibliometrics Approach, 128–161*

journal in this context, has published a total of 12 articles. Figure 7 illustrates the notable volume of research contributions in *Babel* compared to other journals. However, *Babel* is not the only notable performer in this category. *Kervan* and the *International Journal for the Semiotics of Law* have demonstrated their impact, each featuring four articles (Table 6, below).

Table 6. Distribution of articles amongst journals (Scopus)

Translation Specialised Journals	No. of articles	Other Journals (non-specialised)	No. of articles
Babel	12	Linguistics Journals	31
META	3	Computer & Technology	17
Asia Pacific Translation and Intercultural Studies	3	Education	11
Interpreter and Translator Trainer	2	Multidisciplinary	12
Translator	1	Various topics	10
Across Languages and Cultures	1		
Perspectives-Studies in Translation	1		
Translation and Interpreting Studies	1		
SKASE Journal of Translation and Interpretation	1		
Translation and Interpreting	1		
Hikma	1		
Sendebär	1		
Total	28	Total	81
Grand Total			109

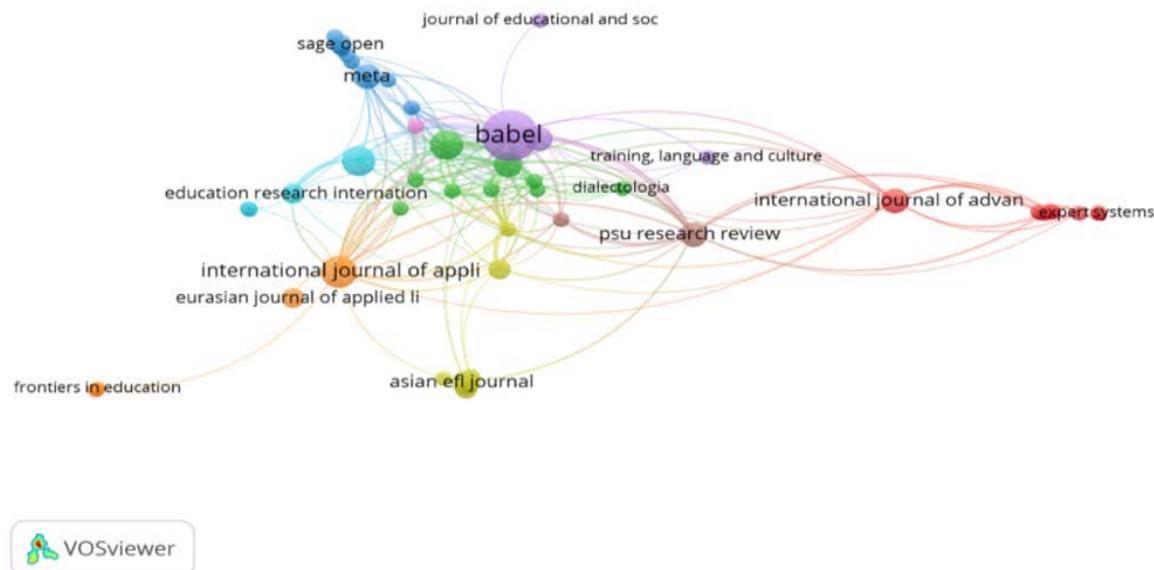


Figure 7. Distribution of articles amongst journals (Scopus)

Regarding the fourth research question, data analysis (table 7) presents a chronological overview of research articles entering the WoS database. The timeline commences in 1993, when the inaugural article was recorded in this scholarly repository. Notably, the number of articles added between 2005 and 2017 indicates a phase of gradual growth, characterised by a relatively low rate of article submissions, implying a period of limited scholarly activity within WoS (2–3). A key transformation occurred from 2018 to 2021, marking a notable upturn in the research landscape, with a development rating of 4. A discernible surge in the volume of articles entering the database was observed during this period, indicating an increasingly vibrant scholarly domain. However, the ensuing years, specifically from 2020 to 2021, witnessed a decline in article numbers (Reason why?). The remarkable turn of events in 2022 is of particular interest, revealing a substantial spike in the number of articles, reaching a total of 11. This surge indicates a potentially dynamic, evolving research environment in the field.

Considering Scopus, the timeline begins in 1999, when the first two scholarly articles were included in the repository. The production rate remained relatively low from 2000 to 2017, with outputs ranging from 1 to 5 articles. However, a noticeable increase in activity was

observed from 2018 to 2021, with the number of articles produced ranging from 10 to 19, followed by a slight decrease to 11. Remarkably, a substantial spike was found in 2022, reaching a total of 30 published articles.

Table 7. WoS and Scopus: publications across years

Web of Science		Scopus	
Publication Year	No. of articles	Publication Year	No. of articles
1993	1	1999	2
2005	1	2000	2
2007	1	2002	2
2011	2	2003	1
2012	1	2004	2
2013	2	2005	1
2014	1	2006	2
2015	1	2007	2
2017	3	2011	1
2018	4	2012	2
2019	4	2013	4
2020	2	2014	1
2021	3	2015	2
2022	11	2016	1
Total	37	2017	5
		2018	10
		2019	13
		2020	19
		2021	11
		2022	30
		Total	109

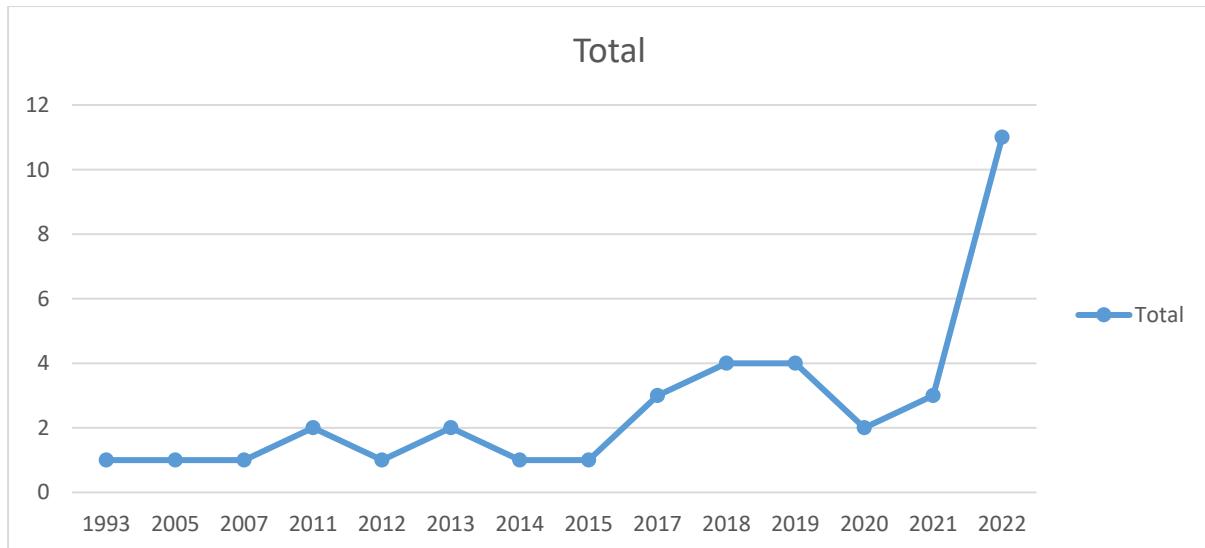


Figure 8. WoS: publications across years

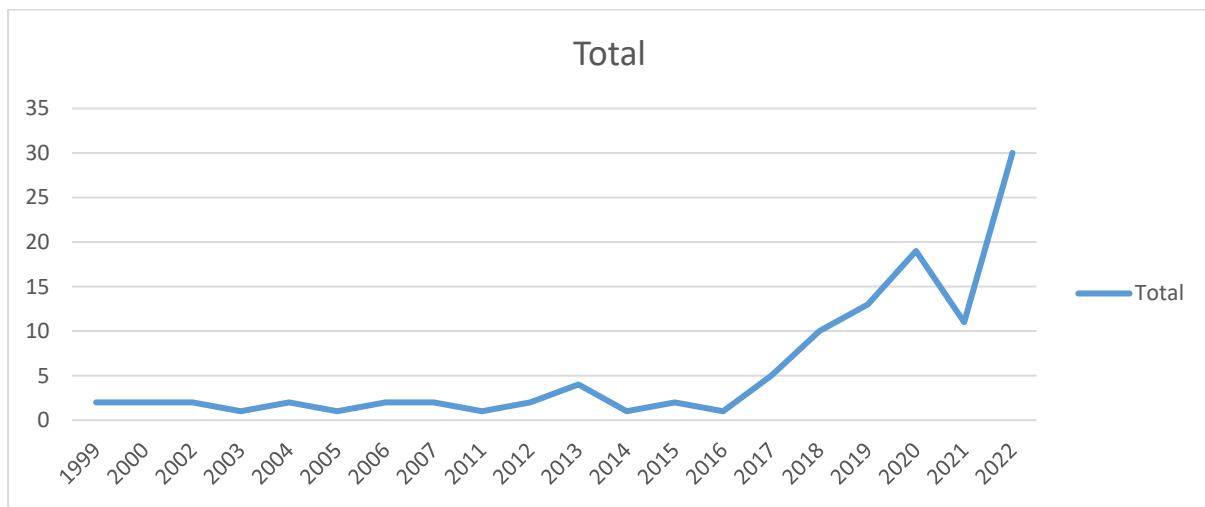


Figure 9. Scopus: publications across years

The fourth question, *Based on input datasets, what appear to be the major areas of research in T&I studies in Saudi Arabia?*, is divided into two sections: WoS and Scopus. The frequency of keywords in WoS offers valuable insights into the prevailing research trends within the field of translation and language studies. Data analysis of research articles in WoS revealed a total of 22 distinct keywords, collectively appearing 220 times across the selected publications. The keyword *English* leads the list, having been mentioned 22 times. The high frequency of references underscores the central importance of the English language in translation and language studies, reflecting its global prominence and the extensive body of research dedicated to improving translation practices involving this widely spoken language. Following closely is the term *translation*, demonstrating 17 mentions, which reaffirms its *Mutahar Qassem and Sultan AlThebi, Mapping Saudi Institutions' Translation and Interpreting Research in the Web of Science and Scopus: A Bibliometrics Approach, 128–161*

enduring importance within the field. Researchers continue to explore the intricacies of the translation process, making it a central theme in their investigations, whether related to literary translation, technical translation or other domains. The keyword *learners*, which appeared 14 times, highlights the growing emphasis on translator education and training. This trend is likely driven by the increasing demand for proficient translators. Researchers are focused on preparing the next generation of language professionals by equipping them with the necessary skills and knowledge. The word *collocations*, mentioned 13 times, also indicates another major area of research interest. The frequency of this keyword emphasises the pivotal role that collocations, or word combinations, play in language use and translation (cumbersome). The study of translating collocations has become a prolific research avenue within the larger field of translation. The term *translation quality* follows closely behind with 12 mentions, highlighting the importance of maintaining high-quality translations. In the contemporary landscape, where machine translation systems are increasingly used, this mention highlights the need to maintain high standards of excellence in human-generated translations. Closely aligned with the emphasis on learners, the term *translation competence* was mentioned 11 times, indicating a strong interest in skills and proficiency levels required of translators. Understanding these competencies is crucial for effective training but also for assessment within the profession.

Another recurring term, *congruency*, has 11 mentions. This keyword reflects an ongoing concern on ensuring the consistency and alignment of translated texts. Maintaining congruency is regarded as a fundamental aspect of effective translation practice. Like the general *collocations* keyword, *L2 collocations* is mentioned 11 times, indicating the continuous attention given to word combinations, particularly amongst non-native speakers of a language. The frequency (11) demonstrates the importance of examining how individuals acquire and apply these linguistic elements during communication using a second language. With 10 mentions, *Google Translate* emerges as a key term that (inaccurate), revealing the impact of machine translation on the field. The ubiquity of Google Translate and other machine translation tools is substantially impacting the translation landscape, forcing researchers to scrutinise their own performance and identify potential limitations. The fact that *corpus* is also mentioned 10 times indicates that corpus linguistics plays a key role in translation studies. Researchers rely on linguistic corpora to extract valuable data and insights, making it a critical tool in their investigations. Cited nine times, *machine translation* is a technology attracts the interest of researchers in translation studies. Researchers actively

engage in exploring the potentials and limitations of automated translation systems, given their increasing prevalence and impact. *Translog*, mentioned seven times, refers to a specific tool or software used in translation research. The frequency of this keyword indicates an increasing reliance on technology and specialised tools in the field of translation studies. The importance of education and (adequate preparation) (unclear) is reflected by the seven mentions of *translator training*, indicating that a concerted effort is being made to equip future professionals with the skills and knowledge to address the demands of the translation industry (Table 10 and Appendix 2).

