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EDITORS' MESSAGE



Boris Naimushin,
Editor in Chief
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Stan Bogdanov,
Managing Editor

May the New Year inspire your ambitions to reach ever higher!

As we conclude 2025, we offer our heartfelt holiday greetings and warmest wishes for the year ahead. *English Studies at NBU* celebrates its eleventh year, and we are deeply grateful to our authors, reviewers, and readers, whose sustained contributions have enabled the journal to flourish as a space for meaningful scholarly exchange.

In recent developments, The Russian Centre of Scientific Information (RCSI) has included ESNBU on its Unified State List of Scientific Publications known as the [White List](#), a tool for evaluating the publication activity and effectiveness of scholarly research. A reassuring mark of recognition.

A pleasant surprise came on Dec. 9 when Boris Naimushin was awarded a Special Unifier of Cultures Distinction by the Association of Spanish-speaking Journalists in Bulgaria for his research in the history of diplomatic interpreting in Bulgaria that shed light on the early relations between the Bulgarian Telegraph Agency and Prensa Latina in 1960 and the role of Ms. Stela Avishai, a Bulgarian journalist, in the process.

Diligence has marked this year—guiding our focus on adhering closely to our scope, advancing steadily, and making small yet meaningful steps toward growth. We continue working hard, without adding to the noise on social media, concentrating instead on initiatives that strengthen the journal and serve our scholarly community.

Behind the scenes, we have been creating HTML versions of our articles with the assistance of an intern from NBU's Web Design and Development programme. These efforts aim to enhance the visibility and discoverability of our authors' work through machine-readable structured metadata in multiple formats.

With all this in motion, we head into 2026 hopeful, steady, and curious about what the new year will bring.

Wishing you a joyful New Year.

Here's to 2026 and to many more years of shared success.

Boris and Stan

In this issue:

We begin in the field of Translation studies. **Fatemeh Parham** offers the first scientometric analysis of translation history research in Iran, examining 370 journal articles (1971–2021). Using VOSviewer, it maps trends in publication patterns, institutions, themes, and theories. The results show rapid growth after 2010, with research concentrated in Tehran and Mashhad. The most common foci are linguistic features, bibliographical studies, and translation movements, often analysed through Polysystem Theory. Literary and religious texts dominate, revealing both scholarly progress and the need for broader theoretical and institutional diversity.

Ayşe Saki Demirel introduces *translatorhandling* as a framework to examine the deliberate strategies feminist translators use across textual, peritextual, and epitextual levels. It positions feminist translators as both amplifiers of marginalised women's voices and assertive agents claiming creative and professional visibility. Using Etaf Rum's *A Woman is No Man* and its Turkish translation *Kadının Sesi Yok* by Arzu Altınanıt as a case study, the researcher analyses Altınanıt's blog and X posts to show how *translatorhandling* functions as dual resistance: promoting women's voices and challenging translator invisibility. The study highlights *translatorhandling* as a feminist intervention that transforms public discourse by asserting the translator's interpretive and co-creative role.

Kornelia Slavova examines how the Anglo-American feminist concept "gender" was introduced into Bulgarian through translation and subsequently distorted in public, academic, and political discourse. It finds that inconsistent and inaccurate translations—especially in EU and institutional documents—contributed to confusion and the politicisation of the term during the 2018 debates over the Istanbul Convention. The paper argues that conservative forces exploited these linguistic ambiguities to fuel anti-gender campaigns, framing "gender" as foreign and threatening. The paper concludes that retranslation, education, and collaboration among scholars, translators, and activists are needed to reclaim and clarify the concept within Bulgarian society.

In the area of teaching, **Caner Çetiner** reports how teaching translation project management (TPM) through scenario-based activities can enhance translator education. Using surveys and interviews with Turkish translation students, the study finds that realistic project scenarios improve problem-solving, teamwork, and understanding of industry workflows. Students valued these practical tasks and highlighted the need for dedicated computer labs and better technological infrastructure to support such instruction.

Ailyn Jariany Garnica-Rey and Cristian Edgardo Navarro-Arana explored the relationship between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and English proficiency among 30 Colombian public-school students aged 11–12. Using the Schutte EI Test and the Cambridge A1 Movers exam, researchers found a weak to moderate positive correlation between EI and overall English proficiency ($r = 0.38$) and a moderate correlation with listening skills ($r = 0.49$). EI explained 14.7% of overall proficiency and 24.3% of listening performance variance. No significant correlation appeared for reading, writing, or speaking.

In the field of Linguistics, **Juan Gabriel Vázquez-González** analyses how Old English verbs expressing "throwing" functioned in ditransitive (double object) constructions. Using data from the Dictionary of Old English Web Corpus, he identifies 14 verb types and 51 instances showing transfer meaning ("throw to/from"). The study finds that these verbs often included a fourth argument (directional), indicating a less fixed structure than in Modern English and a lower degree of grammatical constructionalization.

Ángela Alameda Hernández and Rocío Jiménez-Briones review how Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) has been applied within Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) research. Using PRISMA 2020 and the SALSA framework, they analysed 78 peer-reviewed papers (2001–2024) from four major databases. Findings show that lexical choice and evaluative lexis are the most frequent features at the lexico-semantic level, while types of process and participants dominate the grammatical level. The Transitivity, Modality, and Appraisal systems are most used, whereas the Theme system is notably underutilised, revealing inconsistencies in how CDA researchers systematically apply SFL.

We close our Articles section with an exploration of communicative development in children with autism. **Mihaela Barokova and Elena Andonova** examined vocabulary composition and noun bias in Bulgarian children with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) compared to a normative sample. Using parental reports from the Bulgarian CDI-2, the researchers analysed four word categories: nouns, predicates, closed-class words, and social words. Findings show no significant differences between ASD and typically developing children in word category ratios. Both groups displayed a noun bias and a high proportion of social words, suggesting similar lexical organisation patterns despite ASD-related communication challenges.

Finally, we close this issue with two book reviews of recent contributions to ESP and Translation Studies: **Huu-Chanh Nguyen** examines *English for IT Communication*, while **Anthony Hoyte-West** explores *A Propaedeutics of Translation Studies*.

Happy reading!

As always, your feedback and suggestions are invaluable to us.

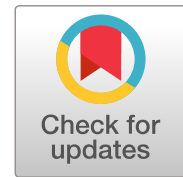
Stay tuned for more exciting updates and insightful articles in the forthcoming issues.

MAPPING TRANSLATION HISTORY IN IRAN: A SCIENTOMETRIC STUDY OF JOURNAL ARTICLES

Fatemeh Parham

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Abstract



This study presents a scientometric analysis of scholarly publications on the history of translation in Iran, encompassing 370 articles published over a fifty-year period. Using VOSviewer for data visualization, the research identifies and maps eight key dimensions of the articles: journal titles, journal affiliation, publication date, publication place, historical periods, themes, theoretical frameworks, and text genres. The findings reveal a significant increase in publication volume in recent years, particularly from 2011 onward, coinciding with the academic institutionalization of translation studies in Iran. Tehran and Mashhad emerged as the dominant centers of scholarly output, reflecting their status as hubs for major universities and specialized journals. Thematic analysis uncovered 56 recurring themes, with a predominant focus on linguistic and bibliographical aspects of translation as well as translation movement. The most studied historical periods were the Contemporary, Abbasid, Qajar, Islamic Republic of Iran, and Pahlavi eras, while literary and religious texts were the most commonly examined genres. Although only a minority of articles engaged with explicit theoretical frameworks, the field shows clear signs of development. Overall, the study offers a broad picture of how research on translation history has evolved in the Iranian academic context over the past five decades.

Keywords: translation history, Iran, scientometrics, journal articles

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She has published numerous papers in national and international journals, focusing her research on cognitive translation studies, translation in online social media, and the philosophical and sociological dimensions of translation. She has presented at various national and international conferences and contributed chapters to several academic volumes published by Brill and Peter Lang. Since 2016, she has supervised numerous theses and dissertations in translation studies. Additionally, she is the author of "Task-based Coursebook for Translation Theories".

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In recent years, scientometric research has offered valuable insights into the development of translation studies by mapping trends, themes, and scholarly contributions across various domains. While this approach has been applied to numerous subfields and regions, the historical study of translation in the Iranian context remains notably underrepresented. Although Iranian scholars have produced a substantial body of work on translation history, these efforts have not yet been systematically analyzed to reveal patterns in publication, thematic focus, or methodological orientation. This study seeks to address that gap by conducting a scientometric analysis of journal articles published in Iran over the past five decades that focus specifically on the history of translation in Iran.

To guide this analysis, the study addresses the following research questions:

1. Which journals have published articles on the history of translation in Iran?
2. With which institutions are the journals that published these articles affiliated?
3. Which historical periods are most frequently examined in the articles?
4. Which text genres are most frequently analyzed in the articles?
5. Which themes are most frequently explored in the articles?
6. Which theoretical frameworks are most frequently employed in the articles?
7. What are the publication dates of the articles?
8. What are the places of publication for the journals that published these articles?

Literature Review

Over the past two decades, scientometric and bibliometric methods have been increasingly applied to investigate research trends, thematic developments, and the structural evolution of Translation Studies (TS) as an academic discipline. Gile (2015) provides an early foundational account of this approach by tracing the development of scientometric investigation in TS, beginning with the CIRIN Bulletin and moving toward more refined citation analyses. His study underscores both the opportunities and technical limitations involved in applying scientometric tools to a field that remains relatively fragmented and unevenly represented in bibliographic databases. He also highlights the value of scientometrics for training young researchers in understanding the discipline's structure.

Recent studies have continued to build on and diversify the scientometric analysis of TS. For instance, Pan and Wu (2023) examined 15 years of research outputs from eleven leading TS journals indexed in the WoS-SSCI, mapping the intellectual structures of the field and identifying evolving research trends. Their keyword and co-

citation analyses point to a dynamic thematic landscape, with new concepts and paradigms replacing earlier dominant topics, thereby illustrating the multidisciplinary and shifting nature of TS. Similarly, Umeanowai and Hu (2023) analyzed 1,948 papers from the Web of Science using Bibliometrix R and VOSviewer, identifying six major thematic clusters—including pedagogy and technology, audiovisual translation, and cognitive demand in interpreting—and confirming China, the USA, and the UK as central contributors to global TS scholarship. In another study, Hidayati (2024) focused on publications in the ScienceDirect database and identified underexplored areas such as the integration of artificial intelligence tools like ChatGPT, Google Bard AI, and DeepL in translation research. Her use of co-occurrence analysis and authorship mapping demonstrates how bibliometric tools can assist researchers in tracking both thematic gaps and leading scholars in the field. Zhu and Aryadoust (2023) conducted a large-scale scientometric review of TS literature published between 2001 and 2020 across fifteen journals indexed in Web of Science. Their document co-citation analysis revealed ten major research clusters—ranging from translation competence and collaborative translation to media translation and web localization—offering a comprehensive timeline of the field’s intellectual evolution and identifying key publications through burst detection analysis. Moreover, Alyami and Qassem (2024) mapped translation and interpreting research within the GCC states, highlighting Saudi Arabia’s leading role and emerging themes such as technology use and Arabic proficiency. Huang and Liu (2019) provided a bibliometric overview of international translation studies from 2014 to 2018, further contributing to understanding the field’s global dynamics.

Some scientometric studies have turned their attention to translation technology and machine translation, highlighting evolving research trends and thematic priorities. Mohsen et al. (2023) conducted a comprehensive analysis of 541 documents on machine translation published between 1992 and 2022 in journals indexed in Web of Science, employing tools such as CiteSpace and Bibexcel. Their findings identified eleven thematic clusters, with a strong focus on the integration of neural networks and artificial intelligence to enhance machine translation processes. The study also emphasized the growing role of human post-editing in improving translation quality and identified Google Translate as the most widely used tool. Additionally, Lijie (2024) applied CiteSpace to bibliometric data from both Web of Science and China National Knowledge Infrastructure, mapping key research hotspots in translation technology from 2013 to

2023. Her analysis underscored machine translation, computer-assisted translation, post-editing, and neural machine translation as dominant themes, while also identifying natural language processing and talent training as emergent research frontiers. Along the same line, He et al. (2022) offered a comparative bibliometric analysis of translation technology teaching (TTT) across Chinese and international publications from 1999 to 2020. Their study revealed significant methodological and thematic divergences between the two communities, with English-language research prioritizing machine translation post-editing pedagogy through empirical approaches, while Chinese-language studies favored corpus-based TTT using non-empirical methods.

Besides translation technology, other areas in translation studies have been the subject of scientometric analysis. Barturen Mondragón et al. (2024), for instance, examined 417 articles on legal translation and highlighted Spain as the most productive country in this domain, and legal translation, legal language, legal terminology and comparative law as the most frequently used terms. Zhu and Guo (2024) analyzed 237 articles on children's literature translation, revealing English–Chinese as the most studied language pair and noting a dominance of empirical research. They also showed that children's classics and translation strategies are the most investigated topics. Mu et al. (2021) and Xiong et al. (2023) traced the development of eco-translatology in China, identifying key research phases and prominent contributors like Hu Gengshen. Du and Chen (2022) conducted a bibliometric analysis of political discourse in translation, uncovering eight major research themes through keyword co-occurrence. Sun et al. (2023) mapped feminist translation research in China, observing a shift from rapid growth to recent decline, and Huang and Xin (2023) conducted a bibliometric analysis of research on translation criticism in China. Another scientometric study focusing on literary translation is done by He and Xiong (2025). They examined translator's style from a Chinese perspective, tracing its evolution in three stages and identifying corpus-based research as a dominant mode of inquiry.

In addition to theme-based analyses, some scientometric studies have addressed audiovisual translation and also the collaboration among researchers. Wang and Jalalian Daghigh (2024) reviewed two decades of audiovisual translation research, highlighting exponential growth in topics such as subtitling, dubbing, and media accessibility, and noting Europe and Iran as key contributors. Guo (2025) mapped the domain of

multimodal translation, revealing a surge in publications since 2012 and identifying subtitling, corpus-based analysis, and reception studies as central concerns. Sun and Liang (2023) analyzed academic collaboration in translation studies based on journal articles, reporting a marked increase in co-authorship over a decade and observing that researchers from developed countries occupy central roles in collaboration networks. Complementing this line of inquiry, Rovira-Esteva et al. (2020) conducted a large-scale bibliometric study of co-authorship using data from BITRA, uncovering long-term growth in co-authored publications, a slight citation advantage for journal articles with multiple authors, and low levels of international collaboration despite rising co-authorship trends.

A smaller number of scientometric studies have turned their attention to underexplored forms and specific translated works. Li and Liang (2024) conducted a bibliometric analysis of book reviews in translation journals, uncovering a slight decline in review publications, a tendency toward conventional review formats, and regional and topical biases. Focusing on a single canonical text, Wang and Mat Said (2025) analyzed research on English translations of *The Analects of Confucius*, identifying three dominant themes—translator-focused studies, explorations of Confucian concepts, and ideological analyses—while also highlighting the need for more theoretically diverse approaches. Similarly, Wu and Xi (2024) mapped the evolving landscape of translation studies on Mo Yan's works in China, noting shifts in publication trends, the prominence of studies on translation strategies and key translators, and the absence of a cohesive research community.

Several scientometric studies have examined translation research within specific national or regional contexts, revealing distinct scholarly trajectories and institutional dynamics. Li (2017) assessed the international visibility of mainland Chinese scholars, highlighting their limited global impact and distinct thematic focus compared to dominant anglophone research. Alikina et al. (2016) analyzed Russian dissertations on translation pedagogy, identifying key thematic trends and institutional centers of activity. Similarly, Grbić and Pöllabauer (2008) mapped community interpreting research in German-speaking countries, offering detailed insights into publication types, thematic clusters, and collaborative networks.

Taken together, these studies demonstrate that scientometric research in translation studies has examined a wide range of publication types, including journal articles and book reviews, utilizing various databases and software tools. They have explored diverse subfields within translation studies and focused on different geographic regions. However, there remains a noticeable lack of scientometric studies addressing translation history, particularly in the context of Iran—a gap that the present research seeks to fill.

Methodology

To identify articles on the history of translation in Iran which were published in Iranian academic journals, three databases were consulted: Noormags (www.noormags.ir), Magiran (www.magiran.com), and the Humanities Portal (www.ensani.ir). These databases are widely recognized for their comprehensive archives of Persian-language academic journals and serve as essential resources for research in the humanities and social sciences. A list of Persian and English keywords, covering both general and specific topics related to translation history in Iran, guided the search process. The Persian keywords included: 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. The English keywords used were: “history of translation, translation history, translation movement, movement, history, Persian, Farsi, Arabic, Baghdad, Persia, Iran, translation, and translator”.

The search in these databases was confined to articles published over a period of 50 years, from 1971 to 2021. The year 1971 was chosen as the starting point due to limited or no access to earlier publications or their lack of relevance. The endpoint of 2021 was selected to correspond with the initiation of the research in 2022.

Each keyword was entered into the advanced search fields of the databases. On Magiran, where various article types are indexed, the search was limited to scholarly articles, and keywords were entered into the TITLE, ABSTRACT, and KEYWORDS fields, as full-text search functionality was unavailable. For Noormags and the Humanities Portal, searches included TITLE, ABSTRACT, KEYWORDS, and TEXT fields. While

Magiran's publication year filter was unreliable, Noormags and the Humanities Portal allowed for accurate retrieval of articles published between 1971 and 2021. Some significant journals (e.g., *Iranian Journal of Translation Studies*) were not indexed in these three databases. In such cases, the official websites of these journals were checked to identify relevant articles.

The entire search process yielded 1006 records from Magiran, 6401 from Noormags, 230 from the Humanities Portal, and 117 from independent journal website searches. Each record was briefly reviewed to assess relevance based on content and publication year (1971–2021), and irrelevant results were excluded. Furthermore, each journal's status 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 from 'review journals' or 'cultural journals' were therefore excluded. Following this filtering process, a final dataset of 370 academic journal articles published between 1971 and 2021 in Iran and focused on the history of translation in Iran was compiled.

These 370 articles were analyzed in two stages. In the first stage, four pieces of bibliographic information were collected for each article: journal title, journal affiliation, publication year, and publication city. This information was obtained without reading the full content of the articles and was recorded in Excel files. To ensure compatibility with VOSviewer, which does not support Persian, all entries were documented in English. Where English bibliographic data were not already available, Persian information was translated accordingly.

In the second stage, the full texts of all 370 articles were read, and four additional categories of information were extracted: the historical period examined in the article, the article's primary theme, the theoretical frameworks applied, and the text genres explored. To carry out these two stages, 12 trained research assistants were recruited and instructed on how to record bibliographic data and conduct thematic analysis using a pre-designed template. The collected data were then reviewed for inconsistencies, such as variations in terminology. For instance, if one assistant recorded a genre as "literature" and another as "literary," these were standardized to "literary." Likewise, thematic terms like "linguistic analysis," "linguistic investigation," and "comparative

linguistics” were reconciled under the unified label “linguistic.” The standardized data were then entered into Excel files.

The data collected in both stages was analyzed using VOSviewer (version 1.6.20, 2023). As VOSviewer supports data from sources like Web of Science and Scopus but not directly from Excel files, the dataset was converted into RIS (Research Information Systems) format, which is compatible with VOSviewer. This required the application of specific RIS tags to the data.

Once converted, the RIS files were imported into VOSviewer to conduct a scientometric analysis and generate density visualizations across eight categories: (1) journal titles, (2) journal affiliations, (3) time of publication, (4) place of publication, (5) historical periods, (6) themes, (7) theoretical frameworks, and (8) text genres. The results of this analysis are presented in the following section.

Results

The scientometric analysis of the 370 articles yielded quantitative insights across eight categories, each aligned with a specific research question. These categories include: journal titles, journal affiliation, publication date, publication place, historical periods examined, dominant themes, theoretical frameworks employed, and genres of texts analyzed. Each category is discussed in the following subsections, accompanied by visualizations generated through VOSviewer.

Journal Titles

This section addresses the first research question: “Which journals have published articles on the history of translation in Iran?” To identify the primary publication venues for translation history research, journal titles associated with the 370 articles were extracted and analyzed. The results showed that these articles were distributed across 126 distinct Iranian scholarly journals.

The journal titles were imported into VOSviewer to generate a density visualization, with the aim of identifying publication clusters and highlighting journals with the highest frequency of contributions. The resulting map is presented in Figure 1.

Beyond these specialized journals, a significant number of articles were published in journals devoted to Persian language and literature or linguistics, including *Nameh-ye Farhangestan*, *Critical Studies in Text and Programs in Human Sciences*, and *Textual Criticism in Persian Literature*. These journals, while not focused on translation, have served as important venues for exploring the historical dimensions of translation in the Iranian context.

More than 60% of the journals in the dataset published only a single article on the history of translation. This indicates that while a few journals have established themselves as consistent contributors, much of the research remains dispersed across a wide range of less frequent publication venues.

Journal Affiliations

This section addresses the second research question: “*With which institutions are the journals that published the articles affiliated?*” In this study, journal affiliation refers to the academic center, university, organization, or individual responsible for managing and publishing the journal.

An institutional mapping of the 126 journals in the dataset revealed that they are affiliated with 71 different entities, including universities, research institutes, cultural organizations, and individuals. Journals independently managed by individuals, without an institutional affiliation, were categorized as “private”.

These affiliation data were processed using VOSviewer to generate a density visualization, allowing for the identification of key institutional contributors to research on the history of translation in Iran. The resulting map is shown in Figure 2.

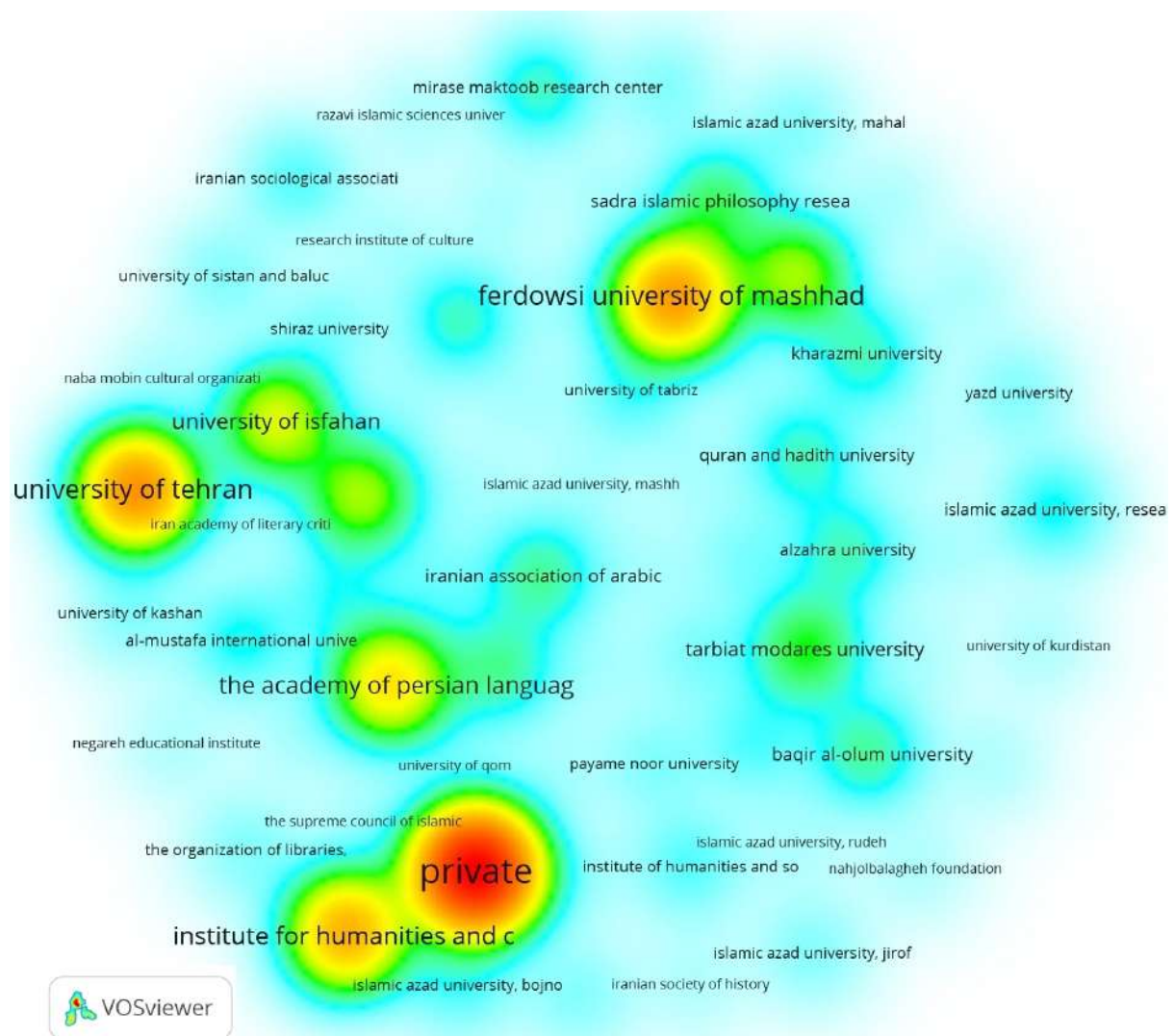
The density map highlights privately managed journals in red, indicating that journals without institutional backing constitute the most frequent contributors to the field. This finding suggests a substantial level of individual or non-institutional scholarly initiative in the area of translation history.

Following the private sector, the *University of Tehran* and *Ferdowsi University of Mashhad* are the most prominent institutional contributors, both marked in orange on the density map. Collectively, these two universities are affiliated with a notable number of journals—together contributing 66 articles to the dataset.

Other significant contributors include national research bodies such as the *Institute for Humanities and Cultural Studies* and the *Academy of Persian Language and Literature*, each serving as institutional homes for journals that have consistently engaged with translation history research.

These findings demonstrate that while institutional journals—particularly those affiliated with major universities—play a central role in the publication landscape, a substantial portion of translation history research is also disseminated through privately run journals, indicating a diverse and decentralized publication ecology.

Figure 2
Density Visualization of Journal Affiliations

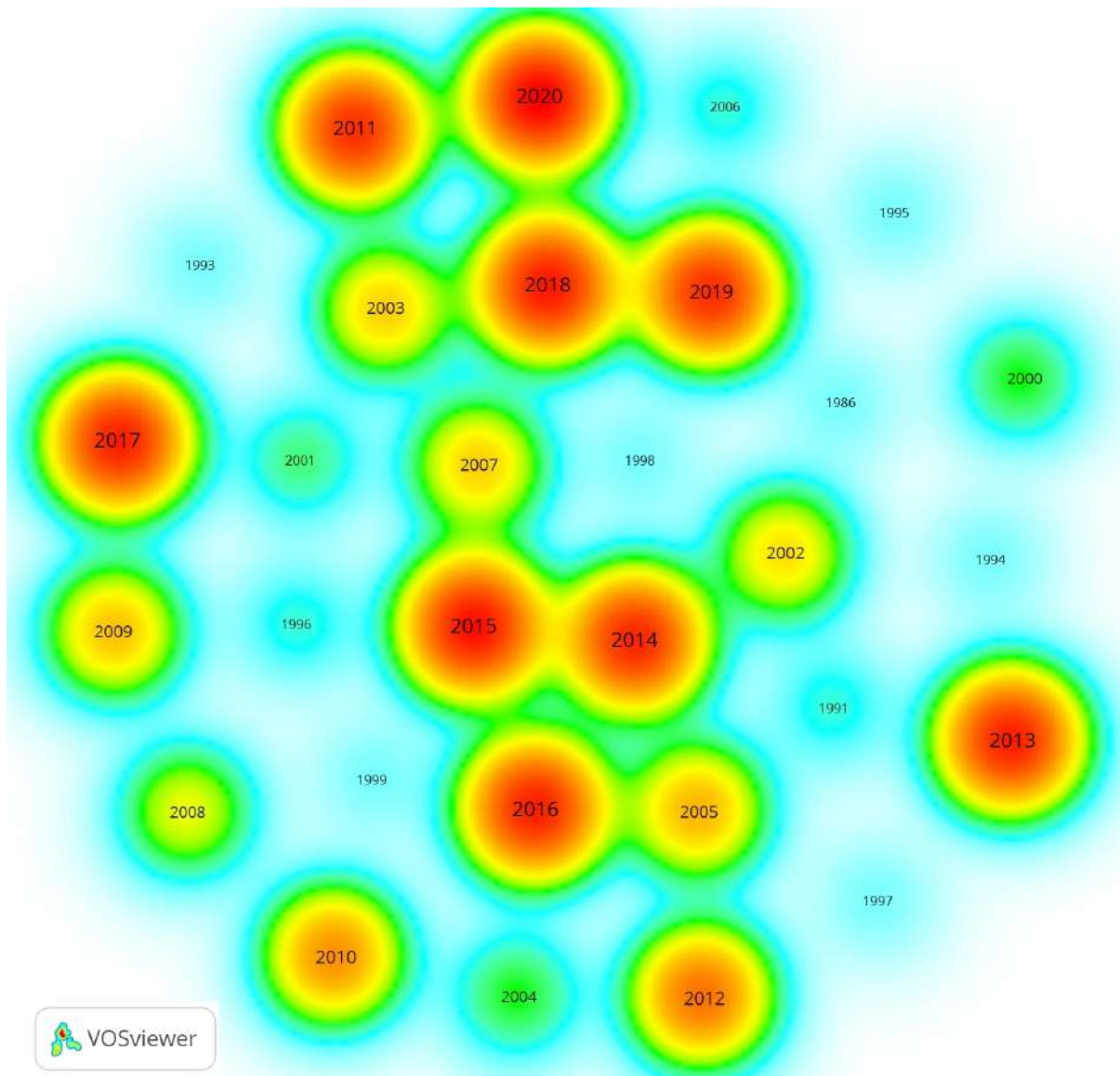


Publication Dates

This section addresses the research question: “What are the publication dates of the articles on the history of translation in Iran?” The temporal distribution of the 370 articles was analyzed across a 50-year span (1971–2021) to identify trends in publication activity. The publication dates were processed in VOSviewer, and the resulting density visualization is presented in Figure 3.

Figure 3

Density Visualization of Publication Dates



The visualization reveals a steady increase in publication frequency over time, with significant clustering observed in the years 2011 to 2020. The years 2020, 2019, 2018, 2017, 2016, 2015, 2014, 2013, and 2011 are highlighted in red, indicating peak activity in the field during this period.

This upward trend can be attributed to interrelated factors. First, the overall expansion of scientific publishing over recent decades has led to increased scholarly output across disciplines, and the field of translation history has naturally followed this general pattern of growth. Second, the rising recognition of translation history as a distinct and valuable area of inquiry has contributed to its growing prominence within the academic landscape.

These findings reflect the maturation of translation studies in Iran and suggest a developing awareness of translation history as a legitimate and increasingly important research domain.

Publication Place

This section addresses the question: “What are the places of publication for the journals that published the articles?” In this context, ‘place of publication’ refers to the Iranian city where the journal that published the article is based. The objective of this analysis is to explore the geographical distribution of scholarly output on the history of translation in Iran. The data were input into VOSviewer to produce a density visualization, presented in Figure 4.

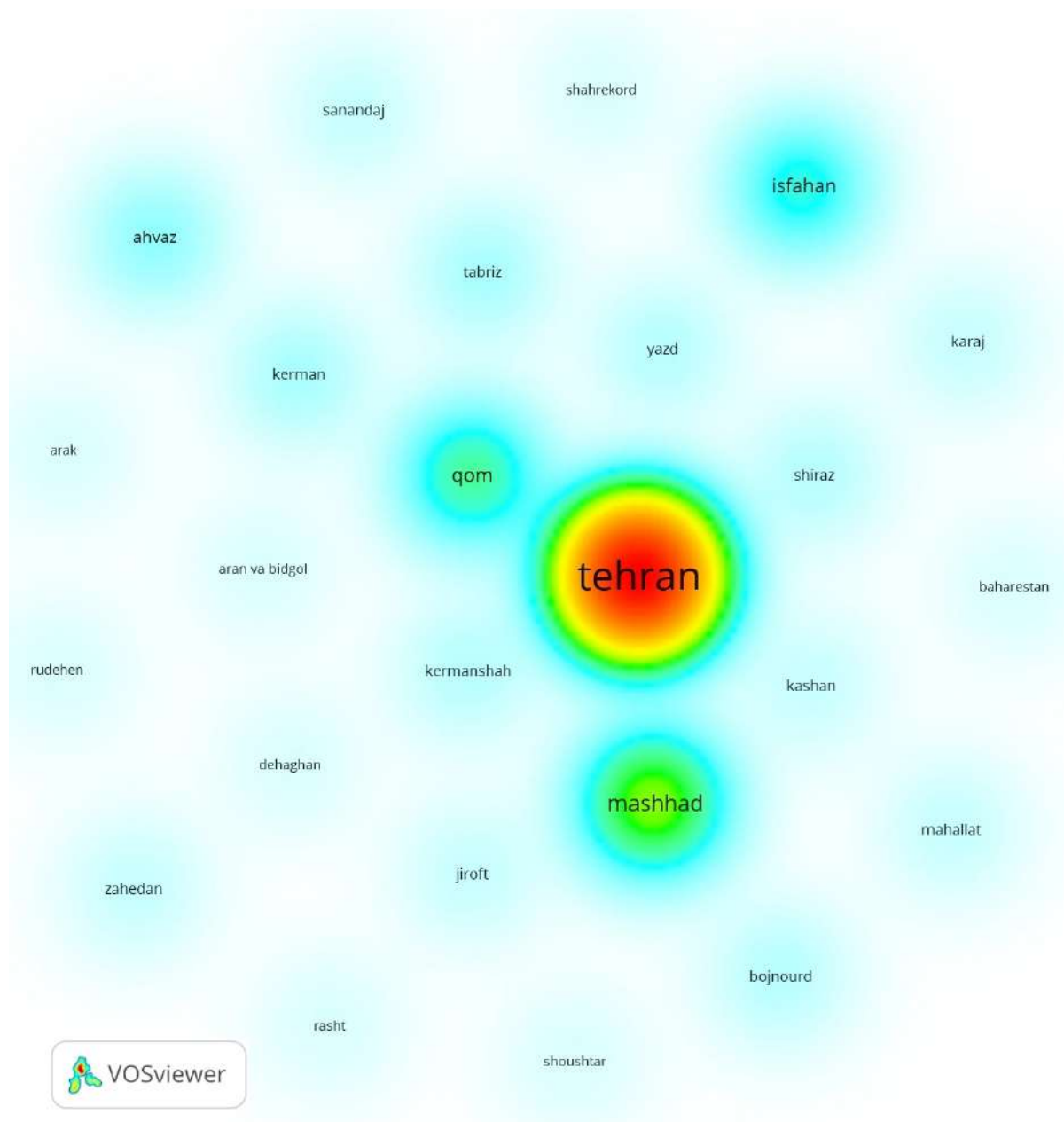
As illustrated in Figure 4, Tehran emerges as the central hub for publications on translation history, marked in red on the density map. This dominance is not unexpected, given Tehran’s dual role as both the political and scientific capital of Iran. The city hosts a concentration of major academic institutions, research centers, and professional publishers. Of particular significance is Allameh Tabataba’i University, a leading center for Translation Studies, which contributes heavily to the scholarly output in this field.

Following Tehran, the city of Mashhad ranks second in terms of publication volume. This position is largely attributable to Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, widely recognized as another highly prominent academic institution for Translation Studies in Iran. Both Tehran and Mashhad are also home to the two most influential journals in the field—*Iranian Journal of Translation Studies* and *Journal of Language and Translation Studies*—which further reinforces their prominence.

Qom ranks third in publication frequency. This is primarily due to the presence of specialized institutions such as Baqir al-Olum University and the University of Quran and Hadith. These universities, focused on Islamic Studies, are responsible for journals like *Hadith Sciences* and *The Journal of History of Islam*, which often publish research on religious translation and the historical development of Quranic translation practices.

Figure 4

Density Visualization of Publication Place



Additionally, both Mashhad and Qom host prominent Islamic scientific centers, which have long-standing interests in the translation of religious and classical texts. This

thematic focus significantly contributes to the cities' roles in the production of scholarly knowledge on translation history in Iran.

Historical Periods

To address the question, "Which historical periods are most frequently examined in the articles on the history of translation in Iran?", a systematic categorization of the temporal focus of each article was carried out. Of the 370 articles analyzed, 276 provided a clearly identifiable historical period, while 94 either addressed multiple periods too broadly to be categorized or lacked specific temporal references altogether. This absence can be attributed to articles that either spanned extensive historical timelines or adopted comparative frameworks across several epochs, thus resisting confinement to a single defined period.

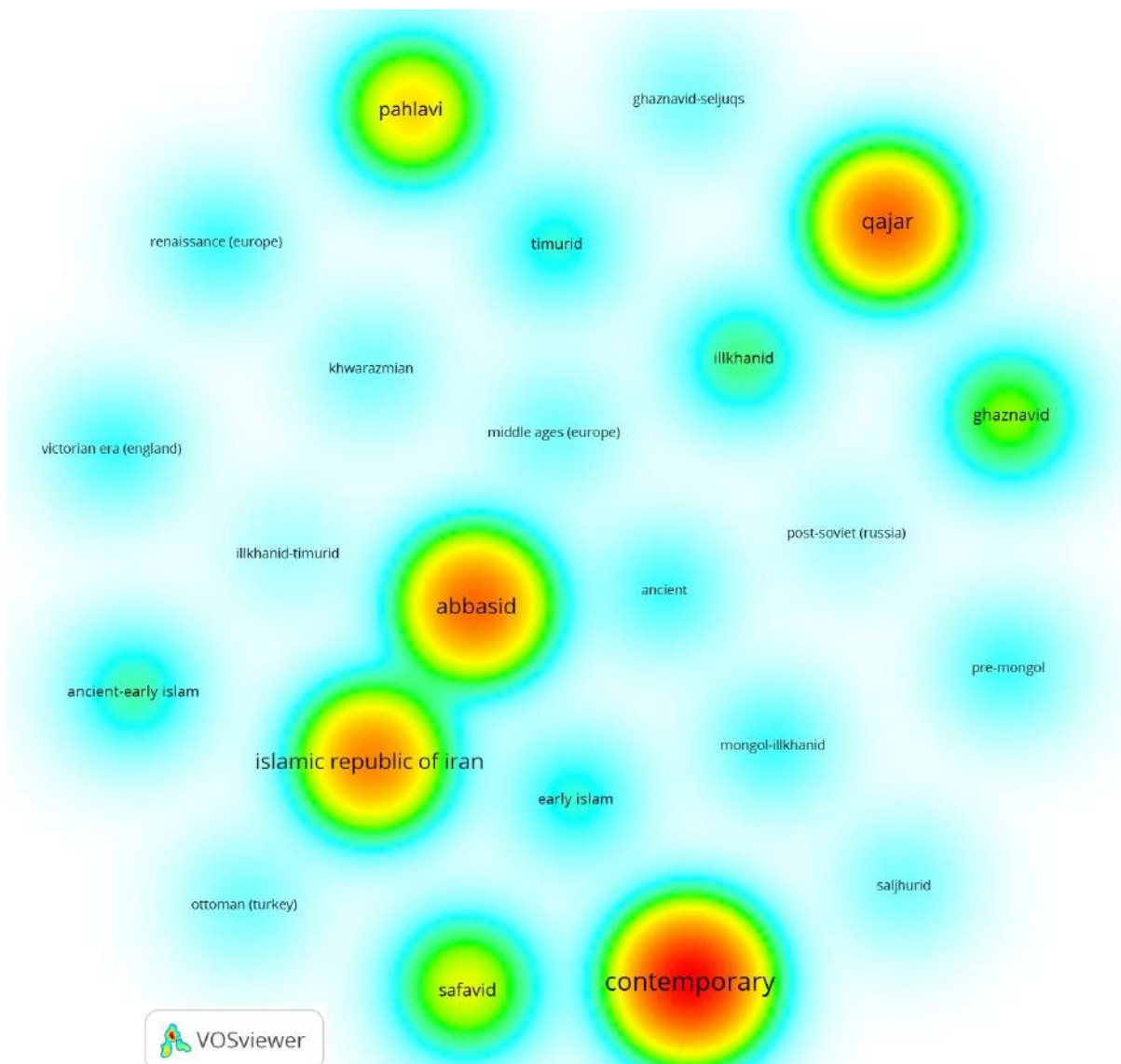
In this phase, historical periods explicitly stated in the articles were first extracted and recorded. Subsequently, similar or overlapping periods were grouped into broader categories where appropriate, resulting in a classification of 25 distinct historical periods. In cases where articles simultaneously addressed the Qajar, Pahlavi, and Islamic Republic of Iran periods, the label "Contemporary" was applied. This designation refers to the period beginning in the 18th century and was adopted to capture instances where these three consecutive periods were analyzed together without clear separation. Additionally, some articles frequently engaged in comparative analyses or explored more than one historical period simultaneously. To account for this pattern, three broader categorizations – "Early Islam", "Ancient" and "Pre-Mongol" – were employed to represent the general historical scope covered in such articles. Furthermore, four historical period labels namely "Post-Soviet", "Renaissance", "Victorian Era", and "Middle Ages" appeared in articles that investigated Europe as the target society of translation activities. These designations were maintained as they were explicitly mentioned in the respective publications.

