Translating between the lines

Decoding the syntactic condensation found in nominalisations and non-finite supplementive clauses
Abstract

The aim of this study is to examine how syntactically condensed structures are translated from English to Swedish in a non-fiction text. The analysis covers nominalisations and non-finite *ing*- and *ed*-clauses functioning as adverbials. The method for analysis is mainly quantitative, but in order to discuss why certain translation strategies are favoured, a qualitative analysis is also included.

The results show that both obligatory and optional structural changes occur in the target text. These changes are induced by both grammatical and preferential differences between the source and target languages. As a result, the target text is often more explicit than the source text. While the most frequent translation strategy for *ing*-clauses is forming finite main clauses, subordinate clauses are the most frequently used correspondences for *ed*-clauses. Other strategies include coordination and prepositional phrases. Explicitation occurs by adding features such as finiteness and subordinating conjunctions in the target text structures.

In contrast to the translation of non-finite clauses, the most commonly used correspondence when translating nominalisations is noun phrases identical to those in the source text. The second most frequent strategy is paraphrased noun phrases. Together, these two nominal strategies cover approximately two thirds of the translations. Clausal structures, which are generally more explicit, are more than three times less frequent, which opposes the idea of verbal preference in Swedish. When clausal translations are used, however, it is mainly due to the complexity of the noun phrase in which the nominalisation occurs.

Key words

congruence, explicitation, nominalisation, non-finite supplementive clauses, translation studies, transposition
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1. Introduction

Although there are different ways of defining translation, most scholars seem to agree that, in one way or another, it is a matter of expressing in one language what has originally been expressed in another (Ingo 2007: 14f.). What most scholars do not account for, however, is that it also includes the decoding and translation of elements NOT expressed in the source text. Deliberately or not, simply by phrasing a message in a certain way, the author of the source text makes some information regarding that message implicit, as is the cases in non-finite structures and nominalisations. Consider example (1):

(1) At times, the movement ran fast and overwhelmingly, covering great stretches of the north, sweeping most animal and human life before it.  

Instead of describing the action of an increasing number of people doing something, the author has chosen to realise the process by using a single noun: movement. This noun is derived from the verb move, thus forming a so-called nominalisation, and within this nominalisation, information about the action, its agents and circumstances surrounding it, is condensed. The sentence has been further compressed by the two adverbial ing-clauses in sentence final position. They cannot stand on their own but depend on the rest of the sentence. Yet, the nature of that relationship is only implicitly stated. In the translation of such a sentence, it is then the translator’s task to decode what is conveyed both overtly and covertly, and then decide how and what to express in the target text. In the translation in (1), several different strategies have been used; while the nominalisation has been kept, the first ing-clause is turned into a finite main clause. The translation correspondent to the second ing-clause is coordinated with that of the first, but its subject has been omitted. While it is optional to keep the nominalisation, structural change is necessary in the translation of the non-finite clauses as there is no equivalent structure to this in Swedish. When translating features such as these, it becomes evident that there are various differences between both the grammar and preferences of the source and target languages which affect the translation.

Within translation studies, it has long been argued that it is a universal tendency that target texts tend to be more ‘explicit’ than the source texts they originate from (cf. Blum-Kulka 1986, Chesterman 2004, Klaudy 2008). As a result, translations also tend to be longer than their original texts, which is also a proposed universal within translation theory (Chesterman 2004: 40). These two suggested universals support the idea of the translator...
undertaking more than what is openly expressed; one cannot make explicit that which one has not deduced. This study focuses on how syntactically condensed structures in a non-fiction text are decoded and translated from English to Swedish. Apart from nominalisations and adverbial ing-clauses, as illustrated in (1), adverbial ed-clauses are also covered by the scope of this essay, as further described in the following section 1.1.

1.1 Aim and scope
The aim of this study is to analyse how syntactically compressed structures are translated from English to Swedish non-fiction. Structural condensation can be realised in multiple ways and on several syntactic levels. The present analysis includes both phrasal and clausal features, namely lexical nominalisations and non-finite clauses in adverbial position, further defined in 2.1. The former feature is restricted to nominalisations formed by suffixation; nouns formed by converting verbs without structurally changing them, such as e.g. verb phrase ‘advance’ to noun phrase ‘advance’, are thus not included. Similarly, the non-finite clauses are restricted to ed- and ing-participle clauses; neither the to-infinitive nor the bare infinitive are covered by the scope of this paper. The purpose of the analysis is to examine how the translation process affects these structures by addressing the following research questions:

1. What Swedish target text correspondences are used in the translation of English non-finite clauses and to what extent? Is there any major divergence between the translation strategies used for ing-clauses in comparison to ed-clauses?
2. What Swedish target text correspondences are used in the translation of English nominalisations and to what extent? What are the possible reasons to a strategy being used more frequently than another?

With regard to syntactic differences and similarities between English and Swedish, the present study is grounded in the expectation of the translation being more explicit than the source text and thus also longer. This conforms with two so-called translation universals proposed by Chesterman (2004: 40), namely lengthening and explicitation. It is further hypothesised that many nominalisations are still featured in the translation, even though verbal and other translation correspondents are also used. The bases of these hypotheses are laid out in section 2, in which a theoretical background is given, but first, the material and method which are used in this analysis is presented in 1.2 and 1.3.
1.2 Material

The basis of this study is a comparison between an English source text and its Swedish translation. The source text, henceforth ST, is an extract from the non-fiction history book ‘The Highland Clearances’ by Eric Richards. The translation is based on the first nine subchapters of chapter five *The quiet march of the sheep*, covering pages 93–109. In total, the ST consists of 32 503 characters, spaces excluded. The book, as well as the chapter, have been chosen as material for this analysis partly on the basis of its academic and nominal style, offering the relevant features to various degrees, and partly because of the personal interest of the translator/analyst.

The text discusses events surrounding a turbulent episode in Scotland’s history during the 18th- and 19th centuries when the old agrarian society had to give way to a new capitalist system based on sheep farming. As a result, numerous tenants were evicted in the Scottish Highlands and islands.

The book is aimed at adult readers with an interest in history in general or in Scottish history in particular. The readers do not have to be Scottish or British, but it is presupposed that the readers have some geographical knowledge about Scotland, since place names are very common in the text. Scholarly backgrounds of the readers are of less importance, but the author strengthens his claims by referring to both historical and more present secondary sources, which situates the text in the academic context. However, the main function of the text is not to be persuasive but informative and objectively account for the events that took place. This characteristic of the text is exemplified in (2), in which a detailed report of rental incomes is given:

(2) Since 1760 rental income in Argyllshire had increased from £20 000 to £192 000; on the Chisolm Estate since 1783 rents rose from £700 to £5000; between 1787 and 1834 the Glengarry Estate rental grew from £800 to £7000; and the Orkney Islands which yielded £19 000 in 1791 were now worth £70 000 per annum.

Sedan 1760 hade hyresintäkterna i Argyllshire ökat från 20 000 till 192 000 brittiska pund medan hyrorna på Chisolms egendom hade stigit från 700 till 5000 pund sedan 1783. Mellan 1787 och 1834 ökade arrendeintäkterna på Glengarrys egendom från 800 till 7000 pund och Orkneyöarna, som gav en avkastning på 19 000 pund 1791, var nu värda 70 000 pund per år.

The vast number of numbers in this extract makes it difficult to read both in English and in Swedish. Yet, the style of writing exemplified in (2) is common in the material and there are many long sentences similar to (2) which may affect the translation. In the original source material, several block quotes from historical sources are included, but since this study does not
cover translations of historical texts, the block quotes have been excluded in the data.

The ST has been translated by the author of the present analysis. Similar to the English original, the Swedish target text, henceforth TT, is aimed at readers interested in history, scholars or laymen. What may differ between the target and source readerships, except for the knowledge of Swedish, is cultural knowledge. Swedish readers might for instance not be familiar with Scottish geography, which is very present in the text. In contrast to the ST author, the translator has thus chosen to clarify and explicate where necessary to aid the reader. The TT consists of 33 429 characters and is thus longer than the ST.

1.3 Method

To begin with, the ST was translated based on the function of the text – conveying information. Ingo (2007: 127) proposes that one ought to opt for clarity when translating informative texts, which contrasts the implicitness found in the compressed structures, thus suggesting explicitation. A combination of what Vinay and Darbelnet (1995:31ff.) refer to as direct and oblique translation procedures were used to convey the information as clearly as possible. While direct translations can be described as a literal, word-for-word, transfer of a structure from the ST to the TT, oblique translations involve change.

As for the analysis, it is mainly quantitative, although qualitative readings of the data have also been necessary. Depending on what feature to analyse, different methodological approaches have been used. For the identification of ed-clauses, the study has adopted Nordrum’s (2007:9) adaptation of Wikberg’s (2003: 113) “textual approach”, which is based on close readings of the ST. This approach consists of the following steps:

1. Identify the ed-clauses and their translation correspondences by reading the text;
2. Transfer the examples to a database;
3. Compare the ST segments with the TT correspondences and add information about translation strategies;
4. Sort the examples according to translation strategy identified in step 3.

In step 1, Wikberg (2003: 113) uses an alignment programme to identify the target correspondences, but since the present material has been translated in a table format in Microsoft Word 2016, the source and target segments are already aligned from start. The comparison of the ST and TT segments in step 3 mainly focuses on differences and similarities between the grammatical structures of the segments. However, based on the translation
universal of explicitation as suggested by Chesterman (2004), the ST and TT levels of explicitness is also analysed and compared.

In contrast to the ed-clauses, to identify ing-clauses, it was possible to use the search function in Microsoft Word. After identifying all tokens ending in -ing in the ST, close readings were made to establish what tokens could be classified as supplementive ing-clauses, thus manually excluding e.g. progressives. Thereafter, the target correspondences were identified and steps 2–4 of the textual approach above were followed.

Nominalisations are far more frequent in the TT than the supplementive clauses. In order to identify all, the study applies a combination of both the textual approach and the “item approach” outlined by Wikberg (2003: 112f.) of which the latter approach is based on a list of set items. As discussed in section 2.1.2, the process nominalisation is defined in this study as derivational; suffixes are added to the stem of a verb or an adjective. By using the set list of noun-forming suffixes which is presented in table 1 in 2.1.2, it was thus possible to apply Wikberg’s (ibid.) item approach, searching for specific lexical units, i.e. endings. Similar to the identification of ing-clauses, the search function of Microsoft Word 2016 was used. The translations of the tokens were then noted and steps 2–4 of Wikberg’s (2003: 113) textual approach were followed.

