On the Translation of Adjectival Pre-Modifiers

A Study of English-Swedish Translation Shifts
Abstract

This study examined the translation of adjectival pre-modifiers (i.e. pre-modifying adjectives and pre-modifying participles) from English into Swedish. The selection of this topic and material was inspired by previous research on the increasing frequency of noun phrase pre-modification in English, contrasted with notions of Swedish-specific preferences for translating English pre-modifiers into different structures found in previous research and literature. Swedish tendencies included rendering English pre-modifiers as post-modification and the compounding of pre-modifying adjectives or participles with noun phrase heads to form Swedish compound nouns. The concept of translation shifts as labels for translation methods was used to classify translations of adjectival pre-modifiers, in addition to categorising the translation choices based on word class, rank and position. The study concluded that English adjectival pre-modifiers were overwhelmingly translated with formal correspondence (86%), i.e. as adjectival pre-modifiers. The other translation methods that were applied were used considerably less extensively; unit shifts and class shifts constituted 9% and 4% of all translation choices, respectively; omissions of the sense and meaning of the adjectival pre-modifier were found as the translation method for 1% of English adjectival pre-modifiers. Unit shifts were found to result in a total of 8 different types of structural equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers. In order of frequency, these were: prepositional phrase, first element of compound noun, extended attribute, pre-modifying prepositional phrase, verb phrase, first element of compound adverb, last element of compound participle and relative clause. Class shifts resulted in 3 categories of formally non-correspondent structures, namely adverb, noun and genitival attribute. The conclusions that could be drawn from the results were that the tendency for the Swedish translation of adjectival pre-modifiers to result in post-modification and compound nouns was small. A qualitative analysis showed that select examples of translations to formally correspondent equivalents were commonly motivated by considerations of readability to reduce sentence length and complexity. Examples of various category shifts were for the most part found to have been caused by the questionable idiomaticity of formally correspondent translation options.

Keywords: translation studies, Swedish, English, adjectives, pre-modification, translation shift, category shift
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1 Introduction

And I did not translate them as an interpreter, but as an orator, keeping the same ideas and forms, or as one might say, the ‘figures’ of thought, but in language which conforms to our usage. And in so doing, I did not hold it necessary to render word for word, but I preserved the general style and force of the language. (Cicero 46 BCE/1960 CE: 364 in Munday 2012: 30)

Cicero’s early distinction between the ‘interpreter’ and the ‘orator’ showcases a long-time divide in the history of interlingual translation, in which the reproduction of form has often been contrasted with reproducing the sense and meaning of the original message (Munday 2012: 29ff). Being able to transfer as accurately as possible the sense and meaning from one language into another may however be of varying importance depending on what type of text is being translated, and what the purpose of the translation is. For example, translating an informative text, i.e. a text that primarily aims to convey facts, might especially call upon a translator to prioritise sense over form (Reiss 2004 [1971]: 167). English informative texts in particular have been in the process of developing more “literate” styles for centuries (Biber 1995: 280–313; Biber & Finegan 1997 in Biber, Grieve & Iberri-Shea 2009: 182). These registers have seen a general increase in the use of passive verbs, relative clause constructions and elaborated noun phrases. Specifically academic writing is not only rich in pre-modification of nouns, but also frequently features multiple pre-modifiers that may be stacked to lengthen noun phrases (Biber et al. 1999: 578–9). Swedish, on the other hand, is a language that appears to be less inclined toward noun pre-modification. For instance, studies have shown that Swedish translations of English texts have a tendency to verbalise nouns and use clausal structures (Nordrum 2007: 216) which could affect noun pre-modification, as well as translating English hyphenated pre-modifiers by means of various post-modifying structures (Levin & Ström Herold 2017: 173). This implies that translating word-for-word between English and Swedish may not always be desirable or even possible. For example, a pre-modifying adjective in an English source text (henceforth ST) may find its equivalent in a relative clause in a Swedish target text (henceforth TT):

(1) a *system-inherent* failure

*ett fel som ligger i systemet [a failure that lies in the system]

(Ingo 2007: 188) *ett system-inneboende fel*
Example (1) shows that a translator may well need to be able to assume the role of Cicero’s ‘orator’ in order to produce natural target language. Due to the problems evident in the translation of the noun phrase above, the study at hand examines how adjectival pre-modifiers (i.e. adjectives and participles as pre-modifiers to nouns) behave in the translation of an informative text from English into Swedish.

1.1 Aim and Research Questions

The present paper deals with the translation of parts of a chapter dealing with the First World War in the American textbook *A History of World Societies*. The focus of this study is the translation of adjectival pre-modifiers which can best be summarized and directed by the following research questions:

- What adjectival pre-modifiers can be found in the English ST?
- What are their formal equivalents in the Swedish TT?
- What translation methods are used to translate adjectival pre-modifiers from English into Swedish?
- To what extent can language-specific structural preferences be seen in the translation of adjectival pre-modifiers?
- What are the reasons behind formally correspondent and non-correspondent translation choices?

1.2 Material

The material that was selected as the ST for this study is found in the American textbook entitled *A History of World Societies* (McKay 2016). Part of its 25th chapter which deals with the First World War was translated for the purpose of this study, excluding image captions and text in fact boxes. The selection of this material is in part motivated by the presumed high frequency of pre-modification in its text type, as mentioned in the introduction to this paper. Consequently, the material is rich in various types of adjectival pre-modifiers; the ST consists of 11,809 words, of which a total of 474 were found to be adjectival pre-modifiers.

The textbook is used in history courses at undergraduate level at Swedish universities, such as the University of Gothenburg. Furthermore, it can be classified as an informative text (Reiss 2004 [1971]: 167), with its main purpose being to convey facts to the reader. In producing the TT, the informative purpose of the text was retained due to its
The audience remaining the same, i.e. consisting of history students studying at Swedish universities (or anyone with an interest in the subject, for that matter).

As a consequence of both its presumed high frequency of pre-modification the style of the material can be considered quite formal. Sentences in the ST can become quite long and complex, with multiple instances of pre-modification of the same head. This in itself is a typical indicator of stylistic formality.

1.3 Method

The method used to achieve the aims of the present paper can best be described as a hybrid quantitative-qualitative approach. As a base, Toury’s three-phase methodology for systematic descriptive translation studies (1995: 36–9 and 102, in Munday 2012: 170): was used to analyse the differences between the ST and the TT in regards to the use of adjectival pre-modifiers:

1) Situate the text within the target culture system, looking at its significance or acceptability.
2) Undertake a textual analysis of the ST and the TT in order to identify relationships between corresponding segments in the two texts. Toury calls these segments ‘coupled pairs’. This leads to the identification for translation shifts, both ‘obligatory’ and ‘non-obligatory’.
3) Attempt generalisations about the patterns identified in the two texts, which helps to reconstruct the process of translation for this ST—TT pair. (ibid.)

Regarding the first stage, the intended TT was situated within the target culture system by taking into consideration its purpose, comparing it with the informative nature of the ST. Having decided on retaining the informative purpose for the TT and identified texts with similar topics, purposes and audiences in the TL, the translation was carried out. The process of translation was at times aided not only by dictionaries, but also by parallel texts which were used to determine the suitability of certain translation choices within the particular topic. The Språkbanken corpus provided by the University of Gothenburg was used to determine the appropriateness of certain translation options in the Swedish language. Its sub-corpora that were used were selected for their non-fiction content: academic writing, Finland Swedish texts, medical texts, texts from Swedish authorities, newspaper texts, periodical magazines, political party platforms and manifestos, and Swedish Wikipedia. Where Språkbanken provided inconclusive results, the search engine Google was used to gauge the idiomaticity of certain expressions. The use of Google was always a last resort, as it proved to be somewhat
problematic; the frequency in its results was occasionally found to be inflated due to the fact that one and the same text could be found on many different web pages.

