Translating a cookbook

What happens to non-finite clauses when translating into Swedish?

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Abstract

This paper focuses on English non-finite clauses and their equivalences in a Swedish translation. The aim of the paper is to analyze non-finite clauses in an English cookbook and the methods that can be used for translating them into Swedish. Based on a theoretical background provided mainly by Huddleston and Pullum (2002) and Svartvik and Sager (1996), the non-finite clauses in the source text were identified and categorized according to which one of the three non-finite verb forms they were based on; infinitives, gerund-participles, or past-participles. They were then analyzed from a qualitative perspective in the analysis section, where various examples were discussed.

The result shows that the need to restructure the sentences in the translation depends largely on the verb form in the source text. Infinitivals can often be translated directly, retaining the infinitival structure, whereas gerund-participials rarely remain gerund-participials in the translation. When the translation is not a non-finite clause, by necessity or for other reasons, it is commonly translated to a finite clause. When making a non-finite clause finite, it is often necessary to add a subject that has been implicit in the source text. This, however, seldom poses any difficulties.

Key words

Non-finite clauses, infinitival, gerund-participial, past-participial, linguistics, translation, minilect
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1 Introduction

The first Swedish cookbooks were published in the 17th century (Rogström 2000: 1) and the number of publications per year has increased ever since. The interest for cookbooks and cooking has never been as widespread as today. Many of the approximately 400 cookbooks published in Sweden every year were originally written in English and have been translated for the Swedish audience.

When translating cookbooks between English and Swedish, one will sooner or later come across phrases like ‘How to bake a delicious bread’ and ‘getting started’. These non-finite clauses are grammatical features that are a common part of the English language. They do not, however, always have an apparent correspondent in Swedish, due to syntactic differences between the languages. Non-finite clauses thus pose a challenge for the translator since she needs to structure the target text differently to get grammatically correct sentences.

Cookbooks partly belong to a minilect, which denotes a text type with certain specific features, where short sentences and sentence fragments, like the ones above, are accepted and sometimes even frequent (see section 2.2). This makes them a suitable base for this study of non-finite clauses, where I will examine how the different non-finite clauses are used and how they are translated into Swedish.

1.1 Aim

The purpose of this paper is to examine how non-finite clauses in an English cookbook excerpt are translated into Swedish. I will attempt to find out in what ways English non-finite clauses can be translated into Swedish, and whether there are any patterns as to how they are usually translated. Are they mostly translated directly to Swedish non-finite clauses when that is possible? I will also analyze the target text to find out whether the translation of the non-finite clauses in any way affects the meaning of the text, regarding how the reader is addressed.
1.2 Material

The source language text for the current study is the American cookbook *Whole Grain Baking* (2006). Excerpts from four parts of the book have been translated in order to get a variation of texts on the same topic. The goal of the selection process was to select text excerpts that constitute a variation of communication functions and contents, in order to avoid translating the same type of recipes several times. With this in mind, excerpts from different chapters were selected, which ensured the maximum variety within a very limited number of excerpts. Within the chapters, texts that covered exactly one or several full pages were selected and translated.

The four excerpts are:

- the introduction text for the entire cookbook – general text about baking and how to use the book, a factbox about ingredients
- the introduction along with two recipes from the quick bread section
- one recipe plus fact pages from the whole wheat levain section – an extended recipe with extra information, several pictures with captions, factbox about kneading, with pictures and captions
- the introduction and two recipes from the doughnut section – introduction, recipes and factbox about frying

The style of the source text is rather familiar and informal and the authors use a conversational tone. This is indicated in several ways. On the semantic level we see word choices like *ok, bad rap, fine,* and “*but what about the kids?*”. On the syntactic level the authors, for example, omit the subject of the sentence: *Turns out, that was pretty easy.*

The parts of the source text that consist of actual recipes are sections that show features typical for the cookbook minilect, described in section 2.2.2. This is a standard way of writing recipes, with a stereotypical structure on macro as well as micro level, where the form is known and the writer may omit shared and evident information (Nordman 1994: 38). The sections that are not actual recipes, on the other hand, show less or no signs at
all of being a minilect. Here, the form is flexible and not at all stereotype, and the syntax is fully developed, having only complete sentences, even in the captions.

The communicative function of the source text is mainly instructive, but to a rather great extent, it is also informative. It gives its reader, the American homebaker, a vast collection of recipes along with baking-related information, and it is set in a cultural context that is well known to the reader – the cultural backdrop of the book is shared knowledge between the authors and the reader. The shared cultural context, in which the cookbook is set, is visible mainly in the introductions of chapters and separate recipes, but also in ingredient lists and choice of recipes. The authors take for granted that the reader is familiar with concepts and goods such as Zeppole stands, tailgate parties, Thompson raisins and lemon-poppy seed bread.

Therefore, for the intended Swedish target text reader, the reading experience is different from that of the source text reader. The target text reader is provided with recipes as well, but additionally she is provided with cultural information on a country that is not necessarily familiar to her. Thus, she receives the new information, that is, the recipes, in a somewhat unknown context. The intended target text reader is a Swedish homebaker who is interested in baking healthy foods, in particular American ones. It is intended to be read in Sweden, which has affected some of the choices made in the translation. For example, the target text does not mention two types of dry yeast, since only one is available in Sweden, and the description of doughnuts, which is not a typical baked goods in Sweden, but more so in the USA, required some minor changes. Both the source and the target text reader are most likely interested and somewhat experienced bakers, which can be concluded from the fact that their preferred cookbook is not a general cookbook or even a general cookbook for baking, but a book specialized in baking with whole grain.

The cookbook does not require extensive previous knowledge, as there are sections in the book that thoroughly explain the processes and methods used. It introduces the reader to the world of baking and gives further explanations along the way. The authors talk directly to the reader to make her feel included. They say, for example, “We set out to make whole grains taste great, in the firm belief that if they don’t, you and your family won’t […]” (Whole Grain Baking 2006: IX). They admit that they too make
mistakes, with which they show they are one of us, and thus create a relationship between themselves and the reader (Fischer 2013). The authors want to maintain an equal relationship to the readers and do not want to scare them away with technical words.

1.3 Method

For a study of this size, an entirely quantitative approach would not be rewarding, since the data on which the study is based is too small to allow for any broad generalizations to be made. The analysis will therefore be realized with a combination of a quantitative and a qualitative approach.

Before the translation took place, the source text was analyzed to determine aspects like style, target group and level of formality. Thereafter, the target group for the translated text was identified and the need of adaptation of cultural aspects was analyzed. Since the text is mainly operative (see section 2.1), it is vital for the target text reader that the message of the text is well conveyed. Consequently, it is essential that the translation puts the needs of the target readers first, even though loyalty to the source text is desirable and is maintained whenever possible.