2. Theoretical Background
This section begins by presenting grammatical descriptions of the features which are analysed in this study in subsection 2.1. This is followed by a discussion about contrastive aspects of the features from a translation perspective in 2.2. Finally, in 2.3, an overview of relevant concepts within translation theory is provided.

2.1 Grammatical descriptions
In order to identify the features relevant to the present analysis, it is necessary to be aware of their form and function in the English ST. Therefore, grammatical descriptions of the non-finite supplementive clauses and nominalisations are given in 2.1.1 and 2.1.2 respectively.

2.1.1 Non-finite supplementive ing- and ed-clauses
Traditionally, the term ‘non-finite’ is used to describe verb forms that do not carry tense, as well as clauses affiliated with those verb forms (Quirk et al. 1985: 150). In English, these are
the two infinitive forms (the to-infinitive and the bare infinitive), the ing-form (present participle) and the ed-form (past participle) (Aarts et al. 2014: 270). Although some scholars define the term differently (cf. Nikolaeva 2007), for the purpose of this paper, it suffices to identify non-finite structures based on the traditional inflectional approach.

The non-finite clauses analysed in this study are the ing- and ed- clauses, neither of the two infinitive forms are included. The clauses are further restricted to what Ström Herold and Levin (2018: 115) define as ‘supplementive’ clauses, i.e. they are “zero-introduced subjectless non-finite subordinate clauses in adverbial function”. Note that Ström Herold and Levin (ibid.) have limited their study to supplementive ing-clauses, but the concept is here expanded to include supplementive ed-clauses as well. Examples (3) and (4) below illustrate an ing-clause and an ed-clause, respectively:

(3) Hitler exploded, demanding examples. (Ström Herold and Levin 2018: 121)

(4) […] I had served in the army, stationed just an hour from our home […] (Lindquist 1989: 129)

Both the ing- and ed-clauses in (3) and (4) are movable and describe the circumstances surrounding the actions and their agents. Yet, exactly how these subordinate clauses are linked with their matrix clauses is implicit; no subordinator is used to explicitly link them together, which leaves the reader to interpret the relationship. This implicitness is what the two research topics in this study have in common, but unlike the non-finite supplementive clauses, nominalisations can function as various clause elements, which is further discussed in the following section, 2.1.2.

2.1.2 Nominalisations

Biber et al. (2002: 89) describe nominalisations as nouns, usually abstract, derived from verbs and adjectives, as illustrated in (5):

(5) The conventionalist system lacks the capacity to reach anything like the flexibility of pragmatism because any relaxation would inevitably involve the defeat of publicly encouraged expectation. (Biber et al. 2002: 90)

Although the italicised nouns in (5) have not been recently nominalised, their origins can be traced back to adjectives and verbs, namely those responding to the contemporary conventional, capable, flexible, pragmatic, relax and expect. The term ‘nominalisation’ can also be used to describe the derivational word forming process during which such nouns are created. According
to Biber et al. (2002: 89), theses nouns are formed by affixation, or rather suffixation, i.e. suffixes such as -ence, -ity and -ness are added to verbs and adjectives.

However, not all scholars agree with the definition of nominalisation as a derivational process; some prefer to define it as a syntactic process instead. Among others, Halliday (2004: 69) extends the definition so that it includes other elements, single or plural, that function as nominal structures in a clause. To differentiate between these two definitions, Nordrum (2007: 18), to mention one, distinguishes between ‘clausal nominalisations’ and ‘lexical nominalisations’; the former referring to elements with a nominal function and the latter to the suffixed nouns, as exemplified in (6) and (7), respectively:

(6) *That James produced a thesis* was expected. (Nordrum 2007: 18)

(7) *James’ production of a thesis* was expected. (Nordrum 2007: 18)

Although both the italicised nominalisations in (6) and (7) function as subjects, the head (underlined) in (6) is verbal, while the head in (7) is nominal. This paper conforms to this division between the different kind of nominalisations, although its scope only allows for lexical nominalisations, as exemplified in (7). Therefore, the terms ‘nominalisation’ and ‘lexical nominalisation’ are used interchangeably in the present study. This restriction also entails that so-called conversions are not covered within this. Conversion is defined by Biber et al. (2002: 91) as another derivational word-forming process where nouns are formed by converting the base of verbs and adjectives, as illustrated in (8):

(8) *they had a fine catch of fish* (Biber et al. 2002: 91)

As seen in (8), no suffix is added to convert the verb *catch* into a noun. Even though the translation correspondents to conversions presumably follow to the same translation strategies suffixed nominalisations, to identify all conversions was deemed too time-consuming for the scope of this research, which is therefore restricted to nominalisations formed by suffixation. Table 1 presents a list of 14 nominalisation suffixes, of which 3 can vary slightly in spelling, by Biber et al. (2002:89f.). The suffixes presented in table 1 form the basis of this part of the analysis, as they are used to identify nominalisations in the ST.
Table 1. **Noun suffixes forming nominalisations.** Table adapted from Biber et al. 2002: 89f. V and A refer to verbs and adjectives, respectively.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Origin</th>
<th>Meaning(s)</th>
<th>Example(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-al</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>action/instance of V-ing</td>
<td>arrival</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ance, -ence</td>
<td>V/A</td>
<td>action/instance of V-ing</td>
<td>assistance state of being A</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ant, -ent</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>person who V-s, thing used for V-ing</td>
<td>assistant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-cy</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>state/quality of being A</td>
<td>accuracy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dom</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>state of being A</td>
<td>freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er, -or</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>person/thing that V-s</td>
<td>visitor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-hood</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>state of being A</td>
<td>likelihood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ing</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>action/instance of V-ing</td>
<td>meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ist</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>specialist, follower of A-ism</td>
<td>atheist</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ity</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>state/quality of being A</td>
<td>ability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ment</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>action/instance of V-ing</td>
<td>movement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ness</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>state/quality of being A</td>
<td>happiness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tion, -sion</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>action/instance of V-ing</td>
<td>communication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ure</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>action/instance of V-ing</td>
<td>closure</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Unlike non-finite supplementive clauses, nominalisations can have multiple functions, both on clausal and phrasal levels. Since they are nouns, as clause elements, nominalisations can occupy the subject slot (as in (7)), the object slot (as the conversion in (8)) and the predicative slot (following a copular verb as in e.g. *it is a production*). These functions are listed by Biber et al. (2002: 226) as typical realisations of noun phrases. Biber et al. (ibid.) further mention that single ordinary nouns can also function as adverbials, e.g. ‘tomorrow’ (ibid.), but there does not seem to be any previous studies confirming that there are any nominalisations with a similar function. However, as prepositional complements, they can be part of adverbials, as e.g. *I saw him in the production*.

Within phrases, nominalisations can function as premodifiers, heads and, as prepositional complements, part of postmodifiers. Underlined in (9) is an example of a premodifying nominalisation, while one nominalisation functioning as a head and one as part of a postmodifier is found in (10):
Nordrum (2007) argues that the function of the nominalisations, both on phrasal and clausal levels, affects the choice of translation strategies. As is further discussed in section 3, she (ibid.) states that certain functions increase the probability of clausal translations. Similarly, Nordrum (ibid.) show how the complexity of the NP, the extent to which it is modified, also influences the translation correspondence. For instance, the postmodifier in (10), of a certain distinction between ..., increases the chance of a clausal translation being used.

With regard to the plethora of both phrasal and clausal slots that nominalisations can occupy, they are undoubtedly more versatile than the verbs and adjectives they originate from. Yet, this functional flexibility entails loss of explicitness. Similar to the non-finite clauses, nominalisations convey a certain degree of implicitness. Among others, Halliday (2004) and Hasselgård (2013) refer to them as ‘grammatical metaphors’, since they are nouns expressing what is typically expressed with verbs and adjectives. Consequently, this metaphorical usage entails that information about e.g. the agent and tempus of the action is made implicit. Halliday (2004: 730) notes that when a nominal structure replaces a clause, part of the information given in that clause is lost. He (ibid.) remarks that “[t]he writer presumably knows exactly what it means; but the reader may not”. This is an obstacle the translators inevitably faces; to denominalise such structures, i.e. to reverse the nominalisation process and instead return to verbs and adjectives (cf. ‘de-metaphorisation’ in Hasselgård (2013)), one must settle for the most likely semantic relation given the context. Yet, one must first decide if denominalisation is in fact necessary. Factors affecting such decisions are presented in the following discussion of Swedish contrastive aspects in 2.2.

2.2 Swedish contrastive aspects

2.2.1 Swedish equivalents to non-finite clauses

In Swedish, there is a present participle verb form corresponding to English -ing, which is formed by adding -(a)nnde/-(c)nnde to the verb stem (cf. hoppa/"jump" and hoppende/"jumping") (Stroh-Wollin 1998: 28). Similarly, there is a corresponding past participle formed with the suffixes -d/-t or -en (bygga – byggd/"build – built", bjuda – bjuden/"invite – invited") (ibid.: 27).

However, these forms seem to be much more restricted compared to their English
correspondents. Stroh-Wollin (1998: 27f.) exemplifies how both forms can be used attributively, as found in (11) and (12). She (ibid.) further mention that the past participle can function as a predicative, as in (13):

(11) ett skrivet dokument (“a written document”) (Stroh-Wollin 1998: 28)

(12) en slående likhet (“a striking similarity”) (Stroh-Wollin 1998: 28)

(13) stugan var byggd i trä (“the cottage was built out of wood”) (Stroh-Wollin 1998:28)

Stroh-Wollin (1998) does not include any discussion of the present participle functioning as a predicative. Yet, it would still be grammatically correct to rephrase (12) to likheten var slående (“the similarity was striking”). Possibly, Stroh-Wollin (ibid.) does not mention this because such copular constructions cannot be applied to the present participle of all verbs (cf. vattnet var rinnande “the water was running”, which is unidiomatic in Swedish).

Although the predicative is a clause element, neither of the two verb forms can function as full clauses in Swedish and they can thus not be regarded as functional equivalents to their English correspondents. Hence, in the translation of English supplementive ing- and ed-clauses, the translator is presumably obliged to change their structure, making the present analysis of different target correspondences relevant. For dependent clauses, this obligatory structural change might possibly include an explicitation of the somewhat implicit relationship they have with the main clause.

Apart from obligatory change, optional change can also result in explicitation, as a result of different structural preferences between the source and target languages. What features the English and Swedish are said to prefer is discussed in the following section 2.2.2.

