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Recategorizing Walter Benjamin as Non-deconstructivist based on a Comparison of Aspects of Jacques Derrida's and Benjamin's Views on Translation



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Abstract

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According to traditional Western views on translation, conveying the meaning is the first aim. In Benjamin's eyes, this is an acceptance of the "non-identity of languages", harming linguistic development. With his understanding, Benjamin challenged ideas viewing language as a tool. For this challenge, he has been regarded by many scholars as a forerunner, rebelling against Western logocentrism. He also contributed to the development of translation studies, e.g. with his concept of a "pure language". Another dominant figure of deconstructivism is Derrida, who also challenged logocentrism. He has created many concepts like "la différence", dissemination, trance etc., which serve not only linguistics and philosophy, but also translation studies. In the history of Western translation, Benjamin has often been classified as a member of deconstructivism, even being compared with Derrida in regard to their deconstructive architectural concept of "absence" (MacArthur 1993). However, Benjamin's understanding of translation differs from Derrida's. This paper compares their comprehension of translation mainly regarding the aspects of "pure language" and "la différence", metaphrase and relevant translations, "afterlife" and "rebirth" of the original. Their attitudes towards the five dimensions original work, author, translator, translation work and translation criterion respectively are explored. It is concluded that Benjamin does not belong to deconstructivism.

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“Pure Language” and “La Différence”

When translation studies became self-aware as a discipline in the late 1950s, translation was understood mainly as part of linguistics with issues like contrastive comparison (Vinay & Darbelnet 1958) and linguistic-systemic issues (Mounin 1963, Nida 1964, Catford 1965). Therefore, many translation theories involve linguistic aspects. Benjamin has presumed an ideal ‘original’ language he called “reine Sprache” or “la langue pure” (pure language) as the origin of subsistent languages in the real world after summarizing the defects of subsistent languages (Benjamin [1916] 2019:14).

This original language was from God, and had full creativity and cognition. In it language and spirit, meaning and form, signifier and signified were united to show the truth through self-manifestation. Benjamin has pointed out that with the corruption of the human, the language had no longer been one, but multiple. The deriving languages were corrupted into abstract conceptual languages (Cao Danhong, 2012:6). In this way, script descended to instrumental signs. It referred to things in various manual systems, but it could never convey the universality through self-manifestation, so the relationship between the human and the world has changed from the intersubjectivity into subject-object dichotomy where the human dominates (Wei Jiangang & Sun Yingchun, 2013:75). In other words, due to the presumption that language descended from the original “being” into lower “having”, it has become a synonym for “abstract”, “judgement” and “meaning”. Language has never been a medium, but a kind of means used in communication of “subjects” (Wohlfarth, 2003:27). As a result, meaning has been the external reference out of the signs themselves, instead of the spirit of self-manifestation of pure language. Accordingly, the relationship between signified and signifier is actually external instead of being original, direct and internal. As Paul De Man has claimed, we think we use our language freely. We feel comfortable and are familiar with the dwelling place within our language, in which we think not to be alienated, but we do not notice that this kind of alienation has been shown strongly in our relationship with our original language. It has been disintegrated already, which brings a special alienation, a peculiar pain (Paul De Man, 2003:99).

Benjamin has assumed the transcendental existence of pure language in order to make the path

of salvation to human clear, that is to say, to find the lost pure language is to unite the world together. Benjamin thinks that all practical languages have a common origin and among themselves a kind of affinity that goes beyond history. As Benjamin once said, “all suprahistorical kinship of languages rests in the intention underlying each language as a whole - an intention, however, which no single language can attain by itself but which is realized only by the totality of their intentions supplementing each other: pure language.” (Benjamin, 2004:78). In other words, if we want to reconstruct pure language, we have to eliminate the external relationship of linguistic intentions and restore the identical relationship between spirit and language, which means to promote the linguistic intentions of various languages to form an integral complementary. This integral complementary is linking the languages together. It is through translation that the mode of intention of the source language can enter into the target language. Therefore, to Benjamin, the significance of translation is not to convey the basic meaning and content of the source language, but the changes to both languages after translation; thereby, translation can teach us about the differences and complementation of each language. Benjamin states that the translator’s work should “ultimately serve [...] the purpose of expressing the central reciprocal relationship between languages” (Benjamin, 2004:77).

A difference between Benjamin and Derrida is that Derrida has invented the concept of “la difference”, which uses the image of an infinitely flowing stream of meaning to overthrow western logocentrism. Therefore, it has assured the translation view that advocates difference and opposes identity. Derrida has pointed out that *la différence* is the precondition of possibility of multiple meanings, so that meaning is the result of its moving. While meaning cannot precede *la différence*, there would be no existence of pure and completely identical origin of meaning, just like what the Babel story reminds us of. (Davis, 2004:10) In other words, the meaning in *la différence* does not allow any conceptual or theoretic system no matter if it is in one language or in several languages. Meaning always presents its fluidity, uncertainty and diversity. We cannot make meaning independent of language, nor can we make language independent of meaning. On the contrary, meaning is already in the language, so meaning can be understood being of linguistic nature.

Language is complicated, fickle, ambiguous and different for any speaker; thus, meaning is also unclear, ambiguous and even mysterious (Cai Xinle, 2007:200). What we can discuss is only the relationship of difference instead of the transcendental identity. In Derrida’s view, a word is in a

dynamic state, we can only understand it, describe it or listen to its sound in such a dynamic condition. If there is a fixed starting point, the meaning will flow from the very beginning. How about the origin of meaning? Derrida has regarded *la différence* as the origin, aiming to explain that in the very beginning meaning was formed, so at the source we had already an initial difference among meanings. The so-called purity thus was contaminated and the source appeared rather complicated. (Zhu Gang, 2006:20)

Derrida and Benjamin all oppose structural linguistic views. The difference is that Benjamin opposed the human control and domination of language by emphasizing the identity of language and spirit. We would rather say that it is not opposed to structuralism, but to the opposite relation between subject and object. In essence, Benjamin is not against concepts like structure, order, centre, etc. He just opposes the structure, order, center, etc. that are based on the interference with language, created by the subject-object relationship, emphasizing that language will not be constrained by the fetter of any subject-object relationship. If we consider it more carefully, he does not disapprove the logocentrism completely as he just emphasizes that logocentrism cannot be constructed and understood through subject and object relation. It must be built and realized by the way of unintentionality or the “presence” of logos, which will be delusive. On the contrary, Derrida is refusing any metaphysics during the process of his deconstruction of any conceptual system. In his opinion, Benjamin has not cast off the set pattern of logocentrism because Benjamin’s *pure language* is still a constructed concept, no matter of how transcendental and absolute identity it is. Of course, if God were the person who deconstructs, we would see that rationality dominates everything and logos would be the deconstruction in the speaker’s status and would not be the deconstruction of deconstruction. Once there is an unshakable center, logos will become dominant and everything will obey to this central authority. Therefore, in order to avoid constructing any central system or structure, Derrida takes the difference as the origin of everything. There is no identity and everything is constantly reproducing and differentiating, so nothing but difference is presented. At any moment, it is different from others as well as itself in such a way that identity does not exist. All we can observe is dynamic stuff, which constantly changes.

Metaphrase and Relevant Translation

As Benjamin and Derrida have different linguistic views, their understanding of translation criteria is also different from each other. Benjamin thinks that in various languages, the ultimate essence *pure language*, “is tied only to linguistic elements and their changes, in linguistic creations it is weighted with a heavy, alien meaning. To relieve it of this, to turn the symbolizing into the symbolized, to regain pure language fully formed in the linguistic flux, is the tremendous and only capacity of translation.” (Benjamin, 2004:81).

In other words, real languages, without exception, refer to external things. To recover the identity of language and spirit, we must let the language break the shackle of meaning while the effects of translation are to make the two languages free of the heavy burden by making the modes of intention of the two languages complementary of each other. According to Benjamin, to judge whether translation of a work is successful or not, it is necessary to observe the combination of signifier and signified of language. Benjamin thinks Hölderlin’s translation works are almost perfect transition of texts because they are absolutely literal translations and metaphrases - but they are also not readable. The literal translation dismembered the sentences, leading to the consequence that meaning got lost (De Man, 2003:104). To Benjamin, the translation that gets the language out of the shackle of meaning, and makes the language manifest itself to convey the spirit is the best translation. Anyway, translation has to turn back to language itself, to the intention of language, to reach pure language commonly shared by the two languages by complementing the modes of intention of the source language and the target language. Benjamin declares that the interlinear version of Babel is the prototype of all translation due to the reason that Babel is the words of God, which are so true that language identifies with spirit.

Derrida is totally different from Benjamin’s proposition in that he proposes the relevant translation. In general, “relevant” is the best translation in Derrida’s view, which is also the sort of translation expected by people. It is a kind of translation that fulfils its duty and finishes its mission. It’s that kind of translation that finds the most comparatively accurate words for the expressions in the source text, that language used is the most correct, appropriate, relevant, direct and apropos... Obviously, Derrida is trying to use a series of words to set standard for the best translation or the ideal translation. What remains a pity is that many scholars believe the literal meaning as set by Derrida; ignoring its implications (Wang Yingchong, 2011:15). However, if we reflect on the “relevant”, we can hardly make what it means clear, and Derrida himself has made

no ostension on “relevant”, thus, this is actually the word game of Derrida that meaning being not assured makes translation impossible. With the trick of the untranslatability of the word “relevant”, Derrida implies the deconstruction of his standard of translation. What Derrida really wants to express is that if there was a standard of translation, and the standard would work as the same, then would the standard still support itself? The untranslatability of “relevant” has already told us the untranslatability, not mentioning the translation standard. In Derrida’s point of view, meaning is already the delayed presence, leading to the result that translation is a debt that translator can never pay off, a mission that translator can never finish. Therefore, can text really not be translated?

Derrida says that we have to know what relevant translation is, what relevant translation means and what the essence of translation is, its mission, ultimate purpose and final mission. On one hand, relevant translation, no matter wrong or right, is generally better than irrelevant translation, and is likely to be viewed as the best translation. The main idea behind the functional translation theory, especially skopos theory (Reiss 197# Translation Criticism – The Potentials and Limitations, Vermeer 1978 Ordinary Translation Theory, Nord) and the definition of the essence of realization in translation are contained in the definition of relevant translation. Therefore, the question that what relevant translation is goes back to what translation is or what should the translation be. While what the translation should be seems to be equal to what the possible best translation would be (Derrida, 2004:429).

Therefore, Derrida’s discussion about the standard of translation goes back to the translatability and untranslatability. Actually, what Derrida wants to prove is that translation itself is a paradox, that is, just in the untranslatability can translation exist and go on. The original text always owes to translation, and constantly summons translation, and in a larger sense, anything meaningful calls for interpretation (Wang Yingchong, 2011:17). On the contrary, the good translation or the translation standard can only be discussed in absolute translatability; pursuit of translation in absolute untranslatability will be nonsense, and it can only be infinitely approached but never reached as once it become absolute translatability, which means translation presents the meaning in limitless *différance* in presence, the identity occurs, then the translation will be unnecessary.

In short, Derrida and Benjamin have different view on translation. Benjamin worships metaphor through which two languages can supplement each other’s referential pattern to manifest the pure language, whose spirits are the best translation. While Derrida plays a small

fraud that he sets relevant translation as translation criterion but he doesn't make it clear, in which way he indicates his ideas of untranslatability and that pursuit of translation in absolute untranslatability will be nonsense, and it can only be infinitely approached but never reached. .

Afterlife and Rebirth

Benjamin also differs mostly from Derrida in the insight of the relationship between the original work and translation work. In Benjamin's perspective, the purpose of translation is to promote the complementation of modes of intentions of different languages so as to restore the identity. Therefore, translation work is never the copy or reappearance of the original work, but the supplement and succession of the original work and in turn, original work can only rely on its translation work to refresh its vitality and go on its subsistence. The relationship of the two can only be understood in the whole purpose of realizing "pure language".

What Benjamin expects is, that through constant translation we can make the referential modes of original work and translation work interflow until we exhaust all the referential modes to realize the final identity of language and spirit in entity. Benjamin understands the relationship between the original and its translation like a natural relation of an organism and its afterlife or rebirth. In his understanding, various aspects of the translation process closely correlate with biological phenomena. Translation work grows out of an original work and it originates from the afterlife. Due to the fact that original work precedes the translation work, and in the range of world literature, no great works meet their perfect translator when the original author is still alive, so translation work only marks the continuity of the original work (Benjamin, 2004:76).

Benjamin regarded the original works as vigorous organisms so that he viewed their translation as the continuity of the original works. He also called it the afterlife of original work. Benjamin stressed that life was a historical rather than an existential concept. Life was not limited within a biological body. According to him, only if we view life as a historical process of survival of organisms, could the concept of life be understood correctly. Flashy translations would become corrupt and fashionable ones would become obsolete. Also, the linguistic form of the original work would die with time passing by, but the life of the original work would not die, but only be transformed, because of its existential form. With the help of the translation, the life of the original work would continue, it would be updated and extended, thus being constantly succeeded in its

life history. Hence, translation was like a source of rejuvenation (Kramer, 2008:24). So, in Benjamin's view a translation was the afterlife of an original work. It does neither mean it was the end of the original work's life nor did it mean the translation replaced the original to be an independent organism. Benjamin stresses that continuity of life does not pay much attention to the survival of organisms, which means that translation is a medium that pushes the original's life process, a medium that provides a chance for the continuity of the life of an original instead of substituting it. According to him, the mission of translation was to promote the original work's linguistic life, to grow it until it ripens and the fruit was the *pure language*.

Translation thus ultimately served the purpose of expressing the central reciprocal relationship between languages. It cannot possibly reveal or establish this hidden relationship itself; but it can represent it by realizing it in embryonic or intensive form (Benjamin, 2004:77). Accordingly, translation is not the birth of an original work nor its death, but the living on of the original. It is the birth after death and death after birth. In this way, Benjamin has assured the position of the original work being higher than the translation work. The original work depends on the translation work to continue its life. Translation can never be equal to the original work because only the original language has the vigor to embody the fruit of *pure language*.

In comparison, Derrida thinks that translation work is the rebirth of the original work and notes that there are two implications in "rebirth", which are given by "Fortleben and Überleben" in Benjamin's "The Task of the Translator" (Benjamin 1923), indicating that life will continue, be consistent and that survival continues, but it also indicates resurrection after death. Derrida emphasizes that the original work has an equal and independent position in relation to the translation work. Both works are complementary for each other; as a result, if the original text calls for supplement, it is due to the fact that it is not flawless, complete, all-encompassing and does not possess a self-identity. The original texts to be translated fall into exile from the very beginning (Derrida, 2004). Starting from such complementary relationship, Derrida abolished the original position of the original work, since the original work does not differ from the translation work in that the original work is the translation work of the former texts, and the translation work can be translated into the original work for later texts. *La différence* of meaning is infinite, meaning that all the texts are the limited understanding of semantic difference. They supplement and substitute each other, constructing a constantly flowing semantic chain. A text that depends on

other texts, but differs from other texts at the same time constantly waits for supplement and substitution in the semantic net. Text is a claiming process that goes beyond meaning in itself; it is the trace of a sequence of movements. The ultimate text that can cover the infinite semantic *différance* does not exist and the ultimate meaning is intangible as meaning is mobile and infinite.

