# Social Gender in Translation: Evidences

By: Dr. Juliana D. Yousif(Lecturer)
College of Arts/Dept. of Translation/University of Basra

## Abstract:

The translation of gender has become one of the challenges that translators face when dealing with languages that pattern gender differently. This is because languages may not only differ greatly in the way they encode the category of gender in their lexical and grammatical systems but also in the expectations of their relevant cultures concerning what is meant by ' gender '.This is applicable to translation between English and Arabic , which differ not only in how gender is rendered in their linguistic system ( the former pronominally but the latter pronominally and grammatically ) , but also in the way they load nouns with social content which the diversity that members of these two communities think and perceive things. The aim of this paper is to show the extent to which ideological considerations can play role when Iraqi college students translate English nouns denoting occupations into Arabic .Two tests are given to forty students of translation at an advanced stage. In Test One, the students are asked to translate twenty English sentences including occupational titles such as 'doctor' into Arabic . The sex of each referent title is unknown or not relevant , e.g. can I have a word with you , doctor?.In Test Two, the same students are asked to decide on the ' appropriate ' reference pronoun(s) of these occupational titles in another set of twenty sentences , e.g. The doctor was very honest with his / her patient . The results of Test One reveal a male-biased interpretation of these nouns and the preference use of a masculine generic word where the masculine form refers to both women and men where the opposite can be equally grammatical. The results of Test Two reveal that the students subdue their choices to their social , cultural and psychological constructs and generally fail to assign most occupations to both genders on equal base but reinforce and reflect existing social asymmetries.

# شواهد على استخدام الجندر (النوع الاجتماعي)

د. جوليانا يوسف

كلية الآداب/ جامعة البصرة

**الملخص :**

أحدثت الحركات النسوية في سبعينيات القرن الماضي ثورة فكرية بإدخال أبعاد نسوية (أنثوية) وفرضها في مبادئ المعرفة المختلفة . كان مفهوم الجندر Gender أو النوع الاجتماعي Social Gender من هذه المفاهيم الذي يعنى بدراسة المتغيرات حول مكانة المرأة و الرجل في المجتمع و الأدوار المحددة اجتماعيا لكل منهما بغض النظر عن الفروقات البيولوجية Sex والفسلجية لكل منهما . وتؤثر المنظومة الايدولوجية للمجتمع بقيمها و أفكارها و معتقداتها في اللغة من خلال تثبيت أنماط وادوار Stereotypes لكليهما و التي ليس لها علاقة بالاختلافات الجنسية .

تصطدم الترجمة بمثل هذه التحديات عند التعامل مع هذه الأنماط لأن هذه الأدوار قد تختلف من مجتمع إلى آخر و ينعكس ذلك على لغته وينطبق هذا الحال على اللغتين الانكليزية و العربية اللتين تختلفان ليس فقط في نظامهما اللغوي في التعبير عن جنس الاسم حيث يكون ضمائريا في الأولى وضمائريا و قواعديا ( نحويا) في الثانية بل وفي المعنى الاجتماعي للأسماء التي يمنحها متحدثو هاتين اللغتين للمفردات التي تكون فيها دالة الجنس غامضة .

يسعى هذا البحث لكشف الاتجاهات الفكرية و الاجتماعية التي يعكسها طلبة قسم الترجمة في التعامل مع الأسماء التي تدل على وظائف معينة في المجتمـع كطبيب (doctor) او مهندس (engineer) وغيرها عند نقلها من اللغة الانكليزية إلى العربية . ويستند في نتائجه إلى اختبارين يتضمن الأول منهما عشرين جملة تحتوي على أسماء حرف مختلفة قام أربعون طالب و طالبة بترجمتها من اللغة الانكليزية إلى العربية بينما يتضمن

الاختبار التالي عشرين جملة أخرى تحتوي على المفردات الوظيفية  ذاتها قام  الطلبة عينهم بتحديد ماهية النوع (مذكر/ مؤنث) الذي تنتمي له هذه الكلمات من خلال جنسها .
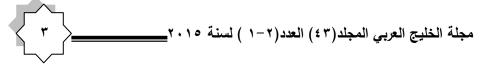
يستخلص البحث بان اسناد هذه الكلمات إلى الجنس ألذكوري هو السائد برغم إن هذه الأسماء مبهمة من حيث كونها مذكرة أو مؤنثة و بان استخدام الإشارة المؤنثة في البعض منها ليس له علاقة بالمستوى الصرفي أو النحوي أو الدلالي في اللغة العربية بقدر  ماله علاقة بالمنظومة الفكرية للطلبة في إقران بعض هذه الوظائف بالنساء بشكل اكبر مما يعكس حقيقة إن الترجمة ليست فعالية  لغوية فقط بل تحمل أبعادا ثقافية وفكرية واجتماعية.

