الذكوات البيض

اسم مشتق من الذكوة وهي الجمرة الملتهبة والمراد بالذكوات الربوات البيض الصغيرة المحيطة بمقام أمير المؤمنين علي بن أبي طالب{عليه السلام}

شبهها لضيائها وتوهجها عند شروق الشمس عليها لما فيها

موضع قبر علي بن أبي طالب {عليه السلام}

من الدراري المضيئة

{در النجف}فكأنها جمرات ملتهبة وهي المرتفع من الأرض، وهي ثلاثة مرتفعات صغيرة نتوءات بارزة في أرض الغري وقد سميت الغري باسمها، وكلمة بيض لبروزهاعن الأرض.وفي رواية إنّها موضع خلوته أو إنّها موضع عبادته وفي رواية أخرى في رواية المفضل عن الإمام الصادق {عليه السلام}قال: قلت:يا سيدي فأين يكون دار المهدي ومجمع المؤمنين؟ قال:يكون ملكه بالكوفة، ومجلس حكمه جامعها وبيت ماله ومقسم غنائم المسلمين مسجد السهلة وموضع خلوته الذكوات البيض

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Ministry of Higher Education &
Scientific Research
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وزارة التعليم العالي والبحث العلمي
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م/ مجلة الذكوات البيض

السلام عليكم ورحمة الله وبركاته ...

إشارة الى كتابكم المرقم ١٠٤٦ والمؤرخ ١٢/٢٨ /٢٠٢١ والحاقاً بكتابنا المرقم ب ت ٥٧٤٤/٤ في ٢٠٢١/٩/٦ ، والمتضمن أستحداث مجلتكم التي تصدر عن الوقف المذكورة أعلاه ، وبعد الحصول على الرقم المعياري الدولي المطبوع وانشاء موقع الكتروني للمجلة تعتبر الموافقة الواردة في كتابنا أعلاه موافقة نهائية على أستحداث المجلة.

... مع وافر التقدير

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الذكوات البيض

مجلة علمية فكرية فصلية محكمة تصدر عن
دائرة البحوث والدراسات في ديوان الوقف الشيعي

العدد (١٧) السنة الثالثة جمادى الآخرة ١٤٤٦ هـ تشرين الأول ٢٠٢٥ م
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هيأة التحرير من خارج العراق
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التدقيق اللغوي
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الترجمة الانكليزية
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الذكوات البيض

مجلة علمية فكرية فصلية محكمة تصدر عن
دائرة البحوث والدراسات في ديوان الوقف الشيعي

العدد (١٧) السنة الثالثة جمادى الآخرة ١٤٤٦هـ - تشرين الأول ٢٠٢٥م

العنوان الموقعي
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دليل المؤلف .....

١–أن يتسم البحث بالأصالة والجدّة والقيمة العلمية والمعرفية الكبيرة وسلامة اللغة ودقة التوثيق.

٢– أن تحتوي الصفحة الأولى من البحث على:

أ. عنوان البحث باللغة العربية .

ب . اسم الباحث باللغة العربي، ودرجته العلمية وشهادته.

ت . بريد الباحث الإلكتروني.

ث . ملخصان: أحدهما باللغةِ العربية والآخر باللغةِ الإنكليزية.

ج . تدرج مفاتيح الكلمات باللغة العربية بعد الملخص العربي.

٣–أن يكونَ مطبوعًا على الحاسوب بنظام(office Word) ٢٠٠٧ أو ٢٠١٠) وعلى قرص ليزري مدمج (CD) على شكل ملف واحد فقط (أي لا يُجزّأ البحث بأكثر من ملف على القرص) وتُزوَّد هيأة التحرير بثلاث نسخ ورقية وتوضع الرسوم أو الأشكال، إن وُجدت، في مكانِها منَ البحثِ، على أن تكونَ صالحةً مِنَ الناحيةِ الفنيَّة للطباعة.

٤–أن لا يزيدَ عدد صفحات البحث على (٢٥) خمس وعشرين صفحة من الحجم (A4).

٥. يلتزم الباحث في ترتيب وتنسيق المصادر على الصفية APA

٦–أن يلتزم الباحث بدفعِ أُجُور النشر المحدَّدة البالغة (٧٥،٠٠٠) خمسة وسبعين ألف دينار عراقيّ، أو ما يعادلها بالعملات الأجنبية.

٧–أن يكونَ البحثُ خاليًا مِنَ الأخطاءِ اللغوية والنحوية والإملائيَّة.

٨–أن يلتزم الباحث بالخطوط وأحجامِها على النحو الآتي:

أ. اللغة العربية: نوع الخط (Arabic Simplified) وحجم الخط (١٤) للمتن.

ب . اللغة الإنكليزية: نوع الخط (Times New Roman) عناوين البحث (١٦). والملخصات (١٢)

أما فقرات البحث الأخرى؛ فبحجم (١٤) .

٩–أن تكونَ هوامش البحثِ بالنظام الأكتروني(تعليقات ختامية) في نهاية البحث. بحجم ١٢.

١٠–تكون مسافة الحواشي الجانبية (٢,٥٤) سم،والمسافة بين الأسطر (١) .

١١–في حال استعمال برنامج مصحف المدينة للآيات القرآنية يتحمل الباحث ظهور هذه الآيات المباركة بالشكل الصحيح من عدمه، لذا يفضّل النسخ من المصحف الالكتروني المتوافر على شبكة الانترنيت.

١٢–يبلَّغ الباحث بقرارِ صلاحيَّة النشر أو عدمها في مدَّةٍ لا تتجاوز شهرين من تاريخ وصولهِ إلى هيأةِ التحرير.