The 25 categorized historical periods were entered into VOSviewer to generate a density visualization, as shown in Figure 5. This visualization represents the frequency and occurrence of historical periods in the dataset. The denser clusters marked in red and orange correspond to periods that appeared most frequently in the corpus. These include Contemporary, Abbasid, Qajar, Islamic Republic of Iran, and Pahlavi. The

prominence of the Abbasid period is attributable to the renowned translation movement of that era, which has attracted sustained academic attention. The frequent appearance of the Qajar, Pahlavi, and Islamic Republic periods likely reflects both the greater availability of primary and secondary sources for modern history and the continuity of translation movement in post-18th-century Iran. Furthermore, the establishment of new connections between Iran and Europe during these periods may explain the growing scholarly interest in translation as a socio-cultural practice.

Figure 5

Density Visualization of Historical Periods

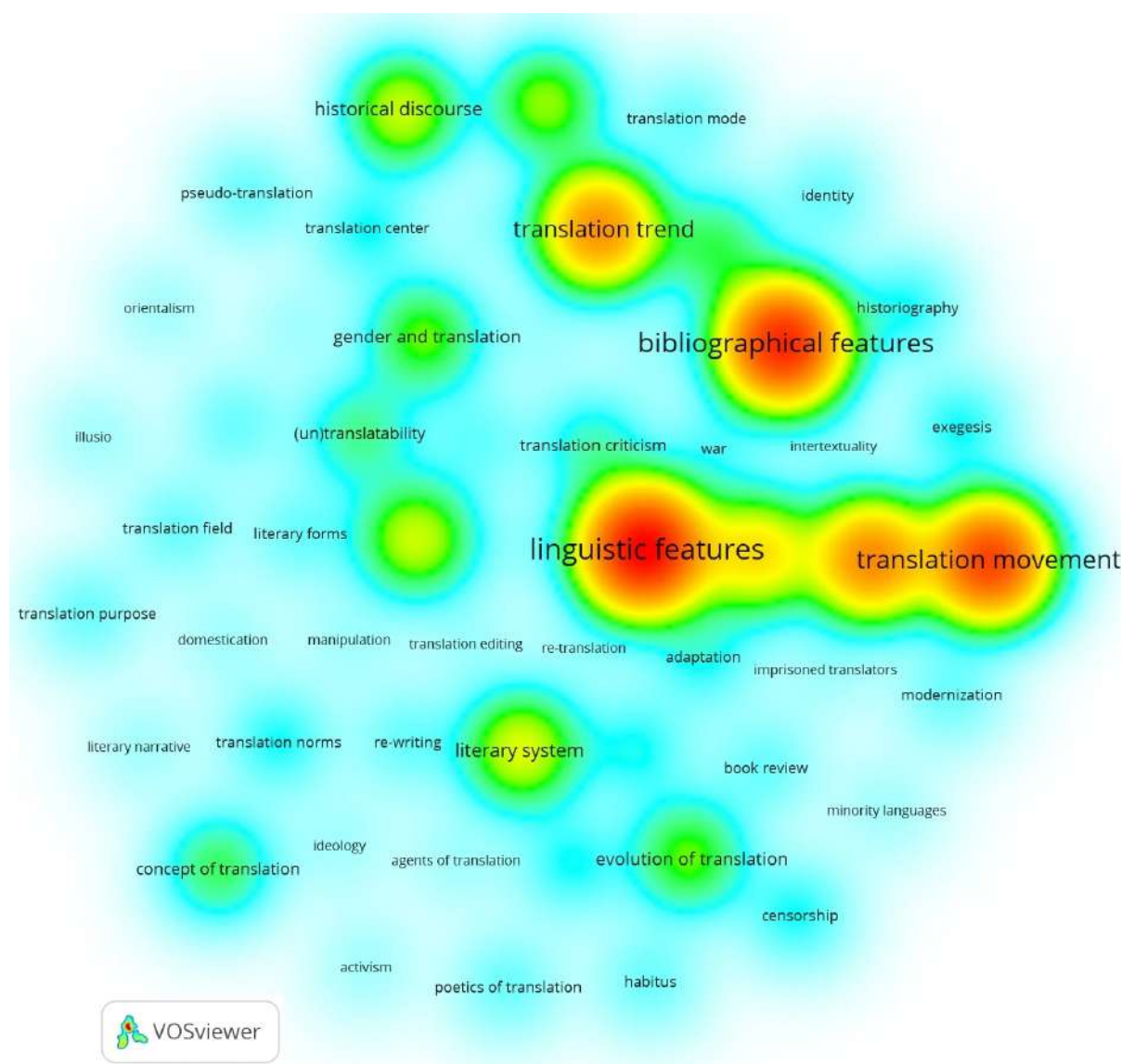


Themes

This section addresses the sixth research question: “Which themes are most frequently explored in the articles?” The thematic analysis focused on identifying the

central topics addressed by each article. Every article was assigned a single dominant theme based on its primary focus. Through close examination, 56 distinct themes were identified, reflecting a broad spectrum of scholarly interests within the field of translation history in Iran. These themes were subsequently analyzed using VOSviewer, and the resulting density visualization is presented in Figure 6.

Figure 6
Density Visualization of Themes



The density map highlights three dominant thematic clusters in red: “linguistic features”, “bibliographical features”, and “translation movement”, indicating their prominence across the corpus.

The high frequency of the “linguistic features” theme suggests that a substantial portion of research in this area has adopted a linguistic lens, analyzing syntactic, lexical, or stylistic elements in translated texts. This trend may be attributed to the influence of linguistics-oriented disciplines—such as Persian language studies and general linguistics—on the study of translation history in Iran. Additionally, it reflects the long-standing scholarly tradition in Iran of treating translation as a linguistic act, even within historical investigations.

The second most frequent theme, “bibliographical features”, points to a focus on the bibliographical aspects of translations, including publication details and translator biographies. The prominence of this theme may reflect the relative underdevelopment of historiographical methodologies in Iranian translation studies. As such, many articles appear to approach historical topics through descriptive accounts of translated works rather than through theoretically grounded historical frameworks.

The third major theme, “translation movement”, captures scholarly interest in the two pivotal translation movements in Iranian history: one occurring during the early Islamic period and the other in modern times. These movements are regarded as milestones in Iran’s intellectual and cultural development, and their historical significance has prompted considerable academic attention.

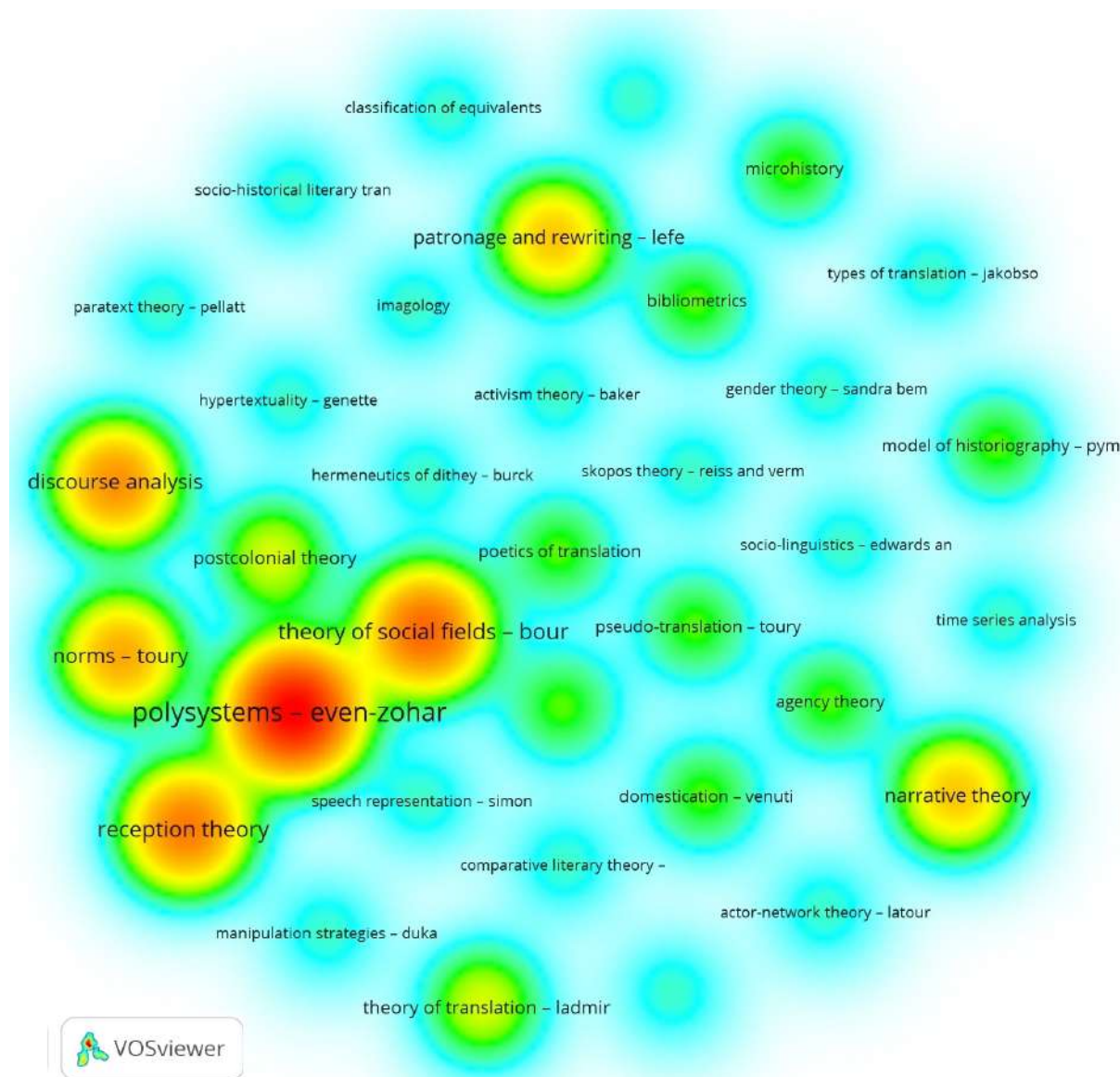
Overall, the thematic distribution reveals that while linguistics remains a dominant lens, there is also growing interest in broader historical and bibliographical dimensions. However, the findings suggest that more theoretically oriented historiographical approaches have yet to become mainstream within the Iranian context of translation history research.

Theoretical Frameworks

This section addresses the research question: “Which theoretical frameworks are most frequently employed in the articles?” Of the 370 articles included in this analysis, 280 did not adopt any identifiable theoretical framework. This observation indicates that a substantial proportion of the literature on translation history in Iran may lack an explicit methodological or theoretical orientation. Among the remaining 90 articles, which employed one or more theoretical frameworks, most were authored by scholars specializing in translation studies. The majority of these studies applied a single

framework, while only a few incorporated two. In total, 35 distinct theoretical frameworks were identified across these 90 articles. These frameworks were imported into VOSviewer to visualize the relative frequency and centrality of each in the literature. The resulting density visualization is presented in Figure 7.

Figure 7
Density Visualization of Theoretical Frameworks



As illustrated in Figure 7, Polysystem Theory, developed by Even-Zohar, appears as the most frequently employed framework, highlighted in red. Its prominence is likely due to its suitability for the historical study of translated literature within broader literary and cultural systems. Other frequently used frameworks include Bourdieu’s Theory of Social Fields, Reception Theory, Discourse Analysis, and Toury’s Theory of Norms, all of which are highlighted in orange. The recurrence of these frameworks

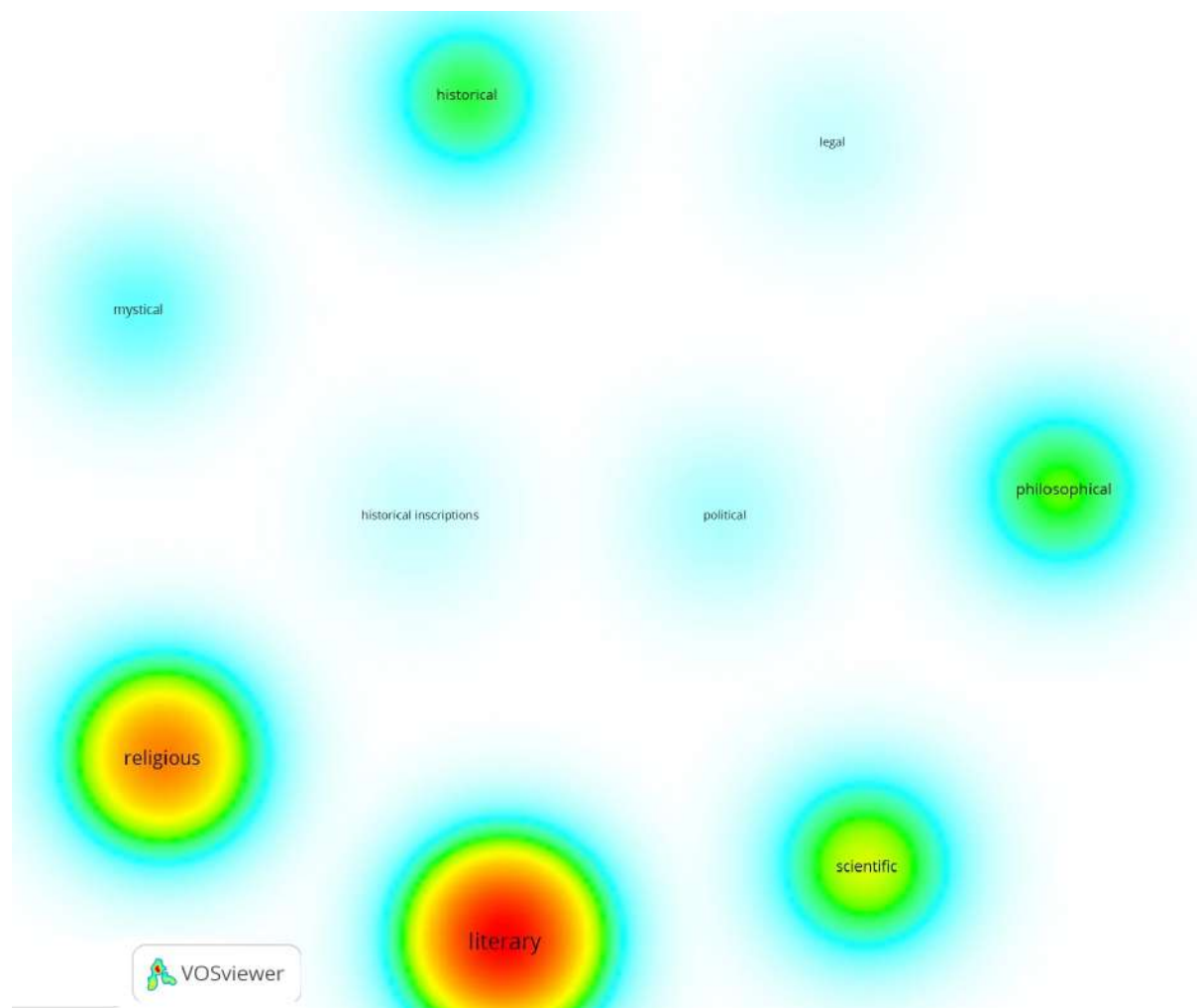
indicates a growing alignment with sociocultural and descriptive approaches in the study of translation history in Iran.

Text Genres

To address the research question, “Which textual genres are investigated in articles on the history of translation in Iran?”, all 370 articles were reviewed. Of these, 103 articles did not specify any particular textual genre, either due to their theoretical orientation or their broad historical focus. The remaining 267 articles included a clear focus on specific genres of source or target texts. These genres were manually extracted and systematically classified into nine distinct genre categories for analysis.

Figure 8

Density Visualization of Explored Genres



The genre classifications were then entered into VOSviewer to generate a density visualization, which is presented in Figure 8. As shown in the visualization, the most frequently examined genre is the literary genre, indicated by the densest red cluster.

This is followed by the religious genre, which also shows a significant degree of clustering. The predominance of literary texts in the data set reflects the enduring centrality of literature within Iranian cultural production and scholarly discourse. The long-standing prestige of literary translation, along with the increased accessibility of literary texts in recent decades, may account for this concentration.

The religious genre, likewise, features prominently in the corpus, a trend likely rooted in the pivotal role of Qur'anic translation in Iran's intellectual and religious traditions. As an Islamic country, Iran has produced extensive scholarship on the translation of sacred texts, particularly the Qur'an, which has contributed to the genre's visibility in historical translation studies.

The relatively lower frequency of other genres—such as scientific, philosophical, or legal texts—may reflect both the narrower scope of these domains and their limited accessibility to a wider research audience. These findings suggest that genre focus within historical translation research in Iran remains strongly anchored in literary and religious domains.

Conclusion

This scientometric study sought to map and analyze the evolution of research on the history of translation in Iran by examining 370 articles published between 1971 and 2021. Utilizing VOSviewer for data visualization, the study categorized the articles across eight key dimensions: journal titles, journal affiliations, publication chronology, publication geography, historical periods, thematic orientations, theoretical frameworks, and textual genres. The findings provide a structured overview of the intellectual output in this area and offer valuable insights into the knowledge production patterns that have shaped the field over the past five decades.

The data reveal a consistent upward trend in the volume of publications, particularly after 2010, which reflects both the general expansion of academic publishing in Iran and the increasing institutionalization of translation studies as a formal discipline. During this period, more articles were published as translation history gained greater attention and became more established as a serious area of study. This growth has been further supported by specialized journals that have provided targeted platforms for disseminating historical translation scholarship.

From an institutional perspective, the majority of articles were affiliated with a limited number of universities, with the University of Tehran and Ferdowsi University of Mashhad emerging as the most prolific centers. Journals managed privately or by academic institutions in Tehran and Mashhad accounted for the bulk of publications, pointing to a centralization of scholarly output. This spatial concentration is further evidenced by the publication place analysis, which identified Tehran, Mashhad, and Qom as dominant cities—each hosting major academic or religious institutions that support translation research.

The thematic analysis uncovered 56 recurring topics, with “linguistic features”, “bibliographical features”, and “translation movements” appearing most frequently. These findings suggest a prevailing focus on text-based and bibliographic approaches, potentially reflecting the disciplinary origins of many contributors from literature, linguistics, or Islamic studies. Although only 90 articles engaged with theoretical frameworks, those that did showed a preference for paradigms well-suited to historical analysis—most notably polysystem theory, discourse analysis, and the theory of norms—indicating the gradual integration of translation theory into historical research.

In sum, this scientometric assessment demonstrates that the study of translation history in Iran has progressed considerably, though it remains unevenly developed in terms of theoretical engagement and institutional diversity. The concentration of scholarly activity in a few academic hubs underscores the need for broader national participation and inter-institutional collaboration. Future research may benefit from methodological diversification, deeper theoretical anchoring, and more balanced geographic distribution—steps that will contribute to the maturity and international relevance of translation history research in Iran.

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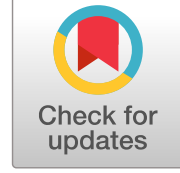
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A WOMAN IS NO MAN. A TRANSLATOR IS (NO) AUTHOR? RESISTING THE SHARED SUBORDINATION OF WOMEN AND TRANSLATORS THROUGH *TRANSLATORHANDLING*

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Abstract



This article proposes translatorhandling as a conceptual framework to theorize the intentional and strategic interventions made by feminist translators across textual, peritextual, and epitextual realms. It aims to expand the current understanding of translator visibility and reframe the role of the feminist translator within the evolving field of Feminist Translation Studies (FTS). This study argues that through translatorhandling, feminist translators not only ‘womanhandle’ texts to amplify silenced women’s voices and make language speak for women but also assert their creative agency and professional visibility primarily through epitextual channels. Etaf Rum’s *A Woman is No Man* and its Turkish translation, *Kadının Sesi Yok* [A woman has no voice] by Arzu Altınanıt, constitute the case of this research. Thematic analysis of Altınanıt’s blog, *Bir Çevirmenin Dünyası* [A Translator’s World], and her X (formerly Twitter) posts demonstrates how she engages in translatorhandling as a form of dual resistance: amplifying women’s voices and challenging the systemic invisibility of translators. The findings reveal how she publicly claims interpretive agency, contests the industry’s erasure of translators, and positions herself as a co-creator. Mapping this emerging practice, the article highlights translatorhandling as a powerful feminist intervention that transcends textual boundaries, positioning translator’s voice as a force of solidarity and transformation in public discourse.

Keywords: translatorhandling, feminist translation, translator’s visibility, Arzu Altınanıt, *A Woman is No Man*, *Kadının Sesi Yok*

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The historical relationship between women and translation/translators is deeply embedded in their shared condition of subordination. Both have traditionally been perceived as derivative, secondary, and reproductive, occupying peripheral positions within patriarchal hierarchies. As Sherry Simon observes, '[t]ranslators and women have historically been the weaker figures in their respective hierarchies: translators are handmaidens to authors, women inferior to men' (1996, p. 1). Similarly, von Flotow (1997, p. 75) argues that translation has historically been framed in gendered terms, often in ways that reinforce its association with femininity and inferiority. As patriarchal systems have marginalized women's contributions, literary and publishing spheres have historically deemed translation secondary, effacing the translator's role. This dual marginalization—where both women and translators are denied full recognition of their intellectual contributions—places them in a shared struggle for visibility and agency.

Feminist Translation Studies (FTS), growing out of an awareness of this structural analogy, aims to 'identify and critique the tangle of concepts which relegates both women and translation to the bottom of the social and literary ladder' (Simon, 1996, p. 1). Seeking to dismantle these traditional hierarchies, FTS redefines translation as an act of creative and intellectual production rather than a simple, passive reproduction (Andone, 2002, p. 135; Chamberlain, 1988, p. 466; Godard, 1989, p. 47; von Flotow, 2023). Accordingly, feminist translators reject the conventional notions of fidelity and invisibility, instead embracing an interventionist approach that asserts their agency and visibility as co-authors and co-creators (von Flotow, 1997, pp. 21-22; Federici & Fortunati, 2011).

Etaf Rum's debut novel *A Woman is No Man* (2019) and its Turkish translation *Kadının Sesi Yok* [A woman has no voice] (2022) constructing the case of this study, offer a particularly resonant ground for exploring the shared subordination and shared resistance of women and translators. In her novel, Etaf Rum, a Palestinian American author, delves into the experiences of three generations of Palestinian American women living in Brooklyn. Through the characters Isra, an immigrant bride brought to New York, her mother-in-law Fareeda, and her daughter Deya, the story highlights cultural and familial pressures that silence women's voices, while also revealing the seeds of resistance that can emerge when women seek to reshape their destinies. The novel's

title itself, *A Woman is No Man*, resonates as a blunt statement on how patriarchy frames womanhood: a woman, in essence, is deemed inferior to a man, lacking equal rights or voice. The novel's frank depiction of generational trauma and its emphasis on women's longing to speak out have resonated with a global audience, positioning it as a New York Times bestseller. It has been translated into multiple languages, including Turkish, French, Italian, German, and Arabic.

When *A Woman is No Man* was translated into Turkish in 2022 by Arzu Altınanıt, it was published with the title of *Kadının Sesi Yok*. This re-titling foregrounds the fundamental theme of the novel, the voicelessness of women. While the novel's central question addresses how Palestinian American women might reclaim their voices, the Turkish translation raises an additional, equally compelling question: how could the translator herself, another traditionally marginalized figure, claim her own visibility within a publishing market that often erases the translator's creative role? In carrying Rum's narrative into Turkish, Altınanıt confronts a parallel dynamic: just as Rum's female characters refuse to be muted, can the translator likewise refuse to remain unheard and unseen?

This article examines precisely that intersection. Building on FTS arguments, eager to dismantle the shared subordination of women and translators, it explores how the Turkish translator Altınanıt's work on *Kadının Sesi Yok* exemplifies an act of resistance on two fronts. On the textual front, her translation carries Rum's feminist critique into a new linguistic and cultural context, ensuring the voices of oppressed women characters in the novel are heard in Turkish. On the professional front, she navigates a publishing industry culture that often undervalues or disregards translators' labour and significance. Accordingly, this study analyses: (1) how Arzu Altınanıt, as the Turkish translator, amplifies the novel's theme of marginalized women's voices; (2) how she subverts the traditional invisibility of translators by asserting herself as a co-creative agent and reclaiming her agency through what can be termed **translatorhandling**; and (3) what this case demonstrates about the transformative potential of feminist translation practices in empowering both women and translators.

To address these research questions, this study conducts thematic analysis of epitextual materials, including the Turkish translator Arzu Altınanıt's personal blog, *Bir*

Çevirmenin Dünyası [A Translator's World], and her posts on X (formerly Twitter). To this end, firstly, all blog entries and X posts published up to July 2025 were compiled, with particular focus on those related to *A Woman is No Man* and *Kadının Sesi Yok*, as well as those that problematize the subordination and oppression of both women and translators. Then, these materials were manually coded and analyzed thematically to explore how Arzu Altınanıt advocates for silenced women and asserts her translatorship through translatorhandling by flaunting her signature epitextually across digital platforms.

The following sections discuss the shared subordination and resistance of women and translators, introduce the concept of *translatorhandling*, and then analyse Altınanıt's translation of *A Woman is No Man* as a case study before concluding with broader implications.

Women and Translators: Shared Subordination & Shared Resistance

The systemic subordination of women in patriarchal societies closely parallels the marginalization of translators in literary production. Patriarchal literary traditions have often silenced women, casting them as minor figures rather than authors or powerful characters. Similarly, translation has historically been framed as a secondary and derivative endeavour. As Andone argues, '[t]he original is the natural, the truth, and the paternal authority, whereas the translation, like the woman, is secondary and imitation' (2002, p. 143). This understanding reduces both women and translators to mere reproductive agents rather than creators.

FTS directly addresses the subordinate positioning of both women and translators within their conventional hierarchies. By highlighting how both groups have been dismissed as secondary, FTS underscores the need to empower them concurrently. It not only enables language to speak for women but also seeks to dismantle traditional sexist conceptions of translation and, in turn, cultivate a new understanding of both translation and the role of the translator. Feminist translators argue that translation is a form of creative production and a type of original writing, rather than merely a mechanical reproduction (Andone, 2002, p. 135; Chamberlain, 1988, p. 466; Godard, 1989, p. 47; von Flotow, 2023). Accordingly, within FTS, the translator's role shifts from passive to interventionist, directly challenging traditional approaches that advocate for

translator invisibility. Feminist translators who align their work with feminist activism deliberately overstep the boundaries of conventional fidelity and invisibility, asserting their agency through visible and intentional textual interventions (von Flotow, 1997, pp. 21, 22; Federici & Fortunati, 2011). Foregrounding this interventionist approach, Barbara Godard introduces the concept of ‘womanhandling the text,’ which she defines as follows:

[t]he feminist translator, affirming her critical difference, her delight in interminable re-reading and rewriting, flaunts the signs of her manipulation of the text. Womanhandling the text in translation would involve the replacement of the modest, self-effacing translator. Taking her place would be an active participant in the creation of meaning, who advances a conditional analysis. Hers is a continuing provisionality, aware of process, giving self-reflexive attention to practices. The feminist translator immodestly flaunts her signature in italics, in footnotes - even in a preface (1989, p. 50).

‘Womanhandling’ empowers translators to assert their presence by ‘flaunting their signatures’, incorporating footnotes, or adding prefaces that elucidate their translatorial choices. Through these deliberate interventions, the translator explicitly marks her presence. She ceases to be an invisible, neutral conduit and instead becomes an engaged participant in meaning-making, who actively stands in solidarity with female authors and characters. von Flotow’s (1991) framework of feminist translation strategies, particularly prefacing and footnoting, closely aligns with Godard’s conception of womanhandling, as both aim to foreground the translator’s active and self-reflexive engagement with the text, most notably in paratextual spaces such as footnotes and prefaces. Although more recent feminist translation discussions (Castro & Ergün, 2018, p. 129; Castro & Spoturno, 2022, para. 9-10; Castro et al., 2024, p. 8) have noted that these strategies emerged within the specific linguistic, literary, cultural, and socio-political context of the Canadian feminist translation movement and therefore may not be universally valid, tracing the feminist translator’s presence and visibility through textual and peritextual elements continues to be a highly relevant analytical approach. The study of translators’ visible interventions in prefaces and footnotes appears to remain a crucial aspect of contemporary feminist translation scholarship, which continues to regard such practices as vital indicators of translator agency and visibility.

Indeed, the visibility—or more often, the invisibility—of the translator has been one of the most extensively debated issues in Translation Studies. Lawrence Venuti’s

oft-cited influential work *The Translator's Invisibility* (1995/2008/2018) forms an essential backdrop to any discussion of how translations are received in contemporary literary markets. Venuti argues that the dominance of English in global publishing has established a fluency norm, where translations read so smoothly that the translator's work becomes invisible. Anglophone cultures, he contends, favour translations that do not 'sound' like translations (Venuti, 1995/2008/2018). Critics often praise a work as 'reading as if it were written in English,' a statement that ironically negates the creative process of the translator. Although Venuti's framework is not explicitly feminist, it resonates with FTS in its opposition to the translator's erasure. FTS's concept of 'womanhandling the text' closely parallels Venuti's advocacy of foreignizing strategies, which seek to disrupt the illusion of textual transparency and assert the translator's visible presence. Both 'womanhandling' and 'foreignizing' advocate for textual and paratextual—or more precisely, peritextual—interventions that serve to enhance the translator's visibility (Godard, 1989; Venuti, 1995; von Flotow, 1991, 1997). Drawing on Genette's (1997) distinction between peritext (elements physically attached to the text) and epitext (external materials related to the text but existing outside the book), Koskinen (2000, pp. 99, 100) argues that translator visibility should be pursued not only textually, but also paratextually and extratextually. In Koskinen's tripartite model of visibility, textual visibility refers to the translator's choices and interventions within the translated text itself. Paratextual visibility pertains to the translator's presence in peritextual elements such as book covers, prefaces, footnotes, afterwords, and annotations. Koskinen's concept of extratextual visibility adds a further dimension to the visibility models proposed by Venuti and FTS, extending it into epitextual domains such as interviews, reviews, public talks, or critical writings by translators or other agents. This expanded conception of visibility allows Translation Studies scholars to explore translator visibility within epitextual realms, thereby moving beyond a strictly textual focus. The exponential rise of online and digital platforms has profoundly broadened these epitextual domains, offering new opportunities for translators to assert their presence, construct professional identities, and engage with wider audiences (Desjardins, 2024; Freeth, 2024).

This study argues that the expanded conception of visibility should be integrated into discussions within FTS, which underscores the agency and visibility of the feminist translator through womanhandling the text, primarily on the textual and peritextual

levels. Accordingly, it introduces a new term, ***translatorhandling***, to encompass the full range of textual, peritextual, and epitextual strategies and interventions employed by feminist translators both to amplify silenced women's voices and assert their own creative translatorship and thus challenge the traditional barriers to textual visibility. By drawing on and extending Barbara Godard's concept of womanhandling, translatorhandling further emphasizes the translator's paratextual, specifically epitextual, manoeuvring to control the narrative surrounding her own work, labour, and visibility. It describes how a translator not only reworks the text but also actively engages with how the translation is presented, marketed, and discussed in the public sphere, thereby asserting her presence as a creative agent rather than an invisible intermediary. This may involve publishing a blog series, participating in social media discourse, or giving interviews that highlight her agency, translatorship, and specific translation choices and interventions. It can also entail mobilizing conversations around industry norms, such as the persistent failure to credit translators on book covers or online listings. In doing so, translatorhandling acknowledges that the feminist translator's political and ethical commitments do not end with the final draft of the text; rather, they extend into the broader cultural negotiation of what the author, source text, and translation signify and how the translator's labour is acknowledged or overlooked by publishers, critics, and readers.

Translatorhandling does not displace womanhandling; rather, it builds upon it. Womanhandling the text involves rewriting or supplementing a source text to reflect feminist insights, thus ensuring that female characters, authors, or perspectives are not muted in translation (Godard, 1989). Translatorhandling expands that activist posture both by thinking epitextually and by insisting that the translator's own role should not be silenced either. Translatorhandling does not leave the text alone to speak for itself; rather, it allows the translator's own voice to resonate in interviews, social media posts, and commentary on the novel's themes. In this sense, translatorhandling underscores the multilayered nature of feminist translation and makes the conception of the feminist translator more comprehensive. Translatorhandling fights against all forms of oppression and subordination, and it adopts a gender-inclusive and intersectional perspective in this struggle, which goes beyond textual and peritextual limitations. Accordingly, this study suggests that translatorhandling is essential to the shared

struggle against the parallel subordination of women— indeed, all gender identities— and translators. The Turkish trajectory of *A Woman is No Man* illustrates how these theoretical and conceptual points converge in the practices of translator Arzu Altınanıt. As the novel itself centres on the voices of oppressed women, an intriguing question arises: will the translator, who is herself potentially marginalized by industry norms, also remain invisible, or will she step into the spotlight? The following sections examine this case in detail and explore how Arzu Altınanıt navigates this tension.

Translatorhandling in Action: *Kadının Sesi Yok* by Arzu Altınanıt

Arzu Altınanıt is a prolific Turkish literary translator who has translated over forty books, mostly works of fiction, from English into Turkish, nearly thirty of which are authored by women and feature female protagonists at their centre. After working for many years as a teacher and later at a British publishing house, she began her career in literary translation following her retirement (Çeviri Kitabı, n.d.). She also maintains a personal blog titled *Bir Çevirmenin Dünyası*, where she shares her reflections, critiques, and experiences on a wide range of topics, including books, literature, translation, her own translation processes, the publishing industry, daily life, and travel. Altınanıt explains that the blog, which she initially launched to share her perspectives on translation, gradually evolved into a more personal and wide-ranging platform. Over time, it has expanded in scope and served as a comprehensive space that reflects various aspects of life, culture, and translation from a translator's point of view (Altınanıt, n.d.). This online space thus functions not only as a personal and intellectual outlet but also as a platform through which she publicly reflects on her translational choices and interventions, while simultaneously asserting her translatorship and professional agency. In addition to her blog, Altınanıt's social media presence, particularly her posts on X (formerly Twitter), serves similar functions, offering a dynamic platform where she engages in real time with topics such as literature, translation, authorship, translatorship, translators' rights, women's rights, animal rights, environmental concerns, and current political issues. Her oppositional stance against all forms of oppression and resistance to hegemonic power structures is also readily apparent in her social media activity, which frequently reflects a broader critical and political consciousness.

This research adopts a qualitative case study design grounded in the principles of FTS. It takes an exploratory and interpretive stance to address the research questions. Altınanıt's blog writings and social media posts constitute a rich body of epitextual material that frames her work beyond the translated texts themselves. To explore how she articulates her translatorship, how she engages with feminist translation concerns, and how she translatorhandles the overall process, this study employs thematic analysis of relevant epitextual materials with particular attention to her translation of *A Woman is No Man* and the broader themes of women's and translators' in/visibility and subordination.

Thematic analysis, one of the most frequently used qualitative methods, is conducted to identify, analyse, and interpret main themes, i.e., repeated patterns of meaning within the data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006, pp. 78, 86). As Braun and Clarke (2006) note, one of the key strengths of thematic analysis lies in its flexibility (p. 78). They distinguish between two primary approaches: inductive and theoretical thematic analysis (pp. 83, 84). Inductive thematic analysis is data-driven, meaning that codes and themes emerge directly from the data without being shaped by pre-existing frameworks or the researcher's prior assumptions (p. 83). In contrast, theoretical thematic analysis is guided by the researcher's existing theoretical interests or analytical focus, making it more explicitly shaped by predetermined concepts (p. 84). Nevertheless, due to the flexible nature of thematic analysis, these two approaches are not mutually exclusive; researchers often draw from both in practice, blending inductive and theoretical strategies as needed. Thanks to the flexibility offered by thematic analysis, this study integrates both theoretical and inductive analyses. Drawing on FTS and more specifically the concept of translatorhandling, a theoretical thematic approach was initially employed to identify the main themes. Subsequently, inductive thematic analysis was applied to the data set to identify sub-themes, allowing for a nuanced representation of the diverse patterns emerging from the corpus.

During the data collection process, Altınanıt's all blog writings, published between April 17, 2013 (the date of her first post), and March 10, 2022 (the date of her

last entry)¹, as well as all her X (formerly Twitter) posts² shared between April 2011 and July 2025 were compiled. The researcher then conducted an iterative reading of the entire data corpus. Through theoretical thematic analysis, two dominant themes were identified: (1) Amplifying women's voices and (2) Resisting the invisibility of translators.