## 1.Introduction

Translation is a complicated process in which a number of problems are faced when embarking and rendering the meaning of one language (SL)   to another(TL).These problems  are  not necessarily of linguistic type but often can be of cultural nature because language does embrace all types of 'cultural deposits', in the grammar (gender  of inanimatenouns, patterns of address, as well as lexis, that are not taken into consideration in universals, nor in consciousness or translation (Newmark, 1988:95). Because language is part of culture,hence, translation from (SL) into(TL) cannot be performed adequately without a knowledge of both cultures besides their structures(Larson,1984: 431).

This entails that when translating, every aspect of the text whether lexical words, grammatical structures, communicative situations or cultural context has to be rendered correctly and appropriately.
Within this framework, translation is additionally   seen by Vermeer (1986) as  a 'cross-cultural transfer' althoughNissen (2002:1)stretches the issue further into considering translation as a  kind of  transfer which includes 'ideological imprints' if ideology is viewed in its wide sense, i.e. a system comprising the

set of values, ideas and beliefs which govern a community. The translator is, in effect, burdened with a necessary bag of knowledge of this set of values specific to the languages (s)he is handling.

One of the concepts that has bearing on the relationship between language and culture is that of 'gender'. One basic definition of gender is the classification of nouns and pronouns in a language according to the presence or absence of sex (Zboon,2002: 5).

Although Zubinand kopcke (1984:41) stress that gender can be 'a pragmatic instance of the arbitrariness of language', research in critical discourse analysis has shown that language itself is gendered or has become gendered. One example of this is of the use of the male pronoun 'he' to refer to either males or males and females but not females alone. Until recently, the use of 'he 'or 'him' in place of sex-indefinite nouns is the norm and the correct practice. This is quite true even when writing or talking about words such as'author' 'artist','doctor'',teacher','director' or' bank manager' whose sex is unknown to us.(Bloor and Bloor, 2007: 94). Reflecting from a radical feminist thinking, Cameron (1995:159)believes that the rules according to which language is used encourage non-sexist language, thus encouraging the use of the gender that seems obvious, natural and neutral at the expense of that which is ludicrous, loaded and perverse but warns she against the social agenda that the makers of such rules and wish to foster within society.

In the field of translation, the issue of gender has also attracted interests of the scholars in the field for example, State(1994),Simon(1996),VonFlotow(1997,2001),Strauss(1998), Chamberlain(1998) and Santaemilia(2005). Flotow (2001:1) attributes this 'burst of activity' on gender in translation to the transcultural and translingual developments in the women's movement back in the 70's. In her article"Gender in Translation: The Issues Go On",she distinguishes five research areas in which

gendercan be combined with translation- historical studies, theoretical considerations, issues of identity ,post-colonial questions and questions of cultural transfer.

It becomes evident then that social institutions play a role in establishing the nature of the gendered identity of the person even if we do not establish the identity itself and this holds equally correct in the process of translating where translation students or professionals will often project their own gender identities in their translations.

The aim of this paper is to show to what extent ideological considerations can play role in the translation of English nouns denoting occupations, e.g. 'an engineer', into Arabic. The researcher hypothesizes that translators primarily interpret such words through their own social conditioning and project sexual stereotypes that are prominent in their male-dominated society.

To test this hypothesis, forty college students of translation at University of Basra were selected to sit for two tests: Test One, with a production task in which the students were asked to translate (20) English sentence including (20)various occupational titles, e.g. Can I have a word with you, doctor? into Arabic ; and Test Two, with a selection task in which the same students were asked to decide on the appropriate reference pronoun that stands for the same (20)occupational titles but in other (20) sentences,e.g. The doctor was honest with his/her patient. The two tests were followed by an informal meeting with the student in which they explained their choices of male/female preferences of the tests.

The aim of Test One was to reveal the kind of gender that the students ascribe to the occupation nouns regardless of the translational variations they may use,e.g. (دكتور) or(طبيب),for the English 'doctor'. The aim of Test Two was to get a feedback to

check if these students mapped these occupation items as far as gender is concerned  differentlythan items when the two options of gender(male/female)are given to them.

## 2.Gender

  Gender is one aspect of  grammar viewed by most linguists as the classification of  nouns into classes of masculine, feminine, and sometimes neuter in a way that these classes govern the forms of some other classes (such as articles, adjectives, and pronouns) that come with them in a sentence or discourse(Soltani, 2011:1)

  Gender is not a universal category because it exists in some languages but is nonexistent in others, such as Chinese and Japanese(Pei,1968:125).In  some  languages  such  as  modern Persian and the Kurdish dialect of Sulaimaniya in North of Iraq, gender distinctions are absent because of political, cultural and social reasons(Ibrahim, 1973:25).

Naturally, languages vary in their gender systems.Vigliocco (2001:3) indicates that although languages may have multiple genders (between 2 and 20),the common pattern is of two, three or four genders.

   Gender plays different roles among languages as well. For example , French and Arabic are more dependable on gender in comparison with English and Persian and this is why translators are required to work on (TL) texts skillfully in order to produce a natural translation of (SL) texts with respect to this aspect of language(Soltani, 2011:1).

