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Translation Strategies for Words for Culture-Specific Items in Two Translations of Liza Marklund’s Sprängaren

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Abstract

Research within translation characterises cultural references as being problematic for translators, meaning they must choose between different translation strategies as to how to transfer these references into the translated text. These strategies are often described in general terms according to how closely oriented they are to the target-culture or source-culture, known as domestication or foreignisation. Translation of literature into English is minimal in world terms and there is seemingly a lack of statistically comparable data concerning the translation of cultural references. This study investigates and compares translation strategies of words denoting cultural references in two translations of the 1998 Swedish Nordic Noir novel Sprängaren by Liza Marklund. The methodology in the study is based on descriptive translation studies, and a categorisation model for types of cultural references is used, as well as an adapted taxonomy model for evaluating translation strategies. Issues addressed are: what types of strategies are used; whether strategies change between translations; how the second translation stands in relation to the retranslation hypothesis and whether any general translation norms are apparent. Results show that a wide variety of translation strategies are used for different types of cultural references, with subtle differences in strategies used in each translation. However, both translations appear to be more domestication-oriented with little overall movement towards to the source culture, as the retranslation hypothesis suggests.

Keywords

Translation, foreignisation, domestication, translation norms, translation strategies, retranslation hypothesis.
1. Introduction

Translation was paramount in the spreading of early culturally and religiously important texts and ideals, shared by many societies (Munday, 2012, p. 10). Even nowadays, in a globally-connected world with immediate access to foreign cultures and societies, translation has an equally important function for communicating information, albeit for different purposes and contexts. In many countries, translated works make up a significant proportion of published titles (12% in Germany, 20% in Italy, 33% in Poland in 2011) (Büchner & Trentacosti, 2015). In the Anglophone world, however, translation accounts for a very low percentage, only 3% in the UK and Ireland in 2011. Nonetheless, one area of growing importance, albeit it a slow one, is fiction translated into English, as the demand for translated novels has increased in recent years, making up almost 5% of published fiction titles in the UK (Büchner & Trentacosti, 2015).

In the field of translation studies, much attention has been devoted to whether translated texts should stay closer to the source text and reflect the source culture and retain its features, or whether to integrate the translation with the target culture and with what the reader more readily recognises. These two ideas have been conceptualised in a myriad of ways by scholars, one of whom, Venuti (1995), coined the terms domestication (target-culture orientation) and foreignisation (source-culture orientation). The overwhelming tendency for translation into Anglo-American English is to use domestication and let the reader feel at home with a sense of being in his/her own cultural surroundings (Venuti, 1995). This tendency is criticised by Venuti, who advocates a foreignising method to allow other cultures more space and for the reader to “go abroad” (1995, p 20).

However, literary texts are not typically neutral and will often express views, rituals, and emotions, and can highlight settings that are specific to a particular cultural context. References to cultural aspects which are extra-linguistic – denoted as culture-specific items, or CSIs in Aixelá, 1996, Davies, 2003 – can pose particular problems for a translator as the target culture may lack such concepts or references expressed in the source culture, or they may differ greatly. Thus, conscious decisions must be made as to how to tackle these ‘inconsistencies’ and whether to keep or replace these items in the translation. These decisions take the form of translation strategies (discussed in sections 2.5.2 & 3.1.5).

Yet, one essential aspect of the study of translations of literary texts is the fact that because of the nature of changing societies, values, and language use, texts – especially important and culturally-bound literary ones – may be retranslated. The retranslation hypothesis indicates that in general, a first-translation is usually more ‘domesticated’ as it tries to establish itself in the audience’s culture, and that ensuing translations become more ‘foreignised’ (Gürcağlar, 2011). This is discussed further in 2.3.

