Interaction Between Gender and Translation (1995-2022): A Systematic Literature Review

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Abstract

Although the link between gender and translation has been recognized and reaffirmed, research on the interaction between them remains fragmented. This study aims to examine the research foci of the interaction between gender and translation. Specifically, it brings these insights together to identify opportunities for future research. A systematic literature review was conducted based on the PRISMA 2020 statement. This review includes 50 journal articles indexed in Web of Science (WoS) and Scopus databases ranging from 1995 to 2022. The synthesis identifies five main topics of the impact gender has on translation: (a) gender affiliation of translators/interpreters; (b) LGBTQI (lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender and queer) identities; (c) sexuality of characters; (d) feminist and patriarchal ideologies; and (e) cultural gender conventions, as well as four topics of the impact of translation on gender: (a) gender (stereotypical) portrayals of fictional characters; (b) gendered language and meanings; (c) LGBTQI identities; and (d) LGBTQI ideologies. The results support the interplay of translation and gender issues. While the impact of translation on gender and vice versa is largely constant across studies, there are differences in how translation affects gender and vice versa. Moreover, various reasons have been highlighted to elucidate the intricacy of the interaction. This review also offers suggestions for further research on this topic, as well as potentially provides implications for interdisciplinary translation studies.

Keywords: gender, interdisciplinary, LGBTQI, systematic literature review, translation

1. Introduction

Gender issues in translation studies present a challenge for scholars in this field, given the term 'gender' is difficult and problematic to fully define (von Flotow & Josephy-Hernández, 2018). World Health Organization (WHO) defines gender as a 'socially constructed' binary concept that includes male and female norms, behaviors, roles, and relationships (WHO, n.d.). In academia, the traditional binary female and male system have been challenged by the idea of 'queer' in the late 1980s, and the term 'gender' is often pluralized to 'genders' (von Flotow, 2018). Since many countries accept non-binary gender categorizations, the notion of gender as non-binary is gaining popularity (Dickens, 2018). Thus, the sexual and gender minority acronym LGBTQI has been receiving increasing academic attention.

According to Scott (1986), gender is primarily a simple descriptive category of the differences between sexes. It has typically been used to refer to a binary notion of female and male. Most importantly, gender is an analytical category; this helps interpret the hierarchical formation mechanisms of differences in the sexes and how these mechanisms are legitimated and contested (Sánchez, 2011). The most prominent example is feminism. In the feminist approach to translation, gender is "a cultural construct and in translation as cultural transfer" (von Flotow, 1997, p. 1).

The intricacy of gender issues in translation studies has been mainly examined from the interaction between gender and translation. According to Hu and Meng (2017), this interaction involves the influence of gender on translation and vice versa. To date, the existing reviews have significantly contributed to the intersection of gender studies and translation studies, as shown in Table 1.

Previous reviews on gender and translation were primarily focused on the historical development of gender and translation (Godayol, 2019; von Flotow & Scott, 2016), feminist intervention in translation (Castro & Ergun, 2018), as well as gender issues in audio-visual translation (von Flotow & Josephy-Hernández, 2018). Apart from von Flotow (2018), who examined the effects of gender on translation in Anglo-American/Euro contexts, and Santaemilia (2022)—who reviewed the intersection of feminism and translation—a systematic literature review (SLR) of empirical studies that provide evidence of the interaction between gender and translation in the global context was lacking. According to Snyder (2019), conducting an SLR is advantageous to see whether an effect is consistent across studies and propose future research to manifest the said effect. Therefore, this review attempts to fill this gap by reviewing studies on two directions of the interaction: the influence of gender on translation and vice versa. This may provide future directions for scholars that are interested in

interdisciplinary translation studies.

Table 1. Existing reviews of the connection between gender and translation

Author (year)	Aim/Objective	Study range	Findings
Godayol (2019)	To perform a genealogical examination of gender and translation in Spain	Up to 2019	It provided **a historical introduction to gender and translation in Spain**.
Santaemilia (2022)	To review the interface of translation and feminism in/from Europe	Up to 2020	It offered a review of the interdisciplinary of gender and translation, esp. **the intersection of feminism and translation**.
von Flotow (2018)	To introduce case studies including Bible translation, homosexual discourses, and non-fiction texts	Up to 2016	It discussed **the effects of gender on translation in the Anglo-American/Euro contexts**.
Castro and Ergun (2018)	To provide an overview of the feminist politics of translation	Up to 2017	It elucidated early **feminist intervention in translation** based on the translation of literary or religious texts.
von Flotow and Josephy-Hernández (2018)	To offer a review of gender in audio-visual translation	Up to 2017	It discusses existing studies on **gender issues in audiovisual translation**.
von Flotow and Scott (2016)	To develop a broader connection between gender studies and translation studies	Up to 2015	It highlighted **the historical development of gender and translation**.