Table 8. Distribution of keywords in WoS

No.	Keyword	Sum of total link strength	No. of occurrences
1.	English	22	9
2.	Translation	17	7
3.	Learners	14	3
4.	Collocations	13	3
5.	translation quality	12	3
6.	translation competence	11	2
7.	Congruency	11	2
8.	L2 collocations	11	2
9.	Google Translate	10	3
10.	Corpus	10	2
Others		89	46
Total		220	82

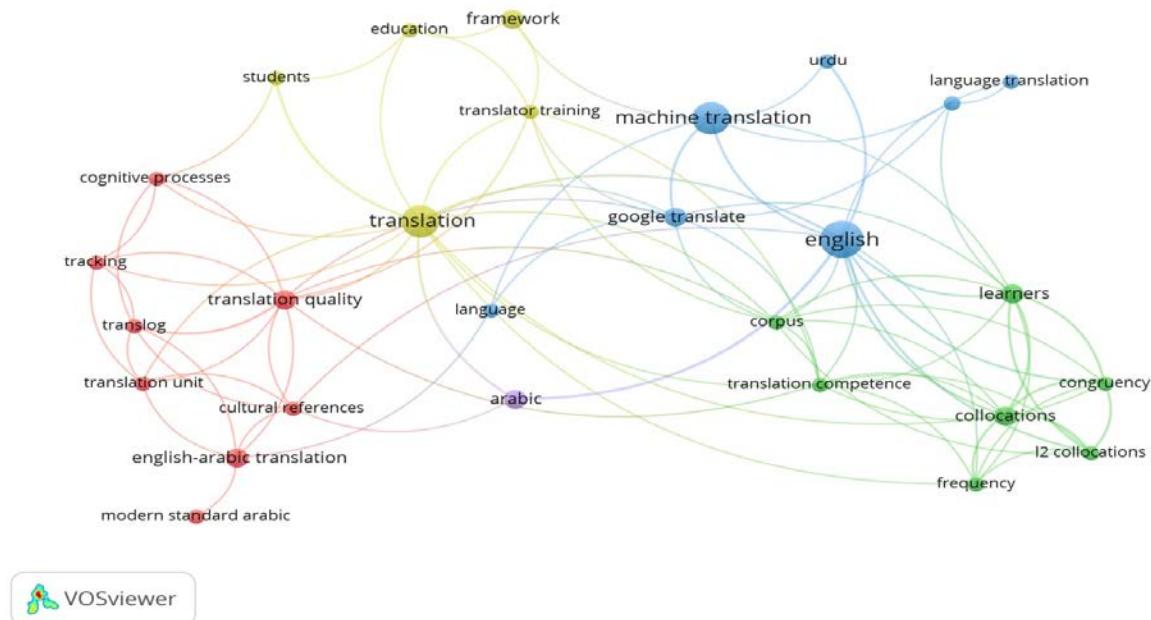


Figure 10. Frequency of keywords in WoS

In Scopus, 80 keywords were identified with a total of 1088 frequencies. This number provides valuable insights into the current research trends within the broad field of translation and language studies in Saudi Arabian academia. By examining the frequency of these keywords, and their total link strength, the strength of connections between keywords in research articles and a comprehensive understanding of the evolving research landscape can be obtained.

Leading the list with 28 mentions, *translation* remains a central and enduring topic in the field. The frequency of this keyword emphasises the ongoing interest in understanding and improving the intricate process of translation, indicating a substantial amount of research dedicated to unraveling the complexities of linguistic and cultural transfer. Following closely is *machine translation*, revealing 12 mentions. Although *machine translation* appears less frequently than *translation*, the total link strength of this keyword indicates a robust interest in this specific topic. This finding implies the growing influence of automated translation systems in the field, prompting extensive discussions and investigations into their performance and capabilities. The impact of technology on the profession is undeniable, and this keyword provides insights into the scholarly exploration of this impact. *English* has eight mentions, highlighting the prominence of this language in translation and language studies.

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and indicating a strong research focus on this subject. The global importance of this language and its status as the current international language make it a crucial area of research in the field.

The term *translation strategies*, also mentioned eight times, highlights its key role in the broader translation research field (avoid redundant and cumbersome wording often yielding some unusual/uncommon linguistic and syntactical associations in English). Although its frequency is notable, the total link strength indicates a specialised research area explaining the intricacies of strategy formulation and application in translation practice. The term *Arabic*, mentioned seven times, reveals a specific focus on translations involving the Arabic language. This finding indicates the cultural, contextual and linguistic importance of this keyword and its role in cross-linguistic communication. The inclusion of *Arabic* as a keyword emphasises the importance of understanding the challenges and nuances of translating to and from this language, particularly in the context of research conducted in Arabic speaking countries. *Computational linguistics*, appearing seven times, indicates the increasing reliance on technology in the field. This keyword reflects the intersection of language and technology, with its strong link implying a close association with various translation research areas. The synergy

between computational linguistics and translation is evident in its frequency and strong links. Furthermore, the six mentions of culture reflect an increasing recognition of the role culture plays in translation. Researchers are becoming increasingly aware of the need to produce translations that accurately convey cultural nuances embedded in language.

The strong link strength of culture emphasises its role as a crucial consideration in translation studies, highlighting the importance of cross-cultural understanding. Similarly, *machine translations*, also mentioned six times, is closely linked to discussions surrounding the role of technology in translation. The high link strength indicates active research into the performance and capabilities of machine translation systems, showing the commitment of researchers to improving the quality and effectiveness of this technology in the translation process. *Computer-aided language translation*, mentioned six times, reflects a growing interest in the application of technological aids for translation. The strong link strength underscores its importance as a research area, indicating that scholars are deeply engaged in investigating and utilising computer-assisted tools to facilitate the translation process. Similarly, *translation quality*, also mentioned six times, indicates the ongoing concern

amongst translators to maintain high-quality translations. The frequency of this keyword reflects the continuous effort to ensure that translated texts meet or exceed specific quality standards. The moderate link strength shows that researchers continue to discuss and address this critical aspect of translation studies.

Table 9. Distribution of keywords in Scopus

No.	Keyword	Sum of occurrences	Sum of total link strength
1.	translation	28	33
2.	machine translation	12	32
3.	English	8	18
4.	translation strategies	8	6
5.	Arabic	7	9
6.	computational linguistics	7	37
7.	culture	6	6
8.	machine translations	6	35
9.	computer-aided language translation	6	37
10.	translation quality	6	16
others		165	859
Total		259	1088

Regarding the sixth and final question, *Which organisation offers the most research grants for studies in the field of translation and interpreting?*, the results indicate that many article authors (26) did not receive any financial support. Notably, *Najran University* emerged as the top contributor, providing a total of four research grants. Additionally, nine other universities each offered one grant to support research in this field.

Table 10. Distribution of funding amongst Saudi institutions in WoS

No.	Funding Organisation	No. of Grants
1.	Najran University	4
2.	King Saud University	1
3.	Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University	1
4.	Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University	1
5.	Prince Sultan University, King Saud University	1
6.	Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University	1
7.	Taif University	1
8.	Dr Hamza Alkhولي Chair for Developing Medical Education in Saudi Arabia	1
No Funding		26
Total		37

Scopus data revealed a total of 25 funding grants provided by Saudi universities. *Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University* offered the highest number of research grants (five), followed by *Najran university* with four *King Saud University*, *King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals* and *Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University* each offered three grants.

Table 11. Research grants offered by Saudi institutions Scopus

Funding Institution	No. of research grants offered
Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University	5
Najran University	4
King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals	3
Prince Sattam bin Abdulaziz University	3
King Saud University	3
King Faisal University	2
King Abdulaziz University	1
Prince Sultan University	1
Majmaah University	1
Ministry of Culture	1
Saudi Basic Industries Corporation, SABIC	1
Total	25

6. Discussion

This study aimed to examine research publications, impact of citations, collaborative research efforts, scholarly journals, historical research trends, specific areas of investigation and sources of research funding in the T&I research field in Saudi Arabia, using a bibliometric approach.

The WoS database revealed that Saudi universities contributed only 37 articles in the field of translation. This relatively small number indicates that, according to this database, Saudi institutions have not produced as much research compared to what is observed in Scopus. However, databases similar in scope to WoS may not capture all the research from Saudi institutions; therefore, their actual output could be more extensive. The limited number of T&I journals indexed in SSCI, SCI_E and ESCI may also pose a challenge for researchers looking to publish in WoS. Franco Aixelá and Rovira-Esteve (2015) succinctly highlight a notable issue encountered by scholars in translation studies. They emphasise that researchers

are at a considerable disadvantage when encouraged to publish in WoS, given the limited number of WoS-indexed journals specifically dedicated to translation studies. They argue' When scholars are told they should publish in journals included in ISI databanks or similarly, it seems that TS authors are put at a huge disadvantage. TS-oriented ISI journals are scarce'(Franco Aixelá and Rovira-Esteva, 2015: 267).

In countries with a strong research output, such as the USA, T&I studies remain however relatively limited. Dong and Chen (2015) found that the USA produced the highest number of articles (410), accounting for 18.5% of translation studies. Other countries, including England (269), Spain (206), China (149), Germany (109) and Australia (101), also made notable contributions. Whilst these numbers represent meaningful contributions to the field, they also indicate that T&I research remains relatively limited on a global scale.

The data analysis revealed the distribution of publications across various Saudi institutions and their corresponding impact. *King Saud University* emerged as a prominent contributor, with seven articles indexed in SSCI, SCI-E and AHCI, followed by *King Abdulaziz University* and *Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University, Najran University*. In terms of research impact, *King Saud University* emerged as the most influential, with *Electronic Saudi University*, *Imam Mohammad bin Saud University* and *Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University* also making substantial contributions. Their remarkable impact can be attributed to collaborations with international institutions. The findings (overused) confirm that most of the research reported in their articles was conducted in collaboration with international universities. This level of collaboration facilitates the exchange of knowledge and the pooling of expertise, both of which enhance the quality and impact of research. Compared to other Saudi universities, *King Abdulaziz University* engages in a substantial level of collaboration, demonstrating a strong commitment to international partnerships and knowledge sharing. *King Saud University* and *Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University* also participate in collaborative research, reflecting their active involvement with global institutions in this field.

The findings focus on the journals that have published articles related to T&I within the Saudi Arabian context. A diverse range of journals was examined, each with a unique focus, demonstrating the multidisciplinary nature of the field, including *Interactive Learning Environments, Education and Information Technologies* and *ReCALL*, amongst others. Notably, specialised journals dedicated exclusively to T&I receive a higher volume of

submissions. Amongst them, *Babel*, *Kervan* and the *International Journal for the Semiotics of Law* stand out as prominent platforms for researchers in the field.

A timeline analysis presents a historical overview of research articles entering the WoS database. From 2005 to 2017, research activity demonstrated slow growth. However, a notable increase in the number of published articles was observed from 2018 to 2021, indicating heightened interest, funding opportunities or evolving research trends. A decline in article submissions is observed in 2020 and 2021, possibly due to disruptions caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. The most striking observation is the substantial increase in research output in 2022, indicating a renewed or heightened research interest.

An examination of keyword frequency in the WoS database shows prevalent research trends in translation and language studies. Keywords such as *English*, *translation*, *machine translation*, *learners* and *collocations* are frequently mentioned. These keywords emphasise the enduring importance of topics such as English language, translation processes and the impact of technology in translation. Additionally, terms such as *translation quality*, *translation competence* and *congruency* reflect concerns regarding the quality and proficiency of translations in traditional and technology-driven contexts. The frequency of these keywords in Scopus provides a rich and dynamic picture of the current research landscape in translation and language studies. In this field, the interests of researchers are diverse, ranging from traditional translation practices to the growing influence of machine translation and computational linguistics. Additionally, these keywords highlight the critical role of language, culture and technology in shaping the dynamic field of translation studies. The link strength data offers valuable insights into the depth and interconnectivity of these research areas, providing a comprehensive understanding of the field's current dynamics and trends. Researchers and practitioners can draw inspiration and guidance from these trends as they navigate the complex, ever-changing world of translation and language studies.