2.2.2. Nominal or verbal preference

The process of nominalisation is found in English and Swedish alike. However, the distribution of nominalisations, and nouns in general, differ between languages; while some languages are said to prefer nominal structures, others favour verbal constructions. While English more readily turns to nouns, Scandinavian languages such as Swedish and Norwegian as often said to prefer verb phrases (Nordrum 2007). This difference is exemplified in (14), where the Swedish translator has opted for a clausal paraphrase as a correspondent to the English nominalisation, despite there being an equivalent nominalisation in Swedish – existens:
Lehmann (1988: 15), among others, proposes that nominalisations can be placed as a polar node on a continuum where clauses form the opposite; everything in between these nodes are either more or less nominal or more or less ‘sentential’. i.e. clausal. The movement from the clausal end to the nominal one can then be seen a reduction of features, which also demonstrates how nominalisation can be regarded as a process of structural condensation. The shift and loss are exemplified in (15):

(15) a. We expected that James would produce a thesis.
b. We expected James to produce a thesis.
c. We expected James’ producing a thesis.
d. We expected James’ production of a thesis.
e. We expected the production of a thesis.
f. We expected the production. (Nordrum 2007: 21)

In (15a–f), it is visible how features such as tense and the subject is reduced as one moves towards the nominal end of the continuum. In turn, this paper argues that ‘denominalisation’ can be regarded as the opposite movement between the two nodes, gaining features, which is what has occurred in (14). Undoubtedly, the preference of a language ought to be visible in translations strategies used. If the source and target languages have different preferences as they supposedly do in the present translation, it can be expected that the certain translation strategies involve a movement towards one of the polar nodes of the clausal-nominal continuum.

However, certain preferences can also be found in genre conventions, which may not always agree with the general preferences of the language. For example, through corpus-based research, Biber et al. (2002: 23) conclude that nouns are far more frequent in academic writing than in fiction. Also, Biber and Gray (2016: 275) note that, in the English humanities register (in history specifically), the usage of nominalisations has increased over time: from a mean of 57.1 tokens/1,000 words in 1965 to 62.8 tokens/1,000 words in 2005. Possibly, the English trend of increased nominalisation usage has influenced Swedish writings as well; in Sweden and other parts of Scandinavia, writing guides and authorities are cautioning writers against overusing nominalisations (cf. Språkrådet (2014) advising authorities to avoid “unnecessary nominalisations”). Consequently, with regard to the academic style and the historical genre of the present text, it can be expected that nominalisations are frequent in both
the ST and the TT, despite the supposed verbal preference in Swedish.

Yet, based on the observations presented in this section, it can still be predicted that structural change has occurred; while the grammatical differences between the source and target languages (SL and TL) induces obligatory change, the opposing preferences may result in optional shifts. The following section, 2.3, discusses different concepts within translation theory with which the differences and similarities between the ST and TT structures can be explained.

2.3 Concepts within translation theory
This section addresses the concepts of congruence (2.3.1), transposition (2.3.2), and explicitation (2.3.3), which are considered highly relevant in the discussion of translation correspondences to nominalisations and supplementive non-finite clauses. While congruence is a general concept regarding structural similarity and diversity between the source and target segments, transposition is the process of structural change, which in turn might result in explicitation.

2.3.1 Congruence
In accordance with e.g. Nordrum (2007: 12ff.) and Johansson (2007: 24f.), in this study, the term ‘congruence’ refers to the structure of the TT segment in relation to the structure of the ST segment. Whereas congruent translations keep the same structure as in the ST, non-congruent translations do not (Nordrum 2007: 12). In the following examples, (16) is congruent while (17) is non-congruent:

(16) [...] Moscow’s spasmodic interference in the farming process continued to cause chaos.  
(17) I am indebted to Jerome Rothstein, a physicist, for his enlightenment on this, and other things.

In (16), all modifiers, as well as a corresponding nominalisation (underlined), are kept in the translation which is thus categorised as congruent. Contrarily, example (17) is non-congruent as the noun phrase, NP, has been structurally altered in the translation; the TT still features a nominalisation, jämförelse, but it has been attributed a premodifying adjective phrase, AdjP, and the possessive determiner in the ST, his, has been turned into a postmodifying relative
clause *han gav* (“he gave”). Other con-congruent translations include those when the NP has been shifted into another type of phrase. This process is known as ‘transposition’ and is further explained in the following section, 2.3.2.

2.3.2 Transposition

Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 36) define ‘transposition’ as a change of word class without a change of meaning, as in illustrated in (18) from English to French:

\[(18) \text{ as soon as he got up} \rightarrow \text{dès son lever ['upon his rising’]} \text{ (Vinay and Darbelnet 1995: 36)}\]

In (18), the ST verb *got up* has been shifted to a corresponding noun, *lever*. However, as can be seen in (18), the transposition also affects further elements in the clause and the analysis becomes constrained when restricted to parts of speech only. Consequently, it is the standpoint of this paper that the part of speech-approach is not sufficient in the discussion of structural shifts. In line with Eriksson (1997: 21), it is instead argued that the concept of transposition needs to be extended into phrasal and clausal levels, as the translator needs to process the unit as a whole. With this approach, it is now possible to elaborate the analysis of (18) further; while the verb phrase, VP, in the ST has been transposed into a NP in the translation, the NP subject in the ST, *he*, which functions as the head of its own phrase, is now integrated as a determiner in the TT NP where *lever* is the head.

Eriksson (1997: 20) identifies the following four main types of shifts (C and P representing clauses and phrases, whereas x and y symbolise different types of Cs and Ps):

1) \( C_x \rightarrow C_y \)
2) \( C \rightarrow P \)
3) \( P \rightarrow C \)
4) \( P_x \rightarrow P_y \)

Type 1 can for instance be exemplified by a dependent clause being turned into an independent clause, while type 2 could be a relative clause translated into an adjective phrase, AdjP, functioning as a premodifier; type 3 being the inverted process of type 2. An example of type 4, changing one type of phrase for another, was illustrated in (18) above. Note that, even though Eriksson (1997) avoids the term 'transposition' in his discussion of phrasal and clausal shifts, the term is used in the present paper to describe such operations and it is thus used
interchangeably with ‘structural shift’. Occasionally, transposition may result in some of the information becoming more explicit in the TT. In the following section, 2.3.3, the concept of explicitation is further exemplified and discussed.

2.3.3 Explicitation

As previously mentioned in 2.1, both non-finite supplementive clauses and nominalisations convey a form of implicitness. However, since the translation of these features may involve structural change, as discussed in 2.2, it can be expected that some of that ST implicitness is lost in the TT. The implicit information is instead made explicit, a process that scholars refer to as explicitation (cf. Blum-Kulka 1986, Chesterman 2004, Klaudy 2008). This is illustrated in (19), where a subordinator has been added in the TT:

(19) Having studied their gardens, these volunteers were asked to repeat the exercise [...]  

Efter att ha studerat trädgården ombads de frivilliga att upprepa övningen [...] (Ström Herold and Levin 2018: 136)

In (19), faced with an ing-clause lacking a functional equivalent in Swedish, as discussed in 2.2.1, the translator has little choice but change its structure. In this case, the relationship between the dependent and independent clauses was interpreted as temporal and the subordinator efter (“after”) was added, making the relationship explicit. That it is the translator’s personal interpretation that generates explicitation is also found in the explicitation hypothesis, originally formed by Blum-Kulka (1986: 19) as follows:

The process of interpretation performed by the translator on the source text might lead to a TL text which is more redundant than the SL text. This redundancy can be expressed by a rise in the level of cohesive explicitness in the TL text. This argument may be stated as «the explicitation hypothesis» [...]

In line with Séguinot (1988: 106), it is the standpoint of this study that the core of Blum-Kulka’s (1986:19) hypothesis is accurate even though it opposes the use of “redundant” and “redundancy”, which imply that the possible explicitness is negative and undesirable. As Nordrum (2007: 124) remarks, explicit additions such as that of chansen found in (15) help the reader understand the text correctly. Vinay and Darbelnet (1995: 342) point out that an excessive use of this technique might well lead to “overtranslation”, i.e. using more linguistic units than what would have sufficed (ibid.: 16). However, in contrast to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995), Blum-Kulka’s (1986) claims do not indicate that it is the disproportionate use of
explicitation that makes the TT redundant, but any use of it.

Based on Blum-Kulka’s (1986) hypothesis, Chesterman (2004: 40) includes explicitation as one of his proposed S-universals for translation, i.e. universals based on the differences between STs and TTs. He (ibid.) further explains this universal as there simply being “more cohesion in translations”, a statement which, in contrast to Blum-Kulka’s (1986), sheds a more positive light upon explicitness in translation.

In order to classify explicitation as a translation-inherent process Séguinot (1988: 108) argues that the term explicitation ought to be restricted additions in the TT that have not been induced by structural, stylistic or rhetorical differences between the source and target languages. That is, there must exist grammatically correct translation options which are less explicit, in order to classify an addition as explicitation (ibid.). The clausal translation of the nominalisation found in (20) thus illustrates explicitation since it would have been grammatically possible to use a corresponding nominalisation in Swedish, such as förväntningarna:

(20) […] far below the expectation of planetary chemistry. […] långt mindre än vad man skulle kunna vänta sig med kännedom om planetens allmänna sammansättning (Nordrum 2007: 172)

An alternative NP translation in (20) would have been more implicit, but it would also have been more unidiomatic, given Swedish linguistic preferences. Consequently, Séguinot’s (1988: 108) definition would suffice to explain explicit semantic additions in the translations of nominalisations. However, from this point of view, example (19), illustrating the translation of an English ing-clause into Swedish, which lacks an equivalent construction, could not be classified as explicitation; a standpoint which the present study opposes. Instead, this study complies with Klaudy (2008: 106), who distinguishes between four types of explicitation: obligatory, optional, pragmatic, and translation-inherent. As explicitation in the present analysis is restricted to that resulting from structural shifts, further discussions are limited to obligatory and optional explicitation.

According to Klaudy (2008: 196), obligatory explicitation occurs due to syntactic and semantic differences between the languages involved. She (ibid.) further notes that the most obvious examples of these kind of additions are the ones generated by “missing categories”, i.e. when the receptor language lacks equivalent constructions to those found in the ST. As previously exemplified in (19), such explicitation can be found in translations of the ing-participle from English to Swedish. Hence, contrary to Séguinot’s definition (1988: 108),
Klaudy’s (2008: 106) classification allows the translation methods used in converting the English *ing*-participle to Swedish to be regarded as explicitation, which is also the standpoint of this paper.