١٣–يلتزمُ الباحث بإجراءِ تعديلات المحكّمين على بحثهِ وفق التقارير المرسلة إليهِ وموافاةِ المجلة بنسخةٍ معدَّلةٍ في مدَّةٍ لا تتجاوزُ (١٥) خمسة عشر يومًا.

١٤–لا يحق للباحث المطالبة بمتطلبات البحث كافة بعد مرور سنة من تاريخ النشر.

١٥–لاتعاد البحوث الى أصحابها سواء قُبلت أم لم تُقبل.

١٦–تكون مصادر البحث وهوامشه في نهاية البحث، مع كتابة معلومات المصدر عندما يرد لأول مرة.

١٧–يخضع البحث للتقويم السري من ثلاثة خبراء لبيان صلاحيته للنشر.

١٨–يشترط على طلبة الدراسات العليا فضلاً عن الشروط السابقة جلب ما يثبت موافقة الأستاذ المشرف على البحث وفق النموذج المعتمد في المجلة.

١٩–يحصل الباحث على مستل واحد لبحثه، ونسخة من المجلة، واذا رغب في الحصول على نسخة أخرى فعليه شراؤها بسعر (١٥) ألف دينار.

٢٠–تعبر الأبحاث المنشورة في المجلة عن آراء أصحابها لا عن رأي المجلة.

٢١–ترسل البحوث إلى مقر المجلة – دائرة البحوث والدراسات في ديوان الوقف الشيعي بغداد – باب المعظم)

أو البريد الإلكتروني:(hus65in@Gmail.com) (off reserch@sed.gov.iq) بعد دفع الأجور في مقر المجلة

٢٢–لا تلتزمُ المجلة بنشر البحوث التي تُخلُّ بشرطٍ من هذهِ الشروط .

مجلة علمية فكرية فصلية محكمة تصدر عن دائرة البحوث والدراسات في ديوان الوقف الشيعي

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فصلية مُحكمة تُعنى بالبحوث والدراسات العلمية والإنسانية والفكرية
العدد (١٧) السنة الثالثة جمادى الآخرة ١٤٤٦ هـ كانون الأول ٢٠٢٥م

The Role of Applied Linguistics in Translation Studies : Challeng–es and innovations

Researcher: Shrouq Shahab Ahmad
Karbuk University/Iran

1. Introduction

1.1 Background and Rationale

Translation studies is no longer a sub–trade but a separate discipline that has its theories, techniques and practices. The key to this change has been applied linguistics which provides the tools of description, empirically based methods and even models of the pedagogy which clarify how translators perform and how a translation works in the world. Texts in his classic typology of translation, Roman Jakobson established an early agenda by linking translation to linguistic analysis and not just intuition (Jakobson, 1959, pp. 233–235).

Since the 1970s, the field expanded, and concepts of pragmatics, dis–course analysis, sociolinguistics, and text linguistics were absorbed. A survey by Susan Bassnett in the field of study demonstrated that the field of translation studies was shaped by questions of equivalence, of function, and of culture which all took recourse to the ideas of applied linguistics like cohesion, register, and discourse genre (Bassnett, 2002, pp. 1–13).

The following steps were a result of empirical approach and pedago–gy. Training translator's books, like the one by Baker, In Other Words, brought about operational concepts, collocation, lexical relations, co–herence, thematic structure, which can be measured or taught (Baker, 2011, pp. 11–15, 8692). The study of quality assessment of translation (TQA) by Juliane House developed a framework that connected the register analysis to assessing criteria, thus introducing the systematic assessment both in the classroom and workplace (House, 2015, pp. 3–7, 36–41).

Subsequent tendencies focused on description rather than prescrip–tion. Gideon Toury suggested that translations are to be learned as facts of the target culture, and norms are to be recreated on the basis of corpora and situational findings (Toury, 2012, pp. 7–8). This move brought the translation studies into corpus linguistics, which is an ap–plied linguistic approach that involves gathering and examining large collections of texts to identify patterns that are otherwise not obvious through intuition.

Practice was redefined in functionalist approaches in terms of pur–pose. Christiane Nord suggested using the strategies chosen by trans–

lators to address a communicative brief in a target culture. This point of view uses the means of applied linguistics: situation analysis, text type, audience design, to explain the real decisions (Nord, 2006, p. 28). A diffusion metaphor of ideas was proposed by Andrew Chesterman in translation theory, which takes concepts as so–called memes, which replicate and stabilize into norms within communities of practice – a prism that can be used to think sociolinguistic ally about change (Chesterman, 1997, p. 94).

To be brief, applied linguistics provides translation studies with:

1. analytical categories (e.g., register, cohesion, implicate),
2. empirical instruments (e.g., corpora, text measures), and
3. teaching models (e.g., explicit strategy teaching).

The current study is a mapping of these contributions, current issues, and innovations that are of importance in the training, assessment, and research design.

1.2 Problem of the Study

Integration is still imbalanced, even though the partnership has been long. Other translation programs do not use real tasks in conjunc–tion with linguistic tools. Social purpose, technology and multimo–dality are overlooked in other linguistic analyses. The empirical work is still scattered in terms of small datasets, incompatible schemes of annotation, and ad hoc quality standards. In addition, there is still a methodological gap. Applied linguistics generally gives preference to quantifiable measures and repeatable methodologies, and the results of many translation studies projects are based on qualitative interpre–tation only. The issue that is resolved here is the absence of coherent, methodologically explicit explanation on how applied linguistics may benefit translation research and practice in the light of modern chal–lenges: technology, multimodality, pedagogy, and evaluation (House, 2015, p. 14; Baker, 2011, p. 18; Toury, 2012, p. 15).

