The translation of hedging, adjectives and non-finite *ing*-participles in

Horses Talking

by Margrit Coates

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to translate a number of selected pages from the book *Horses Talking* by Margrit Coates into Swedish. An analysis of the source text and the translation was carried out with the focus on three aspects: hedging, adjectives and non-finite *ing*-participles. The subject of the translated text lies within the broad field of animal behaviour, parapsychology and telepathy, and focuses exclusively on communication between humans and horses. Given the nature of the text, which contains cautious advice and qualified recommendations to the reader*,* hedging has an important function to fill. Furthermore, there are many adjectives, which give the text a certain character, and they are essential to the message of the book: how to create a good relationship between humans and horses. Theories within the translation shift approach were applied to the study. In particular, Catford's model and terminology were looked at. Hedging at word and phrase level primarily proved to be realised by the use of modal auxiliary verbs as hedges in the source text; this application was also primarily transferred into the target text. The most common translation strategy used was literal translation. A compound noun or noun (class shift) and a prepositional phrase (unit shift) were the most common translation methods for the attributive adjectives in the analysis. The predicative adjectives were primarily translated with a verb (class shift) or a verb phrase (unit shift) and with a prepositional phrase (unit shift). For the non-finite *ing*-participles, a variety of methods were applied, among which the most important were the *att*-infinitive (grammatical shift) and a relative clause (unit shift).

Key words: translation strategies, hedging, adjectives, non-finite *ing*-participles

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1. Introduction

Every translation carried out involves working with two different languages. In conveying a message from one language to another, the translation process involves taking various aspects into consideration. Primarily, it requires faithfulness to and understanding of the source text, as well as achieving the same effect on the reader of the target language. Thus, not only meaning in the strict sense of the word is transferred. A common problem for the translator is to find corresponding expressions for cultural conventions. This may, at first, seem essentially to concern terminology, but grammatical issues also have a major influence. An example of this is when the author does not express something directly, but uses modal verbs (e.g. *may, can, must*), adverbs (e.g. *relatively, probably, sometimes*), nouns (e.g. *claim, hypothesis, argument*) etc. to make a fact more indeterminate or vague. Mauranen (1997:115) terms this procedure *hedging*, and adjustments in the translation may have to take place. Hedging is a process that involves pragmatic and textual aspects in addition to grammar, which can be illustrated by example (1) below.

The text I have chosen for this study is taken from the book *Horses Talking* by Margrit Coates, published in 2005. The subject lies within the broad field of animal behaviour, parapsychology and telepathy, and deals specifically with communication between humans and horses. Given the nature of the text, which contains cautious advice and qualified recommendations to the reader, hedging has an important function to fill.

Furthermore, there are many adjectives, which give the text a certain character, and they are essential to the message of the book: how to create a good relationship between humans and horses. The third grammatical aspect that was investigated is the translation of non-finite *ing*-participles; a feature that occurred frequently in the primary material. The role of this kind of writing is to be mainly informative.

The grammatical features that are analysed in this study are exemplified below:

(1)   Messages offered *should* not be ignored because in doing so we *may* miss a fundamental piece of revelatory and life-enhancing information. (p.35)

Vi *får* inte bortse från de budskap som erbjuds oss, för då *riskerar* vi att gå miste om väsentliga avslöjande och livsstärkande meddelanden.

(2)   To enter a dialogue with the horse we must first ensure that he is *happy* living in the circumstances that we provide, and make sure that we come up with *honest* answers. (p.85)

För att kunna gå in i en dialog med hästen måste vi först se till att den *trivs* med att leva under de förhållanden som vi tillhandahåller, och se till att vi kommer med *ärliga* svar.

(3)	… humans not *understanding* that the horse cannot do what is being asked; humans not *communicating* with the horse or *making* unreasonable demands … (p.87)	… människor *som* inte *förstår* att hästen inte kan göra det vi ber den om; människor *som* inte *kommunicerar* med hästen eller *som ställer* orimliga krav …

(1) demonstrates the use of hedging, constructed with the modal auxiliary verbs *should* and *may,* which in the first case is equally translated into Swedish with a modal auxiliary verb, and in the second case with a verb indicating vagueness or a potential risk of non-fulfilment. (2) provides examples of the translation of adjectives. In this sentence, *happy* is translated with a deponent[1] verb, *trivs*. The non-finite form is presented in (3). *Understanding, communicating* and *making* respectively have been transferred into relative subordinated clauses in the present tense: *som … förstår, som… kommunicerar* and *som ställer.*

The different translation strategies will be classified and analysed grammatically and related to translation theories, which are described in section 2.

1.1 Aim and scope

The aim of this essay is to translate and analyse a number of selected pages (35–36, 82–93) from the book *Horses Talking* by Margrit Coates. The following aspects will be focused on:

- The use and semantic effects of hedging at word and phrase level (e.g. *it seems that*).
- The translation of adjectives.
- The translation of non-finite *ing*-participles.

1.2 Method and material

In order to fulfil the purpose of this study, notes have been made on the grammatical aspects mentioned above, alongside the translation process. These notes have formed the basis of the analysis carried out. In the section on theoretical background, a discussion of translation theories and definitions of various translation strategies that have been consulted are provided. Useful sources for this analysis proved to be: *Introducing Translation Studies* by Jeremy Munday, *A Textbook of Translation* by Peter Newmark and "Hedging in Language Revisers' Hands" by Anna Mauranen in *Hedging and Discourse: Approaches to the Analysis of a Pragmatic Phenomenon in Academic Texts*. In addition, grammar books such as Svartvik & Sager's *Engelsk universitetsgrammatik*, Quirk et al.'s *A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language* and Hultman's *Svenska Akademiens språklära* have been applied in determining and analysing the grammatical aspects focused on. Furthermore, parallel texts

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[1] Verbs that have the passive form, -s inflection, but active meaning (Holmes & Hinchliffe 1997:107).

like *Collins Gem Horses and Ponies* by Caroline Silver and *Konsten att tala med hästar* by Carola Lind & Karin Müller, as well as Internet sources such as Sveriges Lantbruksuniversitets (SLU) website specialized on horses, *Hippocampus* (http://hippocampus.slu.se), were useful in finding technical terminology related to the subject field.