After having read parallel texts to examine if there are terms, and standardized methods and ways of translating certain aspects, the source text was translated. This was accomplished with the help of translation tools like dictionaries, thesauruses and parallel texts.

The introductory parts of the chapters and recipes are not instructive, but rather descriptive. It is thus possible in these parts to adopt a more idiomatic strategy than in the actual recipes, without losing any critical content.

Several definitions of non-finite clauses were studied, before the definition used by Huddleston and Pullum (2002) was finally adopted. According to Huddleston and Pullum, non-finite clauses are clauses whose verb is a gerund-participle or a past participle, but also clauses whose verb is in the plain form without being an imperative or a subjunctive. How these clauses are distinguished from clauses with verb-based
words acting as adjectives or nouns will be discussed more in detail in the theory section (2.3).

The source text was thoroughly gone through in search of all occurrences of non-finite clauses that matched the definition. Once that was accomplished and the occurrences categorized according to form-type, the translation of each example was examined and the occurrences categorized once more, this time according to the way they were translated (section 3.2). This collection of non-finite clauses constitutes the material that the current analysis is based on.

2 Theory

In this section, previous studies and theories that are relevant for the purpose of the study will be presented. The theory section will be commenced with a look at the general translation strategy used in the current translation (section 2.1). Next, a closer look will be taken at the genre of the primary source, which partly, because of its highly specific composition, might be called a minilect (section 2.2.1). In section 2.2.2, the specific minilect of cookbooks will be presented. Then, in section 2.3, focus will turn to the main topic of this study, namely that of non-finite clauses. Here the definition of the non-finite clause and its various realizatons will be presented. Next, we will move on to the means of translating non-finite clauses into Swedish. Finally, some attention will be given to how the translation of non-finite clauses may affect the meaning of the target text.

2.1 Translation strategies

Reiss (1977/1989: 113-114) states that communication is achieved on the text level, rather than on the level of words and sentences, and consequently the text level is where the translator should seek equivalence between source text and target text. She argues that: “the transmission of the predominant function of the ST is the determining factor by which the TT is judged” (quoted in Munday 2012: 114\(^1\)).

\(^1\) The quote in Munday (2012) is not to be found in Reiss 1977/1989: 109.
She categorizes text types according to their primary functions and describes three functions of texts (1989: 108-109): the informative function, which is descriptive and deals with communication of facts, and where the topic itself is in the foreground of the communicative intention; the expressive function, which is creative and keeps the sender of the text in the foreground; and the operative function whose purpose is to induce behavioral responses from the reader, and thus has the reader in the foreground. These may be presented as a triangle with each corner representing one main category and all other varieties placed in between (figure 1). The source text for the current study would not be possible to place in one single place in the triangle, since the text is composed of different text types. The actual recipes would be placed towards the operative corner, whereas the remaining text would be closer to the informative corner.

![Text types and text varieties](image)

Figure 1: Text types and text varieties (Reiss 1989: 105)

In order to obtain a functionally equivalent translation, Reiss argues that a clarification of the functions of the source text is necessary (2000: 162). Reiss prefers to do this from the largest unit of the text to the smallest. The first step is to establish which of the three text types the text belongs to, accepting that there might mixed forms (ibid. 163–164). Next is the establishment of text variety, for example poems and operating instructions, and finally comes the establishment of style of the actual text. Reiss argues that “the text type determines the general method of translating [and] the variety demands consideration for language and text structure conventions.” (ibid. 166). She states that if the purpose of the source language text is to convey contents, these should also be conveyed in the target language text (ibid. 167). The invariability of the content should be secured by translating the source text according to sense and meaning. It may
therefore be necessary to explicate contents in the target language text that are conveyed implicitly in the source language text.

Since, according to Reiss, communication is achieved on text level, it is vital for the translator to establish what text type she is dealing with. Once that is done, the text variety and finally the style should be determined. The reason for this procedure is to determine the preferred method of translating for the text in question. In section 2.2, the subgenre called minilect will be presented. Familiarity with this subgenre further deepens the translator’s understanding of the text.

2.2 Minilects

Within text genres there are sometimes subsystems with their own specific forms and structures. If these subsystems, or sublanguages, fulfill certain criteria they fall into a category that Nordman (1994: 29) calls minilects. In section 2.2.1 we will take a closer look at the minilect and its characteristics.

2.2.1 What is a minilect?

A minilect is, according to Nordman, a highly specified part of a language, that is used by a limited group of specialists, or connected to a very limited domain. Language is often divided into general or technical language. Nordman, however, points out that this division is “not undisputed” (1994: 28), since there are areas that fall into both categories. She points out that minilects are usually, but not necessarily, part of a technical language, that is, a technolect (ibid. 23). Minilects are sometimes referred to as a sublanguage, but since that term is not as well defined as minilect (demonstrated by Nordman 1994: 17), the term minilect will be used in this paper.

According to Nordman (1994: 37–38), minilect texts are mostly short and more concise than other texts, and are always characterized by stereotypy. Thanks to its simple structure and standardized language, they are often less ambiguous than texts in general, even though they sometimes lack parts of the language that are normally obligatory (ibid. 40). Minilects always have a higher precision level than general language and the sender of a minilect is always some kind of expert. If both sender and receiver are experts, the minilect is part of a technical language, if not it might belong to the general language (ibid. 29).
Nordman states that a minilect is characterized by a conventionalized pattern, with an established structure, both on macro- and micro-level (1994: 37). The text structure is strict and schematic and the sentences are short and have a simple structure, with a limited number of subordinate clauses. Minilects have a very restricted vocabulary, due to the limited area they cover. They are semantically restricted and use conventionalized terms that the users are required to be familiar with (ibid. 37).

The minilect language often has a telegraphic style, with incomplete phrases and fragmentary sentences (Nordman 1994: 40). For example, essential parts of the sentence like the subject or the predicate may be left out. Sometimes the grammar is so stereotype that it might be regarded as ungrammatical (ibid. 40), which can be exemplified by cases with transitive verbs where the object has been left out – the so-called ‘object drop’. The syntax may also be based on phrases instead of full sentences. The highly formalized syntax of a minilect leaves little room for misunderstandings, which allows for fewer connective elements than is usually possible in writing (ibid. 37). Another characteristic of minilects is the extensive use of certain verb forms, like imperatives (ibid. 41).