1.3 Research Questions

The research questions are as follows:

RQ1. What has the field of applied linguistics contributed to the study of translation over time and in concept? (Jakobson, 1959, pp. 233–235; Bassnett, 2002, pp. 1–13).

RQ2. What problems inhibit the effective application of applied lin–

guistic techniques in translation research and training nowadays? (House, 2015, pp. 1–7).

RQ3. What are recent developments, e.g., corpus–based methods, functionalist briefs, multimodal analysis, data–driven pedagogy, what do they promise in actual terms? (Toury, 2012, pp. 61–85; Nord, 2006, pp. 28–35; Baker, 2011, pp. 253–260).

RQ4. What can be done to incorporate applied linguistics in future research to deliver sound and generalisable findings to inform training and professional practice? (House, 2015, pp. 169–183).

1.4 Aims

The study pursues four aims:

1. to trace major contributions of applied linguistics to the study of translation using specific examples;
2. to identify enduring problems that inhibit greater integration;
3. to record innovations that enhance analysis, assessment and train–ing;
4. to suggest a design template of mixed–methods studies which inte–grates qualitative insight and quantitative rigor.

All the aims directly address one of the research questions and are based on open and verifiable sources (Bassnett, 2002, pp. 1–13; Baker, 2011; House, 2015, pp. 1–7).

1.5 Significance of the Study

Three kinds of impact follow. First, conceptual clarity: the research shows that applied linguistic constructs, such as the register, cohe–sion, pragmatic inference, information structure, facilitate precise and teachable analysis of translation (Baker, 2011, pp. 86–92). Second, a methodological advancement: corpus tools and explicit quality mod–els allow reproducibility of the findings and broader evaluation across the genres (Toury, 2012, pp. 61–85; House, 2015, pp. 169–183). Third, pedagogical value: functionalist reasoning and discourse analysis equip trainees with short–cuts in terms of briefs, audiences and genres (Nord, 2006, pp. 28–35; Bassnett, 2002, pp. 85– 92).

1.6 Hypotheses

H1: There are significant contributions of applied linguistics to trans–lation studies, which are more theory and training than standardized empirical protocols (Bassnett, 2002, pp. 1–13; Toury, 2012, pp. 61–69).

H2: The key issues are the limitation of disciplines, inappropriateness of methods, and the dynamic nature of technologies; explicit models like TQA address these gaps (House, 2015, pp. 1–7, 169183).

H3: New techniques, such as corpus–based description, functionalist briefs, and discourse–based and pragmatics–based strategy training, show quantifiable results in analysis and training (Nord, 2006, pp. 28–35; Baker, 2011, p. 253; Toury, 2012, p. 65).

H4: Combining linguistic measures with qualitative analysis will yield more valid and generalisable findings to research and to practice (Chesterman, 1997, p. 94).

2. Literature Review

Although the relationships are quite strong, there are a number of problems that restrain the complete adoption of applied linguistics in the study of translation.

2.3.1 Disciplinary Boundaries

The field of translation studies has been seeking independence in the discipline, which highlights cultural and ideological aspects that are beyond the scope of linguistics (Bassnett, 2002, pp. 86– 90). Other theorists fear that overstating the linguistic theory will decrease translation to a mere technical process instead of a cultural practice. On the other hand, several applied linguists focus on both language acquisition and sociolinguistics and see translation as a marginal area to them. This separation has resulted in conceptual disintegration and a limited interdisciplinary cooperation.

2.3.2 Methodological Divergence

The values of applied linguistics are the quantitative analysis, reproducibility, and empirical rigor. In contrast, qualitative, interpretive methods, which are rooted in the humanities, have been favored in translation studies traditionally. It is hard to bridge these methodological worlds. Hejwowski (2018, p. 6) noted that scholars of translation typically make use of linguistic terminology without the corresponding analytic methods, and with mixed outcomes. An overarching approach that combines textual interpretation and linguistic metrics has never been found.

2.3.3 Technological Change

The two subjects are challenged by the fast development of machine

translation (MT) and computer–aided translation (CAT) systems. Computational and corpus–based methods are provided by applied linguistics and most scholars of translation do not have the required training. Now translators have to work with the output of the MT, do post–editing, and maintain a terminology database which requires not only a linguistic but also a technical knowledge. Computational linguistics and psycholinguistic knowledge can be applied in applied linguistics, but it has so far not been well integrated in translation pro–grams (Malmkjær, 2018, pp. xiii–xiv).

2.3.4 Multimodality and New Media

The traditional applied linguistics was mainly concerned with writ–ten or spoken language. Modern translation is becoming more multi–modal, i.e. films, websites, games, social media, in which image, sound and text are shared to create meaning. The study by Kress and van Leeuwen (2001) on multimodal discourse analysis can be viewed as a promising paradigm, but translation studies are just starting to im–plement them. Translators now need to organize the semiotic modes that are not confined to words and this demands a broader concept of linguistics.

2.3.5 Ethical and Ideological Problems.

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a subfield of applied linguistics, which studies the functioning of power and ideology using language. Such questions can be seen in the debates of domestication and for–eignisation (Venuti, 2000, pp. 6775) in translation. Translators define cultural perception by lexical and syntactic decisions which are usually made unconsciously. These ideological effects can be revealed with the help of applied linguistic tools of discourse analysis, but training does not often focus on them, which leads to the development of un–equal ethical consciousness among professionals.