As previously stated, selected pages from the book *Horses Talking* by Margrit Coates, published in 2005, form the primary material. The author is an animal healer and communicator, who gives consultations, runs workshops and lectures internationally, including to Postgraduate Animal Behaviour students at the University of Southampton, UK. She is also the co-founder of *Holistic Pets*, a clinic offering natural treatments for horses and pets.

The intention has been to adapt the translation for publication of the book on the Swedish market, for a target reader generally interested in the subject field, and who seeks practical advice. An attempt has been made to render the accessible style of language of the source text into the target language. In the introduction to the book, the author comments on her wording. She explains how she has tried to avoid the term *owner*, since she believes the word to have a negative connotative meaning attached to it. Therefore, wherever possible, this word has been replaced with *carer* or *care giver*. The Swedish terms *hästskötare* or *skötare* were considered as the most natural translations, since they have equally positive connotations and *vårdgivare* would seem artificial and give human form to the horse. The author also reassesses the treatment of gender. Throughout the book, she has decided to honour the horse by addressing it with the personal forms *he* or *she* rather than *it*. Likewise, the pronouns *han* or *hon* were used alternately with *hästen* where appropriate in the target text context. However, *den* was occasionally regarded as the optimum solution to avoid repetition and to facilitate readability. Word choice and gender are factors that need to be considered in the translation process.

Another important issue that was reflected on is the target reader's knowledge of the subject field, and hence the extent to which equine technical terminology should be explained. The author has chosen to use technical terms and to keep the Latin or Greek forms without explaining them further, e.g. *laminitis stance−ställning vid fång*. Despite the risk of being over-explicit or causing over-translation, I have decided to add footnotes that explain more specific terms, on account of their higher frequency in their Latin or Greek forms in the English language and after checking Swedish parallel texts.

2. Theoretical background

This section includes a discussion of translation theory, and definitions of the grammatical aspects analysed: hedging, adjectives and non-finite *ing*-participles.

2.1 Translation theory

The translation process involves conveying a message from one language to another –thus the optimal aim is to create a text that will have the same effect on the target reader as on the readers of the source text. For the translator this is a difficult procedure that necessitates taking various aspects, such as terminology, grammar and cultural phenomena into consideration. Different strategies are used. Some of them are personal selections, but more often they are compulsory due to the inherent language structures. One example from the analysis is the English phrase *at the very least they will be ineffective* and the Swedish equivalent *i bästa fall kan det innebära att de är ineffektiva.* The definite article naturally cannot be transferred into Swedish, and the prepositional phrase (with an embedded adjectival phrase) *at the very least* is translated as *i bästa* with the addition of the noun *fall*, since it cannot be transferred literally.

A central concept in translation theory is *equivalence.* Nida's (cited in Munday 2001:42) theory on "dynamic equivalence" emphasises the importance of "naturalness". According to this definition, the translator's main aim is to find "the closest natural equivalent to the source-language message". Furthermore, "four basic requirements" are stated: "making sense, conveying the spirit and manner of the original, having a natural and easy form of expression and producing a similar response" (ibid.). Correspondent to this idea is "*communicative* translation", which implies "an attempt to interpret the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the reader". Communicative translation is claimed to be a type of translation that fulfills the two main aims of translation: accuracy and economy (Newmark 1998:47).

Nida (1982:91) argues that "a message contains three distinct aspects: grammatical meaning, semantic/referential and connotative meaning". Thus, it is not merely a matter of considering grammatical meaning and understanding the reference of words; there can also be positive or negative connotations connected to them. Grammar provides "rules by which words change their forms" and the syntactic relationships between words (*Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English* 1987:453). When an entity or a phenomenon in reality is

referred to, linguists use the concept of reference to describe the connection between words and concepts (Svane 2002:32). "The semantic connection between parts of speech and types of referents has been outlined in a simplified manner by Frawley" (cited in Svane 2002:33):

> *Nouns*: entities and phenomena.
> *Verbs*: connections between entities and phenomena.
> *Adjectives*: qualities of entities and phenomena.

Looking at translation in a purely lexical way would mean disregarding the importance of the basic components in language that carry meaning: its grammar (Newmark 1998:73). On the other hand, the only way to express grammar is through words. Therefore, the translator needs to be conscious of the connection between grammar and the choice of words. "The general and main facts of a text are provided by grammar: statements, questions, requests, purpose, reason, condition, time, place, doubt, feeling, certainty" (ibid.:125). In this study, this connection can be exemplified by the use of modal verbs, which indicates the author's wish to make a suggestion about certain issues and to make statements less determined etc. "Grammar indicates who does what to whom, why, where, when, how. Lexis is narrower and sharper; it describes objects (animate, inanimate, abstract), actions (processes and states) and qualities; or, roughly, nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs" (ibid.).

Newmark (1998:68−70) claims that the basic translation strategy is *literal translation,* i.e. the transfer of a source language (SL) structure into the nearest target language (TL) equivalent. This kind of translation "is correct and must not be avoided". The procedure does not only involve word to word, as in *hall−sal,* but also group to group (*a beautiful garden−en vacker trädgård*), collocation to collocation (*make a speech−hålla tal*), clause to clause (*when that was done−när det var gjort*) and sentence to sentence (*The man was in the street−Mannen befann sig på gatan*) (ibid.). Literal translation was the overall strategy for conveying the modal auxiliary verbs, adverbs etc. that function as hedges (defined in section 2.2.1 below) in the translation carried out for this study. For example: *The horse is naturally sociable and _perhaps_ brings people together−Hästen är i sig själv social och för _kanske_ samman människor.*

Theories within the translation shift approach have also been applied to this study. These focus on "the small linguistic changes that occur in translation of source text (ST) to target text (TT)" (Munday 2001:55). Specifically, Catford's model and terminology were looked at. The emphasis of his analysis is on *category shifts* with four subdivisions.