The second stage in Toury’s methodology relates to the identification of all adjectival pre-modifiers in the ST and their equivalents in the TT. This identification of coupled pairs was performed manually and based on criteria outlined in section 2. Among the criteria were definitions of adjectival pre-modifiers that served to limit the scope of the study and different types of equivalents to these. Subsequently, all coupled pairs were placed in a variety of categories based on the relationship between the grammatical structures of the ST on the one hand, and the TT on the other hand. These groupings were for the most part based on suggestions for possible formally correspondent and formally non-correspondent equivalents of adjectival pre-modifiers found in previous research, literature and contrastive grammars. Some equivalents found in TT were not described in the previous research or literature, but were nevertheless included in the study.

Finally, Toury’s third step was realised by comparing the various equivalents found in the TT with theories from the field of translation studies (see section 2.2). The process of translation was highlighted by focusing on the identification of different types of changes in grammar between the ST adjectival pre-modifiers and their various equivalents in the TT. These findings were also contrasted with the notions of language-specific structural preferences between the language pairs involved to further describe the circumstances of the translation process. Furthermore, qualitative analyses of select examples were performed to detect the causes of the employment of various translation methods and the structural equivalents that they were associated with, which was aided by primarily the use of Språkbanken corpora.

2 Theoretical Framework

This section is dedicated to presenting the theoretical framework of the study at hand, which includes definitions of adjectival pre-modifiers, translation strategy and methods, as well as various formally non-correspondent structural equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers and language-specific structural preferences.

2.1 Defining Adjectival Pre-Modifiers

As a starting point for the presentation of the theoretical background of this study, it would be in good order to provide a comprehensive definition of adjectival pre-modifiers, which are the
focus of interest in the study at hand. In the present study, the categorisation *adjectival pre-modifier* is used to refer to pre-modifiers that function as adjectives. Adjectives are known as words which express features or qualities of nouns and pronouns (Crystal 1991: 142), and the words which they modify denote “properties of people or of concrete or abstract things” (Duran, Eppler & Ozón 2016: 33). This is a basic definition that must necessarily be elaborated in order to successfully define the object of study in this paper.

Biber, Grieve and Iberri-Shea (2009: 182–83) identify *attributive adjectives* as one of the three major structural types of pre-modification; the two other types of pre-modifiers are *participial adjectives* and *nouns*. In the study at hand, only attributive adjectives and participial adjectives are included and they are collectively known as *adjectival pre-modifiers*. When referred to separately, they are known as *pre-modifying adjectives* and *pre-modifying participles*, respectively, in the presentation of results in section 3. Nouns as pre-modifiers are not included in this study, due to the fact that not only do they differ in form from lexical adjectives, but they also (unlike participial adjectives) differ in function. This will be explained in the next paragraph, which serves the purpose of defining the functions of the word class that is studied in this paper.

Several properties characterise how adjectives function as pre-modifiers in relation to other words. Firstly, adjectives can pre-modify nouns, i.e. function attributively, in both English (Crystal 1991:142) and Swedish (Teleman et al. 1999: 153). On the phrase level, the adjective forms the head of the adjective phrase in both languages (Crystal 1991: 145), and Teleman et al. 1999: 153). In turn, adjectives themselves may be pre-modified by adverbs in both languages (Crystal 1991:142, and Teleman et al. 1999: 637). English adjectives can be graded through the use of comparative and superlative suffixes or by pre-modifying adverbs (Crystal 1991: 142) and the same is true for Swedish adjectives (Teleman et al. 1999: 152–153). It is clear from these criteria that English nouns as pre-modifiers only fulfill the first requirement, i.e. having the ability to pre-modify nouns.

Thus, adjectives function similarly in English and Swedish. According to Ljung & Ohlander (1993:159), English attributive adjectives are largely identical in use to their Swedish counterparts, and most gradable adjectives in both languages can be used attributively (ibid: 158). Ingo (2007: 187) confirms that there is no significant difference between how Swedish and English use adjectives as attributes. The one difference is found in how English in some cases can place multiple attributes *after* the noun phrase head in a way that is not acceptable in the Swedish language:
He lived through accidents *unfortunate and fortunate*.
(Ingo 2007: 187)

However, such use would mean that the attributes in the examples above are used as post-modifiers, which in turn results in their disqualification as adjectival pre-modifiers.

As for participles, these adjectival pre-modifiers are identical in form to the participle form of verbs (Eastwood 2002: 258). These adjectives take on *-ing* or *-ed* endings, which give them the same form as active and passive participles (for example: *alarming/alarmed, exciting/excited* and *puzzling/puzzled*). The Swedish language also uses participial adjectives (Teleman et al. 1999: 233), which are derived from verbs but share syntactic functions with lexical adjectives, just as in English. Swedish participial adjectives commonly take on *-ande* and *-ad* endings, as seen in the examples *skrämm-ande* and *sponsra-d*. Other suffixes for participial adjectives include those seen in the examples *läs-t*, *sy-dd*, *skriv-en*, and *sy-ende* (ibid: 582). According to Ingo (2007: 184), participles can be used as pre-modifying attributes in both English and Swedish. This is seen in the example below:

(3) This was a *surprising* win for him.  Detta var en *överraskande* seger för honom.
(Ingo 2007: 184)

Additionally, adverbs and nouns may be compounded with pre-modifying participles, often by means of hyphenation (Eastwood 2002: 169): a *fast-growing economy* or a *wood-burning stove*. Such compounds are what Ljung (2000: 206) refers to as *compound adjectival pre-modifiers*, noting that the majority of these have past or present participles as heads in his study of newspaper texts, such as the example *a Chicago-based (company)*. Ljung continues, explaining that such pre-modifiers all have semantic equivalents in relative constructions, as in *a company which is based in Chicago*. Other features of compound adjectival pre-modifiers include showing a strong preference for attributive use, typically not being listed in dictionaries, and that they exhibit a formal similarity due to the fact they are commonly hyphenated (ibid.). Compounds with a participial adjective as their last element will be known as *pre-modifying compound participles* in the results section, while compounds with a last element that is a lexical adjective will be known as *pre-modifying compound adjectives*. Similarly, Swedish adjectives and participles can be compounded mainly with other adjectives, nouns, verbs, and also with some adverbs, pronouns and prepositions (Teleman et al. 1999: 186–7), for example as in the compound adjective and compound participle *citrongul* (‘lemon-yellow’) and *Moskvatrogen* (‘Moscow-loyal’), respectively.
On another note, adjectives and participles that occur in the predicative position or as complements are not included in this study, due to the fact that they are not pre-modifiers. Also worth mentioning is that the criteria listed above disqualify adjectives that are used as heads of nouns phrases from inclusion in this study. Such nominalised adjectives (Leech & Svartvik 1994: 224), with examples such as the British or the poor, cease to function as adjectives when used as noun phrase heads.