The main goal and contribution of this SLR are to clarify whether the influence of translation on gender and vice versa is constant across studies and disclose what future studies are needed to demonstrate these effects. If the effect of translation on gender and vice versa is not constant across studies, then the present review will explore why it is not consistent. To this end, the SLR will identify the specific topics being researched within each category. Therefore, this study aims to provide an SLR of the interaction of gender and translation based on the research question: What are the research foci of the interaction between gender and translation?

2. Method

This SLR was conducted according to the PRISMA 2020 statement (Page et al., 2021). The research data was conceived from the emergence of the intersection of gender and translation from 1995 to 2022. Although research articles on gender and translation were published as early as 1988, initial research linked gender to translation but did not touch upon their interplay. Most importantly, the year 1995 witnessed an important event: the World Conference on Women in Beijing, which was sponsored by the United Nations. This marked "a significant turning point for the global agenda for gender equality" (UN Women, n.d.). Thus, the year 1995 was chosen as a start date for the current review.

Research data were gathered from two databases: WoS core collection and Scopus. WoS and Scopus are the two primary bibliographic databases that include peer-reviewed, high-quality journal articles based on a strict selection procedure (Pranckutė, 2021). These two databases lack a sufficient coverage of books and conference proceedings; therefore, only journal articles were retrieved from these databases.

The search was performed on January 27, 2023. To retrieve potentially relevant articles in WoS and Scopus, the Boolean search terms used are 'gender' AND 'translation.' The topics searched included the title, abstract, author keywords, and keywords. Biological and chemical indexes were excluded from the search, as it was irrelevant to both language and gender studies.

2.1 Selection Criteria

The inclusion and exclusion criteria have been set according to the scope of the research question (Table 2).

Table 2. Inclusion and exclusion criteria

No.	Criteria	Inclusion	Exclusion	Justification
1	Time Range	1995-2022	Before 1995	The year 1995 witnessed an important event: World Conference on Women in Beijing sponsored by the United Nations. This marked "a significant turning point for the global agenda for gender equality" (UN Women, n.d.)
2	Language	English	All languages except English	To ensure understanding and accurate representations of articles in the global context
3	Translation	Focus on translation in the field of social sciences, with translation as a rendering practice from one language to another (Merriam-Webster, n.d.)	Focus on translation in medicine, healthcare, and biology	Translation in non-social science contexts would not answer the research questions. Translation in these contexts refers to a complex change or transfer from one form to another (Merriam-Webster, n.d.)
4	Gender	Articles on gender as a non-binary notion. It includes	No exclusion	All forms of gender are included for a holistic view, given an increasing number

			male, female, and LGBTQI	of countries accept non-binary gender categorizations (Dickens, 2018)
5	Gender and translation	Articles on gender and translation are central to the research	Articles that briefly mention gender and translation	To answer the research questions

2.2 PRISMA Flowchart

Given the restrictions of the time range, language, and document type, 2130 records were retrieved from the WoS (1031 records) and Scopus (1099 records) databases. Of the 2130 records, a total of 383 duplicates were filtered and removed manually to ensure quality. The remaining 1747 records were screened by checking the titles, keywords, and abstracts based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria. The abstracts that are not detailed enough to appraise have been retained for full-text assessment. After that, 276 were read in full text. Altogether, 79 articles were excluded based on the selection criteria by carefully reading the full texts. For instance, 'translation' in Baker's (2020) research means 'transform' or 'transfer,' as it investigates the translation of globalized racial aesthetics into post-socialist glamour. Likewise, the articles were excluded if the term 'gender' or 'translation' served as background information. For instance, Galperin's (2021) study was excluded because 'translation' in the study referred to a female-typed profession and served as background information.