Optional explicitation is according to Klaudy (2008: 104) governed by the languages having different text-building strategies and stylistic preferences; this could of course adhere to the specific translator as well. In this case, there are other grammatically correct translation alternatives, but they may appear lacking or awkward. This type of explicitation corresponds to that defined by Séguinot (1988). The clausal translation of a nominalisation in example (21) illustrates one instance of optional explicitation:

(21) Even the Ten Commandments [...] take the existence of other gods for granted

Till och med de tio budorden [...] utgår från att det finns andra gudar (Nordrum 2007: 194)

Despite there being a corresponding nominalisation to *existence* in Swedish that could have been used in (21), the translator has chosen a clausal structure. This option can be considered more explicit than the NP in the ST since the verb *finns* (“exist”) expresses the present tense and, thereby, the proposition is given more explicit present relevance in the TT.

Furthermore, Klaudy (2008: 106) remarks that explicit additions to the syntax of a clause, so-called syntactic explicitation, typically results in the TT displaying an increased number of tokens – an observation which corresponds to Chesterman’s (2004: 40) lengthening universal. That syntactic explicitation occurs during the translation of non-finite supplementive clauses and nominalisation is supported in studies such as those by Ström Herold and Levin (2018) and Nordrum (2007). In section 3, the major results of these studies, along with that of Lindquist (1989), are summarised.

### 2.4 Previous translation studies of non-finite supplementive clauses and nominalisations

One of the conclusive analyses of English adverbials and their Swedish correspondences is that of Lindquist (1989). He investigates translations of both supplementive *ing*- and *ed*-clauses in fiction. As for *ing*-clauses, he (ibid.: 121) concludes that the most common translation correspondences are finite clauses, representing 45%. This category subsumes the strategies coordination, subordination and new main clauses, as illustrated in (22)–(24):

(22) As they approached the gate he stopped, staring.

När de närmade sig grinden stannade han och stirrade. (Lindquist 1989: 126)
Even though Lindquist (ibid.: 126) does not distinguish between the frequencies of the different subtypes in the finite category, he specifies that coordination, as exemplified in (22), is used most frequently. Except for a category referred to as “other”, representing 21% but not further specified by Lindquist (1989), the finite realisation types are followed in frequency by the infinitive, with 11%, present participle (referred to as “non-finite ing-clause” by Lindquist) with 8%, and prepositional phrase, also 8%. Similarly, in the translation of the adverbial ed-clauses, the most frequent realisation is finite clauses (38%), as illustrated in (25):

(25) **Undaunted by Zuckerman’s unobliging reply [...]** he [...] och var bara [...] (Lindquist 1989: 130)

Lindquist (1989: 130) notes that the present clausal translation in (25) better adheres to the “normal Swedish structure” compared to what Swedish past participle such as orubbad (“unagitated”) would have done. Yet, Swedish past participles are used in 25% of the ed-translations, a percentage that is identical to that of prepositional phrases (Lindquist 1989: 128).

Although Lindquist’s (1989) analysis is extensive and covers features relevant to the present study, it offers a restricted comparison for the present study. One major issue in Lindquist’s categorisation of translation types is that he does not provide any discussion of the category called “other”. This is his second most frequent strategy for ing-clauses, representing 21%, but due to him not clarifying what this category covers, it is difficult to compare it with the results of the present paper.

Ström Herold and Levin (2018), on the other hand, offer a more comparable study of supplementive ing-clauses; in their analysis, both the main translation correspondences and those labelled “other” are clearly defined. In further contrast to Lindquist’s data, Ström Herold and Levin’s (2018) findings are based on popular non-fiction material, which makes their results even more comparable to those of the present study. With the LEGS-corpus (Linnaeus University English-German-Swedish corpus) serving as their material, Ström Herold and Levin (2018: 128) conclude that the most frequent strategy when translating a supplementive ing-clause to Swedish is coordination, representing 40.5%. As in example (22) from Lindquist
(1989), Ström Herold and Levin’s coordination strategy covers translations where the subject is omitted in the second VP conjunct. Coordination is followed in frequency by the strategies subordination (27.8%), main clause (12.7%) and prepositional phrase (8.2%). Apart from adverbial clauses (as in (23)), the subordination category also subsumes relative clauses, as exemplified in (26):

(26) The longer stress persists, the more those cognitive abilities are hurt […], ultimately leading to mental as well as physical illness.

Ju längre stressen kvarstår, desto mer skadad de kognitiva förmågorna […], vilket till sist leder till psykisk och fysisk ohälsa. (Ström Herold and Levin 2018: 131)

Ström Herold and Levin (2018: 135f.) further establish that, sometimes, translating *ing*-clauses results in explicitation. Their results show that, most often, translators opt for temporal and causal conjunctions when using a subordinate clause, such as *när* (‘when’) and *eftersom* (‘because’).

As for previous studies on nominalisations, Nordrum (2007) presents an extensive study comparing English lexical nominalisations and their Swedish and Norwegian translation correspondences in non-fiction texts. She (ibid.) distinguishes between congruent and non-congruent translations. As previously defined in 2.3.1 and again illustrated in (27) and (28), congruent translations have the same NP structure as the ST, whereas non-congruent translations deviate from the ST structure:

(27) *His powerful intervention in their affairs* had demonstrated beyond reasonable doubt that […]

*Hans kraftfulla ingripande i deras öden* har visat att […] (Nordrum 2007: 82)

(28) Geologists […] are beginning to ponder about *the persistence of the oceans on Earth* when Mars and Venus are so dry.

*Geologer […] har börjat fundera på varför det finns oceaner på Jorden när Mars och Venus är så torra.* (Nordrum 2007: 195)

Nordrum (2007: 5) presents several reasons to why non-congruent structures such as that in (28) are used. She lists the following factors as possibly contributing to reconstructions: the grammatical function or syntax of the nominalisation, pragmatics, the translation process, and semantics. Nordrum’s (2007: 216) results show that nearly one fifth of the English nominalisations are translated into Norwegian and Swedish clauses, which she argues promotes the idea of Norwegian and Swedish clausal preference in cases where English has nominalisations. Factors increasing the chance of a clausal translation involve the following:
many adnominal elements surround the nominalisation, it functions as the subject or a postmodifier, it follows a preposition, or functions as the object of semantically ‘light verbs’ (i.e. the verb does not carry much semantic information on its own, as in make a suggestion, for instance). Example (29) illustrates how the long and heavy NP subject has been translated into a non-congruent main clause:

(29) Mikhail Gorbachev’s endorsement, when in power, of the individual farmer’s right to supplement his income from selling his privately grown fruit and vegetables harks back to his own childhood memories […]

Nordrum (2007: 11f.) further suggests that the explicitation universal could be an additional factor affecting the number of clausal translations. Hence, in line with Séguinot (1988), Nordrum (2007) views explicitation as a translation-inherent process that is rather the cause, not the result, of structural change. She (ibid.) argues that clauses can be considered more explicit than nominalisations since implicit information such as the agent of the action is explicated (which conforms to the idea of gaining features via denominalisation as discussed in 2.2.2). However, illustrating the addition of a subject, Nordrum (2007: 11f.) uses an example where the generic pronoun man (“people in general”) has been used in the Swedish TT, as exemplified in (30):

(30) […] his degree meant that there could be little objection to his taking over the first secretaryship […]

To illustrate explicitation with an example such as (30) is something that this paper finds problematic. To begin with, even though Nordrum (2007: 12) describes it as a “presentative construction”, it can be argued that there in the ST also functions as a subject, but an empty one (cf. empty ‘it’ in it is raining). Similarly, although man is the grammatical subject in the TT, it is very vague semantically; it is very general and does not provide much concrete information about the agent(s). Consequently, for nominalisations at least, it can be argued that non-congruent translations do not automatically equal more explicit translations.

Deviating from these earlier translation studies, it is the intention of the present paper to analyse translations of both nominalisations and non-finite supplementive clauses. The results and analysis presented in section 3 is based on the different strategies that have been
used and how they affect the condensed structures originally found in the ST.

3. Results and Analysis

This chapter is divided into two major discussions: while subsections 3.1 and 3.2 discuss the translations of non-finite supplementive clauses, subsections 3.3 and 3.4 are dedicated the translation correspondences of nominalisations. Because nominalisations are significantly more frequent in the ST than non-finite supplementive clauses, a more in-depth analysis of the nominalisations is provided. In 3.1 and 3.3 the different strategies identified in the TT are presented and briefly exemplified. Subsections 3.2 and 3.4 then provide quantitative overviews and a qualitative analysis of the results. The strategies are further exemplified, and alternative translation options are discussed. Comparisons with the results of previous studies are also made in these subsections.

3.1 Overview of translation strategies for non-finite supplementive clauses

To categorise the translations strategies used for the supplementive clauses, part of the framework for translation categories set out by Ström Herold and Levin (2018) have been used. Even though their study (ibid.) is restricted to supplementive ing-clauses, in the present analysis, it was found that supplementive ed-clauses are translated according to the same strategies, most likely due to their function in the ST being similar to that of the ing-clause. In total, four different non-congruent strategies were identified in the material; three main categories and one minor category. Presented below is a brief overview of the different correspondence types where they are defined and exemplified. The three main categories are the main clause, coordination, and subordination. All these involve the transposition type Eriksson (1997) refers to as $C_x \rightarrow C_y$, i.e. one type of clause is translated into another.

- **Main clause**: a full finite clause with its own subject and finite verb. It can either form a whole new sentence, or be separated from the original main clause by commas or coordinators as long as it has a subject of its own:

  (31) [...] *displaying great talent for organisation*, he soon became [...] *Han visade sig vara väldigt duktig på att organiser*, och blev snart [...]
• **Coordination**: coordinated VPs where the subject in the second conjunct has been omitted:

(32) Mackenzie, frustrated by this obstructive ignorance, decided to cut the knot […]

Mackenzie blev frustrerad över den här okunnigheten, som han ansåg hindrade utvecklingen, och beslöt sig för att avlägsna problemet.

• **Subordination**: adverbial clauses and relative clauses, both sentential and postmodifying:

(33) Thus the Gordon Estates in Aberdeenshire experienced very early changes, given urgency by the accumulation of family debts.

På godsen som tillhörde familjen Gordon i Aberdeenshire skedde det därför förändringar väldigt tidigt eftersom familjen hade samlat på sig skulder.

The minor category is the prepositional phrase, which is only found in the translation of ing-clauses. In contrast to the main categories this non-congruent translation strategy involves the transposition type that Eriksson (1997) calls C→P, i.e. a clause is turned into a phrase.

• **Prepositional phrase**: phrase headed by a preposition which is then followed by a complement, not in the shape of the infinitive marker *att*.