All in all, Derrida and Benjamin have shown their distinctive understanding of the original work and the translation work. Benjamin has claimed that translation work is the afterlife of the original work and that the original work depends on translation to continue its life. Due to the fact that only the original work can deliver birth to *pure language*, in spite of the fact that the relations among languages can reoccur in the translation work, the original work ranks first. Derrida holds another opinion, that the two, original work and translation work are equal and complementary. We may ask, why Benjamin insists that the fruit of *pure language* is on the original work's side, as we mentioned in the beginning that Benjamin wants to realize the identity of language and spirit through exhausting all the referential modes of all languages, and making them melt with each other. However, translation is the living-on of the original work, a relation just like the baby and the mother, the translation is affiliated to the original. Why the final result will be on the original side still needs our attention. During the *différance* of texts, the original text can become the translation of the former text, while the translation can be the original text of later ones, thus the chain of textual *différance* is built.

Conclusion

Summing up, through the comparative study of Benjamin's and Derrida's views on translation, we can find that they have something in common, but the two still clearly differ from each other and have their own unique perspectives and ideas.

First, on the aspect of the original work, translation theories of deconstructivism emphasizing infinite *différance* of meaning, relativity and fluidity of text, deny the originality of the original work with intertextuality. A huge number of texts appear, one differing from the former a little bit; all of them are the translation(s) of translation(s). Each text has its unique features, and at the same time, it is the translation of another text, thus, no text is the absolute original work and language itself is a kind of translation. In the first place, it is the translation of the non-linguistic world and in the second place, every sign and phrase are the translation of another sign and phrase (Basnett,

1990:112). Nonetheless, Benjamin insists on the originality of the original work, emphasizing that the linguistic core is contained only in the original work and the function of translation is to liberate the relationship between the signifier and signified. Hence, if Benjamin denies the originality of the original work, he will lose the ground of his translation view.

Second, on the aspect of the author, deconstructivism emphasizes the intertextuality instead of the author, declaring that God was already dead and tried to overthrow the concept that the author is the source of meaning from the ground level, so translation views of deconstructivism deny the originality of the author and even the copyright of the author (Jiang Xiaohua & Zhang Jinghua, 2007:42). However, Benjamin advocates the originality of the author. Though he has not mentioned any issues related to the author's copyright, we can infer from the emphasis of originality of original work and creativity of the author that he may not question that the author owns the copyright of his original work.

Third, on the aspect of the translator, the translation view of deconstructivism places the translator in an equal position to the author, but at the meantime, it denies the creativity and copyright of the translator. What Derrida does, is to completely ignore the subjectivity of the translator, instead he focuses on the text. On the contrary, Benjamin does not only emphasize the position of the translator and considers that both translator and author contribute creativity. Both just differ in the way of their work. Derrida also points out that the success of translation depends on the ability of the translator.

Fourth, on the aspect of translation work, the deconstructivist translation view has eliminated the difference between the original work and the translation work, believing that original and translation supplement each other and coexist with each other; the original work lives on with the help of the translation work, while the translation work becomes an independent text because it succeeds the semantic *différence* of the original work. Benjamin stresses that translation is the continuity and supplement of the original life, but at the same time, he disapproves the independence of translation work, since the effect of translation work is only to promote the growth of *pure language* existing in the original work. Translation itself does not contain any organism of *pure language*. As a result, translation work is not equipped with translatability.

Fifth, on the aspect of translation evaluation criteria, the deconstructivist translation view has deconstructed the traditional translation view that seeks loyalty and equivalence and it has

deconstructed the comprehension, extraction and transmission proposed by itself (Wang Yingchong, 2011:18). As a result, it has treated the translatability and untranslatability equally, indicating that any text can be translatable and untranslatable. Accordingly, the criterion of translation has been dissolved. Compared to Derrida, Benjamin prefers literal translation, advocating that we should promote the supplement of the referential modes of the original work and the translation work in the general purpose of realizing *pure language*.

The most obvious distinction between the two is that the former has no intention to provide a solution or a conclusion after dissolving the criterion of translation, which is a little bit puzzling while the latter has set the transcendental body of *pure language* to declare the existence of absolute translatability, with an intensified mode to present what is not in presence and to bring things from afar nearer to us than distant things (Derrida, 2004:79).

To sum up, Benjamin cannot be classified as a member of the deconstructivist translation school, no matter from the perspective of ideas nor the structure of his theories. Although Benjamin has many points of view that are similar with those of the deconstructivist approach, his theory system differs completely.

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Expansion in Film Subtitling: The Case of English-Persian Subtitles



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Abstract

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Keywords:

Audiovisual translation, expansion, explicitation, mistranslation, subtitling

This study investigates the application of expansion in Persian subtitles of English films. More precisely, this study aims at classifying the different types of expansions used in subtitles as well as investigating the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the employment of each type, considering the time and space constraints which are peculiar to subtitling. To achieve this purpose, three English films, “The Net” (1995), “Contact” (1997), and “Mission Impossible 2” (2000), available with Persian subtitles, were selected for the study. To gather the required data, these films were watched and the Persian subtitles in which expansion had been used were identified and extracted along with their English dialogs. Then, the extracted Persian subtitles were classified based on the reason that gave rise to expansion in each case. Then, the appropriateness or inappropriateness of using expansion in the extracted Persian subtitles was descriptively investigated. Finally, an equivalent not containing any expansion was proposed for those cases in which the meaning could be fully transferred without this strategy. The findings of the study indicated that a number of reasons gave rise to the expansion of subtitles. These reasons range from explicitation (explicitation of visual, co-textual and contextual information), mistranslation and paraphrasing to subtitler’s preferences. Furthermore, it was found that the application of expansion was inappropriate in all cases except for those caused by explicitation of contextual information, since correct and shorter equivalents, which were

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equally capable of conveying the intended meaning, could be posited for the original dialogs.

Introduction

Expansion, which is sometimes referred to as addition, is a translation strategy that causes the translation to be longer than the original. Nida (1964) was one of the first translation scholars to deal with the concept of expansion in translation. As a matter of fact, Nida uses the term addition which is quite similar and sometimes handled as a synonym to expansion. In his well-known book “Toward a Science of Translating: With Special Reference to Principles and Procedures Involved in Bible Translating”, Nida (1964) deals with the main techniques of adjustment used in the process of translation, particularly additions, subtractions and alterations. According to Nida, additions are of the following types: (a) filling out elliptical expressions, (b) obligatory specification, (c) additions required because of grammatical restructuring, (d) amplification from implicit to explicit status, (e) answers to rhetorical questions, (f) classifiers, (g) connectives, (h) categories of the receptor language which do not exist in the source language, and (i) doublets (227).

Berman (2000) has a negative attitude toward expansion, and describes it in the following terms:

From the viewpoint of the text, expansion can be qualified as “empty.” It can coexist quite well with diverse quantitative forms of impoverishment. I mean that *the addition adds nothing*, that it augments only the gross mass of text, without augmenting its way of speaking or signifying. The addition is no more than babble designed to muffle the work’s own voice. Explication may render the text more “clear,” but they actually obscure *its own mode of clarity*. The expansion is, moreover, a stretching, a slackening, which impairs the rhythmic flow of the work. Expansion aggravates the initial shapelessness of the work, causing it to change from a shapeless plenitude to a shapeless void or hollow. ... Expansion flattens, horizontalizing what is essentially deep and vertical (290).

Berman’s view seems to be in accord with the approach of those authorities who take expansion for negative addition (which definitely distorts the source text in terms of both form and content), while to others, such as Nida (1964), these two terms are synonymous and are used towards formal as well as semantic adjustment between source and target texts.

Chesterman (1997), lists several strategies used in translation under the title of production translation strategies. According to Chesterman, production strategies have three different categories, namely syntactic strategies, semantic strategies and pragmatic strategies. Chesterman lists expanding, which is another term for expansion, among the semantic production strategies applied in the process of translation.

Expansion is also one of the strategies used in subtitling. Gottlieb (1992), for example, has classified ten strategies that he sees at work in the process of subtitling: expansion, paraphrase, transfer, imitation, transcription, dislocation, condensation, decimation, deletion, and resignation. According to Gottlieb (1992), expansion is used when the original requires an explanation because of some cultural nuance irretrievable in the target language.

Pedersen (2005) also counts addition as one of the strategies for translating extralinguistic culture-bound references (ECRs) in subtitling. Pedersen states that by using this strategy, the translator intervenes to give guidance to the target culture audience. An example is given by Pedersen in which the mere proper name “Ian Botham” has been rendered as “Cricketspelaren Ian Botham” (which literally means the cricket player Ian Botham) in Swedish since “Botham” would be virtually unknown to most Swedes, so by adding “cricketspelaren” (the cricket player), the Swedish subtitler has rendered this ECR in a way that has made it more accessible to the Swedish audience. Nevertheless, Pedersen adds that this strategy is space consuming and could be regarded as patronizing.

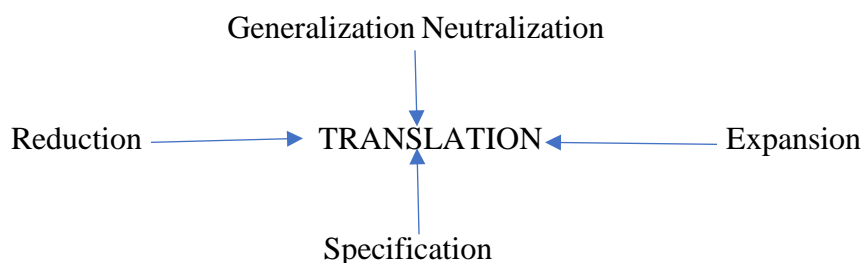
In her paper “Evidence of Explicitation in Subtitling: Towards a Categorisation”, Perego (2003) demonstrates that explicitation, which is very similar to expansion, exists in subtitling. Based on why and when explicitation occurs, and in line with Klaudy’s working method, which stands at the basis of her methodology, Perego identifies three main types of explicitation in subtitling which are cultural, channel-based and reduction-based explicitations. According to Perego, cultural explicitation is triggered by a cultural gap between the source culture and target culture, and it is extra-linguistic in nature. The term channel-based explicitation is used for those instances of explicitation determined by the impact of shifts from one semiotic channel to another, especially those cases elicited by a shift from the visual non-verbal channel or from the auditive non-verbal channel to the visual verbal channel, namely the written language in the form of subtitles. Finally, reduction-based explicitation is prompted by the need to reduce the ST in order

to make it fit into each subtitle-block, thus making it readable in a short span of time.

In this study, however, expansion is used based on the definition given by Lomheim (1999). In order to detect the cases of expansion in Persian subtitles of the English films under investigation, a model of subtitling strategies proposed by Sylfest Lomheim (1999) was used. Lomheim's model includes six strategies used by subtitlers in the process of subtitling, which can be presented as in Fig. 1 below:

Figure 1

Lomheim's Model of Subtitling Strategies



Lomheim (1999) provides a definition for each of these strategies; however, only expansion is dealt with here since the other strategies are not the focus of this study. According to Lomheim (1999), equivalent translation occurs when the translator attempts to reproduce the sense of the original in full. Such a definition calls into question the previous definitions of expansion proposed by other scholars such as Gottlieb (1992). For example, Lomheim states that the translation of the following French dialog in Norwegian is not a case of expansion.

| French Dialog | Norwegian Subtitle |
|---|--|
| <i>Au Palais Bourbon on discute encore cette affaire.</i> | <i>I palais Bourbon, den franske nasjonalforsamlinga, diskutere dei framleis denne saka.</i> |
| Literal Translation | Literal Translation |
| <i>In In the palace Bourbon, they are discussing this</i> | <i>In the palace Bourbon, the French matter. national assembly, they are discussing this matter.</i> |

Lomheim (1999) explains that the above subtitle is not an example of expansion since it is essential for the Norwegian translation to be explicit in order to reproduce what is self-evident to a French reader (the fact that the Palais Bourbon is home to the national assembly). According to Lomheim, in such cases, the translator is forced to carry some obligatory transformations in order to achieve equivalence. Thus, we cannot consider them as expansion. In his model, expansion represents an alternative solution to a possible (more) equivalent translation. In other words, it is an optional transformation resulting in a solution that the subtitler would probably not have chosen if equivalence was the guiding principle. Lomheim (1999) asserts that expansion occurs when “the subtitler neither reduces nor translates the units of content, but increases the volume by adding new units” (205), and that we can consider a strategy to be expansion only when a shorter translation, still fully equivalent in context, would have been possible.

Problem

AVT is a form of constrained translation. Subtitling, however, is more constrained than the other forms of AVT. In dubbing, (and, to some extent, also in voice-over) restrictions on the form of the target text (TT) stem mostly from the fact that equivalents have to match the visual component, that is the image, so what the audience hear is more or less consistent with what they see (Bogucki 2004). Subtitling, by contrast, involves transferring a spoken text in the SL into a written text in the target language. This transfer causes certain constraints. Gottlieb (1992) speaks of formal and textual constraints on subtitling. Formal constraints are imposed on the subtitles by the visual context of the film. The visual context dictates that the verbal component should be limited to what is not shown on screen in order to minimize redundancy. Subtitles must also comply to a set of textual constraints including space constraints (a maximum of two lines with not more than 35 characters in each line) and time constraints. The duration of a subtitle depends on the quality and complexity of the text, the speed of the dialog, the average viewer's reading speed (150 to 180 words per minute), and the necessary intervals between subtitles (Gottlieb 1992). Furthermore, film viewers go to theaters or sit in front of TVs to watch and enjoy films, not to read subtitles. In other words, they may be able to read one or two lines of subtitles very fast, but miss the film itself.

These factors narrow down the range of possible equivalents and translation strategies available to the subtitler. In other words, the aforementioned factors dictate that subtitles should be as

concise as possible, and must be part of the film and their integration with the original must be such that they become invisible. Thus, subtitlers must be very careful about the application of strategies that lead to the lengthening of the TT. One such strategy is expansion, which occurs when the volume of translation is increased by adding new units of meaning to the content of the original (Lomheim 1999). Taking these factors into account, subtitlers should try to use expansion only when they have to do so since inappropriate use of this strategy only results in relatively long subtitles, which make it difficult for viewers to keep pace with them.

Based on the above, the present study aimed at investigating the application of expansion in Persian subtitles of English films in order to investigate the appropriateness or inappropriateness of the employment of the different types of this strategy in the context of subtitling. More precisely, the study sought answers to the following research questions:

RQ1- What are the different types of expansions used in the Persian subtitles of English films?

RQ2- Is the employment of each type of expansion appropriate or necessary?

Method

The present research is a descriptive study in which the research questions were answered through comparing and contrasting the source and the target texts. To achieve the goals of the study, the following materials have been used.

Materials

The materials of the study consist of three English films with Persian subtitles. These films, which are all available on the market, are titled “*The Net*” (1995), “*Contact*” (1997), and “*Mission Impossible 2*” (2000). The rationale behind choosing these films is that the quality of their Persian subtitles is excellent, i.e. there are very few translation mistakes in them compared to other English films with Persian subtitles.