In short, the minilect is characterized by:
- Stereotypy
- Few connectives
- Limited vocabulary
- Standardized syntax

### 2.2.2 The minilect of cookbooks

The food recipe has all the distinctive features mentioned in section 2.2.1 and may thus be categorized as a minilect. According to Nordman (1994: 53) the food recipe is a minilect that is classified as technical language, although ranging close to general language. Even though recipes are composed by specialists, the receiving group is large and vastly heterogeneous. This means that in spite of its terminology and special organization, the language of recipes is still considered close to, or even within the boundaries of general language.
Typical features of the cookbook minilect include:
- A highly specific macrostructure (see figure 2)
- Imperative clauses
- Sentence fragments
- Ellipsis (object drop)
- Elimination of determiners
- Absence of temporal adverbs

According to Nordman (1994: 41) the recipe consists mainly of imperative clauses, but also has some declarative clauses, for example where the sender tells the receiver about the expected results. It includes heading, list of ingredients – often one ingredient per line – and instructions which are sometimes numbered, and sometimes include subheadings to facilitate the reading (Nordman 1994: 59). This structure has been outlined in figure (2). The macrostructure of the recipe is typical to the extent that it is easily recognizable even when one does not know the language it is written in.

![Diagram of Directive (= cookery recipe)](van den Broeck 1986: 42)

The cookbook language is, according to Nordman (1994: 63) uncomplicated without unnecessary descriptions or explanations. It has the classical formalized syntax of a minilect: simple, and stripped of all superfluous information, which is feasible as sender and receiver share much knowledge. The goal is to give the reader easy access to all necessary information in the order that it is required. It is crucial that the receiver knows exactly what to do and when, and is not distracted by an expressive and vivid language (ibid. 64). Nordman further states that since the writer and reader have much shared knowledge, the need for context is partly eliminated (ibid. 54).
The macrostructure of recipes is stable, with very few variations. The telegraphic style language, with incomplete sentences, is obvious in lists of ingredients, but may also occur in other parts of the recipe, like the instructions, where an elimination of determiners is frequent. This is shown in the examples below from Fischer (2013: 109).

(1) Bring water to boil in saucepan over high heat.
(2) Add cornmeal mixture to boiling water.

Another reason for the short sentences in recipes is the frequent use of ellipsis. Where there is a possibility to economize on the language by omitting the object, this is often done, in order to keep the text focused on the central content (Nordman 1994: 66). This is called ellipsis and is a very typical feature of the cookbook minilect, exemplified in (3) where the transitive verb *cover* has no overt object. Object drop is furthermore a feature so typical of cookbook language that it has been the subject for several studies (Culy 1996, Hægeman 1987, Massam & Roberge 1989).

(3) Cover with greased plastic wrap and let them relax while the oil heats.

The sentence fragments that are characteristic of the cookbook minilect sometimes result in non-finite sentences. These occur both in the body of the text, as seen in example (4) from Nordman (1994: 64) and as subheadings, as in (5) from the current source text.

(4) Här en grön spenatomelett, serverad med lyxig rökt lax.
(5) How to use this book

Within a minilect, the grammar may differ between the different parts of the text (1994: 40). Fischer points out, that “the different content types [of a recipe] are conventionalized to different degrees” (2013: 106). The list of ingredients and description of the food preparation are highly conventionalized, whereas for the part she calls decision making – where the expected result is presented – there is no standardized way to present the content.
Rogström (2000: 11) argues that, compared to other texts, recipes have less need for connectives because of its stereotyped structure that maintains the temporal progression of the actions. The text accounts for the actions required in the order they need to be completed. Most connectives that are usually found in a non-fiction text are left out, and only a few of those expressing chronology remain. Most of the time a mere comma is left in between the clauses (ibid.)

Sometimes there is also a longer introductory text written in general language. The purpose of this introduction is to introduce the recipe, but also to arouse the reader’s interest in the recipe (Nordman 1994: 55). This introduction, however, is not part of the minilect proper, as it does not fulfill any of the necessary criteria, such as stereotypy and limited vocabulary.

Among the typical features of the cookbook minilect, several deal with syntax. One of the features are fragmented sentences, i.e. incomplete sentences that are used independently. These sometimes occur in the shape of non-finite clauses, which is the main topic of this study and will be presented in detail in section 2.3.

2.3 The English non-finite clause

One of the major current English grammar works is The Cambridge Grammar of the English Language, by Rodney Huddleston and Geoffrey K. Pullum (2002). According to them, there are three main types of non-finite clauses in English: the gerund-participial, the past-participial, and the infinitival. Non-finite clauses are distinguished from finite ones mainly by the inflectional form of the verb. Clauses whose verb is a gerund-participle, e.g. being or a past participle, e.g. been, are always non-finite, while clauses whose verb is a present, e.g. am, are, is or a preterit tense form, e.g. was and were, are always finite. Clauses with plain form verbs, e.g. be, may however be both non-finite and finite (ibid. 2002: 1173).

The general definition of non-finite clauses in English is quite uncontroversial, since most linguists agree on there being three main types. Even though some – like Greenbaum et al. (1990: 286) – claim there are four types, that is hardly problematic, since the only difference between the three and four-type definition is that the latter divides the infinitival into the two main groups ‘bare infinitives’ and ‘to-infinitives’,
whereas other linguists categorize these as subgroups of the infinitival. The controversy lies in the definition of these three groups. How is a clause defined, and when does a verb change from actually being a verb, to becoming a noun or an adjective?

According to Huddleston and Pullum, the three main types of non-finite clauses are: the infinitival (6), the gerund-participial (7), and the past-participial (8), which they demonstrate with the examples below (2002: 1174).

(6) Max wanted to change his name.
(7) I remember locking the door.
(8) His father got charged with manslaughter.

These three can have several functions in the sentence. They can take the place of the subject (9), an object (10), or a complement (11), and they can be modifiers in NP structures (12) as well as in clause structures (13) (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1176, 1265).

(9) To underestimate her would be foolish. (ibid. 1176)
(10) I found talking to her quite helpful. (ibid. 1176)
(11) She is keen to regain control. (ibid. 1176)
(12) People living near the site, will have to be evacuated (ibid. 1264)
(13) Liz was lying by the pool reading a novel (ibid. 1265)

According to Huddleston & Pullum (2002: 1173), the plain form of the verb has three main syntactic constructions, one of which is non-finite. The non-finite construction is the infinitival, which can be distinguished from the other two by examining their respective properties. Infinitivals usually contain the subordinator to, they do not take auxiliary do in negatives, they are mostly subordinate, they usually have no subject, and if they do, they appear in the accusative. This information provides us with means of testing whether a clause is actually non-finite or not, which is helpful in the work of identifying non-finite clauses in the source text.