The journals were checked for their SCImago Journal Ranking (SJR) quartiles. To identify articles in the most relevant journals, the present SLR only included the journals in SJR Q1 and Q2 under the subject categories of gender studies or language studies. On the other hand, 99 articles were excluded due to them being published in journals that are included in SJR Q3 and Q4 and are neither under the subject categories of gender studies nor language studies. Next, the remaining full texts were carefully read to assess whether their focus was on the interaction between gender and translation. Altogether, 50 articles were excluded since they did not deal with the interplay of gender and translation. Finally, a predatory journal was identified by checking journals' homepages and contacting their chief editors if necessary.

Regarding the identification of studies via other methods, studies were also included via the examination of some influential scholars' work; this includes the likes of Luise von Flotow and Sherry Simon, who have made considerable contributions to this field. By so doing, two papers from von Flotow (1997, 2017) and several book chapters included in von Flotow and Kamal's (2020) Routledge Handbook of Translation, Feminism, and Gender were included. Thus, 50 articles were included for further synthesis and analysis, as illustrated in Figure 1.
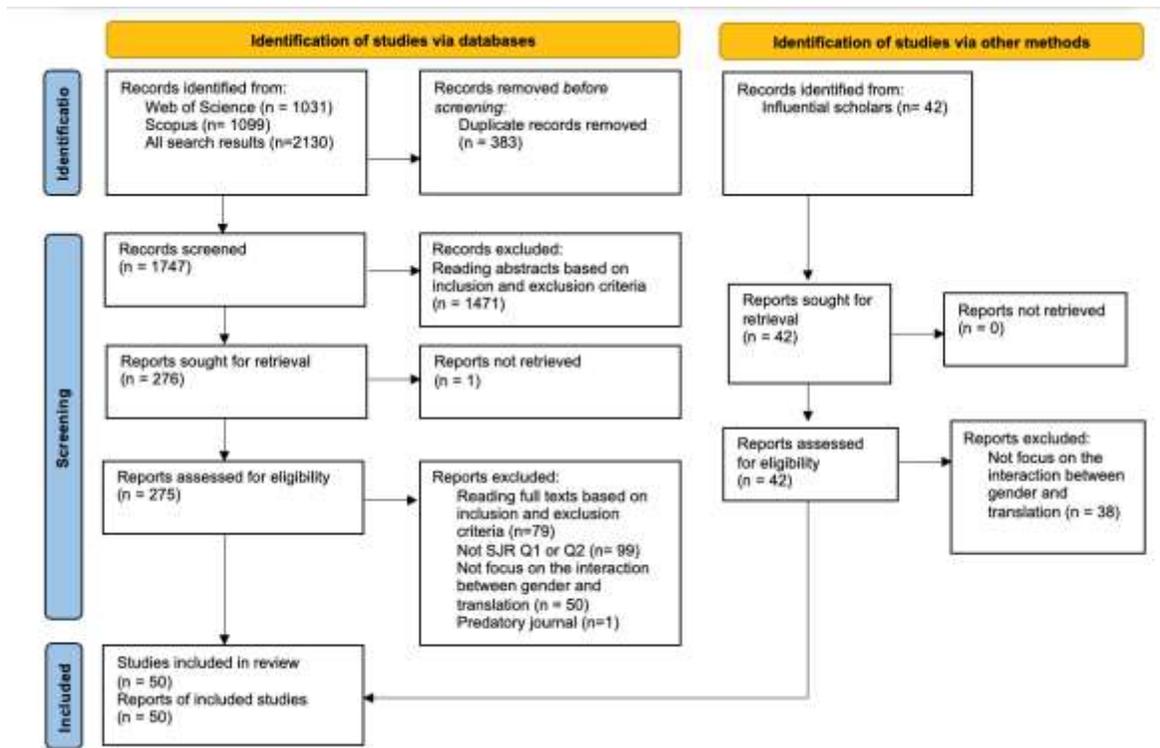

Figure 1. Flow chart of study inclusion process adapted from the PRISMA 2020 diagram (Page et al., 2021)

2.3 Selection Bias

To ensure the articles included in the review meet the selection criteria, a second reviewer independently searched the databases and followed the study inclusion process. The titles, abstracts, and full-length texts were carefully assessed based on the selection criteria. The

inter-rater reliability was .89, which indicates an acceptable agreement between the two reviewers. All disagreements between the reviewers were settled through a consensus. For example, reviewers held different opinions about whether gender mainstreaming should be included in the review. Through discussion, reviewers agreed that although gender mainstreaming is an important practice—it does not deal with the interplay of gender and translation. Thus, reviewers excluded gender mainstreaming from the review.