Procedures

The following procedures were used to answer the research questions. The selected films were watched and the Persian subtitles in which expansion had been employed were identified and extracted along with their corresponding English dialogs. The extracted Persian subtitles were

categorized based on the reason that caused expansion in each case. The appropriateness or inappropriateness of using each type of expansion in subtitles was investigated considering the limitations and potentials of subtitling. A shorter equivalent not containing expansion was proposed for most of the original English dialogs to show that the meaning can be fully conveyed in most cases without resorting to expansion. Finally, the subtitles and the proposed translations were compared in terms of lexical density by calculating the number of characters.

Results and Discussion

Based on the data collected, the following types of expansion could be identified in the Persian subtitles of English films. They are presented in Table 1 below in order of their frequency.

Table 1

Types of Expansion Identified in English Subtitles

| Type of Expansion | Frequency | Percentage |
|--|-----------|------------|
| Expansions caused by explicitation of co-textual information | 15 | 29.45% |
| Expansions caused by Paraphrasing | 13 | 25.4% |
| Expansions caused by subtitlers' preferences | 10 | 19.6% |
| Expansions caused by explicitation of visual Information | 7 | 13.75% |
| Expansions caused by Mistranslation | 3 | 5.9% |
| Expansions caused by explicitation of contextual information | 3 | 5.9% |

Expansions Caused by Explicitation

Séguinot (1988) defines explicitation as “additions in a translated text which cannot be explained by structural, stylistic, or rhetorical differences between the two languages” (108). The analysis carried out by the researcher in this study indicated that explicitation is the main reason bringing about expansion. In fact, it was revealed that the following three kinds of explicitation can cause the subtitles to become expanded.

Expansions Caused by Explicitation of Visual Information

Gottlieb (1997) distinguishes between four semiotic channels in polysemiotic texts such as films or TV programs: the non-verbal visual channel (i.e. the picture), the non-verbal audio channels (e.g. music and sound effects), the verbal audio channel (i.e. the dialog) and the verbal visual channels (signs and captions), all of which carry semiotic information. In this study, explicitation of visual information refers to making explicit in the subtitles information that is present only in the non-verbal visual channel (i.e. the picture) of the film. Expansions caused by explicitation of visual information accounted for 13.75% of all cases of expansions identified in this study. The following is just one example of this type of expansion from *Mission Impossible 2*:

| <i>English Dialog</i> | <i>Persian Subtitle & English Transcription</i> |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| | [آمبروز به ایتن] زود باش. از اون چاقو |
| <i>[Ambrose to Ethan] Go ahead.</i> | استفاده کن مانند. |
| <i>Use that, Hunt.</i> | <i>[Ambrose to Ethan] Go ahead.</i> |
| | <i>Use that knife, Hunt.</i> |



In this translation, the pronoun “*that*” has been rendered by the expanded equivalent “اون چاقو” (that knife). Here, the reference of the English pronoun has been made explicit in the Persian subtitles. This dialog is uttered by Ambrose in a scene in which Ethan is holding a knife and moving toward him in a belligerent manner; thus, the subtitler has made the reference of this pronoun explicit by the aid of the visual channel of the film. Therefore, explicitation of visual information is what has resulted in the expansion of this dialog. However, this translation and the other cases in which explicitation of visual information resulted in the expansion of subtitles can be made shorter if we simply translate the dialog, and allow the viewers to receive part of the

information from the visual channel of the film available on the screen. In other words, there is no need to make explicit what the viewers can see on the screen. As a result, shorter translations can be proposed for all the cases in which explicitation of visual information resulted in the expansion of subtitles. Here, a new translation not containing expansion is proposed for the above case, and the subtitle and the proposed translation are compared in terms of lexical density by calculating the number of characters using Microsoft Word 2007.

| Number of Characters Persian Subtitle (1) and (with spaces) | Proposed Translation (2) |
|--|---|
| 37 | (^۱) [آمروز] زود باش. از اون چاقو استفاده کن مانت. <i>ahead. Use that knife, Hunt.</i> [Ambrose to Ethan] Go |
| 32 | (^۲) [آمروز] زود باش. از اون استفاده کن مانت. <i>Go ahead. Use that, Hunt.</i> [Ambrose to Ethan] |

Expansion Caused by Explicitation of Co-textual Information

According to Kramsch (1998), co-text refers to the linguistic environment in which a word is used within a text. Co-text is the very specific text surrounding the particular word, phrase, sentence, paragraph, etc, under discussion. Following this definition, explicitation of co-textual information in this study refers to making explicit in subtitles information that is implicit in the co-text or the immediate linguistic environment of the original dialog. Expansions caused by explicitation of co-textual information accounted for 29.45% of all cases of expansions identified in this study. The following is just one example of this type of expansion from *The Net*:

| English Dialog | Persian Subtitle & English Transcription |
|---|---|
| [Operator] Cathedral Software. Who may I connect you with? | [اپراتور] خدمات نرم افزاری کاتیدرال. می خواهید شما رو به چه کسی وصل کنم؟ |
| [Angela] Head of Security Systems. Tell them that it's Angela Bennett. | [آنجلا] به رئیس سیستم حفاظتی وصل کنید. بگید که من آنجلا بنت هستم. |
| | [Angela] Connect with Head of Security Systems. Tell them that it's |

Angela Bennett.

In this example, the English noun phrase “*Head of Security Systems*” has been rendered by the Persian sentence “حفاظتی وصل کنید به رئیس سیستم” (connect with Head of Security Systems), which is an expanded equivalent. Here, the verb “وصل کنید” (connect), omitted from the original dialog due to an ellipsis, has been made explicit in the subtitle. Again, the subtitler has added this verb by deducing it from the previous sentence (*Who may I connect you with?*) or more precisely the co-text.

However, we should not forget that the viewers are also aware of the co-text and possess the ability to infer some additional information from it because they read and follow the subtitles. As a result, it is not necessary to expand the subtitles by adding such information that can be inferred from the co-text. Thus, shorter translations can be proposed for all the cases in which explicitation of co-textual information resulted in the expansion of subtitles. Here, a new translation not containing expansion is proposed for the above case, and the subtitle and the proposed translation are compared in terms of lexical density.

| Number of Characters (with spaces) | Persian Subtitle (1) and Proposed Translation (2) |
|------------------------------------|--|
| 72 | (۱) [آنجا] به رئیس سیستم حفاظتی وصل کنید. بگید که من آنجا بنت هستم. |
| | <i>[Angela] Connect with Head of Security Systems.</i> |
| | <i>Tell them that it's Angela Bennett.</i> |
| 48 | (۲) [آنجا] به رئیس سیستم حفاظتی. بگید که من آنجا بنت هستم. <i>them that.</i> |
| | <i>[Angela] Head of Security Systems. Tell</i> |
| | <i>it's Angela Bennett.</i> |

Expansions Caused by Explicitation of Contextual Information

Context or context of situation refers to the immediate physical, temporal, spatial or social

environment in which verbal exchanges take place (Kramsch 1998). Thus, context has a more general definition compared to co-text. In this study, explicitation of contextual information refers to making explicit in the subtitles information that is implicit in the context of the film. Expansions caused by explicitation of contextual information accounted for 5.9 % of all cases of expansion identified in this study. The following from *Mission Impossible 2* is just one example of this type of expansion:

| English Dialog | Persian Subtitle & English Transcription |
|--|---|
| y] <i>Get me treated and let's go back to work.</i> | [مک کلوی] منو درمان کن و بذار برگردیم سر کار. |
| [Nekhovich] <i>I think it's a little late for that. Do give my regards to Grdski if you see him.</i> | [نکوویچ] من فکر می کنم برای این کار کمی دیر باشه. در اون دنیا سلام منو به گرادسکی برسون اگه اونو دیدی. |
| | <i>I think it's a little late for that. Do give my regards to Grdski in the other world if you see him.</i> |

The above translation has been expanded due to the addition of the Persian prepositional phrase “در اون دنیا” (in the other world). The source of this addition will not be made clear unless we know that Grdski, who is a friend of Nekhovich, has already died because McCloy infected him with a deadly virus named Chimera. At the time when this dialog is uttered, McCloy has also been infected with Chimera, and is about to die. The addition of the Persian prepositional phrase “در اون دنیا” (in the other world) to the subtitles is due to the fact that the subtitler knows that Grdski has died. Thus, when Nekhovich tells MacCloy to give his regards to Grdski (*Do give my regards to Grdski if you see him*), he's undoubtedly talking about the other world. That is to say, the subtitler's awareness of the context of situation has made him add this part to the subtitles. Therefore, explicitation of contextual information is the reason behind the expansion of the subtitles in this case.

Expansion caused by explicitation of contextual information seems to be an efficient type of expansion as the information implied by the context is not as immediately accessible to viewers as

the information presented by the co-text or the visual channel of the film, i.e. the screen. That is to say, the viewers may not be able to readily infer such information; therefore, it seems that this kind of expansion helps them get a better understanding of the dialogs uttered.

Expansions Caused by Mistranslation

According to Lung (1998), mistranslation refers to any distortion of meaning as a result of misunderstanding the text, or a conscious decision to skip translating at all. Mistranslation resulted in 5.9 % of all cases of expansion identified in this study. The following is an example of this type of expansion from *The Net*:

| English Dialog | Persian Subtitle & English Transcription |
|-------------------------------------|--|
| [Russ] <i>Angela, Dale's dead.</i> | [راس] آنجلا، دیل فوت کرده. هواپیمای اون |
| <i>His plane crashed last night</i> | خارج از لس آنجلس تصادف کرده و نابود شده. |
| <i>outside L.A.</i> | [Russ] <i>Angela, Dale's dead. His plane had an accident and was destroyed last night outside L.A.</i> |

In this translation, the English verb “*crash*” has been rendered by the expanded Persian equivalent “تصادف کرده و نابود شده” (had an accident and was destroyed), which includes two Persian verbs none of which represents an accurate meaning of “*crash*” in this context. In other words, the subtitler has mistranslated this verb as there is a simple equivalent for the verb “*crash*” in Persian when it is collocated with the noun “plane”, and that is “سقوط کردن”. Consequently, the expansion of the Persian equivalent is due to mistranslation in this case. Mistranslation or incorrect translation does not always lead to an increase of the volume of the text, which is a necessary characteristic of expansion according to Lomheim (1999). In some cases, however, it can bring about expansion by adding to the volume of the subtitle. In these cases, subtitles become shorter if correct equivalents are formulated for the dialogs. Below, a new translation not containing expansion is proposed for the above case, and the subtitle and the proposed translation are compared in terms lexical density.

| Number of Characters (with spaces) | Persian Subtitle (1) and Proposed Translation (2) |
|---------------------------------------|--|
| 74 | <p>(۱) [راس] آنجلا، دیل فوت کرده. هواپیمای اون خارج از لس آنجلس تصادف کرده و نابود شده.</p> <p>[Russ] Angela, Dale's dead. His plane had an accident and was destroyed last night outside L.A.</p> |
| 61 | <p>(۲) [راس] آنجلا، دیل فوت کرده. هواپیمای اون خارج از لس آنجلس سقوط کرده.</p> <p>۱, Dale's dead. His plane crashed lastnight outside L.A.</p> |

Expansions Caused by Paraphrasing

Paraphrasing refers to the loose rewording or translating in one's own words (Robinson, 1998). It is a strategy in which the meaning of the original dialog is paraphrased into a TL equivalent, which is not an exact rendering of the original. In this study, a large number of expansions, i.e. 25.4 %, are the result of paraphrasing. The following is an example of this type of expansion from *The Net*:

| English Dialog | Persian Subtitle & English Transcription |
|--|--|
| <p>[Ethan] Isn't there any way we can speed this up?</p> | <p>[ایتن] هیچ راهی وجود نداره که بتونیم سرعتش رو بیشتر کنیم؟</p> |
| <p>[Luther] With what?</p> <p>This is the only computer that'll do this.</p> | <p>[لوتر] درباره چی صحبت می کنی؟ این تنها کامپیوتریه که می تونه این کارو انجام بده.</p> <p>[Luther] What are you talking about? This is the only computer that'll do this.</p> |

In this case, the question “*with what?*” has been rendered in Persian as “درباره چی صحبت می کنی؟” (What are you talking about?) which is an expanded translation. Being correct in terms of meaning, this equivalent is a paraphrase of the original question. Thus, paraphrasing is what leads

to the expansion of the translation.

Paraphrasing is a strategy that may be quite useful in various forms of translation such as poetry translation; however, in a constrained form of translation like subtitling in which space and time constraints are highly critical, it may not be a suitable procedure provided that it leads to the expansion of subtitles. In other words, if paraphrasing results in long subtitles, it will be more appropriate to resort to a direct translation. On account of this argument, shorter subtitles can be proposed for those cases of expansions, which are the result of paraphrasing if they are directly translated and not paraphrased. Here, a new translation not containing expansion is proposed for the above-mentioned case, and the subtitle and the proposed translation are compared in terms of lexical density.

| Number of Characters (with spaces) | Persian Subtitle (1) and Proposed Translation (2) |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 73 | (¹) [لوتر] درباره چی صحبت می کنی؟ این تنها کامپیوتریه که می تونه این کارو انجام بده. <i>her] What are you talking about? This is the only computer that'll do this.</i> |
| 50 | (¹) [لوتر] با چی؟ این تنها کامپیوتریه که می تونه این کارو انجام بده. <i>With what? This is the only</i> <i>[Luther]</i> <i>computer that'll do this.</i> |

Expansions Caused by Subtitled's Preferences

Expansions caused by subtitle preferences refer to those expansions that have not been caused by explicitation, mistranslation or paraphrasing, but rather have been caused by personal preferences and decisions of subtitlers. This kind of expansion accounts for 19.6 % of all cases of expansion identified in this study. The following from *Mission Impossible 2* is an example of this type:

| English Dialog | Persian Subtitle & English Transcription |
|---|--|
| <i>[Police officer] She's wanted for narcotics.</i> | [افسر پلیس] اون به خاطر مواد مخدر تحت تعقیبه. ما اونو دستگیرش می کنیم و می یاریمش اونجا. |

We're gonna bring her in. [Police officer] She's wanted for narcotics. We're gonna arrest her and bring her in.

In this example, the verb phrase “*bring her in*” has been translated as “می کنیم و می یاریمش اونجا” (arrest her and bring her in). As a matter of fact, a single English verb has been rendered by two Persian verbs, both of which can be considered as equivalents of the English verb in this particular context. Here, expansion is the consequence of the subtitler's decision to place more emphasis on the verb.