The last finding focuses on research funding in the field of T&I in Saudi Arabia. Notably, most articles are self-funded. Amongst the funded projects, based on the collected data, Najran University ranked first for research articles published in journals indexed in WoS. For Scopus-indexed journals, Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University ranked first ($n = 2$), followed by Najran University ($n = 4$), King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals ($n = 3$), Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University ($n = 3$), King Saud University ($n = 3$) and King Faisal University ($n = 2$). These figures highlight the limited number of funded research articles

published in SSCI, SCI-E and Scopus-indexed journals in T&I within the Saudi academic landscape from 1919 to 2022.

7. Conclusion

This study investigated the research landscape of T&I in Saudi Arabia academic sphere. The study offers a comprehensive view of this research field, covering research productivity, collaborative efforts, research impact, publication trends, historical growth, research interests and funding sources at Saudi universities. The results indicate that research outputs from Saudi institutions, particularly in the WoS database, are relatively limited compared to those in Scopus, indicating a pressing need for increased research activity in the field.

Citation analysis indicates that some universities, despite producing fewer articles, have realised substantial research impact, primarily due to international collaboration. The prevalence of collaborative research indicates a positive trend, fostering knowledge exchange and improving research quality and impact. Therefore, encouraging further collaborative efforts is advisable. The diverse array of journals, including specialised, interdisciplinary and educational outlets, is a crucial indicator of the multidisciplinary nature of the field. Hence, researchers should continue exploring various publication avenues to disseminate their work.

A historical overview of the evolution of T&I research in Saudi Arabia reveals fluctuations in research activity, with periods of gradual growth alternating with substantial upswings.

Understanding these trends can help researchers and institutions in strategic planning and adapting to the evolving research landscape. The availability of research grants from institutions fosters potential for growth. Thus, one recommendation is that other universities explore and provide additional funding opportunities to support T&I research.

Considering these findings, Saudi universities are recommended to increase research activity in the field of T&I, fostering a culture of research and collaboration. Institutions should focus on producing high-impact research, targeting journals indexed in WoS, especially those within the SSCI, SCI-E and AHCI. Researchers should consider a diversified publication strategy to ensure effective dissemination and reach a broader audience, prioritising specialised journals, followed by linguistic-based journals and then interdisciplinary and educational journals. Strategic planning will be essential for institutions to effectively navigate periods of growth and transformation in this evolving field.

Acknowledgement

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Appendices

Appendix 1: Distribution of keywords in Web of Science

No.	Keyword	Sum of total link strength	Sum of occurrences
1.	English	22	9
2.	Translation	17	7
3.	Learners	14	3
4.	collocations	13	3
5.	translation quality	12	3
6.	translation competence	11	2
7.	congruency	11	2
8.	l2 collocations	11	2
9.	google translate	10	3
10.	Corpus	10	2
11.	machine translation	9	7
12.	Frequency	8	2
13.	Translog	7	2
14.	translator training	7	2
15.	Arabic	6	3
16.	cultural references	6	2
17.	translation unit	6	2
18.	English Arabic translation	6	3
19.	cognitive processes	5	2
20.	Tracking	5	2
21.	machine learning	4	2
22.	Education	4	2
23.	Students	4	2
24.	Urdu	3	2
25.	Framework	3	3
26.	Language	3	2
27.	language translation	2	2
28.	modern standard Arabic	1	2
29.	decision-making	0	2
Grand Total		220	82

Appendix 2: Distribution of keywords in Scopus

No.	Keyword	Sum of occurrences	Sum of total link strength
1.	translation	28	33
2.	machine translation	12	32
3.	English	8	18
4.	translation strategies	8	6
5.	Arabic	7	9
6.	computational linguistics	7	37
7.	Culture	6	6
8.	machine translations	6	35
9.	computer aided language translation	6	37
10.	translation quality	6	16
11.	Article	4	45
12.	Language	4	35
13.	Human	4	45
14.	domestication	4	4
15.	natural language processing systems	4	22
16.	translation problems	4	4
17.	Humans	4	45
18.	image processing	3	29
19.	cognitive processes	3	6
20.	Male	3	37
21.	collocations	3	4
22.	sign language	3	9
23.	Adult	3	37
24.	controlled study	3	33
25.	translation studies	3	2
26.	English Arabic translation	3	6
27.	Female	3	37
28.	Urdu	3	10
29.	supervised learning	2	15
30.	translation unit	2	7
31.	translation adequacy	2	8
32.	human translation	2	3
33.	executive function	2	25
34.	cultural references	2	6
35.	terminology	2	2
36.	Arabic sign language	2	10
37.	Cognition	2	25
38.	interpretation	2	3
39.	semantics	2	14
40.	discourse analysis	2	1

41.	Speech	2	25
42.	learning algorithms	2	12
43.	surveys and questionnaires	2	20
44.	legal English	2	0
45.	training	2	2
46.	literary translation	2	0
47.	translation errors	2	4
48.	machine learning	2	11
49.	forecasting	2	9
50.	untranslatability	2	2
51.	Translog	2	6
52.	Arabic audiovisual translation	2	1
53.	Shakespeare	2	4
54.	Attitudes	2	5
55.	sign language recognition	2	5
56.	cat tools	2	3
57.	Students	2	5
58.	Meaning	2	4
59.	supervised machine learning	2	15
60.	multilingualism	2	25
61.	target language	2	6
62.	natural language processing	2	13
63.	the Qur'an	2	2
64.	equivalence	2	2
65.	adaptation	2	14
66.	near-synonyms	2	2
67.	translation competence	2	4
68.	physiology	2	25
69.	translation pedagogy	2	2
70.	publication	2	20
71.	Fluency	2	3
72.	questionnaire	2	20
73.	foreignisation	2	2
74.	Quran	2	3
75.	translations	2	20
76.	Revision	2	5
77.	covid-19	2	2
78.	Saudi Arabia	2	13
79.	academic discourse	2	2
80.	machine translation systems	2	12
Grand Total		259	1088

Appendix 3: List of Saudi Academic institutions in the WoS & Scopus

1. King Abdulaziz University
2. King Saud University
3. Taif University
4. King Fahd University of Petroleum Minerals
5. Prince Sattam Bin Abdulaziz University
6. Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University
7. Prince Sultan University
8. Imam Mohammad Ibn Saud Islamic University (IMSIU)
9. Umm Al Qura University
10. King Abdullah University of Science and Technology
11. Najran University
12. King Khalid University
13. Qassim University
14. Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University
15. Taibah University
16. Al Jouf University
17. King Faisal University
18. University Ha'il
19. University of Jeddah
20. azan University
21. King Faisal Specialist Hospital and Research Center
22. King Saud Bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences
23. Alfaaisal University
24. University of Bisha
25. University of Tabuk
26. Islamic University of Al Madinah
27. Prince Mohammad Bin Fahd University
28. Alfaaisal University
29. King Faisal University
30. Saudi Electronic University
31. Effat University
32. King Fahad Medical City
33. King Abdullah International Medical Research Center (KAIMRC)

**Book Review: *Translation and Race*, by Corine Tachtiris, London,
Routledge, 2024, 172pp. £36.00, ISBN 978-1-032-01813-3**

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Translation and Race, by Corine Tachtiris in 2024, is an innovative work that explores the intersection between the field of translation and critical race theory. The book aligns with Brent Hayes Edwards' *The Practice of Diaspora: Literature, Translation, and the Rise of Black Internationalism* (2003) and Kadish and Massardier-Kenney's *Translating Slavery: Gender and Race in French Women's Writing, 1783-1823* (1994). However, it fills a significant gap by addressing the underexplored role of race in translation studies in contrast with the extensive focus on gender, feminist, linguistic, and postcolonial approaches. Through five chapters, Tachtiris bridges translation and critical race theory to argue that the only way to achieve equity in the field is through a radical transformation of norms, institutions, and power dynamics. To support her argument, she examines how Whiteness shapes translation norms and critiques the deep structural barriers that Black translators face. Therefore, by exploring a variety of case studies, she works to develop a unique anti-racist approach to literary translation.

In the first chapter, “From Slavish Translation to Bridge Translation”, Tachtiris discusses how the metaphor of what is termed as “slavish” translation has been associated with literalism and a lack of creativity since its development during the transatlantic slave trade. During this period, she explains: “Europeans expected ... black translators and interpreters to produce ‘faithful’ literal translations, because racist ideas about imagination and intelligence supposed that was all they were capable of” (p.46). As a result, Black translators were limited to producing literal, faithful translations. However, they were distrusted for fidelity. When their

translations were deficient, they were “slavish”, and when they were good, they were suspect (p.51). Although it may seem that these practices have been abolished, they still exist today in the form of what Tachtiris terms “bridge translation” (p.35). ‘Bridge translation’ refers to what Tachtiris describes as the process of Black translators producing literal drafts for White writers who possess the skills and imagination necessary to refine them and transform them into literary, creative, artistic texts. (p.53-54). By detailing what she labels “slavish translation” and “bridge translation,” the author critiques Western White supremacist norms that reject literalism in translation since this rejection originates from a racialized framework that conflates fluency and creativity with Whiteness (*ibid*).

The second chapter, “Translation and Racial Capitalism”, opens with the author confirming how “authors of color” (p.62) have known more inclusion among international prize winners in recent years. Even though this increasing inclusion creates a belief of racial diversity and equality in the literary translation field, racial diversity in this context remains no more than an illusion since the White winners are overrepresented. Black translators face barriers that are more complicated and dynamic, including underrepresentation in publishing, hostile work environments, unequal pay, and limited opportunities. Thus, Black translators experience discrimination and inequality not only on the level of selection and participation in the prizes but also in getting access to the necessary resources to produce and publish their works in the first place. This is because racial capitalism permeates the field of literary translation. In addition, the chapter critiques the superficial diversity assumed in the English language translation market, where the works of “authors of color” (p.61-62) are often translated by White translators. According to Tachtiris, this cross-cultural practice raises critical questions about the transfer of these works: how can their authenticity, cultural identity, and cultural experiences be preserved during translation by a translator who does not share the same cultural background as the author? And how do power dynamics and racial biases influence the same process, knowing that it masks more profound systemic inequities? Tachtiris argues that these systemic inequities are reflected in structural barriers that include economic privilege and racialized perceptions of creativity that limit access to the profession for marginalized groups. To challenge them and achieve true racial justice in the field, Tachtiris advocates for deconstructing capitalist notions of intellectual property and reimagining translation as a collective anti-racist practice that stands on care and equity.

In the third chapter, “Beyond Racial Diversity: Identity Politics in Translation”, the author critiques how what she describes as “colorblind” approaches in translation perpetuate

Whiteness (p.109). She cites the example of the controversy over a White translator being hired to translate Amanda Gorman's poem "The Hill We Climb" from English to Dutch. Nevertheless, because of the uproar, all the White translators hired for the job quit as Black translators could reflect the lived experiences represented in the source text more accurately. Such incidents, according to the author, expose the systemic barriers that "translators of color" face (p.96, p. 101), which, as she notes by referencing Kimberlé Crenshaw's concept of intersectionality (p.119), are shaped by overlapping systems of oppression rather than by race alone. Drawing on the Combahee River Collective—a group of Black American radical feminists—from where the concept of identity originated, the writer argues that "identity politics in the context of translation ... can lead to coalitional solidarity in support of racial justice as opposed to a liberal humanist vision of social justice in the form of 'diversity' that reproduces the norms of white supremacy" (p.93). However, misinterpretations reduce it to divisive stands and opinions, while the purpose behind it is to challenge the systems of oppression. In this chapter, Tachtiris presents her central argument. She believes that superficial inclusion is insufficient. Instead, the field of literary translation requires "a fundamental shift in the institutions and practices of literary translation, not merely assimilation into existing structures and norms" (p.96). She also emphasizes redistributing social resources and power and being guided by and in solidarity with the marginalized. What calls for attention here is Tachtiris's advocacy not only for Black translators to gain power and agency in the field of translation but also their right to refuse to translate when translation represents cultural appropriation and commodification for them (p.111).

The fourth chapter of this book is titled "Translation in Critical Race Studies". It explores how translation shapes racial meaning and hegemonic norms through the dominance of Western languages, knowledge systems, and frameworks since "the 'periphery can supposedly only consume, not produce'" (p.120). Tachtiris highlights that translation imposed Western frameworks on indigenous languages and epistemologies. Even the term "race" itself is a challenge for translators between English and Mexican Spanish due to the difference in connotational meaning, not to mention racial categories and terminology. Despite this difference, the US English meaning was imposed, which is, according to the author, one example of the hegemony of English knowledge production and how local meanings can become obscured in/via translation by Western-centric ideas. The chapter ends with a subsection titled "Translating Blackness" that emphasizes the existence of a "décalage" in meaning across languages, illustrating how meanings are often reshaped during translation depending on

White-centric norms and instructions (p.129). Nevertheless, this chapter features the role that translators can play in proposing alternative frameworks that challenge fixed racial categories, expose gaps in meanings, and negotiate the tensions arising from them.