## 3.Types of Gender

 Gender can be communicated in every language in one way or another and languages may differ in the linguistic means they employ in expressing their gender content.

### 3.1 Grammatical Gender

  According to Pauwels (2003:557), a language with a grammatical gender system groups nouns into gender classes on the grounds of their morphological features. Lyons(1968:283)

sees grammatical gender as a matter of grouping nouns for the purpose of pronominalreference or concord(agreement).To Nissen(2002),this agreement is the determining criterion of gender. If a language has twogenders, this implies that there are two groups of nouns which are syntactically distinguished on the basis of the agreement they make. For example, in Arabic, words fall into masculine and feminine and, therefore, there are two forms of adjectives matching them,e.g., mu?allimuntaweel(a tall male teacher, and mu?allimatuntaweela (a tall female teacher).However, Van Bekum(1996:27) provides a comprehensive framework for grammatical gender assignment in different languages depending on the following features of the noun :(1) semantics of the referent (e.g. French), (2) morphology of the noun (e.g. Russian),or (3) a combination of the three patterns above (e.g. German).

Decker(2011:1) believesthat the grammatical category of gender is relatively rare in English and nouns and verbal forms do not have grammatical gender except for the personal pronouns and specifically the third person singular (he/she/it), whichhas sex reference. For this reason, Corbertt (1991:5) suggests to label such languages in which it is only the pronouns that can present evidence for gender as 'pronominal gender' languages as opposite to the 'grammatical gender' languages.

## 3.2 ReferentialGender

According to Hellinger and BuBmann (2001:8), referential gender relates nouns to the non-linguistic reality. In other words, a noun can indicate a 'female', a 'male' or 'indefinite gender'.
They present an example of the German noun 'madchen'(girl) that is grammatically neuter, has a lexical-semantic specification as female although it is also used to refer to males in an idiomatic expression that bears explicit derogatory connotation because of the gendered message it implies.

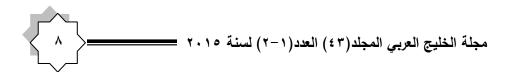## 3.3 Natural (Biological) Gender

Biological gender refers to the classification of nouns according to the logical categories of sex, which are male, female and sexless. These three terms correspond with the respective three grammatical classes: masculine, feminine and neuter(Zboon,2002:13).Forexample, theword 'uncle' is masculine because it denotes the male sex, the word 'aunt' is feminine because it denotes the female sex: and the word 'table' is neutral because it denotes a sexless thing.

However  Quirk et al (1972:191) doubt the  validity of this clear-cut classification of nouns in the case of personification : when one  bestows human qualities to  inanimate objects that  one is sympathetic or  familiar with,e.g. in referring to one's car as 'she'.

Moreover, natural gender cannot be always applied to all words of a language. In English, where there exists a correspondence between gender and sex as in the above-mentioned three words,there are words that can be applied for either a masculine or a feminine, e.g.' baby'. The case is also so with many proper nouns whose gender cannot berecognizable,e.g. "Alex is a hard-working doctor", unless some other accompanying elements in text reveal the' male' gender of the referent,e.g. He graduated only last year. Hellinger and BuBmann(2001:7-8)describethis type of gender as"lexicalgender" and add that it is an important standard in the structure of kinship terminology, address terms, and some frequently used personal nouns.

## 3.4 Social Gender

Social gender is categorizing nouns according to their meaning in a society.Kramarae and Treichler(1985:173) refer to this category as "the socially imposed dichotomy of masculine and feminine roles and character traits". Nissen( 2002:5) states    that
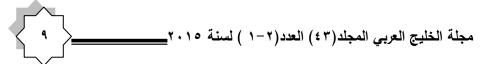
social gender is the property of a word according to which people assign' generally male' or 'generally female'.

Bloor and Bloor ( 2007:95) believe that while gender (sex) may be with a person from birth, institutions still interfere identify in a way that there is no much room for biological consideration as there is far deferential behavior tied with each gender by cultural history. In the same vein, Mylne (1998:5) states that even the semantic principles that have an important role in classifying genders of nouns are based on 'cultural views of sexual roles and not physical sex". This makes Baron and Kolthoff see the category of gender as a 'communicative achievement' and a 'social category' as well (2011:1).

An example of social gender in English is the fact that many job terms indicatehighstatus, such as' lawyer', 'doctor' or 'scientist' are normally pronominalized by the male- specific pronoun (he) in contexts where their term references are unknown or not relevant ,while those which indicate lowstatus ,such as 'nurse' ,' schoolteacher', or'secretary' are normally pronominalized by the female-specific pronoun (she)(Hellinger and BuBmann,2001:11).

In Arabic words or pronouns are used for inclusive or gender-indefinite reference. Job terms express gender distinction for gender singular nouns via grammatical gender, e.g. 'muhami'(a male lawyer) opposite to 'muhamiya' (a female lawyer). However, when the referent is a group of males and females, the generic masculine "muhamiyun" is used but never the feminine plural "muhamiyat" (Hachimi,2001:34).