Firstly, a *structural shift* primarily means a change of grammatical structure, and is said to be the most common form of shift. E.g. ST structures with a subject pronoun + verb + direct object (e.g. *I like jazz*) that become structures with an indirect object pronoun + verb + subject in the TT (e.g. Spanish *me gusta el jazz*). In a similar manner, a passive construction can be transferred into an active one, as in: *protection may then be advised <u>by the veterinarian</u>−kan <u>veterinären</u> … förorda skydd*. The subject *protection* becomes a direct object in the Swedish sentence and the English agent adverbial *by the veterinarian* changes into a subject in the Swedish translation (Hultman 2002:155).

The second subcategory is *class shifts*, which "contains shifts from one part of speech to another" (Catford, cited in Munday 2001:61). An example from the analysis is the English *The horse is a metaphor for the <u>human</u> soul* and the Swedish *Hästen är en metafor för <u>människans</u> själ*, where the English premodifying adjective has been translated with a noun phrase in the genitive case.

Unit shifts or *rank shifts* concern shifts where "the translation equivalents are at different 'ranks', i.e. the hierarchical linguistic units of sentence, clause, group, word and morpheme, in the SL and the TL". As in: *surrounded by gadgets <u>making</u> everyday living−omgivna av prylar <u>som gör</u> vardagslivet,* in which the English non-finite *ing*-participle at the word level is translated with a relative clause, initiated by a pronoun.

The last subcategory, *intra-system shifts*, refers to the "approximately corresponding systems of the SL and the TL, but where the translation involves a selection of a non-corresponding term in the TL system". Examples of this are number and article systems (ibid.), as in *<u>the</u> horse feels he is in serious trouble−<u>hästen</u> upplever att den är i allvarlig knipa*, where the English definite article corresponds to the Swedish definite inflection *–en*.

In addition to Catford's translation shifts, yet another strategy was added that was labelled *grammatical shifts,* constructed by the author of this essay. The reason for doing so was that there were some grammatical constructions that did not apply to the translation shifts described above. It concerns compulsory shifts between grammatical forms, due to the inherent grammatical structures of the SL and the TL, and was primarily applied to the translation of non-finite *ing*-participles in this study. By comparison with intra-system shifts, these are not to the same extent strictly corresponding one-to-one forms, but are more context dependent; nor do they involve a shift between different hierarchical linguistic units, as in unit shifts. The strategy includes translation methods such as *att-infinitive,* including the infinitival marker (e.g. *sharing−att dela),* a *modal auxiliary verb + att-infinitive* (e.g. *choosing−att kunna välja,* p.82)*,* a *conjunction (+ adverb) + bare infinitive* (e.g. *colouring−och prägla,*

p.87, *seeking–och på så sätt söka,* p.86*), and a *conjunction + preterite tense finite verb* (e.g. *carrying–och medförde* p.35*).

2.2 Grammar definitions

This section provides grammatical definitions of hedging, adjectives and the non-finite *ing-*participle.

2.2.1 Hedging

Within linguistics, there is a variety of definitions of the procedure of hedging. In this section, some of these will be discussed, followed by a description of how the concept was applied to the analysis of the material.

Lakoff is known to be the first linguist, in 1966, to introduce the concept of *hedge/hedging* in defining the process as making an expression "fuzzier or less fuzzy" (cited in Clemen 1997:235). A *hedge* is "a particle, word or phrase that modifies the degree of membership of a predicate or noun phrase in a set; it says of that membership that it is *partial* or true only in certain respects" (Brown & Levinson 1987:145). The process or, according to some scholars, the strategy of *hedging* originates from the purpose of avoiding to presume and to resort to the language of force. Examples that modify the force of a speech act are: *suppose, guess, think* (ibid.).

Mauranen (1997:115) puts hedging in relation to academic discourse in the following manner:

> In academic discourse, observations *suggest* that something *might* be the case, … *it seems reasonable to suggest* and we *might infer;* … it is a world of uncertainties, indirectness, and non-finality – in brief, a world where it is natural to cultivate hedges. Hedging generally means expressions in language that make messages indeterminate, i.e. they convey inexactitude ... or in some way ... reduce the strength of the assertions that speakers or writers make. [Consequently, their effect is] making assertions less categorical and direct, and they are thereby regarded as less certain, as well as more polite than their unmodified, direct counterparts would be.

The difference can be illustrated in the following example, in which expression a) is more guarded or polite and less certain than expression b):

> a) *Vets and other equine practitioners who have experienced painful conditions themselves <u>seem</u>, <u>on the whole</u>, to have much better empathy with the suffering of horses and the nuances of the varieties of pain that <u>can</u> present themselves.*

b) *Vets and other equine practitioners who have experienced painful conditions themselves have much better empathy with the suffering of horses and the nuances of the varieties of pain that present themselves.*

Although the text chosen for this essay does not belong to the academic field, the author's frequent use of the hedging process similarly indicates a certain consideration or politeness towards the target reader and a reflective basis for the statements presented.

The scholarly debate focuses on two major language areas where hedging is applied: certainty of propositions and interpersonal aspects, specifically politeness. The basic role of the concepts of certainty and uncertainty closely relates it to modal expressions. Mauranen's definition of "hedging and modality as overlapping domains of language use, with neither covering the other completely" (1997:115) was adapted to this study. Thus, modal auxiliary verbs are considered as realisations of hedges.

A large number of the hedges found in the material used for this study consist of modal auxiliary verbs, which express ability (*can, could*), permission (*can, may*), possibility (*can, may*), intention (*may, will*), tendency (*will*), habit (*will, would*), necessity (*must*), probability*, obligation, suitability, advisability* (*should*) (Svartvik & Sager 1989:27−52). Modality can also be expressed by conditional clauses that express a direct condition in which "the situation in the matrix clause is directly dependent on that of the conditional clause: e.g. *If* you put the baby down, she *will* scream; indirect condition: She's far too considerate, *if I may say so;* or comment clauses: There were no other applicants, *I believe*, for that job" (Quirk et al. 1985:1088, 1113).