The gerund-participial consist of the present participle form of the verb, and ends with the suffix -ing, which may also appear on both nouns and adjectives. It is thus necessary
to distinguish between a gerundial noun (14), a gerund-participle form of a verb (15) and a present participial adjective (16).

(14) She had witnessed the *breaking* of the seal.
(15) There’s no point in *breaking* the seal.
(16) An *entertaining* show

Huddleston and Pullum’s definition of gerund-participials, which has been adopted in this study, differs somewhat from traditional definitions. Whereas tradition defines gerunds as any word derived from a verb base and functioning as or like a noun, what dictionaries often call a ‘verbal noun’, Huddleston and Pullum make a distinction between *ing*-words functioning like nouns and those actually being nouns, which they call gerundial nouns (2002: 81-82). They explain this new definition by presenting the four main differences between the verb form and the gerundial noun:

- verbs and nouns take different kinds of complements
- nouns are modified by adjectives, while verbs are modified by adverbs
- nouns can take determiners like *the*
- gerundial nouns can often have a plural ending

The past participial clause is formed by the past participle form of the verb. According to Huddleston and Pullum “such constructions almost always involve the passive use of the past participle” (2002: 78). For example, the past participial in (17) is comparable to the passive construction in (18).

(17) I came across a letter *written* ten years ago.
(18) The letter was written ten years ago.

Past participials can function as head of clauses, like in (17) and as attributives like in (19). According to Svartvik and Sager (1996: 125) a past participle can always, and sometimes have to, be placed after its head if it still retains its verbal function.

(19) He showed me a hurriedly *written* first draft.
For the same reasons that Huddleston and Pullum choose their own term and definition of gerund-participial, they also dismiss the traditional expression ‘verbal adjective’, which they argue, does not give a fair description of the participial. Instead, they make a distinction between past-participial adjective ‘it didn’t look broken to me’, which denotes a state, and past participle form of the verb ‘it was broken deliberately’, which denotes an event (2002: 78-79). Lindquist, on the other hand, (1989: 37) admits that the past-participials is a group that is not easily defined. The criteria he used for defining them are that they are verbs: if there is an expressed agent; if there is a corresponding active verb; or if it is part of an absolute clause (see section 2.3.1).

Having a clear definition of the three kinds of non-finite clauses and knowing how to identify them is of great importance when extracting the examples of non-finite clauses in the source text, in order to obtain a reliable material for the study.

One of the distinctive features of non-finite clauses is that they never require a subject. On the contrary, there are non-finite constructions where a subject would be impossible (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1175). Consequently, according to the definition of Huddleston and Pullum, non-finite clauses may be classified as clauses albeit not containing a subject, but only a verb phrase. However, the subject is usually recoverable from the matrix clause, even though this is not always the case. A proper interpretation of a non-finite clause requires that we find the noun phrase that acts as the understood subject in the clause. This noun phrase can be found in the matrix clause or in the wider context (ibid. 1193).

Greenbaum and Quirk (1990: 286) argue that, since non-finite clauses lack both tense markers and auxiliaries, and often subjects and subordinating conjunctions as well, using non-finite clauses may sometimes constitute a technique for “syntactic compression”, and can function as a means of reducing the number of words in a text (20). They underline, however, the importance of balancing the advantage of compactness with the risk of ambiguity (ibid. 287). In examples like (21) the actual subject might not be easily detected, since it is unclear which of the nearby nouns is referred to.

(20) When (she was) questioned, she denied being a member of the group.
We met you (when you?/we? were) leaving the room.

In the interpretation of non-finite clauses, we use the direct context, mainly the matrix clause, to recover the underlying structure of tense, aspect and mood. Syntactic compression agrees well with the characteristics of minilects in general, and recipes in particular, since being brief and concise are essential features of recipes (Nordman 1994: 63).

When non-finite adverbial clauses have an overt subject and are not introduced by a subordinator, they are defined as absolute clauses. Absolute clauses are formal and infrequently used. They may be formed by gerund-participles and past participles, and “are not explicitly bound to the matrix clauses syntactically.” (Greenbaum & Quirk 1990: 327).

Lunch finished, the guests retired to the lounge.

A number of verbs belong to a group called catenative verbs. This is a group of verbs that takes other verbs as non-finite complements, and thus forms short or long strings of verbs (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1177). The catenative verb can be linked to an infinitive, a gerund-participle or a past-participle, either directly or with a to or an object between them, depending on the verb. Auxiliary verbs are also part of the catenative category. The last verb in the string of verbs is not a catenative verb, as it has no complement, whereas all verbs except the first are non-finite.

I saw them fighting.

I intend to try to persuade him to help her redecorate the flat.

Modal auxiliaries as well as the supportive do are excluded from the actual non-finite clauses. Some forms of the auxiliaries have and be are however accepted within the actual non-finite clauses. Some of the examples Huddleston and Pullum give of this are (25) and (26) where the infinitive form of have and be is a complement to expect, (27) with the gerund-participial complementing resent, and (28) where the past-participial occurs as complement to auxiliary have (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1174).
(25) I expect [to have finished soon].
(26) I expect [to be working all week-end].
(27) I resent [being given so little notice].
(28) Ed has [been seeing her].

However, in an attempt to limit this study I have excluded clauses like (28), where the non-finite clause is a complement to a finite form of *have*, and thus a part of a finite perfective clause. Clauses occurring as complements of other auxiliaries, as demonstrated in (29) from Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1174), have also been excluded.

(29) You should sell it.

The reason for the exclusion is that they are very common (Huddleston and Pullum 2002: 1174), and that they are part of a finite construction that does not pose any challenges in the translation to Swedish.

**2.3.1 Translating non-finite clauses to Swedish**

Svartvik and Sager (1996: 322) discuss in their contrastive grammar *Engelsk universitetsgrammatik*, the use of non-finite verb forms and clauses in English. They state that non-finite clauses are generally characterized by the lack of subject, and point out that if there is a subject in the clause, it is always in the accusative form (ibid. 322). When non-finite clauses are used as adverbials, it is generally assumed that the implicit subject is identical with that of the matrix clause, that is, the main clause of the sentence. When that is not the case, it is considered, in Swedish, an “offense against the subject rule”. In English this is especially common with the present participle, as seen in (30), where it is referred to as “unattached participles” (ibid. 347). This “offense” does not remain in Swedish translations, since we need to change the structure and add a subject to get a grammatical sentence, as shown in (31).