Amplifying women's voices

Born and raised in Brooklyn to Palestinian immigrant parents, Etaf Rum draws heavily on her own lived experiences to craft her debut novel that breaks cultural taboos around domestic abuse, forced marriage, and the expectation of silence imposed on Arab and Muslim women. In her prologue, Rum openly reflects on the motivations behind writing *A Woman is No Man*, foregrounding the personal and political stakes of storytelling:

I was born without a voice, one cold, overcast day in Brooklyn, New York. No one ever spoke of my condition. I did not know I was mute until years later, when I opened my mouth to ask for what I wanted and realized no one could hear me. Where I come from, voicelessness is the condition of my gender, as normal as the bosoms on a woman's chest, as necessary as the next generation growing inside her belly. But we will never tell you this, of course. Where I come from, we've learned to conceal our condition. We've been taught to silence ourselves, that our silence will save us. It is only now, many years later, that I know this to be false. Only now, as I write this story, do I feel my voice coming (Rum, 2019, prologue).

As is clear from this excerpt, *A Woman is No Man* is a novel written to give voice to, and speak on behalf of, voiceless women. Accordingly, rendering it accessible in other languages through translation can be seen as a continuum of this effort. The Turkish translation, *Kadının Sesi Yok*, has undeniably contributed to making Etaf Rum and her silenced characters heard in a new linguistic and cultural terrain, thereby amplifying their voices. Although it is not possible to determine with certainty who made the final decision regarding the title of the Turkish translation, the choice of

¹ As Altınant explained in an email (personal communication, July 7, 2025), her nearly three-year hiatus from her blog, *Bir Çevirmenin Dünyası*, had no specific reason: 'I couldn't produce content for a while, so I quit'. She added that she plans to return to blogging soon.

² As Altınant's X account is protected, and her posts are accessible only to approved followers, written permission was obtained to cite selected posts.

Kadının Sesi Yok [A woman has no voice] can be interpreted as a gesture of support by all translatorial agents involved in the translation process—including the translator, editor, and publisher—for the source text’s aim to give voice to women. At the very least, their choice clearly reflects an awareness of the novel’s central purpose.

As the translator of *A Woman is No Man*, Altınanıt appears deeply invested in the feminist message of Etaf Rum’s novel, namely, that women’s stories of oppression need to be heard and valued. In her public statements, Altınanıt aligns herself with the women characters and the woman author, positioning the act of translation as an extension of feminist solidarity. This is evident in how she discusses the novel and her experience translating it. On her social media, Altınanıt openly expresses admiration for Etaf Rum and emphasizes the joy and responsibility of bringing Rum’s story to Turkish readers. In a post announcing Rum’s works, Altınanıt wrote: ‘Etaf Rum is an author I truly enjoyed translating. I translated her first novel, *Kadının Sesi Yok*, for İthaki Publishing. In her second book, *Evil Eye*, our paths crossed with Koridor Publishing’ (Altınanıt, 2024)³. This brief announcement, shared on X on the eve of the 2025 release of Rum’s second novel, is telling. Altınanıt’s enthusiastic tone, ‘an author I translated with great pleasure,’ highlights her personal connection to Rum’s voice. Implicitly, she suggests that translating the novel was not just a job but a labour of love, motivated by the novel’s significance. The fact that she mentions both the first and second books and the publishers indicates her desire to make her contribution visible in the literary community. She is essentially announcing: I am the one who brought Etaf Rum’s story to you in Turkish.

Beyond her commentary on the author, Altınanıt’s epitextual interventions also engage deeply with the novel’s content, particularly its exploration of women’s silencing and empowerment. She contextualizes the novel by linking its central theme, giving voice to voiceless Arab American women, to the parallel struggles experienced by women in Türkiye. Through her blog and social media posts, Altınanıt highlights key quotes and themes from the novel, thereby guiding Turkish readers toward a deeper engagement with its feminist message. The following excerpts from her blog posts illustrate this approach:

³ All Turkish excerpts from Altınanıt’s blog and X posts were translated by the researcher, preserving their original tone and stylistic nuances.

I am currently translating *A Woman is No Man* by Etaf Rum. Etaf Rum is a young Palestinian American author, and *A Woman is No Man* is her debut novel. She has depicted so beautifully how traditions oppress women, how in some cultures women have no voice, and what might happen once they become aware of their own voices, that I can't pull myself away from the translation (Altınanıt, 2020a, para. 5).

[...] the book is about women... about a woman trying to rid herself of the anguish within... about silent, suppressed, and subdued women... women who are forced to accept the destiny imposed upon them simply because they are women, who yield to it and perpetuate it across generations, who are unable or afraid to speak out, who are raised to believe that silence is a virtue, and who internalize that belief (Altınanıt, 2020b, para. 4).

A brilliantly crafted novel that keeps the reader engaged until the very end. At a time when violence against women is at its peak, this book questions and criticizes the roles imposed on women. It demonstrates how social norms, pressures, and teachings can limit people, and shows that it is not impossible to break free from them. It is proof that women, too, have a voice (Altınanıt, 2020b, para. 10).

As the culture portrayed in the novel is not so different from our own socially and culturally, the translation wasn't at all difficult. From the food to the customs, from parent-child relationships to the societal place of girls, the similarities to our own culture made things easier. At the same time, it was deeply painful [...] (Altınanıt, 2020b, para. 11).

As these excerpts reveal, Altınanıt positions herself almost as an advocate or spokesperson for the novel's women, extending her engagement beyond the confines of the translated text. Her epitextual commentary serves to amplify the novel's feminist message and convey it to broader audiences. This digital epitextual intervention by Altınanıt—amplifying the voices of both Etaf Rum and her silenced characters—can be seen as a continuation of von Flotow's feminist translation strategies (1991, 1997), such as prefacing and footnoting, traditionally employed in the peritext. Moreover, it underscores the theoretical need to extend the discussion into the epitextual realm, a need addressed by the newly proposed concept of translatorhandling, which encompasses such multifaceted practices.

Altınanıt's efforts to amplify women's voices extend well beyond the specific case of Etaf Rum's *A Woman is No Man* and her Turkish translation, *Kadının Sesi Yok*. A closer examination of her translation portfolio reveals a consistent focus on works authored by women or centred on women's experiences. This alignment is particularly noteworthy in feminist translation theory. Altınanıt has introduced Turkish readers to a

broad range of both contemporary and canonical female voices, including Charlotte Brontë, Brit Bennett, Amy Harmon, Sarah Winman, and Evie Wyld. Her commitment to foregrounding women authors through translation reflects a deliberate and sustained feminist orientation. Importantly, this commitment is not confined to the translated texts themselves; rather, as evidenced in the case of *Kadının Sesi Yok*, it also manifests in her broader epitextual engagement through blog entries and X posts. She frequently celebrates works by women authors she has translated or admired. For example, in her X post shared on International Women's Day, Altınanıt proudly states: 'When I looked back, I realized how many women authors I've translated. To these, *Kadının Sesi Yok* and *Marvellous Ways'in Bir Yılı* for which I haven't yet received the translator's copies, have now been added. We are strong, productive, and creative. #IAmAWoman #March8' (Altınanıt, 2022b). In another striking blog post where she discusses Tracy Chevalier's collection *Reader, I Married Him*, which was inspired by Charlotte Brontë's feminist classic *Jane Eyre*, Altınanıt underscores the significance of women's contributions to the literary field. She introduces: 'Stories by 21 women writers inspired by a woman author, are translated by a woman translator... I'd say don't miss it' (Altınanıt, 2018, para. 15). At this point, it is worth noting that Altınanıt has also translated Charlotte Brontë's *Jane Eyre* into Turkish. She expresses her pride in undertaking this significant project as follows: 'And finally [the *Jane Eyre* translation] is finished. I am exhausted too, but the satisfaction and joy of having translated the first feminist novel in world literature is worth everything' (Altınanıt, 2017, para. 11).

Altınanıt's broader feminist outlook further reinforces her commitment to amplifying women's voices. Especially on her X account, she does not confine herself to issues of translation but frequently advocates for women's rights more generally. For instance, in August 2021, shortly after the fall of Kabul, Altınanıt used her platform to draw attention to the plight of Afghan women. 'We call on world leaders: Protect the security, rights, and freedoms of Afghan women and girls!' she tweeted, rallying support for a petition to safeguard women under Taliban rule (Altınanıt, 2021a). Although this tweet is unrelated to her translation projects, it is revealing of Altınanıt's identity as a feminist activist. By raising her voice for Afghan women, she positions herself as part of a global sisterhood and as someone unafraid to speak out publicly for oppressed women. Similarly, in 2022, she used her platform to express solidarity with Iranian

women who were silenced, oppressed, and even killed under a patriarchal regime, sharing a petition and urging her followers to sign it. In one of her posts supporting silenced Iranian women, she asserts, 'A woman has a voice' (Altınanıt, 2022c). This statement, though brief, encapsulates her broader feminist stance. Altınanıt's epitextual presence thus functions as an amplifier, a metaphorical microphone, through which the silenced voices of women are projected more loudly into the public sphere. Through all these epitextual efforts, Altınanıt demonstrates what translatorhandling means in practice on the level of amplifying voices of the silenced. The next section will examine how she similarly intervenes on a second, interrelated front: challenging the very structures that often silence translators like herself.

Resisting the invisibility of translators

Parallel to her efforts to amplify women's voices in both literary and social spheres, Altınanıt's epitextual activities are also fiercely directed toward asserting her own visibility and translatorship and, by extension, the visibility of translators more broadly. In feminist translation terms, this constitutes a direct challenge to the entrenched norm of translator invisibility and subordination. Altınanıt does not merely reflect on these issues in her blog; she actively contests them in practice, frequently employing sharp, witty, or impassioned rhetoric on her X account to call out instances where translators are ignored or undervalued. Through such actions, she performs resistant visibility as a translator. Altınanıt's epitexts thus serve as a compelling case study in how a translator can publicly resist erasure and assert her role as a co-creator by translatorhandling.

Inductive thematic analysis of the relevant epitexts reveals that, in addition to actively challenging the invisibility and subordination of translators, Altınanıt also advocates for translators' rights and affirms the creative labour inherent in the act of translation. She consistently critiques all stakeholders in the publishing industry, publishers, online book retailers, critics, and readers alike, urging them to recognize and appreciate the translator's contribution. Her digital discourse calls for collective responsibility and concrete action, insisting that the contributions of translators be fully acknowledged and credited across the entire literary ecosystem.

The most central concern repeatedly emphasized by Altınanıt is the routine omission of translators' names from both peritextual elements and epitextual spaces. She frames this exclusion as a profound form of disrespect and a systematic devaluation of translatorial labour. Altınanıt's epitextual resistance, articulated through her blog and X account, against the invisibility of translators and her determined stance on the issue long predates the case study of *Kadının Sesi Yok* and continues unabated to this day. For example, in her 2014 blog post titled 'Why,' Altınanıt discusses and wholeheartedly supports a petition titled 'Çevirmene Saygı' [Respect the Translator], which had been initiated by a young literary translator. She writes:

The primary aim of this campaign is to raise awareness. [...] This is a situation that deeply troubles all literary translators. You spend countless hours translating page after page, and when the book is finally published, the author's name, the title, and the publisher are prominently featured on the cover, while your name appears in inner pages in tiny print, if it appears at all. On book retail websites, all bibliographic details are listed, down to the page count, yet the translator's name is omitted. Readers and bloggers post reviews, praising the author and thanking the publisher, as if the book were originally written in Turkish. This is truly a form of disrespect that urgently demands a firm and collective 'Enough!' (Altınanıt, 2014a, para. 6).

In another blog post titled 'Kitap Satış Sitelerinin Büyük Saygısızlığı' [The Great Disrespect of Book Retail Websites], Altınanıt opens with a pointed acknowledgment of how frequently she raises the issue of translator invisibility: 'Some of you will say, "Here she goes again." Some of you will complain, "We're tired of hearing about your respect-the-translator discourse"' (Altınanıt, 2015, para. 1). This rhetorical move underscores the emotional and professional weight the issue carries for her. She then elaborates on the problem, writing:

When you visit book retail websites, you can find every kind of information about the book: the author's name, the publisher, the size of the book, the type of paper, the ISBN, and the plot summary. But what about the translator's name? In most cases, it's NOT there! What kind of disrespect is this? Are we worth less than a book's size or the quality of its paper? How can something like this be overlooked? The books you sell and profit from—we are the ones who translate them. Is it so difficult to include the translator's name there as well? Publishers already provide this information when submitting bibliographic details, and yet you, the retailers, clearly do not care enough to include the translator's name. It's unacceptable (Altınanıt, 2015, para. 4).

These blog posts collectively function as a manifesto for translator visibility. By articulating her concerns in a public forum, Altınanıt transforms personal frustration into a broader, collective call for structural change within the publishing industry. This same activist stance is equally evident in her X posts. Through the strategic use of hashtags such as #çevirmenveeditöründeadıvar [#thetranslatorandeditorhaveaname] and #çevirmeninadıyok [#thetranslatorhasname], she draws attention to systemic patterns of erasure and mobilizes support for recognizing the translator's contribution.

In her X post on 7 March 2022, Altınanıt directly refers to her translation of *A Woman is No Man*, using irony to critique the erasure of her role as translator: 'Dear @DRdunyasi, it seems Etaf Rum wrote *Kadının Sesi Yok* in Turkish. Please show some respect for labour. The woman has no voice, and the translator has no name' (Altınanıt, 2022d). This post clearly reveals that Altınanıt is acutely aware of her dual battle against the subordination of both women and translators. It is also worth noting that the phrase 'the translator has no name' intertextually evokes the iconic Turkish feminist novel, *Kadının Adı Yok* [Woman has no name] by Duygu Asena, thereby suggesting a parallel struggle for the recognition of both women's and translators' voices. Just three days before this post, Altınanıt had already voiced her frustration regarding the omission of her name in the listing of *Kadının Sesi Yok*, stating: 'Yet again, the same carelessness. According to @DRdunyasi, the translator has no name. And I am utterly tired of experiencing this with every new book' (Altınanıt, 2022e). Her frustration intensifies in a much later post, where she writes: 'We're exhausted, but @DRdunyasi is not. Yet again, disrespect for labour. Once again, the translator's name is missing. It's not just me, my colleagues are complaining too, but who cares?' (Altınanıt, 2025a). This post demonstrates that the issue extends beyond a single case of *Kadının Sesi Yok* and continues to persist as a structural problem in the publishing industry, even as late as 2025. By explicitly voicing both individual and collective discontent, Altınanıt positions herself as an advocate for structural change and greater recognition of translational labour. On February 7, 2025, she initiates a crowdsourced list on X, writing: 'Sales sites that do not bother to write the translator's name, disregarding labour: I will add them to the list as more come. I would appreciate contributions from you all' (Altınanıt, 2025b). She then tagged several major online book retailers that are known to omit translator or editor information. This post is effectively organizing a public accountability campaign. Altınanıt takes on a coordinating role, soliciting information from the community ('as

more [names] come, I'll add to the list') and offering to compile and publicise a list of shame. The tone is determined, implying that there are sadly many such sites, but they will now be named and shamed collectively. This is a clear example of the translator not just demanding her own visibility but fighting structurally for all translators' visibility. It's activism in the pure sense: identifying a problem, gathering allies, and pressing for change. The fact that Altınanıt explicitly frames the omission as 'not bothering' and 'disregarding labour' ties back to her feminist perspective that unrecognized labour is an injustice. By publicly listing companies that engage in this practice, she effectively warns them that translators are mobilized and watching. This level of outspoken critique is uncommon in the traditionally modest profession of literary translators, which makes Altınanıt's voice even more significant as a form of feminist resistance.

On her X account, Altınanıt consistently and explicitly challenges all stakeholders in the literary world who perceive translation as an effortless and insignificant task. She frequently underscores the labour-intensive nature of the profession and the personal sacrifices it entails. For instance, in a post on 9 September 2020, she addresses major platforms, stating: 'Dear @DRdunyasi and @idefixcom, to deliver a proper translation of a book for which you include every detail except the translator's name, a translator sacrifices sleep, endures back pain, gives up their social life. In short, they invest serious labour. A bit of care, please' (Altınanıt, 2020c).

More significantly, Altınanıt affirms the translator's creative and interpretive agency, consistently framing translation as a form of authorship. She draws explicit parallels between a translator's labour and an author's role, aligning with the feminist translation ethos that views translation as a creative act of rewriting. In one of her blog posts, she articulates: 'You may not believe this, but a translator can make a very well-written book look terrible or can make a very poorly written book look amazing' (Altınanıt, 2014b, para. 9). This excerpt reveals her conviction that translators have substantial interpretive power. It shifts the reader's perspective by asserting that the success of a text in the target language depends not solely on the original author but also on the translator's skill and intervention. Altınanıt forcefully rejects the notion that translators merely 'copy' a text, instead positioning them as co-authors. A powerful tweet illustrates this view: 'People always ask translators how the authors they translate 'nourish' them. I believe what's more important is what translators contribute

to those works. A good translation is a great fortune for any author' (Altınanıt, 2021b). As these two statements demonstrate, Altınanıt reverses the traditional author-translator hierarchy, where authors are seen as creative geniuses and translators as passive conduits. By asserting that translators 'add' something essential to a text, she reclaims agency, mirroring feminist re-readings of women's labour as active, intellectual, and generative rather than secondary or derivative. Accordingly, Altınanıt does not portray herself as a neutral conduit, but as a collaborator in the writing project. In a review article published after the Turkish translation of *A Woman is No Man*, the critic concludes the piece by explicitly naming Altınanıt: 'The novel *Kadının Sesi Yok* was published by İthaki with Arzu Altınanıt's translation. Meanwhile, the translator and Etaf Rum are a good duo' (Arkin, 2022, para. 14). The notion of a translator-author duo presented here departs from the traditional hierarchy in which the author alone is foregrounded, and the translator is rendered invisible. This framing closely aligns with Sherry Simon's feminist conception of translation as a collaborative 'writing project'—'a project in which both writer and translator participate' (Simon, 1996, p. 2). Altınanıt shares this review on her X account with evident pride. Quoting the excerpt, she writes: 'One of the most meaningful compliments I've ever received: "It is clear that the translator and Etaf Rum are a good duo"' (Altınanıt, 2022a). This public acknowledgement not only reinforces her sense of co-authorship but also affirms the value of translator visibility within the broader literary field.

In summary, Altınanıt's epitextual actions powerfully demonstrate resistance to the invisibility of the translator. By writing manifestos on her blog, directly challenging industry players on social media, and organizing collective advocacy, she is flaunting the signs of her manipulation of the text in a broader sense, reshaping the wider discursive environment so that the translator is no longer excluded. Altınanıt not only translates feminist content; she acts as a feminist agent within the literary field, actively advocating for systemic change. Her efforts illustrate how a translator's epitextual presence can function as a form of translatorial activism. She is translating the norms of the industry, so to speak, from ones that silence to ones that acknowledge. Through translatorhandling, Altınanıt reclaims power: she handles her public narrative to highlight her role and labour, effectively refusing to be the silent, invisible translator that literary tradition might expect her to be.

Conclusion

Arzu Altınanıt's work around *A Woman is No Man*—through both her translation *Kadının Sesi Yok* and the intricate web of epitexts she has crafted—stands as a powerful example of translatorhandling, a concept introduced in this study. Altınanıt enacts a dual resistance: she amplifies the silenced voices of both fictional and real women, and she simultaneously resists the systemic silencing of the translators within the literary field. In doing so, she brings to life the feminist translation visions of scholars such as Sherry Simon, Luise von Flotow, and Barbara Godard, who called for translators, often women, to assert their agency and turn translation into a site of feminist intervention through what Godard once termed womanhandling.

The case of *A Woman is No Man* in Turkish translation, with its rich epitextual layers, illustrates the dual struggle at the heart of feminist translation. On the one hand, Altınanıt's work challenges the silencing of women by faithfully and forcefully carrying their voices across linguistic and cultural boundaries. On the other, she challenges the invisibility of translators by persistently insisting that those who labour to bring literature into new linguistic realities deserve to be seen, named, and acknowledged. Her practice of translatorhandling in epitextual realms including her blog and X account, thus offers an affirmative response to the question posed in the title of this article: *A Woman is No Man. A Translator is (No) Author?* Despite the deeply entrenched subordination and invisibility historically imposed on translators, Altınanıt demonstrates that a translator, through both textual intervention and translatorhandling the discourse surrounding her translation, can subvert this hierarchy. Her epitextual resistance affirms that translation is not merely reproductive labour but a creative and intellectual act, and that the translator, like the author, has a voice—one that matters.

Through translatorhandling, Altınanıt extends the life of the feminist text beyond its pages. In essence, Altınanıt exemplifies how a translator can be a translator-activist, and how her epitextual discourse can itself be read as an extension of the translation, a continued writing of the story in the social realm. Her contributions remind us that in the struggle for equality and recognition, the voices behind the scenes are sometimes the ones that need to be the loudest. As feminist translation moves forward, cases like

this highlight the transformative potential of practitioners who don't just translate, but who live out the principles of feminism in every facet of their work. Arzu Altınanıt's pen and platform prove that the translator's pen can indeed be as mighty as the sword in challenging silence, whether it be the silence imposed on women or on translators. Through her, we witness feminist translation not only as a theory or technique, but as a lived and multilayered praxis of resistance and solidarity.

To conclude, translatorhandling illuminates the potential for feminist translators to intervene not only in the textual realm but also in the public and discursive spheres surrounding literary production. It offers a model for how translators can carve out visibility and assert their agency in a literary landscape that frequently marginalizes them—without overshadowing the authorial voice of the original. Moreover, translatorhandling is not limited to in-text, woman-centred struggles. It resists all forms of oppression, offering a more gender-inclusive and intersectional perspective that aligns with the broader paradigm shift within FTS toward inclusivity, plurality, and intersectionality.

As digital platforms continue to reshape the terrain of authorship and readership, translatorhandling emerges as a dynamic and ever-expanding site of feminist resistance and visibility. There is no doubt that translators will increasingly find more space to engage in such practices within epitextual realms that not only allow them to challenge their historical invisibility but also invite new forms of academic inquiry in Translation Studies. Despite the limitations of this single case study focused on Altınanıt and her work on *Kadının Sesi Yok*, the concept of translatorhandling has the potential to catalyse future research across languages, cultures, and contexts. More importantly, this research calls upon all stakeholders in the literary field, publishers, retailers, critics, readers, and scholars alike, to recognize that the translator, too, has a voice. And when that voice is attuned to feminist politics, it has the power to transform silence into solidarity.

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THE POLITICAL USES AND ABUSES OF 'GENDER' IN TRANSLATION

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Abstract

The paper attends to the relationship between translation, language, and politics, focusing on the appropriation of the key Anglo-American feminist term 'gender' into Bulgarian and its political uses and abuses in the recent context of the global crusade against the so called 'gender ideology'. It traces the troubled history of the term which was transplanted in the post-communist world in the 1990s via translation but has not been well translated and understood in Bulgarian society. Through an array of specific examples from diverse registers such as academic publications, institutional policy papers, and EU documents in translation, the paper aims to show how inconsistency and inaccuracy in translation practices have had political consequences during and after the campaign against the ratification of the Istanbul convention on the prevention and combating of violence against women, when the term was highly contested and emptied out of meaning. It is argued that conservative forces have instrumentalized the linguistic confusion surrounding ambiguous and poor translations of the term 'gender' to trigger deeper fears and prejudices related to women's equality, transgender rights, and the EU liberal agenda. Working at the intersection of feminist politics of location and politics of translation, the paper poses questions about the limits of translatability and applicability of major transnational feminist terms. It also offers some options for getting out of the gender impasse in Bulgarian translation.

Keywords: gender, translation, Bulgaria, Istanbul convention, anti-gender movements

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The Anglo-American term 'gender' as a category of social difference entered Bulgaria and the whole of Eastern Europe¹ after the collapse of communism in the 1990s as part of the overall process of democracy building, gaining additional momentum after the accession of the country to the European Union in 2007. Around 2018, the global anti-gender crusade hit the shores of Bulgaria like a tsunami, shattering established meanings, questioning major liberal ideas and philosophies, putting on hold official gender politics, and leaving behind flotsam and jetsam. As Shaban Darakchi explains, unlike Hungary, Poland and Slovakia, the Bulgarian anti-gender hysteria 'emerged rapidly, within months and without previous anti-abortion and anti-women's rights campaigns' - primarily as a 'tool for political and social mobilization,' rejecting the understanding of gender in the social sciences as 'unnatural' (2019, p. 26). As a result, thirty years after its adoption in the Bulgarian language, the Anglo-American feminist term 'gender' has reached an impasse: it has been contested, emptied out of its original meaning, reductively degraded from an inspiring and inclusive term to a divisive political banner and a slur even, raising important questions: What fears and prejudices are hidden behind the fears of 'gender' today? Is 'gender' still a useful category for social analysis and what are the limits of its applicability and translation on Bulgarian ground?

In what follows, I discuss the complex relationship between translation, language, and politics through the multidimensional perspective of the concept of 'gender'. First, I look at the troubled history of the term, which was transplanted in the post-communist world in the 1990s via translation but has not been well translated and understood in Bulgarian society, leading to misunderstanding and confusion in public discourses. Second, through an array of specific examples from diverse registers such as academic publications, institutional policy papers, and EU documents in translation, the paper aims to explore the political consequences of inconsistent and divergent translation strategies in Bulgaria. More precisely, it focuses on the local campaigns against the *Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence* (known as the *Istanbul Convention*) to demonstrate how conservative political forces have instrumentalized the linguistic confusion surrounding the term 'gender' to trigger deeper prejudices and fears related to women's equality,

¹ Eastern Europe is used as an umbrella term for the group of countries which shared similar political and economic organization under the communist regime (1945-89) despite the numerous historical and cultural differences that exist among them.

transgender rights, and the EU liberal agenda. Working at the intersection of feminist politics of location and politics of translation, the paper offers some options for getting out of the gender impasse in translation in the current context of global assault on gender and the drastically shifting US gender politics under the second Trump administration.

Theoretical Premises

In order to trace the role of translation as social, political, interpretative, and critical practice, the ensuing analysis relies on theoretical tools from translation studies and feminist theory. Such interdisciplinary approach is a must when discussing the transfer of 'gender' across cultures as it has proved to be an extremely complex and volatile term, constantly evolving and expanding its meanings in English as well as other languages over the last sixty years. The transposition of the Anglo-American gender apparatus, rooted in the idiosyncratic conditions of Western democracies in the 1960s (and later) into the post-communist world involves dynamic processes of translation not only between different language systems but also between cultural contexts, diverging flows of feminist ideas as well as between different political regimes and historical traditions. This brings to the fore the significance of local semiosis in translation or what Adrienne Rich has called 'feminist politics of location' – i.e., acknowledging one's location or multiple locations, and the consequent conditions and possibilities embedded in that specific location. Decentering the feminist collective 'we,' Rich argues for a movement 'away from abstracted perfect theories and towards change in concrete locations' (1986, p. 227). In accordance, since the 1980s feminist translation has been defined in broader terms as a tool for social transformation, intellectual activism, and political practice (Anzaldúa 1987, De Lima Costa and Alvarez 2014, Flotow 2018, Castro and Ergun 2017).

The recognition of locatedness and positionality has become central in translation theory as a whole after the so called 'cultural turn' when the political context and motivations behind translator's decisions were subject to a greater scrutiny. The deeper connections between translation and political engagement exist on many levels as translators participate in the international exchange of ideas, make choices, serve specific ideological agendas, create new knowledge and reshape the culture of the receptor language. Along these lines, exploring the connection between activism, social

change, and the role of translation in geopolitical shifts, Maria Tymoczko argues for 'translation with an activist component':

Translations are inevitably partial; meaning in a text is overdetermined and the information in and meaning of a source text is therefore always more extensive than a translation can convey. Conversely, the receptor language and culture entail obligatory features that limit the possibilities of translation, as well as extending the meanings of the translation in directions other than those inherent in the source text. As a result, translators make choices, selecting aspects or parts of the text to transpose and emphasize. (2000, p. 24)

In Tymoczko's understanding, translators' partiality is not a defect, it rather makes translations political as it enables them to participate in the ongoing political discourse and strategies for political change. Let us see how translators' decisions and local context have played out in the Bulgarian case of transposing 'gender'.

The trials and tribulations of 'gender' in Bulgarian

Right after the collapse of communism in 1989 there began a massive process of translating Western feminist texts in Bulgaria and the whole of Eastern Europe (primarily from English), dealing with issues ranging from reproductive health, body politics, and sexuality to feminist/ gender theories and methodologies. The term 'gender' was embraced quickly in Bulgarian in an attempt to catch up with the latest theoretical developments in the West as well as a convenient substitute of feminism (perceived unacceptable in the post-communist situation) and a new, more inclusive and neutral category of social analysis.

The process of translating 'gender' into Bulgarian was uneven and difficult not only because the notion did not exist in Slavonic languages (with the exception of earlier Serbian translations from the 1980s)² but because of the complexity and the elasticity of the original term. In English, there have been at least four different uses of the term 'gender,' which are still valid and used simultaneously: first) as a grammatical category in linguistics; second) as a social construct – developed in the early 1970s when Anglo-American feminists started arguing that a person's gender did not depend on biological sex but was constructed as a result of social and cultural processes, leading to the distinction between 'sex' and 'gender'. The third, and most complicated meaning of

² On feminist translations in former Yugoslavia during the 1980s see Adriana Zaharijević (2024).

'gender' came into being in the 1990s with the rise of queer theory: it questions the very separation and/ or opposition between 'sex' and 'gender,' and insists on viewing both categories as interconnected and discursive concepts related to other variables of human difference such as race, ethnicity, class, sexual orientation, language, nationality etc. This understanding of gender as a performative category revises not only the simplistic opposition between sex/ gender but also the very opposition between the two tendencies in women's politics: for sexual difference or gender equality. And finally, the fourth usage of 'gender' ironically erases all the complex nuances in the sex /gender distinction: it is used in formal language as a polite word for 'sex' in order to avoid discrimination as well as the ambiguity behind the English word for 'sex'.

Over the last 60 years the meanings of 'gender' in English have proliferated to such an extent that the term has started functioning as a meta-discourse itself, dealing with its fluctuations and superimposed meanings as well as the intricate relations between the various layers of the palimpsest concept. This is why Joan W. Scott, re-echoing her earlier critique of the confusion in popular usage of both 'sex' and 'gender' (2010), argues that 'gender' is untranslatable due to its vagueness and the 'conundrum of sexual difference' it always stumbles upon:

There is no single original concept of gender to which subsequent translations can refer. Instead, there has been an ongoing conversation across linguistic and cultural boundaries in which the term is addressed, disputed, qualified, and adapted; in the process the ambiguities that the term itself has acquired, the tensions it contains, are revealed. (2016, p. 366)

How can these tensions and interconnections in Anglo-American feminist theory be rendered in a foreign context, where the concept did not exist and where Marxist-Leninist dogmatism and binary thinking had dominated the humanities for more than four decades? Is it possible for translators to catch up with decades of evolution in Western feminist philosophy and social sciences without getting lost in translation?

The Bulgarian story of trials and tribulations in translating gender is not unique – many scholars have written on similar translation troubles in various languages (Tratnik, 2011, Valdová, 2016, Slavova, 2019, Barchunova, 2020, Slavova, 2020). The major problem in the Bulgarian case has been the proliferation of translation equivalents as well as the inconsistent and diverging usage of the term. Apart from the

most obvious solution of transcribing the English word into Bulgarian as 'джендър' – adopted primarily by women's NGOs,³ there have been employed at least four other strategies. The initial strategy adopted was the literal translation of the linguistic term 'gender' as 'род' (rod) onto which the culturally and socially constructed meanings are grafted.⁴ The strategy was primarily chosen by philologists and philosophers as they emphasized the connection of gender with language and its construction through the acquisition of language. This academic usage was employed in the very first translations of Anglo-American and French feminist theory such as the anthologies *Vremeto na Zhenite* [Women's Time], *Feministkoto znanie* [Feminist Knowledge], *Eho-fantaziya: Istoriyata I Konstruiraneto na Identichnostta* [Fantasy-Echo: History and the Construction of Identity], the feminist classic *Nasheto Tyalo, Nie Samite* [Our Bodies, Ourselves by the Boston Women's Health Book Collective] as well as the first Bulgarian feminist research publications such as *Teoriya prez Granitsite: Vuvedenie v Izledvaniyata na Roda* [Theory across Boundaries: Introduction to Gender Studies], *Rod I Red v Bulgarskata Kultura* [Gender and Order in Bulgarian Culture], *Maiki I Dushteri: Posoki I Pokoleniya v Bulgarskiya Feminizum* [Mothers and Daughters: Directions and Generations in Bulgarian Feminism], and others. Most of these collections, containing foundational feminist texts in the fields of philosophy, literary and linguistic studies, sociology, and psychoanalysis consistently introduced *род* as a tool for social and cultural analysis and paved the way for the newly created MA gender studies university programs. The translation equivalent *род* was used primarily in academic circles but for pragmatic reasons it was soon displaced by the more familiar term *пол* [sex] or the descriptive variant *социален пол* [social sex] as well as neologisms such as *социопол* [sociosex] in an attempt to spell out both the contiguity and the difference between the biological and the cultural. The inconsistency and frivolity in translating this major Anglo-American feminist term has had not simply intellectual consequences (misunderstanding texts and ideas) but political too (being instrumentalized by conservative forces later).

³ Such as 'Български джендър проект,' 'Български център за джендър изследвания,' 'Фондация Джендър образование и изследвания,' 'Фондация 'ДА (Джендър алтернативи)'.

⁴ Even in this case there has been a variant where the word 'род' is enclosed in quotation marks - to differentiate it from both the grammatical category and the homograph 'род' (the Bulgarian equivalent of family order, which, ironically, is one of the basic targets of feminist attacks). The quotation marks are supposed to signal the changed non-literal meaning of the word but at the same time they emphasize the translation problem itself.

The best way to illustrate the connections between translation and politics is by looking at the translation of Judith Butler's ground-breaking book *Gender Trouble: Feminism and the Subversion of Identity* (1990), published in Bulgarian as *Безпокойствата около родовия пол. Феминизмът и подриването на идентичността* (2003). As seen in the very title, the Bulgarian translator has rendered 'gender' with the neologism 'родов пол,' which in reverse translation means 'gendered sex'. The coinage is extremely misleading as it suggests a specific (new) type of sex – an ambiguity that would be later capitalized on in the attacks on gender as a 'third sex'. Not only is the distinction between 'sex' and 'gender' obliterated here but the very meaning of the latter term is obscured in Bulgarian, undermining the logic of the whole book, as well as Butler's critique of feminism, binarism, and the heterosexual norm. Contrary to standard feminist translation practice, the translator has neither made an effort to make the text accessible to a wider reading audience by adding a preface, explanatory translator's notes, footnotes or any other interventionist tools nor has managed to 'transpose and emphasize' important aspects of the original in Tymoczko's terminology (2000, p. 25). The most confusing part in the Bulgarian translation is Butler's opening chapter, entitled 'Субекти на пола/ родовия-пол/ желанието' [Subjects of Sex/ Gender/ Desire], which deals precisely with the interrelations between the two major categories 'sex' and 'gender'. Butler's argument in Bulgarian is not as tenable as in English because the distinction between the two terms is totally obscured. The coherence and readability of the translated text are additionally weakened by the clumsy renditions of derivative forms such as 'gendered life,' 'the mark of gender,' 'pre-gendered person' etc. What is more, the translator has ignored the first Bulgarian translation of this chapter from the anthology *Vremeto na Zhenite*, which is much more lucid due to the consistent use of the grammatical term 'род').

This is yet another example of missing cooperation among translators and missing links among translated texts. Translating feminist theory is no easy job: it demands specialized knowledge, research, creativity but also paying attention to the ways in which ideas circulate across space and time – what Rich has called 'politics of location' (1986, p. 226). Of course, as in any translation, there is something lost and obscured in the very act of appropriating gender, there are distortions or 'disturbances of translation' in Butler's terms (2024, p. 207) but risky and naïve translations of major

terms can have a more destructive snowball effect – as witnessed fifteen years later during the debates surrounding the ratification of the *Istanbul Convention* in which Butler's work had a central place.

Institutional Usage of Gender

Similar to the inconsistent ways of translating 'gender' in the humanities and public discourses, institutionalized translations in the area of legislation and social policy have also been marked by discord and chaos. The accession of Bulgaria to the EU (2007) demanded national laws to be harmonized with EU norms and standards, regarding equal treatment legislation, gender mainstreaming, minimizing gender pay gaps, gender-parity measures etc, which pushed the category of 'gender' center stage. In the greater part of the Bulgarian translations of EU policy papers and directives the term '*gender*' has been substituted by '*пол*' (sex) – a decision dictated by strategic factors, favouring transparency, readability, and clarity at the expense of accuracy in translation.

A good example in this respect is a glossary, entitled *100 Words for Gender Equality*, produced by the Bulgarian Ministry of Labour and Social Policy in 2007. The thirty-page bilingual glossary presents in a table form the most common gender-related terms in English and Bulgarian, providing brief definitions and comments in both languages. Obviously, the anonymous experts had the noble ambition of setting up a unified standard and helping translators render foggy Eurospeak lexicon, but their prescriptions have created more confusion than clarity. For example, the very entry on '*gender*' prescribes simultaneously three translation equivalents: '*род*,' '*социален пол*,' and '*джендър*' as seen below:

ENG – **GENDER** - A concept that refers to the social differences between women and men that have been learned and are changeable over time, and have wide variations both within and between cultures.

BG - **РОД, СОЦИАЛЕН ПОЛ, ДЖЕНДЪР** - Понятие, което се отнася до възприетите социални различия между жените и мъжете, които са заучени и се променят във времето, като варират силно в и между различните култури.

At the same time, in the dictionary, most phrases and terms, deriving from or incorporating the word '*gender*,' use the biological category '*пол*' (sex): for instance, 'gender dimension' (социално измерение на *пола*); 'gender impact assessment'

(оценка на въздействие по *пол*); 'gender gap' (социална дистанция между *половете*); 'division of labor by gender' (разделение на труда по *пол*) and so on (2007, pp. 2-12). In other instances, 'gender' is rendered as '*социален пол*' (social sex): 'gender planning' (планиране от гледна точка на *социалния пол*), 'gender roles' (*социални роли наполовете*) or 'gender contract' (договор за *социалните роли наполовете*) (2007, pp. 3-17). In still other cases, where the original relies on the very distinction between the categories 'sex' and 'gender,' the whole signification chain collapses in Bulgarian as in the phrases 'differentiation between gender violence and sex violence,' 'sex discrimination and gender discrimination' or the key phrase 'sex/gender system' – the latter rendered in Bulgarian totally inadequately as '*система наполовете /социални роли наполовете*' (2007, pp. 10-15).