(34) ‘[…] which they manage by a few servants’, who, presumably acting under orders, removed the old occupants.

“[…] som de sköter med hjälp av några få anställda”. De gamla innehavarna avlägsnades troligtvis på order från de nya arrendatorerna.

That only four of Ström Herold and Levin’s (2018) twelve translation categories were identified is most likely due to there being a very limited number of supplementive clauses in the source material used for this paper; as further discussed in the following section, 3.2, only 13 supplementive ing-clauses an 6 supplementive ed-clauses were identified in the present ST (cf. Ström Herold and Levin’s (2018) 709 supplementive ing-clauses in their English original texts).

3.2 Quantitative overviews and qualitative discussions of translation choices for non-finite supplementive clauses

In the following two subsections, quantitative overviews of the translation correspondences to ing-clauses (in 3.2.1) and ed-clauses (in 3.2.2) are presented. The frequencies are compared
with the results of Ström Herold and Levin (2018) and Lindquist (1989), respectively, and factors affecting the different translation choices are discussed. Because the material offered a very restricted amount of data for non-finite clauses, the quantitative discussions in 3.2.1 and 3.2.2 are based on raw numbers of tokens. Normalised frequencies, such as percentages, cannot be considered representative when based on so few examples and have thus not been used.

3.2.1 *ing*-clause correspondences

Presented in table 2 is an overview of the Swedish target correspondences used for supplementive *ing*-clauses. It shows that only 13 *ing*-clauses were identified as relevant for the present analysis. No translation involved the use of a present participle. This means that there are no translation correspondences that fall under Nordrum’s (2007) congruent category, i.e. sharing the same structure as the ST. All 13 of the translations have been structurally altered and are thus non-congruent, as defined by Nordrum (ibid.).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correspondence category</th>
<th>Raw number N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>coordination</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>main clause</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subordination</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PP</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>13</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Swedish translation correspondences for English supplementive *ing*-clauses.

As seen in table 2, the most frequent translation type is the ‘main clause’, representing 7 of the target structures, which is followed by 3 instances of coordination. Both these categories involve a shift from one type of clause to another, which means that the transposition process defined by Eriksson (1997) as Cx→Cy occurs. With only 2 tokens, subordination is the third most frequent strategy, but unlike the other categories, this correspondence type does not involve any transposition; the subordinate clause stays subordinate. The fourth and least frequent category is the prepositional phrase with only a single example, illustrating Eriksson’s (1997) transposition type C→P.

These results contrast those of Ström Herold and Levin (2018), in which the
coordination category was the most frequent strategy by far (40.5%), followed by subordination (27.8). In their analysis, the main clause category is the third most common, only representing 12.7%. The results are, however, similar in the PP category, which in Ström Herold and Levin’s study (ibid..) also is the fourth most frequent category with 8.2%. In Lindquist’s (1989) study, it is also coordination which is the most frequent correspondence to ing-clauses, although Lindquist does not develop on exactly how frequent.

Even though the present results differ from Ström Herold and Levin’s (2018) as far as separate frequencies and specific order go, they are still similar in that the four strategies used in the present translation are the same as major categories found by Ström Herold and Levin (ibid.). It is also the same three strategies which are the most common, despite the order differing. That the present results do not correspond more closely to Ström Herold and Levin’s (2018) cannot be due to differences in category definitions as the present categories follow Ström Herold and Levin’s outline of these. However, the two studies differ in the scope of their material; while these results are based on a single translation, Ström Herold and Levin (ibid.) base their study on an extensive corpus consisting of multiple sample texts. Had the present study included several different texts, it is possible that the overall results would have been more similar to Ström Herold and Levin’s.

One possible explanation to the main clauses, and not coordination, being the most frequent correspondences is the textual qualities of the material as regards the sentence and sentence length in particular. As mentioned in 1.2, there are many long sentences in the ST and, even without syntactical condensation, there is much information pressed into single sentences, which additionally occur close together. Splitting some of these sentences into two separate ones were deemed appropriate in several instances where it was difficult to follow the flow of information otherwise. Of the 7 main clause instances, 5 were separated from the original matrix clause by full stops, as exemplified in (35) and (36):

(35) Mackenzie, frustrated by this obstructive ignorance, decided to cut the knot, ejecting his tenantry (who found asylum in the same neighbourhood) invested his capital in the land, and introduced Berwickshire and East Lothian men to act respectively as grieve (farm overseer) and principal ploughman.

Mackenzie blev frustrerad över folkets inskränkande okunnighet som hindrade utvecklingen och beslöt sig för att avlägsna problemet. Han vräkte sina arrendatorer (som fann skydd i samma grannskap), investerade sitt kapital i markerna och anlitade män från Berwickshire och East Lothian som förmän respektive huvudbönder.
In (35), there are many coordinated VPs in the ST which show the development of happenings, which in itself is contain much information. To give background to the events, the author has also chosen to include both a supplementive ed-clause and a supplementive ing-clause. There further seems to be an error in the ST where something is missing; either a separate subject of the verb invested as in he invested or a comma which would link the verb phrase more directly to the subject Mackenzie, even though this places the supplementive ing-clause in an awkward position. Since the translation of both supplementive clauses entails more words being introduced in the TT, and the sentence thus becoming even longer, it thus seemed most suitable to split the sentence. Coordination was excluded since it would result in a very long and heavy sentence, where the final VP, anlitade män […], would be placed very far from the subject.

Although (36) offers a much shorter sentence, there are very many numbers in it which makes difficult to read. Furthermore, this sentence is placed together with multiple sentences with very similar content in the text. To coordinate all the numbers and years by commas and finally the conjunction and, as in e.g. år 1800, 72 000 år 1815 och 91 000 år 1880, was not seen as aiding the reader enough, since that would require numbers following each other very closely, making it difficult to tell them apart.

A negative aspect with sentence splitting by using full stops is that it possibly makes the text, or at least the information in the involved sentences, less coherent, compared to e.g. coordination. Nevertheless, as suggested by both Blum-Kulka (1984) and Chesterman (2004), what is lost of the total cohesion in the text during sentence splitting is possibly regained by explicitation. In (37), exemplifying the subordination category, the target correspondence offers greater cohesion that the non-finite clause in the ST:

(37) In the 1680s several landowners in the Forest of Ettrick, being bankrupt, signed over their estates to Edinburgh lawyers […]  
Efter att ha gått i konkurs skrev flera godsägare i Forest of Ettrick på 1680-talet över sina gods till advokater i Edinburgh […]

In (37), the adverbiaal function of the non-finite clause has been kept in the TT. Since both the source and target clause are subordinate and non-finite (infinitive verb form in TT), no transposition has occurred. Yet, the TT differs from the ST as that Klaudy (2008) refers to as obligatory syntactic explicitation has been used; in the translation, a subordinating conjunction,
after (‘after’), has been added which explicates the relationship between the subordinate and matrix clause. Primarily, the subordinating conjunction marks the order of events – this happened after that – but it also, perhaps slightly more implicitly, marks the subordinating clause as CAUSE to the following event. This reflects Ström Herold and Levin’s (2018) explicitation results in which temporal and causal conjunctions are the most common. In the ST, the relationship between the dependent and independent clauses is fully left to the reader to conclude. Hence, not only is the translation more explicit, it is also more cohesive than the ST. In this aspect, the translation thus atones for some of the cohesion loss caused by sentence splitting.

Another example of how one translation choice affects another is found in (38), exemplifying both the main clause and coordination categories:

(38) At times, the movement ran fast and overwhelmingly, covering great stretches of the north, sweeping most animal and human life before it.

Ibland skedde utvecklingen snabbt och överväldigande. Den sträckte sig över stora områden i norr och soppade undan majoriteten av de djur och människor som stod i dess väg.

To begin with, the two supplementive clauses in (38) have been transferred to a new sentence in the TT, where a transposition shift from subordinate to main clause has occurred. To coordinate all VPs in a single sentence, it would be necessary to include a comma between the initial and medial VP. This is to avoid listing more than two elements with the use of the coordinating conjunctions, och, which is not customary in Swedish (Språkrådet 2017: 201), resulting in [i]bland skedde utvecklingen snabbt och överväldigande, sträckte sig över […] (‘sometimes the movement ran fast and overwhelmingly, covered […]’). Due to the adverbials in the first VP, this alternative was rendered slightly awkward and the main clause category was found most suitable. This, in turn, made coordination optimal for the final VP, as the new main clause has been given a subject of its own, den (‘it’), which the final VP shares.

In summary, the most frequent Swedish translation correspondences to non-finite supplementive ing-clauses are finite main clauses, a result that contrasts the previous study of Ström Herold and Levin (2018). Yet, this contrast may be due to the limited data available in the present material. A possible reason behind the high frequency of this strategy in the TT is the length of many of its sentences. Repetitiveness is also proven to be an affecting factor. It is further shown how one translation choice influences others.
3.2.2 Ed-clause correspondences

The translation correspondences of the supplementive ed-clauses are similar to those of the ing-clauses in several instances. As seen in table 3, the same major translation correspondences are used, excluding any congruent strategies. Yet, it is the subordination category which is the most frequent, as it is used for 3 out of 6 tokens. The main clause category is the second most frequent strategy with 2 examples, whereas coordination is only used once. No further strategies were used for these clauses.

Table 3. Swedish translation correspondences for English supplementive ed-clauses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correspondence category</th>
<th>Raw number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>coordination</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main clause</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subordination</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the amount of data is so highly restricted, it is difficult to come to any general conclusions based on these results. As seen in table 3, only 6 supplementive ed-clauses were identified in the material. However, in his study of the same type of clause, Lindquist (1989) only found 8 tokens, despite his material being far more extensive (although in the fictional genre). This might indicate why there are so very limited previous translation studies of supplementive ed-clauses; they are simply not as common in the SL as for example supplementive ing-clauses.

Nevertheless, of the three categories presented in table 3, it is only by subordination that the supplementive/adverbial function of the ST clause is kept. Hence, similarly to Lindquist’s (1989) results, it is the adverbial translations, as exemplified in (39), that are the most common:

(39) *Fattened for the English market, Scots cattle needed enlarged pasture lands at the expense of arable […] Eftersom de skotska nötkreaturen göddes upp för den engelska marknaden behövde de större betesmarker.*

What differs between the ST and TT adverbials in (39) is that the subordinate conjunction *eftersom* (‘because’) links the dependent clause to the independent in the translation. The causal relationship between the two has thus become explicit, but unlike the obligatory syntactic explicitation that takes place when ing-clauses are translated into Swedish subordinate clauses,
as previously discussed in relation to example (37)) the explicitation found in (39) is optional, according to the definition provided by Klaudy (2008). An alternative congruent translation option could have been the Swedish past participle form uppgödda (‘fattened (up’)). However, by searching for uppgödda in a Swedish corpus, KORP, it is clear that this verbal form is very seldomly used compared to other forms of the same verb; while there were only two different instances of uppgödda there were, for example, 37 hits on the infinitive göda upp. Although there were not as many passives in the parallel corpus, this form was chosen to reduce the number of words. By not ascribing an agent to the action, the construction is shortened – a choice which once again was influenced by the surrounding textual qualities.