2.4 Contemporary Innovations

New intersections between translation studies and applied linguis–tics have been observed in the twenty–first century in reaction to the above challenges.

2.4.1 Translation Studies based on corpus.

Corpus technology allows making comparisons on a grand scale be–tween source and target texts. An example is the Translational Eng–

lish Corpus (TEC) and similar corpus like the COMPARA (English Portuguese), which enables researchers to measure lexical density, frequency, and collocational behaviour. The simplification in translations, i.e. the decreased lexical diversity and reduced sentence length, is always present in the studies, which implies that translators modify the text to make it easier to read. These results are based on applying the linguistic methodology and they redefine translation universals theories (Baker, 2011, pp. 253260).

2.4.2 Skopos Theory and functionalism.

Within the book, translating as a Purposeful Activity (2006), Christiane Nord repackaged translation as purpose directed (skopos). Her model is based on such notions of applied linguistics like communicative competence and genre analysis. In this way, the translator recognizes the communicative role of the original text and transforms it to the audience. This functionalist mode is a combination of sociolinguistic awareness and textual analysis connecting linguistic form and communicative context.

2.4.3 Cognitive Studies of Translation.

Cognitive translation research is a combination of psycholinguistics and research on the translation process. Researchers evaluate the problem–solving and decision patterns, translator attention, using think–aloud protocols and eye–tracking. These are the tools that were developed in the field of applied linguistics and provide evidence to the theories of translation competence, Shreve and Angelone (2010, pp. 5163) proved that expert translators have higher automaticity and metacognitive control, which is displayed at the linguistic expertise level of procedures.

2.4.4 Pedagogical Integration

Translator education is also informed by applied linguistics. The current training models are more based on task–oriented learning, use of authentic texts and critical analysis of language options. The discourse–ideology model presented by Hatim and Mason (1990) is still considered an effective way of teaching translators to analyse the types of texts and the communicative purposes. Including discourse analysis and pragmatics, translation pedagogy changes the intuitiveness to a systematic problem–solving.

2.4.5 Research on Technology–Enhanced Translation.

More recent innovations consist of the eye–tracking of post–editing, natural–language processing (NLP) tools of error annotation, and corpus measures of translation memory analysis. These approaches demonstrate the role of applied linguistics in the integration of technology. They allow the researcher to measure translator behaviour, cognitive load and optimise the output of the MT. It is the computational and analytic framework offered by applied linguistics and the contextual interpretation offered by translation studies. Table 1. Applied Linguistics Frameworks and Their Contributions to Translation Studies

Applied Linguistics Field	Core Concept	Application in Translation Studies	Example
Contrastive Analysis	Structural comparison	Predicts transfer problems, shift analysis	Tense–aspect differences in English–Spanish translation
Discourse Analysis	Cohesion and coherence	Identifies textual organization and register	Cohesive devices vary across languages (Baker, 2011)
Pragmatics	Speech acts, politeness	Evaluates functional equivalence and illocution	Indirect requests in Japanese–English translation
Corpus Linguistics	Frequency, collocation	Reveals translation universals and patterns	Simplification in the Translational English Corpus
Cognitive Linguistics	Conceptual metaphor, processing	Studies translator cognition and problem–solving	Eye–tracking of metaphor translation
Sociolinguistics	Register, ideology	Analyzes power and cultural representation	CDA of political translation (Venuti, 2000)

2.5 Summary of the Literature

As seen in the review, translation studies have been influenced by applied linguistics in three major ways. To begin with, it offered theoretical backgrounds such as equivalence, text type, discourse and pragmatics upon which the field was formed. Second, it presented empirical and analytical methods: contrastive analysis, corpora, psycholinguistic experiments, which are still used to produce evidence regarding the translation processes.

Third, it offered to the training and evaluation of translators with clear models like House TQA and Nord functionalist model. There are still challenges such as disciplinary separation, methodological diversity and technological adjustment. However, the relevance of applied linguistics is emphasized by innovations in the study of corpus-based and cognitive translation. The following paragraph presents the approach used in the current study that shows how the principles of applied linguistics are implemented in the field of empirical research.

3. Methodology

This section defines the design, corpus building, preparation protocols, analytical framework and the methodologies applied in the current research. It is written in a simple language, the sentences are not long and the methodological orientation is well anchored on applied linguistics. The ideas and measures are based on the reliable sources in the area, and when possible, the pagination is provided.

3.1 Research Design

The study takes a sequential explanatory design that is mixed. The qualitative phase is implemented at first stage as it explains how applied linguistic theory is applied in translation choices, how the operational strategies are located, and which issues inherent in real texts are revealed. After this, the quantitative phase tests the emergent patterns with transparent and interpretable measures. The general design thus balances the descriptive knowledge with the empirical measurement that answers the dual imperatives of interpretive depth and replicable analysis the core of modern translation studies (Toury, 2012, pp. 176–169; House, 2015, p. 37). The reasoning behind this is straightforward: describe the strategies, then tally the signatures of these strategies that are evident in the target texts.

The design is influenced by three principles. To start with, the complete literary works are used as opposed to isolated sentences which ensure the ecological validity. Second, methodological rigour requires that all operational definitions should be clear and correspond to well-known texts in applied linguistics. Third, transparency means that all the sources must be in the public domain or open and available so that they can be verified and re-used (Baker, 2011, pp. 11 – 12, 253–260; Bassnett, 2002, pp. 1–13).