The indiscriminate use of multiple translation equivalents demonstrates the painful efforts of anonymous translators to domesticate the foreign term by bending forcefully the target language until it breaks up. This is why EU documents sometimes speak in bifurcated Bulgarian language: for example, in the translation of EU manual on language use *Gender-Neutral Language Guide*, the Bulgarian version opts consistently for '*пол*' – even in phrases such as 'gender-marked words' rendered as '*маркирани по пол думи*' (2008, p. 5) where signification implies the linguistic meaning of the category. In a similar manner, *Nacionalna Strategiya za Nasurchavane Ravnopostavenostta na Polovete za perioda 2009-2015* [National Strategy for Promoting Gender Equality for the period 2009-2015], modeled on European documents, tones down the European goal of 'gender equality' by substituting it with the narrower in content phrase 'equity between men and women'. Similar strategies can be observed in the translation of other official documents such as *Towards a Community Framework Strategy on Gender Equality* (2001-2005); *The European Pact for Gender Equality* as well as in the wording of the most important law on gender equality in Bulgaria – part of the harmonization process with EU legislation, passed as late as 2016 after ten-year debates – where the key word 'gender' is totally missing (its Bulgarian title is *Zakon za Ravnopostavenost na zhenite I muzhete* [Act on Equity Between Men and Women]).

Under the pretext that 'gender' is too foreign and exotic a concept, institutionalized translations have belittled the efforts of the academic community to make 'gender' speak Bulgarian, have mechanically substituted the polysemous Anglo-

American term with *sex*, *socio-sex* or *men and women*, which, in turn, has produced a leveling and taming effect on gender politics in translation. Thus, the complex phenomenon of gender (which partially incorporates the notions of sex and sexuality but overrides the binary opposition male-female by allowing for other forms of social behavior and identity such as gay, lesbian, transsexuals, transgender etc.) has not taken (a) place in Bulgarian society.

(Mis)Translation and Politics: The case of the *Istanbul Convention* (IC)

The proliferation of meanings and variants of 'gender' reached its peak in Bulgaria during the intense debates surrounding the pending ratification of the *Istanbul convention* around 2018. It had been signed by most CEE countries between 2011-2016 but in the context of the global crusade against the so called 'gender ideology' the ratification process was put on hold in Bulgaria (as well as in Hungary, Czech Republic, Lithuania, Latvia, Poland, and Slovakia).

The bone of contention again turned out to be the ambiguous meaning of the term 'gender' in Bulgarian translation. In the original EU directive, the key term is used parallel to 'women or women and men' but always separate from 'sex'. In line with the established pragmatic politics in institutionalized translations, the official Bulgarian translation renders most gender-related terms such as 'gender-based violence' or 'gender identity' with 'sex' and/ or 'social sex'. The most heated arguments against the IC have revolved around the very definition of 'gender' in article 3c (translated in the second row as 'sex')⁵:

ENG Article 3 – Definitions (C) - *gender* shall mean the socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for women and men;

BG Член 3 Определения (В) - *Пол* означава социално-изградени роли, поведение, дейности и характеристики, които определено общество смята за подходящи за жените и мъжете;

Ironically, the *Istanbul Convention* is the first international treaty to provide a definition of 'gender' as socially constructed category precisely because it refers to gender inequalities and violence grounded not in biological differences but in social prejudices.

⁵ The EU Convention is available at: <https://rm.coe.int/168008482e>

During the winter of 2018, the ratification still pending, the term ‘gender’ was seized and degraded in popular usage, turned into a war cry by various anti-gender advocates (among them neo-patriotic and pro-Russian parties, the Orthodox Church, the Bulgarian Socialist Party, and other diverse political forces), claiming that the IC promoted dangerous ideology of normalizing the third sex and promoting same-sex marriages, undermining family values, educational standards, national unity, and what not. Strange slogans were chanted at the rallies against the ratification of the EU directive: ‘Bulgaria is against social sex! There is no social sex! There is no third sex! Throw out the IC!’ etc (in Slavova, 2019, p. 240). In no time the analytical category became totally desemanticized, accruing pejorative meanings, used even as a slur – a process described by Emilia Slavova as ‘toxification of gender’:

Gender came to be used in a wide range of contexts with a pejorative meaning. It could refer to a gay person, a trans- or intersex person, a feminist, or a liberal who supported LGBT+ rights (the so-called “sorosoids,” followers of the philanthropist George Soros). This was coupled with strong anti-European sentiment and an extreme aversion to words and practices framed as foreign and a threat to Bulgarian national identity and traditional conservative values. (2022, p.189)

Due to the growing social tensions and the rising homophobia and transphobia, the Bulgarian government transferred the decision about the ratification of IC to the Constitutional Court, which after several decisions, declared the *Istanbul Convention* unconstitutional. The decision was grounded in the ‘terminological ambiguity of the concepts gender and gender identity as well as their flawed translation: ‘the Bulgarian word for ‘sex’ [пол] is used for ‘gender’ as well, making it indistinguishable from ‘sex’. Only once, in Art. 4.3, ‘gender’ is translated as ‘social sex’ [социален пол], triggering speculations about the existence of a ‘third sex’ [трети пол]’ (CC 2021, pp. 4-5).⁶ Further, the Constitutional Court stated that the Bulgarian legislation and the Constitution itself do not discriminate between ‘sex’ and ‘gender,’ and they have always worked only with the category of ‘sex,’ seeing social roles as deriving from the biological sex. It is not accidental that some constitutional experts have referred to Butler’s translated book *Gender Trouble* to justify their rejection of IC: ‘it relies on terms and concepts such as *gender* and *gender identity*, which have no universal meaning and

⁶ My translation.

whose content is unclear and ambiguous, which creates unpredictability in terms of legal consequences and legal order' (Tzekov 2018, p. 2).

Ripple Effects of (Mis)Translation

Today, seven years after the refusal of the Bulgarian government to ratify the IC, the anti-gender mobilizations have not disappeared or subsided. We have witnessed recurrent waves of resistance to the so called 'gender ideology,' linked to various fabricated threats: rallies against Sofia gay pride, recurrent anti-European protests, the vandalization of the EU office in Sofia on February 22, 2025; numerous protests against the adoption of the Euro in Bulgaria (expected in 2026); the passing of the 2025 law to 'ban LGBT propaganda in schools' and the public shaming of NGOs, educators, and intellectuals who 'promote gender and homosexuality');⁷ the draft law proposed by the far-right Vazrazhdane Party to create a register of so called 'foreign agents' to be prohibited from carrying out activities in the educational system, media and state institutions; the government's intent to make religion a mandatory subject in schools, and other similar political interventions, which limit the civil rights of Bulgarian citizens as well as the freedom of expression.⁸ From the very beginning, these discursive and acting coalitions (bringing together The Society and Values Association, pro-Russian parties such as Vazrazhdane, nationalist parties such as Velichie and Metch, as well the Patriarch, the Synod of the Bulgarian Orthodox Church, and other populist political actors) have coalesced around 'gender' as a 'symbolic glue' (Brustie 2015, p. 34). Their well-orchestrated gender panic has been driven by attributing all possible sins to the feminist concept: the decline of patriarchy and birthrates, the end of traditional marriages or putting the lives of children at risk, foreign forces undermining national sovereignty, and what not.

The Bulgarian mobilization of conservative forces is not an exception; it is part of the transnational anti-gender movement from Russia to the United States, from the

⁷ It is included as amendment to the Law for Pre-School and School Education which outlaws 'propaganda, popularisation and encouragement, directly or indirectly, of ideas and views connected to nontraditional sexual orientation or to gender-identifying different from the biological'. See <https://balkaninsight.com/2024/08/07/bulgarias-parliament-unexpectedly-outlaws-lgbt-propaganda-in-schools/>

⁸ See <https://www.bgonair.bg/a/2-bulgaria/354947-rumen-radev-podpisa-ukaza-za-obnarodvane-na-promenite-v-lgbti-zakona>; <https://www.actualno.com/politics/deputatite-pak-gonjat-djendyri-prieha-zakon-ot-putinova-rusija-za-cenzura-na-lgbti-snimki-news-2277233.html>; <https://www.svobodnaevropa.bg/a/vazrazhdane-chuzhdestranni-agenti/33199051.html>; <https://apnews.com/article/bulgaria-euro-protest-nationalists-eb9a054f062b21bad04a802caf467407>

Global South to the Global North (Kováts 2017, Kuhar and Pajnik 2020, Mad'arová and Hardoš 2022; Bogaards and Peto 2022). What is more, as Agnieszka Graff and Elżieta Korolczuk argue, Eastern Europe is among 'the key battlegrounds of anti-gender mobilisation' where the demonization of 'gender' is directly linked to the crisis of democracy: 'the right has managed to capture the word 'gender,' to redefine its meaning and demonize it, making gender equality appear like an enemy of the people' (2022, p. 4). In her recent book *Who is Afraid of Gender* (2024) Judith Butler provides additional facts and arguments to explain the rise of the global anti-gender moral panic: 'Anti-gender ideology is driven by a stronger wish, namely, the restoration of patriarchal dream-order where a father is a father; a sexed identity never changes, women, conceived as 'born female at birth,' resume their natural and 'moral' positions within the household; and white people hold uncontested racial supremacy' (p. 14). Butler and her theory of gender performativity have also been misunderstood and manipulated in public discourses in Bulgaria: in the grim 1990s the American scholar was enthusiastically embraced as a symbol of women's right to freedom and difference but in recent years reactionary forces have made her name synonymous with gender scare. The author who has written so many books on philosophy, identity construction, tolerance, and not hurting with words has recently become herself the object of cyberbullying and virulent attacks of hate speech (Slavova 2019, Bankov 2020, Nencheva and Georgiev 2024).⁹

Language has become a major player in the battle against the so called 'gender ideology' as seen in the Bulgarian mediascape and everyday speech, where related words such as 'genderization,' 'genderism,' 'genderette,' 'gendress,' 'genderness,' 'genderish' etc have mushroomed without any clear meaning, simply weaponized as intimidating battle cries. What is more alarming is that the distortion and the overall degradation of the academic term has spilled over from popular discourses back to scholarly publications. For example, in their study of the last two editions of the *Dictionary of New Words in the Bulgarian Language (from the first two decades of the 21st century)*, Denitsa Nencheva and Desislav Georgiev have traced a shift in the very definition of 'gender': the 2010 edition introduces the word as a sociological concept, whereas the 2021 edition rewrites its definition as a biological term, explaining that it is

⁹ For example, the loud verbal attack at: https://lupa.bg/newa/koya-e-judit-batlar-lesbiykata-maika-na-jendar-ideologiyata-i-kravosmeshenieto_153393news.html

'associated with a different, non-traditional sexual orientation and a different social identity – thus, confirming the reduction of gender to sex' (2024, pp. 11-12). This is yet another example of how official institutions can legitimize specific language policy under the pressure of populist interests and ideologies. Similar, even more extreme practices have been observed in the recent attempts of the second Trump administration to purge the federal government of 'woke' words such as activism, diversity, DEI, equal, gender, inequalities, injustice, LGBTQ, nonbinary, racial inequality, sexuality, social justice, transgender etc.¹⁰

Can words and the ideas embodied in them be so easily eliminated? When does language turn from a tool of expression and communication into an instrument for manipulation, repression, and control? What can be done to counter such processes and what is the role of translation and translators in this war of words, ideas, and ideologies?

Concluding remarks

The trials and tribulations of the Anglo-American feminist term 'gender' in the last three decades in Bulgaria have demonstrated once again that translation is not a safe zone of intellectual work but a 'perpetual locus of political engagement' (Tymozco 2000, p. 43). There is no doubt that the translation of gender-focused texts into Bulgarian has been instrumental for the dissemination of liberal ideas and the implementation of EU gender equality agenda. Yet, the recent impasse of the term has revealed that it has not been well-translated and understood, it has been taken for granted, opening a huge gap between gender as theory and as embodied practice, between the signification of 'gender' in English and 'джендър' in Bulgarian, as well as between different uses and translation strategies. The anti-liberal assault on 'gender' has capitalized on the linguistic confusion surrounding the Anglo-American term, twisting its meanings, and reducing it to an insulting word. Despite the scattered efforts of individual feminist scholars and organizations in coalition with the LGBT+ community in the country, there is an urgent need for a more organized response in society to counter the anti-gender rhetoric, which has been used as an affective

¹⁰ For the full purge word list see *New York Times*, March 7, 2025 at: <https://www.nytimes.com/interactive/2025/03/07/us/trump-federal-agencies-websites-words-dei.html>

instrument (one that relies on spreadable emotions) against gender equality and democracy itself.

Due to the current dismantling and misuse of the term it needs collective efforts of re-translation, re-thinking, and re-conceptualization as the proper translation concerns not only academic publications and university courses but activism, social politics, media and everyday life. This is why a broad network should be built among translators, feminist activists, scholars, policy makers and institutions to discuss in concert existing conceptual tensions, to find the most suitable Bulgarian translation equivalent, and to pro-actively popularize it. It may be too late to go back to the initial variant 'rod' (successfully adopted in some Slavonic languages) but I believe that the concept of 'gender' could be re-claimed and re-configured – similar to the re-claiming of the key words 'race,' 'queer,' and 'black' in the post-Civil Rights movement context in the USA. Of course, such efforts would demand a serious reflection on the existing conceptual ambiguities and contaminations, disentangling connections with political and religious agendas, exposing manipulative vocabulary as well as a shared strategy on the pragmatic use of the term. Last but not least important, the re-taking of 'gender' would need massive work related to educational campaigns on many levels, training about gender epistemologies, scholars producing new feminist knowledge for the 21st century as the future success depends not only on the manner in which key concepts are translated but also how they are narrated, articulated, comprehended, and circulated.

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1. Anonymous
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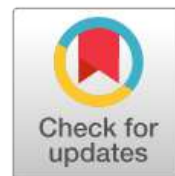
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INTEGRATING TRANSLATION PROJECT MANAGEMENT INTO TRANSLATOR TRAINING AS A PART OF TRANSLATION TECHNOLOGY COURSE

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Abstract

Translation project management has become an indispensable part of the professional translation process with ever-increasing translation volume and complicated translation jobs. Given the essence of translation project management for the translation industry, translator training programs are also expected to equip their students with the relevant translation project management skills. To this end, this study aims to uncover the trainee translators' views of translation project management tools taught within the context of a translation technology course. Based on the data collected with open-ended questions followed by semi-structured short individual interviews, the study attempted to explore the practices needed to integrate essential project management skills and special tools into translator training. After a scrutinized thematic analysis of collected data, the phrases and patterns were noted, and then they were classified to form the themes. The findings show that students support the use of scenario-based instruction; problem-solving skills are improved through scenarios; using scenarios provides a collaborative learning environment. The interpretation of the responses also draws attention to the need for computer labs dedicated to translation departments and underlines the individual differences among students in terms of working in a team.

Keywords: translation project management, translator training, translation technology, scenario-based instruction, thematic analysis

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Translation Project Management

The increasing volume of translation and changing landscape in the translation industry under the pressure of technological developments triggered the need to address translation tasks within a project cycle, utilizing the tools tailored to the requirements of the translation task. Once done solely by in-house translators within a translation agency, translation tasks are now deemed to be conducted in a project cycle, in which many providers, either in-house or freelance, take an essential role to complete the task in accordance with the quality requirements imposed by the industry standards. This has made translation project management an essential part of the translation process (Risku et al., 2019).

The fact that translation tasks have become complicated with many different file types and client expectations have grown and diversified as to the output quality has also forced translation companies to employ project management tools. These tools help translation agencies ensure that the translation task is subjected to a project cycle in which different workflows, including pre-translation, translation, revision, proofreading, and client review, are presented within a tool. As for the definition of translation management systems, Shuttleworth (2015) summarized diverse definitions and listed the key advantages of these systems as “the ability to handle an increased workflow, to accomplish more with less and to manage language service vendors better” (p.679). In his book dedicated to translation project management, Walker (2022) explained translation project management based on the “outsourcing model,” in which clients, language service providers, and sellers play their essential roles (p.7). Project management is known to harmonize and optimize the cycle and workflow among these three entities. In other words, it is “the hub of the wheel” as named by Stoeller (2004), around which the activities of a translation company can be carried out in an efficient and structured way (Dunne & Dunne, 2011).

The use of productivity tools, including translation memory systems, term bases, and lately the integration of machine translation engines into translators’ workbenches, have also required a complicated system for project managers to track the whole translation process. With this in mind, Plaza-Lara (2020) underlined the need to benefit

from translation project management to guarantee the productivity increase that comes with using machine translation during the translation process.

Despite the growing importance of translation project management for both individual translators and translation agencies from the 1990s onwards due to globalization attempts, it is noted that the subject has only begun to get attention after the 2000s, when academic research began to focus on the profiles and competences of project managers (Fuentes-Pérez, 2023). According to Plaza-Lara (2022), early research on translation project management concentrated on the definition, key concepts, and tasks of project management. For instance, presenting one of the earliest studies on project management, Pérez (2002) attempted to clarify the basics of translation project management and the essence of implementing it within the scope of a discipline. Then, Gouadec (2007) expanded on the job profile of project managers and listed the key tasks and responsibilities. To summarize some of the items included in his list, project managers are “responsible for deciding on the workflow, recruiting translators and other operators, planning the job, preparing the source materials, and looking after the administrative and financial side of the project” (p.118). Referring to ISO 17100 standard on Translation Services-Requirements for translation services, Fuentes-Pérez (2023) have also outlined the tasks and responsibilities of project managers, according to which project managers are to “supervise and monitor translation project preparation process, manage and handle feedback” (p.41). These comprehensive lists of tasks underline the fact that project management has a role in organizing and coordinating the whole translation process.

Upon these earlier attempts to define the scope and responsibilities of project management, researchers have begun to address project management in terms of the essential competences. Yet, Plaza-Lara (2022) noted that there is no consensus on defining the core competencies of project managers. Therefore, acknowledging the need to develop a common competence model, Plaza-Lara (2022) presented a Translation Project Management Competence Model upon her series of three studies focusing on different aspects of translation project management including the analysis of job advertisements for project-managers (Plaza-Lara, 2018a), analysis of curricula in Spanish universities (Plaza-Lara, 2018b) and surveys with professional translation project managers (Plaza-Lara, 2020b). The review of the literature, according to Plaza-

Lara (2022), shows that translation project managers “should combine knowledge from both disciplines, namely translation and project management” (p.205). Therefore, the competences required of project managers should also combine both translator and project manager competences.

Integration of Project Management into Translator Training

The number of academic papers addressing translation project management from diverse perspectives has been on increase including but not limited to the core competences required, essential tasks expected from project managers and the case of project management within the translation industry, yet it seems that research directly addressing translation project management in terms of academic translation training and pedagogical considerations is limited. One of the earliest studies was conducted by Kovács (2016), who emphasized the importance of computer-aided translation technology and translation project management in the translation classroom. Building on competences proposed by EMT (European Master’s in Translation) and the requirements of the standard EN 15038:2006, Kovács (2016) described the integration of language technology into translation curriculum and introduced a course in which supervised translation project work was emphasized. The study is especially noteworthy since the researcher dwells on the practices adopted in the class in such a way as to simulate the real translation project management workflow that covers “from creating a price quotation to sending back the translation to the client” (p. 212). In a similar vein but with a different methodology, Perminova (2018) tried to unveil the importance of translation project management based on the results derived from a three-year sequential MA course that incorporated both theoretical and practical aspects of translation project management. As the researcher suggested, the analysis of the students’ performance at the presentations and evaluation of external examiners showed that with this course module, the essentials of translation project management were learned by students in a structured way, and students had the opportunity to put what they learned into practice. The researcher concluded that the presence of such courses as translation project management within the curriculum “would expand academic experience and professional expertise by 'de-compartmentalization' of education in an interdisciplinary environment, focusing on student-empowerment, collaborative professional realism, and an outcomes-based approach” (p. 103-104).

With their comprehensive research, Konttinen et al. (2020) tried to figure out translation students' workflow conceptions in a simulated translation company environment with a module named the Multilingual Translation Workshop. Taking ISO 17100 as a frame of reference, the researchers noted that "the Multilingual Translation Workshop is based on the idea of producing translations in self-organized student companies, mainly as simulated assignments but also in some authentic projects" (p.84). The researchers drew attention to the fact that a one-year translation company simulation affected students' workflow concept as seen from the increase in the number of workflow task mentions in their essays. Though the study was not formulated with a pre- and post-test design, as per the arguments of the researchers, a transformation in the minds of students regarding the translation industry concept was clearly seen after the module. A key finding of this research is that some students preferred a profile of a project manager while others held on to a translation specialist profile. The researchers clearly emphasized that this finding could be attributed to either "internal factors e. g., personality, motivation, talent, or external factors, e. g., experiences in internships or other work experience not related to translation", yet it was noted that this was beyond the scope of their specific research (Konttinen et al., 2020, p.92). This statement again brings to mind the importance of self-efficacy, self-concept, or self-motivation for a translation-related career, such as translator, reviser, or project manager, and its implications for translator training.

As this study is conducted in Türkiye, it is noteworthy to draw an overall picture of the academic research on project management at the local level, as well. Though there has been a great deal of research on translation technology in Türkiye, only a handful of these are seen to have shown a particular interest in project management, instead the project management was addressed as a sub-topic (see Balkul & Toptan, 2019; Şahin & Kansu-Yetkiner, 2020; Yılmaz Gümüş, 2017). Apart from these translation technology-oriented works, there have also been efforts to use project-based learning in the translation classroom (Hastürkoğlu & Özer, 2020; Çetiner, 2021). To the best of existing knowledge, two books stand out for their direct focus on project management in Türkiye. In his book dedicated to translation project management, Eryatmaz (2024) addressed translation as a process-based activity and introduced functions of the planning, organization, workflow, and quality assurance phases in a

typical translation project. The other book was authored by Canım (2024), who not only introduced comprehensive definitions for the key terms used within the context of translation project management but also gave a detailed list of the instructions and sample templates commonly used in the industry including quotation forms, project-planning checklists, and job order files. In the second section of the book, Canım (2024) provided an in-depth discussion of the qualities required of a successful translation project manager. Having higher self-efficacy, being solution-oriented, and having effective communication skills are identified as vital qualities of a successful project manager (p. 157-239).

Given the lack of research touching on project management directly from a translator training perspective, this study aimed to investigate the integration of translation project management into translator training. With this in mind, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. What do the students think about using scenarios similar to real translation industry practices in understanding the translation project management cycle?
2. Do students have any experience with using project management and CAT tools in courses other than technology-oriented ones?
3. What challenges do students experience when they work within a team and manage translation tasks?
4. What suggestions do students have for improving the integration of the translation project management course into the curriculum?

To answer these questions, sample scenarios were created, and students were asked to perform project management tasks as per the instructions provided by the lecturer. Upon completing the tasks, students were requested to respond to a survey of open-ended questions concerning the in-class activities and homework assignments.

Methodology

In this part of the study, research design, participants, setting, data collection procedure and tools, and data analysis are presented.

Research Design

A qualitative research design was adopted for this study. Therefore, a survey with open-ended questions was employed to analyze students' views on the scenarios and practices applied throughout the term. The open-ended questions aimed to elicit responses that could reflect the personal experiences of students. Following the open-ended questions, short individual semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected participants to explore the details of the themes identified from the survey responses. This was deemed essential and expected to elicit a more comprehensive understanding of participants' viewpoints. As for the analysis of the collected data, the thematic analysis method was used to uncover repeated themes based on participants' remarks (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

Participants

The study was initially carried out with 33 undergraduate students enrolled in the English Translation and Interpreting department. They were assumed to have a comparable level of English proficiency as they either completed a one-year preparatory English program or passed the exemption exams to fulfill department entry requirements. None of the participants had any professional or any other type of experience in translation project management before the course, which ensured that all their insight was obtained based on the academic exposure and experiences gained in the translation technology course. As for the short individual semi-structured interviews, participants were selected using convenience sampling. The students who were readily available and willing to participate were invited to the follow-up interviews.

Setting

This study was conducted in an English Translation and Interpreting Department at a state university in Türkiye. The program delivers a comprehensive four-year curriculum encompassing core linguistic, cultural, and professional translation skills from a theoretical perspective as well as practical training considerations. While designing the curriculum, due attention was paid to universal practices and country-specific requirements. The courses in the curriculum of the department can be divided into four main categories: the courses to improve students' foreign language

proficiency; courses to improve students' cultural background and translation skills in fields including literary, legal, or medical translation; courses on interpreting skills, and translation-technology oriented courses.

It should be noted that there has been a move towards integrating technology-based courses in the curriculum in Türkiye, especially in the last decade. Early contributions to this field were made by Şahin (2013), Balkul (2015), and Yılmaz-Gümüş (2017), who examined and attempted to present a comprehensive overview of how translation technologies were being implemented in the Turkish context. While putting technology-oriented courses in the curriculum, recommendations of this earlier research and other relevant literature (see Alcina, 2008; O'Hagan, 2013; Ören, 2020) were considered.

As this study focuses on the translation project management, a more detailed account of technology-oriented courses in the curriculum is essential to fully understand the setting of the study. The program offers IT Skills in the first year; however, as it is taught by a lecturer from outside the department, it is not specifically tailored to the needs of the translation program. In the second year, the program features the Translation Technologies course over two consecutive terms with three class hours per week. In the first term, students were provided with the key terms of translation technologies, and a weekly layout suggested in a previous research by Çetiner (2021a) was followed to a great extent. During the third year, the curriculum emphasizes core translation competence through field-based courses, with no specific focus on translation technologies. In the fourth year, students take a compulsory Localization course in the first term, alongside an elective course on Machine Translation Post-Editing, both of which aim to introduce students to contemporary industry practices and tools.

Data Collection Procedure and Instruments

The study benefited from a two-phase qualitative data collection procedure to investigate the experiences of translation students with translation project management. As a first step, an open-ended online questionnaire was administered via Google Forms following the tasks given as a part of the final assessment. The questionnaire included six open-ended questions addressing the following topics: the

impact of sample scenarios on learning translation project management cycle; using CAT tools in courses other than technology-oriented ones; the order in which different software programs are introduced; the potential use of these tools after graduation; students' experiencing or using other tools not covered in the course, and a general question for suggestions for improving the course content and flow. As a second step, short individual semi-structured follow-up interviews were conducted to elaborate on selected points obtained from the questionnaire responses. These interviews were organized to be held face-to-face with six participants and lasted approximately 10-15 minutes, and they were audio-recorded. The participants were reminded of the objective of the study and that ethical approval had already been obtained from the university, and their voluntary participation and anonymity were ensured.

Coding and Analysis

The data collected from open-ended questionnaires and semi-structured short individual interviews were analyzed using the thematic analysis method as suggested by Braun & Clarke (2006). This method has been commonly used in qualitative research, and there has been a growing number of studies employing this method in Translation Studies, as well (see Castilho et al., 2017; O'Brien & Rossetti, 2020; Rico & González Pastor, 2022; Sánchez-Castany, 2023; Gülmüş Sirkinti, 2025). The answers to the open-ended questionnaires were classified and manually coded by the individual researcher, and themes were identified as per the six-phase thematic analysis strategy elaborated by Braun & Clarke (2006). By means of this procedure, recurring expressions and ideas in the responses to open-ended questions were transformed into common patterns, and these patterns were finally organized as themes (see. Table 1). The findings section gives a detailed presentation of the themes supported by the quotes of participants' responses.

Table 1

Description of the codes and the themes

Themes	Codes	Research Questions
the relationship between using sample scenarios and learning translation project management efficiently	giving quotations, managing quality control processes, and group coordination	RQ1

the perceived effect of learning translation project management and CAT tools on the career opportunities	complying with the sectoral needs, being prepared for the industry, effective time management, and team coordination	RQ1, RQ2 and RQ3
the possibility of using and integrating CAT tools and Translation Project Management in other courses	integration into the curriculum, actively using the tools, and productivity gains	RQ2
the need for computer labs dedicated to the translation program	computer labs, a lack of technical equipment, using different operating systems	RQ4

Findings and Discussion

This section gives the findings of the study, building on the themes defined through thematic analysis of the responses to open-ended questions and the remarks uttered in short individual follow-up interviews. A critical reading of the open-ended questionnaire responses required some remarks to be elaborated in the short follow-up interviews. Therefore, short individual follow-up interviews played a key role in shaping the thematic analysis as the data from these interviews yielded richer detail. The findings are discussed in relation to the research questions and relevant literature. A scrutinized coding process and thematic analysis yielded four themes, including using sample scenarios, having career opportunities, using PM and CAT tools outside the course, and physical facilities for technology-oriented courses at the university.

Theme 1: The relationship between using sample scenarios and learning translation project management efficiently

The analysis of the data derived from the responses given to the first question in the open-ended questionnaire resulted in such patterns as having real translation project management experience in tasks such as giving quotations, managing quality control processes, and group coordination, all of which formed the first theme. This theme seems directly related to the first research question, which asks about the students' thoughts on using scenarios similar to real translation industry practices in understanding the translation project management cycle. The responses of the students underpin the value of practical aspects of using scenarios over the course term. When

asked to elaborate on this in short individual follow-up interviews, students supported their stance by appreciating the task-based approaches, which transformed abstract concepts into more tangible ones, facilitating the learning process. Some phrases transcribed from students' responses include being faced with the problems beforehand, having draft material and a structured track to follow, and having real-life experiences through scenarios. To give an example, one student underlined the essence of sample scenarios as follows:

When we graduate, we will be faced with tasks directly related to the scenarios addressed in the course. I think that learning project management tasks through these scenarios can make us faster to respond to the tasks and problems that may arise. (Student 1)

This reflection underlines the importance of using scenarios in learning translation project management and mirrors the essence of simulated translation project as put forward by Motiejūnienė & Kasperavičienė (2019), who justify learning in a group and a simulated translation project because it “enriches the translation training and promotes many skills necessary for a project manager” (p. 168).

As the data from both the survey and follow-up interview show, all of the students supported learning project management through scenarios. One student also referred to the problem-solving aspect of using scenarios over the term:

Learning the concepts in the course only from a theoretical perspective wouldn't have been possible and permanent without the scenarios. Our problem-solving skills were improved with these scenarios. We got prepared for the situations we might encounter after getting a work. (Student 6)

This comment aligns with the findings that Rodríguez-Castro (2018) presented in her research dealing with a curricular design for teaching translation technology tools, in which participants mostly supported the lecturer's giving hands-on tasks in the course. Reflections of students also suggest the use of scenarios in improving problem-solving skills. This is worth expanding as problem-solving is repeatedly addressed as a strategic sub-competence in the competence models presented by PACTE Group (2003) and Plaza-Lara (2022). By the same token, Rodríguez-Castro (2018) also affirms the importance of task-based learning, by which problems are used as a way to “stimulate

metacognitive development” (p.358). By its very nature, translation project management is also a management of constraints such as timescales, costs, scope, quality, benefits, and risks; therefore, it seems that using scenarios can empower students to be well prepared for real industry challenges.

Theme 2: The perceived effect of learning translation project management and CAT tools on the career opportunities

The relationship between learning CAT tools, the project management cycle, and finding a related job is repeatedly uttered across multiple open-ended questionnaire responses. Complying with the sectoral needs, being prepared for the industry, effective time management, and team coordination are the phrases that form the second theme. It seems that this theme overlaps with the focus of the second research question to a certain point, but it also supports the first research question, as well. The phrases derived from the open-ended survey are elaborated in the follow-up interview with remarks emphasizing the impact of learning project management and CAT tools on finding a translation-related job. Though most of the students stated that they didn't have a chance to look at the job ads, they all agreed on the positive effect of using CAT tools and mastering the project management cycle. For instance, one student referred to the prospective benefits with the following words:

I didn't look at the job advertisements, but I know that what I learned would make it easier for me to find a job. I think that mastering CAT tools and having them on my CV would bring me to the forefront and would be a distinctive feature for me.

(Student 2)

This reflection underlines the practical value of the course in terms of the sectoral needs. In his comprehensive research investigating the essential competences in translation job ads, Li (2022) demonstrated that instrumental competence is one of the most in-demand competences required in job ads. In this regard, the course may be regarded as bridging the so-called gap between academia and the translation industry (see also Marczak & Bondarenko, 2022).

Students also stressed the significance of gaining experience in different workflows, including translation, revision, and client review, and the diverse functions

and tasks of translator or project manager roles, yet they also emphasized that they were not sure of pursuing a career as a translator or project manager.

I am also studying Logistics at the Open Education Faculty, and I am not sure about pursuing a career in translation. If I pursue my career in this field, the workflows and the tools that we have seen in the course would be useful. (Student 3)

This response indicates that at the end of the course, students gained awareness of the project management workflow. This reflection supports the view held by Konttinen et al. (2020), who found that students' workflow conception evolved after a year of simulation.

In one of the short individual follow-up interviews, one student expressed his opinion on using machine translation, as well. His remarks emphasize that learning the basics of CAT tools and the project cycle contributes to awareness of whether to use machine translation or not in a specific task.

If I pursue my career in translation, what we have learnt will certainly have an effect on finding a job. I have learnt the overall system and scope of the roles. I have learnt both translator and project manager roles. I have learnt how the process evolves. I have learnt that feedback can be given to my translation, my translation can be reposted to me, and I shouldn't use machine translation in every instance. (Student 4)

As for working in a team, students mostly refer to individual differences, underlining the fact that working smoothly as a part of a team depends on the individual characteristics of the team members to a great extent. They emphasized the value of group coordination and a collaborative environment.

While working in a team, we divided the tasks. I didn't have any problem as I worked with the students that I get along well. However, not everyone is so responsible. Therefore, I may have had difficulty if I had worked with the students that don't have so responsibility. (Student 3)

One of the students touched on the peer teaching aspect of teamwork while highlighting the importance of effective organization in the team.

An advantage of teamwork is learning from others in the team. We learned a lot from each other. Yet, a disadvantage of teamwork is that we have had some synchronization problems in the team, more than one person tried to perform the same task. Therefore, we may have organizational problems in settings where the workflow is bound to strict rules. (Student 1)

This reflection aligns with the relevant literature with regard to the invaluable aspect of teamwork for the translation project management cycle. In a similar vein, Perminova (2018) attributed the success of a project to “cohesive cross-functional teamwork and transparent channels of communication within a team” (p.102). This reflection also supports the peer teaching aspect of collaborative learning. In their study with experimental design, which gave students such roles as terminologists, translators, proofreaders, and peer editors, Bayraktar-Özer & Hastürkoğlu (2020) further noted that students taught with a collaborative learning method showed a greater level of translation performance compared to the control group.

Theme 3: The possibility of using and integrating CAT tools and Translation Project Management in other courses

One of the questions in the open-ended survey asks whether CAT tools and project management can be used in other courses. Such remarks of students as integration into the curriculum, actively using the tools, and productivity gains formed the third theme. This theme aligns with the focus of the second research question. Findings from the open-ended survey suggest that students do not all agree with the possibility of using CAT tools or project management in other courses, yet they all think that translation project management should be integrated into the curriculum. For instance, one student emphasizes the benefit of integration as follows:

When integrated into the curriculum, project management and CAT tools will be more commonly and actively used by students. (Survey Respondent)¹

The individual differences among students in terms of being prepared for learning the CAT tools are also stressed by one student as follows:

¹ It should be noted that the responses to open-ended questionnaires are anonymous; thus the quotes from the survey are attributed generally as “Survey Respondent” without giving a number.

It is of paramount importance to use these tools, yet not every student becomes familiar with them at the same pace. Therefore, more time should be spared for the basic concepts and teaching the interface of the software in the first weeks of the relevant course. (Survey Respondent)

This reflection draws attention to individual differences among the students. In the relevant literature, this has been examined within the framework of self-efficacy and motivational factors (e.g., Bolaños-Medina, 2014). In an effort to construct a model of translation management and translation production, Konttinen (2021) focused on translation management self-efficacy and concluded that four indicators played key roles in translation management self-efficacy such as a comprehensive understanding of the operations of a translating organization, ability to lead, ability to manage translation projects and ability to keep account of finances (p.20).

As for the course names given by students, it is seen that students do not unanimously agree on the courses in which these tools can be used. As understood from the following quotes, some students consider specialized translation courses and media translation, while others state that these tools can be used in every translation course.

CAT tools can be used in all digital works (e.g., courses) that include a translation task. (Survey Respondent)

I think that these tools can be used for translation assignments given in other courses. We can improve our skills and become masters using these tools. This will benefit us in the real working life. (Survey Respondent)

Both of these reflections have been addressed in the relevant literature in terms of the stand-alone courses or curriculum-wide implementation of the technology-based courses (Mellinger, 2017). Though no consensus on implementing curriculum-wide technology courses has been achieved in the relevant literature to date, it seems that the pace of development in translation technologies, followed by an increased quality in machine translation, can inevitably trigger a curriculum-wide use of translation technologies.

Theme 4: The need for computer labs dedicated to the translation program

In the open-ended questionnaire, students were asked whether they had any suggestions for improving the course content. The responses show that students mostly focus on the lack of technical facilities at school. The comments were mostly clustered around computer labs, a lack of technical equipment, and challenges arising from using different operating systems by students. These all formed the fourth theme, and it aligns with the scope of the fourth research question. To gain detailed data on this topic in the follow-up individual interviews, these phrases were elaborated and transformed into a question that would inquire about the implications of technical facilities on the course. As the responses suggest, students have difficulty in bringing their own PCs; they also have problems with IOS as it does not work well with some CAT tools, and some do not have any PCs.

I didn't have any problems as I have my laptop, but some have neither a laptop nor a Tablet. Some had problems with the operating system. They could not work with the Trados. (Student 2)

Of course, there are some missing parts for me, especially about the Trados. It is more complicated than Phrase. If it were for a computer lab, Trados could be explained in detail. Some of my friends bring their laptops, but they sometimes get distracted. Those who have attention problems can easily be distracted in class, but if we had a computer lab, everyone could get more focused. (Student 3)

These reflections point to the importance of computer labs dedicated to translation programs. Though there has been more than a decade since Pym (2011) sorted the reasons for institutional belatedness and Austermühl (2013) further focused on lagging behind the translation industry, it is evident that translation and interpreting departments, even today, are faced with the infrastructural challenges. Nevertheless, just as translation students are required to fulfill sector expectations, translation departments are also required to provide the students with labs and adequate equipment.

One significant point raised pertained to the immediate assessment of students' work. Students put forward the possibility of immediate assessment that would be

possible with the computer labs, yet they also underlined the essence of individual differences.

I wish we had a computer lab. Of course, it would be better if it were. We could have an immediate assessment of our assignments by the lecturer, yet not having a computer lab is not a total loss for us. It is up to the student. Unfortunately, my friends don't pay extra attention outside of class. (Student 1)

In this response, the student draws attention to the link between the computer labs and immediate assessment or scaffolding of what they have learnt. In a similar vein, Doherty & Moorkens (2013) refer to the essence of computer lab sessions since they serve as a supplement to theoretical lectures. By means of these sessions, students can easily put theoretical knowledge into practice or ask for support during the class hour. Taken together, both the relevant literature and the reflections of students affirm the significance of computer labs in not only enabling students to implement theoretical insights into practice but also providing immediate assessment for their work.

Conclusion

This study set out to explore the effects of integrating translation project management into translator training through a thematic analysis of the data collected by means of an open-ended survey and short individual follow-up interviews. Four key themes emerged from the data, including the effects of using scenarios on learning translation project management, learning translation project management and its implications for accessing career opportunities, the potential for employing CAT tools and translation project management in other courses, and the need for computer labs allocated to translation programs.