Contextual features can also be considered the reason to why the main clause was the second most frequent strategy. As with the ing-clauses, sentence splitting resulted in the main clause category being used and transposition type Cₓ→Cᵧ, as defined by Eriksson (1997), occurring. This was opted for when a subordinate clause would have lengthened an already long sentence too much, as exemplified in (40):

(40) Similar scenes were re-enacted across the Highlands throughout the following half century, doubtless accompanied by similarly optimistic and sentimental hope on behalf of the displaced victims of the devastating agrarian transformation.  

Instead of splitting the sentence in (40) and forming a new main clause, a relative clause could for example have been used. With regard to all stacked phrases within the ed-clause, however, this alternative was not found suitable as it would have had to be placed between the subject liknande scener and the verb utspelade sig, resulting in very long and heavy fundament (everything positioned before the verb) and a sentence which would have been difficult to read. Similarly, coordination would also have produced a long sentence.

In the single instance when coordination was used, as seen in (41) (previously presented as (32)), sentence splitting was also involved but not in immediate relation to the ed-correspondent:

(41) Mackenzie, frustrated by this obstructive ignorance, decided to cut the knot […]  

It can be argued that the adverbial function of the ed-clause in (41) has been partly kept in the translation, although it is not made explicit. This is based on the logic notion of listing actions
according to the order of events affecting each other. An alternative translation option could have been to include the subordinating conjunction ef tersom (‘because’), thus avoid transposition a. However, since such a construction would have included more words and the coordinated structure still implicitly suggests a sort of clausal relationship, the shorter alternative was opted for. An explicit subordinator in such a sentence could be seen as redundant in when alternative options such as the one used in (41) conveying a very similar meaning (cf. Blum-Kulka (1986: 19) using the term ‘redundancy’ in the explicitation hypothesis).

To summarise, the same translations strategies (apart from PP) are used for the two kinds of non-finite supplementive clauses in the present material. Yet, the translations correspondences of the ed-clauses differ from those of the ing-clauses since it is subordination, not main clause, that is used most frequently. Thus, the subordinate function originally expressed in the ST is kept more often when translating ed-clauses. Compared with the ST clauses, the adverbial translations used the TT are more explicit, since they include subordinators which more clearly show what kind of relationship that exists between the dependent and independent clauses. In this aspect, the ed-clause correspondences are further different from those of the ing-clauses since the semantic explicitation is optional, not obligatory. However, explicitation is not consistently favoured. Lengthy paraphrases are not always considered the best translation option, despite them perhaps being more explicit and clearer, which is further evident in the analysis of nominalisations, as presented in the following two sections 3.3 and 3.4. In the next section, 3.3, this part of the analysis begins by presenting the different translation strategies used for nominalisation.

3.3 Overview of translation strategies for nominalisations
Since nominalisations are a nominal feature, the translations of these have been categorised slightly different from the supplementive non-finite clauses (which are verbal). Based on the clausal-nominal continuum discussed in 2.2, the two main categories used in this analysis is the clause and the NP. This main distinction between the verbal and nominal node is made to provide an overview of the preferences in this translation. The clause category includes translations where the transposition type defined by Eriksson (1997) as $P \rightarrow C$ has occurred (phrase to clause), and the ST nominalisation has been denominalised into a verb. This also means that, on a lower syntactic level, transposition $P_x \rightarrow P_y$ has also taken place as one phrase (a NP) has been transposed into another type of phrase (a VP). The clausal category covers three different strategies: main clause, subordinate clause, and infinitive clause. The NP
category includes segments where lexical nominalisations are translated into nouns, regardless of origin. It includes two strategies: congruent NP and nominal paraphrase. An overview of different strategies is presented below.

- **Congruent NP**: the same phrasal structure surrounding the ST nominalisation has been transferred to TT. Modifiers are kept and there is no structural change. In line with Nordrum (2007: 13), it is also the standpoint of the present paper that a translation can still be classified as congruent even if it is somewhat different from the original. This is for example the case in the translation of the English nominalisation *farmer* to the Swedish noun *bonde*, which is considered an ordinary noun in present-day Swedish. Initially, it thus comes across as a non-congruent correspondence in which the metaphorisation of the English nominalisation is not implied. However, *bonde* can also be regarded as a nominalisation, but a strongly lexicalised one. In Hellquist’s (1922: 55) etymological Swedish dictionary, it is found that *bonde* is derived from the Old Swedish word for *bo* (“live”/“reside”). Slight variation from the source structure of the NP is also accepted. This is for example found in the use of a -s genitive in Swedish where an of-construction is used in the ST, exemplified in (42):

(42) The old economy was transformed under the pressure of the sheep empire. Det gamla samhällssystemet förvandlades under trycket från fårimperiet.

- **Nominal paraphrase**: Non-congruent translations where the head of the phrase is still a noun/nominalisation, but the structure of the surrounding elements is not the same. Note that in (43), the nominal paraphrase refers to the translation of *grazing*, not *expansion*, which is translated with a verb.

(43) During the expansion of cattle grazing there were cases of clearance. Även när man expanderade betesmarkerna för nötkreatur förekom det vräkningar.

- **Main clause**: Unlike the categorisation of non-finite clause as laid out in 3.1, this category also covers coordinated main clauses were the subject is omitted in the second conjunct.

(44) At Monymusk the growth of capitalist farming was accompanied by the displacement of small tenants but also I Monymusk förflyttade man småarrendatörer och utvidgade odlingsområdena allt eftersom kapitalistjordbruket växte.
by an extension of the area under cultivation.

- **Subordinate clause:** dependent clauses headed by subordinate conjunctions and relative pronouns. Thus both adverbials and complement clauses are included. Note that Swedish “att”, which is most often associated with its function as an infinitive marker, in this category functions as a subordinator/complementiser; the verb following att in subordinate clauses is finite, whereas it is non-finite in the infinitive.

  (45) *During the expansion of cattle grazing* there were cases of clearance. *Även när man expanderade betesmarkerna för nötkreatur förekom det vräkningar.*

  (46) The ultimate victory of the sheep required *the displacement of much of the existing cattle economy* […] *För färens slutgiltiga seger krävdes det att man ersatte en stor del av den existerande boskapsuppfödningen.*

- **Infinitive clause:** clause beginning with infinitive marker *att*, often following a preposition.

  (47) In this instance however the landlord was hesitant about *the wholesale conversion to sheep* […] *Men här var godsägaren tveksam till att gå över till får helt och hållet […]*

Apart from the two main realisation types and their subcategories, there is also an ‘Other category’. This subsumes four minor strategies. The translation correspondences in these categories are part of larger phrases and clauses. However, since it is the translation of the ST nominalisation which determines the category, they have been ascribed categories of their own, namely: rephrased, omission, adjective phrase and adverb phrase.

- **Rephrased:** the core meaning of the nominalisation has been kept in the translation, but the syntactic and lexical form of it has been altered more than by denominalisation. In the TT in (48), the meaning denoted by the nominalisation *fluidity* is neither expressed by a nominalisation (such as *flexibiliteten*/*the flexibility*) nor an adjective from which a nominalisation can be derived from (*flexibel*/*flexible*). Yet, the notion of shift is kept but phrased very differently.

  (48) The return of estates forfeited after Culloden to their original owners in the 1780s added to *the increasing fluidity of landownership at this time.* *Att de egendomar som förverkats efter Culloden återlämnades till sina ursprungliga ägare under 1780-talet*
Omission: no lexical correspondent to the nominalisation is present in the translation at all, as that to adjustment in (49).

(49) It was clearly part of the endless interregional adjustment of specialisation in British agriculture.  
Den var uppenbarligen en del av den interregionala specialiseringen inom det brittiska jordbruket.

Adjective phrase: transposition type P_x→P_y, as defined by Eriksson (1997). One type of phrase substitutes another. Although part of other phrases and clauses, the meaning denoted by the ST nominalisation is transposed into an AdjP.

(50) The success of the great sheep farmers indicates also the severity of the competition […]  
De stora fårböndernas framgång visar också hur hård konkurrensen var […]

Adverb phrase: the ST nominalisation is transposed into an adverb phrase, AdvP, and the transposition type P_x→P_y occurs.

(51) The most obvious difference […] was the rapidity and lateness of the changes in the extreme north.  
Den mest uppenbara skillnaden […] var att förändringarna i de nordligaste delarna skedde snabbt men sent.

As seen in examples (50) and (51), adjective and adverb phrases are typically used when the nominalisations stem from adjectives but, as evident table 4, presented in the following section, 3.4, these strategies are not very frequent in the ST.

3.4 Quantitative overviews and qualitative discussions of translation choices for nominalisations

This section of the analysis is divided into four subsections. In 3.4.1, quantitative overviews of the nominalisations based on their origin and translation correspondences are provided, as well as a comparison of these frequencies with those of Nordrum’s (2007). In 3.4.2–3.4.4, this is followed by a qualitative analysis divided according to the superordinate strategy categories presented in 3.3.
3.4.1 Quantitative overviews of nominalisation origins and translation strategies for nominalisations

To identify all nominalisations in the source text, individual searches were made for the singular and plural forms of each nominalisation suffix presented in table 1 in 2.1.2. Two of the suffixes, -dom and -hood, both suffixed to adjectives, rendered no results. Figure 1 illustrates the number of relevant tokens that were found based on the origin of the nominalisation. To ensure verbal or adjectival origin, the Oxford English Dictionary was consulted.

