The translation of cultural references and hyphenated premodifiers in a travel guide about the Caribbean
Abstract
This paper studies how cultural references and hyphenated premodifiers in an English travel guide about the Caribbean are translated into Swedish. The aim is to investigate what strategies that are used when translating cultural references, and why; as well as to see which grammatical structures that appear when translating hyphenated premodifiers from English to Swedish. The qualitative analysis focuses on how cultural references and hyphenated premodifiers are translated, the strategies/categories used, and the corresponding result. The quantitative analysis aims at summarizing what strategies or grammatical categories that are most commonly used in overcoming these translation issues. The results show that most hyphenated premodifiers are translated with another grammatical structure, namely through premodifying adjectives, without the use of hyphens. Regarding cultural references, equivalence, transference, and generalization were common strategies to convey the same content and sense to the new target readers, whereas the domesticating method together with communicative translation proved to be the most helpful methods.

Keywords:
*Communicative translation, cultural references, domestication, hyphenated premodifiers, translation*
# Table of contents

1. Introduction ................................................................................................................. 1  
   1.1. Aim ......................................................................................................................... 2  
   1.2. Method & Material ............................................................................................... 2  
2. Theoretical background ............................................................................................ 5  
   2.1. Cultural references ............................................................................................... 5  
       2.1.1. Relevance theory and the cooperative principle .................................................. 6  
       2.1.2. Theoretical concepts ....................................................................................... 7  
   2.2. Hyphenated premodifiers .................................................................................... 11  
3. Analysis ....................................................................................................................... 14  
   3.1. Cultural references ............................................................................................... 14  
       3.1.1. Quantitative results ......................................................................................... 14  
       3.1.2. Generalization ................................................................................................. 16  
       3.1.3. Generalization + adaptation ............................................................................. 17  
       3.1.4. Adaptation ....................................................................................................... 18  
       3.1.5. Equivalence + addition .................................................................................... 19  
       3.1.6. Explicitation + modulation .............................................................................. 20  
   3.2. Results & discussion ............................................................................................ 21  
3.3. Hyphenated premodifiers ..................................................................................... 22  
   3.3.1. Quantitative results ......................................................................................... 23  
   3.3.2. First element of a compound noun ..................................................................... 24  
   3.3.3. Omitted/generalized ......................................................................................... 24  
   3.3.4. Noun phrase ..................................................................................................... 25  
   3.3.5. Premodifying adjective .................................................................................... 25  
   3.3.6. Clause ............................................................................................................... 26  
   3.3.7. Postmodifying prepositional phrase .................................................................. 27  
   3.3.8. Adverbal .......................................................................................................... 27  
   3.3.9. Other ................................................................................................................ 28  
3.4. Results & discussion ............................................................................................ 28  
4. Conclusion .................................................................................................................. 30  
Reference list .................................................................................................................. 32
1. Introduction

A translator has two masters: the author of the source text, and the new readers. It is the job of a translator to transfer the original text to a new situation, language, audience, and culture, with both the author and the new readers in mind. In order for the text to be comprehensible to the target text readers, some changes in the source text are generally required. The changes that this essay will focus on concern cultural references and complex premodifiers. These two aspects cover both content-related issues (cultural references), as well as structural differences (complex premodifiers), which provides a broad picture of the challenges a translator is faced with.

Structural shifts in grammar are often necessary in order to create an idiomatic translation. The following example (1) shows one case where the target text (henceforth TT) has used another grammatical structure than the source text (henceforth ST):

(1) On-shore activities are enormously varied, […]
Utbudet av aktiviteter på land är varierat, […]

The ST is constructed with a hyphenated premodifier (on-shore) modifying the noun activities, whereas the TT uses a prepositional postmodifier to communicate the same message (see more in 3.3.7). The complex premodifiers that will be analyzed in this paper are two-part hyphenated premodifiers, as the above example shows. This aspect is especially interesting and challenging because the phenomenon is more or less unknown in Swedish, according to Ingo (2007:187). Moreover, this specific type of complex modifiers has not yet been studied to a great extent (Shie 2002:90), which is why this aspect is relevant to investigate further.

As for cultural references, they often only make sense to the intended audience, the ST readers. Therefore, during the translation process, such references should be adapted for another target audience. The travel guide used in this paper concerns the Caribbean but is written from a British perspective, as can be seen in example (2):

(2) London to Jamaica takes between nine and 10 hours.
Stockholm till Jamaica tar ca 15 timmar inklusive en mellanlandning.

The British reference London has been changed to Stockholm, and the flight information is altered correspondingly. The TT has not only changed the time and place reference, but also
includes additional information that is relevant to the new target readers. The main focus regarding cultural references is to adapt the British references in the text to suit Swedish readers. Translating cultural references in an appropriate way is one of the hardest tasks a translator is faced with, concludes Sun (2011:160), which is why this phenomenon is challenging and interesting to examine further.

1.1. Aim
The aim of this paper is to investigate how cultural references and hyphenated premodifiers in the travel guide are translated from English to Swedish. The different methods and strategies used in the translation will be analyzed and discussed. Because there is no such thing as a perfect or correct translation (Newmark 1988:6), a translation will always be judged subjectively, as preferences differ. Moreover, since translation is a decision-making process (Schmitz 1996:2), any translation will be translator-specific, including the one presented in this paper. Thus, the strategies, methods, and solutions used reflect the author’s own decisions regarding the translation. This paper aims at explaining the choices made in the translation, rather than providing a correct translation as such. The research questions are as follows:

- Which translation strategies have been used for translating cultural references and why?
- How are hyphenated premodifiers translated into Swedish?
- Are there certain tendencies in the way the two phenomena are translated?

1.2. Method & Material
In this section, the text material is presented together with the method used for the translation process.

Prior to the translation, the ST has been thoroughly analyzed, problem areas have been observed, and, consequently, two areas were selected for the analysis part of the paper. Different translation methods and strategies have been studied in order to be able to solve the problems, and parallel texts have been used as reference material for the translation. Koller (2011:251) argues that parallel texts in the target language (henceforth TL) are an important part of the research material when translating a certain text type. Parallel texts have been used in order to create a TT that is written in line with the conventions of travel writing in the TL. The situational factors (described in the next paragraph) have been thoroughly considered as they influence the translation in many ways. Finally, different translation alternatives have been discussed and analyzed to find the most suitable end result. The result is analyzed both
quantitatively and qualitatively, aiming at providing a trustworthy result analyzed from different perspectives. The domesticating method and communicative translation (see section 2.1.2.1) have been used as primary methods for the translation, although the quantitative classification of the results builds on strategies, rather than methods. The results from the quantitative analysis is categorized according to the main strategy or strategies used. Hence, all strategies involved in each case are not presented in the quantitative analysis, which might be seen as a limitation of the study.

To find out which translation methods and strategies to use in the translation, the situational factors play a key role. Ingo (2007:15–17) notes that the translator needs to be aware of the text type, the purpose of the text, the target readers and the cultural context. Schmitz (1996:2) believes that situational factors influence what she calls the “translation objective” (termed “purpose” in this paper), and that the purpose of the translation should specify which aspects of the original that are to be considered relevant enough to be preserved in the translation. Translation is a decision-making process which includes deciding which pieces of information that should be expressed in the TL (ibid.). Schmitz’s assumption is that these decisions are guided by the translation purpose (ibid.). The situational factors that will be given focus in this analysis are the text type, the purpose of the text, the target readers and the cultural context.