3. Results and Discussion

Before presenting the research foci of the interaction between gender and translation, this review first presents a preliminary analysis of the interplay of gender and translation—which includes the yearly distribution trends and text types.

3.1 Annual Distribution Trend

The annual distribution trend of the interaction provides clues for both the strength and direction of the interaction. As observed in Figure 2, it varies greatly in the yearly distribution of articles. What stands out in this figure is that, firstly, the years 2011, 2020, and 2022 saw the peak of publications in this field from 1995 to 2022—with seven, 10, and 10 articles published, respectively. From 2011 to 2022, the number of articles on the influence of gender on translation was almost equal to that of the impact of translation on gender. Nevertheless, studies on the impact of translation on gender have seen an increase since 2019.

Second, from 1995 to 2010, no more than one article was published in WoS and Scopus. There was no difference in the influence of gender on translation and vice versa. This suggests that the interaction may be less significant during this period. Alternatively, there may be more articles in journals of lower tiers or other indexing bodies—such as book chapters. The year 2011 saw a dramatic increase in published articles covering the influence of gender on translation, with seven publications. However, the number of reports was reduced gradually from three in 2012 to zero in 2016.
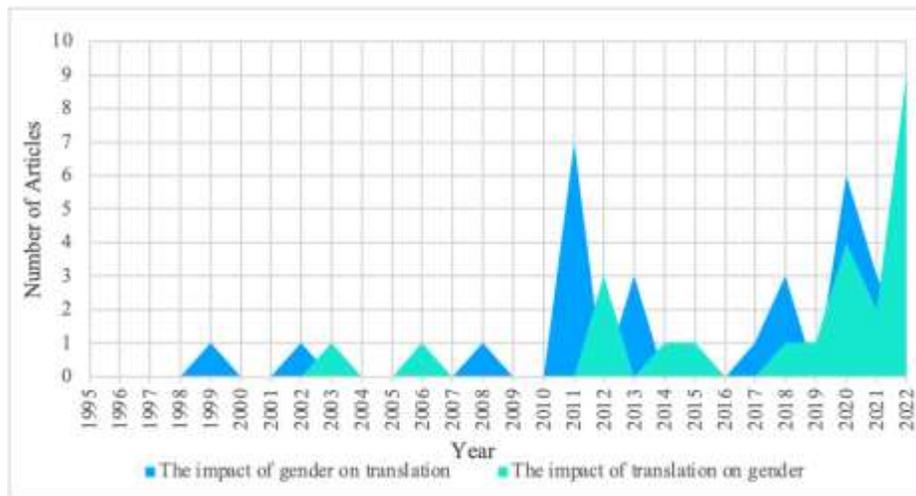

Figure 2. Annual distribution of the interaction between gender and translation (1995 - 2022)

Finally, since 2017, the number of studies on the influence of translation on gender began to increase. A total of nine studies on the influence of translation on gender peaked in 2022, including four papers of advanced online publication. Research on the influence of translation on gender was gaining momentum. This suggests that the intersection has drawn a stable and increasing amount of attention from scholars and journals from SJR Q1 and Q2. Among them, Wang, Yu, and Chen (2020) dealt with both directions of effects.

3.2 Distribution of Text Types

Previous studies usually categorized text types into literary and non-literary ones (e.g., Castro & Ergun, 2018). However, categorizing translation materials into binary literary and non-literary texts seems to be tentative and problematic since the borders between literary and non-literary texts are undefined and unclear (Rogers, 2018). Thus, this review displays all the text types of the collected articles (Table 3).

Table 3. Distribution of text types (1995 - 2022)

Text Type	Total	Subject Area	Total
Novel	16	Scientific text	1
Audio-visual materials	10	Short story	1
Interpreting conference	4	Travel book	1
Children's book	3	Dating e-mail	1
Religious text	3	Reference book	1
Poetry	2	Diary	1
Paratext	2	Philosophical text	1
Playtext	2	Policy	1

As observed in Table 3, novels were the most studied text types (32%)—which is then followed by audio-visual materials (20%). There were less than three studies on the text types—such as dating e-mail, policy, philosophical text, and religious text. This implies that while

the majority of research was on literary and audio-visual materials, there was also a wide range of other text genres. This leads to the conclusion that future research could investigate how gender and translation interact in different sorts of texts.