Although the addition of a few words to the subtitles as a result of subtitlers' decisions and preferences might not seem very important, but these additions, which lead to the expansion of subtitles, seem to be redundant – especially in the context of subtitling where conciseness is an important criterion (Gottlieb 2001) – owing to the fact that the meaning of the original dialogs can be adequately conveyed without them. In the following part, a new translation not containing expansion is proposed for the above case, and the subtitle and the proposed translation are compared in terms of lexical density.

| Number of Characters (with spaces) | Persian Subtitle (1) and Proposed Translation (2) |
|------------------------------------|---|
| 76 | <p>(۱) [افسر پلیس] اون به خاطر مواد مخدر تحت تعقیبه. ما اونو دستگیرش می کنیم و می یاریمش اونجا.</p> <p><i>[Police officer] She's wanted for narcotics. We're gonna arrest her and bring her in.</i></p> |
| 59 | <p>(۲) [افسر پلیس] اون به خاطر مواد مخدر تحت تعقیبه. ما اونو می یاریمش اونجا.</p> <p><i>[police officer] She's wanted for narcotics. We're gonna bring her in.</i></p> |

Conclusions

Analysis and discussion of the data collected in this study entail the a few conclusions. First, a

number of reasons gave rise to the expansion of subtitles in the films under investigation. These reasons range from explicitation (explicitation of visual, co-textual and contextual information), mistranslation and paraphrasing to subtitlers' preferences. Further, the application of expansion was not justified and appropriate in most cases since correct and shorter equivalents which were equally capable of conveying the intended meaning could be posited for the original dialogs. In fact, most of expansions detected in this study were due to subtitlers' lack of adequate attention to two things. First is the nature of subtitling as a form of condensed translation in which brevity is of significant importance. Second is the fact that subtitling is an additive or complementary kind of translation. In other words, subtitles are just one channel of information in a polysemiotic text like a film which includes other semiotic channels such as picture, music and sound effects, all of which carry information. Thus, subtitlers should not include everything in the subtitles, and should let viewers receive part of the information from other channels.

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Translation of English Collocations into Persian: Sport News Headlines in Focus



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Abstract

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Keywords:

Collocation,
Headline,
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Strategies, Sports
News

This study was an attempt to find out which strategies are used in the translation of collocations in sport news headlines and making decisions regarding the extent of English collocations that are preserved in the Persian translations. For this purpose, one hundred collocations were selected from sport news headlines and were compared to their Persian translations. They were investigated based on Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) Model. The results showed that “Equivalence” was used more than other strategies, while the next most frequently-used strategies were “Borrowing”, “Literal translation” and “Transposition”. The least frequently-used strategy was “Modulation”. “Calque” and “Adaptation” were not used by the translators. Also, most of the collocations were preserved in the Persian translations.

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Introduction

Traditionally, people try to communicate with each other which is done in different ways. Nowadays, communication tools are too expanded, which makes it possible to communicate with people around the world. In the written news, people look for intended news or read some news with interesting headlines. So, headline has an important role, because it guides persons to find intended news or encourages people to read the news in details. Based on the headline, people decide to read an article or not. According to Boduch (1999) interesting headlines are attractive for people, so a headline has an important role in news. Great headlines create excitement, anticipation, and enthusiasm for more. A single headline can make multi-million dollar or causes to failure of a business. If, on the other hand, your headline fails to attract and interest an audience, not only will your promotion falter, but all of the catalogue, web site, or article, will be rendered useless. Being informed about the worldwide news is not possible without translation, because people cannot learn all languages and translators transfer the news to the target languages. Translation plays an important role in the human communications.

Collocations are important parts of speech which are difficult to translate. Collocations of specialized text are technical which are understood only by skillful translators. Inaccurate translation of the collocation can lead to misunderstanding which is problematic in the headline, because there are not any other details and the reader cannot get concept of the text and rely on headline. There are many studies about translation and learning of collocations. They were studied in religious texts, drama texts and football reports, but there was not any research about translation of collocations in sport news headlines. Then the researcher aimed to study translation of English collocations in sport news headlines which is for the first time, and investigated the strategies used in the translation of sport collocations.

Objectives of the Study

Translation of collocations is considered as an important and crucial part in target language, because knowing meaning of them which are combined words is not easy as single words. Sport collocations are technical words which are not understood easily, so inaccurate translation of them causes misunderstanding, especially in headlines which have no more details.

Only few studies have been done on translation of collocations in sports news. The present study aimed at investigating strategies used in translation of sport collocation in news headline and adaptation of them to the Persian language. The objective of the study is twofold: the first objective is the study of English collocation preservation in Persian translations, and the second objective is the investigation of strategies used for the translation of collocations of sport news headlines. These strategies will be useful for translators, students of translation, and TV announcers. Based on these objectives, the following research questions were addressed:

RQ1. To what extent are English collocations preserved in the Persian translations of sport news headlines?

Q2. Which translation strategies are most frequently-used for rendering English collocations into Persian in sport news headlines?

Background of the Study

A collocation is a composite unit which permits the substitutability of items for at least one of its constituent elements. Cowie (1981) uses the term composite unit to subsume both collocation and idioms. Collocations are a fascinating linguistic phenomenon in language in general and in translation in particular. They are usually used spontaneously in people's speech as unmarked collocations, but marked ones, which have a creative element, are used generously in literary texts (Cowie, 1981). Collocations represent a key constituent of the lexicon of natural language. They are a very interesting and important phenomenon in language, whose importance is perhaps farther-reaching than previously thought. Recent studies on translation have demonstrated that collocations are very important lexical constituents of texts and thus in translation (Sughair, 2007). According to Manning and Hinrich Schutze (1999), including of two or more words which do not occur by chance is collocation. Collocations play an important role in natural language generation, computational lexicography, parsing, and corpus linguistic research. According to Manning and Hinrich Schutze (1999) there are three criteria which most collocations satisfy:

- Non-compositionality means that the meaning of the whole collocation is more than a sum of meanings of the words forming it.

- Non-substitutability means that we cannot substitute a word in a collocation with another word having similar or even same meaning.

- Non-modifiability means that we cannot freely modify the collocation with additional lexical material or put the collocation through some grammatical transformations. This criterion is especially true for idioms.

The term collocation has been generally used to refer to a phenomenon in which certain words have the tendency to co-occur regularly within a language. Hence, the word lean can exclusively collocate with meat, while the word heavy has rain, meal, traffic, and smoker as possible collocates (Bahumaid, 2006). The correct choice of a collocate across two languages should also be influenced by register or genre (Baker, 1992, P. 52); collocations that are valid in one area of discourse may not be so in another.

A core phenomenon in the semantics-syntax interface is the mapping between meanings and lexemes let us take a speech production perspective for a moment and call this lexicalization. The lexicalization of one meaning is usually independent of that of other meanings in the same sentence, but in the case of collocations, one lexicalization interferes with another. A collocation is a semi-idiomatic expression where the choice of one lexeme, called the base, is free, but the choice of another lexeme, called the collocate, is context-sensitive and is constrained by the choice made for the base. The concept of collocation is only fully understood when it is considered in the perspective of speech production rather than interpretation because there are collocations that are semantically transparent, yet the lexicalization of their collocation is to a certain extent arbitrary” (Lareau, Dras, Borschinger and Turpin, 2012).

According to Venuti (2004, pp. 111-114), “during the 1950s, translation theory was dominated by the fundamental issue of translatability and the emphasis was on linguistic analysis. Vinay and Darbelnet’s work makes an influential contribution to the field of translation studies and also played a major role in the training of translators.” “Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) distinguish between direct and oblique translation strategies and further subdivide these two strategies into seven procedures. In the introduction to their study, the two authors point out that their intention with the book is not to provide a list of recipes whose application automatically leads to a mechanism for translation (Vinay and Darbelnet, 1995, p. 10), but to assist translators with strategies to translate a complex text.” “Equivalence-orientated translation is seen by Vinay and

Darbelenet as procedures which replicate the same situation as in the original, whilst using completely different wording (1995, p. 342). Their aim was to be as true to the meaning of the original as much as possible and ensure that the text was translated to its full equivalence and for this, they used the term servitude. The translator is obliged to translate the text as closely to the original ST as possible.”

According to Minnaar (2012), Vinay and Darbelent proposed seven procedures for translation which are subcategories of two basic strategies.

Table 1

Procedures of collocations translation

| | |
|--|---------------------|
| Direct procedures | Literal translation |
| | Borrowing |
| | Calque |
| Oblique or indirect translation procedures | Transposition |
| | Modulation |
| | Equivalence |
| | Adaptation |

Translation of Headlines

According to Žvirblytė and Petronienė (2012) “translation is the way to communicate internationally and still maintain cultural and linguistic identity. Most of online news articles are written in English, but they should be adapted these products (texts) to the target cultures, which are called target markets of international business. Therefore, demand of news is increasing every day around the world, so they should be translated to make news articles available to the greater audience. Thus, translation of news articles and headlines is one of the important areas of media translation. Lack of context is one of the difficulties in headline translation, while headlines present only idea of articles and there is no additional information. Some other problems could be seen in the headline translation is the grammatical errors which are difficult to understand for the translators who are native speakers of the target language.” According to Bielsa et al., (2009) global media events are provided for local audiences by translation in media. As Minnar (2012)

explained every language has special cultural aspects, sometimes the source language (SL) messages are interpreted in the target language (TL) faulty.

According to Rohani and Esmaeili (2010), besides the vocabulary, understanding the style and genre of headlines are too important in reading or translating newspaper headlines, especially in sports headlines. As Reah (1998) demonstrated, the language of headlines is special and has its own lexical, syntactic, and rhetorical features. Foreign learners of English language face with a great challenge for reading newspaper. “With the need for a good product, both the journalist and the translator should work on the issue; the journalist should be responsible for the text to correspond to the “market” and attract the highest number of readers, while the translator should be responsible for the translated text to correspond both the original text and the TL the best. Yet, as urgency is one of many requirements for news articles, there is often a problem of quality of translation work and many inaccuracies might appear” (Žvirblytė and Petronienė, 2012).

Methodology

Materials

The materials used for the purposes of the current study included one hundred collocations which were extracted from sport news headlines in English newspapers, such as *Fédération Internationale de Football Association* (FIFA), *International Federation of Associated Wrestling Styles* (FILA), and *Fédération Internationale de Volleyball* (FIVB) news site and other news sites such as *British Broadcasting Corporation* (BBC) and *Press TV*. These headlines were compared to their Persian translations in Iranian newspapers, sport federations and news sites in Persian. The translations were selected for each sentence because they were published in the same date and express the same concepts. Some of them were chosen from one site or newspaper, which were written in Persian and English. It is to be noted that *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2007) and *Persian Selected Dictionary* (2005) were used for to identify the collocations' part of speech in order to recognize the types of collocations.

Model of the Study

The data of this study were examined based on translation strategies proposed by Vinay and Darbelent's (1995). The focus was on “Direct” and “Oblique” translations with their subcategories:

Direct translation (“Borrowing”, “Calque”, and “Literal translation”), and Oblique translation (“Transposition”, “Modulation”, “Equivalence”, and “Adaptation”).

Procedures

The present study was a descriptive one in which collocations in English news headlines were compared to their Persian translations based on Vinay and Darbelent’s (1995) Model. The following steps were taken: first, the collocations were extracted from English newspapers, FIFA, FILA, FIVB news sites and other news sites; second, they were compared to their translations in Iranian newspapers, sport federations and news sites in Persian by the researcher. Third, some of the obtained data were tabulated. Finally, the percentage and frequency of occurrence of each strategy were calculated and compared with those of other strategies to see which strategy was used more frequently by Persian translators. The obtained results are presented below in the form of tables and charts.

Analysis of Data

As mentioned above, 100 collocations were extracted from different English newspapers and news sites. Then, they were compared to their Persian translations in Iranian newspapers and news sites by the researcher to find out which strategies were used to translate the collocations. The data were studied based on translation strategies for translation of collocations using Vinay and Darbelnet (1995). The percentage and frequency of each strategy used were measured and shown in the charts. Also, accurate and inaccurate translations were illustrated in a table to reveal to what extent English collocations are preserved in Persian translation of sport news headlines.

Table 2

Frequency of strategies applied for translating collocations in sport news headlines

| Strategy | Frequency |
|---------------|-----------|
| Borrowing | 25 |
| Calque | 0 |
| Literal | 24 |
| Transposition | 24 |

| | |
|-------------|----|
| Modulation | 5 |
| Equivalence | 45 |
| Adaptation | 0 |

The above table shows the frequency of translation strategies in the translation of collocations in sport news headlines based on Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) Model. It shows that none of the translators have used "Calque" and "Adaptation". And the most frequently-applied strategy is "Equivalence" (45 times). The next frequently-applied strategy is "Borrowing" (25 times). "Literal" and "Transposition" strategies are used 24 times. "Modulation" is used 5 times.

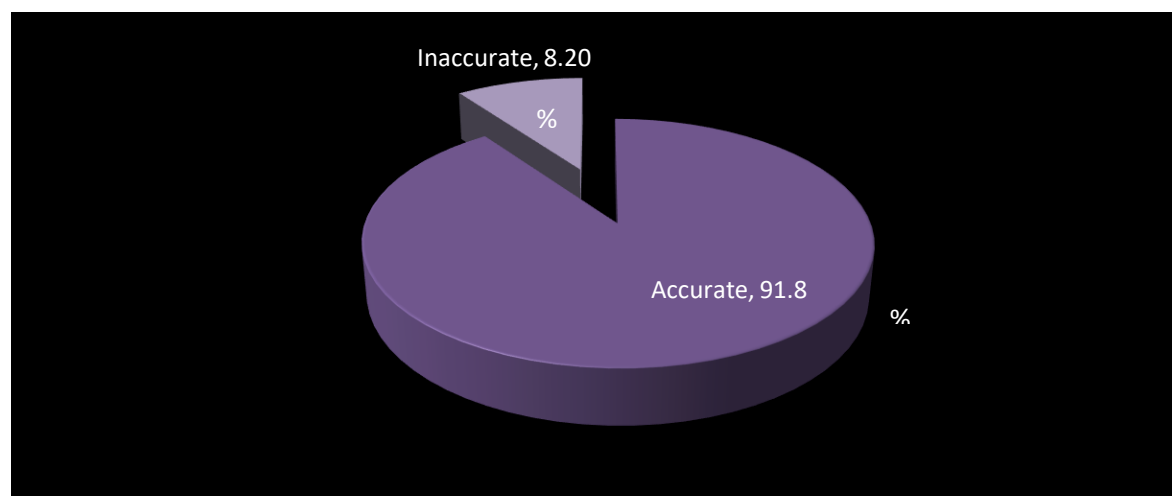
Table 3

Frequency and percentage of the applies strategies

| Strategy | Frequency | Percentage |
|----------|-----------|------------|
| Direct | 49 | 36.56% |
| Oblique | 74 | 55.23% |
| None | 11 | 8.21% |

As it is shown in the above table, subcategories of "Direct Translation" were used 36.56 %, 49 times, and subcategories of "Oblique translation" were used 55.23%, 74 times. It is seen that only 8.21% of translation of collocations were ignored by the translators.

Some translators eliminated collocations in the translation of sport news headlines. The researcher considered these as inaccurate translations and all of translations which were done by translation strategies of collocation were considered as accurate translation. The following figure shows the comparison between accurate and inaccurate translations.

Figure 1*Comparison between accurate and inaccurate translation*

As the above figure shows, 91.8% of the English collocations of sport news headlines that were translated into Persian were considered as accurate translation. Only 8.20% of collocations were not translated, which are considered as inaccurate translation.