Cameron(2003:452) stresses that the ideologies of language and gender are specific to time and space and vary across both culture and historical periods.Nissen(2002: 5)illustrates this with the example of the occupational term 'secretary' in the 19th century; the social gender of this word was 'male' opposite to what it is

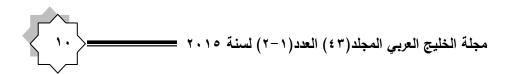today, i.e.'female'. In other words, the gender role associated with the term is reversed.

Romaine(1999:5) also includes within social gender cases of 'ambiguous'reference of gender and believes that gender differences in a language are rarely context-independent. This is so because a word can refer differently and significantly depending on who uses it in particular context. Her example is "How about meetings for a drink later, honey?" in which 'honey' could refer to a waitress if used by a male customer or 'male' if used by a woman addressing her husband.

Social gender is a salient category in some languages,e.g. Turkish, a language that lacksgender variable pronouns. A word like 'Kuyumcu' (gold seller) is lexically gender-indefinite, but is invariably associated with a male referent in spite that the same word can be used to refer to a female gold seller(Hellinger and BuBmann: 11).

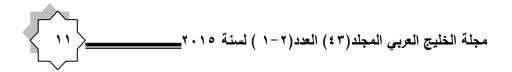## 4. Translation Problems with Respect to Gender

Livia (2003:157) believes "when translating from language in which there are many linguistic gender markers into a language which has fewer, either gender information is lost or it is overstated, overtly asserted where in the original language it is more subtly presupposed".

Translators may face some difficulties when they translate from(SL) that has a grammatical gender patternized differently from that of (TL).The difficulties may increase when grammatical gender coincides with the sex of the referent. For instance when (SL) does not indicate gender divisions in first-person pronoun but requires gender agreement patterns that may produce the effect of gendered self-reference through gender agreement , and (TL) shows neither gender distinctions in the first personal pronoun nor grammatical gender agreement (McConnell-Ginet,2003:89).

An example from Arabic-English serves the case. Arabic shows no gender distinction in the first-person singular pronoun'ana' but it does show grammaticalgender syntactically:'anamurtah'( I am comfortable)if the speaker is a man but'anamurtaha' if the speaker is a woman. English, on the other hand, does not mark gender in predicate constructions and this implies that when translated from Arabic into English, the information about the sex of the speaker can be lost unless the translator overcomes this gap by resorting to some means to convey this piece of information about the sex of the person in question.

Al-Qinai(2000:514-515) believes differently: problems arise when translating from (SL) manifesting less detailed gender distinctions in its pronominal system (e.g. English) to (TL) whose pronominal gender is more detailed and rich,e.g Arabic. His discussion is based on the importance of gender reference in advertisement texts. A word like 'you' is indiscriminately employed in English regardless of number and gender whereas in Arabic it has five equivalents: anta(second person singular, masculine); 'anti'(second personsingular, feminine);'antuma' (second person dual masculine and feminine); 'antum'(second person plural, masculine),and 'antunna' (second person plural, feminine).Al-Qinai states that since the translator has to make a decision between the masculine and feminine pronouns and the gender agreement entailed,he will tend to use the 'dominate' masculine form ' anta' rather thanthe feminine form 'anti'.However, he warns that although the translator will find this approach too simplistic to be applied but the translator's choice may result in sacrificing the reading of the text and the loss of potential clientele owing to the failure of the translator in marketing the product to the female sector.

Romaine (1999:21) states another obstacle which the grammatical gender may cause to translators. They should make distinctions of gender and status as well. When translating from a language in which they are not 'grammaticalized',e.g. English, to a language where they are so,e.g. Spanish, Romaine stresses that it is not possible to translate a sentence such as 'you are tired' to Spanish without indicating the sex of the person addressed and the relationship the speaker has to the addressee.

Nissen(2002:2) sees that some other translation problems may rise even when translating between languages which both indicate gender. One of these problems is related to the translation of metaphor and personification.This problem occurs, for example, if one word of a specific gender is translated into another word with a different gender while each conveying quite different connotations. He quotes Roman Jacobson's commenton a Russian-Czech translation of Mu sister Life, a book of poems by Pasternak:althoughsuch title is quite natural in Russian in which 'life' is feminine, it was enough to reduce the translator to despair in his attempt to render these translations because in Czech 'life' is masculine. Nissen (Ibid: 3) concludes that the translation of gender is not an 'innocent' task because it has to take into consideration while one word of one specific gender reflects one reality in (SL), the word corresponding to it in (TL) may possessthe opposite gender and may reflect another reality.

Nissen proposes three options to overcome the conflict resulting from opposing connotations while translating. The translator may look for a synonym which belongsto the same gender as the (SL) word, or select a word from third language e.g. Latin when translating among European languages, or provide a note clarifying the divergent gender of the word in (SL).