Yet another important definition limits the scope of this paper. The language pairs of this study, English and Swedish, share a common Germanic origin and certain language features as a result, such as the ability to easily create word compounds, which is a feature that contrasts other European language families, such as the Romance and the Slavic languages (Liljestrand 1993: 32). An important orthographic difference between the language pairs of the present study is that English compounds can be open, i.e. with the words separated by space, while Swedish compounds are solid, i.e. with no space between the words (Ljung & Ohlander 1993: 306). Sometimes, Swedish compounds may be hyphenated (Språkriktighetsboken 2016 [2011]: 43). What this means for the study at hand, is that the ST should contain adjectives or participles which at a first glance might appear to be pre-modifiers to nouns, but are in fact part of a whole that is a compound noun, e.g. small arms (i.e. firearms). Similarly, adjectives and participles in proper nouns and proper names, e.g. the United States, are not treated as pre-modifiers and therefore excluded from being studied in the present paper. Compound nouns are typically listed in dictionaries as nouns, but they can also be tested by attempting to treat the examples according to the defining features of adjectival pre-modifiers. For example, if the noun small arms was to contain an adjectival pre-modifier, one should be able to pre-modify the adjective in turn with adverbs. However, in doing so, the result is strikingly different in meaning. For instance, very small arms (meaning ‘arms (i.e. either as in the limbs, or any weapons) that are very small’ rather than ‘hand-held firearms of specific calibers’) renders the original compound noun as a noun phrase consisting of a pre-modifying adjective and the head. Therefore, this distinction necessitates the exclusion of adjectives and participles in compound nouns, proper nouns and proper names from the study.

2.2 Translation Strategy and Methods

Although the topic of this paper is the adjectival pre-modifier, the general translation strategy applied in producing the TT needed to take into consideration larger units of translation and the text as a whole. Having identified the ST as belonging to the text informative type (Reiss
2004 [1971]: 167), and the TT that was to be produced from it as informative as well, the general strategy for translation was adapted to suit the purpose. According to Reiss, an informative ST is best translated to an informative TT by conveying the same facts according to the sense and meaning of the ST, which in turn means that one may need to take structural differences between the languages involved into consideration (ibid.).

While one may need to take such differences into consideration, it does not mean that translation must result in frequent differences between a ST and a TT. Vinay & Darbelnet (2004 [1958/1995]: 86–7) maintain that translation between languages that are closely linguistically and culturally related most often see a literal or word-for-word approach applied. Any change in grammatical structure when translating, i.e. when a word of one class is replaced with a word of different class, is called transposition (ibid: 88).

However, Vinay & Darbelnet’s transposition is criticised by Hansen & Hansen-Schirra (2012: 134) for not being “fine-grained enough for a detailed description of translation shifts and their effect on the translation product.” While transposition may serve to label the translation procedure, it is not viewed as sufficient for a comprehensive description of the differences that can be noted between an ST and a TT. For example, the concept of transposition encompasses nominalisation and verbalisation, as well as a variety of grammatical phenomena such as the change of lexical and phrasal categories, word order, dependency, lexical or phrasal features and level of projection or rank. For that reason, the present study requires a more delicate approach in order to provide a more comprehensive answer to its questions.

Catford (2004 [1965]: 141) instead uses the term shift to define any departures from formal correspondence (i.e. correspondence in grammatical structure) in translating a ST into a TT. Newmark (1988: 85) considers shifts and Vinay & Darbelnet’s transposition to be interchangeable terms. However, Catford goes on to further identify two main types of shifts: level shifts and category shifts.

A level shift is defined as occurring when “a SL item at one linguistic level has a TL translation equivalent at a different level” (ibid.). This specifically refers to shifts from grammar to lexis, and vice versa. An example of a level shift is seen in the translation from Russian to English below.

(4) Čto že delal Bel’tov v prodolženie etix des’atí let? Vse ili počti vse. Čto on sdelal? Ničego ili počti ničego.
(Catford 2004 [1965]: 142)

What did Beltov do during these ten years? Everything, or almost everything. What did he achieve? Nothing, or almost nothing.
Here, the Russian ST first uses the imperfective delal, only to later inflect it for completion as sdelal. This type of inflection does not exist in English, which instead resorts to using a different lexical item, achieve, to produce an equivalent to the inflected Russian verb. Due to the similarities between English and Swedish adjectival pre-modifiers (see section 2.1), level shifts are not expected to be present in the results in section 3.

Category shifts, on the other hand, can be expected to be seen in the TT to varying degrees. Catford (2004 [1965]: 143) identifies a total of four different types of category shifts: structure shifts, class shifts, unit shifts and intra-system shifts.

A structure shift is essentially what takes place when the word order of a TT does not correspond to its ST, which can occur at different ranks (ibid: 145). Catford exemplifies this with two examples, one being English-French and the other English-Gaelic:

(5a) A white house
     Une maison blanche [a house white]
     (Catford: 2004 [1965]: 145)

(5b) John loves Mary
     Tha gradh aig Iain air Mairi [Is love at John on Mary]
     (Catford 2004 [1965]: 143)

In the English-French example, the noun phrase contains an English attributive adjective as pre-modifier, while the French translation realises the same attributive adjective as a post-modifier. This is a structure shift on a phrase level. The English-Gaelic example sees a structure shift on a clause level which involves a departure from the English S-V-O word order. Newmark (1988: 85) comments that structure shifts are automatic and leave no choice to the translator. Structure shifts involving adjectival pre-modifiers are not expected to be seen in the results of this study, due to the fact that adjectival pre-modifiers typically must precede noun phrase heads in both English and Swedish (see section 2.1); none of the categories of equivalents of adjectival pre-modifiers outlined in the following section 2.3 relate directly to structure shifts.

Class shifts occur "when the translation equivalent of a SL item is a member of a different class from the original item" (Catford 2004 [1965]: 145). Catford once again uses the English-French example (5a) shown above, maintaining that the shift from the English modifying adjective to a French qualifying adjective constitutes a class shift if one should distinguish between the two. In the present paper, no such distinction is made. Instead, the distinction between words is based solely on lexical class and rank. This renders Catford’s example insufficient. Consider instead this example from the primary material of this study:

(6) a chilling forerunner of Nazi policies in
     en isande förelöpare till nazisternas politik under
In example (6), the equivalent of the English pre-modifying adjective *Nazi* is found in the Swedish noun *nazisternas* (‘the Nazis’), which has been inflected for the genitive case.

Unit shifts are changes in rank, e.g. from clause to word or vice versa (Catford 2004 [1965]: 145). This is seen in the following example:

(7) a *medical* student un étudiant *en medicine* [lit. ‘a student in medicine’]
    (Catford 2004 [1965]: 145)

The English pre-modifying adjective *medical* finds its equivalent in a post-modifying prepositional phrase. Catford calls this an adverbial phrase (ibid.), but since the topic of the present paper is focused on the form of equivalents rather than their function, such equivalents are known here as post-modifying prepositional phrases.

The intra-system shift is the final type of category shift presented by Catford (2004 [1965]: 145–7). It is described as occurring when the SL and the TL possess approximately corresponding systems, but when the translation constitutes the selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system. This is exemplified with the French and English systems of number and articles:

(8a) Trousers le pantalon [singular]
    (Catford 2004 [1965]: 146)

(8b) Love l’amour [definite article]
    (Catford 2004 [1965]: 147)

The term is not used to describe other types of shifts, e.g. unit shifts, as those are viewed as being shifts from one system to another (ibid: 146). As with structure shifts, intra-system shifts are considered by Newmark to be automatic, leaving the translator no options (1988: 85). In conclusion, intra-system shifts are not expected to be seen in the results in section 3, as it is not clear as to how they would relate to the translation of English adjectival pre-modifiers into Swedish.

2.3 Formally Non-Correspondent Equivalents and Language-Specific Structural Preferences

Applying the translation methods discussed in the previous section might result in a variety of structurally non-corresponding equivalents when translating from English into Swedish, as we have already inevitably touched upon. An important notion is that languages may display
different preferences regarding syntactic structure, which could ultimately affect the outcome of a translation depending on the language pairs involved. For the language pair English-Swedish, previous research and literature in addition to contrastive grammars seem to suggest that the two languages have different preferences regarding the frequency of pre-modification in noun phrases. This could ultimately affect the outcome of a target text in ways discussed below.