Results

This study was an investigation into the Persian translation of English collocations in the sport news headlines. The obtained results made it clear that most of the translators were faithful and, thus, translated the collocations using specific translation strategies proposed for collocations, i.e. they transferred the collocations into the Persian language faithfully. However, some of them, 8.20%, ignored the collocations and only transferred the concept of the headlines. Such translations were considered as inaccurate translations in this study. Also, the translators used more than one strategy for the translation of one single collocation. Furthermore, because the names of sports are not different in English and Persian, using “*Borrowing*” was suitable for their translation. Actually, the translators used *to “Borrow” only* for the names of sports and certain words in sports. “*Borrowing*”, “*Literal Translation*” in “*Direct Translation*” and “*Equivalence*” in “*Oblique Translation*” were used more than any other strategies in the translation of English collocations in sport news headlines. As it was mentioned above, “*Borrowing*” was used only for the names of sports, so the frequency of this strategy was less than “*Equivalence*”. Based on the results, it was revealed that the translators used “*Oblique*” more than any other strategies proposed by Vinay and

Darbelent (1995) for translation of collocations. The above tables showed that “Oblique” translation was used more than “Direct Translation” as a result of using “*Equivalence*”.

Discussion and Concluding Remarks

According to Vinay and Darbelent’s (1995), the best translation for collocations is to use the combination of some strategies. It does not mean using one strategy is not adequate, but it implies that using hybrid strategies is much better. Based on the results of the current study, mentioned above, most of the translators have used more than one strategy for the translation of one single collocation. In fact, all of the translators who have used Vinay and Darbelent (1995) model (i.e. have used either one or more strategies) have faithfully preserved the English collocations in the Persian translations of sport news headlines. A comparison of accurate and inaccurate translations makes it clear that 91.8% of Persian translations of English collocations were accurate in terms of transferring the meaning in the Persian language.

Based on the model of the study, there were seven subcategories for the translations of collocations. The collected data were analyzed to identify which strategies and which strategy subcategories were used in the translation of collocations in sport news headlines. The obtained results revealed that *Equivalence* was the most frequently-used strategy (45 times). It was seen that the names of all English sports were transferred to Persian directly, i.e. the strategy was *Borrowing* (25 times). *Literal Translation* and *Transposition* were used the same number of times (24 times). *Modulation* was used 5 times. Based on the tables of the previous section, *Calque* which is a subcategory of *Direct Translation* was used by none of the translators. This strategy was not useful in sport texts, so it was not used by the translators. As the data was not related to any cultural situations, *Adaptation*, which is a subcategory of *Oblique Translation*, was not used by any translator.

As a final word, the findings of this study indicated which strategies were suitable for the translation of collocations. This has implication for the translators who seek to use appropriate strategies for translating collocations in the sport texts. Also, based on the findings of this study, translators of sport news headlines get informed that their job is very sensitive in that they should transfer both the meaning and style of headlines into Persian faithfully and accurately. The

concluding remark is that it is better for such translators to use a combination of strategies for translating the collocations.

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Appendix

Examples of translation strategies used for translation of collocations

| | Headline | Translation | Kind of Collocation | Strategy | Accurate/In accurate |
|---|---|---|---------------------|---|----------------------|
| 1 | Iranian women's futsal team <u>wins silver</u> at Asian Indoor Games | بازی های داخل سالن آسیا / فوتسال بانوان ایران <u>نقره ای شدند</u> ؛ ژاپن قهرمان | Verb+ Noun | Oblique: Equivalence | Accurate |
| 2 | Germany defeats Argentina in <u>extra time</u> | آلمان با شکست دادن آرژانتین در وقت اضافه قهرمان جام جهانی ۲۰۱۴ شد | Adjective+ Noun | Direct: Literal | Accurate |
| 3 | Williams <u>moves serenely</u> into Cincinnati semis | <u>صعود دشوار</u> سرنا و ایوانوویچ به فینال سین سیناتی | Verb+ Adverb | Oblique: Transposition, Equivalence | Accurate |
| 4 | Brazil beat Chile 3-2 on penalties to reach the <u>World Cup</u> quarter-finals | برزیل در ضربات پنالتی شیلی را شکست داد و به جمع ۸ تیم برتر جام جهانی صعود کرد | Sport Collocation | Direct: literal Oblique: Transposition | Accurate |
| 5 | New dad Roger Federer loses first match back | راجر فدرر با به دنیا آمدن فرزندانش تورنمنت را نیمه کاره رها کرد | Noun+ Noun | Oblique: Transposition, Equivalence | Accurate |

| | | | | | |
|----|--|---|----------------------|---|----------|
| | in Rome after <u>birth of boys</u> | | | | |
| 6 | Bayern Munich win <u>German Cup</u> <u>opener</u> | صعود قاطعانه بایرن مونخ به دور دوم جام حذفی | Noun+ Noun | Oblique: Equivalence | Accurate |
| 7 | Iran beaten by Italy again in FIVB Volleyball <u>World League</u> | ایران نتیجه دومین بازی خود را هم در لیگ جهانی به ایتالیا واگذار کرد | Noun+ noun | Direct: Borrowing Oblique: Transposition | Accurate |
| 8 | Iranian junior wrestler <u>clinches</u> <u>silver</u> | تثبیت نایب قهرمانی ایران در کشتی نوجوانان جهان | Verb+ Noun | Oblique: Equivalence, Transposition | Accurate |
| 9 | Wimbledon: Eugenie Bouchard <u>makes</u> <u>semifinals</u> | نواک جوکوویچ به نیمه نهایی ویمبلدون رسید | Verb+ Noun | Oblique: Equivalence | Accurate |
| 10 | Maradona Says Messi Didn't Deserve <u>Golden</u> <u>Ball</u> | مارادونا: توپ طلا حق مسی نبود | Adjective+ Noun | Oblique: Transposition | Accurate |
| 11 | Iran Basketball Team to Play Eight <u>Friendly</u> <u>Matches</u> | بسکتبالیست های ایران هشت بازی دوستانه در پیش رو دارند | Adverb+ Noun | Direct: Literal | Accurate |
| 12 | Klose <u>Breaks</u> Ronaldo <u>Record</u> | کلوزه ریکورد رونالدو را شکست | Sport Collocation | Direct: Literal | Accurate |
| 13 | Scolari Says It's <u>Worst Day of</u> <u>My Life</u> | اسکولاری: بدترین روز زندگی ام را تجربه کردم | Noun+ Noun | Direct: Literal | Accurate |

| | | | | | |
|----|--|---|----------------------|--|------------|
| 14 | Brazil 1-7 Germany: <u>End</u> <u>Of World</u> for Brazil | بیان زودهنگام جام جهانی برای امید برزیلی ها | Noun+ Noun | Oblique: Equivalence | Accurate |
| 15 | Iran football team to <u>play</u> <u>friendly</u> against South Korea in November: Kaffashian | کفاشیان: فوتبال ایران در دیداری دوستانه به مصاف تیم ملی کره جنوبی می رود | Verb+ Noun | Oblique: Equivalence, Transposition | Accurate |
| 16 | Iran <u>jumps</u> 5 <u>places</u> in April 2014 FIFA rankings | صعود 5 پله ای ایران در رنکینگ فیفا | Verb+ Noun | Oblique: Equivalence and Transposition | Accurate |
| 17 | Iran lifters <u>win</u> 2 <u>golds</u> in world championships | کسب 2 مدال جهانی وزنه برداران معلول مازندرانی در امارات | Verb+ Noun | Direct: Transposition, Oblique: Equivalence | Accurate |
| 18 | Juventus blitz Fiorentina to <u>reach final</u> | صعود یووه به فینال کوپا ایتالیا با حذف فیورنتینا | Verb+Noun | Direct: Literal | Accurate |
| 19 | <u>World Cup</u> : Iran name 28-man provisional squad for finals in Brazil | اسامی 28 بازیکن تیم ملی فوتبال اعلام شد | Sport Collocation | - | Inaccurate |
| 20 | <u>Wrist injury</u> puts Rafael Nadal's U.S. Open title defense in doubt | حضور رافائل نادال در رقابت های یو اس اوپن در هاله ای از ابهام | Noun+ Noun | - | Inaccurate |

| | | | | | |
|----|------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------|---|------------|
| 21 | Gulbis: Female | گولبیس: زنان باید به | Noun+ Noun | - | Inaccurate |
| | <u>tennis stars</u> | بچه‌داری فکر کنند، نه | | | |
| | "need to think about kids | تنیس | | | |
| 22 | Ronaldo wins | کارت زرد کریستیانو | Noun+ Noun | - | Inaccurate |
| | <u>suspension</u> | رونالدو بخشیده شد | | | |
| | <u>appeal</u> | | | | |
| 23 | Team Doctor | هشدار فدراسیون برزیل: | Sport | - | Inaccurate |
| | Says Neymar | | | | |
| | Has "No Chance" | نیمار هیچ شانس ندارد | Collocation | | |
| | of <u>World Cup</u> | | | | |
| | <u>Miracle</u> | | | | |

Medical English Translation in Medical English Classes of Chinese Colleges: A Literature-based Review

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Abstract

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The current literature review intends to have a brief understanding of the general situation of medical English translation in medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges. Thus, in order to acquire an evaluation of the existing situation of medical English translation in contemporary Chinese medical colleges, this reviewing paper organically collects relevant literatures regarding medical English translation in contemporary Chinese medical colleges. Based on the results of this reviewing paper, a gap between a lack of certain series of practical medical English translation methods and the needs of applying necessary medical English translation methods is found ultimately. In view of this situation, the reviewers have reiterated the relationship between medical English translation and language learning and brought forward a translational enlightenment for the follow-up translational studies as well as future research regarding medical English translation in contemporary Chinese medical colleges.

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Introduction

Information exchanges between countries around the world have become more and more frequent since human beings entered the 21st century. This kind of cross-border information exchange has also become more and more efficient. In the professional field of medicine, due to the continuous development of medical undertakings, medical academic exchanges between different countries have also become frequent (Zhu, 2015).

Under such a general background, the 21st century will make the little-known medical English translation become more and more important in international medical communication (Yang & Liu, 2009). As a result, many researchers around the world have become more and more enthusiastic about the research and discussion of medical English translation (Fu & Luo, 2012; Hutchinson & Waters, 2002; Liu, 2000).

In general, as far as medical English translation is concerned, international medical conferences, international cooperative surgeries, international import and export of medical equipments and drugs, translation of international medical English documents, etc. all over the world require authoritative translation experts (Ma, 2005; Ma & Jin, 2008). At present, however, there are not many experts or talents in the field of medical English translation in China. And in this related medical field, most of the current medical English translation activities are done by experience and more systematic translation theories that can guide the practice of medical English translation have not yet been formed (Xi, 2009).

Thus, in the process of adopting proper reviewing methods of the current literature review as well as in the selection of the reviewing samples, the current literature reviewers firstly analyze the stylistic characteristics of medical English, and connect the characteristics of medical English with the general theories of scientific English translation samples. Then, the reviewers analyze further samples of medical English translation texts and list the commonly used medical English translation methods in the process of medical English translation. Next, the reviewers summarize the problems existing in medical English translation at the emerging stage and explore the reasons for the problems. At the same time, the reviewers attempt to come up with some feasible suggestions for medical English translation, and to provide references for the future research in terms of medical English translation in contemporary Chinese medical colleges.

Specifically, with the help of the comparative analysis method as well as the literature review

method, the reviewers have fully analyzed the main works and documents on medical English translation at home and abroad. On this basis, the reviewers thoroughly come to explore the overall situation of medical English translation in the medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges. At the same time, based on the overall situation mentioned above, the reviewers further analyze the main medical English translation methods involved in the modern medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges.

Meanwhile, through the introduction and analysis of medical English translation methods commonly used in medical English classes, the current literature review intends to compare the advantages and disadvantages of different medical English translation methods, and to provide comments and suggestions for the majority of medical English educators and learners. Most importantly, just as Fu and Luo (2012) have claim, it will also provide more promising enlightenment for the application of knowledge of medical English translation by the majority of medical English educators and learners in their future medical English classes.

To emphasize, the current literature review has actually laid a solid foundation for the majority of medical English educators and learners in their follow-up and future medical English translation processes. In particular, for medical English educators, it will obviously help them understand the future development trend of medical English translation in their follow-up medical English translation researches, and turn up more clear researches and discussion directions.

For the majority of medical English learners from most Chinese medical colleges, the reviewing paper also reminds them of being more clearly aware of the current status and significance of medical English translation in their medical English classes, in that case, they can always remind themselves to autonomously learn and master more and more solid medical English translation knowledge reserves, so as to face the future medical English classes more and more proactively and confidently.

A Literature-based Review

As the body of the current literature review, this part mainly includes three sections. The first section briefly introduces what “Medical English” is since it is little-known to a certain number of people regarding what it really means even in the new century. The second section deals with what the so-called “medical English classes” is as it is closely connected with “Medical English”. For the third section of the body, it mainly reviews “Medical English Translation”, which includes the

historical development of medical English translation, the significance of medical English translation, and the characteristics of medical English translation as well as some specific medical English translation methods in contemporary Chinese medical colleges' medical English classes.

Medical English

The so-called "Medical English", to put it simply, it refers to a manifestation of the relevant application of English in medical disciplines. Since medical English is the way to use English as a language in medical subjects, medical English is not only a professional course, but also a professional major (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002). The learning and application of medical English knowledge is the same as the learning of the language of English (Ma & Jin, 2008). Thus, a comprehensive study of medical English includes medical English listening, medical English speaking, medical English reading, medical English writing and medical English translation, etc. Medical English, as a form of language learning, is also a kind of knowledge that the majority of medical professional learners must predominate and master. Medical English plays an important role in the language learning process of the majority of medical professional learners (Wang, Shang, & Li, 2009).

For instance, medical learners who have mastered a certain degree of medical English knowledge can better apply their medical English knowledge and can more easily read and understand different versions of medical English literatures (Zhu, 2015). This can also more effectively promote the continuous improvement of the medical English knowledge storage as well as its application ability of the majority of medical professional learners.

Medical English Classes

The medical English classes are a very important place for medical English learners to learn the knowledge of medical English. This place is also the main channel for medical English educators to teach and educate their medical English learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002). The medical English classes are the same as the ordinary class, which is acting as a period of structure. During this period of structure, medical English learners learn the knowledge of medical English, master it, and even apply what they have learned into practice. Generally, the medical English classes mainly include two necessary activities of medical English teaching and medical English learning.

Medical English Teaching and Learning

In medical English classes, the teaching of medical English educators and the learning of medical English learners are closely related and inseparable. Whether it is medical English teaching or medical English learning, both of them include the five macro language skills of medical English in listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. The teaching of these five macro-level language skills by medical English educators has a profound impact on the acquisition and application of these five macro-level language skills for medical English learners.

In the teaching process of medical English, medical English educators create necessary medical English situations based on various teaching practice, and provide medical students with opportunities for in-class practice, including practical opportunities for listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation of medical English (Yang & Liu, 2009). Especially as a language skill that has an indispensable role, these five macro skills of medical English fully demonstrate the comprehensive application ability of medical English learners (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002). Therefore, medical English educators need to allow medical students to have practical experience in a specific medical English environment (Lepetit & Cichochi, 2002), so that they can gain knowledge of medical English in specific activities, experience and apply the knowledge of medical English flexibly.