On the other hand, social gender also may cause some difficulties for translators when rendering meaning.Baxtor(2005:2) sees that 'translators often tend to project their views of what they expect human society and behavior to be like in their final target texts. In

the same vein,Nissen (2002:8)believesthat in translation the assignment of social gender is not an arbitrary process but decisive ideological aspects are also involved. And because this kind of gender is dependent on non-linguistic factors, namely society, culture, time, and context, translators often face the dilemma as how to translate gender which has so huge potential variability (Karoubi, 2011:5) .

In connection with occupational terms whose sex referent is neither known nor irrelevant,Nissen(2002:5-6)thinks that translators make their choices according to their ideological outlook they have.He illustrates this with an example from a novel called Rebecca translated from English into five other languages, namely French,Italian,Spanish,Portuguese, and German. In one scene, Maxim and his wife are hosting some relatives for dinner .One of Maxim's relatives expresses his admiration for the meal by saying(same cook I suppose, Maxim?).Nissen adds that because there is no reference to the word 'cook' later in the text, the sex of the word is not revealed. The five translators of the text were obliged to mark the gender identity of the word 'cook' but they failed to agree about its gender. Three of them assumed that the social gender associated with the word was feminine while the other two marked it as generally masculine.Nissen(Ibid) concludes it seems that the translators have relied on their personal knowledge as to what type of cook(male or female) is more likely to be in a noble English manor or they simply followed their ideological expectations to what would be a normal gender for this word in the eye of their community.

Translation problems of social gender are still there with words that do not necessarily express job terms. Wandruszka(cited in Nissen:2002) refers to Shakespeare's sonnet(104), which begins with the line (Tomy, fair friend, you never can be old).She

mentions that when comparing two German translations of this sonnet from the last century,discrepancy in the translation of gender is very  clear  because 'friend' is treated a female in the first translation while 'male' in the second translation over a span of six years only.

## 4. **The Sample and the Subjects of the Study**

The subjects of the study represent (40) undergraduate Iraqi students studying English-Arabic-English translation at the University of Basra for the academic year 2012-2013.These are four-year students and the researcher assumes that they have sufficiently practiced translation, have faced translation obstacles, and have more insight when translating. Their average age is (22) and their linguistic capabilities are identical as far as their exposure to the fixed program they have been  studying at the college though their translational decisions may vary because of their personal prospective.

## 5.**Test Description and Administration**

The research is based on the findings of two tests conducted on the students referred to above. Test One consists of a total of (20)sentences, each including  a profession word such as 'doctor', which the (40) subjects are asked to translate from English into Arabic.The  researcher's target is to check how do the subjects render the gender of these words regardless of the inconsistencies that may occur in the translation of the sentence as a whole ,or the variety of terms that the subjects choose in their translations of the professions  such as ' متسول او شحاذ اومحتاج 'for ' a beggar' or if they use a loan word,e.g 'دكتور' instead of its equivalent in Arabic' طبيب''tabeeb'(a medical doctor)

Test Two, similarly,consists of (20) other sentences that contain the same occupational activities included in Test One. The subjects have to choose what they think to be the' right' gender reference pronoun for each occupation word, either 'she/her' or 'he/his/him'.The subjects are strictly recommended to make one

choice only in order to measure their bias in gender assignment. Test Two is seen as a feedback to Test One and that is why it is simply based on selection rather than production requirement. Both tests are attached in the appendix at the end of research.

Both tests were conducted in one hour's time with Test One presented first and collected and an interval of ten minutes before Test Two was presented and collected.

## 5. Analysis and Discussion of the Resultsof the Tests

### a- Test One

Table( 1) illustrates how the subjects rendered the masculine and the feminine items in Test One  with their percentages .The percentage can be calculated as such:

%= The sum of the masculine's(or feminine's) rendering X100
                    Total number of subjects

The percentage of  masculine's rendering of the second  item in Test One can be shown as follows:

%=31X100
           40

%=77.5

It is obvious that the majority of occupation titles  in Test One are interpreted as 'masculine' rather than 'feminine'. This is true for the major bulk (14 sentences)of the test: the occupation words in  sentences(1)  (4),  (5)  ,  (6),( 8),(9)  ,  (10),(11), (13),(14),(15),(17),(18)and (20) were rendered  into their Arabic male equivalents exclusively.