Important grammatical categories that function as hedges are also modal sentence adverbs, e.g. *perhaps, maybe, probably*, time adverbs such as *frequently* and *often,* and negative sentence adverbs such as *not, never, hardly* (cf. Hultman 2002:276 for Swedish forms). Other kinds of vague words or expressions are the so-called *vague additives* that are described by Channell (1994:18) as: "A word or phrase is added to what would otherwise be a precise statement, to result in a vague reading". In the following example, a vague additive is found in combination with a number:

(4)   The best time is *around* one year,   Den bästa tidpunkten är *omkring* ett års ålder, när
             which is when it *would* happen naturally.   det *brukar* ske naturligt.
             (p.91)

The adverb *around* makes the statement less precise, by not exactly defining the number of years. The sentence also contains a modal auxiliary verb, *would–brukar,* which expresses a habit (Svartvik & Sager 1989:27–52).

To sum up, the main functions of hedging are to express uncertainty, indirectness, non-finality, vagueness and politeness. In the source text, the author's frequent use of hedging in presenting cautious advice to the reader is a characteristic feature.

2.2.2 Adjectives
Adjectives are words which express some feature or quality of a noun or pronoun (Crystal 1988:142). In identifying adjectives, Quirk et al. (1985:402–403) state four criteria:

> 1) They can occur in attributive function, i.e. they can premodify a noun, appearing between the determiner and the head of a NP: *fundamental* awareness, *exceptional* animals.
> 2) They can freely occur in predicative function, i.e. they can function as subject complement: *The horse is naturally* sociable, or as object complement: *We thought the new pony* cute (ibid. 402-403). The subject complement is preceded by:
>   a) a "current copular verb that either identifies attributes that are in a continuing state of existence: *be, seem, appear, keep, remain, stay* (*We* are *all human*), or reports sensory perceptions: *look, feel, sound, smell, taste*" (*I really do* look *awful*), or
>   b) a "result copular verb that identifies an attribute that is the result of a process of change: *His breathing* became *less frantic*" (Biber et al. 2002:141).
> 3) They can be premodified by the intensifier very: *(very) explicit.*
> 4) They can take comparative and superlative forms. Either the inflections *-er* and *-est* or the premodifiers *more* and *most* are used: *(more) popular* (Quirk et al. 1985:402–403).

Moreover, adjectives can have the following characteristics and functions:

- Postpositive: immediately follow the noun/pronoun they modify: e.g. *something* useful, *heir* apparent, *devil* incarnate, *the best car* going.
- Adjectives with complementation: PP or to-infinitive clause: *I know an actor* suitable for the part. *They have a house* larger than ours.
- Adjectives as heads of noun phrases:

a) *The innocent are often deceived by the unscrupulous.*

b) *The industrious Dutch are admired by their neighbours.*

c) *She admires the mystical.*

In the examples above, adjectives have abstract reference or refer to nationalities (Quirk et al. 1985:418−421). An example from the primary material is: *write down the plus points−skriva ner det positiva,* where the English attributive, premodifying adjective is translated with a Swedish adjective as head of a noun phrase.

The text consists of many characteristic adjectives, which are closely connected to its central message, i.e. how to create a good relationship between humans and horses. I have decided to focus on adjectives for which a different grammatical construction in the translation was regarded as the optimal solution, e.g. those that were translated into another word class (according to Catford *class shifts*).

2.2.3 The non-finite *ing*-participle

According to Quirk et al. (1985:97), the *ing*-participle (*calling*, *speaking*) occurs as a non-finite form in two cases:

a) The progressive aspect following *be*: He*'s calling* her now.

b) *-ing* participle clauses: *Calling* early, I found her at home.

The analysed material proved to contain mainly three categories:

1) Non-finite forms with a preceding preposition: *for getting.*

2) Non-finite forms with a preceding finite verb: *avoids getting.*

3) "Independent" non-finite forms: *having horses in our lives.*

For the analysis, one of these was selected, namely what has been termed independent non-finite forms, i.e. *ing*-participles that are not preceded by a preposition or a verb.

3. Analysis

This section presents the results of the analysis carried out for each of the grammatical aspects that were focused on: The use and semantic effects of hedging at word and phrase level; the

translation of adjectives and the translation of non-finite *ing*-participles. Each section contains an overview of the most frequent grammatical translation methods that were used for each grammatical category presented. The translation strategies applied will be presented in connection to each translation example.

3.1 The translation of hedging

In the selection of pages that was translated, the process of hedging proved to be essential. By considering its importance and the effect it has on the message of the sentence, an attempt towards fulfilling aspects of Nida's theory on dynamic equivalence has been made. Thus, the translation applies the ideas of "making sense, conveying the spirit and manner of the original, having a natural and easy form of expression and producing a similar response" (Nida, cited in Munday 2001:42). The question of the strength of the SL forms in comparison with the TL forms was an issue that was also taken into consideration.

The ST and the TT each contained 131 hedges. The occurrence of hedging is in agreement with this type of text, which is communicating the author's writing style with the aim of avoiding to presume by making statements less assertive. Phrases like *it seemed to* were considered to be composed of one hedge. Hedging at word and phrase level was realised in various ways in the TT, namely, by the use of modal auxiliary verbs, copular verbs, main verbs, adverbs, adjectives and pronouns as hedges. The most frequent structure that was used as a hedge was a modal auxiliary verb, which corresponds with the conclusion in Holmberg's (2004:22) study on hedging. Each category will be presented and discussed below. Due to the large number of hedges, a selection of the most frequent of these was made and accounted for.