In the final chapter, “Translating Racism,” the author examines how the Western translation theory and practice have historically been rooted in White supremacist norms. These norms affect who translates, who profits, who produces knowledge about translation, how translation functions, and which texts and practices are valued, preserving racial inequities under the lie of race-neutral universalism. The second point Tachtiris addresses in the chapter is the hard decision translators should make between conveying the intent of the author and preserving the impact of the text. She argues that while translators often focus on the author’s purpose, which may obscure the racial impact of the text, translators should prioritize the cultural impact of racist language over the author’s intent, taking into consideration the cultural and historical contexts of racial terminology and determining the specific readers their translations address. In this context, Tachtiris embraces Khaironi Barokka’s noteworthy suggestion that the discussions between the translators and authors of the texts about the problematic terms and language be made public so that neither the translator nor the author is protected at the expense of the other. Translators, according to Tachtiris, have two options when translating a work: either to soften the language and remove all the traces of racist language, but this strategy risks what she calls a “whitewashing” of the text (p.151), or to retain and heighten racism, and this can highlight and critique systemic racism. She also recommends including paratextual notes that can help the readers engage with the historical and contextual significance of the cultural value of texts.

The book has several notable strengths. First, although it is a purely theoretical work, it is enriched with examples and case studies that make the reading experience more engaging and accessible. All the case studies mentioned in the book, including Amanda Gorman’s and Fanon’s translations, are contemporary and reflect the author’s extensive knowledge and scholarship in the field. Second, to support her argument, the author provides a deep analysis of the structural barriers that translators of color face. Tachtiris does not keep her analysis within the bounds of surface-level issues like underrepresentation in prizes and unequal pay. Instead, she delves into the root causes derived from capitalism and White centrism that restrict their access to equal resources, education, and even life experience. Finally, as a result of the deep analysis, the writer advocates for a radical transformation of translation practices and institutions, which presents a strong call to action and which does not necessarily have to start

big but with “small acts—like decisions about texts to translate or how to translate racist language” (p.156). This blend of theoretical depth and urgent call for systemic changes positions the work as a valuable contribution to the field.

Despite the book being groundbreaking in its critical scope and premise, it has some limitations. One key limitation is its oversimplification of racial dynamics by focusing only on Western-centric/Global North/USA contexts and on the Black-White dynamics manifest within such contexts, which has the effect of (unintentionally) marginalizing the experiences of other groups and regions. The inclusion of perspectives from different areas of the world, as well as the experiences of other marginalized racialized groups, would have enriched the analysis. In addition, while the title of the book implies that the focus is on translation in general, it focuses on the field of literary translation only. Other types of translation, such as technical, legal, and audiovisual translation, which are also influenced by racial/ized hierarchies, could have broadened and thus strengthened the book’s lines of argument. Lastly, although the book has a rich theoretical background, convincing critique, and an urgent call to action, the author does not put forward practical steps and guidelines for action. Similarly, there are no concrete strategies for translating racial terms, new translation practices, or transforming institutions, which reduces the book’s applicability for practicing translators.

Translation and Race is a thought-provoking work that serves as both a critique and a call for action in the field of literary translation. Tachtiris critiques the White-centric norms that configure the work of Black translators as less creative, the unfair concentration of capital in White hands, and the lack of opportunities offered to Black translators. She emphasizes that her call is not for mere inclusion and diversity, but for a radical reimagining of translation practices, institutions, and power grounded in solidarity, equity, and anti-racist anti-capitalist transformation. Despite the book’s potential limitations of geographical scope and practical applicability, its contribution to the field renders it a must-read for those seeking to improve the situation of literary translation and its race dynamics.

Book Review: *Translation and Interpreting in the Age of COVID-19*, edited by Kanglong Liu and Andrew K. F. Cheung, Singapore, Springer, 2022, 347pp., EUR 119.99 (paperback), ISBN 978-981-19-6679-8.

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The COVID-19 pandemic has led to a profound global social impact, its carry-over effects configuring what is a post-pandemic era. Various aspects of society have been reframed by this unprecedented crisis, including industrial development, education, media, and ways of conducting cultural exchange and communication. Playing a key role in facilitating cross-cultural interaction and global communication, translation and interpreting activities have undergone a vast change and are highly worth investigating. Against this backdrop, the edited volume *Translation and Interpreting in the Age of COVID-19* serves as a pioneering work in illuminating the challenges and the opportunities that the pandemic brought to translation and interpreting (T&I) as an industrial practice and as an area of research and teaching. This work examines the pandemic's multifaceted impact on T&I activities from three perspectives: one, reconceptualising translation, two, interpreting, and three, T&I teaching. Each scholar in this volume has explored diverse topics relating to these three perspectives, revealing as they do so, how the pandemic has transformed T&I practices, pedagogy, and research.

The volume sets off with Chapter 1, an introduction chapter by editors **Kanglong Liu** and **Andrew K. F. Cheung**. In this chapter, they provide a detailed overview of how COVID-19 is reshaping the T&I landscape. They acknowledge the difficulties and disruptions caused by the pandemic as well as the opportunities it has created, particularly in expediting technology integration into T&I activities. They provide a preview of the contributions which offer insights into T&I during the pandemic in diverse contexts.

In the first section, “Reconceptualising Translation in the Age of COVID-19”, **Yufeng Liu and Dechao Li** in Chapter 2 reveal substantial differences between two news outlets, one from China and one in the UK, in their use of conceptual metaphors, framing strategies and attitudinal graduation, which are especially prominent in the narratives concerning the COVID control measures implemented by China and US. The findings reveal the deep-seated ideologies and cultural narratives that can be observed in the translation process. This chapter thus illuminates how language reflects and influences public perception during a global crisis. Through meticulous analysis of both the top-down (government-led) and bottom-up (individual and small business) translation materials, **Chonglong Gu**’s study in Chapter 3 then underlines the significance of providing accurate and accessible multilingual resources by translation and multilingual text production for ethnically and culturally diverse multilingual communities at times of public health crises. This work reflects a broader understanding of translation not just as a linguistic exercise but as a crucial public service that can save lives in a pandemic context. In Chapter 4, **Yu Kit Cheung**’s analysis of the UK Government’s Chinese translations reveals significant deviations from standard Chinese usage, hampering effective communication. As they explain, until early 2022, translations were primarily available in simplified Chinese, overlooking traditional Chinese versions. This limitation particularly affected the notable Cantonese-speaking community, restricting their access to crucial pandemic information. These findings are a reminder of the complexities in translation work, particularly in a multicultural and multilingual context. The focus of Chapter 5 is technological advancements in which **Sai Cheong Siu** investigates the performance of COVID-19 MT Evaluator, a platform that can assess machine-translated epidemic-related information. By enabling quick assessments of machine translation (MT) performance, the author argues that the platform facilitates the rapid dissemination of reliable, translated health information. This research sheds light on the potential for MT to augment human efforts in critical times and the importance of embracing technology in emergency response scenarios.

In the second section, “Reconceptualising Interpreting in the Age of COVID-19”,

Andrew K. F. Cheung presents, in Chapter 6, a meticulous study on remote simultaneous interpreting (RSI) between English and Chinese, comparing the quality of interpretation by professionals (from mainland China) working from a hub versus those working from home. The study shows that hub-based interpreters perform better and experience less cognitive strain, particularly with numbers, due to superior equipment and strategies. It shows that the broader adaptation to remote work imposes significant ergonomic and cognitive demands on the interpreting profession. The section continues with Chapter 7, in which **Marta Buján and Camille Collard** present a survey of responses of 849 interpreters from 19 countries regarding their perceptions and coping mechanisms related to Repetitive Strain Injury (RSI) during COVID-19. Generally acknowledging RSI's challenges, interpreters adapted to RSI through practices like shorter work periods and improved handovers. Private sector interpreters showed greater acceptance of RSI than institutional interpreters. The study recognizes RSI's rise as part of a larger technological integration trend in response to global disruptions. In Chapter 8, **Marie Diur and Lucía Ruiz Rosendo** examine the significant impact of COVID-19 on the working and testing procedures of conference interpreting at the United Nations. They demonstrate, using archival analysis and personal experience, how the pandemic hastened the shift to remote interpreting and necessitated the implementation of online testing for hiring new interpreters. Their analysis offers a detailed perspective on the evolving challenges and adjustments faced by interpreters and trainers within international organizations during the pandemic. **Lucía Ruiz Rosendo and Maura Radicioni**'s paper on humanitarian interpreting in Chapter brings a different angle. The authors provide foundational information on the concept of humanitarian interpreting, positioning it within the larger context of crisis translation. By examining the pandemic's impact on humanitarian aid delivery and homing in on the specific realm of humanitarian interpreting, they explore the multifaceted challenges faced by humanitarian organizations and their interpreters, who are tasked with navigating complex multilingual and multicultural communication demands in the pandemic's wake. In Chapter 10, **Márta Seresi and Petra Lea Láncos** draw on semi-structured interviews to explore how

interpreters interact and collaborate via RSI platforms. Their research reveals that many interpreters avoid collaboration due to difficult handovers and limited ability to support active colleagues, though some have developed workaround strategies. The study highlights how RSI complicates the collaborative nature of conference interpreting, affecting performance and job satisfaction. In Chapter 11, **Deborah Giustini** uses a sociological lens rooted in practice theory to analyse how technological integration has transformed remote interpreting during COVID-19. Drawing on industry reports and surveys, the study highlights issues like interpreter de-skilling, reduced visibility, shifting stakeholder dynamics, and the dual effects of technology on teamwork—both uniting and fragmenting coordination. The research underscores new challenges in the field and calls for a re-evaluation of how technology mediates and shapes communication in professional interpreting.

In the third section, “Translation and Interpreting Teaching in the Age of COVID-19”, **Kanglong Liu, Ho Ling Kwok, and Wenjing Li** in Chapter 12 examine student perspectives on hybrid teaching for translation instruction, blending face-to-face and online participation during COVID-19. Surveys and interviews reveal that despite some technical challenges, students found more benefits than drawbacks in this flexible mode. The study highlights the need for adaptable teaching approaches during the pandemic and reassures that students appreciate the value of hybrid learning. For Chapter 13, **Nancy Tsai and Damien Fan** emphasize the cultural specificity of online teaching’s educational benefits, framed by the 4Cs—immediacy, privacy, intimacy, and democracy. They argue that online education departs from traditional, Confucian-influenced Chinese classrooms, fostering a more engaging and egalitarian environment. Highlighting the importance of “social presence”, their study underscores a shift toward inclusive, multimodal learning and contributes to the broader discourse on innovative pedagogical methods. Chapter 14 reveals how **Soňa Hodáková and Emília Perez** analyse the shift to remote T&I education at Slovak universities during COVID-19, examining students’ and teachers’ perspectives. Their study uses mixed methods at two points in time to provide a longitudinal view of evolving challenges and solutions. This approach sheds light on

immediate crisis responses and the adaptation trajectory, offering valuable insights to inform long-term educational strategies. Similarly, through focus groups, **David B. Sawyer** in Chapter 15 examines students' and instructors' attitudes toward traditional and online teaching at a university in the US. The study reveals that both groups have developed a more favourable view of online teaching and support maintaining an online component post-pandemic. Despite challenges, they value the increased flexibility and convenience, reflecting a shift in pedagogical priorities toward adaptability and enhanced learner convenience in the curriculum. In Chapter 16, **Chen-En Ho and Yuan Zou** investigate the effectiveness of the proximity-based platform Gather in overcoming obstacles in remote interpreter education by comparing students' perceptions on Gather, Microsoft Teams, and traditional face-to-face instruction. Findings indicate that most participants favour Gather, which effectively narrows the gap between remote and in-person learning. This study addresses the pressing need for robust virtual learning environments in interpreter training and thus suggests that platforms simulating physical presence can significantly enhance the online educational experience. For Chapter 17, the final chapter in this volume, **Nan Zhao** examines the role of computer-assisted interpreting (CAI) technology during COVID-19, categorizing it into remote interpreting, training tools, pre-task, and in-task tools, with a focus on automatic speech recognition. The paper reviews two decades of CAI development, recent advancements, and real-world applications. Highlighting the impact of AI and machine learning, Zhao demonstrates how CAI supports interpreters from preparation to execution, emphasizing its significance in interpreting, particularly during global crises.