![Figure 1. Nominalisation origin.](image)

As shown in figure 1, there were only 45 nominalisations in the source text that had been derived from adjectives. Nominalisations with verbal origins, on the other hand, were numerous and a total of 281 of these were found. Thus, in contrast to the very limited number of non-finite supplementive clauses, nominalisations are very common in the material; a total of 328 lexical nominalisations were examined, which is shown in table 4. Before discussing the results further, however, it should be noted that the majority of lexical nominalisations present in the ST are neither products of English nor recent nominalisation processes. Instead, they are borrowings from French and Latin originally. Because most of these nominalisations have corresponding verbs and adjectives in English, they have been included in the analysis (cf. occupant – occupy from Latin occupāns – occupāre (OED 2019)). However, there are a couple of exceptions; some nominalisations have been excluded due to them being so strongly lexicalised in the English language that their verbal/adjectival origin have been lost. These include words such as tenure (from Latin tenēre “to hold” (OED online 2019)) and condition (from Lating condicēre “agree upon together” (ibid.)). Since it is very difficult to assess the degree of lexicalisation otherwise, all nominalisations that have corresponding adjectives/verbs in English are included.
Presented in table 4 are the raw numbers and normalised frequencies of the different translation correspondences introduced in 3.3. It shows that most frequent correspondence category is the NP, subsuming both congruent and paraphrased noun phrases. Approximately two thirds of all translation correspondences, 66.5%, are placed within this category. It can further be seen in table 4 that clausal translations represent 20.1% and that the Other category is used slightly less frequently – in 13.4% of all instances.

Table 4. Swedish translation correspondences for English lexical nominalisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translation correspondence</th>
<th>Raw number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NP</strong></td>
<td>218</td>
<td>66.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>congruent</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nominal paraphrase</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Clause</strong></td>
<td>66</td>
<td>20.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>main</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subordinate</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>11.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>infinitive</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other</strong></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rephrased</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>omission</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AdjP</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AdvP</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>328</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The congruent NPs are the most frequent of the individual correspondence categories, with 37.5%. These are followed by nominal paraphrases, with 29%, and subordinate clauses, with 11.3%. The least frequent strategies are adjective and adverb phrases, representing 2.1% and 1.8%. As regards clausal translations, the results are almost identical to those Nordrum (2007). Table 4 shows that the clause category represents 20.1% of the present translations. Similarly, Nordrum’s (ibid.) clausal translations constitute approximately a fifth (20%) of her 589
translated lexical nominalisations. Yet, in contrast to Nordrum (ibid.), this paper does not argue that such frequencies promote verbal preference in Swedish; in comparison with the 66.5% of the NP category, it is evident that verbs are not preferred over nominalisations and ordinary nouns. Nonetheless, it is the standpoint of this paper that, even though the NP category is prevalent, the 18.9% clausal translations still indicate a slight shift towards verbal preference in Swedish, or, at least, that the nominal preference is not as strong as in English.

The present results can be further compared with those of Nordrum (2007) in terms of congruency. In this aspect, the results differ from each other to larger extent. Figure 2 illustrates the frequencies of the congruent and non-congruent translations in the present material.

![Figure 2. Translations of nominalisation structures.](image)

Since all but the congruent NP correspondences involve structural change (paraphrasing, transposition as defined by Eriksson (1997), or omission), 8 correspondence categories are non-congruent. If the frequencies of these are combined and set against that of the single congruent strategy, it is clear that the non-congruent correspondences are the most frequent by far, representing a total of 62.5%. In contrast, in all but one of Nordrum’s (2007) nominalisation categories, congruent translations are the most common, if only marginally. For instance, in her category of intransitive nominalisations (e.g. *existence*), 54% of the translations are congruent. Nordrum’s (ibid.) ergative nominalisation category (nominalisations derived from verbs that can be both transitive and intransitive such as *circulate*), is the only one in which non-congruent translations are more frequent, representing 72% (60 tokens in total). Since the present study does not differentiate as meticulously between the differences structures of the nominalisations as Nordrum does, it is difficult to compare the results further. It can however be noted that non-congruent correspondences are utilised more readily in the present TT. Yet, as shown by
Nordrum (2007), the grammatical function and syntax of the nominalisation undoubtedly affect the translations as well. This is also shown in the following three subsections, 3.4.2–3.4.4, where discussions about some of the translation choices made in the TT are given.

3.4.2 Noun phrase correspondences
As shown in table 4, nominal correspondences are undoubtedly favoured over the other strategies in the TT. Figure 2 further illustrates the extent to which the NP translations succeeds the other the clausal and Other categories.

As clearly visible in figure 2, the NP category is far more frequent than the other two superordinate categories. NPs are used more than three times as often as clauses and they are almost five times as frequent as the Other category. There are multiple reasons to why noun phrases are so common. To begin with, if a nominalisation that occurs multiple times in the ST is translated with a NP once, chances are that it will also be translated similarly next time it appears (depending on the structure of the NP in the ST). For example, one of the most frequent nominalisations in the material is clearance(-s). This nominalisation, derived from the verb clear, is often translated with a NP, as exemplified in (52):

(52) This was the engine of growth in the Highlands, the driving force behind the Clearances. Det var det här som drev tillväxten och således också fördrivningarna i högländerna.

The concept of nominalisations as grammatical metaphors as argued by Halliday (2004) embraces the idea of information connected with the verbal act/adjective the nominalisation refers to being condensed and made implicit. Ingo (2007: 127) emphasises that a translator of an informative text, such as the present one, should strive for clarity and preciseness, which can
be considered the opposite of the implicit vagueness found in nominalisations. In the translation of such structures it could thus appropriate to apply denominalisation and explicate the implicit information. However, in metaphors such as clearance in (52), there is an enormous amount of important information compressed in the umbrella term and to cover all of this information in a normally lengthened VP was deemed very difficult. Hence, even though there is no set term for these particular events in Swedish, to translate clearance with a similar nominalisation and maintaining the implicitness of the ST was often considered appropriate. Most often, the NP clearances was translated to vräkningar (“evictions”), tvångsförflyttningar (“displacements”) or fördrivningar (“expulsions”), as in the non-congruent translation in (52).

Similar to some of the translation choices for the supplementive clauses, another affecting factor to why NPs are so commonly used in the TT is the length of many of the sentences. In the majority of clausal and Other strategies, the transposition process also entails sentence lengthening. Hence, when not wanting to lengthen the sentences any further, a NP was opted for, as exemplified in (53):

(53) Opposition to enclosure in Scotland, as in England, was slight. 

It was considered suitable to keep sentences such as (53) as short as possible since they are rarely found in the text. They counteract the many long sentences, making the text more easily read. A shorter congruent translation was therefore chosen in (53) instead of a longer construction, such as the more verbal man gjorde endast lite motstånd till inhägnaderna (“people only opposed the enclosures a little”). Yet, despite such efforts, the translation still featured 926 more characters than the ST, confirming Chesterman’s (2004) proposed universal of longer TTs.

Another possible reason to the high frequency of NPs is the experience, or rather inexperience, of the translator. The text being translated of someone new to the field, there is likely a higher chance of ST interference in the translation. Plausibly, the NP frequency would decline if the text were to be retranslated by a more experienced translator. Moreover, the genre of the text also affects the number of nouns and nominalisations used. As discussed in 2.2, the academic style of the text allows for a higher NP frequency than in fiction, for example.

However, even if NPs in general are the preferred correspondence category to nominalisations in the TT, it is important to distinguish between those that are transferred congruently and those that are not. As shown in table 4, 37.5% of all translations are congruent NPs, i.e. the target noun is situated in a structure very similar to the ST. In 29% of the
translations, on the other hand, non-congruent nominal paraphrases are used; the target structures of the NP differing from the ST. Example (54) illustrates both a congruent correspondence (to *resistance*) and two non-congruent NP correspondences (to *anti-enclosure* and *disturbances*):

(54) *The anti-enclosure disturbances in Galloway in the 1720s were the only recorded case of actual resistance* [...]  
*Oroligheterna som orsakats av inhägnadsmotståndet i Galloway på 1720-talet var det enda dokumenterade fallet av faktiskt motstånd* [...]  

The first italicised NP in the ST in (54) contains two nominalisations, *enclosure* and *disturbances*, the former functioning as a premodifier to the latter, which also heads the phrase. The exact relationship between the two nominalisations, however, is not stated. In the TT, the ST premodifier is instead moved to postmodifying relative clause. The structural change is necessary (but not grammatically obligatory) because a nominal premodifier in Swedish would have to be compounded with the head, resulting in a very long and complex noun – *inhägnadsmotståndsoroligheterna*. By adding a relative clause with the verb *orsakats*, the TT is also made more explicit than the ST since the relationship between the two nominalisations is clarified. The function of the nominalisation in the second NP in the ST is different. *Resistance* functions as a prepositional complement in a postmodifying PP and it is only premodified by a single adjective, *actual*. Compared to the first NP, this structure is easier to translate directly since there are not as many constituents in the NP. In Nordrum’s (2007: 209) analysis of adjective + nominalisation structures, 71.4% were translated congruently in Swedish. Nordrum (ibid.) argues that the presence of a premodifying adjective does not increase the chance of a clausal translation because the adjective does not correspond to an individual argument of the verb, such as the object. In Nordrum’s (2007) results, clauses are more common when a nominalisation is modified by phrases that function as verbal arguments. This is also confirmed in the clausal translations of the present study, which is discussed in the following section 3.4.3.

3.4.3 Clausal correspondences  
As exhibited in table 4, clausal correspondences are only used in 20.1% of the all translations, which is an unexpectedly low frequency given the suggested verbal preference in Swedish (cf. discussion of nominal and verbal preferences in English and Swedish in 2.2.2). A possible explanation to clausal correspondences not being more common is that they are mainly used when translating nominalisations with overt objects, such as *the wintering of sheep stock*. In the
material, such nominalisations are less frequent than nominalisations without/with a more restricted number of modifiers that functions as argument of verbs. Most typically, the object is found in a postmodifying PP, as in the heavily modified NP in (55):

(55) After 1815, when wool prices slumped, the economic desirability of further expansion of the sheep economy became less obvious.

In (55), there are two nominalisations in the ST subject, desirability and expansion. Both are part of the same, very long, NP in which desirability is the head and expansion is the object which is desired. Desirability head is both pre- and postmodified, and so is expansion, which is the head of another NP functioning as a prepositional complement. In this NP, it is the sheep economy that is the object of the verb expand. To begin with, a literal and congruent translation of this segment was deemed highly unidiomatic. The closest semantic and lexical equivalent to desirability in Swedish is önskvärdhet, but a search in the Swedish parallel corpus KORP shows that, with 31 tokens, it is very infrequently used. In contrast, there were 3,920 examples of the adjective önskvärd, from which the Swedish nominalisation is derived. Yet, it is difficult to use this AdjP because of the postmodification in the ST. Instead, a subordinate clause with verbal correspondences to the nominalisations was opted for, as it was an option which allowed all aspects of the ST to be covered by the use of idiomatic and frequent words (cf. 20,308 and 5,171 hits in KORP for önskade and expandera). The clausal translation in (55) is further motivated by Nordrum’s (2007: 114) analysis of nominalisation + of + NP structures, in which she concludes that the most frequent non-congruent translation correspondence is clauses. Example (55) alone illustrates several of the factors that Nordrum (2007: 216) lists as increasing the chance of clausal translations: there are many adnominal (i.e. modifying) elements, the NP is the subject of a clause, and as concerns expansion, it has a postmodifying function and it follows (after the premodifier further) a preposition. Those are four out of Nordrum’s (ibid.) five factors motivating transposition P→C (from a NP to a clause).