3.1.1 Modal auxiliary verbs and main verbs

Hedging at word and phrase level primarily proved to be realised by the use of modal auxiliary verbs as hedges in the ST. This usage was also primarily transferred into the TT. Thus, the applied overall translation strategy was *literal translation*, which was considered to maintain the semantic value and strength of the hedge, in accordance with Nida's requirements. Once, the English modal auxiliary verb *may* was replaced by a main verb *riskerar*, indicating vagueness or a potential risk of non-fulfilment, as exemplified in the introductory section in (1). There was also one instance, in which the translation of the modal verb *can* in the embedded clause was omitted and replaced by a comparative phrase, *precis som vi,* introduced by an adverb (Teleman et al. 1999 III:666−667) and a circumlocution with a passive clause:

| (5) | A variety of things *can* go wrong with their bodies, as they *can* in ours, ... (p.92) | Hästen kan, precis som vi, drabbas av en mängd olika kroppsliga åkommor. |

The alterations in this sentence were made with the aim of creating idiomatic language with a natural and easy form of expression, without losing the semantic effect of the modal auxiliary verb. Therefore, there is no need to repeat *kan* in the Swedish translation. This is an example of a *structural shift.*

The most frequently used modal auxiliary verb was *can,* which occurred 37 times (28% of 131 hedges) in the source text. With one exception (exemplified in (5)), it was translated literally with the Swedish modal verb *kan,* as is presented in (6).

| (6) | … incorrect feeding *can* cause stress and metabolic disturbances … (p.84) | … felaktig utfodring *kan* orsaka stress och rubbningar i ämnesomsättningen ... |

Here, the modal auxiliary verb expresses possibility (Svartvik & Sager 1989:27−52). In accordance with Holmberg's (2004:32) findings, a "lack of any absolute correlation between forms like *can−kan*" exists in this study, since *kan* also occurs as the corresponding form for the two auxiliary verbs *may* and *should*, even though *can* is almost exclusively translated with *kan.* A more varied usage of corresponding forms for the modal verb *can* was not regarded as necessary, since there is no loss of sense or natural style in the TT context, and the ST and TT forms are assumed to be equally strong.

Another frequently used modal auxiliary verb was *should,* which occurred 20 times (15% of 131 hedges) with the Swedish equivalent *bör* in 17 of these instances. In two cases it was translated as *kan* and in one as *ska kunna.* Consider the following examples:

| (7) | Anyone who treats your horse *should* ask the vet for permission to do so. (p.89) | Den som behandlar din häst *bör* be veterinären om tillstånd. |

| (8) | We *shouldn't,* ... , expect a horse to be happy with every other horse on the planet … (p.90) | Däremot *kan* vi inte förvänta oss att en häst ska trivas med varenda häst i hela världen. |

| (9) | A horse *should* express personality and individuality and I am sucpicious of the mental and emotional state of any horse that does not. (p.83) | En häst *ska kunna* ge uttryck för personlighet och individualitet och jag har misstankar om det psykiska och känslomässiga tillståndet hos alla hästar inte som gör det. |

The hedge *should* has been interpreted as conveying different nuances of meaning, which has been rendered in three various manners in Swedish. In (7), *should−bör* contains a strong

component of advisability, and the alternative *måste* was disregarded since it expresses obligation and might not be considered polite enough. Thus, it can be argued that the English and the Swedish forms have equal strength. In (8), on the other hand, *should−kan* is more an expression of reasonableness; hence the chosen form of modal auxiliary verb. *Får* is an equally strong option with a similar sense that could have been possible in this context. The last example, *should−ska kunna,* indicates ability, which is expressed with *ska* complemented with the modal auxiliary verb *kunna.* The translation strategy of the modal auxiliary verb in (7) up to (9) was considered to be *literal translation.*

May was found in 14 places, in ten instances translated literally with *kan,* and in four a *class shift* was used to change the verb into the modal sentence adverb *kanske*, exemplified below:

(10)	There are signals and signs that we give off that we *may* be unaware of, but the horse can learn to read these, and as a result *may* act in a way that we find puzzling. (p.84)	Vi sänder ut signaler och tecken, som vi *kanske* är omedvetna om, men hästen kan lära sig att läsa av dessa. Resultatet *kan* bli att den beter sig på ett för oss förbryllande sätt.

In this context, *kanske* was considered as a natural choice, since *may* is followed by a copular verb and an adjective as a subject complement (*be unaware of*)*,* and a literal translation as *kan vara omedvetna om* would come across as comparatively laboured. The semantic effect of the hedge is maintained by the use of a modal sentence adverb followed by the verb in the present tense.

Other types of verbs that were used as hedges were copular verbs, independent, e.g. *seem−verkar,* or included in a phrase, e.g. *it seems that−verkar det som om,* and marginal auxiliary verbs, independent or included in a phrase, such as *need to−måste, är tvungna att* or *behöver.* These were translated literally.

The modal auxiliary verbs *should* and *can* were given emphasis by a modal sentence adverb, *perhaps* and a quantitative adverb for time, *sometimes* (cf. Hultman 2002:175−176 for Swedish forms), as is exemplified below:

(11)	… as *should perhaps* also a person qualified to investigate muscular and skeletal issues. (p.84)	*Kanske bör* också någon som är kvalificerad att utreda problem från muskler och skelett undersöka hästen.
(12)	… stereotypic behaviours *can sometimes* increase after a sugar-high feed. (p.91)	… stereotypa beteenden *kan ibland* öka efter utfodring av ransoner med hög sockerhalt.

The use of a modal auxiliary verb and an adverb in these sentences has the effect of making the message less direct or certain, as well as being more polite towards the reader. In saying that the facts are not necessarily definite or not always (hedge: *sometimes*) absolutely true, the author makes a reservation in her statements. *Literal translation* proved to be an appropriate method, since the chosen forms are at the same level of strength. In the same manner, the hedging effect of *can* was also found to be intensified by the modal sentence adverb *possibly.*

The author's attitude towards the message of the sentence is expressed with a main verb, *reckon,* which according to Brown & Levinson (1987:145) "modifies the force of the speech act", and a modal auxiliary verb, *would,* in the following example:

(13)   I *reckon* that I *would* have collected   Jag *tror* att jag *skulle* ha samlat ihop *tusentals*
          thousands such horses and ponies *if*   sådana hästar och ponnyer *om* jag hade haft
          I owned a big estate to keep them on.   en stor egendom att ha dem på.
          (p.83)

Intentionally "false" doubt or uncertainty is conveyed by the use of a main verb, which in this case can be interpreted as an understatement, since we can assume that the author most certainly *would* have collected *thousands* of horses and ponies. The sentence also contains a conditional clause, initiated by the subjunction *if,* which contributes to the hedging process. Since the purpose is not to convey an exact number, the numeral *thousands* is used here, which makes the statement vague. *Would* and *skulle* are believed to be equally strong forms with the same semantic contents. The translation strategy applied was *literal translation.*