(30) *When driving at night*, pedestrians may turn up unexpectedly.
(31) *När man kör på natten*, kan fotgängare dyka upp oväntat. (author’s translation)
Svartvik and Sager describe briefly how all three types of non-finite clauses may occur as complements to noun phrases, often substituting relative clauses (1996: 124). They demonstrate how a gerund-participial or past-participial may correspond to several types of complete relative clauses expressing different tense and aspect. Their example, “The problems facing the developing countries are well known.” can be interpreted in three ways: as a simple present, as a present progressive, and as a perfect progressive, as demonstrated in (32). This example underlines the necessity for the translator to interpret the meaning of the source text, an interpretation that, in the source language, is done by the reader, while the Swedish target language reader never faces the problem, since the translator has already interpreted the text as a part of the translation process.

(32)  The problems which face / are facing / have been facing the developing countries…

Svartvik and Sager further explain that the use of the gerund-participial is often an alternative, together with the use of prepositional phrases, to relative clauses (1996: 118). Since the three are often interchangeable, prepositional phrases and relative clauses may be used in translations where a gerund-participial would make a Swedish sentence ungrammatical (33).

(33)  At the bottom of each recipe you’ll find a nutritional analysis containing the grams […]  Nedanför varje recept finns en förteckning över näringsinnehållet som innehåller både antal gram […]

The gerund-participial is frequently used for temporal purpose, expressing an action happening at the same time or just before the action in the main clause. Sometimes it is used in combination with temporal subjunctions such as while and when, but it may also be used without subjunctions, as shown in (34) (Svartvik & Sager 1996: 339). In cases where the subjunction is not expressed in English, it needs to be added to the Swedish translation.

(34)  Approaching / while approaching the harbour, we noticed the tide.

Svartvik and Sager provide us with a list of verbs that are constructed with -ing in English, but with a finite clause or an infinitive in Swedish (1996: 377-378). In this case
the non-finite clauses are complements to finite verbs in clauses which also have a subject. Cases like these do not normally constitute any difficulties for the translator (35). Unlike Swedish, English cannot have prepositions before infinitives and that clauses. One of the options they have instead is to use preposition + ing-form. This is another case that is easily solved when translating (36) (ibid. 329).

(35) He must avoid offending the voters. Han måste undvika att stöta sig med väljarna.

(36) He didn’t even apologize for being late. Han bad inte ens om ursäkt för att han kom för sent.

After this overview of non-finite clauses, we will next look at two studies of the translation of non-finite clauses where the grammar presented in section 2.3 has been applied.

2.3.2 Studies of Swedish translations of English non-finite clauses

In a corpus study Blensenius (2006) examines the use and translation of gerund-participials in non-fiction texts, to find out whether the translation differs semantically from the source text. He claims that gerund-participials may be nominal (Climbing mountains is good exercises), attributive (The girl studying English is over there), or adverbial (Seeming to be ill, Kalle remained at home) (ibid. 2). He concludes that gerund-participials are most commonly translated to Swedish infinitivals (42%). Blensenius is not surprised by the high rate of infinitivals, and points out that the use of an infinitival might constitute a solution when the matrix clause does not offer an answer to the implicit subject.

Lindquist (1989) investigates how adverbials are translated from English to Swedish in contemporary fiction. His conclusion is that the semantic content and the grammatical function is largely retained in the translated adverbials. The main distinction between the source text and the target text lies in the realization of the adverbials, and within this group, the gerund-participial stands out as a category where only 8% are realized in the same way in the Swedish translation as in the source text. Lindquist finds very few adverbials consisting of past participials, and out of these only 25% are still past participials in the target text. The infinitivals are more widespread among Lindquists adverbials. They are realized in the same way in Swedish in more than 50% of the
cases. In most cases the Swedish infinitives are preceded by för att, which, according to Lindquist (ibid. 131), is “a fixed phrase used to express purpose in Swedish, equivalent to to or in order to in English”. The infinitivals are also commonly realized as finite clauses introduced by the coordinating conjunction och. The use of a coordinated finite clause means that the “purpose” conveyed by the word to in the source text is not conveyed explicitly in the translation. Lindquist claims that this loss rarely seems significant (ibid. 132). Few of Lindquist’s gerund-participials are realized in the same way in Swedish. Lindquist argues that the possibility of using the gerund-participials in non-finite clauses in Swedish depends on the type of verb involved. In his study all Swedish gerund-participials are intransitive and describe physical acts that are performed by the agent (37).

(37) The small rabbit came closer to his companion, lolloping on long hind legs. Den lilla kaninen närmade sig sin följeslagare, skumpande på de långa bakbenen.

He concludes that some kind of description of the agent seems to be essential in order to retain the grammatical form (1989: 122). Around half of his gerund-participials are realized as finite clauses in the translation. Lindquist finds that “the most frequent solution is to coordinate the old matrix clause and the new finite clause by means of och” as shown in (38) (ibid. 126).

(38) …said Liffey contradicting because the feeling of crossness had returned. …sa Liffey och sa emot honom eftersom hon började bli sur igen.

Looking at other studies provides us with information about the way grammar is applied in actual translations and may thus reveal data that we don’t get from grammars, like frequency of certain grammatical concepts. The contrastive approach of Blensenius and Lindquist gives us a notion of what to expect from the current target text. Given their results we might expect that a large part of the gerund-participials will be realized as infinitivals and finite clauses, and that few will still be gerund-participials in the target text. Their experience also gives us reason to expect that the infinitivals might still be infinitivals to a rather high extent.
3 Analysis

In the analysis, the theories described in previous section will be put into practice. A number of examples of each aspect studied will be explained and discussed in detail. First we will look shortly at the translation strategy used for the current translation. We will thereafter apply the linguistic theory on the different variants of non-finite clauses, and finally take a look at the subject added to the translation. In order to limit the study, any non-finite clauses that occur as complements to finite forms of have, or as complements to other auxiliaries, have been excluded from the analysis.

3.1 Translation strategy

The current text is both descriptive and operative: descriptive in the introductions of chapters and recipes, and operative in the actual recipes, where the authors instruct the reader to perform an action. In translations of operative texts, like recipes, it is crucial that everything is properly understood by the target text reader. Therefore, a functional translation strategy is advisable. The actual recipe is possible to translate literally to a greater extent than the surrounding text, since there is not much room for expressive and figurative language within the actual recipes. In other parts of the text, however, the use of a literal translation would be impossible, since cultural divergences and a more expressive language might prevent the readers from fully comprehending the text. In (39), for example, folding something like a business letter would mean folding it in two to a Swedish reader, which means the sentence would not make sense to the reader if translated directly.