In a 2017 corpus study of English, German and Swedish, Levin & Ström Herold (151) maintain that contrastive studies on pre-modification between the three languages are largely lacking. As a result, some examples of equivalents in this section are taken from English-German studies, as well as the English-German work in Levin & Ström Herold’s study. Their study concluded that roughly half of all translations of English hyphenated pre-modifiers (N.B. that these included non-adjectival pre-modifiers to nouns, e.g. adjective-noun pre-modifiers) were rendered as pre-modifiers in Swedish and German, most often as pre-modifying compound participles and pre-modifying compound adjectives (ibid: 161). Swedish preferences for post-modification as equivalents to hyphenated pre-modifiers were found to be “mostly small and only partly significant” (ibid: 173). However, since the present study focuses exclusively on adjectival pre-modifiers and the Levin & Ström Herold study examined hyphenated pre-modifiers of various classes, only their examples that deal with adjectival pre-modifiers are used below.

Nouns as equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers result from a class shift of the adjectival pre-modifier. Steiner (2001:14) studied grammatical metaphorisation in translations between English and German, and noted nouns as formal equivalents to adjectives as exemplified below:

(9a) governmental decision die Regierung entscheidet [the government decides]  
(Steiner 2001:14)  
(9b) Instability instabil [unstable]  
(Steiner 2001:14)

The noun decision in example (9a) is translated to the verb entscheidet, effectively rendering the phrase a clause in German while at the same time the adjective governmental by necessity shifts class to noun as adjectives do not modify verbs. In a 2007 study by Nordrum (216), nominalisations were found to be used more extensively in English source texts than in their Swedish and Norwegian translations. Such nominalisations were instead verbalised as clauses in approximately one-fifth of the cases, which suggests that Swedish should prefer verbal constructions in certain cases where English uses nominal expressions. Nordrum’s findings
have implications for the study at hand: if nominalisations are more frequently found in English STs, an English noun phrase with a de-verbal head pre-modified by an attributive adjective or participle could possibly see its pre-modifier necessarily shift class to adverb in the case of a clausal construction or verbalisation in a Swedish translation.

Compound nouns are frequently the result of translating English nouns which are pre-modified by adjectives into Swedish (Estling Vannestål 2007: 221). This is also supported by Ljung & Ohlander (1993: 149), who maintain that specifically English classifying adjectives that pre-modify nouns tend to be translated to compound nouns in Swedish. In the present study, compound nouns as equivalents will comprise a category known also as *first element of compound noun*, as the English adjectival pre-modifier corresponds to only the first element of the translation. An example from the primary source of the present study is shown below:

(10)  a defensive alliance  en försvarsallians
      *en defensiv allians

In Catford’s terms, this type of equivalent should be considered a unit shift. A downward unit shift occurs because the adjective *defensive* shifts from the rank of word to being rendered as the left-hand element of the Swedish compound noun.

*Genitival attributes* are identified by Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157) as an equivalent of compound participial attributes, as shown in their example below. Such equivalents must be considered cases of class shift as exemplified below:

(11)  middle-aged housewife  medelålders hemmafru
      (Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157)  *medelåldrad hemmafru

*Adverbs* are yet another type of equivalent to adjectival pre-modifiers noted by Steiner (2001: 14). The view that English uses more noun pre-modification is supported by Ljung & Ohlander (1993: 159), who maintain that adjectival pre-modifiers are more commonly seen in English than in Swedish. The following examples show how attributive adjectives must necessarily be translated to adverbs in tandem with a verbalisation that occurs:

(12)  Dean is a hard worker (a heavy drinker)  Dean arbetar hårt (dricker /för/ mycket) [Dean works hard (drinks too much)]
In this case, a translation that attempts to apply formal equivalence is not to be considered idiomatic Swedish: *Dean är en hård arbetare (en stor drickare)*. In the case of the un-idiomatic word-for-word translation of hard worker, it also shifts the semantics of the expression; in this translation, Dean becomes a worker who is ‘hard’ (‘tough’), rather than a person who ‘works hard’.

*Post-modifying prepositional phrases* as equivalents should also be considered cases of unit shifts, insofar as the ST translation unit consists of a single, un-modified adjectival pre-modifier. The examples below are taken from Steiner’s (2001: 14) table of grammatical shifts and show two cases of upward unit shifts, i.e. shifts from operating at word level to phrase level:

(13a)  a lengthy argument stritten für eine längere Zeit [argued for a longer time]  
(Steiner 2001: 14)  
(13b)  Superficial auf der Oberfläche [on the surface]  
(Steiner 2001: 14)

According to Ingo (2007: 188), English is a language which to a greater extent than Swedish relies on noun pre-modification. This is especially evident in how compound adjectival pre-modifiers are translated. Levin & Ström Herold use the following example of the translation of compound adjectives to post-modifying prepositional phrases:

(14)  fifteen-year-old schoolgirls skolflickor i femtonårsåldern [schoolgirls of fifteen-years-of-age]  
(Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157))

*Verbs* as equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers have been noted by Steiner:

(15)  rising poverty Armut steigt [poverty rises]  
(Steiner 2001: 14)

Such translations should be understood as class shifts, as the English pre-modifying adjective is rendered as a single verb. However, this does not relate to Nordrum’s (2017) study, due to the fact that there is no nominalisation present that can shifted to a verb, even though the translation becomes clausal in that the adjectival pre-modifier is rendered as a verb.

*Relative clauses* are another type of equivalent to adjectival pre-modifiers, which are to be seen as resulting from upward unit shift. Specifically, Levin & Ström Herold exemplify how compound participial adjectives can be rendered as relative clauses:
A Swedish relative clause translation would be *som sprutade utan avbrott*. This type of translation relates to the notion that compound participles have semantic equivalents in relative clauses, as stated by Ljung (2000: 206). This should render them particularly suitable as translation options if the target language offers no acceptable formally correspondent option. In the case of the compound participle seen in example (16), finding a formally correspondent alternative in Swedish is difficult. Furthermore, relative clauses as equivalents should be expected to some degree in the results, as Swedish translations of English pre-modifiers appear to display a tendency toward post-modification (Levin & Ström Herold 2017: 173). Furthermore, this category relates to Nordrum’s findings that Swedish translations have a tendency to use clausal constructions instead of English pre-modifiers (2007: 216).

*Extended Attribute* is another category of equivalents that will be used when presenting the results in section 3. These shifts are characterised by the extension of the noun phrase pre-modification by one or more complements (Levin & Ström Herold: 2017: 157) as seen in the examples below:

(17a) *the all-embracing unit*  
(Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157))  
*die alles umschließende Einheit* [the everything embracing unit]  

(17b) *near-full moon*  
(Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157))  
*fast voller Mond* [almost full moon]  

Note that the latter of the examples constitutes a hyphenated adjective, while the former is a hyphenated participle. Extending the modifier constitutes a unit shift, as the translation equivalent to the English word in the examples is a phrase consisting of two separate words. Thus, extending the pre-modifier is a case of upward unit shift.

Finally, *omission* has also been noted in the translation of adjectival pre-modifiers:

(18) *spike-heeled boots*  
(Levin & Ström Herold 2017: 157)  
*Stiefel* [‘boots’]
According to Ingo (2007: 124), one should take note of the fact that semantic omissions should only be considered acceptable if there is no loss of sense and meaning as a result which is evidently not the case in example (18).

3 Results

This section is comprised of two parts: a quantitative overview and a subsequent qualitative analysis of select examples of equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers.