As medical English learners, in their medical English learning process, they should do their best to continuously improve their medical English listening, speaking, reading, and writing and translation abilities. As the main body of medical English learning, medical English learners should also participate in various practical activities organized by their medical English teachers in the class, and strive to make such medical English classes a lively medical English learning paradise. In that case, medical English learners can smoothly allow themselves to learn and practice naturally and orderly in a pleasant medical English learning environment (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002), and continuously improve their comprehensive abilities in medical English listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation.

What needs to be emphasized is that among the five macro-language skills of medical English listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation, medical English translation, which can ultimately reflect the comprehensive application ability of knowledge of medical English, has always been the interests of countless medical English experts and scholars at home and abroad (Bao, 2015).

This is because, to a certain extent, the ability of medical English learners' translation fully reflects the response ability as well as the level of adaptability in a specific medical English situation. This also further reflects their comprehensive ability to perceive medical English knowledge, experience medical English emotions, and reflect on medical English knowledge in different medical English learning activities.

Medical English Translation

Since the birth of medical English translation, it has not been a long way. However, the development of medical English translation in its later period has become very rapid. Especially since entering the 21st century, medical experts from all over the world have paid more attention to the application and development of translation theories in the medical field in order to understand the latest developments in other countries' medical careers to a greater extent.

In fact, the process of medical English translation is the process of communication in the medical professional field between different countries around the world (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002). Therefore, it can be seen that medical English translation is inseparable from the medical development of those countries and even their cultural development (Zhu, 2015; Yan, 2007). This is because medical English translation depends on the specific conditions of the medical development of each country and its language dissemination and communication (Liu, 2000). If medical English translation is separated from the specific conditions of medical development in those particular countries, then it will become meaningless.

Therefore, because of the above situation, as medical English educators as well as learners, we need to be able to fully understand the beginning as well as the historical development of medical English translation at home and abroad. If we can really do this, then we would also be able to recognize the significance and the characteristics of medical English translation consequently. In that case, the process of medical English translation will become as meaningful as possible.

In addition, a further understanding and analysis of various medical English translation methods in medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges will definitely play a pivotal role in our follow-up and even future medical English translation research. What's more, it will also point out a clear direction for research as well as a path for the majority of contemporary Chinese medical English educators and learners in their future medical English translation researches and studies.

Beginning of Medical English Translation

Although translation theories in the world came into being relatively early, the translation of medical English appeared very late. It was even much later when people began to record the activities and theories related to medical English translation. As is recorded, as early as the Qin Dynasty in China, Chinese medicine was already introduced to Southeast Asian countries, however, the foreign translation activities related to medicine just began around the 8th century (Yin, 2013). That was also the period when Chinese medicine was introduced into Arab areas as well as other countries.

And then, due to historical reasons, the Arabs' medical English translation methods and their translation theories at that time had very little influence on future generations. Precisely because of this, what can really provide us with detailed information for research related to medical English translation thus began in the middle of the 17th century when the medical industry in Europe developed rapidly, and this was ultimately regarded as the beginning of medical English translation (Sheng, 2009).

Later on, with the increasing frequency of economic and trade exchanges between various countries around the world, according to Yin (2013), this had also led to the promotion of traditional Chinese medicine in the world as well as the participation of many Chinese translators. Slowly, people began to take medical English translation seriously as an important activity or even see it as a discipline.

Historical Development of Medical English Translation

Although the historical development of medical English translation is not very long, due to the extremely rapid economic development worldwide, various information exchanges between countries are becoming more and more efficient, which also makes medical English translation perform with different characteristics in different time periods. Based on the characteristics and development achievements of medical English translation in different periods, the historical development of medical English translation has been divided into five stages as follows (Sheng, 2009; Bo & Deng, 2005; Li, 1997).

From the Middle of the 17th Century to the End of the 19th Century

The first stage of the historical development of medical English translation is from the middle of

the 17th century to the end of the 19th century. This stage is mainly the first and most immature stage of the historical development of medical English translation. At this stage, medical English translation mainly focuses on the translation of some common medical diseases, including the translation of common diseases in Western medicine and the translation of common diseases in Chinese medicine. In this most primitive stage, no more complete and systematic monographs and books on medical English translation have been found.

From the Beginning of the 20th Century to the Middle of the 20th Century

The second stage of the historical development of medical English translation is from the beginning of the 20th century to the middle of the 20th century. This stage is a period of in-depth development of medical English translation all over the world. At this stage, many medical scholars and experts from western countries directly participated in the activities of medical English translation, and different styles of medical English translation forms and characteristics have also been formed (Yan, 2007). Different medical English translation concepts have slowly emerged. At this critical stage, English, as an intermediary language, occupies a dominant position in medical English translation.

From the 1950s to the Mid-1970s

The third stage of the historical development of medical English translation is from the 1950s to the mid-1970s. In this stage, scientific and technological exchanges between various countries around the world have become more and more frequent. It is precisely because of this that, in the field of medical disciplines, medical English translation appears for the first time under an official organization. It can be seen that medical English translation will get in touch with science and technology and develop further under the impetus of this new situation.

From the 1970s to the End of the 20th Century

The fourth stage of the historical development of medical English translation is from the 1970s to the end of the 20th century. At this stage, the trend of global economic integration is becoming more and more obvious, and the status of science and technology among countries on a global scale is becoming more and more important.

Especially, with the implementation of China's opening-up policy and the extensive

development of the in-depth publicity work of Chinese medicine to the outside world (Liu, 2000), medical English translation has shown obvious extensiveness and applicability. Various researches on medical English translation theories have also appeared continuously (Bao, 2015).

From the Beginning of the 21st Century

After entering the 21st century, with the globalization of science and technology as well as the promotion of the World Health Organization, medical English translation throughout the world is in the ascendant and develops rapidly. The emerging medical English translation activities are even closely integrated with traditional Chinese medicine, infused with scientific and technological features (Ge & Luo, 2010).

For example, in China, with the continuous development of medical English translation, many medical English translation dictionaries as well as medical English dictionaries compiled by international and domestic medical experts and scholars have emerged (see **Table 1.** below).

Table 1

List of Some Medical English Translation Dictionaries since the 21st Century

| Editor(s) | Name of the Dictionary | Publication | Year |
|----------------------------|--|--|------|
| Zhao, Q. | <i>The Chinese-English Medical Dictionary.</i> | Beijing: People's Medical Publishing House (PMPH). | 2015 |
| Chen, W., & Li, D. | <i>The English-Chinese Medical Dictionary.</i> | Shanghai: Shanghai Science and Technology Press. | 2015 |
| Fang, T., Ji, B., & Wu, Q. | <i>New Chinese-English Dictionary of Traditional Chinese Medicine.</i> | Beijing: China Medical Science and Technology Press. | 2013 |
| Fang, M. | <i>Dictionary of Chinese Medicine.</i> | Shanghai: Shanghai Education Press. | 2011 |
| Chen, W. | <i>An English-Chinese Medical Dictionary.</i> (3 rd edition). | Shanghai: Shanghai Science and Technology Press. | 2009 |
| Wang, X., & Zhang, Y. | <i>English-Chinese Medical Dictionary.</i> | Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press. | 2008 |
| Li, J. | <i>Dictionary of Traditional Chinese Medicine.</i> | Beijing: People's Medical Publication. | 2005 |

| | | | |
|---------|---|--------------------------|------|
| Bai, Y. | <i>An English-Chinese Dictionary of the World's Medicine.</i> | Beijing: World Book Inc. | 2004 |
|---------|---|--------------------------|------|

In general, medical English translation has made considerable progress in the course of the latest several centuries all over the world. In its continuous development in the future, medical English translation will be closely integrated with modern science and technology (Dong & Liu, 2001), presenting a totally new situation much closer to the development of the times around the world.

Nevertheless, compared with the speed of development of medical English translation in the world, the speed of the internationalization of the Chinese medical English translation still lags far behind reality (Wang, 2014). As far as Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM) in China is concerned, the researches on TCM English translation, the development of TCM English translation theory and the TCM English discipline construction are relatively weak, all of which are lagging far behind the overall development of translation in other disciplines in China. At present, researches on the theories and methods of TCM English translation in China are still far from being systematic, the positioning of TCM English translation discipline is also not clear enough, and the academic community of TCM English translation is even more lacking.

Significance of Medical English Translation

To a certain extent, translation is not only a conversion of words in a language, but also a cross-language and cultural exchange. In the era of globalization, especially the era of globalization dominated by science and technology, the function and the significance of translation are more prominent. The meaning and function of medical English translation are closely related to the characteristics of medical English itself.

On the one hand, medical English translation is the need for medical information exchanges in various countries around the world. The emergence and development of science and technology have turned the entire world into a global village (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002). The communication among people living in this global village has also become faster and more frequent. In the field of medical science, timely and efficient medical information exchange and communication are essential, which ultimately provide fertile soil for the existence and

development of medical English translation (Liu, 2000).

On the other hand, medical English translation is the need for people all over the world to bravely face and solve many intractable diseases and medical problems. With the help of the combination of medical English translation and modern science and technology, medical experts and scholars around the world can learn the latest information about the most difficult and the most complicated diseases in the shortest time. At the same time, through medical English translation, it is also conducive to medical experts and scholars from all over the world to work together to solve various medical problems (Yin, 2013).

It is not difficult to see that medical English translation is extremely important for the future development of medical undertakings in the world today, as well as for the dissemination and exchange of medical information between countries. Lu (2012) even believes that medical English translation shoulders the important task of “going out to communicate” with the cultures of various countries. He also strongly advocates the formation of a stable medical English translation academic echelon and a medical English translation learning group, so that such academic construction can promote the development of the discipline of medical English translation, thereby ultimately promoting the attention and learning focus of medical English translation by the whole society and the people all over the world.

Characteristics of Medical English Translation

As mentioned above, in the past several decades, medical English translation has become more and more important in international medical communication, and many experts and scholars around the world have also conducted a certain series of researches and discussions on it. Just as Hutchinson and Waters (2002) explain, the characteristics of medical English translation are different from those of other subjects. In general, because medical English not only has a large vocabulary, a large number of professional terms, scattered phrases, but also has a relatively large sentence length and a relatively complex sentence structure (Huang, 2012). This has brought more difficulties and problems to most medical English translators.

In many medical materials, copywriting and articles, it is very common for readers to see countless long sentences due to the need for narrative reasoning. Therefore, in any text involving medical English, long sentences and complex structures are a major feature of medical English, and it is also obvious.

Medical English is a branch of scientific English. It is very common and necessary for long sentences to appear in medical English in order to have a clear concept, a prominent logical relationship, accurate contents, and precise data. Therefore, the appearance of long sentences in medical English translation can be attributed to the following two aspects.

On the one hand, long sentences in medical English translation use a variety of modifiers, which expand the structure, make the sentence longer, and result in the contents becoming more complicated (Huang, 2012). On the other hand, medical English materials, copywriting and articles have relatively high requirements for scientificity and logic. In this way, as one of the components, long sentences have become important in most medical English materials, copywriting and articles in terms of translation.

Therefore, in the process of medical English translation, medical English translators not only need to master the solid foundation of the English language knowledge and the necessary medical expertise, but also have a good grasp of the understanding of long sentences (Yan, 2007; Dong & Liu, 2001). Only in this way can medical English translators make the finished medical English translation more appropriate and accurate in content.

Medical English Translation Methods in Contemporary Chinese Medical Colleges

Generally speaking, in the medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges, there are mainly the following three translation methods involved in medical English translation, which include medical English literal translation method, medical English free translation method and medical English transliteration method.

Whether it is the translation of Western medicine or Chinese medicine, these translation methods have their own advantages and disadvantages. Perhaps this is because Western medicine and Chinese medicine are based on different philosophical ideas, are born in different cultural soils, and have their own characteristics in many aspects (Wang, 2014). Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM) emphasizes a way of savvy thinking, which considers the combined analysis of *jin* (metal), *mu* (wood), *shui* (water), *huo* (fire), and *tu* (earth) while Western medicine emphasizes a rational way of thinking, which specifically analyzes cells and tissues.

Medical English Literal Translation

In the medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges, the most common

medical English translation method is the literal translation. This is also a translation method commonly used in other disciplines. The advantage of choosing to use such medical English literal translation method, according to Huang (2012), is that the translational product under this translation method can retain the language form and content form of the original text of the corresponding medical English materials, copywriting and articles, etc. At the same time, this medical English literal translation method is faithful to the original text and pursues the most similarity with the original text. For medical English learners, the finished medical English translation is relatively concise and easy to accept (Wang, 2014).

For example, in the case that the equivalent words can be found directly, the medical English translator can directly use the medical English literal translation method for translation. For example, see **Table 2**. below.

Table 2

Medical English Literal Translation

| Medical Chinese Terms | Medical English Literal Translation |
|------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| rén tǐ qì guān 人体器官 | Human Organs |
| xīn zàng 心脏 | Heart |
| gān zàng 肝脏 | Liver |
| pí zàng 脾脏 | Spleen |
| fēi zàng 肺脏 | Lung |
| shèn zàng 肾脏 | Kidney |

Medical English Free Translation

Medical English free translation method is also a commonly used translation method in the medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges. Medical English free translation actually belongs to the category of domestication translation under certain translation theories. It pursues a high degree of compatibility with the original text of medical materials, copywriting and articles and makes the translational products pretty readable and receptive (Wang, 2014). In addition, in the process of using the medical English free translation method, the finished products

of the medical English free translation method can greatly enhance the reader's interest in reading because such products conform to the expression habits of the target language in translation.

Medical English free translation is mainly used when there are huge cultural differences between the original language and the target language. Compared with the medical English literal translation method, it is more flexible, concise and crisp in practice (Huang, 2012). In addition, this translation method can effectively reduce the reader's misunderstanding of certain medical theories. It is actually the most commonly used and easily accepted translation method in other disciplines as well. For example, see **Table 3**. below.

Table 3

Medical English Free Translation

| Medical Chinese Terms | Medical English Literal Translation | Medical English Free Translation |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| línchuáng zhèngzhuàng 临 床 症 状 | Clinical Symptoms | Clinical Symptoms |
| xīnqūzáyīn 心 区 杂 音 | Heart Noises | Heart Murmur |
| línbāchùtòng 淋 巴 触 痛 | Lymph Pains | Lymph Tender |
| jīnyè 津 液 | Body Fluid | Thick Fluid |
| xuèyū 血 瘀 | Blood Blocks | Blood Stagnation |

Medical English Transliteration

Medical English transliteration is a very commonly used translation method for Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM) in the medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges. One of the main differences between Chinese medicine and Western medicine is that the language of traditional Chinese medicine is obscure and difficult to understand. At the same time, many traditional Chinese medical terms lack physical counterparts and are always abstract and vague.

As a result, many traditional Chinese medical terms cannot find their corresponding equivalent words in the translation outcomes. In other words, most of the vocabularies in Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM) have very strong Chinese cultural characteristics in nature, which has resulted in

such a fact that it is quite difficult to find the corresponding medical English equivalent words to interpret their inner meanings (Huang, 2012). In that case, the medical English transliteration method is mainly used in the process of medical English translation in the medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges. For example, see **Table 4.** below.