3.1.2 Adverbs, adjectives and pronouns

The most frequently used hedge in this category was the modal sentence adverb *perhaps* (three times)*,* which could be translated literally into Swedish with the modal sentence adverb *kanske:*

(14)   … and to accept that other species   … och att acceptera att andra arter *kanske* har
          have *perhaps* a better empathy with   större empati för världsalltet.
          the universe. (p.36)

Modal sentence adverbs express the writer's attitude towards the contents of the sentence; there is a possibility that the statement is true. An alternative solution could have been *att acceptera möjligheten att andra arter har …* Other adverbs that were used as hedges for vague expressions of time were *frequently* and *often* (each occurring twice), *rarely* and

around. The adjective *general,* exemplified below in (15) was also found twice in the ST, as well as the adverbs *generally* and *in general.*

(15)	Later, through my healing work, a	Genom mitt arbete med healing kom senare
	general message *sometimes* came ... (p.35)	*ibland* ett *allmänt* budskap, …

The hedges that occur here both contribute to the construction of a vague expression regarding characteristic as well as time aspects. What does a *general* message involve, and how often does *sometimes* signify?

Once, a quantifying attributive adjective occurred in a noun phrase: <u>*most things,*</u> with the effect of creating a vague reading. In addition, one pronoun for number, *several,* was found. In each of the instances presented above, *literal translation* was used.

3.2 The translation of adjectives

The text contains several characteristic adjectives (in all 376). The majority of these could be translated literally. Consequently these did not present any problems for the translator and will not be commented on further. Since a selection had to be carried out, a decision was made to focus on adjectives for which a different grammatical construction in the translation was regarded as the optimal solution, e.g. those that were translated into another word class (according to Catford termed *class shifts*). Nida's (cited in Munday 2001:42) requirement that a translation should fulfil naturalness was an issue that specifically was taken into account in the translation of the adjectives. The analysed adjectives (a total number of 60) were divided into two major subclasses:

1) *Attributive function, i.e. premodifying a noun* (36 tokens), e.g. <u>*fundamental*</u> *awareness,* <u>*exceptional*</u> *animals.*
2) *Predicative function, i.e. functioning as subject complement* (24 tokens), e.g. *The horse is naturally <u>sociable</u>.*

In addition, one exception was found among these, in which the adjective has a different function, namely, as the head of a noun phrase (Quirk et al. 1985:421):

(16)	… particularly elderly horses and	… särskilt för äldre och *sjuka hästar.*
	the sick. (p.92)	

The most suitable translation for this phrase was considered to be a *grammatical shift.* The corresponding Swedish form has become an attributive adjective, and the word order has been changed to conform to conventional language use, so that the noun *hästar* is positioned last in the phrase.

3.2.1 Attributive adjectives

Table 1 displays an overview of how the different translation methods in this subclass were distributed.

Table 1. Distribution of translation methods for attributive adjectives

Translation method	Number of attributive adjectives
compound noun	12
noun (genitive)	7
prepositional phrase	6
relative clause	4
adverb	4
adjective as head of noun phrase	2
participle + prepositional phrase	1
Total number	**36**

The most common translation method in this subclass proved to be to use a *compound noun* (twelve cases, 33% of 36 adjectives). This fact is in agreement with Ljung & Ohlander (1992:149), who claim that many English classifying adjectives + nouns correspond to Swedish compound nouns. An example of this is:

(17) Horses are not born with *behavioural* problems. (p.84)　　　Hästen föds inte med *beteende*problem.

By the use of the translation strategy *class shift,* the premodifying adjective is transferred into a noun. This strategy presents one manner with the aim of creating a flow in the TT or a "natural and easy form of expression", in accordance with one of Nida's (cited in Munday 2001:42) four basic requirements for translation. An alternative translation could have been to

use the premodifying adjective *beteendemässiga,* but the former method was perceived as more adaptable.

A transfer of the adjective into a *noun*, a *class shift,* was applied on seven occasions, which is demonstrated below:

(18)   The horse is a metaphor for the *human*   Hästen är en metaphor för *människans* själ, …
         soul … (p.36)

In four of these, a noun in the genitive case was employed, as in (18). To use the expression *den mänskliga själen* would sound somewhat strained here, which is why the construction above was decided on.

In six instances, the attributive adjective was translated with a *prepositional phrase*, as illustrated below:

(19)   … incorrect feeding can cause stress and   … felaktig utfodring kan orsaka stress och
         metabolic disturbances … (p.84)   rubbningar *i ämnesomsättningen.*

This was regarded as the most natural translation of the premodifying adjective *metabolic,* since it was believed that using the Swedish forms for Greek or Latin medical terms is more in line with the overall style the author employs, and also on account of the higher frequency of Greek or Latin forms in the English language. Otherwise, the corresponding adjective *metaboliska* could have been used. The applied translation strategies have been classified as a *unit shift,* from word level to phrase level, consequently combined with a *class shift,* transferring the adjective into a noun *metabolic−ämnesomsättningen.*

In (20), the adjective is transferred into a *relative clause,* which is a method that occurred four times.

(20)   … *bad-tempered* staff. (p.87)   … personal *som är på dåligt humör.*

Alternatively, the use of an attributive adjective as *vresig* or *sur* could have been possible. However, it was decided to keep the semantic component of *temper* in the Swedish translation. This is another example of a *unit shift.*

Further translation methods that were applied were the use of an *adverb, adjective as head of noun phrase* and a *participle* + a *prepositional phrase*. To conclude, the most common translation methods applied to the attributive adjectives in the analysis was a

compound noun or *noun*. A *prepositional phrase* was also found to be suitable. The translation strategy that was in the majority proved to be a *class shift*.