Reiss (1981) suggests using a text type analysis as the primary analytical method, which has been taken into account in this study. For an informative text, Reiss (1981:127) argues that the translation method should be content-focused as the text is primarily structured on a semantic-syntactic level, thus one should strive to “maintain the invariability of the content”. When translating an expressive text, focus should be on conveying the artistic and creative intention of the ST author, hence the artistic form outweighs the content (Reiss 1981:128). Lastly, in an operative text, the aim of the translation is for it to function in the same way as the ST, creating the same behavioral reaction (ibid.). These suggested translation methods will be analyzed with regards to the applicability of the theory for the present text.

The material used for the analysis in this paper is a translation of a Caribbean travel guide. It was published online by the British newspaper The Telegraph (2017) and consists of various texts with different authors who are experts on the islands they describe. Apart from the introduction to the Caribbean in general (2017), the islands with the most detailed expert guides were chosen for this paper. The travel guide thus includes separate guides for the

The main purpose of the travel guide remains the same in the ST and the TT, namely to provide the readers with information about the Caribbean and the specific islands of interest. Generally speaking, texts have specific purposes that a translator needs to be aware of to create an appropriate translation with regards to its function (Ingo 2007:129). Few texts have purely one function, but there is often one text type that is dominant, according to both Newmark (1988:42) and Ingo (2007:127). This travel text contains features of the three main text types: informative, expressive and operative, as proposed by Reiss (1981) among others. Chesterman (1989:105) acknowledges Reiss’ text types and illustrates this in a triangle, where each text type is set at one of the three ends. In the middle, he places texts such as tourist brochures, implying that they contain features of all three main text type categories. This suggests that the text used in this paper is a hybrid with different functions, of which the informative function is judged to be the major one, closely followed by the operative function. Ingo (2007:127–128) explains that an informative text focuses on providing the target readers with information and facts; for example: “Cash points issue EC dollars” (ST), whereas an expressive text focuses more on the style of expression, such as “the shallow shorelines and kaleidoscope of blues connecting the sea and sky in a seamless horizon” (ST). An operative text puts the readers in the center and tries to make them act in a certain way (Ingo 2007:127–128), as can be seen in the ST example “A hike in the rainforest is a must”. Newmark (1988:42) further claims that most informative texts will be partly operative, since it is hard to achieve a text that is solely objective and informative. Hence, the text used in this paper shows features of all three main text types, as it informs the reader about the Caribbean islands (informative), aims at tempting readers to travel (operative), and includes instances of artistic language (expressive). However, instead of evaluating the text as a whole when choosing the translation method and strategies, Ingo (2007:129) shares a relevant approach to deciding translation strategies according to the text function – namely to interpret the function of each section and translate accordingly. This approach has been taken into account, but is used in a narrower way in this analysis; that is, the function of each sentence is analyzed, in order to be able to apply these theories to this specific text.

Furthermore, the translator should strive for creating a TT with the same or a similar effect as the ST, which is especially important for operative texts (Newmark 1988:48). The ST in this case is colloquial in the sense that contracted forms are used (you’re, it’s, you’ll).
and personal pronouns appear both when the author is addressing the reader directly (you’ll find), as well as when presenting own opinions (I always recommend). Due to the lack of contracted forms in standard Swedish, the colloquial tone is hard to achieve in a similar manner. However, words and expressions are chosen with the intention of reflecting both the quite informal tone of the ST, as well as staying true to the more formal conventions for writing travel texts in Swedish.

The target readers for the ST are Britons because the travel guide is written by The Telegraph, a UK based newspaper. The author expects the readers to have the same cultural background as him/her, and this is therefore an aspect that needs to be altered to suit Swedish readers. The target readers are not expected to have previous knowledge about the Caribbean, but will likely share an interest in travel.

This first section has provided an introduction to this paper, including the aim of the study as well as information about the method and material. An analysis of the situational factors has also been provided, which will be of importance for the translation methods and strategies chosen. Now, we turn our attention to the theoretical background, which includes definitions of concepts that will be used in the analysis in section 3.

2. Theoretical background

In this section, background theories as well as different translation methods and strategies will be presented. The section begins with an outline of cultural references, followed by an introduction to relevance theory and the cooperative principle, as these concepts guide the translation to be relevant. Finally, the section ends with an introduction to hyphenated premodifiers and a description of the categories used for classifying the translations, originally used by Levin & Ström Herold (2016).

2.1. Cultural references

Newmark states (1988:6) that “everything without exception is translatable”. He further argues that there is no culture that is so primitive that it cannot express certain terms and concepts even though they may not be existent in that culture. In addition, Newmark claims (1988:100) that cultural components tend to be transferred in expressive texts, replaced by cultural equivalents in operative texts, and transferred and explained with culturally neutral terms in informative texts. In an informative text that is informal or colloquial it might be sufficient with the cultural/functional equivalent, according to Newmark (1988:100). However, because a text often has different functions, this theory is not very reliable, at least
not in this case. Therefore, to suit this specific study and the text used, these claims will be analyzed in relation to the function of each sentence in which those references occur. This is a necessary adjustment of Newmark’s basic theory and is more similar to Ingo’s approach of analyzing functions of sections, mentioned previously.

In the next section, relevance theory and the cooperative principle will be presented.

2.1.1. Relevance theory and the cooperative principle

Relevance theory is of importance in the sense that it justifies the translation choices as relevant or not, depending on the situational factors described previously. Wilson & Sperber present (1986:254) relevance theory and emphasize that humans automatically tend to maximize relevance because of the way our cognitive systems have evolved. Chesterman & Wagner’s (2002:43) explanation of relevance theory is that the message should have maximum contextual effect (benefit) and require minimum processing effort (cost), in order to be relevant. The more benefit at less cost, the more relevant the message is (ibid.). In other words, relevance theory might be more useful in finding the best translation solutions, than the theories regarding text type and the preferred strategies to use.

Since the text analyzed aims at being communicative (see more about this in section 2.1.2.1), Grice’s (1975) cooperative principle is also relevant to mention. According to Grice, there are four categories, or maxims, which should be followed in order for communication to be efficient. These are quantity (give enough information – not too much, not too little), quality (tell the truth), relation (be relevant), and manner (be clear and avoid ambiguity) (Grice 1975:45–46). These maxims will be helpful in the translation of cultural references, and will guide the translation in a relevant direction.

Wilson & Sperber (1986:250–251) do not agree with Grice’s cooperative principle, and instead claim that utterances do not raise expectations of relevance because speakers are expected to obey a cooperative principle and maxims, rather “because the search for relevance is a basic feature of human cognition”. Relevance theory is an efficient principle to use in the translation of tourism texts that involve culture, according to Zhang, Lv & Feng (2013:81), because it is the translator’s task to make the translated text optimally relevant in the target context, and readers will choose the translation which best satisfies their expectation of relevance while decoding the information from the translated tourism text (ibid.:79). A problem with relevance theory is that terms like “context” and “processing effort” rely on intuition rather than being formally elaborated, Schmitz (1996:4) points out. Nevertheless, relevance theory will be used to the extent possible, in order to justify translation choices,
which, basically, are based on a translator’s own preferences and intuitions. This is the reason that such a thing as a perfect translation does not exist (Newmark 1988:6).

Gutt (1998) argues that the purpose of implicit translation, such as tourism texts, is not to provide the source information, but to create a new text in a new language that is relevant to the source text only with regards to information expression (in Zhang, Lv & Feng 2013:78). Similar to Gutt’s reasoning, Koller (2011:251–252) is in favor of rewriting certain parts of a text, rather than simply translating the information, in order to be relevant to the intended readers. This view thus conflicts with for example Reiss’ theory (1981) that informative texts should focus on conveying the content of the ST into the TT.