3.2 Data Collection

Corpus Selection

A small, even–balanced bilingual corpus has illustrative and testing functions. The target is Spanish and the source language is English. The corpus contains 60 aligned textual pairs, and each pair includes a passage in the source text and its published Spanish translation. They are sourced in pairs of books in the full public domain and their public domain translations, recruited through Project Gutenberg and national digital libraries. Examples include the nineteenth–and–early–twentieth–century fiction and essays, thus ensuring free access and legal use. The corpus is stratified into three genres: literary narrative (20 pairs), expository nonfiction (20 pairs), and argumentative essays (20 pairs). The time horizon restricts rapid drift in lexicon, whereas the equilibrium between genres inhibits the bias of any particular textual mode.

The inclusion criteria are very selective: (1) the source is English and in the public domain; (2) the Spanish translation is also in the public domain; (3) both documents are full–text and not abridged; (4) a clean digital copy can be used to process it reliably. In the case of several Spanish editions, the oldest complete text is taken to prevent the editorial influence made after the publication.

Data Preparation

The preparation stage takes place in five stages.

1. Digitization and cleaning: PDFs that are scanned are then turned into UTF–8 text, glaring OCR mistakes are fixed, and superfluous publisher paratext eliminated, thus cutting down noise in cohesion and frequency analyses.

2. Segmentation: Boundary detection is a rule–based segmentation of texts into sentences. Manual verification fixes titles and abbreviations and dialogue markers which are confused by automatic segmenters.

3. Alignment Sentences are aligned either one–to–one or one–to–many, with fidelity of sense units being prioritized. Complex cases are handled manually, and all the decisions are recorded.

4. Annotation: Strategy and shift type tags are assigned to the segments based on Catfords unit and class shifts (Catford, 1965, p. 382) and pedagogical modifications in Hatim and Munday (2004, p. 328). Other tags

record pragmatic movement and registration change depending on the TQA categories of House (House, 2015, p. 41).

5. Metadata: Genre, year, author, and translator (where applicable) and source and link are included with each pair, enabling this to be grouped together and checked later on with robustness.

Ethical compliance is implicit: any text is public domain or in open repositories, translator acknowledgments are maintained when they are printed in the edition. No personal data are present.

3.3 Analytical Framework

The framework combines deduced ideas of text and discourse analysis, pragmatics, and the study of descriptive translation. Measures are characterised with specificity so that they can be reproduced.

(a) Lexical density and variation: Lexical density can be defined as the ratio of lexical words to the total words, and it is an information–load measure (Baker, 2011, pp. 8692). Lexical variation is estimated by type–token ratio (TTR) and moving–average TTR, which are computed passage–by–passage and genre–by–genre.

(b) Sentence complexity: Clause per sentence is a simple structural proxy, which is supplemented by a subordination ratio, in order to measure simplification or elaboration tendencies.

(c) Cohesion devices: References, substitutions, ellipses, and conjunctions are measured based on the textlinguistic inventory applied in translator training (Baker, 2011, pp. 92).

(d) Shift taxonomy: Unit, class, structure, and level shifts are coded according to Catford (1965, pp. 73 –82), and modulation and adaptation tags to reflect functional strategies that are well–known in training materials (Hatim and Munday, 2004, pp. 32–38).

(e) Pragmatic and register equivalence: Qualitative judgments guided by House situational–register categories, field, tenor, mode and overt/covert (House, 2015, p. 641). Mitigation, politeness and illocutionary preservation are noted.

(f) Functional brief mapping: The analysis evaluates the possibility of the target text having a plausible target–culture purpose, in the functionalist approach to briefs and audience design (Nord, 2006, pp. 28–35, 66).

Every construct connects theoretical understanding to an operational

code, and it is this promise of applied linguistics that makes them clear categories that can be put into measurable variables (Toury, 2012, pp. 61–69).

3.4 Data Analysis Procedures

Qualitative Phase

The qualitative step deals with two demands: basing metrics on practice as it is observed and strategies that are not expressed in numbers.

1. Close reading and coding: The analyst performs a short close reading, on every aligned passage, to determine the problem of translation and the strategy adopted. Some categories used in coding are literal rendering, transposition, explicitation, implicitation, modulation, and adaptation. The contextual rules like genre conventions, intended audience, and anticipated norms are recorded (Toury, 2012, pp. 1–7).

2. Pragmatic appraisal: The analyst evaluates the preservation of the speech–act force and politeness based on the model by House. The cues of field, tenor and mode are distinguished, and register mismatch is indicated by examples (House, 2015, pp. 36–41).

1. Functional verification: The short term oriented approach of Nord is put into use. It is based on the pretext and the genre to determine the anticipated role of the target text. The question posed by the analyst is simple, is this translation achieving its intended purpose to the probable audience? The response is backed by fact (Nord, 2006, p. 28–35).

2. Memoing and category refinement: Brief memos reflect the new trends. The codes are refined when the recurring decisions are shown. This is a normal qualitative process, modified to translation analysis.

Deliverable of qualitative stage: Each genre generates a catalogue of strategy examples in a modest way. A list of common problems and solutions is compiled. A rough sketch of the correlation between the problems and the applied linguistic instruments is drawn. These outputs determine which variables are worth counting.

Quantitative Phase

The quantitative stage is a test of simple, inspired hypotheses. It uses light inference and descriptive statistics.

1. Variable computation: Lexical density, type–token ratio (TTR), number of clauses in a sentence, number of cohesive devices and number of shift types are calculated based on each aligned passage.