As for the first theme, it is evident that using scenarios in teaching translation project management cycles and mastering CAT tools was favorably welcomed by students. It can be inferred from their responses that with these scenarios given, students can easily become familiar with problems beforehand, and the scenarios offer authentic experiences for improving problem-solving skills. Although students have not decided to pursue a career in translation, their statements suggest that they have developed an understanding of the importance of learning project management cycles and mastering CAT tools for the real translation industry, and they are aware of the

possible benefits of using these tools for potential employment opportunities. Concerning the use of CAT tools and translation project management cycle in other courses, it seems that students are open to using them, yet practices to warm them up may be needed before using the tools in other courses. It should also be noted that every trainer may not be ready to use the tools in their courses, too. Therefore, teacher training modules can be organized to let them learn the basics of these tools. This may require a comprehensive approach to teaching the tools that can include designing a curriculum from scratch with more emphasis on technology. As the last theme focuses on, all of the students complain about the lack of physical facilities at the university for technology-oriented courses. The responses indicate that a computer lab dedicated to the translation department can both facilitate the learning process and serve as a space for collaborating and immediate assessment.

This study was conducted with second-year undergraduate-level students, and due to the small number of participants, its scope is limited. A combination of open-ended questionnaires and follow-up interviews was used to collect data for this study. In further research, the findings from this study can be supported by classroom observation to ensure the triangulation of data. The effects of self-efficacy, individual differences, and motivational factors on learning styles or adaptation to emerging translation technologies are beyond the scope of this specific research. These aspects could be investigated in future research with a more comprehensive framework.

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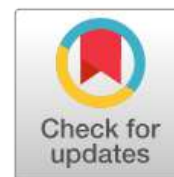
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OBJECT INSERTION IN OLD ENGLISH VERBS OF THROWING: A CORPUS-BASED ANALYSIS

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Abstract

This study demonstrates for the first time that ballistic motion is part of Old English ditransitives, functioning in the Nominative-Accusative-Dative construction. A search for *throw* terms in *A Thesaurus of Old English* generates a pilot list of candidates, whose participation in ditransitives is verified through queries performed on the *Dictionary of Old English Web Corpus*. The findings reveal a relatively diverse group of 14 verb types and 51 tokens expressing deictically directed transfer (i.e., throwing to and from), with some units emphasizing force or manner of motion. In line with Diachronic Construction Grammar, the new verb class is incorporated into a lexicality-schematicity hierarchy, a semantic map proposal for the group is discussed in detail, and the argument structure of Old English throw verbs is formalized into boxes and described. This study pays particular attention to the typological distinction between basic and derived coding frames, and, more specifically, to object insertion as a mechanism for generating ditransitives from primary caused-motion constructions. A comparison of the argument structures found in the Old English corpus with those of their modern English counterparts suggests a lower degree of constructionalization in the Old English throw group, based on the frequent presence of a fourth argument, a directional.

Keywords: Old English ditransitives, throw verbs, Dictionary of Old English Corpus, object insertion, Diachronic Construction Grammar, (non-)compositionality

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Ballistics, caused motion, and ditransitivity

Ballistic motion is described in linguistics as the imparting of a force that is quick and sudden (Gropen et al. 1989; Pinker, 1989, p. 119; Goldberg, 1995, p. 38). Once the force is exerted, the agent lets go of the object or theme, which then undergoes change of location. Ballistic motion is linked to a well-defined closed verb class, containing terms like throw, hurl, cast, fling, sling, fire (projectile), shoot (projectile), shove, hit (ball), kick (ball), etc. (Levin, 1993, p. 146). The semantics of these terms contrast with the expression of continuous causation found in verbs of sending, bringing, and taking (Levin, 1993, pp. 132-37), with taking differing from the remaining verb classes in that the motion involved is accompanied—the agent does not let go of the theme. In what follows, two instances for instantaneous (1) and continuous (2) translational motion are presented (Levin, 1993, pp. 147 & 134):

- (1) *Steve tossed the ball into the garden.*
 Steve-N toss-PST.3SG the-DET ball-N into-PREP the-DET garden-N
 ‘Steve tossed the ball into the garden.’

- (2) *Nora brought the book to the meeting.*
 Nora-N bring-PST.3SG the-DET book-N to-PREP the-DET meeting-N
 ‘Nora brought the book to the meeting.’

According to Levin, the presence of directional phrases of the kind shown in quotations (1) and (2) is an essential property of the verb classes involved. Note that, even though the linguist does not explicitly state it, the constructions express caused motion in the two cases.

In linguistic typology, directionals are integrated into the basic coding frame of throw verbs, as shown in the ValPal project (Hartmann et al., 2013; Haspelmath and Hartmann, 2015) and illustrated by the following example (Goddard, 2013):

- (3) *The boy threw the ball
 through the window.*
 the-DET boy-N throw-PST.3SG the-DET ball-N
 through-PREP the-DET window-N
 ‘The boy threw the ball through the window.’

The basic coding frame of *throw* (schema: 1-nom > V.subj[1] > 2-acc > LOC3) is described by Goddard (2013) as a combination of thrower, thrown thing, and locative. In terms of argument structure, the three elements match the roles of AGENT, PATIENT (or THEME), and LOCATIVE, respectively. The first two are morphosyntactically rendered by noun phrases, while the third appears in prepositionals and adverbials.

Another well-known feature of throw verbs is their participation in double object (ditransitive) constructions when they express change of possession through change of location. There is a strong consensus in the linguistic community that ballistic verbs are part of the ditransitive construction (Pinker, 1989, pp. 110-123; Gropen et al., 1989, pp. 243-44, *inter alia*). Levin (1993, p. 147) remarks that most throw verbs participate in the dative alternation—*Steve tossed the ball to Anna/Steve tossed Anna the ball*. Within the field of cognitive linguistics, the diachronic implications of Goldberg’s study of ditransitives (1995, pp. 141-51) have so far gone largely unnoticed. Her polysemous conception of the list of verb classes configuring the ditransitive construction is based not only on research into the modern English ditransitive, but also on a historical examination of the verb types involved in *The Compact Edition of the Oxford English Dictionary* (Burchfield, 1987). There is, therefore, diachronic relevance in the fact that she positions ballistic (and continuous) motion together with verbs of giving at the core of the ditransitive, as part of this construction’s central sense—‘AGENT SUCCESSFULLY CAUSES RECIPIENT TO RECEIVE PATIENT’ (1995, p. 38).

In linguistic typology, the shift from caused motion to ditransitivity, involving change of location through change of possession, is effected by means of object insertion. This is usually produced by introducing a RECIPIENT which replaces the LOCATIVE. Quotation (4) below exemplifies this shift. It is taken from Giarda (2021, 2024), and ultimately ascribed to PaVeDa (Zanchi et al., 2022; Luraghi et al., 2024), a project that, among other benefits, expands on the findings of ValPal for many modern languages by applying a diachronic perspective¹:

(4)	<i>pæt</i>	<i>flæsc</i>	<i>pæt</i>	<i>wildeor</i>	<i>abiton, [...]</i>
	the-ACC.SG	meat-ACC.SG	that-rel.ACC.SG	beasts-nom.pl	eat-PRS.3.PL
	<i>ac</i>	<i>wurpab</i>	<i>hit</i>	<i>hundum.</i>	
	but-CONJ	throw-IND.PRS.PL	it-ACC.3SG.	dog-DT.PL	
	‘Regarding the flesh bitten by beasts, throw it to the dogs’ (Exodus, 22.31)				

¹ All translations into English are my own

In PaVeDa, the cited shift from LOCATIVE to RECIPIENT (now marked in the dative) is explained as an alternation, with the basic coding frame schema for throw from ValPal (1-nom > V.subj[1] > 2-acc > loc3) now transformed into PaVeDa's 1-nom > V.subj[1] > 2-acc > 4-dat4. A comparison of the basic coding frame in quotation (3) above for modern English with the alternating ditransitive frame in quotation (4) for OE proves that object insertion usually involves the loss of the directional. In other words, ballistic ditransitives conflate change of location with change of possession, with the RECIPIENT being also somehow perceived as the end point or throwing goal. This issue will be readdressed below.

Since the main aim of the present study resides in an in-depth analysis of double object constructions in OE, an explanation regarding the position of DCxG on the semantic compositionality or/and non-compositionality of constructions is required. The issue is relevant to the analysis of results conducted below. DCxG regards constructions as form-meaning pairings in broad linguistic terms. Goldberg herself has modulated her initial defense (1995, p. 4) of non-compositionality, by which a construction was always understood as something more than just the sum of its parts (constraints, pragmatics, etc.), to now accepting fully compositional patterns as such as long as these display sufficient frequency (2019, pp. 6-7). Adopting a radical non-compositional position may lead to the ultimate rejection of quotations (1)-(3) as instances of caused motion or, for that matter, to a refusal of the constructional character of the majority of ditransitives found for OE throw verbs in this study. The findings shown below are consistent with the integrative approach proposed by DCxG, which acknowledges the existence of compositional and non-compositional (or schematized) constructional usages as distinct options, interpreting these in terms of lower or higher degrees of constructionalization (Traugott & Trousdale, 2013).

The study of ballistic motion in OE is practically nonexistent. There is already information on verbs of continuous causation, which have been examined in ditransitives (Vázquez-González & Barðdal, 2019) and in the (NOM-)ACC-TO-DAT prepositional alternation (de Cuyper, 2015b, p. 9). However, the data displayed for Deictically Directed Motion in (Vázquez-González & Barðdal, 2019, pp. 578-580, p. 610) do not include any throw verbs. Similarly, de Cuyper (2015a & 2015b) does not refer to any ballistic unit in his analysis of the (NOM-)ACC-DAT and (NOM-)ACC-TO-DAT prepositional alternating constructions. The only

existing evidence for the participation of OE throw verbs in double object constructions is quotation (4) above, which is explained in valency terms by PaVeDa as a shift from a basic caused-motion coding frame to the corresponding alternating ditransitive (Giarda, 2021 & 2024). As PaVeDa aims for the typological characterization of eighty basic verb meanings in forty-three languages, *weorpan*, the OE counterpart to modern throw, is analyzed, but there are unfortunately no further instances operating a similar valency shift from caused motion to ditransitivity. The present study aims to systematize the data available in the *Dictionary of Old English Web Corpus* (DOEWC; Healey et al., 2015) regarding throw terms expressing such a valency shift.

Methods

This section begins by outlining the criteria followed for corpus compilation, starting with an etymological check of Levin's list and the gathering of a pilot list of OE throw terms based on *A Dictionary of Old English* (Roberts et al., 1995). Next, the types of queries conducted in the DOEWC and the methodological criteria employed for the (in)validation of units are explained. An account is provided for the searches performed on the *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA; Davies, 2008-) and *British National Corpus* (BNC; Davies, 2004), which facilitate the comparison of data between OE and modern English included below. Finally, a brief description of the most relevant aspects of DCxG, the theoretical model used in this study, is presented.

Checking the Old English origin of Levin's verb list yielded very poor results. Among the terms with Anglo-Saxon origins, only *shoot* (*sceotan* 'to shoot, cast a missile') and *shove* (*scufan* 'to shove') are related to throw terms. According to the *Oxford English Dictionary* (*Oxford English Dictionary*, entry for Throw v¹), modern English throw, derived from *þrawan* 'to turn, curl', developed the ballistic reading during the 14th century. A much more productive approach consisted in conducting searches for Levin's synonyms in *A Thesaurus of Old English* (Roberts et al., 1995), which yielded the following matches—05.12.02.06. to push, impel, thrust; 05.12.02.07. to throw, cast, toss; 05.12.02.07.05. to cast, hurl, fling, and 13.02.08.04.02. to send, throw, shoot a missile. The units listed in these entries, many of them derived verbal forms, were arranged into groups in terms of etymological themes²:

² Diaz-Vera (2011) uses a similar methodological procedure.

Table 1*A pilot list of OE throw verbs*

WEORPAN	<i>weorpan</i> ‘to cast, throw, fling’, <i>geweorpan</i> ‘to throw, cast’, <i>beweorpan</i> ‘to cast (down)’, <i>aweorpan</i> ‘to throw, cast’, <i>anbeweorpan</i> ‘to cast, throw into’, <i>framaweorpan</i> ‘to cast away’, <i>toweorpan (ut)</i> ‘to throw away’, <i>worpian</i> ‘to throw, pelt’, <i>geworpiān</i> ‘to throw, toss’
SENDAN	<i>sendan</i> ‘to throw, hurl’, <i>gesendan</i> ‘to throw, cast’, <i>forsendan</i> ‘to send away’, <i>onsendan</i> ‘to send out’
BREGDAN	<i>bregdan</i> ‘to cast, throw’, <i>abregdan</i> ‘to draw from, wrench’, <i>tobregdan</i> ‘to separate sth’
SCEOTAN	<i>sceotan</i> ‘to shoot’, <i>gesceotan</i> ‘to shoot forward, send forth’, <i>asceotan</i> ‘to shoot (out)’, <i>besceotan</i> ‘to shoot into’, <i>scotian</i> ‘to hurl a javelin’, <i>gescotian</i> ‘to shoot’
SCUFAN	<i>scufan</i> ‘to shove, expel’, <i>ascufan</i> ‘to shove away’, <i>bescufan</i> ‘to cast into a place’, <i>gescufan</i> ‘to eject, expel (violence)’, <i>forþscufan</i> ‘to shove forth’
PYDDAN	<i>pyddan</i> ‘to thrust, push’, <i>apyddan</i> ‘to thrust, push’, <i>beþyddan</i> ‘to thrust, push’

Provisional results also included a miscellaneous group of conceptually unrelated units—*bestingan* ‘to besting, thrust’, *drifan* ‘to drive’, *hrindan* ‘to push, thrust’, *wrecan* ‘to drive out’, *torfian* ‘to throw, scatter’, *wealcan* ‘to roll, toss’, *astrælian* ‘to hurl a dart’, and *lælian* ‘to hurl a dart’.

Although the thirty three verb types finally gathered are defined by TOE as throw verbs, this does not guarantee their operationalization in double object constructions, especially given the limitations of Anglo-Saxon records. To assess the ditransitivity of these units, the largest corpus available—the DOEWC (Healey et al., 2015), containing over 3,000,000 words—was used. A series of systematic searches was conducted for each term. The queries were single DOEWC searches aiming to retrieve the largest amount of contexts. All possible spelling variants, including ablaut, were taken into account. For instance, for *weorpan* ‘to cast, throw’, the number of matches obtained and verified breaks down as follows— *weorp* (233), *werp* (28), *wyrp* (210), *wirp* (9), *wierp* (9), *wearp* (299), *wurp* (492), *worp* (463), *uorp* (8). Reducing the queries conducted to such basic morphological stems facilitated the identification of derived verbs. The retrieval of the greatest possible number of quotations proved to be of paramount importance, as most throw terms do not match the high frequency of units like *weorpan* or *sendan*, and instead exhibit (very) low productivity. The total number of quotations checked exceeded 10,000 matches.

With high-frequency types like *sendan* or *drifan*, in which ‘throw’ is not the main sense, it was harder to verify instances. Regarding *sendan*, the search for double object usages was interrupted after the analysis of the first 2,000 matches. It was also sometimes difficult to ascertain whether the terms found operating in Nominative-Accusative-Dative constructions (NOM-ACC-DATS) were actually throw verbs. This is the case with many terms defined as ‘thrusting, throwing’:

- (5) *And* *þonne [...]* *stinge* *him* *monn*
 and-CONJ then-ADV sting-imp.sg he-DAT-3SG one-NOM.SG
feþere *on* *muð* *oððe* *finger,*
 feather-ACC.SG in-PREP mouth-ACC.SG or-CONJ finger-ACC.SG
 ‘And then someone should thrust a feather or finger into his mouth,’ (Lch II, Fragment, B21.2.4, IWS)

A careful analysis of this line from the Leechdoms demonstrates that the agent does not release the feather / finger until the action is completed and vomiting is imminent. Additionally, Levin classifies *sting* as belonging to verbs of exerting force, or push, pull verbs (class 12), which is exactly where *thrust* is found. For these reasons, *stingan* ‘to sting, thrust’, *bestingan* ‘to thrust, push’, and the *þyddan* group (see Table 1) were ultimately ruled out.

Something similar occurred with other potential candidates expressing quick movement and force—*abregdan* ‘to move something quickly, wrench’, and *tobregdan* ‘to separate sth by a quick movement’. These terms are derived from *bregdan* ‘to cast’, a clear throw verb—see quotation (10) below. However, after a careful analysis of instances like (6) below, it becomes evident that the action, despite being sudden, does not involve casting away but removing with violence.

- (6) *þe* *abregdan* *sceal* *for* *þære*
 you-DAT.2SG cast-INF shall-PRS.1.SG for-PREP the-DAT.SG
dæde *deað* *of* *breostum* *sawle*
 deed-DAT.SG death-ACC.SG from-PREP chest-DAT.PL soul-ACC.SG
þine.
 you-ACC.2SG
 ‘I will rip death and soul out of your chest for this deed.’ (GenA,B, l. 2639, IWS)

While throw verbs are glossed by *mitto* ‘to dispatch, discharge’, *iacto* ‘to throw, cast, hurl’, *eicio* ‘to cast out, eject’, or *proicio* ‘to throw, fling, hurl’, *abregdan* is defined by *destringo* ‘to strip off, draw out’ and *tobregdan* by *diripio* ‘to tear apart, tear to pieces’. Finally, a decision was made in favor of the inclusion of *framascufan* ‘to shove away from’ in the list because of the term’s similarity to *framaweorpan* ‘shove away from’, despite having been acknowledged only by TOE (Roberts et al., 1995, p. 333).

The final list of throw verbs operating in double object space is clearly smaller than the pilot list, as it is difficult to find evidence for many units that display an extremely limited number of quotations. The list, which is found below, contains 14 types and 51 tokens. Given the limited size of the DOEWC, the distribution of 14 types across five major options (see Table 1 above), and the attestation of 51 tokens, constitute strong evidence for their operationalization into the NOM-ACC-DAT construction.

The fifty-one ditransitive usages found in the DOEWC are mostly related to the Late Old English period, and more specifically, to late West Saxon (IWS; Möhlig-Falke, 2016). This reflects the overabundance of Anglo-Saxon records preserved from the 11th and 12th centuries. However, the corpus gathered also contains two early West Saxon attestations, one from the OE Orosius, the other from the Laws of Ine—*Gif ðeowwealh Engliscne monnan ofslihð, þonne sceal se ðe hine ah weorpan hine to honda hlaforde* ‘If a slave Welsh kills an Englishman, then his owner will have to toss him into the hands of the Englishman’s lord’ (LawIne B14.4.5, 74). In addition, the range of text types (Kytö and Rissanen, 1992) is broad enough (religious works, translations from the Bible, imaginative fiction, legal documents, etc.) to support the stability and continuity of throw ditransitives throughout the entire Anglo-Saxon period.

The data gathered for OE throw verbs are compared with data for present-day American and British Englishes to measure the respective degrees of constructionalization in the two historical phases. The corpora used are *The Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA; Davies, 2008) and the *British National Corpus* (BNC; Davies, 2004). The two differ significantly in size (1,000,000,000 words vs. 100,000,000) because, while BNC was published in 1993, COCA is still being continuously updated.

Nevertheless, since both corpora are part of English-corpora.org, this facilitates the use of a shared metalanguage for query design. As the main aim of the present investigation is the analysis of OE throw verbs operating ditransitively, the study of modern English was limited to throw (the prototype), shoot, and shove, which have withstood the passing of time. The queries conducted were the following—THROW / SHOOT / SHOVE + PRON + NOUN, and THROW / SHOOT / SHOVE + PRON + DET + NOUN. The two queries aim to retrieve the maximum number of double object occurrences containing object personal pronouns, which are prone to appear in ditransitives (De Cuypere, 2015a, p. 3). The first query member, the verb, is lemmatized. In the process, the list of matches obtained for each search was carefully checked—1. *throw you guys...*, 5 matches; 2. *throw you outta...*, 3; 3. *throw them candy...*, 3; [...] 7. *throw you bums...*, 2; 8. *throw him fastballs...*, 2, etc.

The DCxG approach used here (Barðdal & Gildea, 2015, pp. 01-50; Gildea & Barðdal, 2023, pp. 743-788) builds a theoretical model aimed at reconstructing constructions through the analysis of the earliest attested phases of one (or more than one cognate) language(s). The model has been in use for nearly the last two decades (Barðdal, 2007), primarily in work on the Indo-European family (Luján & Ruiz Abad, 2014), but also involving others (Gildea & de Castro Alves, 2020). In DCxG, a construction's argument structure is formalized into boxes (Michaelis 2010 & 2012; Sag 2012) like the one reproduced in Figure 1 for *sendan* 'to send', described here due to its close connections in semantic space with throw verbs.

In the box, information structure is defined as the sum of FORM, SYN(TAX) and SEM(ANTICS). The FORM section is activated only at verb-specific (main terms) and verb-subspecific levels (prefixed units), hence the presence of *sendan* (DCxG also creates other boxes for the description of more schematic constructional levels, but this issue, together with the reconstructive aspects of the model, is not part of the main goal of this study). The SYN section explains the argument structure pattern. In this case, *sendan* is a combination of three noun phrases, each displaying a specific case—nominative (NOM), accusative (ACC), and dative (DAT). Finally, the SEM section specifies the semantic frame involved and the semantic roles at play—SENDER, THEME, and RECIPIENT. Note that each semantic role is linked to its corresponding noun phrase in the SYN section.

Figure 1
Formalizing the verb-specific Nom-sendan-Acc-Dat construction

Verb-specific cxn			
FORM	< sendan >		
SYN	ARG-ST <NP-NOM _i , NP-ACC _j , NP-DAT _k >		
SEM	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>FRAMES</td> <td> <i>sending-fr</i> SENDER_i THEME_j RECIPIENT_k </td> </tr> </table>	FRAMES	<i>sending-fr</i> SENDER _i THEME _j RECIPIENT _k
FRAMES	<i>sending-fr</i> SENDER _i THEME _j RECIPIENT _k		

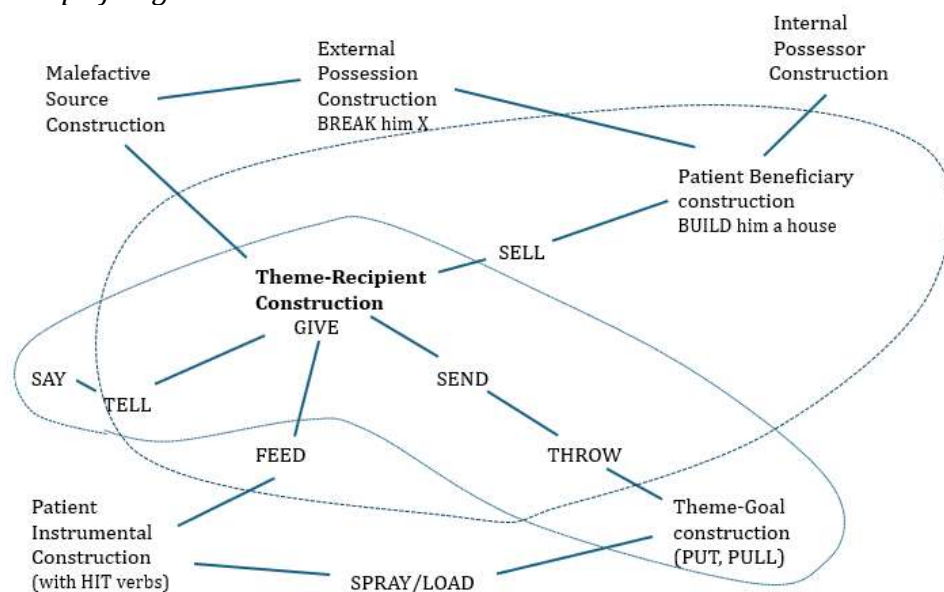
The degree of similarity between DCxG and PaVeDa is very high, syntactically and semantically. The valency pattern of the latter (1-nom > V.subj[1] > 2-acc > 4-dat4) fully matches the SYN description in Figure 1 above. The microroles used by PaVeDa are compatible with the roles found in DCxG. The two approaches combine constructionism with typology, or typology with constructionism, with the aim of reconstructing constructions. PaVeDA's typological program is ultimately intent on the characterization of the valency patterns for 80 core units in the 43 languages so far covered. The DCxG model used here develops corpus-based, in-depth analyses of full verb classes and conceptual domains which are linked to a given pattern, and classified into different linguistic levels according to a lexicality-schematicity hierarchy (Barðdal, 2008 & 2011). While the shift from caused motion to ditransitive plays a central role in this investigation, DCxG refines the analysis of level-specific throw units operating in NOM-ACC-DATS, and, by doing so, describes the constructional specifics of the cited verb class to the full.

The study of the ditransitive construction in the Germanic languages has been a recurring topic since the early stages of DCxG (Barðdal, 2007; Barðdal et al., 2011; Anonymous, 2019). The analysis of ditransitives and their reconstruction in Proto-Germanic at different levels of specificity and schematicity is based on a fine-grained classification of the verb classes and conceptual domains that participate in the NOM-DAT-ACC (or NOM-ACC-DAT) pattern. The list is noticeably broader than the nine classes usually associated with modern English (Goldberg, 1995, p. 388, *inter alia*), and has been

validated typologically in the Germanic domain through a comparison of English with modern Icelandic, other West Scandinavian languages, Old Norse-Icelandic, and modern German. For a full description of the nine major conceptual domains and the related sixteen verb classes, the reader is referred to Barðdal, Kristoffersen and Sveen (2011) and Vázquez-González & Barðdal (2019). The expression of change of possession through change of location is found in Domain 3, Deictically Directed Transfer (Vázquez-González & Barðdal, 2019, pp. 578-589, p. 610), with verbs of bringing (class 5) and sending (6). As stated above, this previous full-scale investigation of the complete set of verb classes operating in the most frequent OE ditransitive frame (NOM-DAT-ACC/ NOM-ACC-DAT) did not yield any results for ballistics.

DCxG distributes verb classes and domains in semantic maps. The following example illustrates this for the modern English ditransitive (Malchukov et al., 2010, p. 51):

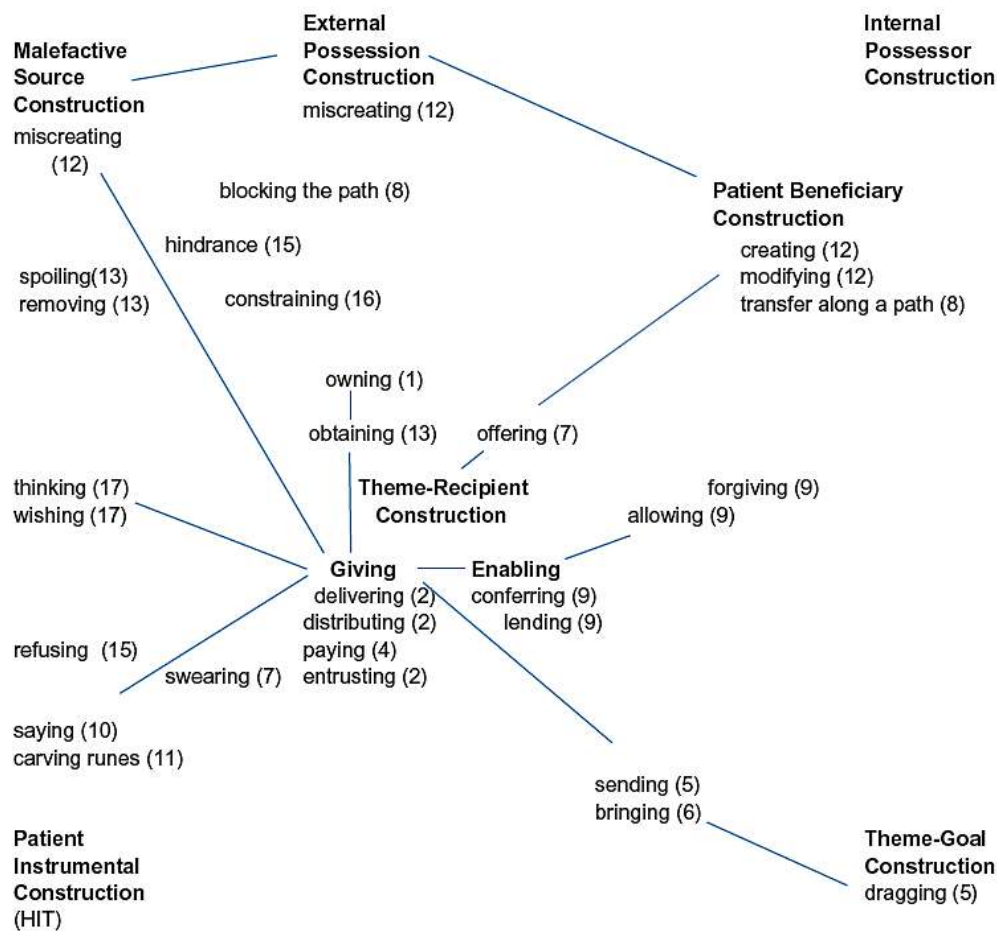
Figure 2
A semantic map of English ditransitive constructions



The map positions the ditransitives from each of the 80 world languages studied (Haspelmath, 2015) into several constructional areas. The core is represented by the Theme-Recipient Construction, with clines towards the periphery—Patient-Instrumental, Theme-Goal, Patient-Beneficiary, Internal Possessor, External Possession, and Malefactive Source Constructions. As observed in Figure 2, modern English ditransitives are limited in scope, linking to beneficiaries and approaching—but not reaching—theme-goals. The inventory of units used by Malchukov, Haspelmath and Comrie (2010) in the map is visually restricted to a few basic terms because

ditransitives have proved to be extremely reduced in number in the eighty languages studied by the ValPal project (Hartmann et al., 2013). The Indo-European languages are an exception, however. By conducting a full-scale, corpus-based analysis in one language like OE, the DCxG model manages to capture serialized snapshots of specific constructions, which improve the typological adequacy of the corresponding semantic map. The verb classes operating in the OE NOM-DAT-ACC (and NOM-ACC-DAT) construction are the following (Vázquez-González & Barðdal, 2019, p. 595):

Figure 3
The semantics of the ditransitive construction in Proto-Germanic



In DCxG, verb type clines like the one connecting theme-recipients with theme-goals (GIVE > SEND > THROW > PULL) are noticeably enriched. For the sake of illustration, Figure 3 above shows verb classes rather than specific verb types (but see, for instance, Vázquez-González, 2024, p. 22). Figure 3 also shows the absence of OE throw verbs in the sequence. This anomaly is all the more surprising given the participation of theme-goals (see the map's bottom right) in double object space with manner-of-motion types like *dragan* 'to pull, drag'. It is now time to discuss the findings.

Results

This section begins by displaying the list of verb types and their exemplification in verb-specific constructions, quotations (7)—(12), and then proceeds to provide a discussion of the group. The inclusion of a list of terms and their corresponding quotations here follows the methodology used in Visser’s study of double object constructions (1963, pp. 606-48), whose analysis of pattern 3 + 4 for NOM-DAT-ACCS/NOM-ACC-DATS (pp. 621-35) nevertheless fails to contain any throw verb (Barðdal, 2007, p. 26). The terms are arranged according to etymological themes, with core units in small caps. Every type is provided with a definition (Bosworth-Toller, 1921) and the total number of quotations. For lack of space, only a selection of the most representative types is included in the examples below. In the present study, all quotations are provided with morphological interlinear tagging according to the Leipzig Glossing Rules.

LIST OF VERB TYPES: WEORPAN ‘cast, throw, fling’ (9); *aweorpan* ‘to throw, cast, (quickly and/or violently)’ (7), *framaweorpan* ‘to cast, throw away’ (6), *toweorpan* ‘to throw out’ (1), SENDAN ‘to throw, hurl (stronger sense of motion)’ (8), *asendan* ‘to send forth/out’ (4), *onsendan* ‘to send forth or out’ (8), *insendan* ‘to send in’ (1), BESCEOTAN ‘to shoot into, fling’ (1), BREGDAN ‘to cast, move quickly, throw’ (1), SCUFAN ‘to shove’ (2), *ascufan* ‘to push away, shove away’ (1), *framascufan?* ‘shove away from’ (1), ONWEALCAN ‘to toss, roll’ (1).

(7) *awyrp* *me* *þonne* *hyder* *þinne*
 throw-IMP.SG I-DAT.SG then-ADV here-ADV you-ACC.2SG
scyccels *þe* *þu* *mid* *bewæfed*
 cloak-ACC.SG which-REL you-NOM.2SG with-PREP clothed-PST.PTCP
eart.
 be-PRS.2SG
 ‘Throw me your cloak here, the one that you are wearing,’
 (LS 23, Mary of Egypt, B3.3.23, 256, IWS)

(8) *He* *onsende* *on* *muð* *minne*
 he-NOM.PL throw-PST.3SG into-PREP mouth-acc I-ACC.1SG
cantic *niwne* *ymen* *gode* *urum,*
 song-ACC new-ACC hymn-ACC god-DAT.SG we-DAT.PL
 ‘He cast a new song into my mouth, a hymn to our God.’
 (PsGLD, Roeder, C7.9, 39.4)

- (9) *Ða* *deoflu [...]* *bescuton* *hi* *anum*
 the-NOM.PL devil-NOM.PL fling-PST.3PL he-ACC.3PL one-DAT.SG
fyrenan *dracan* *innan* *þone* *muð*
 fiery-DAT.SG dragon-DAT.SG into-PREP the-ACC.SG mouth-ACC.SG

'The devils flung them into a flaming dragon's mouth'

(HomU 26, Nap 29, B3.4.26, 222, IWS)

- (10) *Swa* *sceal* *mæg* *don,* *nealles*
 so-ADV shall-PRS.3SG man-NOM.SG do-INF not-ADV
inwitnet *oðrum* *bregdon* *dyrnum* *cræfte*
 net-ACC.SG other-DAT.PL Cast-INF evil-DAT.SG art-DAT.SG

'A man should always do so, and never cast an evil net at others through secret arts.' (Beo A4.1, 2,166, IWS)

- (11) *þa* *se* *cyning [...]* *neadunga* *þone*
 then-ADV the-NOM.SG king-NOM.SG forcibly-ADV the-ACC.SG
witegan *him* *to* *handum* *asceaf.*
 prophet-ACC.SG he-DAT.3SG into-PREP hand-DAT.PL throw-PST.3SG

'Then the king [...] was forced to shove the prophet into their hands'

(ÆCHom I, 37, B1.1.39, IWS)

- (12) *ond* *dryhtnes* *bibod* *geofonfloda* *gehwylc*
 and-CONJ lord-GEN.SG order-ACC.SG flood-GEN.PL all-NOM.SG
georne *bihealdeð,* *þonne* *merestreamas* *meotudes*
 well-ADV hold-PRS.3SG then-ADV sea-NOM.PL lord-GEN.SG
ræswum *wæter* *onwealcað.*
 chief-DAT.PL water-ACC.SG toss-PRS.3PL

'And every ocean flood obeys the Lord's commandment, when the sea streams toss the rolling waters against the Lord's counsellors.'

(Az A3.3, 122, IWS)

As expressed by the meanings of the verb types in the list, the great majority of them (*weorpan*, *sendan*, *besceotan*, *bregdan*, and related derivatives) are clearly associated with ballistics, with a physical, sudden and quick transfer after the AGENT

releases the PATIENT/THEME. However, the throwing is originated differently in the *scufan* group and *onwealcan*. In the first case, exemplified in quotation (11), throwing blends with force. Levin includes shove under verbs of throwing (1993, p. 146), and also tentatively within verbs of exerting force, where it coincides with push and thrust (1993, p. 137). In the second case, illustrated in quotation (12), the throwing combines with manner of motion—see roll verbs in Levin (1993, p. 264).

The weight of *weorpan* and its derivatives in the group is remarkable. They constitute the most productive set in terms of quotations, amounting to nearly half the entire group—23/46 tokens. Quotation (7) for *aweorpan*, taken from Ælfric's *Mary of Egypt*, an 11th-century Saint's Life, demonstrates the presence of directionals in the double object construction. This issue will be readdressed below.

The *sendan* group is also highly productive, with 17 quotations. As previously discussed, finding examples for the secondary sense of sending was no easy task. One way used to detect throwing usages was by identifying semantic affinity through Latin glosses. This explains the inclusion of quotation (8) in this section. The line is from psalm 39—*Et immisit in os meum canticum novum, carmen Deo nostro*. Lewis and Short (1949) describe *inmitto* as implying 'to send or dispatch against, let loose at, discharge at, to cast or throw into', clearly indicating ballistics, and hence supporting our analysis of the glossed OE line.

Despite the fact that ballistic usages are common for many of the terms in the list, it was surprising to find the *sceotan* group (see Table 1 above) so poorly represented. The only term involved is *besceotan* 'to shoot into, fling', appearing in quotation (9), an excerpt from one of Wulfstan's Homilies. Other units expressly signifying the shooting of missiles like *torfian* 'to throw stones at someone', *lælian* 'to hurl a dart', *strælian* 'to shoot', and *astrælian* 'to hurl a dart' do not show any double object usages in the DOEWC either. The lack of ditransitivity in these terms and the *sceotan* group is very probably due to a gap in the records.

Quotation (10) shows the only level-specific constructional usage associated with the *bregdan* group specifying throwing, hurling. The line is from *Beowulf*, a piece of advice in favor of gift-giving and against evil plotting. Even though the usage is metaphorical, since it is a nest of evil intentions that is cast, the ballistic rendering

clearly contrasts with the notion of wrenching, drawing from with force as specified by its derivative *abregdan*. Quotation (11), taken from one of Ælfric’s Homilies, demonstrates the particular blend of ballistics with force in *scufan*, with a reluctant king violently pushing Daniel the prophet back into the hands of the Babylonians. Finally, in quotation (12) manner of motion resides in the violent rolling of the sea’s waves, tossing a boat and its crew until they are commanded to stop.