Next, the theoretical concepts regarding the methods and strategies used in the translation will be defined and presented.

2.1.2. **Theoretical concepts**
In this section, different methods and strategies from scholars such as Vinay & Darbelnet, Baker, Koller, Newmark and Ingo are presented and defined. The first part illustrates the different translation methods, whereas the second part focuses on defining and explaining the different strategies used.

2.1.2.1. **Translation methods**
Sun (2011:161) argues that a translator needs to decide whether the cultural norms of the source language (henceforth SL) or the TL take priority, or a combination of the two. Correspondingly, it is a choice between the “foreignizing” and “domesticating” method. The foreignizing method will result in a SL culture-oriented translation, whereas the domesticating method creates a TL culture-oriented translation. The choice of cultural method mainly depends on the situational factors. A translator should mediate the information from the ST to make it available to another readership than that targeted by the ST. Agorni (2012:6) points out that when adjusting and adapting a tourism text to new communicative situations, the translator must choose between domestication or foreignization, among other things. Both Sun (2011:163) and Agorni (2012:6) agree that keeping a good *balance* between foreignization and domestication might be the ideal way of dealing with cultural references. However, this claim is very wide-ranging, and it is unclear what *balance* refers to; does it mean ‘equal amounts’ or is it up to the translator to decide? This claim has been considered during the translation process, in relation to the situational factors.
Connected to foreignization and domestication are Newmark’s (1988:47) notions of communicative and semantic translation. “Semantic translation” aims at staying close to the ST, rendering the semantic and syntactic structures of the SL, as well as the original culture. “Communicative translation”, on the other hand, aims at being free and idiomatic, creating an equivalent effect on the TT readers as that obtained by the ST readers (Newmark 1988:47–48). Furthermore, Newmark argues (ibid.) that communicative translation is most often used for informative and operative texts, whereas semantic translation is used for expressive texts. Thus, communicative translation should be favored in this text since it is primarily informative and secondly operative.

There are certain strategies, explained in detail in section 2.1.2.2 below, that can be assigned to the methods mentioned above, subject to exceptions. Foreignization can be related to a more or less literal translation which emphasizes a semantic, content-focused translation with as little change to the original as possible. Thus, transference is a possible strategy, allowing the original text/culture/author to be presented. Domestication, on the other hand, is more connected to a free, communicative translation, where communicating a message that makes sense to the target reader is the most essential aspect. Strategies used in order to achieve this can be addition, omission, generalization, explicitation, modulation, adaptation and equivalence. All these strategies can help in conveying the intended meaning in an appropriate, adapted way.

As can be deduced from this outlining of strategies connected to the methods, domestication and communicative translation seem to be the leading methods to use, as they are related to a wide variety of strategies. This might imply that these methods take priority in the translation. Hence, balance between foreignization and domestication, preferred by Sun (2011:163) and Agorni (2012:6), might be hard to achieve.

Below, the strategies will be defined and presented.

2.1.2.2. Translation strategies

For this study, selected strategies from some scholars have been chosen in order to provide an extensive picture of the varieties presented within translation studies. The theoretical approach has been criticized because, firstly, there is no consensus as to what name should be given to refer to the categories (procedures, techniques, methods, or strategies (the latter being the chosen term for this paper)); secondly, the strategies sometimes overlap, making it hard to categorize; thirdly, they only list differences in terms of language and not usage; and fourthly,
they focus on the translation result rather than the translation process as such, according to Fernández Guerra (2012:5–6).

Although Vinay & Darbelnet’s work (1995) is originally based on a comparison between English and French, their theories can most certainly be applied to other languages as well. Vinay & Darbelnet are widely recognized within their field and several scholars refer to their theories within translation studies. Thus, some strategies originating from Vinay & Darbelnet’s work are used in this paper, together with other scholars’ approaches.

Vinay & Darbelnet mention (1995:36) “modulation” as a common strategy, in which there is a change in the point of view between the ST and the TT, changing for example “it is easy” to “it is not hard”, thus moving from positive to negative. Modulation can also be used when a translation is grammatically correct but results in an unidiomatic expression in the TL (ibid.). Modulation is sometimes used together with the strategy “explicitation”, which means that information that is implicit in the ST is made explicit in the TT (Vinay & Darbelnet 1995:8) An example of explicitation is when a translator writes “Arlanda airport” instead of just “Arlanda”.

Another strategy that is used both on its own, as well as together with explicitation, is what Newmark (1988:96) calls “transference” (Vinay & Darbelnet refer to it as “borrowing”). The strategy brings in foreign terms in order to introduce the flavor of the SL culture, such as using the Spanish word “tortilla” in English (Vinay & Darbelnet 1995:32).

When a cultural reference in the ST does not exist in the target culture, “adaptation” can be helpful. An example is changing the reference of “cricket” to “Tour de France” when adapting an English text for a French audience (Vinay & Darbelnet 1995:39). Baker (2001:31) mentions the strategy of “translation by cultural substitution”, which is a form of adaptation that is valid when a concept from the source culture is replaced with a target culture concept which not necessarily means the same thing, but is more known to the target readers; hence, the target readers are affected in a similar way.

Closely related to adaptation is “equivalence”, which Vinay & Darbelnet (1995:38–39) argue is a situational adaptation. Equivalence refers to cases where the pragmatic meaning is the same but expressed in another, semantically different way. This method aims at creating an equivalent effect (Vinay & Darbelnet 1995:38–39). Leonardi (2000) notes that the concept equivalence has caused heated debates within translation studies, and can thus be seen as a questionable concept to use. There seems to be no universal approach to this notion, which makes it hard to define in general terms (ibid.). Due to the vague line between adaptation and
equivance, an essential limitation of Vinay & Darbelnet’s approach, a more distinct boundary was necessary to create in this study in order to make the analysis coherent and clear. Equivalence in Vinay & Darbelnet’s terms is commonly used when translating idioms and proverbs for example, whereas in this analysis, equivalence will account for all occasions where there is an equivalent way of expressing a certain word or expression in Swedish that makes more sense to a Swedish reader. Examples include distance (miles → km) and currency (£450-500 → 6000 kr). However, in some previous studies, occurrences of distance have been interpreted to be solved through adaptation. This shows that there is a thin line between the two strategies, which is why it is vital to explain what is included within the concept in this particular study, and how it differs from Vinay & Darbelnet’s original definition. Koller (2011:251–252) further proposes the idea of “pragmatic equivalence” and claims that how far the translator should strive to reach equivalence depends on the target readers. In some situations it may be necessary to re-write texts, or parts of a text, to be relevant for the intended readers (ibid.). Pragmatic equivalence is also counted as equivalence.

Together with equivalence, or on its own, the strategy “addition” can be a valuable translation strategy. Addition means that some semantic information that is not present in the ST is added to the TT. This should be made on pragmatic grounds, though, when there is a need for certain things to be further explained. To help the reader understand foreign words and names, the translator can add an explanation (Ingo 2007:123–124), such as “Riksdagen, the Swedish parliament”. However, insertions like these should only be used when they are necessary, as Ingo (2007:134–135) puts it. This strategy is similar to explicitation, the difference being that addition includes information that is not present in the ST, whereas explicitation only makes an implicit reference more explicit.

In contrast to addition, “omission” refers to a loss of information because something is left out in the TT (Ingo 2007:123–124). This can be useful in making the text relevant for the target readers, omitting pieces that are irrelevant.