By tackling a wide range of pressing issues, the edited volume makes a timely and significant contribution to T&I studies. Notably, the work highlights the critical role of T&I in crisis communication and risk reduction ensuring that language does not hinder the delivery of accurate information across diverse communities—a cornerstone of social equity (Federici & O'Brien, 2020). This perspective underscores the indispensable function of T&I in mitigating linguistic barriers during global crises. The volume also explores media translation's ideological nuances, pandemic-induced changes in

practitioners' working conditions and social standing, and transformations in T&I education. Specifically, it recontextualizes established research areas within the global crisis, ranging from how translators and journalists shape event representation (e.g., Valdeón, 2020) to the sociological, cognitive, ergonomic, and pedagogical implications of accelerated T&I automation (e.g., Vieira, 2018). The discussions in this volume reveal rich interdisciplinary connections of T&I with broader fields during a global crisis (e.g., O'Brien, 2013). Moving beyond mere description, the volume's meticulous analysis probes these intersecting challenges of crisis communication, technological adaptation, and pedagogical transformation, offering valuable insights and potential solutions.

Moreover, technological advancements are fundamentally reshaping translators' cognitive activity, social relations, and professional standing (Pym, 2011). The volume captures how the pandemic has catalysed technology integration in T&I practices. Through comprehensive platform evaluations and authentic user experiences, the technological discourse provides valuable insights for practitioners and researchers navigating the evolving landscape of T&I.

Methodologically, the volume showcases a rich diversity of research approaches, ranging from quantitative analysis and qualitative assessments to conceptual analyses. This methodological variety not only broadens the volume's scope but also reinforces the reliability of its findings and recommendations. In addition, the volume's insights gain broader applicability through the diversity of the global contexts it examines, including specific case studies from countries like the UK, the US, Slovakia, China, and others, as well as the role of international organizations like the United Nations. This wide-ranging perspective allows for a comprehensive understanding of the pandemic's impact on T&I practices in different cultural and linguistic settings.

The volume adeptly documents the T&I community's resilience and adaptability during a pivotal historical juncture. Nonetheless, it is evident that certain topics are worth more in-depth exploration. For instance, the long-term viability and efficiency of remote interpreting and online T&I training merit continued inquiry into their sustainability. Future research could also explore best practices for technological integration, assess its

efficacy across different educational and professional contexts, compare long-term learning outcomes with traditional methods, and conduct thorough and rigorous testing on these technologies to gauge their impact on T&I quality and efficiency. Moreover, the volume sparks a keen interest in researching T&I in crisis settings and among marginalised groups, suggesting a ripe area for academic inquiry and practical innovation. All these aspects provide imperative implications for the future trajectory of the field.

Overall, drawing on its comprehensive scope and incisive analysis, the compilation successfully captures the multifaceted challenges and opportunities presented by the pandemic. More importantly, it illuminates the trajectory of T&I in the post-pandemic era, which makes it an invaluable guidepost for navigating future challenges. Its in-depth analysis, practical relevance, and forward-thinking approach establish it as a cornerstone resource for anyone engaged with the T&I field, from the classroom to the field, during the COVID-19 era and beyond.

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Book Review: *New Advances in Translation Technology: Applications and Pedagogy*, by Yuhong Peng, Huihui Huang and Defeng Li, Singapore, Springer Nature, 2024, 279 pp., \$109.99, ISBN: 9789819729586 (ebk), 9789819729579 (hbk)

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The rapid pace of technological advancement has significantly increased demands on translators (Samuelsson-Brown 2010) and with that on translation educators. In the third decade of the 21st century, translation technology has “globalized and instantized” translation (Chan 2023: xxxi). This statement is even more relevant with the transformative rise of AI, which has fundamentally reshaped the translation landscape and the interplay between translators, translation, and technology. The emergence of ChatGPT exemplifies this shift and intensifies concerns around “automation anxiety” (Vieira 2020:1) while underscoring the pressing need to integrate generative AI and relevant technologies into Translation Studies systematically. This integration is critical to understanding the professional, practical, and pedagogical transformations new technologies have triggered. In this context, *New Advances in Translation Technology: Applications and Pedagogy* provides a timely exploration of cutting-edge translation technologies and their pedagogical potential. Published by Springer Nature and edited by Yuhong Peng, Huihui Huang, and Defeng Li, the volume contains 12 chapters organized in two parts offering “a holistic overview of translation technologies” (p.1), focusing on both practical applications and their educational impact.

Part 1 (Chapters 1 to 7) charts the rise of translation technology and its role in the “digital revolution” in translation. In Chapter 1, Burcin Kagan Mustafa situates early Machine Translation (MT) endeavors within a broader socio-cultural context, exploring the ideological

drivers behind its early developments in the U.S. The author places particular emphasis on the Georgetown experiment during the Cold War, presenting MT as a power-projection tool motivated more by ideology than technology. The chapter also connects MT's cultural representation to post-9/11 control measures. Chapter 2 delves into the transformative impact of neural machine translation (NMT) and large language models (LLMs), analyzing deep learning techniques like the Transformer model. Sai Cheong Siu provides a thorough analysis of the capabilities and deficiencies of these technologies in the translation field, offering practical guidance to educators and technology developers for integrating AI in educational contexts.

Cloud-based technologies, which have profoundly revolutionized the dynamics of audiovisual translation (AVT), particularly in media localization and subtitling, are delineated in Chapters 3 and 4. In Chapter 3, Alejandro Bolaños García-Escribano examines how major media producer leverage a network of actors interconnected through cloud-based technology, referred to as cloud-based ecosystems, to distribute tasks among translation service providers. The author highlights the growing dominance, flexibility, and collaborative networks fostered by these tools, underscoring their potential for teaching media localization, subtitling, and revoicing. Chapter 4 delves into the revolutionary impact of cloud-based environments on traditional subtitling workflows, highlighting the shift towards virtual collaboration across global teams. Annalisa Sandrelli examines the integration of automatic speech recognition (ASR) and MT tools into automation in subtitling, which has given rise to new professional roles. Drawing on two pilot projects at University of the International Studies of Rome (UNINT), Sandrelli compares automation levels in subtitling workflows, emphasizing the importance of human involvement and cross-disciplinary collaboration.

Chapter 5 reviews a decade of structural changes in the language industry. Roser Sánchez-Castany underscores the essential technological skills expected of professionals in today's rapidly evolving field through a comprehensive review and thematic analysis of publications from key industry stakeholders. The findings highlight the increasing demand for advanced technological competencies while also acknowledging the uncertainty of the industry's future amid ongoing innovations. In Chapter 6, Nune Ayvazyan, Ester Torres-Simón, and Anthony Pym explore the impact of automated language processing, especially NMT and GPT-based models, on redefining translators' skill sets, and identifying areas where human expertise

surpasses automation. Drawing on the U.S. O*Net database, a key source of occupational information, the authors identify skills vulnerable to automation and offer recommendations for translator training, emphasizing spoken communication, trust-building, and strategic integration of automation into workflows. Chapter 7 shifts attention to the pivotal role of terminology in specialized translation, with Els Lefever and Ayla Rigouts Terryn offering an in-depth analysis of computational terminology. The authors start by defining the concept of terminology and its significance, then comprehensively examine the processes of automatic terminology extraction, addressing both monolingual and multilingual approaches. They explore automatic terminology extraction methods and how NMT systems manage terminological challenges through domain adaptation and terminology injection, providing a practical overview of key tools, both commercial and open source.

Part 2 (Chapters 8 to 12) focuses on pedagogy and student feedback on translation technology. In Chapter 8, Lynne Bowker offers her insights with a communicative twist. She discusses the importance of plain language writing and NMT in professional communication. By comparing two types of guidelines—plain language guidelines and guidelines for writing for machine translation—she illustrates how they can be harmonized into a unified set of best practices, which is equally operable for both readers and NMT systems. She also emphasizes integrating plain language training into translation curricula to enhance students' digital literacy. In Chapter 9, Gloria Corpas Pastor and Marta Alcaide-Martínez explore gamification in translation training, presenting a pioneering corpus-based gamification method to help students master AI-related terminology. Their pilot study at the University of Malaga highlights the innovative potential of this approach in addressing the demand for skilled translators. Introducing a technology-assisted gamification methodology in the translation classroom represents a pioneering advancement in the field.

What can educators still do in translation classes transformed by technology? In Chapter 10, The authors answer this question by presenting several student-led strategies to address the pedagogical challenges posed by rapid advancements in translation technologies, especially generative AI. They introduce 18 group activities that foster critical thinking, core skills, and digital literacy, such as comparing human and AI-generated translations, pre-editing, and exploring diverse workflows, and highlight the importance of developing core skills and digital literacy. The challenges professional translators face in integrating MT into traditional

workflows are discussed in Chapter 11. Joke Daems reviews four years of postgraduate student feedback on using Lilt, an interactive and adaptive MT tool, highlighting its user-friendly interface and adaptability. By evaluating Lilt's performance through the translation of texts with both generic and customized MT systems, the author recommends it for translation technology curricula, especially for beginners. In Chapter 12, Yu Hao, Ke Hu, and Pym explore the suitability of post-editing for literary translation through an experiment with 141 students working on Agatha Christie's texts. The comparison of post-editing and human translation reveals nuanced trade-offs between the two: post-editing can lead to errors due to over-reliance on MT, while human translation, though more accurate, can sometimes deviate due to risk-taking decisions. The chapter concludes that increasing human agency is essential for improving literary translation outcomes.

This volume addresses key trends and offers actionable insights in an era when practitioners, researchers, educators, and students must adapt to technologies to navigate a rapidly evolving technological environment. Particularly noteworthy is the practical advice for developing automation-resistant translation literacy, applying plain language to enhance NMT performance, and integrating gamified teaching methods, which give teachers innovative ways to engage students. Meanwhile, it is also suggested that student-led strategies, feedback, and perspectives be incorporated in coping with the challenges posed by AI, which are becoming increasingly important for pedagogical adjustments. In addition, this volume touches upon the potential socio-cultural implications of MT, marking an initial scholarly effort to address a current research gap.

One of the greatest strengths of the volume is its fine balance between theory and practice, particularly evident in exploring cloud technologies and AVT workflows, which are effectively implemented in real-world settings. In Chapter 11, in particular, the use of empirical data and student feedback enriches pedagogical insights, offering practical guidance to educators regarding how students can engage with adaptive technologies. Furthermore, Chapters 5 and 6 depict a clear road map to bring translator training closer to industry expectations. By bridging the knowledge gap between academic inquiry and real-world application, this volume serves as an essential resource for scholars, educators, and industry professionals tackling the challenges posed by AI-driven translation technologies for human-machine collaboration.

Nevertheless, there are several areas that may be considered for further improvement, which should, in no way, overshadow the contribution of this volume. Firstly, there seems to be an uneven distribution of content coverage across chapters in this volume, as most chapters predominantly focus on the instrumental, methodological, and pedagogical aspects of AI, with less attention given to the cultural, sociological, and ethical dimensions of technological progress. Further investigation could focus on the ethical ramifications of translation technology, such as data privacy and the diminishing role of human translators. Secondly, a geographical limitation is felt in this volume, as most of the case studies are based on Western contexts. A wider range of examples from underrepresented areas would offer deeper insights into how translation technologies affect diverse linguistic and cultural contexts. Thirdly, the majority of the contributions rely on knowledge sharing and intuition, with approximately one-third of the chapters adopting empirical research designs. Although this makes sense given the novelty of the topic, the theme would benefit from a more rigorously designed methodology.

Overall, this volume skillfully combines theoretical insights with empirical research to offer a well-rounded perspective on how technology is reshaping the translation profession. It goes beyond analysis by providing actionable strategies that translation educators can use to equip students for the fast-changing landscape. By showcasing various approaches to technology-driven translation practice and teaching, this volume serves as a useful resource for relevant stakeholders, such as practitioners, researchers, educators, students, and technology developers, providing an opportune toolkit to enrich their “technological repertoire”.

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Visitors' Virtual Museum Experiences as Cross-Cultural Meaning-Making Processes: A Case Study of Museum Siam's Virtual Exhibition

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ABSTRACT

Adopting an interdisciplinary approach from museum studies, translation studies, and post-phenomenological understanding of technology, this thesis explores the virtual museum experiences of culturally and linguistically diverse visitors, a growing yet under-researched audience in virtual museum settings. It examines how diverse visitors navigate a virtual museum and engage in cross-cultural meaning making during the visit, highlighting the roles of technological, cultural, and linguistic factors in shaping their experiences.