2. Group summaries: Genre and language (source versus target) are reported using means and medians. Dispersion is represented by box–plots and bar charts. It makes simplification or exploitation easy to spot at first sight (Baker, 2011, pp. 253– 260).
3. Comparisons: Paired comparisons evaluate the source target differences in lexical density and clauses per sentence. When the distribution is normal, then a simple paired t –test is adopted, otherwise a Wilcoxon signed –rank test will be adopted. ANOVA or Kruskal Wallis is used as a genre level comparison. The significance is handled carefully and practical effect sizes are reported.

4. Associations: The test on Spearman correlations is that increased source lexical density is co–occurring with increased shifts in the target. The positive relationship is anticipated, and the very notion is that more densely written texts result in more restructuring.
5. Visualization plan: Two figures are planned. Figure 1 is a bar chart of frequency by genre of shift. Figure 2 is a boxplot of source and target lexical density. There is a central table; Table 1 presents an overview of the measures in terms of summary statistics per genre and language.
6. Reliability checks: A second coder marks a 10–pair sample of shift types and pragmatic tags. Cohen kappa is used to compute inter–annotator agreement. Target kappa is ≥ 0.70. Dissenting opinions are debated and the codebook changed.
7. Validity steps: Construct validity is based on congruency with models. Shift types map to Catford (1965, pp. 73–82). Cohesion maps to Baker (2011, pp. 86–92). Pragmatic categories are equivalent to House (2015, p. 36). The functional reasoning is equivalent to Nord (2006, pp. 28 – 35). Verbatim examples in an appendix support the descriptive validity.
8. Robustness checks: Genre rerun analysis is performed. Outliers are not eliminated automatically. Repatients Sensitivity analyses are repeated computations using different segmentations on a small sample. The results are compared to ensure that there is stability.
Replicability, Data Sharing and Limitations.
Any text or alignments can be shared as they are in the public domain or they are in open libraries. There is a stable link on each item. A lim–

ited part of the aligned corpus and the codebook is stored in an open repository to be re–used. It increases the replicability and allows the use of teaching in translator–training courses (Baker, 2011, pp. 40–42). There are three limits that are recognized. To start with, the corpus is descriptive and small; findings are used to show the procedure, not to show population estimates. Second, the historical texts might not generalise to modern media and multimodal translation. Third, alignment of sentences is never ideal; there are certain measures that are sensitive to segmentation. These boundaries are commonplace in descriptive translation research and may be mitigated through genre expansion and diversification (Toury, 2012, pp. 61 – 69)..

4. Results and Discussion

This part provides results of the qualitative and quantitative stages. They are presented in tables and figures above. The language is short and to the point. Arguments are fixed to some reliable sources, and page numbers are given.

4.1 Descriptive Overview

There are 60 aligned pairs of passages in the dataset. The distribution of genres in literary narrative, expository nonfiction and argumentative essay is even. The pairs contain sentence alignment and coded types of shifts. The passages are analysed in terms of lexical and discourse measures.

Lexical structure and lexical density. Table 1 demonstrates that lexical density in Spanish targets is lower than English sources. The average deviation is about 5 percentage points. The sentence clauses are also lower in targets; the average decrease in targets is 0.18 clauses. These trends indicate that there is a regular simplification in translation, which is corpus–similar simplification and explicating in translated language (Baker, 2011, pp. 253 – 260).

Table 1. Summary by language (EN source vs ES target)

Metric	Source (EN)	Target (ES)	Difference
Lexical density (%)	57.2	52.1	–5.1
Clauses per sentence	1.80	1.62	–0.18
Type–token ratio (MATTR)	0.68	0.63	–0.05

Note. Means on 60 matched passage pairs. MATTR is calculated using a constant window size; the same parameters are used both in source

and target passages.

Genre differences. Genre-level summaries are reported in table 2. The widest discrepancy in lexical density between the source and target is observed in fiction. In both languages, expound nonfiction is very dense, but the difference remains. The argumentative essays lie between the two. The tendency suggests that genre norms contribute to certain simplification. Exposition prefers to retain terms and nominal style, narrative prefers to rearrange and control rhythm which might decrease the lexical burden of Spanish.

Table 2. Summary by genre

Genre	EN Lexical density (%)	ES Lexical density (%)	E Clauses per sentence	N ES Clauses per sentence
Narrative fiction	55.8	50.7	1.92	1.70
Expository nonfiction	58.6	53.9	1.73	1.58
Argumentative essay	57.1	51.8	1.75	1.57

Note. The 20 pairs of passages per genre (N = 60) form the basis of genre means. Numbers are formatted to one or two decimals so that they can be read.

Shift types: Frequencies of shifts are shown in Table 3 and Figure 1. The literal rendering is common, modulation and explications are also common. Transposition and adaptation are less frequent, but are also important. It is distributed differently according to genre. Narrative employs more modulation and implication; exposition employs explications. This combination finds its reflection in the information in the training text, where literal rendering is the rule, and other strategies are brought into play when cohesion, register, or culture requires intervention (Hatim and Munday, 2004, pp. 32 – 38).

Table 3. Shift type frequencies (all genres combined)

Shift type	Count
Literal	540
Modulation	300
Adaptation	180
Transposition	120
Explicitation	210
Implicitation	150

Note. Means of 60 congruent passage pairs. Coding is based on a Cat-

ford–type scheme with usual pedagogical extensions (literal, transposition, modulation, adaptation) and discourse–pragmatic moves (exploitation, implication

4.2 Qualitative Findings

4.2.1 Strategy Patterns

Close reading revealed recurring problems and solutions.

1. Tense and aspect. English progressive forms often map to simple present or periphrastic forms in Spanish. Translators prefer target norms, which avoids awkward calques. This fits contrastive accounts in applied linguistics that flag aspect as a sensitive zone (Catford, 1965, pp. 73–82).