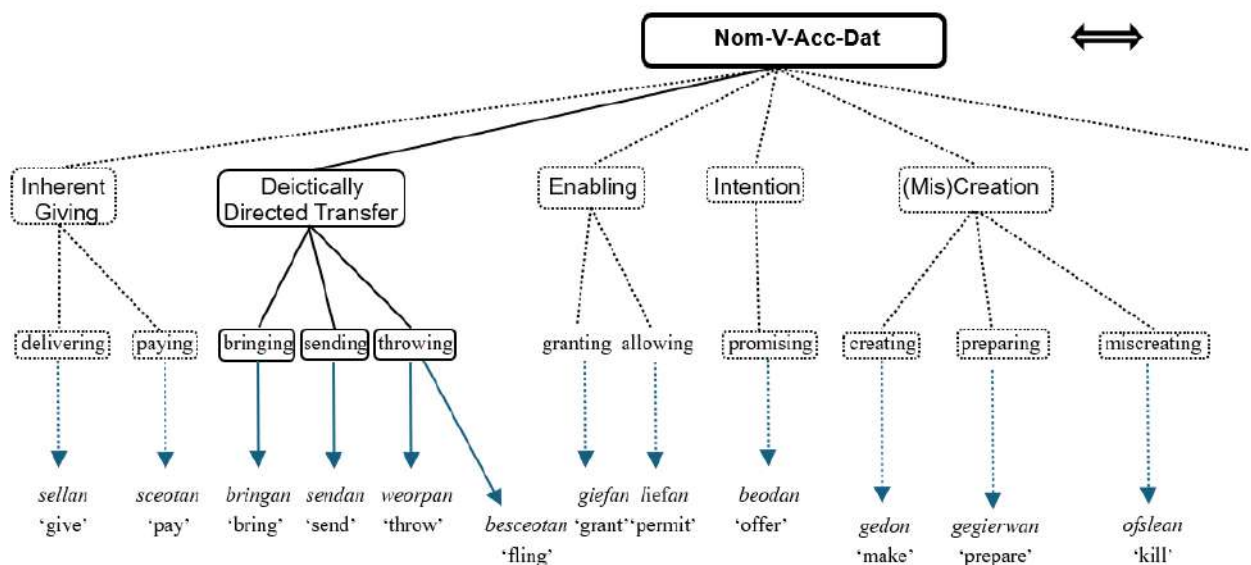
Formalization, discussion, and constructionalization

This section frames the results discussed previously in terms of the three major axes that constitute the DCxG model used in this study. First, an illustration is provided of the position occupied by throw verbs within the lexicality-schematicity hierarchy. Then, attention is directed to the typological cline spanning from the Theme-Recipient to the Theme-Goal Constructions, in order to produce a detailed semantic map proposal for throw verbs. Finally, a formalized account of the corresponding DCxG box is presented, which leads to a discussion of the differences between double object constructions for throw in OE and in modern usage.

Figure 4 below positions throw verbs within the lexicality-schematicity hierarchy of the NOM-ACC-DAT construction.

Figure 4

The lexicality-schematicity hierarchy of the OE ACC-DAT construction



In DCxG, information structure is distributed across five different linguistic levels: verb-subspecific, verb-specific, verb-class-specific, higher-level conceptual domain, and event type. Figure 4 is a partial reproduction of the NOM-ACC-DAT subconstruction, with a selection of five from the nine major conceptual domains. All of these, except Deictically Directed Transfer, appear in dotted lines. Verb-subspecific and verb-specific constructions are instantiated by prefixed verbs like *besceotan* ‘to shoot, fling’ and unprefixed main terms like *weorpan* ‘to throw, hurl’. Schematicity begins higher up, at the verb-class level, with bringing (class 6), sending (5), and, according to the findings discussed previously, throwing. The three groups configure the corresponding higher-level conceptual domain, Deictically Directed Transfer, whose argument structure information forms part of the basis for the reconstruction of the event-type NOM-ACC-DAT construction, the most schematic of options.

Now, a question could be raised about whether throw verbs actually form part of Deictically Directed Transfer or should constitute a category on their own. In double object space, the three verb classes specify a change of possession through change of location. While sending and bringing describe the two directions of the transfer, one each, it might be thought that throw verbs do not do the same, since they appear to refer only to the end point of the transfer. However, the lexicalized presence of pairs like *weorpan / framaweorpan* and, probably, *scufan / framascufan*, focalizing a similar bidirectionality, expresses the deictically-marked starting and ending points of the transfer. Only the difference between continuous and spontaneous translational motion sets these verb classes apart, then.

The positioning of throw verbs in the lexicality-schematicity hierarchy is also enriched through the corresponding semantic map proposal. While Figure 2 and Figure 3 portray the whole typological semantic space for modern English and OE double object constructions, Figure 5 captures a detailed snapshot of the cline extending from the Theme-Recipient to the Theme-Goal constructions in OE NOM-ACC-DATS.

The cline GIVE > SEND > THROW > PUT, PULL in Figure 2 is now SELLAN > SENDAN > WEORPAN > DRAGAN. The presence of throw verbs in this semantic map for OE NOM-ACC-DATS fills a gap that existed in a previous proposal for ditransitives in OE (Anonymous, 2019). Note the saliency of *weorpan* and related derivatives, and the

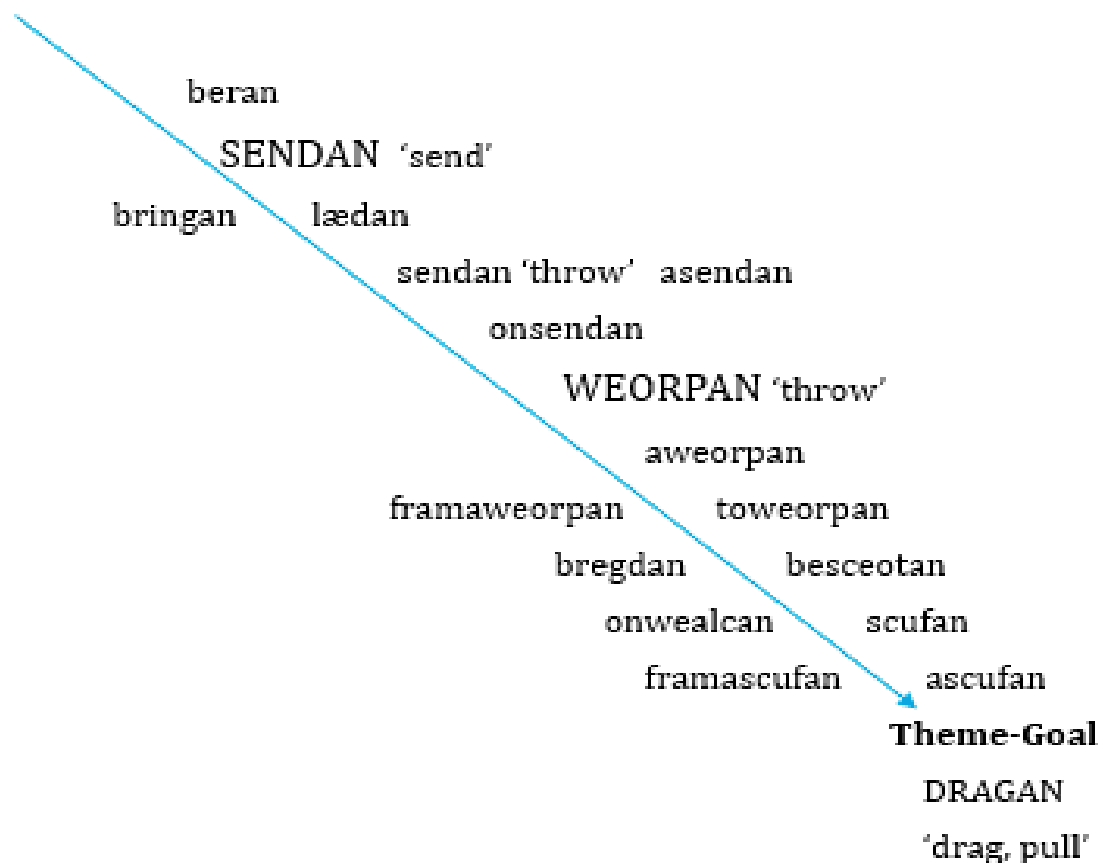
participation of *sendan* in two areas, linking sending with throwing. Terms expressing proximity are distributed to the left, with bringing (*bringan*) and throwing/shoving from (*framaweorpan*, *framascufan*), while those relating to distance are predominantly situated to the right, with sending (*sendan*), throwing, and with the rest of the terms, in that area of conceptual space. Units conceptually more complex like the *scufan* group, which combines throwing with force, or *onwealcan*, which blends tossing with rolling, are located in the bottom right.

Figure 5

A semantic map proposal for OE throw verbs

Theme-Recipient

SELLAN 'give'



Each of the terms included in the typologically validated semantic map proposal presented in Figure 5 above is provided with a formalized account of its argument structure in DCxG terms. Figure 6 below presents the corresponding box for *weorpan* 'to throw, hurl, fling', a description that also applies to the remaining throw units.

The frame this time is throwing, containing a THROWER in the nominative, a THEME in the accusative, and a RECIPIENT in the dative. The three cited arguments are valid for explaining the merging of change of location with change of possession. However, the box also includes a fourth argument—GOAL—expressed by means of a prepositional phrase in the dative/accusative, or by an adverbial. This fourth argument, a directional, is optional. In these cases, there is no merging between change of location and change of possession, the two being rendered by distinct arguments, RECIPIENT and GOAL.

Figure 6

Formalizing the verb-specific NOM-weorpan-ACC-DAT construction

Verb-specific cxn			
FORM	< weorpan >		
SYN	ARG-ST < NP-NOM _i , NP-ACC _j , NP-DAT _k (, PP-DAT _l /ACC _l)/ADV _l >		
SEM	<table border="1"> <tr> <td>FRAMES</td> <td> <i>throwing-fr</i> THROWER_i THEME_j RECIPIENT_k (GOAL_l) </td> </tr> </table>	FRAMES	<i>throwing-fr</i> THROWER _i THEME _j RECIPIENT _k (GOAL _l)
FRAMES	<i>throwing-fr</i> THROWER _i THEME _j RECIPIENT _k (GOAL _l)		

The fifty one constructional usages found for throw verbs in this study show a majority of twenty eight quotations that include a GOAL of some kind, while the remaining twenty three contain the three compulsory arguments as displayed in the SYN section of the box. In this respect, compare quotations (7)-(9) and (11) above, with directionals like *hyder* ‘hither’, *on muð minne* ‘into my mouth’, *innan þone muð* ‘into the mouth’, and *to handum* ‘into (their) hands’, with (4), (10) and (12), lacking them. In the case of those types showing more than one quotation, the findings show that most of these units operate with three or four arguments variably, depending on the specifics of the context—*sendan* shows an even distribution, with four cases for each option;

weorpan, on the other hand, seems to favor non-prepositionals, with seven instances, although the term also appears twice in combination with these.

The data obtained for OE double object constructions described above noticeably contrast with those for present-day American English and British English. The two queries for *throw*, *shoot*, and *shove*, described above and performed on COCA (Davies, 2008-) and BNC (Davies, 2004), yield different results regarding the number of prepositional directionals. While *shove* surprisingly fails to operate ditransitively in the two corpora, the data obtained for *throw* in COCA show 115 three-argument ditransitives and only 8 in which prepositionals appear. The contexts found in these constructional usages mostly involve drinking (beer, whiskey), food (scraps, fish, sandwiches, apples, maize, bait, etc.), American football (Hail Marys), and baseball (balls, fastballs, curveballs, another strike, etc.). The BNC shows similar results, with 4 double object constructions (throwing bits, ropes, and questions) and no single instance of directionals. For illustration, quotations (13) and (14) represent the two argument structure variables in *throw*:

- (13) *I* *guess* *I'm* *going* *to* *start*
 I-PRON.1.SG guess-INF be-PRS.1SG go-GER to-CON start-INF
throwing *him* *all* *fastballs.*
 throw-GER he-3.SG.IO all-DET fastball-N.PL

'I guess I'm going to start throwing him all fastballs.'

NEWS: Associated Press. Baseball Today: SCOREBOARD. 1990

- (14) *Somebody* *threw* *me* *that* *apple,*
 Somebody-INDH throw-PST.3SG I-PRON.1SG.IO that-DEM apple-N
I *think,* *from* *down* *below.*
 I-PRON.1SG.SUBJ think-PRS.1SG from-prep down-ADV below-ADV

'Somebody threw me that apple, I think, from down below.'

MAG Rolling Stone, EXPLORING ASIA (Cover story, Erik Hedegaard), 2002

Regarding *shoot*, the queries conducted in COCA yield 30 double object usages and none including prepositionals. In BNC, the two options show one example each. When calculated, the total number of directionals for *shoot* is virtually negligible (31/1).

Given the scarcity of directionals for *throw* and *shoot* in the two national varieties of English examined, it can be affirmed that double object patterns exhibit a

higher degree of constructionalization in modern English, with an argument structure primarily consisting of three members—THROWER, THEME, and RECIPIENT. Directionals are used from time to time, but in the vast majority of cases, change of location and change of possession merge. The fusion of two roles (RECIPIENT and GOAL) into one (RECIPIENT) indicates a major drive toward non-compositionality, and clearly reflects a higher degree of schematized constructionalization (Traugott & Trousdale, 2013, pp. 94-148) in the pattern.

This raises the question regarding the corresponding degree of constructionalization in OE. As affirmed above, the data show a slight majority of constructional usages containing prepositionals (28 / 23). The information structure of OE throw verbs may contain only three arguments, but finding four is more frequent. The *sendan* and *weorpan* groups operate either way depending on the particulars of the context. The four quotations for *scufan*, *ascufan* and, possibly, *framascufan* all contain directionals, as illustrated by quotation (11). Additionally, direction from is grammaticalized in *framascufan* and *framaweorpan*. Based on the evidence presented in this study, it can be safely concluded that the argument structure of OE throw verbs is more complex than that of their modern counterparts and more weakly constructionalized. Nevertheless, the twenty-three instances containing three arguments already demonstrate that a more schematized constructionalization was already in operation, and probably in competition with the full compositionality exhibited in the majority of cases.

Conclusions and directions for further research

This study presents the first systematic analysis of OE throw verbs operating in the NOM-ACC-DAT construction to date. Based on a series of specific, *ad hoc* searches conducted in the DOEWC online, it has been possible to gather 14 verb-(sub)specific types and 51 related constructional usages. The findings represent a substantial update in OE linguistics, given that they are undocumented in previous analyses of OE double object complementation. By retrieving such a large group of types and constructional usages from the DOEWC, this investigation reframes PaVeDa's analysis of *weorpan* into an in-depth examination of throw verbs, successfully capturing a detailed snapshot of their argument structure specifics.

The analysis of the data gathered for ballistic motion in OE proves that these constructional usages are neither hapax legomena nor a few isolated occurrences scattered throughout the late West Saxon period. The throw group exists as a verb class on its own and should be acknowledged accordingly. Even though the findings are primarily associated with the late West Saxon period, it has been possible to establish the existence of ballistics during early West Saxon, too. Additionally, the range of text types represented by the tokens found is wide enough to guarantee this group's regular distribution.

The space for THROW in the corresponding semantic map proposal, a middle point between the Theme-Recipient and Theme-Goal constructions, is significantly enriched. As already demonstrated, the *sendan* group curiously bridges the areas of continuous and instantaneous motion. The weight of the *weorpan* group is noticeable, with 4 types and 23 tokens. There are also other options for casting out (*bregdan*), or hurling (*besceotan*). Some terms, like the *sceofan* group, highlight the blending of instantaneous motion with force. In others, like *onwealcan*, tossing combines with manner of motion.

Another interesting finding shared with verbs of bringing and sending is that the transfer shown by the throw group also operates in a deictically directed manner. While it is true that most of the types specify direction towards, motion away from also makes its way through grammaticalization into terms like *framaweorpan* and, possibly, *framascufan*. This finding suggests that throw verbs share adjacent conceptual space with verbs of bringing and sending, and should accordingly be incorporated into Deictically Directed Transfer, the corresponding conceptual domain in DCxG,

The analysis of the fifty one constructional usages found also shows a more flexible and elaborate argument structure for these verbs than expected, displaying four arguments instead of three on most occasions. The semantic roles of AGENT, THEME, and RECIPIENT are obviously required by object inversion in the shift from a basic caused-motion construction to the corresponding alternating ditransitive. However, the presence of GOAL(S) in the majority of instances (twenty-eight) was surprising. The persistent recurrence of morphosyntactic directionals expressing movement to and from within the throw group clearly demonstrates that the schematic merging of change of location with change of possession, implied by object inversion, is not accomplished in the majority of the fifty one constructional usages found. As the remaining twenty

three instances already express the typical, schematized three-argument structure expected from object inversion, it can therefore be affirmed that during the (late) OE period the argument structure of throw verbs was flexible and could opt for either option depending on contextual specifics.

A comparison with the data gathered for throw, shoot, and shove from COCA and BNC demonstrates that directionals become extremely marginal over time. This is interpreted in terms of different degrees of constructionalization across the two periods, with present-day American and British Englishes exhibiting a three-role argument structure, and OE alternating between four fully compositional arguments (in most cases) and the cited three. It can therefore be safely concluded that the degree of constructionalization displayed by OE throw verbs in double object constructions is relatively low.

The new data regarding the use of OE throw verbs in the NOM-ACC-DAT construction also need to be approached from a historical comparative perspective. The substantial amount of data gathered in this investigation constitutes the first systematic piece of evidence for the participation of ballistic motion as a verb class in the NOM-ACC-DAT construction in an early West Germanic language. In North Germanic, throw verbs have been shown to operate only in the NOM-DAT-DAT construction (Barðdal, 2007, pp. 16-18; Barðdal et al, 2011, p. 60). In East Germanic, PaVeDa's example *jah þana stainam wairpandans* 'and at him they cast stones' (Tarsi & Zanchi, 2024), provides a clear demonstration of the use of the NOM-ACC-DAT construction in Gothic. The presence of the same cognate double object construction in West and East Germanic therefore suggests the possibility of a shared origin, but the issue lies outside the scope of this study and further research is needed in this respect.

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CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS AND SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS IN EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: A SYSTEMATIC LITERATURE REVIEW

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Abstract

Motivated by the long-standing connection between Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), this paper presents the first systematic literature review of the most frequent and productive linguistic features from SFL that are applied in practice by CDA analysts. Guided by PRISMA 2020 and following the SALSA framework, 4 databases (Wiley, Scopus, Sage Publications, and ProQuest) were searched, from which 78 papers were extracted and statistically analyzed with the TexMiLAB tool. The linguistic features that are most productive in CDA are lexical choices and evaluative lexis at the lexico-semantic level; while at the grammatical level, it is the type of processes and type of participants, together with the analysis of other linguistic elements, such as metaphors and quotations. The systems of Transitivity and Modality, and Appraisal theory are more recurrent over the remarkably underused Theme system. It could be argued that, to a large extent, SFL remains central to CDA research, although some CDA practitioners do not seem to follow a systematic methodology when applying SFL to their analysis.

Keywords: CDA, SFL, systematic literature review, PRISMA, SALSA, lexicogrammatical features

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Overview

The main aim of this paper is to identify and review current research published within the paradigm of Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) that has relied on Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) to address their research questions. To this purpose, by conducting a systematic literature review (SLR), we have identified and synthesized all relevant available research on this matter. A systematic protocol, which was guided by the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analysis (PRISMA 2020) guideline (Page et al., 2021), has been adopted in order to minimize bias, provide transparency, and ensure wide coverage and accurate reporting of relevant publications (Booth et al., 2021; Snyder, 2019). The review process followed the stages of the SALSA framework (Grant & Booth, 2009), whereas the TexMiLAB software tool (Periñán-Pascual, 2024a) assisted in the statistical analysis. Thus, this paper can significantly contribute to academic knowledge about the methodological association between CDA and SFL as is actually applied by its practitioners, as well as enlighten the path for those novel researchers who want to engage in CDA from a systemic functional linguistic perspective.

Properly conducted literature reviews are essential to direct and lead research in fruitful directions in any given discipline (Boell & Cecez-Kecmanovic, 2014). In recent years, CDA studies have been the focus of attention of a limited number of systematic reviews. These have mainly synthesized and collated published papers on specific types of discourse, such as political discourse (Randour et al., 2020), hate speech (Sirulhaq et al., 2023), or ecological discourse (Chu et al., 2024). Similarly, Fionasari (2024) also conducted an SLR scrutinizing research on language and power in political and social contexts, among which it included publications in the CDA and SFL paradigms, but only as part of the diverse array of selected publications which were founded on other theoretical frameworks. To these recent SLRs, we can add a meta-analysis with a more methodological focus, which surveys the increasing incorporation of corpus-based methods in CDA (Nartey & Mwinlaaru, 2019). The relatively scarce number of SLRs of research where CDA and SFL have been applied presents a gap that needs to be addressed.

The paper is organized as follows. The next section summarizes the main tenets of CDA and SFL with a view to highlighting their theoretical and analytical integration in empirical research. Following that, we present the research questions (RQs) that drove our SLR, detailing the step-by-step protocol followed to compile our final corpus of 78 peer-reviewed studies. Next, we list and analyze the main results gathered when

exploring the most frequent and effective SFL linguistic features studied by the CDA scholars in the corpus. This section also attends to the specific SFL systems employed by these researchers (Transitivity, Mood, and Theme). In doing so, the two RQs are fully addressed. Finally, we draw our conclusions, outline the limitations of the study and offer potential paths for further investigation.

Theoretical underpinnings: CDA and SFL

CDA is a well-established field of research that emerged and steadily developed since the last decades of the 20th century from the concern of an initial group of linguists with the broad aspects of the societal context in which language is used. Led by this interest and since its early times, CDA has gone beyond a descriptivist approach to discourse analysis and is, in essence, primarily concerned with pressing social situations, particularly those characterized by inequality and power abuse. In this sense, CDA is a problem-oriented practice (Catalano & Waugh, 2020: xxiii). As stated by van Dijk (2015), 'critical discourse analysts take an explicit position and thus want to understand, expose, and ultimately challenge social inequality' (p. 466). Additionally, in doing so, CDA practitioners usually take the part of the deprived and disadvantaged (Meyer, 2001, p. 30) with a clear commitment to practical applications that can bring about real changes in the world as a result of the social awareness they make explicit. This leads to a further characteristic of CDA, interdisciplinarity, as such broad concerns necessarily open up research to connections with the theories and methodologies of other disciplines, such as sociology, history, politics, anthropology, or education, that can enlighten the critical interpretation of discourse. Over the years, CDA has broadened and come to be also named Critical Discourse Studies (CDS), since, according to van Dijk (2010, p. 3), the new term is more comprehensive and emphasizes the understanding that the field is thoroughly theoretically based and not merely analytical, as the former label could suggest. As mentioned above, because of CDA's own nature, its practitioners are a heterogeneous group that brings together the different conceptual and analytical tools that best suit their research questions. It is precisely the common concerns they address, as manifested through discourse, and the practical agenda of their research that give unity to CDA practice. Because of this diversity, which is indeed considered a strength in this field of research (Wodak, 2001), a panoply of approaches is generally recognized as working under the wide canopy of CDA.

Amidst the variety of approaches to CDA and common to most of them, SFL emerged as the language theory that proved to best suit the description and later critical interpretation of the formal linguistic features of discourse. In fact, since the early years of development of CDA, Fairclough (1999) was convincingly firm when he stated that ‘issues of social identification in texts cannot be fully addressed without a multifunctional view of language such as Halliday’s’ (p. 202). Later on, the alliance between CDA and SFL has been well attested in the literature, as extensively summarized and discussed, among many others, in Martin’s (2000) article, Young and Harrison’s (2004) work, which is a collection of papers that illustrate this CDA-SFL collaboration both theoretically and analytically, and, more recently, O’Grady’s (2019) chapter and Catalano and Waugh (2020). Nevertheless, it must be noted that SFL is not the only linguistic model applied in CDA. Indeed, the work of central scholars in CDA, such as Wodak, Dijk, or Chilton, does not rely on a systemic functional analysis in general terms. The main motivation for the predominant preference for SFL in CDA lies in this linguistic theory’s conception of language as a societal phenomenon which, consequently, is studied in relation to its functions and use in social and cultural contexts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). The basic contribution of SFL is the identification of the three main functions of language, namely, ideational, interpersonal, and textual. These are called metafunctions and, respectively, refer to the use of language for the expression of experience, for expressing interpersonal relations, and for the expression of the organization of information in a text. These functions are realized in language in three corresponding lexicogrammatical systems, i.e., Transitivity, Mood, and Theme. In addition, as a systemic theory, SFL understands language as a system of options. For the CDA researcher, these formal choices constitute choices of meaning (Fairclough, 1995, p. 18) through which language users convey meaning in their texts, disclosing their understanding of the world in doing so. Nevertheless, a functional analysis of discourse is not reduced to labelling the structures of language but implies an act of interpretation and reasoning that relates them to the ideologies embedded in discourse (Ravelli, 2000, p. 37). Likewise, as put by Halliday and Matthiessen (2014), ‘clauses of different process types thus make distinctive contributions to the construal of experience in texts’ (p. 219), which enables CDA practitioners to carry out a critical interpretation of discourse. Hence, given the strong methodological connection between CDA practice and the categories of SFL, a systematic review of the literature that applies this linguistic model productively and effectively to CDA research is a pressing concern.

Study design

Researchers in CDA who apply the analytical tools of SFL should decide on which system (Transitivity, Mood, and Theme) of SFL to base their analysis on and which specific lexicogrammatical features of the texts are studied to draw their critical interpretation of discourse. Thus far, SLRs have not targeted and delved into this explicit relation between CDA and the efficiency of applying the SFL lexicogrammatical systems in the critical discursive analysis of social inequalities. Consequently, the present paper intends to address the following two primary RQs:

RQ1. Which linguistic features from SFL are most frequently used in extant CDA research?

RQ2. To what extent have the systems of SFL been successfully applied in a CDA approach to social inequalities?

Addressing these questions, our paper intends to map the current panorama of research in the confluence of CDA and SFL analysis to provide a firm foundation for developing research. To achieve this goal, the present systematic review follows the stages of the SALSA (Search, Appraisal, Synthesis, Analysis) framework (Grant & Booth, 2009), which guides the entire review process. The first two stages, Search and Appraisal, direct the methodical procedure for the selection of publications that will make up the corpus of articles to be reviewed, while the last two stages of Synthesis and Analysis detail the data extraction process as well as the assessment of results. To ensure maximum transparency in the identification of eligible publications and to complement and report on stages 1 and 2 of the SALSA framework, this SLR follows the screening procedure of PRISMA 2020 (Page et al., 2021). In addition, to automate and assist in the completion of stages 3 and 4, the TexMiLAB application (Periñán-Pascual, 2024b) has been used. It has specifically supported the synthesis of data obtained using text mining techniques to provide a statistical exploration of the dataset. It did not, however, replace the need for close reading and evaluation of the corpus of articles included in this SLR.

Hence, in the first stage, to retrieve relevant documents for this SLR, four databases were selected: Scopus, Wiley Online Library (hence, Wiley), ProQuest One Academic (hence, ProQuest), and Sage Journals. The decision to rely on multiple sources is based on Wanyama et al. (2021), who advocate for the convenience of supporting the collection of articles on more than one database since their study concluded that the results retrieved from various databases differed substantially and showed only a small

number of publications in common. Thus, combining various databases ensures extensive reporting of existing literature. In addition, according to Gusenbauer & Haddaway (2020)'s study, Scopus, Wiley, and ProQuest (Sage was not included in their study) are listed among the databases and search systems that are well-suited to be used as primary sources for systematic reviews. Hence, the four selected sources are comprehensive and trusted academic databases with international coverage, specifically including publications in the arts and humanities and language & linguistics (sub)disciplines. They thus become reliable sources of academic evidence that substantiate the present review's results and validity.

These databases were queried from November 2024 to January 2025 using a search string constructed with the key concepts of the RQs, namely, "critical discourse analysis" and "systemic functional linguistics", together with their related terms "critical discourse studies" and "systemic functional grammar". In addition, "inequality" and its synonyms were also included as they represent the key concern of CDA for situations of power abuse and different forms of inequality in society (van Dijk, 2015), hence leading to a more accurate selection of relevant articles. However, the commonly employed initialisms CDA, CDS, SFG, and SFL were excluded from the search string after initial fruitless attempts, which retrieved countless publications where these initialisms belong to other scientific disciplines. Thus, after some fruitful pilot searches, the search terms were combined into the following refined search string used within the article title, abstract, and keywords:

1) ("Critical Discourse Analysis" OR "Critical Discourse Studies") AND ("Systemic Functional Linguistics" OR "Systemic Functional Grammar") AND (inequality OR inequity OR disparity OR imbalance OR disproportion OR unfairness OR bias OR discrimination OR prejudice))"

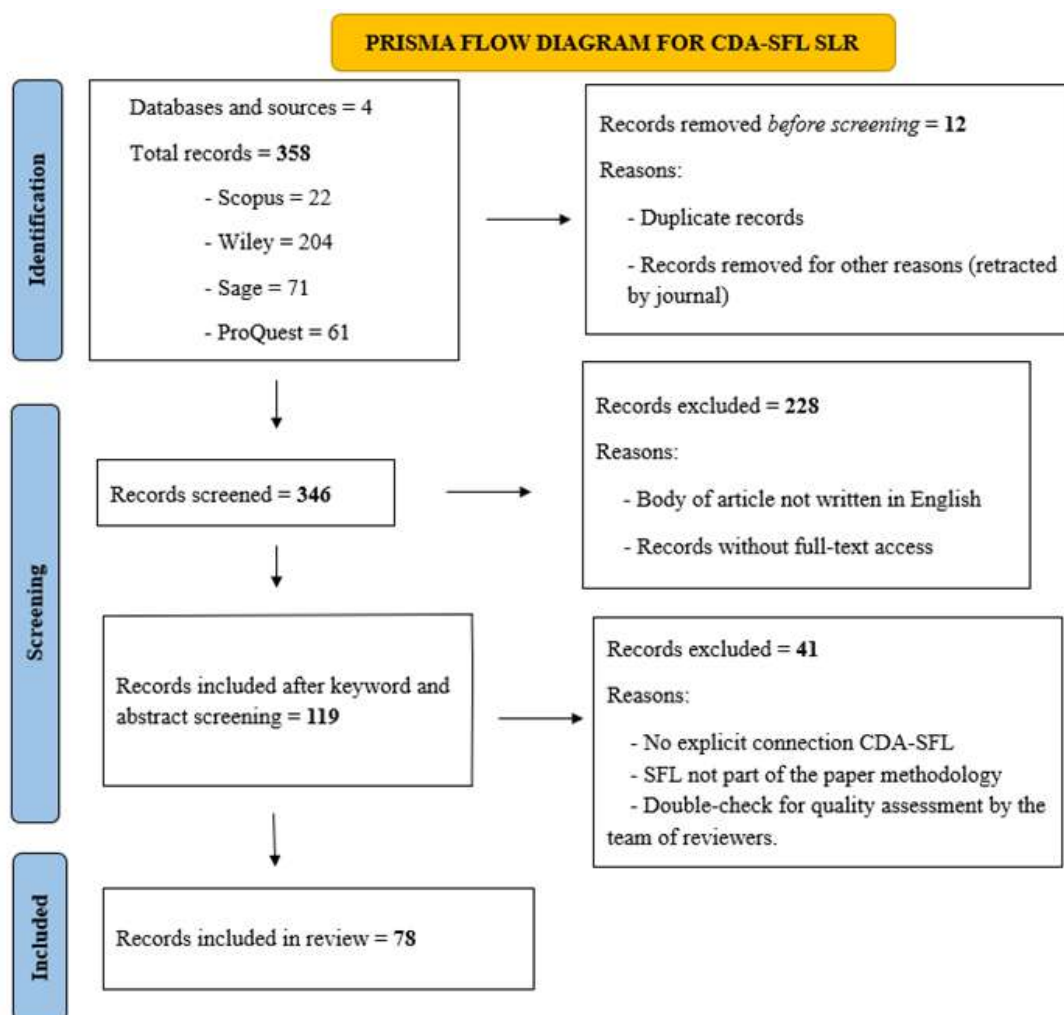
To ensure the consistency and quality of the selected publications, the query was restricted to peer-reviewed scholarly journal articles, dating from 2001 to 2024, which provides a wide representation of the CDA-SFL collaboration in empirical research, ranging from basically the initial stages of development of CDA to ongoing investigation.

A total of 358 articles were retrieved via automated search. This number was reduced to 346 because 12 articles were removed before screening for being duplicates or for having been retracted by the journal. The team of researchers worked independently both in the first screening of titles and abstracts of the documents

retrieved, as well as in the later stage of full-text inspection. Team discussion and double-checking for quality assessment helped to achieve consensus on the final inclusion and exclusion of articles. In this process, 228 articles were removed to exclude those not written in English, nor with open access. After close reading, the remaining 119 were narrowed to include only those where the critical discourse analysis is based on the application of SFL features. Consequently, 41 articles were further removed. Therefore, decisions on document exclusion were carried out solely by human scrutiny; no automation tool was used at this stage. Strict deployment of the selection protocol and the inclusion and exclusion criteria resulted in a carefully curated dataset known as the CDA-SFL Corpus, so that this collection consists of 78 articles that specifically apply SFL features as methodological tools to explore social inequalities within CDA. The screening process is presented following the PRISMA 2020 flow diagram, which shows the results of the search and the selection process.

Figure 1

PRISMA flow diagram for CDA-SFL SLR



Results and analysis

This section corresponds to stages three and four of the SALSA framework, namely, Synthesis and Analysis, which present data extraction and examination, and assessment and report of the results, respectively. We converted the metadata and content data of the CDA-SFL Corpus into a table-format dataset to visually display results of individual studies. Table 1 displays the variables identified.

Table 1

Data variables in CDA-SFL Corpus

No.	Title	Author(s)	Publication year	Journal	Database	Lexicogrammatical system of SFL	Linguistic features		
							Lexico-semantic	Grammatical	Miscellany

The first six columns include the variables for the metadata extracted from each corpus article, such as its ID number, title, author(s), year of publication, publishing journal, and the database from which it was retrieved. The remaining two columns accommodate the variables for the results of the content analysis carried out from a close reading of the corpus documents. Even though all the articles in the CDA-SFL Corpus are grounded on SFL, we wanted to identify, within this vast theory, the specific linguistic system(s) the scholars resort to for their linguistic analysis in relation to the three metafunctions of language previously mentioned. In this seventh column, Appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005) has also been included since it is a development of the Interpersonal function and, hence, naturally articulated in the architecture of SFL. The following column and its three subheadings record the linguistic features whose analysis prompted critical interpretation by the researchers. These linguistic elements have been classified into lexico-semantic, grammatical, and miscellaneous linguistic features. As is well known, canonical SFL (Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Hasan, 1995; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014) makes constant use of the concept of lexicogrammar or lexicogrammatical choices as an all-comprising notion that includes the analysis of both words and structures. However, since the inspection of the 78 papers revealed that CDA practitioners deploy a great variety of analytical tools that go well beyond strict SFL features, we felt the need for a finer-grained classification for the collection of the linguistic features present in the corpus articles. This explains our proposal for a three-fold distinction between lexico-semantic (word choice and semantics-related elements), grammatical (structural components), and miscellaneous

(neither lexico-semantic nor grammatical items) features. Table 2 lists the frequency and some examples of the 68 linguistic features identified in the corpus papers following this three-tier arrangement.

Table 2

Linguistic features in CDA-SFL Corpus

Category	Frequency	Example
Lexico-semantic	12 (17.6%)	Borrowing, Evaluative lexis, Lexical choice, Nomination, etc.
Grammatical	24 (35.3%)	Ellipsis, Modality, Mood, Nominalization, Voice, etc.
Miscellany	32 (47.1%)	Coherence, Cohesion, Irony, Metaphor, Quotation, etc.

Main lexico-semantic features analyzed in SFL-based CDA research.

The lexico-semantic category proposed in our three-fold classification includes what Eggins (2004) calls ‘lexical choice’ (p. 16), that is, word choice, along with semantics-related features. In other words, this class captures how particular words or combinations of words are employed to build lexical meaning in discourse. Table 3 displays the distribution and frequency of the 12 features among the 78 articles in the CDA-SFL Corpus.

Table 3

Distribution and frequency of lexico-semantic features in CDA-SFL Corpus

Lexico-semantic feature	Distribution by paper	Frequency
Borrowing	2	1.2%
Collocation	13	7.6%
Correlation	1	0.6%
Dysphemism	2	1.2%
Euphemism	3	1.8%
Evaluative lexis	39	22.9%
Lexical choice	57	33.5%
Nomination	17	10%
Overlexicalization	3	1.8%
Repetition	18	10.6%
Semantic field	8	4.7%
Sense relation	7	4.1%

Our SLR study reveals that the two most predominant lexico-semantic features in the CDA-SFL Corpus are Lexical choice (i.e., the selection of nouns, adjectives, verbs, etc.), with 57 instances or 33.5% of all the lexico-semantic features, and Evaluative lexis (the word connotations), with 39 examples or 22.9%. These results fully align with the rationale of CDA and SFL since they are the main means to represent ideological stance by connecting actors, events, and beliefs with a strategic selection of words and their connotation (Eggins, 2004), as can be seen in the analysis by Fernández-Vázquez and Sancho-Rodríguez (2020), among others.

According to SFL, lexical choice also contributes to maintaining discourse cohesion through “either the paradigmatic or the syntagmatic organization of lexis” (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014, p. 643). Among the lexico-semantic features that rank high in our corpus, Repetition (18 instances or 10.6%), Nomination (17/10%), Semantic field (8/4.7%), and Sense relation (7/4.1%) illustrate the paradigmatic relations, whereas Collocation (13/7.6%) exemplifies the syntagmatic ones. According to these results, repeating the same lexical item, naming the participants with one or another label, and incorporating other words thematically related, as well as synonyms, antonyms, hyponyms, and collocates, are recurrent linguistic features whose analysis has proven to be effective in CDA research as they provide discourse with powerful cohesive effect and strong semantic connections. Furthermore, from the CDA perspective, these lexico-semantic features can be deployed, among others, with a view to amplifying or softening urgency and emotion (e.g., Repetition in Chilwa & Ifukor, 2015), (un)covering bias or power dynamics through Nomination in De Jesus and Caldas-Coulthard (2015), (de)legitimizing participants in the discourse event (i.e., the use of semantic fields in Fenton-Smith (2007)), assessing precision or vagueness via sense relations as in Oni (2013), and reinforcing stereotypes or themes (e.g., through collocations in Course et al., 2024).

It is worth noting that our systematic review brings to light that there are 7 papers in our corpus (8.9% of the total) that, although they explicitly mention the use of SFL or a specific lexicogrammar system in their methodology section (e.g., Transitivity), they never address the lexico-semantic component of lexicogrammar (see Lecompte-Van Poucke, 2018; Martins and Heberle, 2021; Omari et al., 2020; Qasim, 2014; Tehseem et al., 2021; Wang, 2006; Zeng et al., 2020).

Main grammatical features analyzed in SFL-based CDA research

The grammatical class presented in our classification (see Table 2) aims to include the structural elements of language related to how words are arranged according to syntactic and morphological rules to form phrases and sentences. This proposed category aligns with the canonical SFL Transitivity and Mood systems, which, respectively, ‘express representational meaning: what the clause is about, which is typically some process, with associated participants and circumstances and [...] interactional meaning: what the clause is doing, as a verbal exchange between speaker-writer and audience’ (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 361). Table 4 showcases the distribution and frequency of use of the 24 grammatical features singled out in our corpus.