However, in the rest (6) sentences ,namely sentences (2),(3),(7),(12),(16),and( 19), occupation titles were also translated into their feminine equivalents but in far less percentages,with the exception of   sentence (3) being  the only sentence where there was full agreement to its feminine reference as it scores 100% as opposite to the rest in  its group.
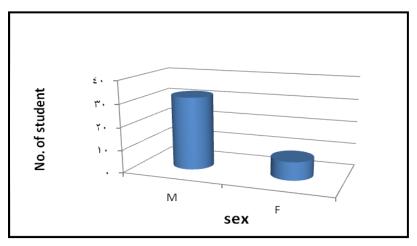
This discrepancy in percentages indicates that the translation subjects regard the masculine form as the 'norm' and that the issue of gender is not relevant especially in these sentences in which the context does not help in identifying  the gender reference and consequently in their translation into Arabic. They have studied that in Arabic,'tabeeb'(a male medical doctor) has a wider lexical referential potential than'tabeeba'(a female medical doctor), and therefore what usually comes first in their mind is the former not the latter.This was how the students justified their answers at the informal discussion after the tests.

However, it might also be true that translation can be based sometimes on some gender expectation strategy in some jobs that are considered more suitable for women than men, and this is also reflected in the result of the test, for example into the rendering of the word 'nurse'.The high percentage of 'male' translations in the test overall does not rule out 'female' translations but it rather foreshadows it. It stands in opposition  to 'doctor', which is given a male reference and this partly reflects the reality of the society where doctors are predominately male and that nurses are predominately females although the number of female doctors have also increased substantially.

Strangelyenough,however, in sentence (9) the word 'teacher' is also rendered(100%) totally  into its male equivalent in Arabic and this runs counter to what is actual direct experience where teaching is a very common feminine practice. In the same vein,the term 'secretary' is perceived traditionally as a job for women is still substantially rendered as male as the high percentage(62.5%) shows in comparison with the lower feminine rendering percentage(37.5).

**Table (1): The rendering items of Test One with their percentages**

| The Items | The Masculine's rendering | Masculine % | The Feminine's rendering | Feminine% |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1- doctor | 40 | 100% | 0 | 0 |
| 2- hairdresser | 31 | 77.5 | 9 | 22.5 |
| 3- nurse | 0 | 0 | 40 | 100 |
| 4- journalist | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 5- singer | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 6- engineer | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 7- secretary | 25 | 62.5 | 15 | 37.5 |
| 8- painter | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 9- teacher | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 10- novelist | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 11- driver | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 12- dancer | 37 | 92.5 | 3 | 7.5 |
| 13- cook | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 14-beggar | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 15-surgeon | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 16-shop assistant | 38 | 95 | 2 | 5 |
| 17-electrician | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 18-judge | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |
| 19-cleaner | 39 | 97.5 | 1 | 2.5 |
| 20-officer | 40 | 100 | 0 | 0 |

**Bar Graph (1): The Masculine and the Feminine Occupations in Test One**

### 5.2 .Test Two

Table(2) below displays the selection of the personal reference pronouns in Test Two and their percentages.Likewise , the subjects tend to choose the masculine personal pronouns with (16) occupational words of this test and in percentages higher than that for the feminine rendering .This can be attributed to the fact that the subjects are still influenced by the male-dominated discourse of their society and preferred to choose the masculine gender in these sentences.
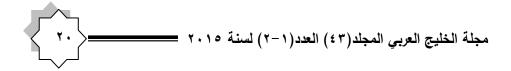
However, some of the subjects chose the feminine personal pronouns in rendering the items of Test Two. This indicates, on the other hand, that the students are more conscious to gender than they are in Test One because the test requirements comply them to choose one specific pronoun reference from the two options. The table belowalso indicates that not a single occupational title is used exclusively for either of the two genders as it is with Test One. In other words, the subjects were reflecting on social norms. All sentences are gender-biased and unlike Test One the percentage rises especially here for the feminine
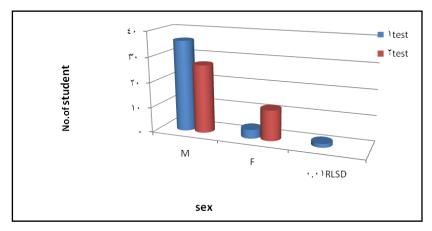
reference but in various amounts (7.5%-97.5%). This is true especially for sentences( 2),(3),(5),(7),(9),(12) and (13) in the table below.The  percentage is close to that of male preferences as for itemsin sentences(5)'singer',( 9)'teacher' and(13)'cook';or equal to it as to item in sentence(12) 'dancer';or even higher as in items in sentences (2)'hairdresser', (3)'nurse' and(7)'secretary'.Thesejob titles are understood to be feminineby a high percentage of  subjects. This reflects the social view of these subjects' perception to the female identity of these words. Women can be secretaries and teachers because that what prevails in working places;they can be hairdressers because male hairdressers are not allowable in their conservative society; they can be singers or  dancersbecause  both singing or dancing are appreciated for women rather than  men , and finally they  can be cooks because cooking is one of the primary responsibilities of women, not men.

However ,the percentage stays low for the item 'beggar' in sentence (14).When discussing this item with my students as why they choose a 'he' not a 'she' counter to what see of  more women beggars than men beggars they thought that women cannot be 'beggars' because begging  is disrespectful for women. This clearly  reflects their attitude  though in reality women come next to children in practicing begging  in our society.