Focusing on the case of visitors to the virtual Museum Siam, an institution physically located in Thailand, the study employed a process-oriented qualitative approach in which data were collected through real-time video recordings, with the researcher present and performing the role of a museum guide. This newly-developed method was then triangulated with surveys and follow-up interviews. A multimodal interaction framework was employed for analysis, incorporating the concept of multistability, which emphasizes the coexistence of multiple interpretations, to capture the complexity and fluidity of the experiences. Key themes of four embodied practices were elicited: *Walking, Looking, Viewing, and Reading*, each complementing one another and contributing to visitors' technological navigation and cross-cultural engagement during their virtual visits. The thesis argues that these practices are experienced and expressed differently among Thai and non-Thai visitors. From a comparative view, the virtual museum experiences of culturally and linguistically diverse visitors are dynamic and multi-perceptual. The findings suggest that while visitors' interactions with technological affordances, mostly driven by their technological literacy, play a significant role in shaping these unique and authentic experiences that differ from physical visits, visitors'

cultural backgrounds, knowledge, experiences, and linguistic competences critically underpin their technological interactions and cross-cultural meaning-making processes. To cater to the diverse needs of visitors from different backgrounds, a more dynamic, personalized approach is needed. The findings of this thesis ultimately contribute to the New Museology discourse on promoting accessibility and inclusivity in museums.

KEYWORDS: cross-cultural engagement, interlinguistic translation, multimodal interaction, virtual museum experiences, visitors' meaning making,

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Supervisors: Dr. Robert John Neather, Dr. Marija Todorova

การสร้างความหมายข้ามวัฒนธรรมผ่านประสบการณ์พิพิธภัณฑ์ เสมือนจริง กรณีศึกษานิทรรศการเสมือนจริง ณ มิวเซียมสยาม

บทคัดย่อ

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้ใช้แนวทางสาขาวิชาการผนวกร่วมศาสตร์พิพิธภัณฑ์ศึกษา วิชาการแปล และความเข้าใจเทคโนโลยีตามแนวคิดคุณค่าหลังปราภรณ์นิยมเพื่อศึกษาประสบการณ์พิพิธภัณฑ์เสมือนจริงของผู้เข้าชมที่มีความหลากหลายทางวัฒนธรรมและภาษาซึ่งเป็นกลุ่มผู้ชมที่มีจำนวนเพิ่มขึ้นในบริบทของพิพิธภัณฑ์เสมือนจริงโดยเน้นไปที่กระบวนการสร้างความหมายข้ามวัฒนธรรมและศึกษาปัจจัยทางด้านเทคโนโลยี วัฒนธรรม และภาษาที่มีผลต่อประสบการณ์ของผู้เข้าชม

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้ใช้กรณีของผู้เข้าชมพิพิธภัณฑ์เสมือนจริงมิวเซียมสยาม (ประเทศไทย) เป็นตัวอย่างในการศึกษาโดยใช้วิธีการวิจัยเชิงคุณภาพโดยเก็บข้อมูลผ่านการบันทึกวิดีโอขณะเขียนมีผู้วิจัยแสดงงบทบทสมมุติเป็นมัคคุเทศก์ นอกจากนี้ยังเก็บข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมผ่านแบบสำรวจและการสัมภาษณ์ติดตามผู้ลุบข้อมูลทั้งหมดถูกวิเคราะห์ภายใต้กรอบ Multimodal interaction analysis และ Multistability เพื่อนำเสนอผลว่าตัวอย่างที่แสดงออกผ่านพฤติกรรมและการตีความของผู้ชมแต่ละคน ผลการศึกษาพบหลักปฏิบัติที่เกี่ยวข้องกับกระบวนการสร้างความหมายข้ามวัฒนธรรมในพิพิธภัณฑ์เสมือนจริง ได้แก่ การเดิน การมอง การชม และการอ่าน อย่างไรก็ตาม แม้ว่าหลักปฏิบัติเหล่านี้จะส่งเสริมชีกันและกันแต่ก็พบว่าผู้เข้าชมชาวไทยและชาวต่างชาติแสดงออกและตีความในพิพิธภัณฑ์เสมือนอย่างหลากหลายและแตกต่างกันในรายละเอียด รวมทั้งยังเปลี่ยนแปลงอย่างต่อเนื่องเมื่อปรับเปลี่ยนไป นอกจากนี้ ผลการวิจัยยังระบุว่า ปฏิสัมพันธ์ของผู้เข้าชมกับเทคโนโลยี ซึ่งส่วนใหญ่ได้รับอิทธิพลจากความรู้และทักษะทางเทคโนโลยีของผู้เข้าชมเอง ถือเป็นองค์ประกอบสำคัญที่สร้างความแตกต่างในบางมิติจากการเขียนมีในสถานที่จริง ทั้งนี้ไม่อาจปฏิเสธได้ว่าปัจจัยด้านวัฒนธรรมและภาษาอันได้แก่ พื้นเพหาง วัฒนธรรม ความรู้และประสบการณ์ที่สั่งสมมา รวมถึงทักษะทางภาษาของผู้เข้าชมยังคงมีบทบาทสำคัญในการปฏิสัมพันธ์กับเทคโนโลยีและการสร้างความหมายข้ามวัฒนธรรมอย่างเห็นได้ชัด เพื่อรับรู้ความต้องการที่หลากหลายของผู้เข้าชมที่มีความแตกต่างทางด้านวัฒนธรรมและภาษา พิพิธภัณฑ์จึงจำเป็นต้องมีแนวทางที่ยืดหยุ่นสามารถปรับให้เข้ากับแต่ละบุคคลมากขึ้น ผลการศึกษาของวิทยานิพนธ์เล่มนี้มีส่วนช่วยในการขยายขอบข่ายการอภิปรายเกี่ยวกับประเด็นการสร้างความมีส่วนร่วมในพิพิธภัณฑ์ให้กว้างขวางและลึกซึ้งมากยิ่งขึ้น

คำสำคัญ: ประสบการณ์พิพิธภัณฑ์เสมือนจริง, การสร้างความหมายของผู้เข้าชม, การมีส่วนร่วมข้ามวัฒนธรรม, การปฏิสัมพันธ์หลายรูปแบบ, การแปลข้ามภาษา

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A Sensory Study for the Translation of Atmosphere in Silvina Ocampo's Short Stories

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ABSTRACT

This thesis investigates the translation of literary atmosphere in Silvina Ocampo's short stories, focusing on how sensory and emotional qualities are elicited in the original Spanish texts and recreated in English translations. Situated at the intersection of literary and translation studies, the research introduces a phenomenological and sensory approach to translation bridging gaps in existing scholarship and offering a novel framework for translating atmospheric elements. While existing approaches to literary atmosphere rely heavily on linguistic and stylistic analysis (e.g., Stockwell 2020), this study foregrounds the multisensory and experiential dimensions of translation (Scott 2012, 2015; Robinson 1991), emphasising the translator's role as a sensory mediator. The research is motivated by the challenge of translating the ineffable aspects of Ocampo's narratives, which are rich in metaphysical depth and sensory detail. By examining translations by Levine (1989), Balderston (2015), and Levine and Lateef-Jan (2019), the thesis explores the extent to which atmospheric qualities are retained or transformed in English texts.

The study employs a mixed-methods methodology, combining close reading, corpus analysis, and data visualisation to identify sensory patterns and interactions within the texts. Phenomenological insights guide the exploration of critical points in the narratives, where sensory and atmospheric elements converge. These methods enable a comprehensive understanding of the cumulative and dynamic nature of literary atmosphere and its translation.

Findings reveal that atmosphere in Ocampo's short stories arises from a complex interplay of sensory cues, emotional tone, and narrative elements, which interact dynamically to create immersive effects. While translations generally retain these qualities, shifts in sensory intensity

and modality occur due to linguistic and cultural factors. The research highlights the importance of translators' sensory engagement with the text, showing that conscious activation of sensory perception enhances the recreation of atmosphere in translation.

This study contributes to translation studies by proposing a new framework for translating atmosphere, offering practical tools for both professional translators and educators. Its interdisciplinary approach bridges literary studies, cognitive poetics, and digital humanities, advancing knowledge of the sensory dimensions of language and literature. By promoting deeper engagement with Ocampo's work, the research also elevates the profile of Argentine literature in translation, encouraging further exploration of its rich literary legacy.

KEYWORDS: corpus analysis, literary atmosphere, literary translation, Silvina Ocampo, translating sensory perception

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Supervisors: Prof. Séverine Hubscher-Davidson, Prof. Fiona Doloughan, and Dr. Jerome Devaux.

Un estudio sensorial para la traducción de la atmósfera en los cuentos de Silvina Ocampo

RESUMEN

Esta tesis investiga la traducción de la atmósfera literaria en los cuentos de Silvina Ocampo, con especial atención a la evocación de cualidades sensoriales y emocionales en los textos originales en castellano y su recreación en las traducciones al inglés. Situada en la intersección de los estudios de literatura y de traducción, la investigación propone una perspectiva fenomenológica y sensorial que contribuye a subsanar vacíos en la bibliografía existente y al mismo tiempo ofrece un marco teórico innovador para la traducción de elementos atmosféricos. Mientras que los enfoques tradicionales sobre la atmósfera literaria privilegian el análisis lingüístico y estilístico (Stockwell, 2020), este estudio resalta las dimensiones multisensoriales y experienciales de la traducción (Scott, 2012, 2015; Robinson, 1991), poniendo de relieve el rol del traductor como mediador sensorial. La investigación se plantea frente al desafío de traducir los aspectos inefables de las narrativas de Ocampo, caracterizadas por su profundidad metafísica y riqueza en detalles sensoriales. A partir del análisis de las traducciones de Levine (1989), Balderston (2015), y Levine y Lateef-Jan (2019), se examina hasta qué punto las cualidades atmosféricas se conservan o transforman en su traducción al inglés.

La metodología adoptada integra una lectura detallada y minuciosa con un análisis de corpus que facilita la visualización de datos, con el objetivo de identificar patrones e interacciones sensoriales en los textos. Las herramientas fenomenológicas orientan la exploración de puntos críticos en las narraciones, en los cuales confluyen los elementos sensoriales y atmosféricos. Estos métodos facilitan una comprensión integral de la naturaleza acumulativa y dinámica de la atmósfera literaria y de su traducción.

Los resultados evidencian que la atmósfera en los cuentos de Ocampo surge de la interacción compleja de estímulos sensoriales, tono emocional y elementos narrativos, que operan de manera dinámica para producir efectos inmersivos. Si bien las traducciones tienden a preservar estas cualidades, se registran variaciones en la intensidad y la modalidad sensorial, atribuibles a factores lingüísticos y culturales. La investigación destaca la importancia del involucramiento

sensorial del traductor con el texto, demostrando que la activación consciente de la percepción sensorial favorece la recreación de la atmósfera en la lengua meta.

Esta tesis aporta a los estudios de traducción un nuevo marco teórico para abordar la traducción de la atmósfera literaria y ofrece herramientas metodológicas aplicables tanto a la práctica profesional como a la enseñanza de la traducción. Desde un enfoque interdisciplinario que articula los estudios literarios, la poética cognitiva y las humanidades digitales, el trabajo amplía el conocimiento sobre las dimensiones sensoriales del lenguaje y la literatura. Asimismo, promueve un acercamiento renovado a la obra de Ocampo y contribuye a la valorización de la literatura argentina en el campo de la traducción académica.

PALABRAS CLAVE: análisis de corpus, atmósfera literaria, traducción de la percepción sensorial, traducción literaria, Silvina Ocampo

Leopardi's Voice Through Translation

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ABSTRACT

This doctoral research project analysed the English-language poetic translations of the 19th-century Italian poet Giacomo Leopardi and investigated their reception among anglophone speakers. The factors underlying the decision to choose poetry and the specific case of Leopardi in English as the subjects of my thesis were essentially two. Poetry translation is not as discussed as other topics within the broader field of Translation Studies. In particular, an area which has been largely overlooked is readerly reception, especially from an empirical perspective (Kruger, 2013). Despite having central significance in his own culture, Leopardi has been relatively unknown among general English-speaking readers, as interest in his works has remained predominantly confined to academic circles (Perella, 2000). The underlying hypothesis was that this could be ascribed to the difficulty and supposed untranslatability of the poet's peculiar style (Stewart 2017). Research focussing on Leopardi's works in English translation is scant. Moreover, the lack of an appropriate evidence-based approach has hindered the possibility of shedding light on the plausible correlation between translation and readers' response. Based on the above considerations, this thesis addressed two main research questions: a) How was Leopardi's poetry represented in English over time? b) How did translation impact contemporary anglophone readers' reception of the author?