Table 4

Distribution and frequency of grammatical features in CDA-SFL Corpus

Grammatical feature	Distribution by paper	Frequency
Direct speech	7	2.1%
Ellipsis	3	0.9%
Exclusion	6	1.8%
Grammatical gender	3	0.9%
Grammatical number	3	0.9%
Indirect speech	7	2.1%
Intensifier	3	0.9%
Modality	28	8.6%
Modifier	4	1.2%
Mood	21	6.4%
Negation	5	1.5%
Nominalization	12	3.7%
Numeral	13	4%
Parallel syntactic structure	6	1.8%
Pronoun	32	9.8%
Reference	6	1.8%
Repetition of clause	4	1.2%
Type of circumstance	9	2.8%
Type of clause	21	6.4%

Type of clause relation	9	2.8%
Type of participant	43	13.2%
Type of process	48	14.7%
Verbal tense	5	1.5%
Voice	28	8.6%

According to our corpus, for CDA practitioners the analysis of Type of process and Type of participant are the two most productive features, with 48 (14.7%) and 43 (13.2%) instances each. The system of Transitivity is crucial in the SFL literature because

Transitivity choices will be related to the dimension of Field, with the choice of process types and participant roles seen as realizing interactants' encoding of their experiential reality: the world of actions, relations, participants and circumstances that give content to their talk. (Eggins, 2004, p. 206)

Interestingly enough, the analysis of Type of circumstance only amounts to 9 examples, or 2.8%, in the CDA-SFL Corpus (see Table 4), which seems to suggest that this feature is not particularly productive for CDA practitioners in their critical interpretation of societal problems. When analyzed, the selection of processes, participants and circumstances is a tool for ideological representation that allows researchers to uncover or show power hierarchies among the interactants of the discourse event (e.g., the choice between Identified or Existent roles in Omari et al., 2020), and to foreground or background the place, time, or causality of the discourse situation as in Martins & Heberle (2021).

The findings of our SLF study (Table 4) also reveal that Pronoun (32 instances or 9.8%), Voice (28/8.6%), and Type of clause (21/6.4%) are widely used features in our corpus. These results validate the claim that analyzing the strategic use of personal and non-personal pronouns is vital to depict unequal power relationships established in terms of ideological opposites (e.g., Ghachem, 2014): in-group vs. out-group, inclusive vs. exclusive “we”, etc. Voice, specifically the contrast between active and passive, but also between passives with and without an agent, is the main means to hide agency and responsibility, minimizing the power of action of a certain individual or group as in Murata (2007). The choice of the clause type (i.e., finite, nonfinite, free, bound, etc.) also

constitutes an ideological tool to represent inequality as in Gerdin et al. (2024). Likewise, the analysis of the appropriate selection of the clause relation, although only recorded 9 times in our corpus (2.8%), may add to reinforcing negative stereotypes through parataxis (e.g., My Nhat & Thu Hien, 2023) or, via hypotaxis, to maintain unbalanced power relations by superseding one point of view to another, as in Yu and Hong (2016).

For the expression of interactional or interpersonal meaning as an exchange, SFL puts forward the Mood system, which, basically, accounts for the distinct mood types of clauses (declarative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamative) and the function of modality (Eggins, 2004, p. 141; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 134). As shown in Table 4, the Mood system is frequently analyzed in the CDA-SFL Corpus through the features Modality and Mood (understood as mood types), with 28 (8.6%) and 21 items (6.4%), respectively. As Halliday and Matthiessen (2014, pp. 172-173) claim, the study of modality needs to go beyond modal verbs to incorporate all the lexical expressions speakers use to modulate their attachment to, or detachment from, a proposition. Thus, from the CDA perspective, opting for a nonmodulated discourse results in an objective and transparent presentation as sustained in Caughlan and Jiang (2014). On the other hand, depending on the type of modal wording, a discourse event with modality forms may reduce accountability or impose facts and actions as unavoidable (e.g., Chen, 2018). As for Mood, researchers like Ijem and Agbo (2022) claim that an excessive number of declarative sentences may help to present propositions as if they were facts. However, the interrogative mood might portray asymmetrical power relationships, as demonstrated by Wang (2006), whose study showed that ‘the statistics show judges/lawyers, interviewers, doctors, teachers, and customers ask far more questions than witnesses, defendants, patients, students and sellers’ (p. 541), since those participants that make questions are in control of the discourse event and expecting an answer from the addressees.

The findings of our systematic review also disclose that 6.4% of the corpus papers (Brookes & McEnery, 2020; Chilwa & Ifukor, 2015; He & Zhou, 2015; Milner et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2022) ignore the use of any SFL grammatical feature to explore social inequalities within CDA, even though all but one (Milner et al., 2020) specify the SFL system or component used.

Other miscellaneous features analyzed in SFL-based CDA research

Table 5 below displays the results for, and the frequency of use of, the third proposed category, namely miscellany, intended as an umbrella class for those 32 linguistic devices found in the analysis carried out by CDA articles that, however, do not qualify as belonging in either of the SFL lexico-semantic or grammatical features identified above (see Table 2).

Table 5

Distribution and frequency of miscellaneous features in CDA-SFL Corpus

Miscellaneous feature	Distribution by paper	Frequency
Ambiguity	1	0.9%
Coherence	1	0.9%
Cohesion	3	2.6%
Cynicism	1	0.9%
Cultural/historical reference	3	2.6%
Disclaimer	1	0.9%
Enumeration	1	0.9%
Exaggeration	1	0.9%
Humor	2	1.7%
Idiomatic expression	1	0.9%
Implication	1	0.9%
Inference	1	0.9%
Intertextuality	5	4.3%
Irony	3	2.6%
Metaphor	22	19.1%
Omniscient narrator	1	0.9%
Personification	3	2.6%
Persuasion	1	0.9%
Presupposition	6	5.2%
Proverb	2	1.7%
Quotation	15	13%
Register	3	2.6%
Rheme	4	3.5%
Rhetorical question	7	6.1%
Sarcasm	1	0.9%

Semiotic resource	2	1.7%
Simile	3	2.6%
Slogan	1	0.9%
Speech act	9	7.8%
Theme	7	6.1%
Turn-taking	2	1.7%
Ungrammatical structure	1	0.9%

Although SFL linguists explore, in their research and related to the Textual metafunction of language (Halliday, 1994), Speech acts, Coherence, Cohesion, Theme, Rheme, and rhetorical devices such as Irony, Metaphor, Sarcasm, etc., there are other features that, strictly speaking, are not part of the SFL realm, like Intertextuality, Cultural/historical reference, and Omniscient narrator, to name a few. Hence, to account for all these devices found in our SLR study that trespass the twofold classification of lexico-semantic and grammatical features, the category miscellany is proposed. In this class, the features that top the list are: Metaphor (22 instances/19.1%), Quotation (15/13%), Speech act (9/7.8%), Rhetorical question and Theme (7/6.1% each). Hence, presenting social and political issues, and the actors involved, through the use of these linguistic resources, has shown to produce effective results in the critical analysis of the connection between language and power and how the former creates, sustains, and reinforces the latter. In our corpus, Chiluya and Ifukor (2015), Murata (2007), and Rogers and Mosley (2006), among others, have disclosed how the voices of the powerful and the deprived are included or excluded via quotations or how rhetorical questions serve to emphasize a particular ideology.

A word is needed for the 24 papers in the CDA-SFL Corpus that do not apply any of these miscellaneous features. As already pointed out, a small percentage of articles (8.9% and 6.4%) avoid the choice of any SFL lexico-semantic-grammatical feature in their analysis. However, the percentage here is much higher: 30.8%. This is certainly surprising because miscellany includes linguistic features from the Theme system (e.g., Theme, Rheme, Coherence, and Cohesion), which plays a central role in SFL as it facilitates the integration of ideational and interpersonal meanings into coherent discourse. Furthermore, none of the 24 articles employ speech acts in their inequality studies, even though they are essential tools for interacting and establishing (un)equal relations among the discourse participants (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 97).

After this thorough account of the variable linguistic features of the dataset and the three proposed categories (see Table 1), the findings obtained in our systematic review allow us to state that SFL continues to be central to CDA empirical research. Therefore, our first RQ (i.e., Which linguistic features from SFL are most frequently used in extant CDA research?) can be answered by affirming that, at the lexico-semantic level, the analysis of Lexical choice and Evaluative lexis are the most productive linguistic features for researchers to draw a critical interpretation of discourse. At the grammatical level, it is the linguistic elements Type of process and Type of participant that CDA practitioners particularly analyze, while also deploying other linguistic features, primarily Metaphor and Quotation, to support the interpretation that is strictly derived from the study of the other SFL analytical tools. The next section addresses RQ2: To what extent have the systems of SFL been successfully applied on CDA studies on social inequality?

SFL lexicogrammatical systems in CDA research

To provide an answer for RQ2, the dataset variable lexicogrammatical system of SFL needs to be examined (Table 1). Table 6 shows the results and frequency of use of the SFL lexicogrammatical systems extracted from each of the papers in the CDA-SFL Corpus.

Table 6

Distribution and frequency of SFL lexicogrammatical systems in CDA-SFL Corpus

SFL lexicogrammatical system	Distribution by paper	Frequency
Appraisal	10	12.8%
Lexical classification	1	1.3%
Lexicalization and Transitivity	1	1.3%
Modality	1	2.6%
Mood and Modality	2	1.3%
SFG	3	3.8%
SFL	13	16.7%
Stance (Affect) and Appraisal	1	1.3%
Textual metafunction	1	1.3%
The grammatical cohesion of reference	1	1.3%
Transitivity	27	34.6%
Transitivity and Appraisal	6	7.7%
Transitivity and Hasan's (1985) dynamism	1	1.3%

Transitivity and Lexical cohesion	1	1.3%
Transitivity and Modality	3	3.8%
Transitivity, Modality and Appraisal	1	1.3%
Transitivity, Modality and Theme	4	5.1%
Transitivity, Mood and Modality	1	1.3%

The present SLR study reveals that the system that scores the highest is Transitivity, with 27 absolute instances (34.6%), which sides with the already mentioned relevance of this system within SFL and with the results obtained for the grammatical features in Table 4. Furthermore, Transitivity is used along other systems, such as Appraisal theory (6 papers/7.7%), Modality and Theme (4/5.1%), Modality (3/3.8%), Hasan's (1985) dynamism, Lexical cohesion, Modality and Appraisal, and Mood and Modality, with one instance each or 1.3%. Hence, Transitivity, whether on its own or combined with other SFL systems, is deployed in 42 academic papers, that is, 56.4% of the CDA-SFL Corpus.

The Appraisal framework is also widely used in our corpus. On its own, it was employed in the analysis of 10 academic papers (12.8% of the total number of corpus articles), although it was jointly applied with other tools like Stance (Affect) (1/1.3%), Transitivity (6/7.7%), and Transitivity and Modality (1/1.3%). Thus, Appraisal theory, whether on its own or combined with other systems, is deployed in 18 corpus papers, that is, 23% of the total. This supports the prominent role of Appraisal theory within SFL and CDA, as it naturally fits within these paradigms because it is a development of the interpersonal function of language. The Appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005) provides the categories of Engagement, Attitude, and Graduation. In particular, within Attitude, this theory contributes to unveiling how interactants convey emotions and feelings (Affect), evaluate people and their behavior (Judgement), and judge objects, processes, and phenomena (Appreciation), as for example in O'Farrell (2022).

The third SFL system that is statistically most productively employed in SFL-based CDA research is Modality. Although it only amounts to 2 instances (2.6%) by itself, when combined with other components like Mood (1/1.3%), Transitivity (3/3.8%), Transitivity and Appraisal (1/1.3%), Transitivity and Theme (4/5.1%), and Transitivity and Mood (1/1.3%), Modality is analyzed in 12 publications, accounting for 15.4% of the total number of corpus papers.

We also recorded those articles whose authors did not specify the system or component of SFL analysis employed in their studies. These instances were labelled plain SFG (3.8%) and SFL (16.7%) in Table 6, and amount to 20.5% of the CDA-SFL Corpus. Although a more detailed study is pending, these findings suggest that almost a quarter of the CDA scholars (16 cases) that reference SFL/SFG, however, do not consistently identify its lexicogrammatical systems.

After carefully describing the dataset variable lexicogrammatical system of SFL, we can address RQ2: To what extent have the systems of SFL been successfully applied on CDA studies on social inequality? Our systematic review yields conclusive results that lead us to claim that Transitivity (56.4%), Appraisal theory (23%) and Modality (15.4%) are the SFL systems successfully exploited by CDA scholars to conduct their empirical research. These findings partly side with those presented above for RQ1, as the Transitivity system is mainly instantiated through the analysis of types of processes and participants, while Appraisal theory is often employed to examine lexical choices and evaluative language. Likewise, the Theme system (5.1% in conjunction with Transitivity and Modality) and the Textual metafunction (1.3%) are surprisingly underused in the CDA-SFL Corpus. This aligns with the findings displayed for the category Miscellany (Table 5), in which 30.8% of the corpus articles omitted the analysis of features like Theme, Rheme, Cohesion, Coherence, and Speech act. In the same vein, 20.5% of the corpus papers do not explicitly state the SFL system analyzed in their research. More work is needed to explore whether some correlation could be established between the underspecification of SFL systems and the actual linguistic features exploited in those CDA studies.

Conclusion

To our knowledge, this study represents the first SLR that focuses on the methodological connection between CDA and SFL. The outcome of our analysis is a comprehensive and up-to-date reference on the most frequent, effective, and relevant linguistic features from SFL actually applied by linguists in CDA research.

Our semi-automated SLR has been conducted in a rigorous way, adopting the tested protocol of the SALSA framework. Likewise, document selection was reported in the PRISMA flow chart, and statistical analysis of the dataset was aided by the TexMiLAB application. Following this protocol, we searched 4 primary sources (Scopus, Wiley,

Sage, and ProQuest) from which 78 documents were automatically retrieved and later manually selected and examined.

Considering the publication timespan of the articles reviewed (2001-2024), our findings show that SFL remains central to CDA research. Addressing our first RQ, this paper has unveiled how the linguistic features of SFL are actually applied and critically interpreted in CDA research. More specifically, we have found that the lexico-semantic features that are most productive to draw a critical interpretation of discourse are Lexical choice (33.5%) and Evaluative lexis (22.9%), while at the grammatical level, Type of process (14.7%) and Type of participant (13.2%) have shown to be the most frequently analyzed elements in the publications that make up the CDA-SFL Corpus. Additionally, linguists in the CDA paradigm mainly resort to the examination of other linguistic elements in their texts, such as Metaphor (19.1%) and Quotation (13%), to support the critical interpretation that strictly derives from the analysis of systemic-linguistic features. On the other hand, and answering our second RQ, we can state that the systems of Transitivity and Modality, and Appraisal theory are more recurrent, over the Theme system, which is remarkably underused in the CDA-SFL Corpus. Likewise, there are noticeable gaps in the actual application of the analytical tools of SFL in 20.5% of the published papers, which, although allegedly theoretically grounded on this linguistic theory, fail to recognize or misidentify the SFL system(s) that are specifically analyzed. Similarly, 15.3% of the corpus articles did not actually apply any lexicogrammatical feature of SFL to support their critical interpretations. Consequently, it could be argued that our SLR has shown that, to a large extent, CDA analysts do not seem to follow a systematic methodology when applying the SFL framework to their analysis, even though there are works that have proposed step-by-step guidelines for an SFL analysis of texts (Briones, 2016; Fontaine, 2013).

This study is not, however, without limitations, which in turn can open new avenues for further research. It would be advisable to expand the study with a larger corpus of publications, using other databases as sources for different publications, and potential studies could also focus on articles in other languages. Despite these limitations, our investigation can provide a framework for further research in CDA. Further studies could expand the systematic review of this CDA-SFL Corpus to include other relevant questions in CDA research, such as the specific dimensions of social inequality that are most frequently studied through the linguistic features of SFL. By and

large, the findings of this SLR can be of significance and benefit for those linguists, either students, newcomers to the field, or established researchers, who want to systematically apply the features of SFL to their CDA research in a structured, coherent and methodical manner.

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CORRELATION BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY IN COLOMBIAN SECONDARY SCHOOL STUDENTS

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Abstract

This research examined the correlation between Emotional Intelligence (EI) and English proficiency among 30 students aged 11-12 from a public school in Colombia. Participants were selected using simple random sampling, and data were collected through a non-experimental, quantitative, correlational design with a Pearson correlation analysis. EI was assessed using the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test, while English proficiency was measured using the Cambridge A1 Movers exam. Findings showed that EI had a weak to moderate positive correlation with Overall English Proficiency (OEP), and a moderate positive correlation with Listening skills, with correlations of $r = 0.38$ and $r = 0.49$, respectively. As the results were statistically significant, through a regression analysis, it was found that EI individually contributed 14.7% and 24.3% to the mentioned variables. However, there was a weak, but statistically insignificant, correlation with the other skills. We concluded that EI may enhance OEP, particularly influencing listening skills; nonetheless, further research is needed, as other factors may have influenced the results.

Keywords: Emotional Intelligence, English Language Teaching, Social and Emotional Learning

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Inadequate emotional expression and regulation may significantly undermine activities that require high Emotional Intelligence (EI), such as effective communication or problem-solving. The problem is exacerbated in children, as young ones are often not good at managing their emotions and struggle to control them during tense situations (Rojas & Quishpe, 2021). Some studies report that young children may show limited emotional regulation skills, which have been associated with increased anxiety, school avoidance, peer pressure, and behavioral challenges (MacCann et al., 2020), indicating a need for better support in Social and Emotional Learning (SEL). Although developed countries have evidenced a positive influence on students' academic and behavioral outcomes through SEL programs (Wang et al., 2016), there is limited information on how EI is taught in Latin American schools. Thus, Emotional Education (EE) often depends on the teacher, whose emotional competencies may vary (Aguilar et al., 2013). Challenges such as measuring emotions, distrust in evaluations, time constraints, and a lack of reliable indicators hinder EI assessment (Sporzon & López-López, 2021). Hence, there is a need for trained educators and university programs that focus on enhancing emotional skills (Escolar et al., 2017).

Students in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes exhibit diverse personalities and behaviors. Some are quick to learn as they typically don't resist making mistakes and are considerate of their classmates' feelings, while others may struggle to accept feedback, leading to frustration and emotional distress. Consequently, teachers play a crucial role, as they must understand the emotional factors impacting students to respond appropriately (Adams & Richie, 2017). Furthermore, given that acquiring English requires the development of both self and social skills, which are essential for communication, motivation, and cultural empathy (Rodríguez, 2004), it would be reasonable to integrate emotional aspects into the curriculum to promote personal and social growth, as education alone does not suffice for success in life (Rojas & Quishpe, 2021). However, few studies deal with the integration of emotional education within their curricula. Indeed, Valdiviezo-Loayza and Rivera-Muñoz (2022) found that only 36 studies were published in Latin America between 2018 and 2021, representing just 3.5% of global research on EI. None of these studies measured EI in English classrooms, and most focused on adults. This highlights a significant gap in research regarding the benefits of teaching emotional competencies in the EFL curriculum (Adams & Richie 2017). Still, existing studies indicate a stronger

relationship between EI and academic performance in the humanities compared to mathematics (McCann et al., 2020), with SEL suggested as an effective approach for fostering English learning in early childhood (Adams & Richie, 2017), with proposals for improving SEL practices existing for over 20 years (Payton et al., 2000).

Therefore, considering that SEL is concerned with activities that enable students to recognize their emotions, build peer bonds, and address genuine problems in the classroom (Coleman, 2021), it may potentially enhance their understanding, focus, and enthusiasm for language learning. However, most state educational institutions in South America appear to lack support and/or the necessary expertise for the implementation of SEL programs, without considering the possible impact SEL might have on learning. Thus, this study investigates the correlation between the Emotional Intelligence (EI) coefficient and the academic performance of 11-12-year-old students from a public institution in Colombia across the four English language skills.

Literature Review

Given that the research of SEL is more widespread in countries across Asia, Europe, and the United States, with minimal application in Latin American countries, and considering the limited exploration of SEL's role in the English learning process, this section explores the concept of EI, the neural principles involved in the learning process, the teaching and learning of English, and the existing research on the relationship between EI and English proficiency.

Emotional Intelligence

The concept of EI was popularized by Daniel Goleman, who extensively discusses both the implications of EI in multiple aspects of personal life and the importance of educating individuals to recognize and manage their own emotions (Goleman, 2012). Subsequently, several academics agree that this intelligence is a way of identifying, perceiving, expressing, and regulating one's own and others' emotions, as well as understanding how they affect the psychological state and interaction with others (Arntz & Trunce, 2019). Others view EI as intrapersonal and interpersonal intelligence within Howard Gardner's theory of multiple intelligences (Gardner, 1983), where intrapersonal intelligence refers to the ability to connect with one's own emotions and thoughts, while interpersonal intelligence involves understanding and empathizing with

the emotions of others (Rebollo, 2017). Although with different names, EI is considered a crucial part of human performance, causing greater satisfaction with life because people tend to develop better skills to resolve conflicts and adapt to new situations (Aguilar et al., 2013).

EI consists of 5 competencies, such as self-awareness, social awareness, self-management, responsible decision-making, and relationship skills (Weissberg et al., 2013). Self-awareness enables individuals to build self-confidence by understanding their own emotions and thoughts and recognizing these in themselves. Seeing these in others refers to social awareness, which develops empathy. Self-management is related to resilience since it is the ability to control emotions. Meanwhile, responsible decision-making is reflected in the wisdom of action and the ability to relate refers to communication and socialization with others (Wirajaya, 2019). Thus, the first three competences refer to the ability to understand, manage, and handle one's own emotions, while the latter two are developed by understanding how others feel, as well as the decisions and impact generated (Alonso et al., 2021).

Consequently, several SEL programs are already being implemented in some countries, ranging from primary education to graduate programs (Rubiales et al., 2018). For example, the Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning (CASEL) promotes the integration of EI in preschool and kindergarten education in the United States. Many teachers highlight the benefits of applying SEL (CASEL, 2018), and research indicates that low-income students in SEL-focused programs experience lower levels of crime, greater social development, and improved academic success (Bridgeland et al., 2013). Thus, SEL should begin at an early age, as activities that involve both society and individual work prove beneficial for kids (García, 2019), whose innate curiosity activates the brain's reward system, linking emotions to the prefrontal cortex (Murano et al., 2020), contributing to students' well-being and academic performance (Puertas-Molero et al., 2020).

Emotional Intelligence Neuroanatomy

General intelligence encompasses both EI and logical intelligence, though they involve different brain structures. Studies on patients who lost emotional awareness after lesions in the right amygdala, or the right somatosensory cortex, have shown that EI activates distinct areas of the brain compared to IQ (Bar-On et al., 2003). Another

area of the right hemisphere associated with EI is the insular cortex, which is responsible for monitoring one's feelings and, in turn, enables understanding of others' emotions. Similarly, the anterior cingulate gyrus facilitates the management of emotions and impulses (Goleman, 2011).

On the other hand, long-lasting and meaningful learning occurs through proper emotional engagement during teaching. For this reason, neuroscience plays a crucial role as it examines how knowledge acquisition is influenced by emotion. The brain is modified through the acquisition of knowledge that is tied to emotions, facilitated by the neocortex, which processes information, and the limbic system, which governs emotional responses and memory, where the amygdala links emotions to long-term memory (Benavidez & Flores, 2019).

The emotional brain used to be known only as the set of areas that make up the limbic system, including the thalamus, hypothalamus, hippocampus, and amygdala. However, research has since revealed the crucial role of the prefrontal and frontal cortex in the neocortical processing of emotions, along with the involvement of the anterior cingulate cortex (Bisquerra et al., 2015). The most common structures in the scientific literature about the emotional brain are precisely the anterior cingulate cortex, related to the assessment of consequences when making decisions; the ventromedial prefrontal cortex, crucial for mediating between cognitive and emotional aspects; the amygdala, which processes multimodal information and is related to emotional recognition and behavior; and the insula, responsible for alerting to stimuli that may pose some kind of danger (Hogeveen et al., 2015).

English Language Teaching

English is taught to equip individuals with the communication skills necessary to participate in a globalized society. However, the evolution of teaching theories has not adequately addressed the real needs of learners (Rico, 2018) or how the brain learns. While various methodologies exist, few seem engaging to students (Ricoy & Álvarez-Pérez, 2016), as they often focus solely on intellectual aspects. Success in learning a foreign language, however, is achieved when individuals master the different communicative skills, not only individually but in various social contexts (Malla, 2016).

These methodologies have evolved throughout history, influenced by different schools of thought such as structuralism, behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism. In the 18th century, the grammar-translation method was introduced, characterized by the excessive use of the mother tongue and grammar. In response to the limitations of this approach, the direct teaching method was proposed, emphasizing the association between objects and concepts while avoiding the use of the mother tongue. Later, the audio-lingual method emerged, where students focus on a dialogue and perform repetition exercises in specific contexts. More recently, the communicative approach method has emerged, emphasizing role-playing games, body movement, and problem-solving in communication, allowing the exchange of ideas through conversations (Flores-Vélez & Cedeño-Macías, 2016). However, the latter places stronger emphasis on emotional and social skills, using language to create and exchange social interactions (Rico, 2018).

Nonetheless, even though the needs, interests, and opinions of students should guide the choice of methodology (Malla, 2016), teachers often end up teaching from textbooks designed outside the students' real contexts, without integrating knowledge through cultural exploration (Flores & Cedeño, 2016). Regarding assessment, in addition to standardized tests, it has been proposed that English should be assessed through projects, group work, and journal writing (Sarigöz & Fişne, 2018). Although these assessment tools individualize each student's learning process and offer a more holistic measure of performance, they can be time-consuming and difficult to maintain in terms of validity. Therefore, although many theories have emerged, few incorporate didactic elements that facilitate the dynamism of communication (Ricoy & Álvarez-Pérez, 2016), omitting humanistic aspects such as the expression of feelings (Malla, 2016). Thus, teachers must employ active and engaging methodologies that cater to students' needs to provide quality education (Navarro-Arana et al., 2024), promoting motivation, empathy, and interpersonal relationships.

Emotional Intelligence and English Language

When learning English, students tend to have low motivation, a lack of self-confidence, high anxiety levels, and fear of being ridiculed by their peers due to insufficient emotional skills. Therefore, an attempt has been made to develop an educational process that equips them with the necessary life skills, such as emotional

education (Puertas-Molero et al., 2020), helping them regulate their emotions and improve their language proficiency. A large proportion of EI-related programs show positive effect on students' emotional and academic development, especially medium-length programs applied to children (Puertas-Molero et al., 2020). Additionally, neurobiology shows that SEL activities stimulate motivation and increase the activity of neural networks and synaptic connections (Araya & Espinoza, 2020). In the context of foreign language learning, a study found that emotional factors like fear (19.64%) in social conversations and shame (14.28%) in private speech significantly affected children's English-speaking abilities (Rojas & Quishpe, 2021). Therefore, English teaching should be based on neuroeducation and neuro-didactic principles (Benavidez & Flores, 2019), using strategies that help maintain attention, motivation, and emotional management, which in turn reduces neuroendocrine activity and stress levels (Brasseur et al., 2013).

Several studies have highlighted a significant link between SEL skills and academic success in English, with self-awareness, social awareness (Bai et al., 2024), and relationship skills (Wirajaya et al., 2019) being the most influential in foreign language learning. Students who use strategies to manage their cognition, metacognition, and emotions tend to perform better in English writing, as these strategies boost interest and build confidence in learning (Teng & Zhang, 2018). Similarly, SEL programs that focus on managing positive emotions (Melani et al., 2020) help students improve their language skills, increasing vocabulary in the foreign language (Martin, 2020). Thus, activities such as poems, music, and reflective writing should be used to foster emotional development (Coleman, 2021). Likewise, meditation, positive reinforcement, and family support can promote emotional well-being in children, enhancing their language learning process (Niehaus & Adelson, 2014).

Method

This research followed a non-experimental quantitative correlational design, as it was not necessary to directly manipulate the variables, allowing for the analysis of their relationship. The primary objective of this study was to analyze the correlation between EI and the English proficiency level of thirty students aged 11 to 12 from a Colombian public school. The following research questions were developed: 1) What is the participants' level of EI? 2) What are the participants' English levels? 3) Is there any correlation between the two variables?

Participants

Participants were selected through simple random sampling, with the following inclusion criteria: a minimum of two years in the same school and no physical or cognitive disabilities. These participants were taught English using a communicative approach outlined in the Colombian national curriculum, attending classes for 4 hours a week plus 2 hours of independent study. Data were collected using standardized tests: the Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) to assess EI, and the Cambridge A1 Movers to measure English proficiency.

Procedure

To achieve the main objective of this study, the following six steps were followed. First, the literature was reviewed to understand how the topic had been addressed and to identify previous findings. Next, the research was then submitted to the school principal for approval, considering institutional ethical guidelines, to proceed with its application. Participants were then selected based on the exclusion criteria. Following this, parents/guardians provided consent for their children's participation in the study. After coordinating the place and time for testing, students completed both the EI and the English proficiency tests. All data were anonymized to safeguard confidentiality, and personal identifiers were removed to prevent any potential disclosure of sensitive information. Finally, the results were analyzed and correlated, leading to the conclusions of this research.

Data Collection

The Schutte Self-Report Emotional Intelligence Test (SSEIT) was chosen to provide a general assessment of participants' EI. Based on Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model. This test evaluates the expression, management, and application of emotions through 33 Likert-scale questions. According to Schutte et al. (1998) and Schutte et al. (2009), the SSEIT demonstrates strong internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.90 for all items, and predictive validity as the EI score is directly correlated to the participants' performance on this test. Additionally, Schutte et al. (1998) reported that the reading ability required to complete the test aligns with students in late 5th and early 6th grade (ages 10-12), with a Flesch-Kincaid level of 5.68.

The Movers exam was the English test selected to assess students' English skills, as it meets the validity and reliability standards set by its creators (Cambridge English, 2016) and aligns with the level proposed by the Colombian English Language Curriculum for the participants' grade and age (Ministry of National Education, 2016). This test consists of 3 sections, assessing Listening, Reading and Writing, and Speaking. These sections measure learners' competencies, which are later converted into shields linked to the Cambridge English Scale (CES). A score of 1 to 3 shields corresponds to the pre-A1 level, with a CES range from below 80 to 100. A score of 4 to 5 shields reflects the A1 level, with a CES range from 100 to 200 (Cambridge Assessment English, 2021).

Findings

Emotional Intelligence vs Overall English Proficiency

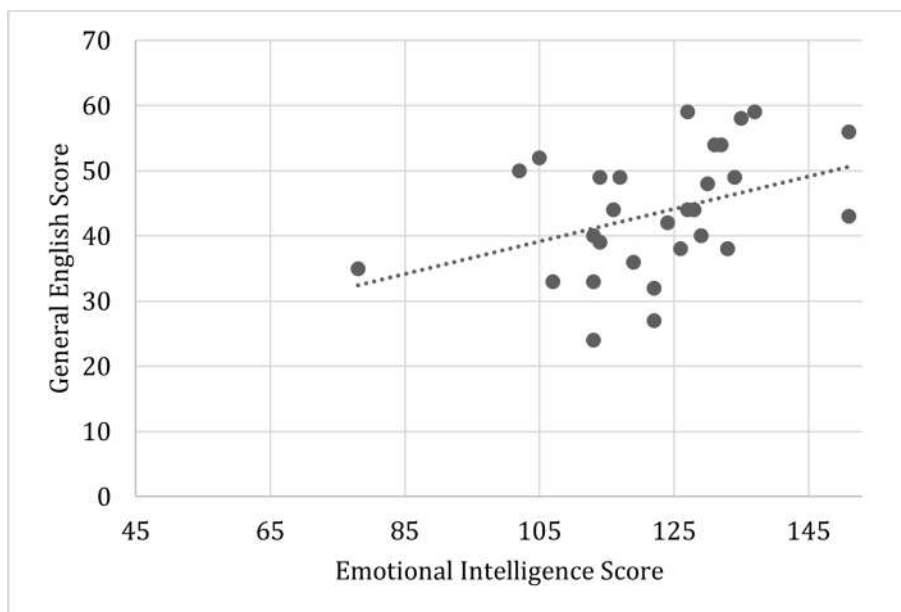
By obtaining the Pearson correlation coefficient, i.e.

$$r = \frac{n \sum (XY) - \sum X \sum Y}{\sqrt{[n \sum X^2 - (\sum x)^2][n \sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2]}}$$

we found that the correlation between EI and Overall English Proficiency (OEP) was $r = 0.38$, indicating a weak to moderate positive correlation between the mentioned variables considering the magnitudes: 0.00 – 0.30 = weak or insignificant correlation, 0.30 – 0.50 = weak to moderate correlation, 0.50 – 0.70 = moderate to strong correlation, and 0.70 – 1.00 = strong or powerful correlation (see Figure 1).

Figure 1

Emotional Intelligence and Overall English Proficiency Correlation



After calculating the p -value associated with Pearson's correlation, using the formula:

$$t = \frac{r\sqrt{n-2}}{\sqrt{1-r^2}},$$

where $r = 0.38$ referred to the correlation coefficient, $n = 30$ (number of students), and t followed a student's t -distribution with $n - 2 = 28$ degrees of freedom, we also found that the statistically significant test results demonstrated a t -statistic = 2.20 and a p -value = 0.036, suggesting that, as p -value is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis that claims no correlation between the variables, can be rejected at a 95% confidence level, meaning that the observed correlation is statistically significant and is unlikely to be due to chance.

Emotional Intelligence vs. Individual English Skills

Similarly, by comparing the different English exam sections, the strongest correlation was found in listening skills, with a correlation of $r = 0.49$, indicating a moderate positive relationship. This correlation was statistically significant, with a p -value of approximately 0.005 (see Figure 2). In contrast, the other two sections -reading and writing combined (see Figure 3), and speaking (see Figure 4)-, both showed a correlation of $r = 0.28$ with a p -value = 0.134, indicating a weak positive relationship that was not statistically significant. This suggests that other factors, such as cognitive abilities, foreign language exposure, and vocabulary, may have a more substantial impact on these skills.

Figure 2

Emotional Intelligence and Listening Correlation

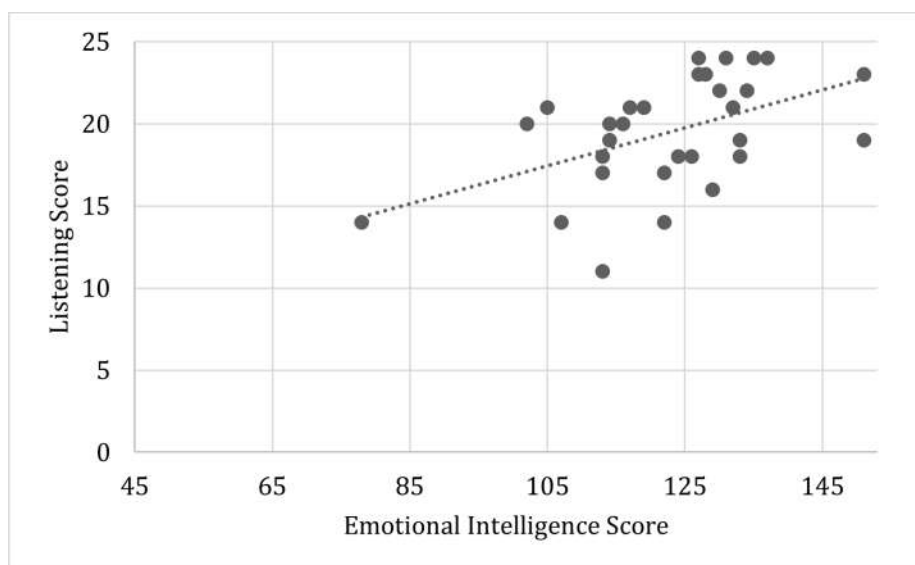


Figure 3

Emotional Intelligence and Reading - Writing Correlation

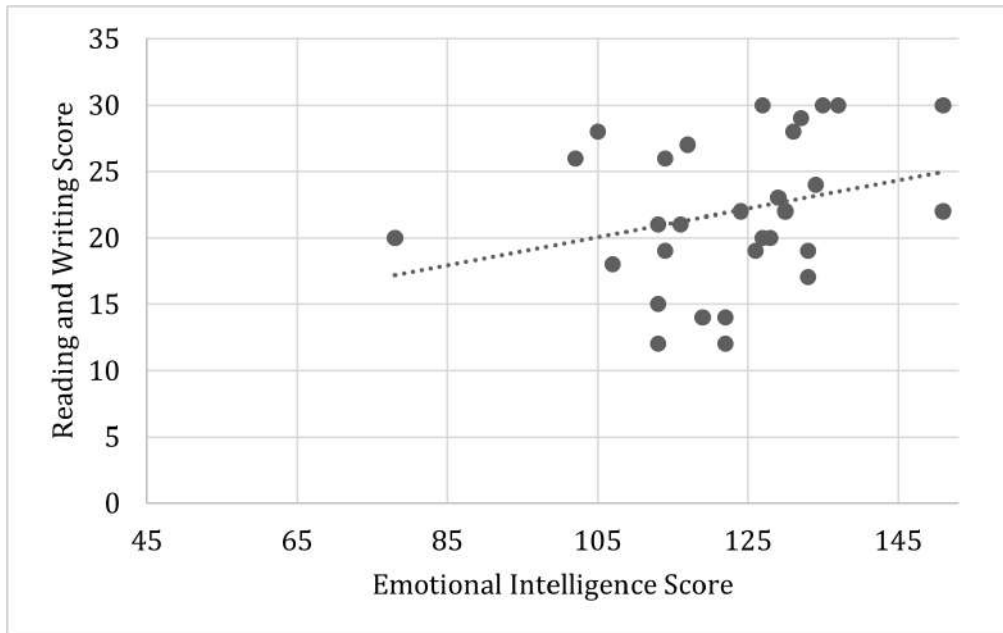
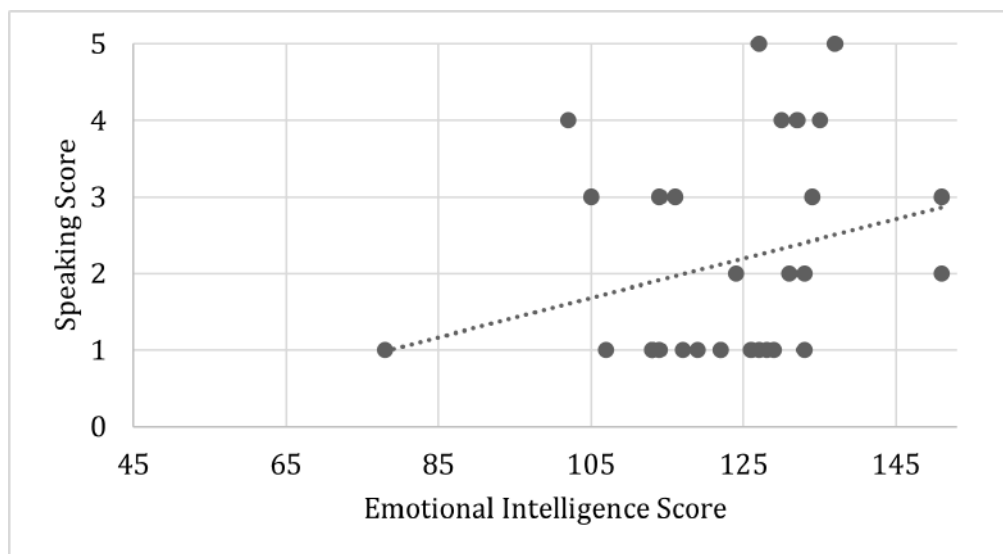


Figure 4

Emotional Intelligence and Speaking Correlation



On the other hand, given that the correlation between EI and OEP, as well as between EI and Listening, was statistically significant, a regression analysis was conducted to determine EI's contribution to these variables. The R Square value indicated that EI accounted for 14.7% of the variance in OEP. Additionally, X Variable 1 (coefficient) showed that each point increased in EI led to an increment of 0.24 in the OEP. These results were statistically significant, with a Significant *F* value of 0.03, which is below the threshold of 0.05 (see Table 1).