3.1 Quantitative Overview

Table (1) displays the distribution of the various types of adjectival pre-modifiers identified in the ST along with their frequencies in the TT:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjectival Pre-Modifiers</th>
<th>ST Number</th>
<th>ST %</th>
<th>TT Number</th>
<th>TT %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Mod. Adjective</td>
<td>382</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>324</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Mod. Participle</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Mod. Compound Adjective</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Mod. Compound Participle</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>474</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the data in table (1), we can conclude that all of the various types of adjectival pre-modifiers discussed in section 2.1 were found in both the English ST and the Swedish TT. In the ST, the overwhelming majority (81%) of adjectival pre-modifiers were found to be pre-modifying adjectives. Other adjectival pre-modifiers were in the minority, with pre-modifying participles (14%) being considerably more frequent than the other two minority categories.

As for the TT, it was found to contain fewer pre-modifying adjectives (68%) than the ST, while at the same time displaying a higher absolute and relative frequency (71% and 15%, respectively) of pre-modifying participles than the ST. This implies that in some cases adjectival pre-modifiers may have been rendered as adjectival pre-modifiers of other categories, e.g. pre-modifying participle rendered as adjective or vice versa. Such cases are nevertheless classified as formally correspondent translations in this section, due to the fact that they remain adjectival pre-modifiers in the TT. A striking difference between the ST and the TT in regards to adjectival pre-modifiers is that they have also been translated into Swedish as a completely different construction in 14% of the cases. What this means is that other translation methods than formal correspondence were used. Table (2) below displays the
distribution of the Catford’s (2004 [1965]: 141ff) formal correspondence and shifts found in the TT:

Table (2) Distribution of Translation Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation Methods</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal Correspondence</td>
<td>408</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unit Shift</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class Shift</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure Shift</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intra-System Shift</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level Shift</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>474</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in table (2), translation to a formally correspondent equivalent in Swedish occurred for 86% of the adjectival pre-modifiers in the ST, meaning that this method for translating adjectival pre-modifiers was the most common. This was expected due to the similarities in usage between English and Swedish adjectival pre-modifiers (Ljung & Ohlander 1993:159; Ingo 2007: 187). Furthermore, these findings are in line with Vinay & Darbelnet’s (2004 [1958/1995]: 86–7) view that translation between languages that are linguistically and/or culturally related will most often apply a literal translation method. The only category shifts that were found in the TT were unit shifts (9%) and class shifts (4%), which have considerably lower frequencies. As expected, no instances of structure shifts or intra-system shifts in relation to adjectival pre-modifiers were noted. Similarly, level shifts were not detected in the TT. Omissions (1%) were the smallest category of the translation methods which were used.

This initial quantitative overview raises some further questions: what ‘other’ structures resulted from the translation of adjectival pre-modifiers, and how do these structures relate to the translation methods that were used? This is discussed in the following section.
3.2 Qualitative Analysis

This section takes a closer look at the different translation methods that were applied in the translation of adjectival pre-modifiers, as well as examining the various equivalent structures that were selected as translation options.

3.2.1 Formal Correspondence

Formal correspondence was achieved by translating an English adjectival pre-modifier into any Swedish adjectival pre-modifier. This was the translation method for 86% of all ST adjectival pre-modifiers, as seen in table (2). The majority (82%) of all formally correspondent equivalents resulted from the translation of pre-modifying adjectives, whereas all ST categories of adjectival pre-modifiers had at least one equivalent that belongs to a different category of adjectival pre-modifiers. Below is an example of such a translation:

Example (19) features the English pre-modifying adjective *regional*, which is translated to the formally correspondent equivalent *regionalt* in Swedish. This type of translation was straightforward, and a translator would have to go out of his or her way to produce a formally non-correspondent translation. An example of such a translation would have been the post-modifier *som sträckte sig över hela regionen* (‘that encompassed the entire region’). This post-modifying equivalent is a relative clause, which would have related to the Swedish tendency to create clausal as well as post-modifying constructions out of English pre-modifiers (Nordrum 2007: 216; Ingo 2007: 188; Levin & Ström Herold 2007: 173). Another alternative would have been the post-modifying prepositional phrase *i regionen* (‘in the region’), but this choice would have resulted in a considerable semantic loss; a war *in the region* is not necessarily a war that *spans* the region, which can be understood from the ST noun phrase. To help determine the naturalness or idiomaticity of the translation option in the Swedish language, *Språkbanken* corpora were used; the noun phrase *regionalt krig* was found 42 times, while for example the post-modifying prepositional phrase alternative occurred 31 times. Both should be viewed as equally acceptable. However, seeing as there was a readily available formally correspondent and idiomatic option, there was no need to deviate from the ST structure and unnecessarily lengthen or complicate the sentence.
The next example shows the formally correspondent translation of a pre-modifying participle, which was the resulting equivalent in approximately 15% of all uses of formal correspondence as the translation method for adjectival pre-modifiers:

(20) The leading nations of Europe were divided into two hostile camps, both ill-prepared to deal with the worsening situation in the Balkans.

Europas ledande länder var uppdelade i två fientliga läger, som båda var dåligt förberedda på att hantera den försämrade situationen på Balkan.

What was true for example (19) of the translation of a pre-modifying adjective can also be said to apply to pre-modifying participles. In example (20), a straight-forward translation to the formally correspondent structure was carried with little room for other translation options regarding the pre-modifier. Considering the greater length and complexity of the sentence in example (20) in comparison with the sentence example (19), a post-modifying relative clause as a translation option seems more unlikely or even inappropriate for reasons of readability: e.g. länderna som var ledande i Europa (‘the nations that were leading in Europe’) would without any real necessity have included a relative clause at the beginning of the sentence instead of using the simpler pre-modifying construction. This decision to use the formally correspondent equivalent was further supported by 169 occurrences of the noun phrase ledande länder in Språkbanken corpora.

Pre-modifying compound adjectives resulted from roughly 2% of all applications of formal correspondence as translation method. They resulted only from the translation of pre-modifying compound adjectives and pre-modifying compound participles in the TT. An example is shown below:

(21) Russia put real pressure on the relatively weak Austro-Hungarian army, but by 1915 the eastern front had stabilized in Germany’s favor.

Ryssland satte stark press på den relativt svaga österrikisk-ungerska armén, men 1915 stabiliserades östfronten till Tysklands fördel.

Pre-modifying compound adjectives found in the ST were frequently hyphenated compounds of adjectives, most of which relate to nationality in the way seen in example (21). Note that the Swedish equivalent is hyphenated rather than solid. For pre-modifying adjectives such as these, the only formally non-correspondent translation alternative would have been to render it as a genitival attribute, i.e. as Österrike-Ungerns relativt svaga armé (‘Austria-Hungary’s relatively weak army’). The Swedish formally correspondent pre-modifier was found to
occur 290 times in Språkbanken corpora, which saw it used only as a pre-modifier to nouns, including the noun *armén*. The translation option of the noun phrase with the genitival attribute suggested above was found 15 times. In this case, the choice of the formally correspondent translation option was motivated by considerations of style, as both options appeared to have the same effect on sentence length, complexity and readability.

Pre-modifying compound participles were the result of approximately 1% of all formally correspondent translations. Additionally, they resulted only from the translations of pre-modifying compound adjectives and pre-modifying compound participles in the ST. Example (22) below shows one of these translations:

(22) To the *shell-shocked* generation of survivors, it was known simply as the Great War because of its unprecedented scope and intensity.

För den *granatchockade* överlevande generationen blev det helt enkelt känt som det stora kriget på grund av dess aldrig tidigare skadade omfattning och intensitet.