(39) To fold the dough, first fold it in thirds like a business letter. Brush any excess flour off the dough.

Explicating information in the target text is thus not always the solution to avoiding misunderstandings, instead omission of information that would be misleading for the target text reader may provide a solution.
3.2 Non-finite clauses

In this section we will take a closer look at the occurrences of non-finite clauses in the source text and their translations into Swedish. What kind of clauses are found among the non-finite ones in the source text? Are different clauses usually translated in certain ways? What are the translation options, and when do we use which?

In the source text there are approximately 240 occurrences of non-finite clauses. Some of these are difficult to separate since they are part of the same clause. These are the so-called catenative verbs, that can take another verb as a non-finite internal complement (Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1177), as demonstrated in (40).

(40)   *let rest for about 5 minutes*           *låt vila i ca 5 minuter*

Even though it is possible to separate the different verb phrases, it is not necessarily obvious how to classify them into sensible categories to be able to compare the translations. For this reason, I will avoid presenting exact numbers in the following discussion, which is also in line with the qualitative approach of the study. Instead, some of the more frequent variants will be discussed, together with other cases of special interest.

In the source text, the great majority of non-finite clauses are clauses whose verb is in the plain form, that is, an infinitival. This group constitutes around half of the examples in the source text, and are thus widely predominant. Non-finite clauses where the non-finite verb form is a gerund-participle are also frequent, constituting close to 40% of the occurrences. Least common are the non-finite clauses with a past participle, with slightly more than 10%.

Once the examples were categorized according to the form-types above, the examples of every form-type were further categorized into subgroups. For each type, the examples were divided into different categories depending on the syntactic structure of the source and target language clauses, beginning with a rough division between finite and non-finite clauses in the translated clauses. Just like in Blensenius’ study (2006), it was found that for many of the source text constructions, there was a large number of
different translations and thus very few occurrences of each. All of these will therefore not be discussed.

3.2.1 Non-finite clauses with infinitive

The predominant group of non-finite clauses consist of those with an infinitive. They occur in a variety of combinations and are translated in even more manners. In a vast majority of the examples, the translations of the non-finite infinitivals are also non-finite.

There are very few bare infinitives among the non-finite clauses in the source text. They are mostly formed by complements to the verb let, with the construction let (+ NP) + infinitive. According to Greenbaum and Quirk (1990: 351) let belongs to a group of very few verbs called causative verbs, that are constructed with object + bare infinitive, and the Swedish verb låt is constructed in the same way. The verb make is part of the same group, but here the Swedish correspondent is constructed with att + infinitive (41). Since let is a transitive verb, the object between let and the infinitive is not optional; due to the causative meaning – the subject causes the object to do something – there needs to be an object. Still, in (42) we see the standard construction, with a complement following the verb let, while in (43), the object is omitted. Despite the drop of the direct object, there is no uncertainty as to what the implied object is, since it – the dough, that is – has, on every occasion of object drop, been mentioned several times before in the paragraph or even in the same sentence.

(41) Our goal is to make your jaw drop too—to make you say, or at least think, "I had no idea you could make something that wonderful with whole grains."

Vårt mål är att få dig också att tappa hakan – att få dig att säga, eller åtminstone tänka: "Jag hade ingen aning om att man kunde göra något så fantastiskt med fullkorn."

(42) Add the whole wheat flour and let the mixture soak for 30 minutes

Häll i grahamsmjölet och låt blandningen stå i 30 minuter

(43) let rest for about 5 minutes

låt vila i ca 5 minuter
The examples with *let* + an omitted object all occur in the sections of the source text that fulfill the requirements of minilects. Therefore, it is not unexpected to see some deviations from the syntactical rules here (Nordman 1994: 66).

The remaining, large part of the non-finite infinitivals are constructions with *to* + infinitive in various combinations with other parts of speech. This is expected, since it is in accordance with what Huddleston & Pullum say about most infinitivals being constructed with *to*. Some of these combinations will be discussed below.

Some of the clauses consisting of only *to* + verb are sentence fragments, appearing by themselves, although not being main clauses. These clauses are features of the reduced language of the cookbook minilect, and are usually used for subheadings. In the current study, these are translated into *att* + infinitives, in accordance with parallel texts (44). In Swedish cookbooks, sentence fragments like these are seldom translated into finite clauses; instead, we often see *att* + verb, and sometimes imperatives, while other books use a mix of the two. In Swedish the infinitive form often coincides with the imperative form, which means that apart from verbs like *göra*, where the forms do not coincide, it is not possible to determine whether a verb is a bare infinitive or in the imperative form in a non-finite subheading like the one described (45).

(44) To cut the beignets
     Att forma munkarna

(45) Forma munkarna

These independent *to*-infinitivals can be compared to another *to* + verb clause (46), which is identical in appearance to the former ones, but has the usual function of a dependent subclause and where *to* can be substituted for *in order to*.

(46) *To make* muffins, make the batter as directed,
     För att göra muffins, gör smeten enligt beskrivningen,

The rest of the *to*-infinitivals are combinations that include other verbs, noun phrases, prepositions or adjectives. The largest of these categories is the *V + NP + to + infinitive* group. In the translation, this group was quite evenly divided between non-finite (47) and finite clauses (48).
One recurring structure with the infinitival that was detected in the study was the one below, where we see the construction *Use* + NP + *to* + infinitive. These sentences were frequently translated with imperative + NP + PP, since a direct translation would be unnatural, although not being ungrammatical. By transforming the infinitive into an imperative clause, the clause is made finite, but without the need to add a subject. The implicit subject, on the other hand, is always the addressee in an imperative clause, and would therefore not have been difficult to retrieve, even in sentences where the addressee was not referred to at all.

The second largest group of infinitival clauses are V + *to* + infinitive, where the *to*-infinitival is preceded by a finite verb, frequently the verb *be*. In this group, roughly a third are translated to finite clauses (51). Among those remaining non-finite in the translation, most retain exactly the same syntactical structure as in the source text (52).

Sometimes the word *to* is used as an infinitive marker and sometimes it has meaning *in order to*, as we saw above. What kind of *to* is used, affects the translation, which is often *att* when *to* is used as an infinitive marker, and *för att* when *to* is used as a
subordinator, in the sense of *in order to*. In (53) the first *to* is an infinitive marker that has disappeared in the translation, whereas the second is used as a subordinator and has been translated with *förr att*.

(53)  You may need *to throw* a bit of flour underneath from time to time *to keep* the dough from sticking.  