**Table(2):The Selection and the Percentages of the Personal Pronouns in Test Two**

| The Items | The Masculine's choice | Masculine % | The Feminine's choice | Feminine % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1- doctor | 32 | 80 | 8 | 20 |
| 2- hairdresser | 10 | 25 | 30 | 75 |
| 3- nurse | 1 | 2.5 | 39 | 97.5 |
| 4- journalist | 34 | 78.5 | 8 | 15 |
| 5- singer | 22 | 55 | 18 | 45 |
| 6- engineer | 37 | 92.5 | 3 | 7.5 |
| 7- secretary | 16 | 40 | 24 | 60 |
| 8- painter | 34 | 85 | 6 | 15 |
| 9- teacher | 22 | 92.5 | 18 | 45 |
| 10- novelist | 31 | 77.5 | 9 | 22.5 |
| 11-driver | 35 | 87.5 | 5 | 12.5 |
| 12-dancer | 20 | 50 | 20 | 50 |
| 13-cook | 21 | 52.5 | 19 | 47.5 |
| 14-beggar | 34 | 85 | 6 | 15 |
| 15-surgeon | 35 | 87.5 | 5 | 12.5 |
| 16shopassistant | 33 | 82.5 | 7 | 17.5 |
| 17-electrician | 34 | 85 | 6 | 15 |
| 18-judge | 33 | 82.5 | 7 | 17.5 |
| 19-cleaner | 31 | 77.5 | 9 | 22.5 |
| 20-officer | 35 | 87.5 | 5 | 12.5 |

**Bar Graph (2): The Masculine and the Feminine Occupations in Test One and Two**

## 7.Conclusion

The results of the paper show that translation is not a strictly linguistic phenomenon. Although language itself is gendered, translators form their own mental images of gender by certain mental concepts outside the source language itself. This is applicable when translating from English into Arabicand it is evident  in the translation of professional titles and their prominent associations. The use of male interpretation is frequent and routinely used even when the issue of gender is neutral to the utterance. Men are  the privileged group in a masculine society that the subjects of the test live in.

However, in some cases certain gender messages correlate with the gender matrix of the society the translators live in and their translations can reflect and enhance the social asymmetries which can be characterized by a male or a female dominance evident in the subsystems of the society, and this is quite evident in the use of items denoting occupations. Both these two cases are evident in the results obtained from the subjects, who underwent the test and

who based their choices according to the reality around them or to their prescribed personal viewpoints.

In translation,gender biases and gender expectations or stereotypes cannot be avoided because they are social products of how a community sees its reality and approves of its social norms. Being part of this community, beginnertranslators consciously or unconsciously contribute to fostering their prejudices on their readers but it is equally important to draw their attention that they bear responsibility not to underestimate the female membership of such professional titles but also to empower women, who are socially less powered, in this communication process of translation. It is pointless to overlook theincreasing presence ofwomen practicing professions in our society today with the increasing rate of women population and the free educational opportunities they have had since the 70's of the last century.
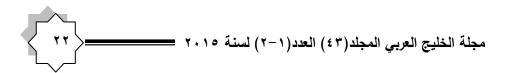
## Bibliography

Al-Qinai , J. (2000). " Translation Quality Assessment: Strategies, Parameters, and Procedures." . META, XLV, 3,497-519.

Baron, Bettina and Helga Kolthoff. (2011). 'Gender in interaction: Perspectives on femininity and masculinity in ethnography and discourse.' Journal of Pragmatics and Beyond, No.93(xxiv-355). Accessed July 19 ,2011 <http://www.benjamine.com/egibin/tbooknew.(gi)bookid:phns93

Baxtor, Robert Neal.(2005). ' On the need for non-sexist language in translation.' Language Society and Culture Issue 15:pp. 1-15

Bloor, M and Bloor , T. (2007).The Practice of Critical Discourse Analysis : An Introduction. London: Hodder Arnold.

Cameron,D.(1995). Verbal Hygiene.London and New York.Routledge.

(2003). Gender and Language Ideologies. In Handbook of Language and Gender, edited by J. Holmes and M. Meyerhoff,447-467.Oxford:Blackwell.

Corbett, Greville.(1991). Gender. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Decker, Rod.Inclusive Language. Viewed July 16, 2011.<http://wwwntrsources.com/blog/documents/Gender.pdf>

Hachimi, A. (2001). 'Shifting sands: Language and gender in Moroccan Arabic.' In Gender Across Languages, edited by MarlisHelinger and Hadumod, 1-25. Amsterdam : John Benjamin.

Hellinger, M. and HadumodBuBmann .(2001). Gender across languages: The linguistic representation of women and men. In Gender Across Languages, edited by MarlisHellinger and HadumodBuBmann, 1-25. Amsterdam :JohnBenjamins.

Ibrahim, M. H.(1973). Grammatical Gender: its origin and development. The Hague: Mouton.