Closely related to omission is Vinay & Darbelnet’s additional strategy “generalization”, which refers to cases where a more general word is used in the TT than in the ST (Vinay & Darbelnet 1995:59), such as “Europe” instead of “Great Britain”. In this analysis, generalization is also used together with adaptation, to make the translation relevant. Although Ingo (2007:91) proposes using an equally specific or general word in the TT as in the ST, this is not possible in this text, as some references need to be adapted. Thus, there is a need for generalization in some situations, which does not follow Ingo’s guidelines.
To sum up, each language has its own set of rules and preferences regarding grammar and syntax, which is important to respect. In addition to this, there are certain semantic and pragmatic aspects that also need to be taken into consideration. Thus, the translation process requires different translation strategies and methods in order to produce an appropriate translation. The strategies and methods mentioned in this section will be used when classifying the translations of cultural references, whereas Levin & Ström Herold (2016) provide different categories for the classification of hyphenated premodifiers (see section 2.2 below), according to their grammatical structure.

2.2. Hyphenated premodifiers

A modifier changes, clarifies, qualifies, or limits a particular word in a sentence in order to add emphasis, explanation, or detail. Modifiers tend to be descriptive words, such as adjectives and adverbs (Hamsa 2017:21). A premodifier precedes the head word it describes. Hyphenated premodifiers are complex premodifiers where the premodifying elements are connected with a hyphen, such as “man-eating shark”. English hyphenation tends to occur in premodification, according to Shie (2002:95), whereas the same structure is extremely rare in Swedish (cf. Ingo 2007:187).

Conventionally, and with the support of modern writing guides, compound modifiers that appear before a noun phrase must include a hyphen between each word, subject to certain exceptions, states Hamsa (2017:12). Hyphens are used in this way to prevent confusion; without their use, a reader might interpret the words separately, rather than as a phrase. One or more hyphens join the relevant words into a single idea, a compound adjective (ibid.). Many English compounds are hyphenated but this is a subject that has not been given much focus, according to Shie (2002:90).

Ingo (2007:188) notes that the English language often prefers the use of premodifiers, whereas postmodifiers in general tend to be more common in Swedish. Levin & Ström Herold (2016:150) agree with this view, as the results from their study show that Swedish prefers postmodification to a greater extent than English, in the restricted area studied. The study by Levin & Ström Herold (2016) focuses on hyphenated premodifiers in English fiction and their translations into Swedish and German. Translations both into and from Swedish and German have been analyzed with regard to the complexity of premodification because the languages have different preferences. For this paper, only the results regarding the Swedish translations of English two-part hyphenated premodifiers are relevant.
In Levin & Ström Herold’s study (2016), it becomes apparent that the use of premodification is increasing. Biber & Gray (2016:148) argue that there has been a radical increase in the use of premodifying nouns, especially in science texts, during the 20th century. Levin & Ström Herold (2016:151–152) state that the main functions of complex premodifiers in English seem to be text condensation and aesthetic considerations. Additionally, premodification also offers a lower level of explicitness. In Swedish, only premodifiers that are marked for definiteness are accepted, a restriction that does not apply to the English language. Thus, only adjectives/participles can function as premodifiers in Swedish, for example: stor/oöppnad låda, not nouns such as metall låda (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:152). The study shows that around half of all translations of English two-part hyphenated premodifiers result in premodifications (such as compound or simple adjectives/participles, extended modifiers, numerals and genitival attributes), whereas postmodification (prepositional phrases and clauses) is rarer. The most common Swedish equivalents of English hyphenated premodifiers are premodifying compound adjectives/participles, according to Levin & Ström Herold (2016:161). The results from this present study will be compared to Levin & Ström Herold’s findings, and the categories used for classification of the hyphenated premodifiers in this study will be taken from Levin & Ström Herold (2016), explained below.

The first category, the “first element of a compound noun”, includes nominal compounds where the hyphenated premodifier is equivalent to the first part. Hence, the modifier has become part of a compound. Instances where two or more lexical items are written as one word (a compound) are included in this category, as well as phrasal compounds. Levin & Ström Herold (2016:156–157) give the example of the German translation Altmetallhandlung for the English word scrap-metal dealership.

The next category is called “omitted/generalized” and refers to instances where the premodifier in the ST is either omitted or generalized in the TT. The consequence is information loss, as details may be missing in the translation, although the content can be kept to a large extent. For example, if the English word spike-heeled boots is translated into the German word Stiefel (‘boots’), information is lost, which constitutes an omission (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:157).

The category “noun phrase” includes simple nouns or cases where the elements in the premodifiers have been spread out over a noun phrase, which typically includes a noun head.
and a premodifier, such as when *wide-bladed knife* is translated into *det breda knivbladet* (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:157).

Another category is referred to as “clause” and includes dependent clauses, such as reduced clauses and relative clauses. An example of this is the German translation *Duschen, die ohne Pause sprühten* (‘showers that ran non-stop’) from *still-running showers*, which constitutes a relative clause (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:157).

The category “postmodifying prepositional phrases” includes examples when postmodifiers are used together with a preposition in examples like *skolflickor i femtonårsålder* from *fifteen-year-old schoolgirls* (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:157).

An additional category from Levin & Ström Herold is named “adverbial” and includes ST or TT constructions involving a verbal paraphrase where the premodifying element in the English ST has been substituted with an adverbial in the TT. Levin & Ström Herold (2016:157) provide the example *började nu skratta mycket högt* as a translation for *began to laugh a high-pitched laugh*.

Levin & Ström Herold (2016: 157) distinguish between the two categories, “premodifying adjective/participle” (e.g. *brittisk* (from *UK-standard*)) and “premodifying compound adjective/participle” (e.g. *sydvästra* (from *south-west*)), whereas only a category called “premodifying adjective” is used in this present study.

Finally, a category called “other” includes examples that cannot be categorized in accordance to the above mentioned categories.

Table 1 shows the quantitative results from Levin & Ström Herold’s study (2016):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of cases</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission/generalization</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbal</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postmodifying prepositional phrase</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First element of a compound noun</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>16.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>5.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premodifying adjective/participle</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premodifying compound adjective/participle</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>32.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 1 it becomes clear that premodifying compound adjective/participles (32.8%) is the most common category when translating hyphenated premodifiers, followed by compound nouns (16.4%) and postmodifying prepositional phrases (11.8%). What is important to note, is that Levin & Ström Herold use the labels “premodifying compound adjective/participle” and “premodifying adjective/participle” as separate categories, whereas they are merged into one category only in this small-scale study, in order to include all types of adjectives as premodifiers. The results will be compared in section 3.4.

To sum up, this section has provided a background of theories and strategies regarding both cultural references as well as hyphenated premodifiers. Concepts such as relevance theory and the cooperative principle have been explained, and the methods, strategies and categories used to classify and categorize the selected aspects have been presented and defined. These will now be applied to the examples in the analysis below.

3. Analysis
This section is divided into two main sub-sections: cultural references (3.1) and hyphenated premodifiers (3.2). Each aspect will first be analyzed quantitatively, followed by a qualitative analysis where the examples are separated according to translation strategies or grammatical categories. Finally, the results are discussed in comparison to previous findings.

3.1. Cultural references
In this section, examples of the translation of cultural references are presented. Proper nouns, e.g. names of islands or countries, have not been included in this analysis as they are translated with a TL form where such a form exists; otherwise the SL name has been transferred, in line with Ingo’s (2007:138) guidelines.