The pre-modifying compound participle *granatchockade* was found used as a pre-modifier twice in Språkbanken corpora and Google showed 209 results for the term, with most uses being situated in a war context. It was difficult to conceive of a formally non-correspondent translation option that could be useful; the closest example would have been the relative clause *som var chockade av granateld*, but searching for this relative clause showed results from neither Språkbanken nor Google, suggesting that this might not be an idiomatic expression in Swedish. Yet again a category shift would have resulted in an unnecessary lengthening and complication of the sentence.

As mentioned in the quantitative overview in section 3.1, some adjectival pre-modifiers were indeed found to have been translated to other types of adjectival pre-modifiers; every ST category of adjectival pre-modifiers included adjectival pre-modifiers which had been translated to another category of formally correspondent equivalents. Below is an example:

(23) Their *misguided* Schlieffen Plan called for a quick victory over France after a lightning attack through neutral Belgium […]

Den *bristfälliga* Schlieffen-planen gick ut på en snabb seger över Frankrike efter ett blixtanfall genom det neutrala Belgien – den snabbaste vägen för att nå Paris […]

Example (23) shows the translation of the pre-modifying participle *misguided* into the Swedish pre-modifying adjective *bristfälliga* (‘flawed’). This choice was motivated by the fact that the related Swedish pre-modifying participle *missledda* could be understood as meaning ‘deceived’ or ‘fooled’ in the target language. In order to more accurately convey the
notion that the Schlieffen Plan was perhaps not realisable, the pre-modifying adjective used in example (23) was selected.

3.2.2 Unit Shift

Unit shift was the translation method used for 9% of all ST adjectival pre-modifiers. Unit shifts were comprised of the following 8 categories: post-modifying prepositional phrase, first element of compound noun, extended attribute, pre-modifying prepositional phrase, verb phrase, first element of compound adverb, last element of compound participle and relative clause.

Post-modifying prepositional phrases as equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers were found 14 times in the TT, constituting approximately 3% of all equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers. The majority (9) of post-modifying prepositional phrases were found as equivalents to ST adjectives, with the remainder having been found as equivalents to pre-modifying compound adjectives. Below is an example of the translation of an English compound adjective into a Swedish post-modifying prepositional phrase:

(24) In a little over a month, a limited Austrian-Serbian war had become a European-wide conflict, and the First World War had begun.

På drygt en månad hade det begränsade kriget mellan Österrike och Serbien blivit en europeisk konflikt och första världskriget hade börjat. ['between Austria and Serbia]

The example (24) above shows that an upward unit shift has occurred for the pre-modifying compound adjective Austrian-Serbian; the post-modifying prepositional phrase is the full equivalent to the compound adjective in the ST, whereas the nouns Österrike and Serbien cannot be considered its equivalent on their own. The idiomaticity of the translation options for this particular example is difficult to examine with Språkbanken corpora; a search for the formally correspondent compound adjective österrikisk-serbiskt yielded no results, while the post-modifying prepositional construction used in example (24) was found once. That usage was found in a text that appears to deal with the First World War. Results from Google showed only one occurrence of österrikisk-serbiskt, which was also used in a topic about the First World War. On the other hand, the post-modifying prepositional phrase used in example (24) yielded 474 Google results, most of which appeared to be used in discussing the First World War. These frequencies would suggest that the post-modifying equivalent is more natural in the target language, which in turn relates to the view that Swedish should prefer

Equivalents of adjectival pre-modifiers that were identified in the first elements of compound nouns were found 11 times in this study, with a relative frequency of 2% of all translations of adjectival pre-modifiers. That makes this category of equivalents the second most frequent type of category shift undertaken in the TT. What is interesting is that only pre-modifying adjectives (9) and pre-modifying participles (2) were translated in this manner. Example (25) below showcases such a translation:

(25) At the beginning of the war, Britain and France established a naval blockade to strangle the Central Powers. 

The pre-modifying adjective naval is rendered as the first element of the compound noun havsblockad. This is considered a unit shift because naval shifts downward in rank from word to corresponding to the first element of a compound noun. A formally equivalent alternative would have resulted in less-than-idiomatic, albeit grammatically correct Swedish: *havslig blockad. Språkbanken corpora showed no uses of havslig, but judging by results from Google, the adjectival pre-modifier appears to be used more often in Finland Swedish contexts. On the other hand, the translation choice in example (25), havsblockad, was found to occur 9 times in Språkbanken, and the synonymous sjöblockad occurred 47 times. Both variants appear to refer to the type of blockade described in the ST, e.g. several uses were found in the context of the Israeli naval blockade of Gaza. However, other alternatives, such as a post-modifying prepositional phrase were possible as in blockad till havs (‘blockade at sea’), which was found only twice in Språkbanken corpora. Due to the fact that Swedish frequently creates compounds from English adjective–noun structures (Estling Vannestål 2007: 221; Ljung & Ohlander 1993: 149), there was already a simpler alternative readily available without the need to increase sentence length or complexity.

Extended attributes is another category identified as equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers. Extended attributes occurred 7 times in the TT as equivalents to all categories of adjectival pre-modifiers except pre-modifying adjectives; their relative frequency among the translation choices is therefore roughly 1%. Below is an example of an extended attribute as an equivalent to an adjectival pre-modifier:

(26) This fateful move prompted long-isolated republican France to court Detta ödesdigra drag föranledde det sedan länge isolerade republikanska Frankrike att uppvakta det
Example (26) constitutes an upward unit shift, as the ST sees its pre-modifier shift in rank from word to phrase level. There appears to be no viable formally correspondent alternative in Swedish other than a pre-modifying compound participle: lângtidsisolerade (lit. ‘long-time-isolated’). Searching for this word in Språkbanken corpora yielded only 1 result which is used as a pre-modifier and in reference to criminals who spend a longer period of time isolated in detention cells. This suggested that the usage of the pre-modifying compound participle as a translation choice might not have been suitable in reference to a country. The translation choice used in example (26), however, yielded no results at all from Språkbanken. A similar construction, e.g. sedan länge känta (lit. ‘since long known’) was found in 135 occurrences, of which 96 were used as pre-modifiers to nouns. These findings suggested that that the formally correspondent is possibly best avoided, as uses of constructions similar to the extended attribute displayed in example (26) were found in Språkbanken corpora.

A small but interesting category was not found in the previous research and literature discussed in section 2.3. This category was named pre-modifying prepositional phrase in this study and occurred only twice as a translation equivalent to adjectival pre-modifiers, comprising less than 1% of equivalents to ST adjectival pre-modifiers. One of these cases is exemplified below:

(27) […] the German general staff began secret preparations for a war on two fronts (Map 25.1). Den tyska generalstaben började i hemlighet förbereda för krig på två fronter (karta 25.1). ['in secrecy to prepare']

Example (27) features a pre-modifying adjective that is shifted upward in rank to a prepositional phrase that pre-modifies a verb in the TT as an adverbial. Such results could be related to the Swedish tendency to verbalise nouns and form clausal constructions (Nordrum 2007: 216). The ST structure could not have been translated to a formally correspondent equivalent without creating ungrammatical target language: e.g. *började hemliga förberedelser för krig (‘began secret preparations for war’). A similar, but grammatically correct construction would have been började med hemliga förberedelser, but this option was discarded as it was considered be stylistically inadequate.

First element of compound adverb is another category which was not noted in previous research and literature. This type of translation of adjectival pre-modifiers, specifically pre-modifying adjectives, is found only twice; such therefore equivalents
comprise approximately less than 1% of all translations from adjectival pre-modifiers. These are shown in the examples below:

(28) At the same time, Russian armies attacked eastern Germany, forcing the Germans to transfer much-needed troops to the east. 