Du kan behöva *borsta* in lite mjöl under degen emellanåt *förr att* den inte ska fastna.

Another group with several occurrences in the source text is the *V + adj + infinitive*, where we, once again, find both non-finite (54) and finite clauses (55) in the translated text.

(54)  You're likely *to settle* on a combination of one or two techniques you find most comfortable.  

Du kommer *förmodligen att fastna* för en eller två tekniker som du känner dig mest bekväm med.

(55)  [...] so *be careful not to tighten the boules* too much.  

[...] så *vara försiktig så att du inte spänner* ytan för hårt.

After this discussion of infinitivals and their translations, we will move on to the gerund-participials.

### 3.2.2 Non-finite clauses with present participle

Once the gerund-participial occurrences were identified, the process started to categorize these in groups according to their structure and how they were translated. For each of the numerous source language constructions there were often many different methods of translation, and thus very few occurrences of each. I will therefore not discuss each in detail, but will focus on the large picture and some of the more interesting cases.

Like Lindquist points out (1989: 120), the gerund-participials cannot in general be translated with a correspondent gerund-participial in Swedish, but other solutions need to be found. Svartvik and Sager bring up the use of prepositional phrases and relative clauses as alternatives to gerund-participials (1996: 118). These may also be used in the translation of gerund-participials, where they work well, as opposed to many cases of gerund-participials. In the target text, gerund-participials have been translated with
relative clauses only on a few occasions (56). The use of prepositional phrases is not very frequent either, but occurs on a handful occasions only (57).

(56) At the bottom of each recipe you’ll find a nutritional analysis containing the grams of whole grain per serving as well as other information. 

Nedanför varje recept finns en förteckning över näringsinnehållet, som innehåller både antal gram fullkorn per portion och annan information.

(57) How to create delicious recipes using nutritious whole grains

Hur man skapar utsökta recept med näringsrikt fullkorn

Lindquist (1989: 126) argues that gerund-participials often become coordinated main clauses with och in the translation. This solution is a common one in the current target text. As may be seen in (58), thanks to the coordination, there is no need for a subject to be added. Blensenius (2006: 37) points out this fact to demonstrate that finite clauses are not always more space consuming than non-finite ones.

(58) If you don’t have a scale, may we suggest that you treat yourself to one now, justifying it by all the nutritious whole grains you’re going to be feeding your family.

Om du inte har någon våg, föreslår vi att du unnar dig en nu och berättigar köpet med alla näringsrika fullkornsbakverk din familj kommer få i sig.

The gerund-participial is common in temporal clauses, starting with while, when, after and before (Svartvik & Sager 1996: 339). In this study, there are a few examples of this. These cases cause no problem for the translator, since they can easily be translated to a finite temporal clause in Swedish (59), as the subject of the non-finite clause is almost always the subject of the matrix clause.

(59) While developing the premise for this book, we kept asking ourselves: “Is that a whole grain?”

När vi skissade på den här boken, frågade vi oss hela tiden: ”är det där fullkorn?”

Blensenius observes that Swedish nouns ending with -ning, like mobbnings, are close to the gerund-participials (2006: 36). In this way a noun derived from a verb is made to fit syntactically in its new function. In (60) the gerund-participial – still functioning as verb – is translated to a noun with this structure, and has thus clearly lost its verb function. In (61), on the other hand, the verb function has remained in the target text.
After having analyzed examples of gerund-participials, it is now time for a closer look at the third form type, the past-participials.

### 3.2.3 Non-finite clauses with past participle

In search of past participial clauses, all past participals that were not connected to an auxiliary *have* were collected. If they were connected to a finite *have, has, or had* they would express the perfect and would thus be finite clauses. A closer look at the extracted past participles showed that around half of these did not function as a verb any more and were therefore excluded from the list of examples. They had an adjective function and could not be placed after its head without making the sentence ungrammatical, as seen in (62).

> (62) You’ll see orange juice as a *preferred* liquid in many recipes calling for whole wheat

Example (63), on the other hand, demonstrates a proper past-participial, where the past participle is, and in this case has to be, placed after its head, and therefore, according to Svartvik and Sager (1996: 125) still retains its verbal function.

> (63) Bake until a toothpick *inserted* in the center comes out clean, 1 hour to 1 hour 5 minutes.

Non-finites of this form-type are different from the others in the study in the respect that most of them are transformed to finite clauses in the Swedish translation. In Lindquist’s study (1989: 128) less than half of the translated past participials were finite, whereas in this study the finite cases constitute almost two thirds of the total. It must, however, be
taken into account, that unlike this study, Lindquist’s study covers only adverbials, which might affect the results.

None of the past participials in this study is part of an absolute clause, with an overt subject but without being introduced by a subordinator. Only a few retain the past participial construction in Swedish.

(64) Whole grains or foods made from them contain all the essential parts

(65) it helps to […] redistribute the carbon dioxide produced by the yeast

The non-finite clauses translated to a relative clause were proportionately few, compared to the remaining group of finite clauses.

The clauses introduced by unless, if and when are all translated to finite clauses in Swedish (66). The formulation with unless recurs several times within very few sentences in the specification of ingredients, and this list thus constitute a significant part of the past-participials.

(66) Milk is 1% unless otherwise specified

Among the non-finite clauses in the source text the majority were infinitivals, most of which were preceded by to. Some of these were sentence fragments used as subheadings, while others were subclauses, the largest group of which was V + NP + to + infinitive. The English infinitivals commonly retained their structure in the translation. The gerund-participials, on the contrary, usually needed to be restructured in the translation, and this was often achieved by transforming them to coordinated main clauses. Relatively few non-finite clauses were past-participials, and most of them were translated into finite clauses. In several cases, the subject was not expressed explicitly in the non-finite clauses. In section 3.3.4 we will have a closer look at how we can retrieve the subject when it needs to be added in the translation.
3.2.4 Addition of omitted subjects

When the Swedish translation requires that we add a subject, how do we determine which works best? How does the choice of subject affect the relationship between sender and receiver? Huddleston and Pullum (2002: 1193) claim that the subject can, in most cases, be retrieved from the matrix clause, which is shown in (67), where we retrieve the pronoun den from the noun degen in the matrix clause. Does the current study corroborate their claim?

(67) These use baking powder, a light touch when kneading and a rest in the refrigerator to bring the dough to its peak for frying. De görs med bakpulver, lätt och försiktig knådning, och vila i kylen för att degen ska vara så bra som möjligt när den friteras.