3.3 Research Foci of Interaction Between Gender and Translation

Apart from the preliminary analysis, the research foci of the interaction between gender and translation were indicated in this review. The interaction involved the influence gender has on translation and vice versa. A holistic classification of the interaction was proposed after a detailed analysis of the full texts. Each separate division was discussed based on key topics and findings.

3.3.1 The Impact of Gender on Translation

To determine whether the impact of gender on translation decisions was consistent, this review categorized five topics: (a) gender affiliation of translators/interpreters; (b) LGBTQI identities; (c) sexuality of characters; (d) feminist and patriarchal ideologies; and (e) cultural gender conventions.

• **Gender Affiliation of Translators/Interpreters**. The included literature compares male and female interpreters/translators' translation solutions (Magifico & Defrancq, 2020, 2017; Hu & Meng, 2017; Du, 2020). The findings show that the influence was inconsistent. Some scholars found that interpreters' gender affiliation did not affect their interpretation, such as their use of connective markers (Magifico & Defrancq, 2020).

In contrast, another group of researchers discovered that while interpreters' gender affiliation influenced their interpretation, it was in a very different manner. Magnifico and Defrancq (2017) found that women interpreters adopted interpreting methods (e.g., additions) more than men. On the other hand, Hu and Meng (2017) concluded that male interpreters used interpreting methods (e.g., strengthening and addition) more frequently than women. Besides, Du (2020) examined the impact of gender differences on public service interpreting from the perspective of media representation of women interpreters.

Thus, the influence of translators/interpreters' gender affiliation on translation/interpretation is not constant across studies. Scholars have provided possible explanations: (1) The speech delivery rate, rather than the interpreters' gender affiliation, influenced interpreting (Magnifico & Defrancq, 2020). (2) Female interpreters used more methods like additions, for instance, because either the research sample size was small, or women used more tentative solutions to avoid criticism (Magnifico & Defrancq, 2017). (3) Male interpreters used more methods such as additions. In Chinese society, men are expected to be innovative and creative while women are considered passive and submissive (Hu & Meng, 2017). Consequently, additional research needs to investigate the influence of interpreters' gender affiliation on interpreting.

• **LGBTQI Identities**. The literature provides evidence that the influence of LGBTQI identities on translation was constant across all the selected studies. If translators' sexual identities were not aligned with that of characters, it will influence translation results (Yu, 2011; Spišiaková, 2020). Yu (2011) found that female translators tended to be more attentive to lesbian relations and sexuality. Similarly, Spišiaková (2020) investigated how the translators' perception of transgender identity affected translation. Thus, scholars agreed upon the role of LGBTQI identities in translation.

• **Sexuality of Characters**. According to the literature, the sexuality of characters has no remarkable effect on Japanese translations of women's language. Furukawa (2018) investigated the link between the sexuality of female characters and her language use in three Japanese translations of *Lady Chatterley's Lover*. Future research could continue in this direction and provide potential additional findings.

• **Feminist and Patriarchal Ideologies**. The literature demonstrates that the role of translators' feminist and patriarchal ideologies in translation was consistent across all the selected studies (Bengoechea, 2011; Hassen, 2011; Tolliver, 2002). Patriarchal ideology drove patriarchal translations through debasing and excluding femininity (Bengoechea, 2011) or through covert sexism (Orozco, 2013) in the translation process. On the other hand, feminist ideology influenced feminist translations by manipulating the texts written by female authors for feminist goals (Castro, 2013).

Responding to this, Hartman (1999) argued that the translator's ideology accounted for feminine representation after investigating the two translations of *The Journal of Marie Bashkirtseff*. Likewise, S.-B. Lee (2020, 2021) explored the effect feminist ideology has on paratext recreation in South Korea. S.-B. Lee (2020) further argued that the translation driven by feminism-related ideology helped South Korea becomes a gender-conscious society.