3.1.1. Quantitative results
The quantitative results of the strategies used in the translation of cultural references are presented in Table 2 below. The categories in the table are based on the main strategies used, which means there may be other strategies involved as well. The influences of several
strategies will be further explained in the qualitative analysis in sections 3.1.2–3.1.6. The general quantitative tendencies, however, are the following:

**Table 2.** Strategies used when translating cultural references into Swedish

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy/strategies</th>
<th>Number of cases</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adaptation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalence</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalization</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transference</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicitation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalization + adaptation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generalization + omission</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transference + explicitation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equivalence + addition</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicitation + modulation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total cases:</strong></td>
<td><strong>72</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 indicates that equivalence (47%) is by far the most common strategy to use when translating cultural references. The reason for this is probably that there are more instances included in the notion of equivalence in this paper than what is originally defined by Vinay & Darbelnet, for example. Pragmatic equivalence, as presented by Koller (2011:251–252), is taken into account within the concept equivalence, and although it is bordering to adaptation, it is classified as equivalence, which explains the high number of occurrences in the study. This is why adaptation alone is represented by quite a low number, even though adaptation plays a role in many of the translations.

The second most common strategy is equivalence + addition (11%), further strengthening the claim that equivalence is a dominant strategy. This is followed by transference, which accounts for roughly 10% of all translations. Transference + explicitation is as common as generalization (both 7%), which suggests that those cases are guided by relevance, as changes have been required (explicating or generalizing a fact).
These occurrences will be further analyzed and discussed in more detail below. The following analysis will be qualitative, as the strategies and the consequent translation results will be discussed and examined with regards to background theories and concepts.

3.1.2. Generalization

In (3) and (4), generalization has been used to make the references to the UK more natural to the new target readers. Hence, the UK is substituted with the more general word (norra) Europa in an attempt to domesticate the text and make it familiar to Swedish readers.

(3) […] many islanders have visited or lived in the UK.

(4) […] when the weather is at its worst and coldest in the UK, […]

A similar generalization is made in both (3) and (4) to include the new target readers, who are part of Europe but not part of the UK. Example (4) is more specific than example (3), as it specifies a certain part of Europe. This is because the weather conditions vary significantly across Europe. Therefore, a more specific expression needs to be used, rather than referring to all of Europe, which is possible in example (3). Reiss’ claim (1981) that information should be transferred intact in an informative text cannot be applied to this case since a literal translation would not be relevant for the target readers. Instead, Newmark’s idea of communicative translation (1988) is used as a method in order to convey information in a suitable way for the intended readers. The precise semantic meaning is lost even though the essential meaning is kept. The UK is a part of Europe – a hypernym – although the information is not as exact in the TT. Ingo (2007:91) suggests using equally specific terms in both the ST and the TT, but this would be at expense of relevance, which is the top priority.

Relevance theory suggests presenting the information that makes the most sense and is optimally relevant for the target readers, allowing for an easy processing of facts, which is the translator’s task, according to Zhang, Lv & Feng (2013:79). Inclusion of the target readers is also important, i.e. using the domestication method where appropriate, which is why a reference to the UK would be foreign, thus rejected in this case.

These translations work according to Grice’s (1975) principles that one should be truthful, relevant, and give enough information. However, the manner maxim might be
interpreted to be missing here, as the information is not as clear as in the ST, and there is room for interpretation when using generalization. Although all of Grice’s maxims may not be fulfilled in this case, the translation still works in accordance with for example relevance theory, which indicates that Grice’s maxims for successful communication are debatable, as all of them apparently do not have to be fulfilled completely in order to achieve efficient communication. This speaks in favor of Wilson & Sperber’s (1986:250–251) claim that the search for relevance occurs naturally in humans, without obeying certain principles.

Newmark (1988:47) proposes that cultural references in informative texts tend to be transferred and explained with culturally neutral terms, which is not true for this example. However, he further claims that both informal informative texts and operative texts, which this text is mainly categorized as, tend to include cultural references translated with a cultural/functional equivalent. This seems to be the case here. It is, however, questionable why an informal informative text differs from other kinds of informative texts to this great extent when it comes to tendencies in the translation of cultural references. This is a weakness of Newmark’s theory. Hence, relevance theory is a better guidance in this case when choosing a translation that makes sense, even though it might be seen as subjective; which, on the other hand, is the case for all translations to some extent.

### 3.1.3. Generalization + adaptation

Example (5) shows a case where both generalization and adaptation have been used in order to overcome the translation issue with the cultural reference *May half term*:

(5) If you’re tied to the school holidays and intent on keeping costs down, consider travelling over *May half term*, when flights can work out cheaper than other school holiday periods.  

$I$ maj kan man hitta billigare flygbiljetter jämfört med sommarlov och andra skollov.

Example (5) clearly shows that the author is targeting readers who share a common culture and recognize the term *May half term*. This is a break for British pupils, but it does not have an equivalent in Swedish. In other words, there is a need to culturally adapt the text to the new target audience.

Following Reiss’ idea (1981) that informative texts should focus on transferring the content, a semantic translation could be: "Om du är bunden till skollov och ändå vill hålla
The main strategies used had to be generalization and adaptation, leaving out the part with *May half term* which does not apply to the target readers, hence generalizing and domesticating the text. The basic meaning is still the same, although the specific cultural reference is left out. This is an example of communicative translation in cooperation with the domesticating method. The message is sent, but in more generic terms that is appropriate for the target readers.

This is also an example of adaptation, as the concept *May half term* is deleted, whereas *sommarlovet* is added to the TT in order to be relevant and have an equivalent effect on the target readers. Without the addition of *sommarlovet*, it would imply that there is a break in May for Swedish pupils too, which is false information, hence it would break Grice’s maxim of quality.

Several strategies were required in order to translate this sentence. Not only generalization and adaptation, which are, however, regarded as the main strategies in this case, but also omission and addition, in order to reach what Koller (2011:251–252) calls pragmatic equivalence. The text is changed in a way that is necessary in order to apply to the new readers, hence increasing relevance. In line with the opinions of Koller (2011:251–252) and Gutt (1998), the text is rewritten to be relevant. A functional equivalent is used, which is what Newmark (1988:47) expects for informal informative texts and operative texts.

### 3.1.4. Adaptation

In the following example (6), adaptation has been used when the ST refers to a culturally specific phenomenon that is changed to a cultural equivalent in the TT:

(6) [...] hotels that you should at least visit for lunch, *afternoon tea* or dinner if you do not check in. [...] hotell som du bör besöka åtminstone för lunch, middag eller en *fika* om du inte bor där.

The concept of *afternoon tea* is partly known in Sweden, although it is not part of Swedish culture. Given that the aim of the translation is to adapt the British references to Swedish
readers, this case is an obvious example that requires adaptation. Transferring the concept into Swedish would be possible, but since there are close cultural equivalents in Swedish, for example kaffepaus, fika, or eftermiddagsfika, Baker’s (2001:31) idea of using a cultural equivalent (a form of adaptation) works well here. The Swedish alternatives may well substitute the English concept of afternoon tea, as both languages refer to a break where you can have something to eat and drink. However, the Swedish concept fika normally includes coffee and a sweet pastry and can basically appear at any time of the day; whereas afternoon tea generally offers scones and tea in the afternoon. This implies that they are not complete equivalents, but close enough. The domestication method has thus been used and a communicative translation is achieved as the translation has the same effect on the target readers as the original had on its readers. The translation provides the target readers with relevant information, and they can easily process the information as it is part of their own culture, as projected by relevance theory. This helps maximizing relevance, as desired by Wilson & Sperber (1986:254).

The analyzed sentence has an operative function, which means that Newmark’s (1988:47) claim that operative texts tend to use cultural equivalents is true in this case. However, because a text often has features of different functions, as is the case here, the function of the specific sentence needs to be analyzed rather than referring to a text function as a whole. This is an adapted version of Newmark’s theory in order to carry out this study in an appropriate way.