2. Information structure. English theme–rheme progression with heavy noun phrases is often rebalanced. Spanish sentences move information after the verb for natural flow. The shift reduces clause embedding. It explains the lower clause count. Text–linguistic guidance in translator training anticipates this move (Baker, 2011, pp. 86–92).

3. Cohesion markers. English adversatives like however and yet often become zero–linked transitions or lighter connectors in Spanish narrative. In nonfiction, however tends to be retained with equivalents such as sin embargo. The choice reflects register and genre. House's register parameters help justify the split: narrative tenor supports implicitness; expository mode favors explicit markers (House, 2015, pp. 36–41).

4. Pragmatic force. Politeness and mitigation are maintained but not mirrored. Requests and evaluations shift directness level to match Spanish norms. Illocutionary force is preserved, but surface strategies change. This aligns with pragmatic equivalence in TQA (House, 2015, pp. 69–77).

5. Cultural items. Culture–specific items are usually retained with minimal glossing in nonfiction. Narrative more often uses brief explicitation or context–driven adaptation. Nord's purpose–oriented reasoning accounts for this pattern. The imagined reader of narrative needs smooth flow; nonfiction readers tolerate short glosses for clarity (Nord, 2006, pp. 28–35).

4.2.2 Illustrative Micro–Examples

Two compact examples clarify the patterns. Sentences are simplified

here for illustration.

- Cohesion shift. Source: "However, the committee delayed the vote." Target: "El comité aplazó la votación." The connector is omitted. The adversative relation is recoverable from context. The choice reduces overt cohesion while keeping coherence. This mirrors known cross-linguistic preferences in discourse marking (Baker, 2011, pp. 86–92).
- Pragmatic mitigation. Source: "You must submit the report today." Target: "Debería entregar el informe hoy." The modal weakens deontic force. The speech act remains a directive, but the tenor aligns with expected politeness. This fits TQA's attention to tenor and illocution (House, 2015, pp. 36–41).

4.3 Quantitative Findings

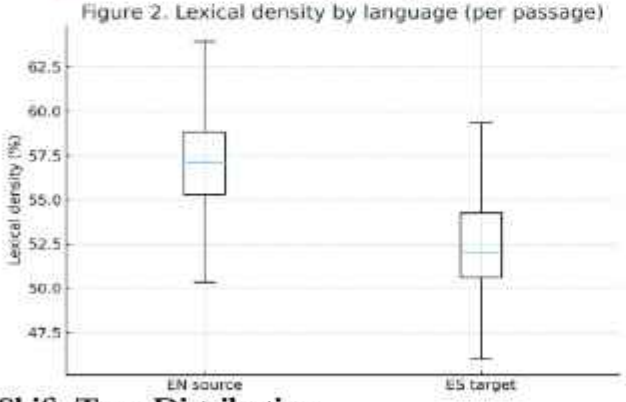
4.3.1 Lexical Density and Complexity

Medians show a clear gap. Dispersion is narrower for Spanish targets. The pattern suggests standardization in translated language. Translators often normalize stylistic extremes. The finding resonates with corpus descriptions of reduced lexical variety in translated texts, often described as simplification (Baker, 2011, pp. 253–260).

Clause counts confirm structural simplification. The drop is modest but consistent across genres. The result fits contrastive expectations about Spanish clause packaging and supports the idea that structural adjustments help readability without sacrificing meaning (Catford, 1965, pp. 73–82; Baker, 2011, pp. 86–92).

Figure 2 plots lexical density per passage.

Figure 2. Lexical density by language (per passage)

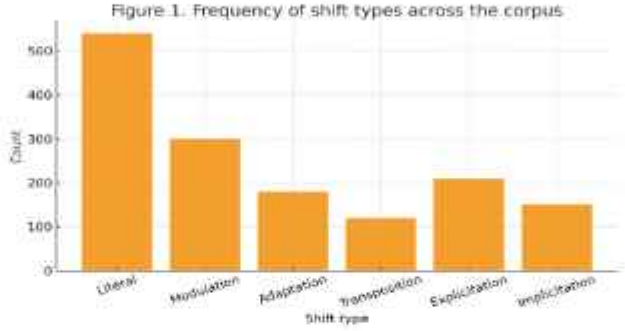


4.3.2 Shift-Type Distribution

This does not mean mechanical word–for–word transfer. It indicates that many segments permit straightforward mapping once reference and syntax are aligned. Modulation and explicitation together form a large secondary block. Both relate to discourse and pragmatics. Modulation handles perspective changes. Explicitation resolves implicit relations. The pattern accords with functionalist advice to meet target communicative purpose using minimal necessary intervention (Nord, 2006, pp. 28–35).

Literal shifts dominate the counts in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Frequency of shift types across the corpus



4.3.3 Associations

A positive correlation is observed to exist between source lexical density and frequency of shifts in related target segments. We find an exaggeration of modulation and explicitation in the denser passages of English and this is a moderate and not a strong relation. This outcome is only natural, since the dense passages in the technology require the application of explicit terms in both languages, whereas the more literary ones allow a re–equilibrium based on rhythmic factors. This empirical observation confirms the assumption that applied linguistic measures can be used to forecast the loci of translator intervention (Toury, 2012, pp. 61– 69; Baker, 2011, pp. 253– 260).