Table 4*Medical English Transliteration*

| Medical Chinese Terms | Medical English Literal Translation | Medical English Transliteration |
|---|--|--|
| zhōngyào míng fāng jì míng 中 药 名 / 方 剂 名 | Names of Chinese Medicine/Prescription | Names of Chinese Medicine/Prescription |
| wū jī 乌 鸡 | Black Cock | <i>Wuji</i> |
| qīng lóng 青 龙 | Blue Dragon | <i>Qinglong</i> |
| bái hǔ 白 虎 | White Tiger | <i>Baihu</i> |
| gān cǎo 甘 草 | Licorice | <i>Gancao</i> |

Discussion**Difficulties of Medical English Translation**

The current literature review has an in-depth review on the stylistic characteristics of various medical English text samples as well as a detailed comparison of three commonly used medical English translation based on a preliminary introduction of the historical background, together with an analysis of the characteristics of medical English translation. In view of this, the reviewers attempt makes the majority of contemporary Chinese medical students realize how important medical English translation is to the overall development of medical disciplines in present China. With the expansion and deepening of China's opening to the outside world, international exchanges in the medical field have become more frequent, and the role of medical English translation has become increasingly prominent (Ma, 2005). Nevertheless, just as Ma and Jin (2008) have pointed out that there are not enough translators who can undertake medical English translation to a certain extent, and most of them are senior experts in the related fields. Why can't ordinary translators deal with medical English translation activities as easily as they do in some other fields?

The key reasons include that there are a lot of medical English terminologies, and that the

related sub-categories of medical English are complicated, and that the degree of professionalization of medical English knowledge is too high (Dong & Liu, 2001). These reasons thus make it difficult for translators to cope with the important task of medical English translation without systematic medical English professional knowledge as well as certain years of medical English translation experience (Ma & Jin, 2008).

Principles of Medical English Translation

As we all know, medicine is not only a rigorous science, but also a science that concerns human life. Therefore, based on the current literature review, the reviewers have discovered and intend to remind all medical students that the accuracy of medical English translation is something we must pay attention to. Xi (2009) has ever maintained that only when we become accurate and faithful enough to the original medical English texts, can we further polish them into more faithful and fluent translation products.

In other words, whether it is medical English literal translation, medical English free translation, or medical English transliteration, we must follow the principles of “faithfulness” and “fluency” (Xi, 2009). This is because medical English translation is not without rules (Fu & Luo, 2012).

There is no doubt that, on the basis of mastering general English translation skills, medical English translators not only need to understand the stylistic characteristics of medical English, but also learn basic medical knowledge. Medical English translators who are fully familiar with the expression habits of literal translation and free translation will produce faithful and fluent medical English translations if they can flexibly use medical English knowledge as well as proper translation skills in their translation practice (Xi, 2009; Yan, 2007).

Precautions of Medical English Translation

With the help of the listed examples of medical English literal translation method, medical English free translation method and medical English transliteration method, the reviewers have also found out some precautions in terms of the problems that occur during the translation process of medical English text samples.

The results of the literature review initially illuminate the reviewers to be aware of the principles of “faithfulness” and “fluency” that all medical students should follow when they are doing the translation, especially when using different kinds of medical English translation methods. Say, in

the translation of different parts of speech, part-of-speech conversion is particularly important (Hutchinson & Waters, 2002). For instance, when we encounter a sample of nominal style, we should pay attention to whether we continue to use its noun form or its corresponding verb form in the process of translation.

Besides, it is also worth noting such a fact that, on the one hand, the punctuation of medical English is relatively regular; in that case, all medical students should possibly grasp this in the process of their medical English translation (Huang, 2012). On the other hand, in the process of medical English translation, all medical students should also pay attention to the medical English proper nouns. To specify, medical English proper nouns are usually capitalized in the medical English texts.

Conclusion

From Medical English Translation to Language Learning

Language learning is a big concept. As an extremely important aspect of human learning, language learning is of course also one of the important topics of linguistics, especially psycholinguistics. The content of language learning is also very extensive. According to Richards (2002), the order of the target language learned makes language learning divided into first language learning, second language learning and so on. Meanwhile, based on whether the target language is the mother tongue or not, language learning can be divided into mother tongue learning and foreign language learning.

In the current literature review, medical English translation is actually a sort of application of language skill of the English language learning. From medical English translation to language learning, it is meant that how well contemporary Chinese college medical students behave in their medical English translation inevitably reflects how well they have learned in terms of their medical English language learning.

Therefore, based on the findings of this reviewing paper, the relationship between medical English translation and language learning among contemporary Chinese college medical students has to be reiterated. Meanwhile, a translational enlightenment from medical English translation to language learning should also be proposed so as to pave the way for the follow-up translational studies as well as future researches regarding medical English translation in medical English classes of contemporary Chinese medical colleges.

A Translational Enlightenment

A translational enlightenment of the current literature review lies in providing practical implications for future researches as well as studies on medical English translation in contemporary Chinese colleges' medical English classes. Preliminarily, as has been introduced and discussed, medical English translation among Chinese college medical students has somewhat reflected some of the ways for language learners to learn a certain language, thus it could also be an instructional method for language educators in their language education (Ma & Jin, 2008).

In view of this, as practitioners of language education and language researches, the reviewers thus imply that a good knowledge of medical English translation will help to promote future researches and studies on medical English translation in medical English classes, especially in the domain of guiding medical students how to apply the knowledge of medical English translation as well as practice their medical English translation skills more efficiently and comprehensively (Yan, 2007; Dong & Liu, 2001).

Therefore, from an enlightening standpoint of this reviewing paper, if contemporary Chinese college medical students want to practice their medical English translation skills more comprehensively, obviously, apart from a good basic knowledge of the medical English language, they need a good critical thinking ability of language (Huang, 2013). This, as a matter of fact, has too much to do with their follow-up learning of the knowledge of medical English translation and even with their future studies on more comprehensive language learning practice.

Limitations

Although the current literature review has provided detailed analytical interpretation of the findings regarding medical English translation in medical English classes among Chinese college medical students, it does have some shortcomings. Specifically, the results and findings are basically dependent on a review of relevant medical English translation literatures. In the follow-up and future studies on such topics or issues, more and more other reviewing methods should be taken into consideration as well as employed to carry out so as to ultimately maintain and improve the reliability of such studies of literature review.

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Iranian Students' Attitudes Towards English Loanwords in Persian with a Focus on Gender Differences



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Abstract

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The English language has affected nearly every language community in the world. Persian is no exception as many English words have been borrowed in Persian. This study was non-experimental quantitative-descriptive research employing an approach to examine the Iranian postgraduate students' attitudes towards English lexical borrowings and if there was a difference between the attitude of male Persian speakers and female Persian speakers. To fulfill the purpose of this study, two sets of questionnaires were distributed among 60 Iranian students majoring in law and business through snowball sampling. The quantitative data were collected by means of two sets of questionnaires and entered into SPSS and the frequencies, percentages, and mean of the individual items were calculated and analyzed. The data analyses showed evidence of positive attitudes of students towards English loanwords. The results also indicated that the growth of social media has a great effect in the use of English words which seems to be kept across both genders. All in all, it was concluded that attitudes towards English loanwords in Persian were positive, yet there was not a statistically significant correlation between Iranian female students and Iranian male participants. The study contributes to our understanding of the nature of lexical borrowings from English into Persian. Therefore, an implication of this study is that English loanwords must only be used appropriately and when necessary because misuses of them will result in weakening and deterioration of the Persian language.

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Introduction

Sociolinguists always believe that languages do not exist in a vacuum; rather, they often have contact with one another. Hojati et.al. (2013) stated that different world languages have come into varying degrees of contact with each other and have had different influences on one another. Accordingly, language contact and the influence of languages on one another is a very common phenomenon. Such contact results in language borrowing, which has been a favorite topic of discussion from various approaches by different researchers. Thomason and Kaufman (1988) defined borrowing as “a kind of blending foreign features to the language of an indigenous group by the speakers of that language. This language was maintained, but it experienced certain modifications due to those additional features (p. 37)”.

Like many other languages, Persian is not pure and has gone through some modifications as well. In fact, it has borrowed a large number of loanwords from European languages, including French, Arabic, and English. The influence of English on Persian is not a new phenomenon. However, in the last two decades, it has gained momentum because of globalization and new technologies.

The Academy of Persian Language and Literature has tried to fight the influx of foreign words. However, many new Persian equivalents for the foreign terms coined by this association failed to attract the attention of speakers of Persian. With loanwords being influential in daily communications of Persian speakers, especially teenagers and young generations, it can be of great value to consider how this affects the way that people in Iran feel towards the usage of these terms. The main purpose of this study was to describe the attitudes of English loanword users by Iranian postgraduate students if there is a difference between the attitude of male Persian speakers and female Persian speakers.

The motive for selecting this topic was insufficient research of lexical borrowings from English considering Persian speakers' attitudes and perceptions. As a matter of fact, some influential research has been done on the absorption of English loanwords into the Persian system, yet few of them deal with the attitudes of Iranians and the relationship between gender and the use of Anglicism. As a result, the current study would be helpful to elaborate on the attitudes of Persian speakers about English-based vocabularies as well as the concept of borrowing.

Literature Review

A loanword mainly is a word adopted from one language and entered another language without translation. English loanwords are lexical materials stemming from English that are incorporated into a different language. English as the current lingua franca and the international language has been the main source of borrowing for many languages. According to Görlach (2003), the main reasons for English being at the forefront of global languages are mainly of historical, economical, and political nature, including the Industrial Revolution in 19th century Britain and North America as well as British colonialism. Görlach also stated that the widespread use of English made it a source of loanwords for other languages rather than a recipient. This is not to say that English does not borrow from other languages as words like kindergarten (from German) or sushi (from Japanese) demonstrate. However, English by itself is an influential resource for the acquisition of new words for other languages, and as a result “reflects the importance and status it holds as a leading language” (Kowner & Rosenhouse, 2008, p. 4).

Hoque et. al. (2021) conducted a study on lexical borrowing from English into Bangla short stories. The researchers examined five Bangla short stories selected based on purposive sampling. They reported that an increasing number of English lexes is gradually entering publications in Bangla. According to the findings of this study, they conclude that English has left both positive and negative noticeable effects on Bangla. The findings indicate that although loanwords can enrich Bangla, they may also result in marginalizing the language by replacing some of its lexical items. In a different study, Yegt (2014) paid attention to the attitudes towards English loanwords in Dutch news broadcasts by taking the participants' gender and age into consideration. The findings highlighted the fact that female participants have more positive attitudes towards English loanwords in comparison to male participants. The research also indicated that most participants do not prefer alternative words to the loanwords since none of the twelve loanwords were replaced with a Dutch alternative by the majority of the participants.

Daulton (2011) investigated English learners' attitudes towards English-based loanwords in Japan. To do so, he used a questionnaire to examine 113 freshmen's attitudes towards English loanwords at a private mid-level University. The research concluded that students were ambivalent and that it could not determine the relationships between English proficiency and English-based loanwords attitudes. In another study, Daulton (2004) suggested that English-Japanese loanwords

are not only a useful source of vocabulary but also a beneficial tool in learning English. Similarly, Rüdiger (2018) investigated South Korean students' attitudes towards English loanwords and their use. Rüdiger also stated that although English has a certain amount of prestige in Korean society and is considered a need for professional advancement, usage of English loanwords is evaluated mainly negatively or with mixed reactions.

Hatanaka and Pannell (2016) conducted a different study on English loanwords and made-in-Japan English in Japanese with six native speakers of Japanese and six native speakers of English. The research purpose was to examine students' attitudes toward made-in-Japan English. The results revealed that students' attitudes toward made-in-Japan were mixed. Native speakers of Japanese had a range of mixed reflection when they were informed that the English-derived words are not used outside of Japan while Native speakers of English generally agreed that the terms were in some way creative, although they found some of them confusing.

A good number of Iranian studies investigated English in Iran from different perspectives. In their recently published 'English in Contemporary Iran', Zarrinabadi and Mahmoudi-Gahrouei (2018) have comprehensively studied the history and current status of English in Iran. Two other studies have studied both the attitudes of Iranian learners towards World Englishes and the impact of teaching lingua franca on learners' skills and have reported a positive attitude and also a significant impact on Iranian learners' skills (Rezaei, et.al., 2018; Rahimi & Ruzrokh, 2016)

In another research carried out by Mashhadi Heidar et.al. (2017), the researchers intended to study the frequency of occurrence of Anglicism in the speech of young Iranians. The works of Riazi (2005), Sharifian (2008; 2010), and Hosseini Goodrich (2020) also investigated English and the uses of English in Iran.

Moreover, English has various uses in Iran, the most important one is being not only the language of wider communication but also the standard language. Some Iranians intentionally use English in both written and spoken communications in order to sustain the learned knowledge. Additionally, many Persian speakers, particularly the younger generations, mix some English words and expressions into their daily Persian communication because it is considered to be prestigious (Hosseini Goodrich, 2020). However, Islamic Republic News Agency (2017) reported that the immoderate use of loanwords among the teenagers and younger adults threatens the Persian purity and jeopardizes its prestigious status among Farsi users (cited in Hosseini Goodrich,

2020). Although the Academy of Persian Language and Literature has always endeavored to coin Persian equivalents of English loanwords, Iranians, particularly younger generations, have always shown a positive attitude and high desire to learn and use English words.

In a quantitative study, Mashhadi Heidar et.al. (2017) investigated the frequency of occurrence of English loanwords among Persian speakers in terms of three variables of age, gender, and educational status. The researchers employed a corpus of a target telegram group as the main source of data collection and analyzed a total number of 320 Anglicism items. To collect the samples of Anglicism words in Persian, the researchers read the total extant posts of the target group and jotted down instances of each type of loanword. The research findings revealed that the frequency of Anglicism in Persian is highly correlated with the variables of age, gender, and educational class. The gender-based analysis of Anglicism frequency in Persian indicated that there is a relation between the gender of participants and adoption of English loanwords. The research also concluded that Iranians' tendency to use English loanwords is increased as the educational level of speakers increases.

Abdi and Nazari (2016) investigated the changes occurring in the application of Persian vocabularies by taking users' age and gender into consideration. The results of the study revealed that the recent growth in the use of social networks and the virtual space led to more significant use of English loanwords among different age groups and across both genders.

Moreover, in a study regarding the pronunciation of loanwords, Hojati (2012) examined whether a group of Iranian EFL students can accurately pronounce 10 high-frequency technology-related terms. The researcher highlighted that since Persian-speaking learners often use English loanwords, the occurrence of a large number of errors in the accurate pronunciation of such words seems bound to persist, and as a result this area of research needs more pedagogical and research attention.

The current study was a qualitative description undertaken with the desire to know students' attitude of English loanwords in Persian by taking the participants' gender into consideration. The present study is an attempt to answer the following research questions:

Q1. What are the Iranian students' attitudes towards English loanwords in Persian?

Q2. Is there a significant difference between the attitudes of men and women towards English loanwords?