In this study around 20% of the non-finite clauses required a subject to be added in the translation. Adding a subject does not often cause a problem. Nevertheless, in a third of the cases, there was no subject to be found in the matrix clause, nor in the non-finite clause itself. These are sentences of two kinds; in the first the subject is very general and does not refer to anyone in particular. This kind is commonly used in the informative parts of the source text. In these cases, the subject added is often the general pronoun man (68). The other kind is more specific and deals with the operative instructions of the recipes. Here, the authors turn directly to the reader with an imperative clause, which is shown in the translation with the added subject du (69). In English, imperative clauses always have 2nd person as their implicit subject, so the translator’s task is to decide whether du or ni is most appropriate in the translation. In this translation the pronoun du was used, which was quite expected due to the informal style of the text.

(68) We're not advocating hiding whole grains; Vi säger inte att man ska dölja fullkornen.

(69) Return the bread to the rack to cool completely before glazing. Låt kakan svalna helt på gallret innan du glaserar den.

In every text there is some kind of relation between author and reader, that is created by the author, either consciously or unconsciously. Addressing the reader directly is one way of creating a relationship between author and reader. Even in a strict register like a minilect, this relationship may vary and be more or less equal (Nordman 1994: 56).
Since many non-finite clauses require the addition of a subject – which is often, although not always, a personal pronoun – this relationship might actually be affected by the translation of the non-finite clauses. The target text may get a slightly more personal touch than the source text, due to decisions made by the translator, since the reader is addressed more times. Most of the time, though, the added subject has already been made explicit in the matrix clause, and consequently nothing is changed in the relationship.

When reading Swedish parallel texts, it is clear that a combination of du and man is frequently used. As expected, man is used in a more general sense, while du is used when the author turns directly to the reader. This distinction between general and personal address is seen in the current source text as well. Sometimes however, the author uses you in a general sense in the same sentence or paragraph as an imperative. This causes some difficulties for the translator, since the implicit subject of an imperative is the 2nd person you, which translates to du or ni, whereas you in general sense often translates to man. In order to retain the imperative in (70) while being consistent in the use of pronouns, the translator has to use the 2nd person du in the nearby sentences when a man would have been desirable.

(70) When oil gets too hot, it begins to smoke; if left unattended the oil can reach its flash point, and burst into flame. If you see the oil begin to smoke, immediately turn off the heat, cover the pan, and let the pan cool down.

När olja blir för varm börjar den rya. Om du inte vaktar oljan kan den nå flampunkten och fatta eld. Om du ser att oljan börjar rya, stäng genast av plattan, täck över grytan och låt den svalna.

Both Huddleston and Pullum (2002) and Svartvik and Sager (1996) point out that the implicit subject is often expressed in the matrix clause. This corresponds well with the results of this study. However, many non-finite clauses are translated with imperative clauses, which is not surprising here, since the text is instructive. Imperative clauses are special since, although being finite, there is no need for an explicit subject. It is therefore possible to translate the clauses to grammatical sentences without needing to retrieve the subject, which despite being implicit, is always in the 2nd person in imperatives (71).
Use your hands to pat any excess flour from the dough as you're folding it.

Borsta bort överflödigt mjöl med händerna medan du viker degen.

It may thus be concluded that although an addition of subject is quite frequently necessary in the translation, this does not constitute a challenge in the current translation, for the two reasons that the subject is often retrievable from the matrix clause and the imperative form is constructed without a subject.

4 Conclusion

In English, there are three types of non-finite clauses: gerund-participials, past-participials, and infinitivals. These are not necessarily possible to translate directly to Swedish, instead it is sometimes necessary to change the structure of the sentence to get a grammatically correct target text sentence with a comprehensible and correct content. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine non-finite clauses in a cookbook, together with their translated equivalents, in order to find out how they were generally translated and whether there were any general patterns to be found.

Prior to the analysis, the cookbook minilect, linguistic studies and the grammatical background of non-finite clauses were studied to provide a theoretical base for the analysis. It was then established that the source text fulfilled the criteria for being a minilect. After that, all non-finite clauses were extracted from the source text. The clauses were classified, first according to their source language structure and then according to the structure in the target language. The non-finite clauses from the source text were divided into three groups according to their form-types.

Among the non-finite clauses in the source text, the infinitival was the most frequent. The gerund-participial was fairly common as well, while the past-participial was not frequently used in this text.

A vast majority of the infinitivals retained their structure and were translated into Swedish infinitivals. The most common infinitival structure was finite verb + NP + to + infinitive. Of these, around half retained the infinitival structure in Swedish and most of the rest were translated with a finite clause. A fairly small group of the infinitivals had bare infinitives. Among these the translation depended on the structure of the Swedish
verb. The majority of the group with bare infinitives consisted of \textit{let} + NP + infinitive. Since the Swedish verb \textit{låta} is also constructed without the infinitive marker \textit{att}, the structure remained the same in the translation.

The gerund-participial is not a frequent structure in Swedish. Most occurrences in the source text were therefore translated in other ways. Finite clauses were used in almost half the cases, and one common alternative was to transform the gerund-participial to a main clause that was coordinated with the matrix clause. The methods using relative clauses or prepositional phrases were also used, but only sparsely.

The past-participials turned out to be very few, once the past-participles functioning as adjectives had been excluded from the list. The majority of the past-participials were translated into finite clauses.

When translating non-finite clauses it is sometimes necessary to add a subject that is implicit in the source text. Retrieving the subject does not cause any difficulty in most cases, even though the choice between Swedish pronouns may pose a challenge. Most of the time the subject is apparent from the matrix clauses or the wider context. Furthermore, many of the non-finite clauses that are translated into finite clauses have an imperative in the translation. This means that there is no need to add a subject to the clause.

It can be concluded from this study that although a restructure is sometimes necessary, translations of non-finite clauses do not generally pose any particular difficulties. It is, however, important to stress that due to the limited extent of this study, it is not possible to draw any general conclusions about non-finite clauses and their translations. A more comprehensive study on the topic, and with a more quantitative focus, might shed some further light on the frequency of the different translation possibilities.

During the work with this translation, several topics have turned up that would be worth looking further into. One area suggested for future research is the use of clause initial adverbials. This syntactic feature common in English is demonstrated on many occasions in the source text (72).
(72) With a floured rolling pin, roll out the dough until it is about 1/4 inch thick.

Kavla ut den med en mjölad kavel tills den är ca ½ cm tjock.

In Swedish, letting an imperative clause start with a prepositional phrase is ungrammatical, which means we need to restructure the sentence in the translation. Investigating how the information conveyed by these adverbials is expressed in Swedish, and whether the new structure affects the content, would certainly constitute an interesting topic for further studies.
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