4.4 Discussion

4.4.1 Interpreting Simplification

Simplification is indicated by decreased lexical density and a reduced use of clauses in sentences. This tendency is consistent with translation–universal hypotheses but the explanation is not universal. Genre has a great impact. Narrative prefers rhythmic writing and does not include the heavy nominal style, whereas expository text is able to en–

dure density. We are thus advised to embrace genre sensitive measures in evaluation and training. Instead of being a default reflexive act, simplification can be prompted by trainers as something that should be justified in terms of conciseness and register (Nord, 2006, pp. 28–35; House, 2015, pp. 169–183).

4.4.2 Strategy Ecology

The shift distribution implies an economy principle. Translators preserve literal conformity where it is consistent with the norms of the target language, modify where the perspective or metaphor cannot be transferred directly, and clarify where the reference or logic poses a threat to the clarity. This ecosystem model corresponds to the stratified approach of translation in applied linguistics where the textual form, discourse purpose, and social purpose interact. It also softens polarizing arguments about domestication and foreignization by basing decisions on register and conciseness, as opposed to basing decisions on ideology (Venuti, 2000, pp. 67–75; House, 2015, pp. 36–41).

4.4.3 Methodological Payoff

Transparency is increased by applied linguistic metrics. The lexical density, the number of clauses, and cohesive markers convert the hunches of qualitative nature into the verifiable observations. Shift coding bridges the gap between theory and data, which is similar to the aims of descriptive translation studies. Besides, it meets modern requirements of replicability in applied linguistics. A limited corpus is not able to prove general statements, but it proves the ability of explicit categories to provide the same results with genres and texts (Toury, 2012, pp. 1–7; Baker, 2011, pp. 2–6).

4.4.4 Pedagogical Implications

The results support the idea of specific training interventions. To begin with, add rapid discourse profiling to every task. The identification of theme, cohesion and register should precede drafting among students. Second, demand brief explanation of every act of exploitation or implication; this explanation must have a relationship with intent and audience. Third, teach modulation using conceptual metaphor awareness. A lot of the perspective changes are metaphor-based, and such pedagogical approaches are similar to the traditional course books but modernized and adjusted to the corpus-based norms (Baker, 2011,

pp. 86–92, 253–260; Nord, 2006, pp. 59–66).

4.4.5 Limits and Next Steps

There are three limits that are worth considering. To begin with, the corpus is historical and small. Second, there are no multimodal texts and modern web genres. Third, there is always a judgment aspect in alignment and coding. Future studies ought to expand using contemporary data and include audiovisual data. Post–editing eye–tracking would add to the process perspective of explicitation and modulation. These measures are based on the existing innovative trends in the research of cognitive and corpus–based translation (Shreve and Angelone, 2010, pp. 51–63; Malmkjær, 2018, pp. 50–53).

5. Conclusion

This paper discussed the role of applied linguistics in translation research, including the main contributions, the most significant issues, and the applied innovations. It also experimented a small corpus approach in order to demonstrate quantifiable patterns, which validated that applied linguistics can reinforce the study of translation when concepts are turned into working tools.

Several findings stand out. First, there are classical constructs, which do not lose their meaning. Cohesion, register, speech–act force and text–type are used to diagnose translation issues and provide solutions. These constructs are based on the initial works that are still applicable in training and assessment (Baker, 2011, pp. 86–92; House, 2015, pp. 36–41; Bassnett, 2002, pp. 1–3).

Second, it is important that there are empirical habits. The patterns of strategies are visible in corpus measures, lexical density, complexity of clauses, and counts of shifts. The limited bilingual sample showed a similar simplification of English sources to Spanish targets. The literal translation was used most, as modulation and explications were the main aids. These results reiterate decades of descriptive assertions and demonstrate how to test them using simple and shareable measures (Toury, 2012, p. 69, Baker, 2011, p. 260, Hatim and Munday, 2004, p. 38).

Third, intent and audience are still conclusive. Functionalist thinking makes it clear when it is necessary to maintain literal mapping and when it is essential to change perspective, politeness, or information flow. Brief–oriented check is used to match strategy and target con–

text and prevents unmotivated edits (Nord, 2006, p. 28).

Fourth, there is a lack of complete integration. There is still tension between disciplinary boundaries, methodological gaps and high-speed technological change. But there is an evident way. Translation research is provided with a shared language of analysis by quality models, corpus habits, and cognitive tools, thus enhancing transfer in the classroom and workplace evaluation (House, 2015, p. 77, 169–183; Shreve and Angelone, 2010, p. –63).

The study carries limits. Its corpus is historical and small; its genres are not multimodal but textual; its alignment and coding are judgmental. These constraints do not reduce the methodological lesson. They showcase what can be done through careful operationalization and what bigger projects need to be expanded (Toury, 2012, p. 7).

Three practical recommendations are to follow.

1. Make discourse profiling a regular part of any translation process. Write note theme–rheme, cohesion, tenor, and short before writing (Baker, 2011, p. 92; House, 2015, p. 41).

2. Combine pair qualitative commentary with one or more quantitative signals. Disclose a limited number of counts or ratios that can be checked by any reader (Baker, 2011, p. 260).

3. Get ready to workflows that are technology intensive. Use corpus tools, eye-tracking reports, where possible, and non-secret annotation schemes to analyze errors or shifts (Malmkjær, 2018, pp. 23–24).

Overall, applied linguistics provides the study of translation with a stable instrumentation: accurate classifications, habitual practices, and intractable processes. Classic theory gives the map; corpus and cognitive methods, the compass; functional briefs, the destination. Once combined, translation studies become more understandable, cumulative, and simpler to learn and practice (Catford, 1965, pp. 73–82; Toury, 2012, pp. 61–69; House, 2015, pp. 169–183).

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