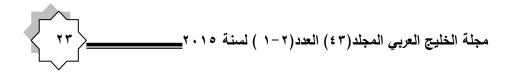Karoubi, B.'Gender and Translation'. Accessed June 21, 2011<www.translationdirectory.com/article528/html>

Kramarae, Cheris and Paula A. Treichler.(1985). A feminist dictionary. Boston: Pandora.

Larson, Mildred L.(1984). Meaning-based Translation: A Guide to Cross-Language Equivalence.Lanham:University Press of America.

Livia, Anna.(2004) ' " One Man in Two is a Woman": Linguistic Approaches to Gender in Literary Texts.' In The Handbook of Language and Gender, edited by J. Holmes and M. Meyerhoff, 142-158. Oxford, Blackwell Publishing.

Lyons, John .(1968). Introduction to Theoretical Linguistics. 2nd edition, New York: Random House.

McConnell-Ginet, S.(2003). 'What's in a Name: Social Labeling and Gender Practices.' In The Handbook of Language and

Gender, edited by J. Holmes and M. Meyerhoff, 67-97.Oxford:Blackwell publishing.

Mylne, J. H. The Assignment of Grammatical Gender: A Cognitive Approach. Accessed June 21,2011<http:www.vq.net.au/~zzbruns/uni/e/2/7-ass207.html>

Newmark,Peter.(1988). A Handbook of Translation. London: Prentice Hall.

Nissen , U. K.(2011) ' Aspects of Translating Gender.' Linguistik Online, 11,25-37. Accessed at <http://www.linguistik-online.de/11_02/nissen.html>

Pauwels, Anne. (2003).' Linguistic Sexism and Feminist Activism.'In The Handbook of Language and Gender, edited by J. Holmes and M. Meyerhoff, 550-570. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Pei, Mario.(1968). The Story of Language.London :George Allan and Unwin.

Quirk. S.,G. Leech and J. Svartvik.(1985). A Grammar of Contemporary English. London: Longman.
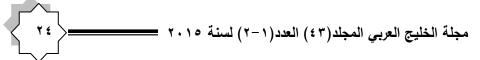
Romaine, Suzanne. (1999).Communicating Gender. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.

Soltani, Arezzo.(2011). Translating Gender from English to Persian.Accessed athttp://chi.proz.com/doc/2852

Van Berkum, J. (1996). The Psycholinguistics of Grammatical Gender: Studies in Language Comprehension and Production. PhD diss.. Max Planck Institute for Psycholinguistics, Nijmegen: Nijmegen University Press.

Vigliocco, Gabriella and Vera Kempe.(2011). Conceptual and Word Form Effects in Russian Gender Agreement. University of Stinlina: University Press. Accessed athttp://www.psychol.vcl.ac.UK/gabriella,vigliocco/kempe-viglfinalpdf

Zboon, M. Qasem.(2002). A Pragmatic Study of Gender in Arabic.MA thesis. University of Basra: University Press.

Zubin, David and Klaus-Michael Kopcke.(1986). 'Affect classification in the German gender system.' Lingua 63:41-96.

## Test (1)

Translate the sentences below into Arabic:

1. Can I have a word with you, doctor?
2. The hairdresser closed down the shop.
3. Nurse, could I have a glass of water?
4. The journalist was late for her work.
5. The singer spent the whole night singing.
6. The engineer left for a training course.
7. The company is not satisfied with the new secretary.
8. The painter got a very big prize.
9. A teacher can be a parent.
10. A party was held in the honor of the novelist.
11. The driver was fined for not wearing the safety belt.
12. The dancer was late for the party.
13. One of my relatives was a cook.
14. I like the cheerful beggar.
15. I talked to the surgeon in our local hospital.
16. The shop assistant was not satisfied with the payment.
17. I called the electrician to fix my generator.
18. The judge sentenced the criminal to death.
19. Our company is employing one cleaner this year.
20. The officer was rewarded for professional commitment.

## Test (2)

Choose the personal pronoun that best fits in the sentences below:

1. A doctor should be very honest with his/her patient.
2. The hairdresser looked for his/her scissors impatiently.
3. The nurse is doing his/her rounds now.
4. The journalist spent one whole week on his/her report.
5. She/he is a singer.
6. The new engineer is not satisfied with his/her workers.
7. She/he got a job as personal secretary in the new company.
8. They could tell as soon as they saw him/her that he/she was a painter.
9. The teacher clapped his/her hands to attract the class's attention.
10. He/She is among the best novelists in the country.
11. The driver was not able to see his/her way very quickly.
12. The dancer was late for his/her party.
13. The cook was rewarded for his/her marvelous dishes.
14. The beggar had a nasty cut in his/her right hand.
15. The surgeon was exhausted after standing long on his/her feet.
16. The shop assistant started his/her working life on the ground floor.
17. The electrician searched for his/her pliers restlessly.
18. The judge addressed the audience in front of him/her.
19. The cleaner was not happy with his/her payment.
20. The officer was rewarded for his/her hard work.