Example (28) showcases how the English adjectival pre-modifier finds its equivalent in the left-hand element of the Swedish compound adverb. However, this is a problematic finding; the adverb *samtidigt* (‘simultaneously’ or ‘at the same time’) is in itself not equivalent to *same time*, but rather to the full prepositional phrase *at the same time*. This shows that considering only smaller translation units can be problematic in establishing equivalence. A Swedish prepositional phrase would have been possible as an alternative translation to the English noun phrase: *vid samma tid* (‘at the same time’). This was avoided because searching for the phrase in Språkbanken corpora rendered results such as: *det är två miljoner fler än vid samma tid förra året* (‘that is two million more than at the same time last year’), for which a translation to *simultaneously* would not have been possible. Using the translation choice *samtidigt* allowed not only a clearer reference to ‘simultaneously’, but also allowed the TT to avoid unnecessary lengthening of the sentence as there was already a readily available Swedish adverb.

The equivalent category verb, which was suggested in section 2.4 based on Steiner’s (2001: 14) work was not present in the TT. However, two verb phrases (comprising less than 1% of all translation choices for adjectival pre-modifiers) were found as equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers, or more specifically, as equivalents to pre-modifying adjectives only:

(29) The Widening War Kriget *sprider sig* [‘the war is spreading itself’]

Note that example (29) was found in a heading, meaning that no additional context can be given. It is clear that the adjectival pre-modifier in the ST has its equivalent in a verb phrase, rather than a single word. In the former, the pre-modifying participle is equivalent to a verb phrase consisting of a verb followed by a reflexive pronoun. Note as well that example (29) does not relate to the findings of Nordrum’s 2017 (216) study; no de-nominalisation has occurred despite the fact that the TT phrase is now a clause. The formally correspondent translation option for example (29) would have been the idiomatically questionable *det spridande kriget* (‘the spreading war’) or *det breddande kriget* (‘the widening war’).
Språkbanken corpora showed no uses of spridande as a pre-modifier, but only uses of the noun spridande (‘spread'); breddande results in 66 hits in Språkbanken, while only 8 of these were examples of use of the word as a pre-modifier. The remaining uses were mostly of the noun breddande (‘widening’), suggesting that using these words as pre-modifiers might not be considered idiomatic.

Last element of compound participle is a category of formally non-correspondent equivalents that was not found in previous research, literature and contrastive grammars. They effectively constitute a reduction of a ST adjective phrase in the TT by compounding the participial head with its pre-modifier. In a way, this can be considered the opposite of what Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157) termed extended attribute, which was also found in the TT of the present study and discussed above. Such equivalents were translated only from pre-modifying participles and occur twice in the TT, meaning that they comprise approximately less than 1% of all equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers:

(30) Recently invented weapons, the products of an industrial age, made battle impersonal, traumatic, and extremely deadly.

Example (30) displays how the English pre-modifying participle finds its equivalent in the right-hand element of the Swedish compound participle, which effectively renders this type of translation a downward unit shift as its equivalent is of a lower rank. The frequency for the translation choice seen in example (30) is 68 in Språkbanken corpora, while the formally correspondent Swedish equivalent nyligen uppfunna is found only 6 times in the same corpora. These frequencies suggest that keeping the ST structure would have resulted in an unusual, albeit completely grammatical usage of the Swedish language.

Relative clauses as equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers were found only once in the TT, meaning that it was the equivalent of less than 1% of all ST adjectival pre-modifiers. In this case, the adjectival pre-modifier was a simple pre-modifying participle. It is notable that while Ljung (2000: 206) suggested that compound adjectival pre-modifiers often have their semantic equivalent in relative clause constructions, this type of equivalent was noted only once in the TT of the present study, while also finding its ST equivalent in a simple pre-modifying adjective. This relative clause is presented in the example below:

(31) As the British soldiers neared the German lines and the shelling stopped, the Germans emerged from their bunkers, set

När de brittiska soldaterna närmade sig de tyska linjerna och beskjutningen hade upphört kom de tyska soldaterna upp ur sina bunkrar, ställde upp
up their machine guns, and mowed down the approaching troops. sina maskingevär och mejade ner trupperna som närmade sig. ['that approached']

In example (31), it is the relative clause som närmade sig ('that approached') that is the full equivalent of the pre-modifying participle approaching. As with example (29), no de-nominalisation has occurred despite the clausal expression in the TT; Nordrum’s (2007: 216) findings do not apply in these cases. A formally equivalent structure cannot be considered idiomatic in the Swedish language: *de närmande trupperna. The Swedish word närmande is a noun which corresponds roughly to the English nouns approach or advance. It is found 4,928 times in Språkbanken corpora and used almost exclusively as a noun, rather than being used as an adjectival pre-modifier. However, a synonymous pre-modifying participle exists: annalkande. This option was discarded for similar reasons due to the possibility that it could be perceived as somewhat archaic.

3.2.3 Class Shift

Class shifts resulted from the translation of roughly 4% of adjectival pre-modifiers in the ST. Interestingly, class shifts were found to have been caused by ST pre-modifying adjectives only. The class shifted equivalents of adjectival pre-modifiers that were found in the TT are: adverb, genitival attribute and noun, which all correspond to equivalents noted by Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157) and Steiner (2001: 14) and are exemplified and discussed in this section.

Adverbs as translations of adjectival pre-modifiers numbered 7 in the TT, with a relative frequency of approximately 1% of all translations of adjectival pre-modifiers. An example of how adverbs were produced as equivalents is given below:

(32) [soldiers] from Australia and New Zealand fought with particular distinction in the failed allied assault on Gallipoli. De australiensiska och nyzeeländska soldaterna utmärkte sig särskilt i det misslyckade allierade anfallet mot Gallipoli. ['distinguished themselves particularly']

In example (32), an instance of verbalisation is seen for the noun distinction, which has its equivalent in the verb utmärkte ('distinguished'). This type of translation is what Nordrum (2007: 216) found to be a tendency for Swedish translations of English. Necessarily, a verbalisation of the English noun is followed by the class shift of its pre-modifiers; adjectives do not pre-modify verbs and the pre-modifying adjective is consequently class shifted to an adverb. A formally equivalent translation would have been difficult to produce in idiomatic Swedish, for example: *stred med särskild utmärkelse. The phrase med särskild utmärkelse
was found only once in Språkbanken corpora, where it was used as a post-modifying prepositional attribute of a noun. The verb phrase utmärkte sig särskilt was on the other hand found to occur 112 times, rendering the translation choice seen in example (32) the more likely candidate for producing natural Swedish language.

Nouns as equivalents to pre-modifying adjectives were found 6 times in the TT. This means that roughly 1% of all adjectival pre-modifiers in the ST were translated to nouns. An example is shown below:

(33) The war spread to East Asia and colonial Africa as well. Kriget spred sig till Östasien och kolonierna i Afrika ['the colonies in Africa'].

Example (33) sees the English pre-modifying adjective colonial shift class to a noun, kolonierna (‘the colonies’), which is similar to the shifts noted by Steiner (2001: 14).

Additionally, the English head Africa is found within a Swedish prepositional phrase, i Afrika. The formally correspondent Swedish equivalent would have been koloniala Afrika, which occurs 13 times in Språkbanken corpora. The translation choice seen in example (33) is instead found 67 times. However, it appears that it is also usually found pre-modified, e.g. de portugisiska kolonierna i Afrika (‘the Portuguese colonies in Africa’). It is less frequently used un-modified, e.g. övergreppen i kolonierna i Afrika (‘the atrocities in the colonies in Africa’). Nevertheless, corpus results point toward the class shifted option in example (33) being more frequently used in Swedish, while using a formally correspondent equivalent could therefore possibly be seen as interference from the source language.