3.2.2 Predicative adjectives

All of the adjectives analysed in this subclass functioned as subject complements. A summary of the translation methods applied in this subclass is presented in table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of translation methods for predicative adjectives

Translation method	Number of predicative adjectives
verb or verb phrase	12
prepositional phrase	4
noun or noun phrase	3
adverb	3
att-clause	1
finite clause	1
Total number	**24**

A *verb* or *verb phrase*, occasionally including a reflexive or possessive pronoun or a verbal particle, was the most frequent method to render the adjectives in this subclass. It was employed in twelve instances (50% of 24 adjectives), and is exemplified below:

(21)   … is cruel, thoughtless and   … är grymt, tanklöst och *motverkar* till sist
               ultimately *counterproductive*. (p.85)   *sitt eget syfte.*

The verb phrase *motverkar* is in this sentence supplemented with the noun phrase *sitt eget syfte* by the use of a *unit shift.* Alternatively, a literal translation with a predicative adjective as *kontraproduktivt* could have been used, although the chosen method was considered to be the "closest natural equivalent to the source-language message" (Nida, cited in Munday 2001:42) and to create a more easy flow in the translation.

    In the following example of a *unit shift*, the translated correspondent structure consists of a verb phrase including a verbal particle. This construction was chosen since it was believed to provide a natural expression in the TT.

(22)   Be *prepared* to adapt your   *Se till* att anpassa dina ambitioner …
               aspirations … (p.88)

Examples (23) and (24) illustrate the constructions a *deponent verb* and a *verb in the passive voice, s-passive* form (belonging to the translation method *verb or verb phrase*), which were both used in two instances:

(23) To enter a dialogue with the horse we must first ensure that he is *happy* living in the circumstances that we provide, … (p.85) För att kunna gå in i en dialog med hästen måste vi först se till att den *trivs* med att leva under de förhållanden som vi tillhandahåller, …

(24) … a horse's silence is *not* an acceptance that such treatments are *welcome*. (p.86) … en hästs tystnad är *inte* ett erkännande av att sådan behandling *uppskattas*.

In applying a *class shift,* these adjectives have been transferred into verbs in the TT. *Trivs* (23) was considered to be the most suitable translation, but perhaps a predicative adjective as *nöjd* could have been an option. In (24), a literal translation with a predicative adjective as *välkommen* could have been used, but comes across as clumsier.

  The use of a *prepositional phrase* (four occasions) is illustrated in example (25):

(25) If we are not *balanced* … (p.88) Om vi själva inte är *i balans* …

A *unit shift,* i.e. transferring the adjective into a phrase, consequently combined with a *class shift,* transferring the adjective into a noun, provides naturalness to the expression.

  Example (26) displays a transfer into a *noun* or *noun phrase* (found on three occasions):

(26) Those who attend these courses discover that … they can come away *motivated* and *empowered*. (p.36) De som deltar i dessa kurser upptäcker att de kan få *motivation* och *styrka* …

Considering the verb phrase *come away,* it would have been equivalent as regards meaning to translate with an expression as *gå motiverade och stärkta därifrån.* Nevertheless, changing the verb into *få* and adding the nouns *motivation* and *styrka,* was viewed as a more natural solution. Thus, the translation strategy *class shift* was applied.

  A *unit shift,* in which the predicative adjective is translated with an *att-clause* (applied in one instance), is illustrated below:

(27) Change will come whatever we do and it is better that we be positive and fluid about it than *combative*. (p.89) Förändringar sker oavsett vad vi gör och det är bättre om vi är positiva och öppna inför dem än *att vi försöker bekämpa dem.*

The verb phrase *försöker bekämpa* was considered as being the most appropriate translation of the adjective *combative.* To use a direct translation, *stridslysten,* or a similar term would not be suitable in this context, and another appropriate predicative adjective was difficult to find. Therefore, the construction decided on results in a natural expression in compliance with Nida's requirements.

Other grammatical constructions that were used in the translation were an *adverb* and a *finite clause.* To conclude, the adjectives in this subclass were most frequently rendered by the translation method a *verb* or *verb phrase*. Another common structure that was applied was a *prepositional phrase. Class shifts* and *unit shifts* were the translation strategies used in this category.

3.3 The translation of the non-finite *ing*-participle

As previously stated, the non-finite constructions that were selected for this study were the independent forms, i.e. *ing*-participles that are not preceded by a preposition or a verb. A total of 57 non-finite *ing*-participles were found in the material and analysed. Table 3 displays a summary of how the different translation methods were distributed. Postpositive prepositions, verbal particles, reflexive or personal pronouns and adverbs have been included in each category where they occurred, since they were considered as belonging to the verb phrase. Applied translation strategies were: *grammatical shifts* and *unit shifts,* which were the two most common strategies, *class shifts* and *literal translation.*

Table 3. Distribution of translation methods for non-finite *ing*-participles

Translation method	Number of non-finite *ing*-participles
att-infinitive	26
relative clause	17
preposition + att-infinitive	4
present participle	2
noun	2
conjunction (+adverb) + bare infinitive	2
deponent verb	1
modal auxiliary verb + att-infinitive	1
conjunction + preterite tense finite verb	1
pronoun	1
Total number	**57**

Example (28) illustrates the most common way to translate the non-finite *ing*-participle: by the use of an *att-infinitive,* which was found in 26 places (46% of 57 *ing*-participles).

(28)   It is like *being* in one skin, *breathing*   Det är som *att dela* samma hud, *andas* samma
         one breath, *sharing* one heart and   luft, *dela* samma känslor och *se* på
         looking at the world through the same   världen med gemensamma ögon.
         pair of eyes. (p.88)

Represented here is also the method a *deponent verb* (*breathing–andas,* used on one occasion). The translated forms are compulsory, due to the inherent grammatical structures of the SL and the TL: *grammatical shifts.* Since the sentence contains an enumeration of statements, the infinitive marker has been left out with *andas, dela* and *se*.

The second most common method utilized was the *relative clause* (17 times), with the translation strategy *unit shift,* i.e. a shift between word and clause level. This is exemplified below:

(29)   It is not fair to ignore signs of mental/   Det är inte rätt att nonchalera tecken på
         emotional pain and perpetuate things   psykisk/känslomässig smärta och att vidmakthålla
         causing unhappiness. (p.87)   saker *som orsakar* vantrivsel.