Another stream of literature focuses on feminist translation (Sánchez, 2011; Woods, 2011; Yoon, 2021; Bessaïh, 2021; Muñiz, 2018; Palacios-González, 2008). These studies provide evidence that the influence of feminism on translation was consistent across all the chosen studies. Originating in the late-1970s among Quebec feminist writers, feminist translation helped to subvert the traditional notion of translation as a secondary or a reproduction of original texts. It emphasized the manipulation of the text (Andone, 2002). Feminist translators actively intervened in original texts through (1) feminist inclusive translation (Bessaïh, 2021); (2) feminist translation strategies (Muñiz, 2018; Hassen, 2020); and (3) a resistance to the patriarchal system (Yoon, 2021). Other than the original texts, sexist paratexts were also important for feminist intervention (Sánchez, 2011). Overall, the literature observed that feminism affected translation through the translators' intervention of texts.

• **Cultural Gender Conventions**. Nevertheless, early feminist politics have been criticized—both within and outside feminism (von

Flotow, 1997). The literature showed that the translators' intervention was not necessarily connected with feminist goals, but was instead motivated by the views, beliefs, and values of a particular cultural community (Leonardi & Taronna, 2011).

Empirical evidence from this stream of literature demonstrate that cultural gender conventions also account for translation solutions (Karoubi, 2013; Leonardi & Taronna, 2011; Tsai, 2022). However, non-compliance with the target cultural gender conventions may not result in sanctions. Overall, the literature suggests that gender conventions and norms in the target culture were essential in explaining the translation practice.

3.3.2 The Impact of Translation on Gender

To examine whether the impact that translation has on gender issues is consistent, this review includes four topics: (a) gender (stereotypical) portrayals of fictional characters; (b) gendered language and meanings; (c) LGBTQI identities; and (d) LGBTQI ideologies.

• **Gender (Stereotypical) Portrayals of Fictional Characters**. The literature provides evidence showing that translation decisions affect how female characters are portrayed. It shows that the portrayals of female protagonists are altered through translation for ideological reasons. For example, to conform to a noble (imagined) common tradition, a historical female character was altered from a voluptuous woman to a pure and faithful one through covert narrative manipulation (Hernández Socas, Giugliano, & Tabares Plasencia, 2022). Similarly, to comply with patriarchal notions in Arabic culture, the depictions of women in Arabic films have been modified through dubbing (Bazzi, 2022). Zeven and Dorst (2021) suggested that the translation decisions made to modify female portrayals were ideologically motivated. Additionally, Ranzato (2020) focused on how translators and adapters altered the portrayals of possibly liberating women to conservative ones in audio-visual translations.

The literature also reveals that translation decisions have a substantial effect on the stereotypical portrayals of characters. However, scholars hold conflicting ideas about whether gender stereotypes are perpetuated or altered through translation. On the one hand, gender stereotypes could be perpetuated through translation (Liu, 2015; Vera, 2012). Western stereotypes of Asian women were perpetuated and recreated through translation services that were provided by commercial agencies (Liu, 2015). Conversely, no notable differences in gender-stereotypical portrayals were found between American and Spanish cultures (Vera, 2012).

On the other hand, gender stereotypes are altered via translation. De Marco (2006) found that translation has shaped linguistic stereotypes from derogatory to sexist in audiovisual translation. Furthermore, Wang et al. (2020) demonstrated that translation has mediated and toned down excessive patriarchal gender stereotypes. Similarly, Zeven and Dorst (2021) unveiled that the portrayals of the fictional female character were misinterpreted, distorted, and reinforced in earlier Dutch translations—but were improved in later translations. Tang (2022) found that translators perpetuated sexism and fostered conformity to gender stereotypes. Williams (2022) discussed the reinforcement of traditional gender stereotypes through the translation of children's literature. Besides, Dong (2022) found that conventional gender stereotypes and misogyny were attenuated by strategies, such as deletion; however, the realism and ironic style of the original work were both downplayed. In short, gender stereotypes were reinforced, recreated, or rejected via (re)translation by translators—either consciously or unconsciously. Thus, the effects of translation on gender stereotypes were consistent in different contexts but the specific way the translation affected them differed.

Multiple factors contribute to the way translation affects gender stereotypes. To begin with, translators consider the expectations or assumptions of the gender of the target audience (Liu, 2015; Vera, 2012). Second, both ideological and commercial factors influence translation by tempering and reversing elements that challenged gender stereotypes in feminist texts (Bianchi, 2018). Finally, variations of the assumed gender beliefs and values of the target audience also tend to affect the translation practice (Wang et al., 2020).