Moreover, it can also be gathered from the TT correspondences that the transposition involved in the translation of nominalisations induces explicitation. In contrast to Nordrum (2007), it is the standpoint of this study that explicitation occurs as a result of structural change, not as a translation-inherent quality causing change. The most obvious explicitation when translating nominalisations is found in the clausal translations. Moving towards the clausal node of the clausal-nominal continuum (cf. Lehmann (1988)), features such as tense and subject are explicated. This is exemplified in (56) where denominalisation has
occurred and two coordinated main clauses are used. In particular, the subject added in the TT (underlined) makes the TT sentence more explicit:

(56) Larger farms were carved out for fewer tenants and there was _regular dispossession and eviction._

Större gårdar mejslades ut åt ett färre antal arrendatorer och _boende i_ området vräktes och _fördrevs_ regelbundet.

When translating (56), it has been gathered from the condensed nominalisations in the ST who have undergone the dispossession and eviction, namely those living in the area where larger farms were carved out. This information is then made explicit in the TT in the form of a postmodified NP. Initially, an alternative translation option to this NP, _folk_ (“people”/“folk”), was considered but it was eventually dismissed as too informal. In the discussion of (56), it should also be noted that the grammatical subject in the TT in (56) is in fact the object of the verbal act, since it is a passive construction. A passive was chosen because that is the structure of the initial VP in both the ST and TT. Since the clausal translation in (56) is optional, so is the explicitation that occurs.

The least frequent clausal correspondence is the non-finite infinitive clause (representing 3.9%), exemplified in (57):

(57) Sinclair […] hoped for _even further advances from the introduction of the Merino breed into the Highlands._

_Genom att introducera Merinofår i högländerna hoppades han istället på att man skulle göra ännu större framsteg._

In the ST in (57) the nominalisation _introduction_ is part of the complement of the verb _hope_. Within the NP, it follows a preposition heading a postmodifier, which are factors Nordrum (2007: 118) argues that increase the chance of clausal translations. In the TT, only the correspondence of the NP head, _even further advances_, has been rendered as the complement of the verb (although as a clause), while ST postmodifier is turned into a non-finite clausal adverbial in initial position. A finite translation such as the main clause _istället introducerade han ... och hoppades på ..._ was considered less coherent than the NP found in the ST and was thus dismissed. A congruent translation was also rejected since it the modification would result in a very long and heavy NP, something which Nordrum (ibid.) suggest might be less tolerated in Swedish than in English.

To summarise, clausal translations are typically used when the ST nominalisation occurs in a heavily modified NP. Despite nominal correspondences being more frequent in the TT in general, it can thus be suggested that verbal preference is found in Swedish. However, it
is restricted to the translations of heavily modified nominalisations only and cannot be regarded as a general tendency. That the complexity of the NP induces structural change is further evident in the discussion of the “Other” correspondence category, presented in 3.4.4.

3.4.4 Other correspondences

The Other correspondence category is the least frequent of the superordinate translation categories. Representing 13.4% of all translations, it covers heavily rephrased structures, omitted nominalisations, and AdjP and AdvP correspondences. As seen in table 4, AdjPs and AdvPs are the two least frequent translation correspondences. These two strategies are most often used in the translation of nominalisations derived from adjectives, as exemplified in (58) and (59):

(58) Moreover the Ayrshire man spread his knowledge ‘of the wonderful cheapness of lands in the Highlands when stocked with sheep’ [...] Mannen från Ayrshire spred dessutom sin kunskap ”om hur otroligt billigt det var med mark i högländerna när man fyllde dem med får” [...]

(59) [...] the public conscience was becoming more responsive to allegations of inequity and cruelty. [...] man började reagera alltmer om folk behandlades orättvist och grymt.

Adjectival origin was established for 5 of the 7 nominalisations translated to AdjPs and for 6 of the 7 nominalisations translated to AdvPs. Plausibly, the low frequencies of these strategies can be correlated to the low occurrence of nominalisations with adjectival origin in the material, as previously illustrated in figure 1. Despite congruent translations in (58) and (59) being grammatically possible in Swedish, literally translated phrases such as anklagelser om orättvia och grymhst cannot be considered idiomatic and are therefore avoided.

Likewise, the choice of a rephrased structure illustrated in (60) is affected by the absence of idiomaticity in a literal correspondence:

(60) The sheep clearances were a northern extension of the shift long occurring in the south. I söder hade det länge pågått en förändring av jordbruket och det var när denna förändring sprreds norrut som vräkningarna i högländerna började.

Example (60) could have been classified as a clausal translation since the core meaning of the nominalisation extension is expressed with the verb spreads (“was spread”) in the TT. However, since both the form and function of the pre- and postmodifiers in the ST NP have been radically
changed, the rephrased category was rendered the most appropriate. In the ST, the italicised NP functions as a subject predicative, describing another nominalization (the sheep clearances). A more literal translation of this structure would result in the very awkward tvångsförflyttningarna var ett nordligt utvidgande av den förändring som ... and is therefore avoided. Because the object of the extension, shift, is abstract as well it is also difficult to simply transfer the information to a main clause as in other examples with a nominalisation + of + NP structure (cf. discussion of example (55) in 3.4.3).

Extensive modification is also one of the factors inducing omission. In example (61) (previously presented as (49)), there is no equivalent to the NP head, adjustment, in the TT:

(61) It was clearly part of the endless inter-regional adjustment of specialisation in British agriculture. Den var uppenbarligen en del av den ständiga, interregionala specialiseringen inom det brittiska jordbruket.

That adjustment has been omitted in the translation is mainly due to the nominalisation present in its postmodifier, specialisation. In this context, the two can be seen near-synonyms, expressing very similar meanings; an adjustment of specialisation is only further specialisation. As a result of this interpretation, one of these nominalisations was considered sufficient in the TT. In the other twelve instances of omission in the TT, nominalisations have also been omitted in the TT if they were deemed redundant in the ST, their meanings being expressed more than once in the phrase. Similarly, Nordrum (2007: 99f.) argues that omissions of s-genitives are explained by co-reference.

In summary, despite congruent NPs being most frequent among the individual correspondence categories, the non-congruent categories are in majority when their frequencies are added together. The use of clausal and other translation correspondences is affected by the structure and function of the nominalisation NP in the ST, as well as Swedish preferences. Similar to these observations, non-congruent translations were also favoured (exclusively) in the translation of non-finite supplementative clauses. Hence, it can be concluded that structural change is more common than structural congruency when translating condensed structures in the present material. The change is either obligatory or optionally induced and, in many instances, result in the TT being more explicit than the ST, confirming the translation universal of explicitation as suggested by Chesterman (2004: 40).
4. Conclusion

The aim of this paper was to investigate how syntactically compressed structures in an English non-fiction text were translated to Swedish. The study covered nominalisations and non-finite supplementive ing- and ed-clauses and the following two research questions were used as the base of the analysis:

1. What Swedish target text correspondences are used in the translation of English non-finite clauses and to what extent? Is there any major divergence between the translation strategies used for ing-clauses in comparison to ed-clauses?
2. What Swedish target text correspondences are used in the translation of English nominalisations and to what extent? What are the possible reasons to a strategy being used more frequently than another?

As the results above have shown, there are several ways in which structurally condensed features are translated in the material. Both congruent and non-congruent correspondences are used in the TT. As congruent translations are as condensed as the ST structures, they are equally implicit. Non-congruent translations, on the other hand, might involve explicitation; the structure is expanded, and the implicit information is explicated. In order to do the latter, however, the translator first needs to decode what is meant by the author of the ST. This was done in all instances of the ing- and ed-clauses. There was no major divergence between the strategies used for these clauses. For both types, the target correspondents involved non-congruent transposal shifts to a TT main clause, a subordinate clause, a coordinated clause or, for ing-clauses, a prepositional phrase. These results deviate from those of previous studies. Of the four translation strategies used for non-finite clauses, all resulted in explicitation to some extent, either obligatory or optional, depending on the type of clause.

Contrarily, for nominalisations, structural change and explicitation were not as readily opted for as in the translation of the non-finite clauses. Despite the congruent NP category being less frequent than the combined non-congruent strategies (i.e. clauses, nominal paraphrases, and Other) it was still used in 37.5% of all translations. Together with the nominal paraphrases, the superordinate NP category was undoubtedly the most common. Hence, the results confirm both hypotheses presented initially in this paper: while many nominalisations are still present in the TT it can also be considered more explicit the ST. Partly because of the explicitness and partly because other translation choices, the translation process resulted in a longer TT, thus confirming two of Chesterman’s (2004) proposed translation universals.
Although clausal translations were not as frequent in the results as could be expected with regard to the proposed verbal preference in Swedish, the results still modestly indicate that, in comparison with English at least, Swedish tend to be slightly more prone to use clause, even though the term verbal preference as a general tendency is considered carrying too much weight and being misleading.

Nevertheless, apart from language tendencies and translator preferences, the results show that multiple contextual factors can affect the translation: besides other translation choices, the function, style and characteristics of the text may also influence what strategies to use. Furthermore, the more immediate complexity of the context surrounding the feature also influences the translation, as seen in the translations of nominalisations within long NPs.

Since the amount of data in this study, particularly concerning the non-finite supplementive clauses, was very limited, the results of this analysis ought not to be used as any statistical evidence. Instead, the observations made in this paper should only be regarded as possible translation tendencies. Therefore, it would be highly relevant to extend the material and data selection for future research to see if the tendencies observed in the present results are confirmed. Since this study shows that structural change tends to result in explicitation, it is suggested that this topic is elaborated on in further studies, as it evidently is an important aspect within the field of translation. Extended studies could also include other structure-condensing features, such as verbless clauses and passive constructions. Nonetheless, even if the results of the present analysis are restricted, they confirm that the process of translation involves more than only expressing in the TT what is being expressed in the ST; translation is a process in which all aspects of the ST – explicit and implicit – must be considered.
List of References

Primary source

Online sources

Secondary sources