A total of 6 class shifts to genitival attribute were identified in the TT, comprising approximately 1% of all translation choices for adjectival pre-modifiers. The class shift consists of the English adjectival pre-modifier being rendered as a pre-modifying noun inflected for the genitive case in the TT. While Levin & Ström Herold (2017: 157) studied hyphenated pre-modifiers and found genitival attributes to be one of many Swedish equivalents of those, example (34) shows that genitival attributes can also be equivalents to English simple adjectives. In fact, what is interesting is that all of the class shifts to genitival attributes in the present study originated in simple adjectives in the ST, despite the presence of both pre-modifying compound adjectives and pre-modifying compound participles in the material. Below is example (34) which shows a class shift to genitival attribute for a pre-modifying adjective:

(34) Recently invented weapons, the products of an industrial age, made De nyuppfunna vapnen var produkter av industrialismens tidsänder, och de gjorde striderna
battle impersonal, traumatic, and extremely deadly. opersonliga, traumatiska och oerhört dödliga. [‘the age of industrialism’]

This example sees the English pre-modifying adjective *industrial* find it equivalent in a genitival attribute, *industrialismens*. This was a case of class shift because the genitival attribute is a noun inflected for the genitive case. There are no grammatical obstacles to constructing a formally correspondent expression in Swedish, e.g. *en industriell tidsålder* (‘an industrial age’). However, the adjectival pre-modifier was found to occur only once in *Språkbanken* corpora, in addition to being placed within quotation marks; the context was the discussion of a work of fiction that describes an imaginary future society which is set in an “industrial age” much like the one of the past of the real world. This highlighted the problem of the use of the proposed formally correspondent alternative; because its only noted use was found to be in reference to a generic “industrial age”, rather than to the specific period in human history known in Swedish as *industrialismen*, this option was considered unsuitable. Instead, the translation choice seen in example (34) found more support in *Språkbanken*; 9 results were shown for *industrialismens tidsålder*, which in itself may not be convincing that this is natural usage of the Swedish language. However, it was found that all 9 of these uses *industrialismens tidsålder* were part of prepositional phrases, which is similar to the translation choice that was selected in example (34). A similar expression with roughly the same meaning, *industrialismens tid* was found to occur 18 times in *Språkbanken* corpora, whereas its counterpart with an adjectival pre-modifier, *industriell tid*, showed only 3 results. This would suggest that a variant with a genitival attribute rather than an adjectival pre-modifier would be closer to idiomatic Swedish.

### 3.2.4 Omission

A total of 6 omissions of adjectival pre-modifiers were found, of which 5 were caused by the translation of pre-modifying adjectives and 1 by the translation of a pre-modifying participle. Omissions constituted approximately 1% of all translation choices for adjectival pre-modifiers. An example is shown below:

(35) By November 1914 an unbroken line of four hundred miles of *defensive* trenches extended from the Belgian coast through northern France and on to the frontier.

In example (35), the pre-modifying adjective *defensive* is omitted in the target text. While the noun *trenches* may refer to non-military trenches in the source language, the target language
skyttegrav is a defensive trench for military purposes. A search in Språkbanken corpora yielded only one result for defensiva skyttegravar, which originates from a text that appears to deal with the First World War. Språkbanken showed no results for the singular form of the phrase. Results for the un-modified skyttegrav were 109 in total, and its plural form occurred 559 times in the same corpora. The contexts of their use reveal that these commonly refer to literal defensive trenches that are built for purposes of war, and in some cases, metaphorical defensive trenches referred to mostly in sports contexts. This means that a formally correspondent translation of the noun phrase in the ST would have produced target language that should not be considered idiomatic. Furthermore, the omission in example (35) was successfully translated without any semantic loss in the TT, which according to Ingo (2007: 124) is crucial when considering the use of omission as a translation method.

4 Conclusion

This study has examined the translation of English adjectival pre-modifiers into Swedish. The source text was comprised of part of a chapter about the First World War in the American textbook A History of World Societies (McKay: 2016). The selection of this topic and material was inspired by previous research on the increasing frequency of noun phrase pre-modification in English, contrasted with notions of Swedish-specific preferences for translating English pre-modifiers into different structures found in previous research and literature. Swedish tendencies included rendering English pre-modifiers as post-modification (Levin & Ström Herold 2017: 173) or the compounding of pre-modifying adjectives or participles with noun phrase heads to form Swedish compound nouns (Estling Vannestål 2007: 221; Ljung & Ohlander 1993: 149). The concepts of formal correspondence and translation shifts (Catford 2004 [1965]: 141ff) as labels for translation methods were used to classify translations of adjectival pre-modifiers, in addition to categorising the translation choices based on word class, rank and position.

The study concluded that English adjectival pre-modifiers were overwhelmingly translated with formal correspondence (86%), i.e. as adjectival pre-modifiers. This was not unexpected due to apparent similarities between the two languages’ use of adjectival pre-modifiers (Ljung & Ohlander 1993:159; Ingo 2007: 187), further confirming Vinay & Darbelnet’s (2004 [1958/1995]: 86–7) view that translation between linguistically and/or culturally related languages will most often entail literal translation, i.e. translation with formal correspondence. The other translation methods that were applied were used
considerably less extensively; unit shifts and class shifts constituted 9% and 4% of all translation choices, respectively; omissions of the sense and meaning of the adjectival pre-modifier were found as the translation method for 1% of English adjectival pre-modifiers. Unit shifts were found to result a total of 8 different types of structural equivalents to adjectival pre-modifiers. In order of frequency, these were: post-modifying prepositional phrase, first element of compound noun, extended attribute, pre-modifying prepositional phrase, verb phrase, first element of compound adverb, last element of compound participle and relative clause. Class shifts resulted in 3 categories of formally non-correspondent structures, namely adverb, noun and genitival attribute.

As in Levin & Ström Herold’s (2017: 173) study of the translation of hyphenated pre-modifiers, Swedish tendencies for post-modification were present in this study, albeit small. More specifically, post-modifying prepositional phrases and relative clauses as equivalents were found to have been translation choices in approximately 3% and less than 1% of the studied cases, respectively. However, post-modifying prepositional phrases were also found have been the largest of the formally non-correspondent structural categories that were produced from the translation of English adjectival pre-modifiers. Furthermore, the Swedish tendency to form compound nouns by translating adjectival pre-modifiers of nouns (Estling Vannestål 2007: 221; Ljung & Ohlander 1993: 149) was found to be small, noted as the translation choice for roughly 2% of all adjectival pre-modifiers in the ST.

A qualitative analysis of select examples showed that the various translation methods of formal correspondence, unit shift, class shift and omission occurred for different reasons. Formal correspondence was often motivated with reducing sentence length and complexity for considerations of readability rather than translating to the often longer non-correspondent Swedish equivalents. The analysed of examples of unit shifts, class shifts and omission frequently featured translations that were motivated by the questionable idiomaticity of formally correspondent Swedish translation options.

In summary, the findings of this study confirm that a translator who translates from English into Swedish needs to be aware of certain Swedish structural preferences by having a good understanding of what constitutes natural language for the target language in particular. Relating again to Cicero’s ‘orator’ in the introduction of this paper, Cicero could not have successfully ‘orated’ if he had not had a solid command of his native tongue Latin.

Regarding future studies, there could be an interest in examining adjectival how pre-modifiers or other types of pre-modifiers are translated in other registers than that of the
informative text type. A hypothesis would be that other, less formal and information-dense registers might display different patterns regarding the translation of adjectival pre-modifiers, possibly allowing more manifestations of the Swedish structural preference for post-modification.
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Parallel Texts and Corpora


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