Methodology

The current study was undertaken to understand the nature of English lexical borrowings into Persian. This section, in particular, deals with the methodology of the present study. First, the design and context of the study are covered, and then the focus will be on the participants and instruments. Finally, data collection, data analyses, and procedures will be discussed.

Design and Context of the Study

A quantitative descriptive non-experimental inquiry was conducted to fulfill the objectives of the present study. In Encyclopedia of Research Design, non-experimental designs are defined as “research designs in which an experimenter simply either describes a group or examines relationships between preexisting groups. The conclusions drawn from nonexperimental research are primarily descriptive in nature (Para, I)”. The current study was carried out among university students in Isfahan, Iran in June 2021, the second semester of the Iranian academic year.

Participants

The participants were 60 postgraduate students majoring in law and business at Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch. In terms of gender, 37 of the participants were females and 23 of them were males. The students who were majoring in English and tourism were excluded from the study since their attitudes towards English loanwords might be atypical.

Table 1

Demographic Information of Participants

| | Gender | | Age | |
|--------------|--------|------|-------|-------|
| Participants | Female | Male | 18-22 | 22-28 |
| Total | 37 | 23 | 38 | 22 |
| | 60 | | 60 | |

Instruments

Two sets of questionnaires were used to collect the data of the study. After a slight modification based on the needs of the present study, the questionnaires were designed on the google form platform. Having online questionnaires facilitates the way of reaching the hands of participants,

and the participants could easily resend and forward the link of the questionnaire to any of their friends.

The first questionnaire was adopted from the survey instruments devised by Olah (2007) and modified in order to meet the current study requirement and consisted of 8 statements relating to loanwords, to which the participants gave a response relative to how much they agreed with the statements. The participants were asked to rate their level of attitudes about English loanwords using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from Level 1: strongly disagree to Level 5: strongly agree. The statements were written in both English and Persian. It is also worth mentioning that since it might be difficult for Iranian students to distinguish English loanwords from the ones of another origin, the statements referred to loanwords in general.

Regarding the second instrument in the current study, a questionnaire developed by Abdi and Nazari (2016) was used. Moreover, 15 more high-frequency terms were added to meet the requirement of the study. Thus, the questionnaire contained a list of 75 frequently used lexical items in social media. Among the items, 60 were selected from the questionnaire, and then the participants were asked to choose the most frequently used item between the English loanword and the Persian equivalent. The participants were not told the purpose of the study.

Data Collection Procedure

The administration of the questionnaires was done through snowball sampling. The participants were told that they had been asked to help with a study into the SLA. They were assured that they would not be assessed in any way by the tests and that the results of the tests would be kept confidential. To ensure optimum understanding, test instructions were translated into Persian/English and typed on the instruction sheets.

After a slight modification, the questionnaire was designed on the google form platform. Having an online questionnaire on the google form facilitates the way of reaching the hands of participants; moreover, the participants could easily resend and forward the link of the questionnaire to any of their friends. After designing the instrument, its link was sent to some online groups of students majoring in law and business at Islamic Azad University, , Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch.

The first instrument used to evaluate Iranian attitudes about English loanwords was a Likert-type questionnaire adapted from Olah (2007). Eight online Likert-type items elicited opinions about loanwords. In the analysis, the neutral answers (three) were dealt with differently from the ones that reflected a clear opinion — strong and mild disagreement (one or two) and mild and strong agreement (three or four).

Using the second questionnaire devised by Abdi and Nazari (2016), the participants were provided with English and the Persian equivalents of the items in the form of an online 75-item questionnaire to select the preferred one. The questionnaires were distributed among 65 Persian speakers, yet 5 questionnaires were excluded as they were incomplete or illegible.

Data Analysis Procedure

In order to analyze the collected data, a descriptive statistical procedure was applied to the data. Regarding the first questionnaire, based on the results, the collected data was entered into SPSS, and the frequencies, percentages, and mean of the individual items were calculated and analyzed. As for the second questionnaire, the chi-square test was employed for testing the significance of the difference between using Persian and English lexical items across gender.

Results

The first research question of the study intended to find out what the Iranian students' attitudes towards English loanwords in Persian are. For this purpose, an eight-item questionnaire borrowed from Olah (2007) was administered. Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics concerning the Iranian students' towards English loanwords.

Since each choice in this Likert-scale test carries a point (100% = 5, 75% = 4, 50% = 3, 25% = 2, and 0% = 1), the mean score of each test item was compared against the average score of the choices. This means that if the mean score of a questionnaire item was less than 3, there would be a tendency among the participants to have a negative attitude towards English loanwords. On the other hand, a mean score of more than 3 shows the propensity of the respondents to have a positive attitude towards English loanwords.

Table 2*Results of the Questionnaire*

| N. | Statements | Freq. Per. | Strongly disagree (1) | Disagree (2) | Neutral (3) | Agree (4) | Strongly Agree (5) | Mean |
|------------|------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------|-----------------|----------------|--------------|--------------------------|------|
| 1 | Los sounds attractive. | F | 4 | 12 | 14 | 14 | 16 | 3.4 |
| | | P | 6.6 | 20 | 23.3 | 23.3 | 26.6 | |
| 2 | I like to use LWs | F | 4 | 8 | 4 | 28 | 16 | 3.7 |
| | when I speak Persian. | P | 6.6 | 13.3 | 6.6 | 46.6 | 26.6 | |
| 3 | LWs give new ways | F | 1 | 9 | 5 | 21 | 24 | 3.9 |
| | of understanding the | P | 1.6 | 15 | 8.3 | 35 | 40 | |
| 4 | world. | F | 11 | 13 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 3.05 |
| | I think LWs should be | P | 18.3 | 21.6 | 18.3 | 20 | 21.6 | |
| 5 | regulated. | F | 4 | 9 | 5 | 27 | 15 | 3.6 |
| | | P | 6.6 | 15 | 8.3 | 45 | 25 | |
| 6 | | F | 8 | 16 | 12 | 10 | 14 | 3.1 |
| | LWs enrich the | P | 13.3 | 26.6 | 20 | 16.6 | 23.3 | |
| 7 | Persian language. | F | 14 | 18 | 20 | 4 | 4 | 2.4 |
| | | P | 23.3 | 30 | 33.3 | 6.6 | 6.6 | |
| 8 | | F | 0 | 6 | 10 | 18 | 20 | 3.5 |
| | I adjust the LWs I use | P | 0 | 10 | 16.6 | 30 | 33.3 | |
| | for people with lower | | | | | | | |
| | education. | | | | | | | 3.47 |
| | LWs should be taught | | | | | | | |
| | in English courses | | | | | | | |
| | Percentage of media | | | | | | | |
| | LWs I understand. | | | | | | | |
| Total Mean | | | | | | | | |

The results of the descriptive analysis show that the overall mean score of English loanwords attitudes among the participants was 3.47 on the Likert scale, meaning positive attitudes towards English loanwords among Iranian students. The results for statement 2 showed that most of the respondents like to use loanwords when they speak Persian which suggests Iranian students have a positive attitude towards the amount of LWs used in their language. The attitudes towards statement 4 were almost evenly distributed between agree, neutral, and disagree, which means that there was no clear evidence that students believed whether loanwords should be regulated or not. The smallest mean score belonged to item 7 which means that in contrast to the positive attitudes towards LWs in statement 1 the small number of students thought that loanwords should be taught

in English courses. On the other hand, the statement with the highest level of agreement was statement 3, that is English loanwords give us new ways of viewing and understanding the world and our ideas. This is a very significant result because it shows that students are aware of how important English is in the current modern world.

The other items, arranged in descending order, were item 5, *LWs enrich the Persian language.*, item 1, *LWs sound attractive*, item 6, *I adjust my use of loanwords when I speak to people with lower education*. For statement 8, more than half of the participants responded that they understand more than three-fourths of the LWs used in media sources such as TV, social network, magazines and newspapers, and pop songs. This is a very high figure and could explain that Iranian students have a good knowledge of English-based terms and that is why they have positive attitudes towards English loanwords.

The second research question intended to find out if there was a significant difference between the attitudes of men and women about English loanwords. For this purpose, an online 75-item questionnaire was distributed among 60 participants and the frequencies were calculated for each lexical item. Finally, a chi-square test was employed for testing the significance of the difference between using Persian and English lexical items across two genders.

The data indicated that Iranian students majoring in law and business, including both genders, employed English words more than Persian ones. In total, among all the participants 63% preferred English loanwords, and 37% of the sample population used Persian equivalents of the items. Regarding the gender of participants, 59 % of the female participants preferred English loanwords while it was 70% for male participants.

Table 3

Results of the Questionnaire

| Gender | Frequency and Percentage | English Loanwords | Persian Equivalent |
|--------|--------------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| Female | F | 22 | 15 |
| | P | 59 | 41 |
| Male | F | 16 | 7 |
| | P | 70 | 18 |
| Total | F | 38 | 22 |
| | P | 63 | 37 |

After analyzing the frequency of lexical items among both genders, it was clear that the majority of the students intended to use English words and expressions that are commonly used in media, particularly social networking sites. Concisely, the most frequently used items, both English words, and Persian equivalents were selected. The data revealed that among males, *ok*, *e-mail*, and *online* were the most frequently used English lexical items, and */rad kardan/*, *to reject*, was the most frequently used Persian equivalent. On the other hand, among females the most frequently used English items were *downloaded*, and *shared* while */tanzimat/*, the *setting* was the most frequently used Persian equivalent.

In contrast, the least Persian equivalents of the English loanwords were */rayaname/ email*, and */bar-xat/ online*. One reason may be that the Academy of Persian Language and Literature was not quick enough to coin Persian equivalents of English borrowings. Another reason is that Persian speakers believe that the English loanwords double the item's prestige. However, regardless of gender, infrequent vocabularies in English were *mutual friend*, and *confirm*. The results of this study suggest a smooth change in the linguistic taste of Persian students.

To find out whether the differences between the attitudes of men and women about English loanwords were statistically significant or not, one needs to consult the Chi-square table.

Table 4

Chi-Square Results for the Attitudes of Men and Women About English Loanwords

| | Value | df | Asymp. Sig. (2-sided) | Exact Sig. (2-sided) | Exact Sig. (1-sided) |
|------------------------------------|-------------------|----|-----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Pearson Chi-Square | .624 ^a | 1 | .430 | | |
| Continuity Correction ^b | .264 | 1 | .607 | | |
| Likelihood Ratio | .631 | 1 | .427 | | |
| Fisher's Exact Test | | | | .583 | .305 |
| Linear-by-Linear Association | .613 | 1 | .434 | | |
| N of Valid Cases | 60 | | | | |

Since the p -value was greater than the alpha level (i.e., $.000 > .05$), it could be inferred that the difference between the attitudes of men and women about English loanwords was statistically nonsignificant.

Discussion

The large number of English loanwords used in Persian cannot be considered a big issue because these loanwords act as a barrier to understanding. The results of the attitude questionnaire given to a group of university students indicated that most of them like to use loanwords when they speak Persian, a response which shows a positive attitude towards English borrowing. This is against the findings of a study carried out by Olah (2007) in Japan. Olah concluded that most of the Japanese students thought that there were too many loanwords used in Japanese which indicated their negative attitudes towards English loanwords. On the other hand, the results are in line with Mashhadi Heidar et.al.'s (2017) conclusion that Persian speakers use English borrowings in their daily speech since they may look more educated and prestigious than others. This explains why they prefer to use English loanwords rather than their Persian equivalents shows their positive attitude towards English borrowings. Similarly, Hoque (2021) concluded that in the fields and concepts where Bangla equivalents are available, English loanwords are used because they are considered to be more fashionable and prestigious than necessary.

Another significant result seen in Table 2 is that the participants indicated that there was a large number of loanwords they understood in media. This high percentage of understanding has a positive effect on their ability to communicate in English. In contrast, in a similar study by Olah (2017), Japanese students showed that they didn't understand many of the LWs used by the media which can explain why they have negative attitudes towards Anglicism.

Moreover, it can be seen in Table 2 that the majority of the respondents believed loanwords enrich the Persian language which indicates that using English loanwords in the Persian language is not always with negative consequences. The obtained result is in accord with Mashhadi Heidar et.al.'s (2017) conclusion that demonstrated using Anglicisms in the Persian language is not only destructive but it can also empower the Persian language. In contrast, in a study by Hoque (2021), the findings indicated that English loanwords are not always useful and that their effects on Bangla can be, to some extent, negatively consequential. In other words, although lexical borrowings can

empower Bangla, they may also lead to marginalizing the language by replacing some available bangle words.

The results in the second questionnaire indicated that the recent growth in the use of social networks, among other factors like prestige, resulted in more significant use of English vocabularies instead of Persian equivalents. Such a result seemed to be the same across both genders. This would also explain why Iranian students often prefer to use loanwords even in cases where the Persian equivalent of the word is available. This outcome is compatible with the findings of other studies including Mashhadi Heidar et.al. (2017) where they demonstrated that Iranian speakers, particularly younger generations, usually intend to use English loanwords in their everyday conversations due to the fact that it gives them a higher status in the society. However, it is worth mentioning that the dominance of the English language on the Persian language may contaminate the native Persian in the fullness of time. It seems crucial to intervene and try to preserve Persian among the native speakers.

Finally, the gender-based analysis of Anglicism frequency in the Persian language revealed that both groups of men and women engaged in this study are somehow using English loanwords similarly. In other words, the findings of the current study suggest that, indeed, there is no significant difference between Iranian males and females regarding attitudes towards English loanwords in Persian (Table. 4). This is against Mashhadi Heidar et.al.'s (2017) findings where they discussed that each gender's preference to use Anglicism of a particular domain is more than the other gender.

Conclusion

Phillipson (1992) stated that the English language has had a pioneering role in the context of globalization. In this inquiry, we can conclude that English has a noticeable impact on Iranians' word choices. As reported in this study the impact can be both positive and negative. That is why the authorities and officials have to be aware of Anglicizations and their effects. In this study, the attitudes of postgraduate students majoring in law and business to English loanwords were investigated using two questionnaires. The results in this study, firstly, demonstrated that attitudes towards English loanwords in Persian were positive and the respondents liked to use English

loanwords when they speak Persian. Secondly, the outcomes indicated that there was not a statistically significant correlation between Iranian female students and Iranian male participants.

The present study involved a set of limitations as follows. The first problem was the sample size. In the current study, a limited number of participants were selected. Therefore, future research, involving a larger number of participants, is needed to further explore the preliminary findings of this study. Moreover, a future study should be carried out to take other factors such as age, educational status, and experience of English learning into consideration. In addition, one area of further research that would be of great benefit is investigating a large corpus of social network websites to analyze the number of English loanwords used for communication. Moreover, the participants' knowledge of English loanwords and their Persian equivalents seem to be crucial factor that needs further research.

As an important implication of this study, it is the duty of the policymakers, especially the Academy of Persian Language and Literature, to be aware of this positive attitude of young Iranians towards English loanwords. As a result, they have to focus on proposing and using appropriate Persian equivalents of English loanwords so that Iranians opt for them as their first choice. They can make it possible by raising awareness of English loanwords and warning that the excessive use or misuse of them will result in weakening and deterioration of the Persian language

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