3.1.5. Equivalence + addition

In (7), equivalence and addition have been used in order to domesticate and adapt the text to Swedish readers:

(7) **Flight time:** just over nine hours from London.  
**Flygtid:** drygt 12 timmar från Stockholm inklusive en mellanlandning.

Example (7) shows that London has been substituted with Stockholm in order to provide Swedish readers with the most relevant information. Stockholm is equivalent to London in this case, as they are both capitals with a major airport. A new calculation for the flight was made, and the information from the ST was adapted to another target audience.

An addition is made in the TT, *inklusive en mellanlandning*, because the flight from Stockholm includes one stop, and this is relevant information for the target readers. The information provides the readers with enough, relevant, true and clear information, in line
with Grice’s (1975) maxims, to achieve efficient communication. This is also why Newmark’s communicative translation method (1988) has been used in this case. A direct transfer of the information would not make sense, and would demand too much processing effort, as relevance theory objects. Thus, the content-focused translation that is preferred for informative texts is dismissed as the content cannot be simply transferred into the TT and be relevant at the same time.

3.1.6. Explicitation + modulation

When translating the following example (8), the strategies modulation and explicitation have been useful:

(8) Note that many Spring Breakers – party-loving students from the US – visit Nassau and Grand Bahama Island in February and March.

Notera att många partysugna studenter från USA besöker Nassau och Grand Bahama under februari och mars för att fira sitt vårlöv.

This example requires adjustment because spring break is not particularly well-known in the target culture. Additionally, it is not possible to substitute this with a cultural equivalent as it refers to US students and not Swedish ones. Thus, the translation has to use the foreignization method to a small extent, to refer to the specific cultural phenomena mentioned. However, foreignization alone cannot make this sentence comprehensible to the target readers, which indicates that sometimes a method cannot be used in isolation, but rather has to be combined with other methods, in order to achieve the desired effect in the translation. The foreignization method would suggest that spring break is introduced through transference, which is not the case here. It might be argued that this is one way of handling the somewhat vague term balance between foreignization and domestication, as Agorni (2012:6) and Sun (2011:163) talk about. It is considered to be balanced as it introduces a phenomenon from another culture, but expresses this in domestic terms. Thus, an additional expression is used in order to give information about what spring break is (‘vårlov’). This is sufficient information to a Swedish reader, in line with all of Grice’s maxims. The processing effort is low whereas the message has a maximum contextual effect, which means that the message is relevant (Chesterman & Wagner 2002:43).

Moreover, modulation has been used as an additional strategy since Spring Breakers refers to the students who are celebrating their spring break, whereas the translation has
changed the point of view and instead rewrites it as [...] vårlov, a common noun explaining the break rather than the students. The TT uses explicitation in order to explain the phenomenon of spring break (för att fira sitt vårlov), whereas the ST only mentions Spring Breakers and it is implicitly understood that they are partying to celebrate their vacation. The TT is not a literal translation, as the more literal translation of Spring Breakers would be something like vårlovsfirare or studenter som har vårlov. Thus, a semantic and literal translation was discarded in favor of a communicative translation, which aims at affecting the TT readers similarly.

In this case, Newmark’s (1988:47) suggestion of cultural references in informal informative texts being translated with a cultural/functional equivalent does not hold true. Instead, explicitation has been more useful in explaining spring break. This suggests that a strategy is not used in isolation to overcome complicated cultural issues such as this example. It might be interpreted as adaptation as well, as the overpowering strategy is to change the reference to suit the new readers. However, modulation and explicitation are judged to be the main strategies in this case. The theoretical approach is not as simplistic in practice as it may seem in theory, which is a limitation when analyzing the translation process.

3.2. Results & discussion
The results from this study show that the most common strategy to use when dealing with the translation of cultural references is equivalence. However, the concept is slightly modulated from that presented by Vinay & Darbelnet (1995) and used in a broader way in this study, in order to categorize certain aspects and draw a clear line between the strategies adaptation and equivalence. As previously stated, adaptation according to Vinay & Darbelnet is a kind of equivalence, a situational equivalence, which is a rather vague definition. In this study, equivalence has been used in cases where the Swedish language expresses things in another way, or have other names, abbreviations etc. that do not directly relate to a situational factor, but rather fixed expressions. Many of the cultural references handled in the analysis are for instance currencies, written in different ways in English and Swedish (EC$ → XCD); distance, referring to the metric system in Swedish (68 square miles → 176 km²); and equivalent homepages, links and institutions that are interchangeable and used in a similar manner (gov.co.uk → swedenabroad.se). For more complicated cultural references – where there is no exact Swedish equivalent – adaptation, explicitation and transference are found to be common strategies to use.
Bernblad (2012) found that adaptation was the most common strategy when dealing with cultural references in texts concerning information and communication technology. Explicitation, addition and omission were also found to be useful strategies. Although addition and omission were not among the most common strategies in this study, Bernblad’s results compared to the results from this study indicate that the text type and situational factors are significant in deciding which strategies to use. Also, they are hard to predict. Furthermore, Björk (2012) found modulation, equivalence, addition, and transference to be most useful when translating culture-specific phenomena. The factors deciding which strategies were the most appropriate to apply were the purpose of the text, the target readers and parallel texts, according to Björk (2012). This is also true for the choice of strategies in this analysis, as the situational factors are vital to take into consideration. Once the situational factors are established, translation methods and strategies can be chosen in order to produce an appropriate translation.

Although Sun and Agorni (2012) suggest a balance between domesticating and foreignization methods, it seems that the domesticating method is the obvious choice in most cases for this text. This is because there are many cultural references that are specific for the ST readers, and need to be changed accordingly to be relevant for the TT readers. In order to achieve this, communicative translation has been used to a greater extent than semantic translation, as expected based on Newmark’s theory to use communicative translation for informative and operative texts, the two functions that this text represents the most. In conclusion, the choice of method and strategies depends more on the situational factors and the translator’s preference, than any theory can account for.

3.3. Hyphenated premodifiers

The term hyphenated premodifiers clearly targets premodifiers written with a hyphen in English, and covers a large majority of complex modifiers in the English language, according to Levin & Ström Herold (2016:150). In this section, hyphenated premodifiers will be categorized according to their grammatical structure in the TL. The categories used in Levin & Ström Herold’s (2016) study will aid the categorization in this analysis in order to find general tendencies and patterns.

The text genre studied by Levin & Ström Herold (2016) is fiction, which means that their findings may be restricted to account for fiction only. However, the results from this study will be compared to Levin & Ström Herold’s results, although this text in non-fictional.
This might be seen as a limitation for the comparison and the corresponding conclusions drawn, although it will provide a broader picture of the issue across genres. This section will begin with the quantitative results, followed by a qualitative analysis of some examples from the translation, and lastly, a discussion of the results.

3.3.1. Quantitative results

In this section, a quantitative summary concerning the translation of hyphenated premodifiers is provided. The results and categories can be seen in Table 3 below, whereas Levin & Ström Herold’s findings (2016) are shown in Table 1 (section 2.2).

**Table 3. Swedish equivalents of English two-part hyphenated premodifiers**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Number of cases</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun phrase</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission/generalization</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Postmodifying prepositional phrase</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>First element of a compound noun</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Premodifying adjective</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>36%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total:</strong></td>
<td><strong>39</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 indicates that the most common category when translating English hyphenated premodifiers into Swedish is premodifying adjectives (36%). As expected, the grammatical structure is different as Swedish uses various structures to express what English hyphenated premodifiers do, without using the same structure once. Apart from premodifying adjectives, many of the hyphenated premodifiers were translated with either a compound noun in Swedish (18%); through a postmodifying prepositional phrase (13%), in line with the claim that Swedish uses postmodifiers to a greater extent than English (Ingo 2007:188 and Levin & Ström Herold 2016:150); or through another structure (13%) not represented by the categories in this study.