The research was conducted through an original methodological approach combining text analysis with empirical evidence. Text analysis was based on a parallel corpus including a selection of Leopardi's *Canti* (the author's main verse collection) and a series of English-language translations composed by different translators from the second half of the 19th century until the present day. The aim was to identify translation approaches and how they shifted over time. Empirical data was collected from different categories of receptors (literary translators, academics, students) through questionnaires. Participants were asked to read and comment on

a series of translated passages extracted from the analysis. The aim was to determine how readerly impressions of translated poetry varied across different types of readerships.

From a diachronic perspective, the analysis revealed that translations were marked by two opposing trends: the use of overly archaic diction on the one hand and the presence of everyday English on the other. Both tendencies presented some criticalities since employing archaising forms or extremely colloquial diction throughout the whole collection does not reflect the heterogeneity characterising the *Canti* in Italian, where the presence of different stylistic forms, themes, and language variation is reflective of the author's poetic and philosophical evolution. The empirical investigation evidenced that the reception of translated poetic texts was marked by a certain dose of subjectivity, as respondents' preferences were often dependent on personal cognitive associations. Furthermore, language smoothness and meaning transference were generally preferred over adherence to the source text and the reproduction of specific formal features. The findings presented in this thesis had two main important implications: they introduced a translation perspective to the study of Leopardi's poetry's reception; they offered a broader understanding of the dynamics and mechanisms involved in the reception of translated poetic texts.

KEYWORDS: empirical investigation, Giacomo Leopardi, poetry translation, readerly reception

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Place: University of Aberdeen, Aberdeen (United Kingdom)

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Supervisor: Dr. María Sanchez-Ortiz

The Development of Strategic Competence in C-E Consecutive Interpreting among MTI Students: A Longitudinal Study

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ABSTRACT

Interpreting competence is an important theme in interpreting theory and interpreting education. Strategic competence is the fundamental element in interpreting competence. Previous researches on interpreting strategic competence mainly focused on its conceptualization and students' acquisition or utilization of strategies, but the competence development trajectory for trainee interpreters remain unexplored. Against this backdrop, the thesis presented aims to explore the developmental features of trainee interpreters' strategic competence in Chinese-English consecutive interpreting, with an emphasis on their development trajectory and influential factors.

Based on a longitudinal study, three research questions were addressed: (1) What are the parameters defining strategic competence in Chinese-English consecutive interpreting? (2) How does trainee interpreters' strategic competence develop in Chinese-English consecutive interpreting? (3) What factors influence the development of trainee interpreters' strategic competence?

To address the first research question, the author initially extracted interpreting strategy parameters from a variety of sources including interpreting textbooks, research papers, and interpreting evaluation documents. Subsequently, an initial strategic competence framework was constructed and validated through expert judgment and observation of students' corpora. The findings suggest that the framework of strategic competence in Chinese-English

consecutive interpreting encompasses 13 types of interpreting strategies including transcoding, rank shift, omission, simplification, generalization, addition, substitution, approximation, order change, reformulation, repetition, repair and compensation, and 26 sub-strategies or coping tactics.

To address the second research question, a longitudinal study of one school year was conducted with the methods of interpreting testing, stimulated recall interviews, and learning journals. The participants were 55 MTI students specialized in interpreting from Guangdong University of Foreign Studies in China. The findings revealed that the developmental trajectory exhibited non-linear patterns and intricate dynamic fluctuations, characterized by alternating peaks and troughs, as well as periods of progress and regression. The number of strategies employed by trainee interpreters varied throughout the training program with varying growth rates, while the types of strategies remained consistent. The critical period for the development of C-E interpreting strategic competence was observed to be between the third and seventh month.

In response to the third research question, the author incorporated semi-structured interviews in addition to the data collection procedure mentioned in addressing question 2. A total of approximately 340,000 words of text materials were collected, including interview audio transcriptions and learning journals. The data underwent content analysis and grounded theory methodology. The findings suggested that the development of trainee interpreters' strategic competence was influenced by eight major factors. The external factors included the learning environment, courses, and instructors, while internal factors comprised students' learning background, personal experience, non-intellectual attributes, interpreting-related competences, and learning methods.

The present research holds both theoretical and practical significance. The theoretical significance lies in the discovery of developmental features pertaining to students' strategic competence and the proposal of the developmental curve hypothesis. In terms of pedagogical implications, these findings may prove practically valuable for interpreting training, learning,

and assessment.

KEYWORDS: developmental path, factors, interpreting strategic competence, longitudinal study, parameters

Completion of thesis

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Year: June 2019

Supervisor: Professor Lei Mu

Original Language: Chinese

翻译专业硕士汉英交替传译策略能力发展研究

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口译能力是口译理论及口译教育研究的重要议题之一。策略能力是口译能力中的核心子能力。现有口译策略能力研究主要关注策略能力构成以及学习者口译策略的习得与运用特征，对于学习者口译策略能力发展路径缺乏了解。基于此，本论文以汉英交传为例，旨在探索学习者口译策略能力发展路径特征及其影响因素。

借助纵向研究方法，本研究旨在回答以下问题：（1）汉英口译策略能力包含哪些构成参数？（2）学习者汉英口译策略能力发展呈现何种特征？（3）学习者汉英口译策略能力发展的影响因素有哪些？

针对研究问题1，采用文献法，从口译教材、研究论文以及口译测评文献中获取口译策略参数，初步建构口译策略能力框架并通过专家判断法和学习者口译语料进行验证。研究结果发现汉英交替传译策略能力构成框架包括代码转换、层级转移、省略、简化、概括化、增加（解释）、替代、近似表达、语序重组、信息重构、重复、修正和补偿等13个类别策略及26种具体子策略。

针对研究问题2，采用测试法、回溯性访谈和日志法，对广东外语外贸大学55名MTI学

生展开为其一学年的跟踪研究。研究结果发现学习者汉英交替传译策略能力发展呈现出跳跃式、阶段性和非线性的曲线发展，存在高峰与低谷、进步与退步的交替；在交替传译学习期间，学习者口译策略使用数量呈现不同趋势的曲线变化，但口译策略类型未发生改变；学生口译策略能力发展的关键变化期在交传学习的第3个月至第7个月。

针对研究问题3，除研究问题2中所提及的方法外，亦采用半结构化访谈收集数据。在转写访谈音频、整理学习者日志后共获得文字材料约34万字。借助内容分析和扎根理论的方法，研究发现影响学习者汉英交替传译策略能力发展的主要因素有8类，学习者外部因素包括环境、课程、教师，学习者内部因素有学习背景、个人经历、非智力因素、口译相关能力和学习方法。

本研究具有一定理论与实践意义。研究的理论贡献在于发现学习者汉英交替传译策略能力发展特征，并提出口译策略能力发展路径假设；实践意义在于为口译教、学、测提供参考。

关键词：发展路径、因素、口译策略能力、纵向研究、构成参数

Translation and the Leftist Philosophical Discourse in the Pahlavi Period in Iran

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ABSTRACT

Translation has always contributed to trajectory of thought throughout history, leaving its traces in various intellectual processes and products. The history of thought in contemporary Iran also bears witness to the pivotal role of translation. As such, translation has become a sine qua non of the Iranian encounter with modern philosophies, with Leftist (or Marxist) philosophy being among the most influential. Having found its way into the Iranian context during the Pahlavi period, Leftist philosophy owes its Persian reception to translation, yet the topic remains a neglected area of research in both translation studies and historical research. Located at the intersection of translation studies and intellectual history, an in-depth analysis of translation and reception of Leftist philosophy in the Pahlavi period needs due attention.

This thesis examined the translation and reception of Leftist philosophy during the four decades of the Pahlavi period in Iran (from 1310/1931 to the end of 1349/1970). It explored how translation contributed to the formation and transformation of Leftist philosophical discourse (LPD) within Iranian–Islamic discourses, as well as the various modes and functions it took on in this process. As a translation-focused intellectual history, the study adopted Foucault's archaeology as an analytical approach to examine the topic. Several Persian bibliographies were consulted, leading to the identification of 35 translated and authored works directly related to the three core themes of Leftist philosophy: materialism/idealism, dialectics/metaphysics, and dialectical materialism. Then the bibliographical data on the works was compiled from printed and digital sources. Through a library–archival protocol, a rigorous content analysis was conducted, in which the works were carefully read for their discursive statements on the aforementioned themes. The statements were

then systematically reviewed and categorized, leading to the identification of six discursive formations shaping the Persian reception of Leftist philosophy.

Foucault's archaeological method was used to analyze each discursive formation with an eye to translation. This uncovered various facets of the reception of Leftist philosophy, revealing discursive transformations and shedding light on the Iranian–Islamic engagement with Marxist philosophy. The results revealed different encounters with Marxist philosophy, including various kinds of readings (scientific, ideological, or merely philosophical), eclectic reformulations, and refutations within Iranian-Islamic discourses. Moreover, the analysis unveiled two modes of translation operative in the reception scene: the textual mode and the discursive mode. Materialized in proper translations, rewritings, commentaries, and critiques, both modes were found as constitutive of the Persian reception of Leftist philosophy. The findings were juxtaposed with Javad Tabatabai's reflections on the history of thought in Iran, offering a conceptualization of translation as a condition of (im)possibility of thought indicative of the translated nature of philosophy in particular, and any intellectual activity in general.

KEYWORDS: archaeology, intellectual history, Leftist philosophy, Pahlavi period, reception, translation of philosophy

Completion of Thesis

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Supervisor: Dr. Farzaneh Farahzad, Professor in Translation Studies at Allameh Tabataba'i University

ترجمه و گفتمان فلسفی چپگرا در دوران پهلوی در ایران

ترجمه همواره در سیر تطور اندیشه در طول تاریخ نقش‌آفرین بوده و ردپای خود را در فرایندها و فرآوردهای فکری بشر بر جای گذاشته است. تاریخ اندیشه در ایران معاصر نیز گواهی بر نقش محوری ترجمه دارد. از این‌رو، ترجمه به ضرورتی انکارناپذیر در مواجهه ایرانیان با فلسفه‌های جدید بدل شده است که در میان آن‌ها می‌توان فلسفه چپگرا یا فلسفه مارکسیستی را از تأثیرگذارترین جریان‌ها قلمداد کرد. فلسفه چپگرا در دوره پهلوی وارد فضای فکری ایران شد و دریافت آن در زبان فارسی عمدتاً از طریق ترجمه صورت گرفت، اما این موضوع هم در مطالعات ترجمه و هم در تاریخ فکر مغفول مانده است. بررسی نقش ترجمه در دریافت فلسفه چپگرا در دوره پهلوی، آن هم در نقطه تلاقی مطالعات ترجمه و تاریخ فکر، نیازمند توجهی شایسته است.

این رساله دکتری به بررسی ترجمه و دریافت فلسفه چپگرا در طی چهار دهه از دوره پهلوی (از 1310 تا پایان ۱۳۴۹) پرداخت. در این پژوهش، نقش ترجمه در شکل‌گیری و تحول گفتمان فلسفی چپگرا در بستر گفتمان‌های ایرانی-اسلامی بررسی شد و گونه‌ها و کارکردهای گوناگون ترجمه در این فرایند تحلیل گردید. پژوهش حاضر، به عنوان نوعی تاریخ فکر مرکز بر ترجمه، از روش بایگان‌شناسی فوکو برای تحلیل موضوع بهره جست. ابتدا، با رجوع به کتاب‌شناسی‌های فارسی، ۳۵ اثر تأثیفی و ترجمه‌ای در فارسی شناسایی شد که به‌طور مستقیم به سه مضمون اصلی در فلسفه چپگرا یعنی ماتریالیسم/ایدئالیسم، دیالکتیک/متافیزیک و ماتریالیسم دیالکتیک پرداخته بودند. سپس، اطلاعات کتاب‌شناسخانه این آثار از منابع چاپی و دیجیتال جمع‌آوری شد. با اتکا بر شیوه کتابخانه‌ای-آرشیوی، آثار شناسایی شده به‌طور دقیق مورد تحلیل محتوا قرار گرفت و احکام گفتمانی ناظر بر مضامین مزبور کشف و ثبت شدند. مرور و مقوله‌بندی احکام گفتمانی منجر به شناسایی شش صورت‌بندی گفتمانی شد که هر یک بخشی از دریافت فلسفه چپگرا را شکل داده بودند.