The original texts that were studied regarding the influence of translation on gender stereotypes included four types: (1) stereotypical text (Liu, 2015; Vera, 2012); (2) derogatory text (De Marco, 2006); (3) feminist text (Bianchi, 2018); and (4) misogynistic text (Wang et al., 2020). The current literature showed that all these text types were translated into stereotypical texts for the reasons mentioned above.

• **Gendered Language and Meanings**. The literature shows that translation affects the characters' language in the Japanese context. Inoue (2003) argued that translation dislocates Japanese women's language from its speakers. Inoue investigated how female characters' speech was reproduced in the translation from English to Japanese, and vice versa. A similar study by Josephy-Hernández (2019) found that the English translation boosted the female characters' femininity and the male characters' stereotypically macho role in the film. On the other hand, Furukawa (2012) revealed that the Japanese translation rendered the speech of female characters to be significantly more feminine. Takiuchi (2022) agreed and concluded that gender stereotypes were reinforced by translating women's language. In addition, Michaud (2020) examined Bible translations and concluded that translation altered gendered meanings and relations.

Translation also influences the language of both female (Inoue, 2003; Furukawa, 2012; Josephy-Hernández, 2019) and male characters (Josephy-Hernández, 2019). This influence is constant across studies, regardless of the translation from English to Japanese or vice versa. There are numerous nuances in the original work that the translation fails to convey. Inoue (2003) argued that translating women's language into another signification system was a semiotic process that was crucial in producing the language ideology of Japanese women's language. It could also result from the female characters' incorrect speech style and unfamiliarity with the feminist movement in the 1960s and 1970s (Furukawa, 2012).

• **LGBTQI Identities**. In addition, the literature reveals that translation influences the construction of the LGBTQI identities of fictional

characters. The identities of trans and non-binary fictional characters were either hijacked (Asimakoulas, 2012) or overlooked in audiovisual translation (López, 2022). Likewise, the male identity (the father figure) was significantly shifted to meet and promote the social values of the target culture (Pollali & Sidiropoulou, 2021). Nevertheless, there was also research on the perpetuation of LGBTQI identities in audiovisual translation (Magazzù, 2022).

• **LGBTQI Ideologies**. Moreover, the literature implies that the influence of translation on LGBTQI ideologies is constant but affects in a different way. On the one hand, gender/queering ideology in the original text was reproduced through translation (M.-C. Lee, 2022). On the other hand, (re)translation subverted the pervasive patriarchal and heteronormative norms in the original culture by representing lesbian culture in China (M. Jiang, 2020). Similarly, gender equality was less explicit in the national context than in international norms (Krizsan & Popa, 2014).

To sum up, the literature provide evidence to support the interplay of translation and gender. Table 4 summarizes the topics and main findings of the interaction between gender and translation.

Table 4. Topics and main findings of the interaction between gender and translation (1995 - 2022)

Relationships	Key Topics	Main findings	Authors
The Impact of Gender on Translation	Gender affiliation of translators/interpreters	Gender affiliation of interpreters did (not) affect interpreting strategies	Magifico and Defrancq, 2020, 2017, Hu and Meng, 2017, Du, 2020
	LGBTQI identities	The perception of the lesbian/transgender identity of characters influenced the translation	Spišiaková, 2020, Yu, 2011
	Sexuality of characters	The sexuality of a female character had no significant effect on women's language in Japanese translation	Furukawa, 2018
	Feminist and patriarchal ideologies	Feminist and patriarchal ideologies affected translation differently	S.-B. Lee, 2020, 2021, Hartman, 1999, Orozco, 2013, Hassen, 2011, Bengoechea, 2011, Tolliver, 2002
		Feminist translators actively intervened the original texts through translation in a feminist approach	Bessaïh, 2021, Woods, 2011, Yoon, 2021, Sánchez, 2011, Muñiz, 2018, Palacios-González, 2008, Castro, 2013, Hassen, 2020
	Cultural gender conventions	Translation complied with the assumed gender beliefs and values of the intended audience	Feral, 2011, Wang et al., 2020
		Socio-cultural and ideological factors influenced the translation	Karoubi, 2013, Tsai, 2022, Leonardi and Taronna, 2011
The Impact of Translation on Gender	Gender (stereotypical) portrayals of fictional characters	Translation decisions affected how female characters were portrayed	Hernández Socas et al., 2022, Zeven & Dorst, 2021, Bazzi, 2022, Ranzato, 2020
		Gender stereotypes were perpetuated, reproduced, altered, reinforced, or tempered through translation	Zeven and Dorst, 2021, Liu, 2015, Vera, 2012, De Marco, 2006, Bianchi, 2018, Wang et al., 2020; Tang, 2022, Williams, 2022, Dong, 2022
	Gendered language and meanings	Translation affected the language of the characters	Inoue, 2003, Furukawa, 2012, Josephy-Hernández, 2019, Michaud, 2020, Takiuchi, 2022
	LGBTQI identities	The gender identity of characters was hijacked or renegotiated via translation	Asimakoulas, 2012, Pollali and Sidiropoulou, 2021, López, 2022, Magazzù, 2022
	LGBTQI ideologies	Translation (strategies) reproduced or altered gender (queering) ideology	M.-C. Lee, 2022, Krizsan and Popa, 2014, M. Jiang, 2020