A qualitative analysis of some of these occurrences is given in the next section.
3.3.2. First element of a compound noun

The category “first element of a compound noun” includes examples of nominal compounds where the modifier has become a part of a compound, and where the hyphenated premodifier stands for the first part of the translation. Examples (18) and (19) show this:

(9) […] particularly for *last-minute* bookings.

(10) The Bahamas is a *year-round* destination.

Hamsa’s (2017:12) suggestion that hyphens join two or more words into a single idea becomes clear from these examples. However, the premodifier is written as a compound without hyphens in Swedish, although the same idea is conveyed. According to Svenska Skrivregler (2017:150), expressions that are very common and where the last part is a common word, can be written as one single word. This is the case for both *sistaminutenbokningar* and *åretruntdestination*. They have become compounds where both the premodifier and the modified noun from the ST are included, and the premodifier represents the first part of the compound. A search in the Swedish corpus Språkbanken revealed that “åretrunt-destination” has 1 hit, as does “året-runt-destination”, whereas *åretruntdestination* occurs twice, which is why the compound is chosen. It is well in line with the recommendations in Svenska Skrivregler. Regardless of whether the TT word is written with hyphens or not, the translation will still be a compound, based on a literal translation of the ST.

3.3.3. Omitted/generalized

The next category is “omitted/generalized” and refers to instances where the premodifier in the ST is either omitted or generalized in the TT. This results in a form of information loss, as details may be missing in the translation, although the content can be partly kept. Examples (11) and (12) show this:

(11) Most visitors arrive by sea, De flesta besökarna anländer med båt crossing the *two-mile* Narrows genom det *trånga* farvatten […]

[…]
The choice of non-cultural excursions […] Det varierade utbudet av utflykter […]

Both (11) and (12) are examples of generalizations where the TT is not as specific as the ST regarding the details. In example (11), the numeral (two-mile) in the ST has been replaced by an adjective (trånga), which omits the exactness and instead states the fact that the narrows is not very wide – based on information from parallel texts as well as a literal translation of narrows, which is “trångt farvatten” (NE.se). Adding the numeral before the adjective trånga would overcomplicate the text, as only a numeral or an adjective is necessary to get the message across. Furthermore, non-cultural in example (12) has not been translated literally because the word “ickekulturell” only results in 2 hits on Språkbanken and has a negative connotation. Instead, generalization has been used and the TT thus expresses that there is a wide range of different excursions to choose from. The premodifier non-cultural has been omitted in the TT, but the TT includes a hypernym because varierade utbudet is a much wider concept, including both cultural and non-cultural options, for example.

3.3.4. Noun phrase
The category noun phrase refers to either simple nouns or cases where the premodifying elements have been spread out over a noun phrase, such as the following example (13):

(13) […] Grenada's first-ever Olympic gold medal […] Grenadas första olympiska guldmedalj någonsin […]

Here, the ST premodifier first-ever is separated in the TT and represented by two words, detached from each other in the text, which fits the description of a noun phrase, according to Levin & Ström Herold’s classification (2016). It would not be grammatically correct, neither idiomatic, to keep the same structure in the TT, which is why the premodifier is spread out. This reflects the structural differences between the languages, as they do not allow for the same constructions in all cases. Shie (2002:95) argues that English hyphens are often used in premodifiers, which is evident from the examples provided in the analysis, but a similar structure cannot be expected to be found in Swedish (Ingo 2007:187). Example (13) is a clear indication of the structural differences between the languages.

3.3.5. Premodifying adjective
Levin & Ström Herold (2016:161) mention compound adjectives/participles as a large group of Swedish translations of English hyphenated premodifiers. Both compound adjectives as
well as single adjectives are common translation equivalents in this study as well. Therefore, the category premodifying adjective is relevant for the categorization in this current study, and includes all instances of adjectives acting as premodifiers in the translation. (14) and (15) below are examples of translations where the TT constitutes an adjective modifying a noun:

(14) […] all conveniently concentrated in the island's south-west corner, […]

(15) In most hotels, electrical sockets take three-pin, square UK-standard plugs, […]

In example (14), a compound adjective functioning as a hyphenated premodifier in the ST, is translated in a similar way with a compound adjective in the TT as well. This is a literal translation and works well in the TL. However, the noun corner is changed to sida, which, according to parallel texts, seems to be a more common way of referring to a certain area of an island. The TT does not use a hyphen in the premodifier even though the overall structure is similar.

Example (15) actually consists of two different premodifiers: three-pin (plugs) and UK-standard (plugs). Three-pin […] plugs is translated with a compound noun: trestickskontakter, thus classified as a compound. UK-standard (plugs) belongs to the category premodifying adjective as the hyphenated premodifier has become an adjective modifying the following noun, as in brittiska (trestickskontakter). The TT information is a bit generalized as it does not contain the same amount of information as the ST. There is no need to explain the UK-standard plugs in detail to Swedish readers, as they are more familiar with the EU-sockets, and it is not of great relevance for the content.

3.3.6. Clause

The category clause includes dependent clauses, such as reduced clauses and relative clauses. The examples below show one reduced clause (16) and one relative clause (17):

(16) […] it is an intensely green, sun-hat-shaped sanctuary […]

(17) Det är en fristad formad som en solhatt
Example (16) consists of a reduced clause (*formad som...*) where the actual explicit relative pronoun is missing. The whole clause would be “fristad som är formad som...”, which has a heavy structure and contains unnecessary repetition. Example (17), on the other hand, is a relative clause. In these examples it becomes clear that the use of premodification results in text condensation (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:151–152), as the ST expressions are shorter than the equivalent TT expressions which use a clause to explain the same thing. There are apparent structural differences between the languages. In example (16), a literal translation with a premodification could be possible, such as *solhattsformad fristad*, but even though the structure would be acceptable, there is no record in the corpus Språkbanken of the use of *solhattsformad*. This is the reason a reduced clause is used instead. The same is true for example (17), as *regnskogstäckt inland* is possible, but a relative clause is better in this situation since there are two preceding adjectives, and the solution *bergigt och frodigt regnskogstäckt inland* would be a complex construction in Swedish. *Regnskogstäckt* occurs once in Språkbanken, but not in connection with other premodifiers/adjectives.

3.3.7. Postmodifying prepositional phrase

The category postmodifying prepositional phrase includes examples where postmodifiers are used in combination with a preposition, creating a prepositional phrase postmodifying the noun. An example of this category is (18) below:

(18) […] 394-room Marriott resort  […] Marriott-hotell med 394 rum […]

In (18), the hyphenated premodifier *394-room* in the ST has been converted into a postmodifying prepositional phrase in the TT due to different grammatical preferences between the languages. The head noun *Marriott* has thus changed position in the phrase, and is hyphenated in the TT in contrast to the ST. This strengthens the claim that Swedish is more prone to postmodification than English (Ingo 2007:127).

3.3.8. Adverbial

The category adverbial includes verbal paraphrases where the premodifying element in the ST has been substituted with an adverbial in the TT. Example (19) shows this:
To reach some lesser islands, and for multi-centre trips, you usually need to take an inter-island flight. 

För att ta sig till några mindre öar och för att resa runt, behöver man vanligtvis flyga mellan öarna.