A relative clause often proved to be the most natural and closest corresponding translation method, as in (29). The postmodifying non-finite SL form corresponds to a relative subordinated clause *som orsakar,* which is specifying its correlate *saker,* i.e. saying something further about the denotation of the correlate (Teleman et al. 1999 IV:498).

The non-finite forms were also translated with a *preposition + att-infinitive* (four instances), *present participle* (two), a *noun* (two), a *conjunction (+ adverb) + bare infinitive* (two), a *modal auxiliary verb + att-infinitive* (one), a *conjunction + preterite tense finite verb* (one) and a *pronoun* (one).

In (30), an *att*-infinitive preceded by a preposition corresponds to the *ing*-participle.

(30)   … in horses who spend long periods   … hos hästar som tillbringar lång tid *med att*
         of time *waiting* for food to be made   *vänta* på att deras skötare ska göra maten
         available to them ... (p.91)   tillgänglig för dem …

The preposition is added in accordance with the verb phrase *tillbringa tid.* The translation strategy was a *grammatical shift.*

Morphologically, the closest corresponding grammatical form to the non-finite *ing*-participle is the present participle, resulting in nominalization, which is exemplified below:

| (31) | Unnatural excitement – always *calling* and *whinnying* (p.87) | Onormal upphetsning – ständigt *skrikande* och *gnäggande* |

The present participle was found to be the most natural form. The non-finite form is indicating a state: *en gnäggande häst* is *a horse which is whinnying* (Teleman et al. 1999 II:610). An alternative translation could have been to use the *att*-infinitive form, as in: *att ständigt skrika och gnägga.* Because of the close grammatical connection to the corresponding English form, this was termed *literal translation*.

The following is an example where the Swedish translation is realised by a *noun*:

| (32) | … so it is very important for us to listen to, and understand, horses *talking*. (p.86) | Därför är det väldigt viktigt att vi lyssnar på och förstår hästens *språk*. |

A *class shift* was regarded as being the most natural strategy in transferring the *ing*-participle in this sentence. Accordingly, *hästen* has been transformed into a genitive.

The *conjunction + bare infinitive* construction, a *grammatical shift,* is presented below:

| (33) | Grief can last for many years, *colouring* the horse's view of the world around … (p.87) | Sorg kan vara i många år *och prägla* hästens uppfattning om omvärlden, … |

(34) is an example of how the *ing*-participle corresponds to a *pronoun*:

| (34) | While we can strive to understand all horses, like humans they come with a wide range of personality types, *ranging* from the dominant and brave to the passive and those who want to get along with everybody. (p.85) | Samtidigt som vi kan bemöda oss om att förstå alla hästar, finns det, precis som hos människan, många olika personlighetstyper, *allt* från den dominanta och modiga till den undergivna och den som vill vara alla till lags. |

Alternative translations could have been to use a relative clause, *som sträcker sig från,* which would have had a more clumsy effect, although not semantically incorrect. Since the verb is transferred into a pronoun, a *class shift* was applied.

To sum up, a variety of methods were applied in the translation of the non-finite *ing*-participle, among which the most important were the *att*-infinitive and a *relative clause. Grammatical shifts,* i.e. compulsory forms, due to the inherent grammatical structures of the SL and the TL, and *unit shifts,* i.e. a shift between word and clause level, were the translation strategies adapted.

4. Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to translate a number of selected pages from the book *Horses Talking* by Margrit Coates into Swedish. An analysis of the source text and the translation was carried out with the focus on three particularly interesting aspects: hedging, adjectives and non-finite *ing*-participles.

The subject of the translated text lies within the broad field of animal behaviour, parapsychology and telepathy, and focuses exclusively on communication between humans and horses. The process of hedging proved to have an important purpose, which is in accordance with the nature of the text that contains cautious advice and qualified recommendations to the reader. There are also numerous adjectives, which give the text a certain character, and they are essential to the message of the book: how to create a good relationship between humans and horses. Moreover, an investigation of the translation of non-finite *ing*-participles was included in this study.

Theories within the translation shift approach were applied to the study. In particular, Catford's model and terminology were studied more closely. Newmark's theory on literal translation and Nida's theory on dynamic equivalence were also considered.

Firstly, the process of hedging was investigated. A total of 131 hedges were analysed. Hedging at word and phrase level primarily proved to be realised by the use of *modal auxiliary verbs* as hedges in the ST. This usage was also primarily transferred into the TT. The most common translation strategy used was *literal translation.*

A total of 60 adjectives were selected on the criteria that they required a different grammatical construction in the translation, e.g. those that were translated into another word class. They were divided into two subclasses: *attributive function, i.e. premodifying a noun* (36 tokens) and *predicative function, i.e. functioning as subject complement* (24 tokens). A *compound noun* (twelve instances), *noun* (seven instances) and a *prepositional phrase* (six instances) were the most common translation methods for the attributive adjectives in the analysis, and the translation strategy that was in the majority proved to be a *class shift,* i.e. a change of word class. The predicative adjectives were primarily translated with a *verb* or a *verb phrase* (on twelve occasions) and with a *prepositional phrase* (on four occasions). *Class shifts* and *unit shifts,* i.e. a shift between word and phrase or clause level were the translation strategies applied in this category.

For the 57 non-finite *ing*-participles that were included in the analysis, a variety of methods were applied in the translation, among which the most important were the *att-*

infinitive and a *relative clause. Grammatical shifts,* i.e. compulsory forms, due to the inherent grammatical structures of the SL and the TL and *unit shifts* were the translation strategies adapted.

The study provides a contribution to the sphere of translation studies. Since the scope is limited, it could be followed up by further studies within the three grammatical aspects selected for this essay. Additionally, due to the limited number of original publications in Swedish within the subject field: animal healing and communication between animals and humans, this translation can serve a useful purpose in supplying information and knowledge presented in the book *Horses Talking*. It would be interesting to further compare the translation carried out for this study with others within the same subject field to find out how certain issues, such as terminology and stylistics, have been solved.

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