4. Potential Way Forward for the Interplay of Gender and Translation

After reviewing the literature on the influence gender has on translation, it has not been concluded yet on whether the gender affiliation of

interpreters ultimately affects the interpreting process. Further research is needed to clarify whether the gender affiliation of interpreters affects interpreting practice and how to incorporate this finding into interpreter training.

Second, most available research focuses on the interplay of gender and translation in fictional works. Nevertheless, the market-led translations may significantly impact people's lives and views, such as the mass media—which are described as "carriers of (gender) stereotypes in Western countries" (De Marco, 2016, p. 319). As one of the most popular mass media sectors, advertising has been frequently discussed regarding gender portrayals (Eisend, 2019; Zhu, Ang, & Mansor, 2022). Therefore, future studies may investigate the interaction in these market-led texts such as advertising texts.

Third, the literature provides evidence that the interplay of gender and translation was still analyzed mainly from patriarchal and feminist notions. However, studies on the interplay of gender and translation from a postcolonial perspective were scarce. Further, how such ideologies such as Eurocentrism or Neocolonialism impact the translation of gender remains a neglected area. Therefore, future research could explore these aspects.

Finally, research on the cultural underpinnings of gender transfer across cultures is far from enough. The literature shows that gender values account for the translation of gender stereotypes in misogynist texts (Wang et al., 2020). Likewise, gender beliefs and values underpin the adaptation of feminine voices in audiovisual translation (Feral, 2011). According to Eisend (2019), the extent of gender stereotyping varies among nations that differ in gender equality, women's rights, and gender-related ideals. Moreover, gender belief systems have also evolved over time. Thus, future studies may elaborate on gender beliefs and values that underpin gender transfer across cultures. By so doing, scholars can then join in a dialogue for discussing the diversity of gender beliefs and values in various cultural communities.

5. Conclusion

This systematic review examines the research foci of the interaction between gender and translation from 1995 to 2022 based on the PRISMA 2020 statement. To the authors' knowledge, it is one of the first attempts to review the interaction between gender and translation in the global context. This review indicates gender issues have a constant impact on translation, but how gender issues affect translation differs. This synthesis categorized the literature into five topics: (a) gender affiliation of translators/interpreters; (b) LGBTQI identities; (c) the sexuality of characters; (d) feminist and patriarchal ideologies; and (e) cultural gender conventions. Besides, translation has a constant effect on gender issues, but how translation affects them varies greatly. The review categorized the literature of the impact of translation on gender into four aspects: (a) gender stereotypical portrayals of fictional characters; (b) gendered language and meanings; (c) LGBTQI identities; and (d) LGBTQI ideologies. The findings suggest that translation mainly interacted with gender in the aspect of LGBTQI identities.

Most importantly, the synthesized literature offered a broad definition of gender in the translation studies. In this review, gender refers to a non-binary and fluid notion of gender; this covers the male and female affiliation of translators/interpreters, feminism, and LGBTQI identities and ideologies.

Some limitations may be related to collecting the data. This study mainly focused on the research articles of SJR Q1 and Q2 to represent scholarly empirical studies on the interaction between gender and translation. Future studies should include journals of lower tiers or other indexing bodies, such as conference papers and proceedings. Moreover, this study only focused on articles that were published in English. Future studies should consist of the interplay of gender and translation that are published in other languages (e.g., French, Italian, and Mandarin).

Acknowledgments

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