This example involves a verbal paraphrase where the head noun flight in the ST phrase inter-island flight is changed to a verb in its infinitive form in the TT: flyga. The verb flyga is followed by a prepositional phrase, mellan öarna, that is counted as an adverbial describing where they fly in this case. The example multi-centre (trips) has also been subject to a verbal paraphrase in the translation. The head noun trips is substituted with the verb resa (runt) and, therefore, this is categorized as an adverbial because the premodifying element in the ST (multi-centre) is changed into an adverbial in the TT: runt.

3.3.9. Other

This category includes examples that do not fit into any of the other categories. For this study, premodifiers that have become a compound in the translation, but are missing a part of the ST phrase, namely a part of the premodifier, are included in this group, for instance example (20):

(20) Think flocks of cruise-ship passengers, […]

Tänk dig en stor skara kryssnings-passagerare, […]

In (20), a part of the ST expression is missing in the TT. The word ship is omitted because it is implicitly understood from the compound noun kryssningspassagerare. Making a literal translation of all parts would result in kryssningsfartygspassagerare, which is not idiomatic in Swedish, hence yields no results in Språkbanken. Kryssningspassagerare, on the other hand, results in 54 hits and it is obvious that kryssningspassagerare refers to the passengers aboard a cruise-ship, which is why the whole hyphenated premodifier cannot be translated into Swedish.

3.4. Results & discussion

The results in this study show that premodifying adjectives were the most common translation equivalents in the TT when translating English hyphenated premodifiers. The results clearly confirm that Swedish and English have different structural preferences and grammatical rules when it comes to premodifiers and how they are used. As expected, there are no cases in this study where a hyphenated premodifier in English has been translated using the same structure.
with hyphens in Swedish, with one exception: *all-inclusive-anläggningar* where the premodifier is a direct transfer from English, thus the structure of the modifier is kept intact.

In Lindblad’s (2010) study of the translation of hyphenated premodifiers from English to Swedish, the majority of premodifiers and the following noun were translated into single compound nouns in Swedish. A third (5/15) of the hyphenated premodifiers were translated into regular premodifiers in Lindblad’s study, which is less than what Levin & Ström Herold (2016) found, as their study demonstrates that half of all English premodifiers are translated with Swedish premodifiers.

The different findings from the studies indicate that the Swedish language has several grammatical structures to choose from when translating the phenomenon of hyphenated premodifiers that exists in English. Sometimes there can be several translation options when the same thing can be expressed through different grammatical structures. Hence, it is up to the translator to make the final choices.

Levin & Ström Herold’s (2016) study show that the most frequent equivalents of English hyphenated premodifiers are Swedish premodifying compound adjectives/participles. More complex premodifiers were often translated into postmodifiers (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:153). The results suggest that there are different structural preferences in English and Swedish, as Swedish often uses other structures than premodifiers (Levin & Ström Herold 2016:172–173). This tendency can be seen in the results from this study as well.

In comparison, both Levin & Ström Herold (2016) as well as the present study found that adjectives in different forms are very common in the Swedish translations of hyphenated premodifiers. The number in this study is 37%, whereas Levin & Ström Herold have found a slightly higher number: 44.1% in total (simple + compound adjectives/participles). It is apparent that Swedish does not use the same grammatical structure as English, as none of the translated elements are translated in the same way. However, the present study is not as extensive as Levin & Ström Herold’s, and they target different text-types (fiction vs. non-fiction), which means that the results can only be compared to a certain extent. It does, however, provide a broader picture of this issue, and it seems like the Swedish language prefers the use of adjectives when translating hyphenated premodifiers, although many more alternatives exist. Further investigations in this area need to be done in order to draw wider conclusions, which will be elaborated in the conclusion below.
4. Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to analyze which strategies that are used when translating cultural references, and how hyphenated premodifiers are translated into Swedish, as well as examining general tendencies.

Regarding cultural references, several strategies have been used in order to solve the translation issues, and the strategies and methods were chosen depending on the situational factors. The purpose of the text was to inform readers about the Caribbean, while at the same time trying to market the destinations and make readers interested in going there. The text type was thus judged to be mainly informative, but also operative (with instances of expressive features), which means that the major emphasis is put on the message being conveyed in a relevant way. Reiss’ text type analysis (1981) was not applicable to many of the cases analyzed in this paper, as her theory suggests that informative texts should be translated intact, which was not possible since it would be at the expense of relevance, which was the priority in the translation. Thus, cultural references were most often translated by a cultural equivalent through the strategy equivalence, while transference and generalization were common strategies as well.

This study has used both a quantitative and a qualitative approach, which is a strength as it provides results from two perspectives. However, the quantitative results regarding the translation of cultural references may not be very reliable to use for further studies because not all strategies used in the translation can be deduced from the quantitative results. Sometimes more than one or two strategies have been used, which does not become clear from the quantitative, but rather through the qualitative, analysis. To be able to provide a quantitative result at all, the strategies used had to be scrutinized in order to decide which one was the most dominant in each case. The conclusion from this is that a quantitative analysis based on strategies used is hard to achieve, as there is no obvious way of categorizing them and juxtaposing the results. However, the results presented still give an indication of which strategies that have been the most useful in this paper. The results cannot be generalized to a great extent, not even for texts within the same genre, as the situational factors are more important for any text, than the text type it belongs to.

For future studies, in order to receive accurate results, cultural references and their translations should be analyzed and summarized according to the situational factors in each case (text type, purpose of the text, target readers and cultural context), rather than simply generalizing text types or genres. As becomes evident in this study, Newmark’s general claim
of how cultural references tend to be translated in different text types (1988) was not accurate at all times, which indicates that a more specific model needs to be developed in order to provide translators with a guidance as to how cultural references are ideally translated.

Regarding hyphenated premodifiers, the most common strategy was to use premodifying adjectives in the TT in order to replace the hyphenated premodifiers in the ST with a similar meaning. This is in line with Levin & Ström Herold’s findings, and strengthens the claim that Swedish and English use different grammatical structures in modifiers. Swedish rarely uses hyphenated constructions, whereas they are common in English texts.

Furthermore, the translation of hyphenated premodifiers is still considered to be a relatively unknown phenomenon as little research has been done in the area. Apparently, the translation of hyphenated premodifiers causes trouble even for professional translators. Therefore, it is of both interest and relevance to further study this area in order to find general tendencies, or perhaps guidelines as to how they should be translated. Levin & Ström Herold’s study presents lots of interesting aspects on the topic, but they only investigate the fiction genre, which is why further studies can be extended to include more text types and more material, such as the present study in this paper has aimed at.

Hyphenated premodifiers can also be categorized according to the strategies used in the translation. In this study, however, strategies were not discussed, as the grammatical categories were judged to be more important to analyze with regard to the aim. Further studies could hence investigate the strategies used when translating hyphenated premodifiers, to see whether it adds clarity to this issue. Nevertheless, the aim of this study was to provide an insight into the different challenges a translator faces, such as the content-related aspect through the translation of cultural references, and the structural shifts required when dealing with grammatical issues. In sum, the aim has been fulfilled, although other approaches could have been used.
Reference list

Primary sources


Henderson, James. 2015. “Jamaica travel guide”.


Secondary sources


**Online sources**


**Parallel texts and corpora**

Albatross. ”Saint Kitts och Nevis”

National Geographics Sverige. “Bahamas blå hål”

Resfeber. ”Karibien – restips och inspiration“

Scandinavian Travel Media. “Bahamaöarna”


Vagabond. “10 härligaste öarna i Karibien”