Table 1*Regression Analysis between EI and OEP*

<i>R Square</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>X Variable 1 (Coefficient)</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
0.14755739	8.837476725	0.248390479	0.036104879

Moreover, in the case of EI and Listening, the contribution of the former to the latter was 24.3%. It was observed that each point that increased in EI led to an increase of 0.11 points in the Listening ones; and once again, the data was statistically significant, as the Significant *F* was 0.00 (see Table 2).

Table 2*Regression Analysis between EI and Listening*

<i>R Square</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>X Variable 1 (Coefficient)</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
0.243788865	3.01911327	0.115804	0.005555933

Discussion and Conclusions

Although some researchers have claimed that there exists a relationship between EI and OEP (Melani et al., 2020; Puertas-Molero et al., 2020), a few have specifically examined the correlation between EI and English proficiency individually (Bai et al., 2024). This study obtained similar results to those of Wirajaya et al. (2019) as the EI had a positive weak to moderate correlation with OEP. However, this study extended the analysis by investigating not only the correlation between EI and OEP but also the correlation between EI and each of the English skills individually. The results indicated that EI had a stronger influence on listening skills compared to reading, writing, and speaking. In line with Bai et al. (2024) and Teng and Zhang (2018), the study found that despite higher EI levels, students showed no significant impact on their writing skills. Nonetheless, integrating SEL into the English curriculum could be beneficial, as it may foster a more positive classroom climate and support student engagement (Gay et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2016).

On the other hand, although the relationship was weak to moderate, there was a statistically significant tendency suggesting that students with higher EI tend to have higher OEP scores, indicating a real but modest connection between the two variables.

Therefore, it was concluded that EI influences OEP and has a substantial impact on students' listening skills, but not on reading, writing, or speaking. This suggests that EI may play a more significant role in listening skills than in other areas. However, other factors may also have influenced these outcomes. One possible reason for the positive correlation between EI and listening skills is that both involve awareness, understanding, and attentiveness. People with higher EI are generally better at recognizing the emotional context of conversations, which improves their listening effectiveness. As such, schools should consider integrating emotional development into their curricula, particularly in subjects that can be more emotionally challenging, such as English classes.

Finally, some limitations were identified in this research. First, the lack of studies conducted in Latin America made it difficult to compare the results with the national population. Also, correlating EI with each of the English skills proved challenging, as the population was immersed in a society with social and economic challenges, and participants had varying proficiency levels in the four skills, which affected the generalizability and accuracy of the results. Furthermore, the English test combined Reading and Writing into a single section, limiting the ability to draw definite conclusions about the actual correlation between EI and each of the above-mentioned skills. Further research is recommended with a larger sample, including both experimental and control groups where EI is specifically targeted, and also distinguishing results among socioeconomic levels that could have influenced the current findings.

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VOCABULARY COMPOSITION IN CHILDREN WITH AUTISM SPECTRUM DISORDER

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Abstract

In this paper we compare the distribution of four word categories in the lexical development of Bulgarian children with autism spectrum disorder to a normative Bulgarian sample. There is an emphasis on nominal/noun bias, which has been assumed to be a universal characteristic of language development. The data of Bulgarian children with autism presents a pattern similar to that of the normative sample including a high percent of social words in their expressive vocabulary.

Keywords: Bulgarian, noun bias, typical development, ASD, vocabulary composition, word categories

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In the study of language acquisition, it has been proposed that nouns are learned before verbs, and that is a universal phenomenon (Gentner, 1982). This prevalence of nouns in early vocabulary is called *noun bias* and has been attributed to cognitive and/or perceptual predispositions in children to learn nouns. One possible explanation of this phenomenon is based on the natural partitions hypothesis (Gentner, 1982). According to it, nouns are learned before verbs based on the assumption that there is a preexisting conceptual distinction between concepts about concrete objects and people, which are simpler and hence learned earlier, and predicative concepts about actions and cause and effect, which are more complex and learned later. Another explanation of the noun bias is based on the semantic organization hypothesis, specifically the whole object bias, according to which nouns are easier to acquire both perceptually and cognitively because they represent whole objects that are perceptually easier to recognize, organize and structure based on meaning (Goldfield, 1993; Markman, 1989). Regardless of the theoretical explanation, a universalist claim such as noun bias in early language acquisition necessitates empirical confirmation from multiple and diverse languages. Past research yields conflicting findings based on the language studied and provides different methods for its investigation.

Two main methodological approaches examine the potential noun bias in language acquisition depending on how the child's expressive vocabulary is assessed: speech samples and parent reports. Speech samples are typically collected during a child-adult play interaction and can provide various measures of parts of speech. In previous studies, measures such as absolute values of noun and verb types, proportion of nouns out of total number of words, ratio between noun types out of both noun and verb types, and noun type/token ratio have been used among others (e.g., Choi & Gopnik, 1995; Ogura et al., 2006; Tardif, 1996). Relying on speech samples, no noun bias was found in the speech of Mandarin-speaking toddlers when noun type/token ratios are compared to verb type/token ratios (Tardif, 1996) and there were some mixed findings from Japanese-speaking toddlers analyzing noun types out of total nouns and verbs produced during a speech sample as well (Ogura et al., 2006). Although speech samples are a direct observation of children's spontaneous expressive vocabulary, studies have shown that the communicative context of the sample is associated with specific uses of nouns and verbs. For example, book reading is associated with the use of

more nouns than verbs in children's spontaneous speech, while playing with toys is not (Ogura et al., 2006; Tardif et al., 1999). The potential role of activity type in the use of nouns and verbs, questions how representative the speech sample is of the early expressive vocabulary of the child. Furthermore, studies coding corpus data often rely on a limited number of speech samples from small numbers of participants.

In contrast, when children's early expressive vocabulary is examined with parental report, this allows for the collection of data from hundreds of children and the report is based on broader/more general observation of children's spontaneous speech across multiple different contexts in the child's daily life. In fact, noun bias has been extensively studied with the use of parent questionnaires/vocabulary checklists, such as the MacArthur Bates Communicative Developmental Inventories and the Language Development Survey (MBCDI, Fenson et al., 1994; Bates et al., 1994; Caselli et al., 1995; Rescorla & Safyer, 2013). Using parent report, past studies have reported on noun dominance in children's early expressive vocabulary for English (Bates et al., 1994), Italian (Caselli et al., 1995), French (Bassano, 2000) and Spanish (Jackson-Maldonado et al., 1993) among other languages. Examining children's early lexicon with the MBCDI (Fenson et al., 1994), some studies have focused not only on the proportions of nouns and verbs, but also on other categories and have investigated how the relative proportion of each changes with age and language development. For example, Caselli et al. (1995) conducted a cross-linguistic comparison between English- and Italian-speaking toddlers examining different semantic categories more closely. In particular, the authors focus on words for games, routines, and sound effects labeled "social words" which are frequently found in the everyday activities of young children, and on function words or closed-class words in addition to nouns and verbs. Their results revealed that the prevalence of each of these four categories varies with children's vocabulary growth with social words more common in the very early stages of lexical acquisition, then nouns take over, followed by verbs, and closed-class words emerging in the speech of children with richer lexicons. This general pattern is reported for both English-speaking and Italian-speaking toddlers (Caselli et al., 1995).

Investigating the prevalence of nouns, verbs, and other word categories, and how it changes with lexical development in multiple different languages is a way to test the noun bias universality claim. In addition, cross-linguistic studies on noun bias could

help identify the potential reasons behind this phenomenon as they pertain to or not to specific language characteristics. Furthermore, investigating noun bias in the language acquisition of children with atypical development could contribute to a better understanding of potential additional constraints to the universality of the phenomenon. Examining the lexicon of children with autism spectrum disorder (ASD) presents a unique opportunity to investigate noun bias and its role in language acquisition. Studies have already reported on certain differences in the use of specific word categories (defined based on syntactic and semantic characteristics) in autism. For instance, some studies show more limited use of mental state terms (words such as *think, feel, know*) in ASD (e.g., Losh & Capps, 2003; Tager-Flusberg & Sullivan, 1995) in comparison with typical development (TD). Other research has focused on difficulties in deixis, particularly pronoun reversal, avoidance of personal pronouns and preference for nouns when referring to oneself and others (Lee et al., 1994; Shield et al., 2015; Tager-Flusberg, 1994). Furthermore, past research provides mixed evidence as to the presence of shape bias as an organizing principle in language acquisition in autism (Field et al., 2015; Potrzeba et al., 2015; Tek et al., 2008). All of these and other so far reported unique features of language acquisition in ASD make a strong case for the study of noun bias as a way to better understand the mechanisms behind it.

Yet, research on noun bias in autism is scarce. In a longitudinal study, Tager-Flusberg et al. (1990) compared the prevalence of nouns, verbs, modifiers and closed-class words in the speech samples of six children with ASD to those of six chronological age- and MLU-matched children with Down syndrome. The children with ASD used significantly more nouns than the children with Down syndrome, and their noun use decreased as their grammar skills increased. Using a parent report measure, Ellis Weismer et al. (2011) compared toddlers with ASD to productive vocabulary-matched late talkers across the 22 CDI-2 word categories. Word use across all word categories was equivalent across the two groups. In another study, Charman et al. (2003) reports that children with ASD's patterns of comprehension and production of words across semantic categories of the CDI-Infant Form do not broadly differ from those of the normative sample, with no more detailed comparisons. And in yet another study using parent report, Rescorla and Safyer (2013) provided a detailed comparison of ASD and TD lexical development by word category. They found no differences by semantic

category in the words acquired by English-speaking children with ASD and a normative TD sample in earlier stages of their lexical development (with vocabulary between 1 and 49 words). There were, however, multiple different word categories, where children with ASD with vocabulary between 1 and 310 words used significantly fewer words than the normative sample, including foods, actions, people, etc. Overall, past studies show that in early stages of lexical development, children with ASD do not seem to differ in their relative use of words across more general categories, such as nouns and verbs. However, when more specific word categories are examined, such as words for clothes, people, places, etc., some differences between ASD and normative samples emerge.

To the best of our knowledge there are no published studies on noun bias in ASD for children acquiring a language different from English. In the present study we focus on noun bias in typical development and in ASD for Bulgarian. Currently there is only one study under review examining word vocabulary composition in the early lexicon of TD Bulgarian children. In it the analytical schema of Caselli et al. (1999) was followed, which consists of four general word categories as described above: social words, nouns, predicates, and closed-class words. This allowed for the comparison of Bulgarian findings with the findings of Caselli et al. on English and Italian to identify similarities and differences. Although a detailed report of the findings is beyond the scope of this paper, we can summarize the main conclusions as follows. Overall, there is evidence for noun bias in Bulgarian as well based on the CDI-2 data which is in line with the results for Italian and English (Caselli et al., 1999). Further, the trends in vocabulary composition across increasing levels of vocabulary size (1-50; 51-100; etc.) for Bulgarian bear greater similarity with the pattern in Italian than English, in particular as this concerns the higher ratio of social words in smaller vocabularies.

As an extension of the described study, we aim to compare the vocabulary composition of Bulgarian children with ASD to that of the Bulgarian normative sample described above. Examining noun bias in ASD for children acquiring Bulgarian, presents a unique opportunity because, on the one hand, social communication and pragmatic deficits are part of the core difficulties across the autism spectrum, on the other hand, social words, such as words for people, routines, animal sounds, are one of the most prevalent word categories in the early stages of Bulgarian lexical acquisition. To the

best of our knowledge, this will be the first study to examine noun bias in ASD in a language, where social words make up the majority of the early lexicon.

To address some of the gaps in the literature on noun bias in language acquisition in ASD, the present study aims to compare word category distribution, following the Caselli et al. (1999) analytical schema, in the ASD sample with the normative sample.

Method

Participants

Normative sample

The data for the normative sample were obtained from parents of 510 children aged 16 to 30 months, with an average age of 22.47 months, including 252 girls and 258 boys. Information for most children (98%) was provided by their mothers.

ASD sample

The data set for the ASD sample consisted of 48 observation points from 28 children. Each data point is considered as a separate participant for the purposes of the analysis. Repeat observations for participants were made one year apart. The ASD diagnosis of all children in this sample was confirmed with the administration of the Autism Diagnostic Observation Schedule - 2nd ed (ADOS-2; Lord et al., 2012) at each data collection point. One child was excluded because of a serious medical condition. Six children were excluded because Bulgarian was not their primary language. The data of three children were excluded from further analyses because they had a CDI-2 total score of 0. Thus the final ASD sample consisted of 38 children aged 45 to 116 months, $M = 74.5$ ($SD = 19.9$). Information on two of the children's exact age was missing. Five of the children were girls and thirty-three were boys.

Materials

The data were collected with the Bulgarian version of CDI-2 (*MacArthur Bates Communicative Development Inventories, CDI*). This instrument is among the few developed tools for the study of Bulgarian language acquisition. Past studies using it have found increases in expressive vocabulary with age, and associations between vocabulary and socio-demographic factors, thus replicating findings from English-

speaking toddlers (Andonova 2015, 2022a, 2022b). Parents provided information on the words their children produced in a checklist format along with details about the family environment, health status, and other relevant factors.

The Bulgarian adaptation of CDI-2 (Andonova, 2015) has a 639-word vocabulary checklist arranged into the same twenty-two semantic categories as in the US original CDI-2 (Fenson et al., 1994) which serves as a measure for toddlers' expressive vocabulary. Caregivers are asked to identify each word on the list the child uses spontaneously but are not asked to indicate the frequency of use of the word or its range of reference.

Results

We report the distribution of lexical categories in a comparative analysis between the normative sample and the ASD sample. We start with direct comparisons of vocabulary size, the ratio scores among the four analytical categories, and then proceed to examine opportunity scores. Raw scores are the number of words parents report for their children and opportunity scores indicate the percentage of all words on the CDI-2 list that a child produces. For example, if a child's raw score on the CDI-2 may be 64 (words in total) and their opportunity score in this case would be approximately 10% (from the full list of 639 words). The ratio scores are calculated as the percent words of a given category within a child's individual total score on the CDI.

The analytical categories in our study align as closely as possible with those reported in Caselli et al. (1999) and in this way provide a suitable comparative basis for the normative samples across three languages (Bulgarian, Italian, and US versions of the CDIs). Four word categories were defined as follows. The noun category includes the following word groups from CDI-2: animals, vehicles, toys, food and drinks, clothing, body parts, small household objects, furniture, and rooms. In the Bulgarian adaptation, the total number of words in this category is 273 (42.72% of the full word list). Predicates as a category comprise two word groups – 106 verb forms and 43 adjectives – totaling 149 words (23.32% of the full list). Closed-class words include pronouns, prepositions and spatial terms, question words, quantity words, conjunctions, and conjugated verb forms, amounting to 95 words (14.87% of the total inventory list). The final category consists of the so-called *social* words, identified in the analyses of Caselli

et al. (1999) as a combination of sound words and sound effects, names for people, games and routine activities – 68 words in total (10.64% of the full list) for the Bulgarian CDI-2.

Given the objectives of this study, the total number of words from the CDI-2 that children produced was first calculated for each child, along with the corresponding percentage ratio of words from each of the four main categories in the child's vocabulary.

Vocabulary Size

The mean CDI-2 vocabulary score for the thirty-eight children in the ASD sample was 253.61 words (SD=234.28), which was marginally higher than the normative sample mean score of 177.40 words (SD=183.54) as shown in a *t*-test for independent samples, $t_{(546)} = 2.42, p = .057$. The large SD values indicate that vocabulary scores varied widely for the ASD children in line with the considerable variation found among the typically developing children in the normative sample.

Vocabulary Composition

Given that lexical composition in this ASD sample was the primary focus of this investigation, we analyzed it in two different ways. First, we compared the ratios of the four analytical categories of ASD and typically developing children. We then compared the opportunity scores for the same four word categories across the samples. The first analysis allows us to draw a parallel with the analytical approach in Caselli et al. (1999) and the second analysis approximates the procedure adopted specifically for ASD by Rescorla & Safyer (2013).

ASD vs. Typical Development (Ratio Scores)

We first compare the ratio scores of the ASD and typically developing children from the normative sample on the four analytical word categories (nouns, predicates, closed-class words, and social words). The percentage of words from each of these within children's individual vocabulary are presented in Table 1. No significant differences were found between the ASD and the normative sample on any of the four word categories in a series of independent samples *t*-tests on the ratio of words from each of the four analytical categories, $t_s < 1.6, p_s > .10$.

The ratio (percentage) scores calculated on the basis of children’s individual vocabularies reflect their distribution within an individual’s lexicon, but they give no indication of their share of words within the full CDI list, i.e., the degree to which given word categories are filled up within the checklist as a whole. Utilizing the measure of opportunity scores allows us to examine these shares within the inventory.

Table 1

Percent of words for Nouns, Predicates, Closed-class words, and Social words in two samples of children (Normative, ASD)

	Normative (n = 510)	ASD (n = 38)
Nouns	37.53	35.70
Predicates	13.27	13.38
CC W	6.53	5.22
Social W	38.67	40.53

Note: CC W = closed class words; Social W = social words

ASD vs. Typical Development (Opportunity Scores)

Here we compare the opportunity scores of the ASD and typically developing children from the normative sample on the four analytical word categories (nouns, predicates, closed-class words, and social words). The opportunity score values are presented in Table 2. A series of independent samples *t*-tests revealed a significant difference between the two groups on the opportunity scores for Nouns, $t_{(546)} = 2.24, p = .031$, a marginal difference for Predicates, $t_{(546)} = 1.85, p = .072$, and no difference for closed-class words or social words (Table 2).

Table 2

Opportunity scores for Nouns, Predicates, Closed-class words, and Social words in two samples of children (Normative, ASD)

	Normative (n = 510)	ASD (n = 38)
Nouns	13.09	19.65
Predicates	5.62	8.38
CC W	2.44	3.53
Social W	4.81	4.73

Note: CC W = closed class words; Social W = social words

Discussion

We set out to examine vocabulary composition in ASD for a language, where both social words and nouns are most prevalent in the early lexicon. We found a trend with vocabularies of the children with ASD marginally higher than those of the normative TD sample. This difference could be attributed to the parent report used, even though such results have not been found in other vocabulary composition comparisons with a normative sample using similar expressive language measures (e.g., Charman et al., 2003; Rescorla & Safyer, 2013). In our study, children with ASD were much older than the normative sample (unlike in both Charman et al. (2003) and Rescorla & Safyer (2013)), and thus their parents have had years more of observing their expressive vocabulary. Because the CDI-2 assesses word types rather than word tokens or frequency, that could explain this marginal advantage for the ASD sample. In addition, the very large standard deviations for both participant samples reflect the considerable heterogeneity in language skills in both ASD and TD (e.g., Tager-Flusberg et al., 2009).

When comparing ratio scores across the four word categories (nouns, predicates, closed-class words and social words), no significant differences were found between the ASD and normative sample. Social words and nouns were most common in the expressive vocabularies of both groups, followed by predicates and closed-class words. This is in line with past studies reporting no differences between ASD and other language-matched participants with Down Syndrome, late talkers, and normative TD samples when focusing on broader word categories in early lexical acquisition (Charman et al., 2003; Ellis Weismar et al., 2011; Rescorla & Safyer, 2013; Tager-Flusberg et al., 1990). This similar but delayed general lexical acquisition pattern is accounted for by Naigles and Tek's (2017) proposal that "form is easy, meaning is hard" in ASD. According to the proposal, vocabulary growth is easy for and a relative strength of children with ASD, while semantic organization (e.g., shape bias) is an area of difficulty. This perspective is echoed by Arunachalam and Luyster (2015), who go on to add that "While syntactic knowledge can support acquisition of a broad meaning category, it cannot override difficulties children may have with particular concepts." (p. 7). Based on these accounts, no lexical composition differences should be found in broad word categories, as we report here for Bulgarian children with ASD production of nouns, predicates and closed class words. However, differences would be expected for more

specific semantic categories, such as mental state verbs, where meaning discernment requires social skills or happens in the context of a social interaction. In a sense, the social words category that we examine here consists precisely of such words: words for people, games, routines, sounds, part of the everyday activities of children as they interact with their caregiver. In that sense, the lack of a difference between our ASD and normative sample in the ratio of social words is unexpected. One possible explanation for it is that the social words included in the Bulgarian CDI-2 do not necessarily pose that high of a social demand to be acquired.

Beyond the lack of group difference, the relatively high percent of social words in the vocabulary of Bulgarian children with ASD in and of itself is noteworthy. As described above, the pattern of early lexical composition of Bulgarian TD children closely resembles that of Italian TD children from Caselli et al.'s (1999) study, where social words were the most prevalent in the early stages of vocabulary acquisition. We report the same pattern here in ASD, where we do not find evidence to reject the presence of a nominal bias, as more nouns are used than predicates, but social words are just as commonly used as nouns. A more detailed examination of this finding is necessary, as to what specific social words are used, to put it in the context of the characteristic social and pragmatic impairments of children with ASD. In addition, unique cultural, social, and language factors pertaining to language acquisition could play a role in this high prevalence of social words.

Next, we focus on opportunity scores. Opportunity scores reflect the degree to which given word categories are filled up within the checklist as a whole. Based on opportunity scores, nouns show a much stronger presence in the expressive vocabulary of children with ASD and in the normative TD sample than both social words and predicates, thus providing additional evidence in support of noun bias in Bulgarian lexical acquisition. What is surprising here is that noun opportunity scores, but for no other word category, are significantly higher in ASD than in the normative sample. This finding could potentially be accounted for by the much higher chronological age of the ASD children compared to the normative sample, where parents had many more opportunities to observe their child's expressive language. Furthermore, the marginally higher vocabulary size of the ASD group could be a contributing factor to this opportunity score difference.

Limitations and Future Research

The present study lays the foundation for future research on lexical composition in ASD in non-English-speaking children. Although informative, it possesses a number of limitations that can be addressed in future studies. For example, future studies can compare the vocabulary composition of Bulgarian children with ASD to expressive-vocabulary-matched TD controls. It would also be helpful to collect ASD data from children closer to the age of the normative sample to account for potential age effects, although this would be challenging considering the late age of diagnosis in the country (Andonova, 2022). Furthermore, it would be helpful to match samples based on nonverbal IQ, as well, considering similar matching procedures in Ellis Weismer et al. (2012).

Another logical next step would be to follow the example of Rescorla and Safyer (2013) and Ellis Weismer et al. (2012) and conduct more detailed word category comparisons. On the one hand, all 22 CDI-2 word categories can be compared. On the other, some word-level analyses could be conducted to address previously reported potential semantic difficulties associated with deixis and mental state language.

Last but not least, other methodological approaches could be used to investigate noun bias and word categories, more broadly, in Bulgarian. For instance, speech samples can be collected and coded for word categories, and then compared to parent report measures.

Despite its limitations, the present study makes a significant contribution to the study of noun bias in languages different from English and in the expressive vocabulary of atypical populations. Relying on a normative sample comparison as done previously (Charman et al., 2003; Rescorla & Safyer, 2013), our results replicate some published findings on noun bias in ASD. In addition, the high percent of social words in the vocabulary of Bulgarian children with autism can serve as the basis of a more detailed investigation of vocabulary composition across different populations.

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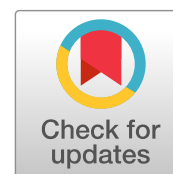
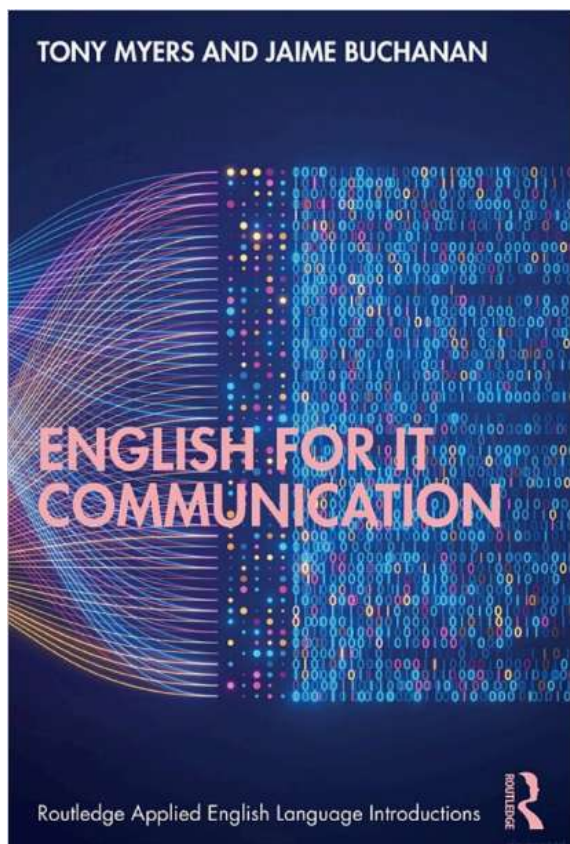
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BOOK REVIEWS SECTION

ENGLISH FOR IT COMMUNICATION – BOOK REVIEW

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Huu-Chanh Nguyen is currently working at the University of Health Sciences, Viet Nam National University Ho Chi Minh City, Viet Nam. He earned his PhD in English Language Studies from Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. He was the nominee of the Hessen State Scholarship in Germany. Nguyen's research interests encompass various topics, including genre analysis, literary devices, morphology, translation, and English teaching skills in the EAP/ESP/ English for Dentistry Purposes (EDP) teaching, learning, and research practice. He is a member of AELFE (European Association of Languages for Specific Purposes), Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE), Popular Culture Association (PCA), and Asia-Pacific LSP & Professional Communication Association (LSPPC). He also actively contributes to the academic community for numerous journals in the fields of Education, Applied Linguistics, and interdisciplinary studies.

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In the rapidly evolving field of information technology, effective communication in English is as critical as technical expertise, yet existing literature often falls short in addressing the specific communication challenges faced by IT professionals (Rajpravit & Hemchua, 2015; Prasetya, 2021; Koç & Savaş, 2025). Many available resources tend to focus narrowly either on highly technical writing or on general communication skills without adequately bridging the gap between these areas. This leaves a gap for learners and professionals who need comprehensive guidance on the full spectrum of communication tasks they encounter—from formal reports and technical specifications to everyday workplace emails, social media, and user documentation. *English for IT Communication* by Tony Myers and Jaime Buchanan is a timely publication that bridges the mentioned gaps by providing a detailed, authentic, and accessible learning material tailored particularly for IT students, novice researchers, or professionals. By highlighting audience analysis, aim-oriented writing, document design, and multimodal strategies, audiences are well equipped with the critical skills essential to generate clear, effective, and professional communication in various IT environments. Its in-depth inclusion, practical instances, and concentration on current working environments make it an insightful learning resource for those seeking to shift from academic to professional IT contexts, ensuring they can handle with the intricacies of technical communication confidently and precisely.

The book is thematically divided into 10 chapters that equip readers with necessary skills in technical communication scenarios of IT. It starts with fundamental knowledge in Chapter 1, centering on readers and purposes, followed by Chapter 2's examination of design principles for clear and effective documents. Chapter 3 explores workplace communication, e.g., emails, memos, and social media, while Chapters 4 to 6 highlight the software development lifecycle, featuring both process documents and detailed product documentation for systems and users. Chapter 7 explores report writing, and Chapter 8 addresses in-depth guidelines on IEEE referencing and formatting. Chapter 9 delves into multimodal communication, e.g., presentations and video conferencing, and the final chapter provides authentic case studies to apply and reinforce the skills learned throughout the book.

Chapter 1 points to the importance of tailoring messages based on the audience's background, involvement, and needs. The chapter discusses fundamental concepts and suggests solutions to analyze the aim of communication, emphasizing clarity and relevance. Chapter 2 emphasizes the role of visual design in technical communication. It examines core design principles that improve readability and comprehension, centering on the effective applications of headings, lists, and data visualizations, e.g., entity

relationship diagrams. Chapter 3 moves concentration to interpersonal communication within professional IT contexts. It compares internal and external communication, featuring the essential role of intercultural sensitivity to foster successful exchanges.

Chapter 4 excels in project management documents essential in the software development lifecycle (SDLC). It contrasts diverse project management methods and differentiates process from product documentation. Key tools like work breakdown structures are explored, along with popular visual formats such as Gantt charts and Kanban boards. Chapter 5 concentrates on product documentation targeted at developers and testers. It differentiates system from user documentation and details common system document types including product requirements, software requirements, UX design, API documentation, and quality assurance documents like test plans and test cases. Chapter 6 focuses on documentation intended for end users and system administrators. The chapter discusses best practices for writing clear and user-friendly instructions and manuals, emphasizing language strategies for clarity and usability.

Chapter 7 offers a thorough overview of report types prevalent in IT workplaces, such as proposals, recommendation reports, feasibility studies, progress reports, and evaluation reports. It identifies their shared structural features — including introductions, criteria, budget tables, and executive summaries — and explores rhetorical strategies to organize content logically. Chapter 8 is a practical guide to the IEEE citation style, the standard in IT academia and industry. It explains the rationale behind IEEE use and details in-text citation methods, reference list components, and formatting styles. The chapter also discusses abbreviations, digital source locators, and essential formatting elements such as tables, figures, and headings.

Chapter 9 examines how combining multiple communication modes (speaking, writing, listening, reading) enhances message delivery. The chapter analyzes the suitability of different modes for various purposes and audiences, addresses challenges of video conferencing, and devotes considerable attention to effective presentation design and delivery. Chapter 10 addresses theoretical foundations and applications with five case studies that enable readers to use concepts from prior chapters. These practical cases stimulate active learning in main areas, e.g., audience analysis, report writing, documentation, referencing, and presentations.

The biggest contribution of this book lies in its in-depth inclusion of IT communication genres. The book deals with a variety of communication categories related to IT professionals. For example, Chapter 3 addresses daily workplace communication formats, e.g., emails, memos, and enterprise social media, offering real-

world instances that illustrate authentic usage. Chapter 5 examines specialized technical documents, e.g. product requirements, API documentation, and test cases, which are crucial in software development cycles. This comprehensive coverage ensures that audiences obtain real-world experience with various communication settings, helping them for both academic and professional IT environments. Another great contribution is in the book's thorough concentration on readers and aims, which is essential to successful communication. Chapter 1 provides an in-depth model for exploring audiences by their connection to the event, their level of IT knowledge, and their informational needs. For instance, the chapter's 3 strategies for investigating communication aims help writers tailor their content to suit diverse audiences, whether technical experts or end users. This approach improves clarity and relevance, making technical descriptions more efficient and reachable in diverse settings.

The book also addresses integrating design and multimodal communication, which are essential in modern IT contexts. Chapter 2 emphasizes essential design principles, e.g., the applications of headings, lists, and data visualization techniques, e.g., entity relationship diagrams, to enhance readability and comprehension. Complementing this, Chapter 9 covers multimodal communication challenges by offering valuable guidelines on professional slide presentations and video conferencing. For instance, it breaks down slide components, e.g., titles, charts, and icons, and provides effective solutions for managing online meetings. This dual focus prepares readers to communicate confidently across various media beyond traditional text-based documents.

Despite its many significant contributions, one limitation that could be expanded is its coverage of technical content creation tools. Although Chapter 8 clearly investigates IEEE referencing and document formatting standards, the book does not extensively address practical guidance on contemporary collaboration and content creation platforms widely used in IT, e.g., Markdown, Confluence, Jira, or data visualization software, e.g., Tableau or Power BI. The inclusion of these tools would help readers apply the theoretical principles to everyday professional workflows more effectively, addressing the gap between academic knowledge and industry practice.

Another limitation is the emerging overemphasis on formal academic writing styles, specifically in report writing. Chapter 7 offers comprehensive instruction on structured report types, e.g., feasibility research, recommendation reports, and progress updates, which are essential in many IT projects. Nevertheless, this focus may not fully capture the flexible and often informal communication styles prevalent in agile or startup settings. For example, while enterprise social media is mentioned in Chapter 3

as a form of workplace communication, the book only briefly examines informal or iterative documentation practices common in fast-paced IT teams. A deeper examination of these more dynamic communication modes would better reflect current workplace realities and prepare readers for a broader range of professional contexts.

Taken together, the book is a comprehensive guidance particularly for IT students, researchers and early-career professionals to enhance strong communication skills tailored to the technical demands of their field. By covering a broad spectrum of document types, from formal reports and system documentation to everyday workplace emails and presentations, readers are well-equipped with real-world strategies for writing thoroughly and purposefully for various IT stakeholders. Its concentration on audience analysis, design principles, and multimodal communication makes it especially suitable for those moving from academic study to professional environments. Although it could further address modern content tools and informal communication in agile contexts, it remains a valuable guide that effectively supports its target readers in mastering essential IT communication competencies (Koç & Savaş, 2025).

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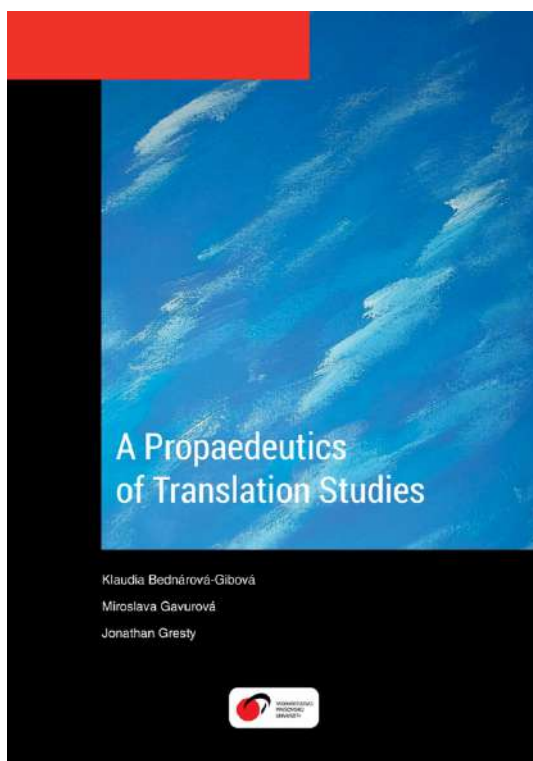
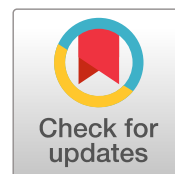
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A PROPAEDEUTICS OF TRANSLATION STUDIES – BOOK REVIEW

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The world of translation is becoming increasingly fluid, with important consequences not only for the profession and public perceptions of translation, but also for the teaching and learning of translation-related subjects in universities and other tertiary institutions. With both students and educators cognisant of the need to amend and update relevant curricula and pedagogical approaches, striking a balance between theory and practice remains crucial.

The textbook reviewed here, *A Propaedeutics of Translation Studies*, is jointly authored by Klaudia Bednárová-Gibová (preface and chapters 1-3, 6, 7, and 9), Miroslava Gavurová (chapters 4, 5, and 8), and Jonathan Gresty (chapter 10), three scholar-practitioners all based at the University of Prešov in eastern Slovakia. Together with *An Exercise Book of Translation* (Bednárová-Gibová & Gresty, 2022) and *A Coursebook on Translation* (Bednárová-Gibová & Gavurová, 2023), it forms part of a trio of pedagogical works originally designed for students at the university's Institute of British and American Studies.

As Klaudia Bednárová-Gibová outlines in the volume's preface, the book offers a concise and up-to-date overview geared to the needs of a modern student audience (Bednárová-Gibová, Gavurová, & Gresty, 2024, p. 11). Accordingly, Chapters 1 and 2 provide a panorama of the history of translation, its scholars, and theoretical turns, underlining their importance and introducing the reader to seminal works such as Holmes's (2000 [1972]) pioneering conceptualisation of Translation Studies and Chesterman's (2009) coining of Translator Studies, before also outlining fundamental concepts and approaches to translation (such as the notion of equivalence, functionalist approaches to translation, and product and process models of translation). Chapter 3 locates Translation Studies within the broader domain of intercultural communication, presenting some of its methods and theoretical models.

In Chapters 4 and 5, Miroslava Gavurová foregrounds the concepts of translation shifts, drawing on John C. Catford's (1965) work as well as on the Slovak scholar Anton Popovič, before outlining some of the methodological approaches to translation studies, such as Peter Newmark's volume (1988) and Jean-Paul Vinay & Jean Darbelnet's classic text (1995 [1958]).

The translator's competence and skills are the focus of Chapter 6, where Klaudia Bednárová-Gibová first presents some of the core theoretical models of translator competence (such as PACTE and the EMT frameworks) before outlining a novel competence model based on twelve core attributes, encompassing – among others – bilingual and bicultural, interpretational, stylistic, strategic, thematic, digital, and ethical competences (see Bednárová-Gibová, Gavurová, & Gresty, 2024, pp. 97-98). This theoretical overview is complemented by the practical focus of Chapter 7, which demonstrates the ever-changing technological reality of modern-day translation through brief presentation of core technology-related and digital tools, including terminology databases, Computer-Assisted Translation (CAT) tools, corpora, and a brief overview of Machine Translation Post-Editing (MTPE).

With Slovakia representing an influential market in terms of literary translation opportunities (Rondzиковá, 2020), Miroslava Gavurová centres on this aspect in Chapter 8, first sketching the necessary theoretical basis before profiling some of the various types and genres of literary translation (e.g., prose, poetry, drama, and children's literature).

In Chapter 9, Klaudia Bednárová-Gibová offers a summary of the changes that the translation profession is currently experiencing, including the ever-increasing role of English amid globalisation processes as well as the broadening of translation-related activities to include audiovisual translation, the localisation of videogames, and suchlike.

In the tenth and final chapter, Jonathan Gresty provides a wealth of useful practical tips for embarking on a career as a freelance translator. Though centred on the Slovak context, much of the advice he gives is also relevant to other markets. These include the legal necessities for setting up as a freelance translator (including information about taxes and accounting), as well as the different forms of work (e.g., by contracts or tenders). He also gives important tips on how to find and keep clients, as well as other practical information on pricing and invoicing. The book is completed by a glossary of 62 key terms, as well as a bibliography containing almost 200 references.

To summarise, *A Propaedeutics of Translation Studies* is a concise textbook which is eminently appropriate for Gen Z students and practitioners, given its approach to theoretical and practical aspects of academic translation studies in a clear and well-structured way. To highlight its reader-friendly focus, each chapter is also completed by a

summary, a few questions for the reader to ponder, as well as additional literature on the topic and links to videos and other online resources. As such, the volume is accessible not only to students and teachers on translation-related degree programmes, but also across the humanities and social sciences, with its ten chapters fitting neatly into a semester-long programme of study. Furthermore, and similarly to the other two aforementioned volumes (Bednárová-Gibová & Gresty, 2022; Bednárová-Gibová & Gavurová, 2023), *Propaedeutics of Translation Studies* is freely available online via Open Access. In short, therefore, these three works together constitute a valuable asset for Translation Studies pedagogy and practice which will benefit students and educators worldwide.

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