سپس، صورت‌بندی‌های گفتمانی با استفاده از بایگان‌شناسی فوکو و با نظر به ترجمه مورد تحلیل قرار گرفتند که طی آن جوانب مختلف دریافت فلسفه چپگرا و تحولات گفتمانی آن روشن شد و نیز نحوه مواجهه رویکردهای ایرانی-اسلامی با فلسفه مارکسیستی مشخص گردید. نتایج نشان داد که مواجهه با فلسفه مارکسیستی در ایران اشکال متنوعی داشته، از قرائت‌های علمی و ایدئولوژیک یا صرفاً فلسفی گرفته تا بازپرداخت‌های تقاطعی و حتی نقدها و ردیه‌های که در چهارچوب گفتمان‌های ایرانی-اسلامی طرح شده‌اند.

همچنین، نتایج تحلیل حاکی از دو گونه ترجمه یعنی ترجمه متنی و ترجمه گفتمانی بود که هر دو در قالب ترجمه‌ها، بازنویسی‌ها، شروح و نقدهای مختلف عینیت یافته و دریافت فلسفه چپگرا در فارسی را قوام بخشیده بودند. در پایان، یافته‌های پژوهش در نسبت با تأملات جواد طباطبایی درباره تاریخ اندیشه در ایران مورد تفسیر قرار گرفت و ترجمه به عنوان شرایط امکان/امتناع اندیشه مفهوم‌پردازی شد که می‌تواند حاکی از ماهیت ترجمه‌ای فلسفه بهطور اخص و هر نوع فعالیت فکری بهطور اعم باشد.

کلیدواژه‌ها: بایگان‌شناسی، تاریخ فکر، فلسفه چپگرا، دوران پهلوی، دریافت، ترجمه فلسفه

Reading Homosexuality through Textuality: A Study of Chinese Translations of *Call Me by Your Name* in Taiwan and Mainland China

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ABSTRACT

Translation studies has paid relatively little attention to queer literary translations and their contributions to queer community building in Taiwan and mainland China. This study aims to fill this knowledge gap by examining four editions of the Chinese translation of André Aciman's novel *Call Me by Your Name* (*Call*), produced by Wu Yanrong and published first in Taiwan and later in mainland China. The thesis investigates nuances at both the textual and paratextual levels in these translations and contextualizes these intricacies within the socio-political landscapes of the respective target societies. It also discusses the role of queer literary translation in the overall production of queer knowledge in both societies.

This inquiry is guided by four research questions: (1) How are the paratextual multimodal gay homographesis framed in the English source text of *Call Me by Your Name*, and how are they reframed for the respective target audiences in mainland China and Taiwan? (2) What strategies are adopted in translating *Call*'s verbal camp as a form of gay homographesis in both regions, and how do the translations serve as performative and transformative sites of male homosexuality? (3) How is the homographesis of gay intertextuality in *Call* reconfigured in the translations for mainland China and Taiwan? (4) How does queer literary translation actively shape the landscape of queer knowledge in these societies, and to what extent does it serve as a catalyst or significant contributor to queer knowledge production?

To answer these questions, I employ queer theory as my theoretical framework and utilize various analytical tools (Chapter Two) to investigate the three identified areas of gay homographesis in translation, the paratextual framing of the translations, the translated verbal camp, and gay intertextuality in translation. After providing a contextual overview of male homosexual representations in both mainland China and Taiwan, and introducing *Call*'s

contextualized queer representation, its global significance and the receptions of its Chinese translations in Chapters One and Three, Chapters Four, Five and Six correspond to the three areas of gay homographesis and their Chinese translations. Chapter Four adopts a constellational perspective of paratextuality (Freeth 2023) and applies Kress and van Leeuwen's (2006) visual grammar, along with Roland Barthes's (1977, as cited in Bateman 2014) theory of text-image relationships, to examine the Chinese reframing of the multimodal paratext in the source text. Chapter Five employs Keith Harvey's (2000) framework of verbal camp and Marc Démont's (2017) modes of translating queer literary texts for a comparative analysis of the Chinese translations of camp talk. Chapter Six uses Barthes's poststructuralist approach to analyze the reconfiguration of gay intertextuality within the novel. Finally, Chapter Seven synthesizes the findings and suggests that Taiwan tends to adopt a more "queering" approach while mainland publishers vacillate between "misrecognizing", "minoritizing" and "queering" approaches, which reveals the degree to which social activism or governmental control can frame translation. By contextualizing my major findings, I discuss the role of queer literary translation in engaging with queer cultures in mainland China and Taiwan, and underscores the significance of queer literary translation in contributing to queer knowledge production and fostering queer communities in these two regions.

KEYWORDS: camp, gay homographesis, gay intertextuality, mainland China, paratextual framing, Taiwan

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透過文本性視角閱讀同性情慾：

Call Me by Your Name 陸台漢譯本之比較研究

摘要

翻譯研究領域對於酷兒文學譯作及其在中國臺灣和中國大陸酷兒社群建構上的貢獻關注不多。本論文旨在透過分析安德烈·阿西曼 (André Aciman) 小說 *Call Me by Your Name* (以下簡稱 *Call*) 四個中文譯本來彌補此一知識缺口。這四個譯本皆出自吳妍蓉之手，先後在中國臺灣和中國大陸出版。論文將探討這些譯作在文本層次和副文本層次上的細微差異，並將這些差異置於兩個目標語社會的社會政治環境中加以闡釋。論文亦將探討酷兒文學翻譯分別在兩個目標社會中的酷兒知識生產的整體過程中所扮演的角色。

本研究將循著四個研究問題進行探討：(1) 安德烈·阿西曼小說 *Call Me by Your Name* 英文原著中，男性同性情慾書寫是如何透過多模態副文本架構的？在分別面對中國大陸及中國台灣的目標讀者時，這些同性情慾書寫又是如何重構的？(2) 在兩地的譯本中，譯者如何處理原作中作為同性情慾書寫的言語敢曝？這些譯作如何成為男性同性情慾表演與轉化的場域？(3) 原作中同性情慾書寫的互文性在兩地譯本中經歷了哪些重塑？(4) 酷兒文學翻譯如何積極塑造這兩個社會的酷兒知識版圖？並在多大程度上成為推動酷兒知識生產的重要力量？

為回答這些研究問題，論文採用酷兒理論作為理論框架，並運用多種分析工具（第二章）來探討翻譯中同性情慾書寫的三個層面：副文本框架在譯作中的重構、言語敢曝的譯入，以及同性情慾互文性的再現。論文的第一章首先對中國大陸和中國台灣男性同性情慾的表徵進行綜述，並在第三章中介紹了原著小說酷兒書寫的語境意義和全球影響，及其中文譯作在兩地的接受。第四、五、六章分別對應上述三個層面的中文譯本進行分析。第四章採用星座式副文本的視角(Freeth 2023)，並運用克雷斯和梵·勒文(Kress & van Leeuwen 2006) 的視覺語法分析，結合羅蘭·巴特 (Roland Barthes 1977, 見 Bateman 2014) 的文本-圖像關係理論，多方位探討原作多模態副文本在中文譯本中的重構。第五章則是採用凱斯·哈維(Keith Harvey 2000) 的言語敢曝框架，並結合馬克·德蒙特 (Marc Démont 2017) 的酷兒文本翻譯模式，對言語敢曝的中文譯入進行比較分析。第六章運用羅蘭·巴特的後結構主義方法，分析同性情慾互文性在小說中文譯本中的重塑。最後，第七章整合研究發現，指出台版譯文傾向採取更具「酷兒化」的翻譯方法，而陸

版譯本則在「誤認」、「邊緣化」和「酷兒化」之間徘徊遊移，反映了社會運動或政府管控對譯著重構的影響程度。論文通過語境化研究發現，繼而探討酷兒文學翻譯在參與中國大陸和中國台灣的酷兒文化建構中所扮演的角色，並強調酷兒文學翻譯為這兩個地區酷兒知識生產和酷兒社群建設做出的貢獻。

關鍵詞: 男同性情慾書寫, 副文本框架, 言語敢曝, 同性情慾互文性, 中國台灣與中國大陸

Exploring the Microethics of Fansub Communities in Mainland China: A Vignette Analysis Focused on Analytical Ethical Decision-making

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ABSTRACT

The present study examines the microethics (Komesaroff, 2008) of fansub communities in Mainland China, with a focus on Chinese fansubbers' everyday ethical practices. Despite the strong moral dynamics centred around fansubbing, scarce studies have been dedicated to exploring its ethics. Moreover, although previous research touched on various ethical dimensions of Mainland China's fansubbing networks, these still lack empirically-based, in-depth research illuminating Chinese fansubbers' everyday ethical problem-solving. In an attempt to fill these lacunae, this study employs case studies of Chinese fansub groups to explore the everyday ethical situations Chinese fansubbers encounter, their reflective resolution of the situations and their utilisation of contextual ethical resources during the process. Taking Chinese fansubbers' situated analytical ethical decision-making (EDM) as the entry point into their microethical practices, I combine an online questionnaire and a semi-structured interview to elicit research data, which respectively surveys the fansubbers' general experiences of analytical EDM and solicits vignettes of their historical analytical EDM. Interview data were analysed using the thematic analysis method (Braun & Clarke, 2006) in light of a novel theoretical framework integrating analytical EDM models theorised by John Dewey (1922, 1946) and Margaret Urban Walker (2007). Research findings indicate that fansubbing in Mainland China is an ethics-laden activity connecting diverse, morally demanding relationships. During their analytical EDM for tackling fansubbing-related "ethically important

moments" (Guillemin & Gillam, 2004), Chinese fansubbers are influenced by a range of micro-, meso- and macro- moral considerations, indicating the situatedness of their EDM. When establishing contextual moral ends, they are largely guided by the communitarian ethos. While selecting moral actions, they seem to be guided by relationship-particular principles, although they occasionally act against the principles. In addition, they utilise various contextual ethical resources to facilitate their analytical EDM. Overall, the fansubbers demonstrate context-sensitivity, reflective agency, moral creativity and pragmatic spirit in fansubbing-related microethical problem-solving. Moreover, their situated moral cognition has embedded, extended, distributed and affective dimensions.

KEYWORDS: Chinese fansubbing networks, ethical decision-making, ethically important moments, microethics, non-professional subtitling, translation ethics

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中国大陆字幕组微观伦理实践研究：以分析性伦理决策过程为焦点

摘要：本研究以中国大陆粉丝字幕翻译社区的微观伦理（Komesaroff, 2008）为对象，聚焦中国非职业字幕译者的日常伦理实践。尽管粉丝字幕翻译活动蕴含丰富的伦理动态，针对其伦理维度的系统性研究仍较为匮乏。现有文献虽已涉及中国大陆字幕组现象的多元伦理维度，但迄今仍缺乏基于实证方法、深入探讨中国粉丝字幕译者如何应对日常翻译伦理问题的研究。为填补这一空白，本研究以中国字幕组为案例，通过考察字幕译者面临的日常伦理情境、对情境的反思性应对及在过程中使用的情境化伦理资源，揭示其微观伦理实践特征。研究以粉丝字幕译者的分析性伦理决策（analytical ethical decision-making, EDM）为切入点，结合网络问卷与半结构化访谈收集数据：前者旨在了解译者在粉丝字幕社区内进行分析性伦理决策的整体经验，后者则用于收集其过往分析性伦理决策的叙事片段。访谈数据基于整合 Dewey (1922, 1946) 与 Walker (2007) 伦理决策模型的创新理论框架，采用主题分析法（Braun & Clarke, 2006）进行质性编码分析。研究发现，中国大陆的粉丝字幕翻译活动是多重道德关系的交汇点，具有鲜明的伦理属性。在处理字幕制作相关“伦理重要时刻”（Guillemin & Gillam, 2004）时，粉丝字幕译者的分析性伦理决策受到宏观、中观与微观三重道德考量（moral considerations）的影响，呈现出显著的情境依赖性。在确立情境化的道德目标时，其主要受社群主义（communitarianism）精神的指引；在选择具体道德行动时，其总体上遵循一系列具有关系特殊性的伦理原则（虽偶有背离）。此外，他们通过调用多样化的情境性伦理资源推动其分析性伦理决策的进程。总体而言，中国大陆粉丝字幕译者在微观伦理实践中展现出突出的情境敏感性、反思能动性、道德创造力与实用主义精神，其情境化道德认知具有嵌入性、延展性、分布式与情感化特征。

关键词：中国字幕网络，伦理决策，伦理重要时刻，微观伦理，非职业字幕翻译，翻译伦理