Numerous studies investigate CSIs in general literary translation; however, many focus on texts that are either religiously or culturally important, or by authors who have obtained some sort of historical or cult-status. Moreover, much research has been
carried out on translation from English rather than to English, and even fewer studies tackle retranslation. One area of literary translation where there appears to be minimal research regarding CSIs is the popular genre of Scandinavian crime fiction Nordic Noir which gained enormous popularity in the English-speaking world after the publication of Stieg Larsson’s The Girl with the Dragon Tattoo in 2008 (Forshaw, 2013). CSIs provide references beyond pure language and it has been claimed that Nordic crime writers devote more focus to the surroundings and settings which are portrayed as “exotic” to the reader (Bergman, 2014, p. 85). The genre should thus offer exciting potential for extra-linguistic references. The aim of this study is therefore to compare two existing English-language translations (2000 & 2011) of the Swedish Nordic Noir novel, Sprängaren (The Bomber), by Liza Marklund (1998) from the viewpoint of CSIs and patterns of translation strategies employed. The following three research questions will be posed and investigated:

1. What translation strategies are employed by the translators when translating culture-specific items?
2. What changes in translation strategies can be observed between the two translations, if any, and what might this tell us about translation tendencies (or norms)?
3. In relation to the retranslation hypothesis, what direction does the latter translation move in when considering domestication/foreignisation?

This study will use a descriptive translation studies method (discussed in section 2.4) as a base to carry out a comparative and statistical survey of CSIs in the novel and its two translations.

2. Background

This section offers a brief overview of translation theory, focusing on elements relevant to the current study, dealing with domestication and foreignisation, retranslation, and descriptive translation studies. Further, the concept of culture is discussed. Finally, a selection of previous research is presented.

2.1 Translation and general theory

Translation can have many guises, but perhaps what is evoked for most people is the concept of interlingual translation in written form or “a text that expresses what another text has expressed in another language” (Schjoldager, 2010, p. 19). Offering a more process-oriented description, Munday (2012) describes translation as follows:

The process of translation between two different written languages involves the changing of an original written text (the source text or ST) in the original verbal language (the source language or SL) into a written text (the target text or TT) in a different verbal language (the target language or TL). (Munday, 2012, p. 8) (author’s emphasis)

The abbreviations quoted above shall be adopted henceforth when referring to either source or target text or language.
Translation studies as a discipline is a comparatively recent development, emerging during the latter half of the twentieth century. Nonetheless, discussions on translation and methods in Western culture date as far back as Cicero and Horace, in the first century BC (Munday, 2012, p. 13). However, up until relatively recently, translation per se was seen as part of language study rather than as a separate field. A generalisation of the history of translation thitherto could be summarised as movements discussing the relationship between the status of the translated text, its autonomy, and the notions of equivalence and function in relation to the ST (Venuti, 2012, p. 5). Equivalence concerns how close, faithful or accurate a translation is to the ST and function as how the translated text has an effect within its own culture on the target audience, and whether this is comparable to the effect created by the ST in the source culture (Venuti, 2012, p. 5). Scholars have continuously debated and advocated different stances as to whether to orient a translation closer to the ST or to the TT, and have adopted numerous dichotomies such as word-for-word vs sense-for-sense translation, direct vs oblique translation, formal vs dynamic equivalence and foreignising vs domesticating translation, to name a few (Schjoldager, 2010, p. 70).

As with other disciplines, many different theories are discussed within the field of translation studies. Since emerging as a discipline, it has undergone numerous shifts, moving away from an initial and prescriptive-equivalence or comparative bias in the 1950s and 60s to more functionalist, or culturally-oriented approaches in the 1970s and 80s. In more recent times, the discipline has expanded to include areas such as discourse analysis, polysystems and descriptive translation studies (Munday, 2012; Venuti, 2012). Since the 1990s there has been a tendency to move away from the translated text in isolation, to its being placed in a larger cultural and historical context, spawning a multitude of cultural ideologies (Munday, 2012, p. 192). This study takes on a descriptive translation studies character, inspired by, amongst others, Aixelá (1996), Davies (2003) and Öztemel & Kurt (2017).

### 2.2 Domestication and foreignisation

Adopting a source-text oriented bias, theologian Schleiermacher (1768-1834) was the first to develop a notion of ‘alienating’ and ‘naturalising’ a translation, describing it as “Either the translator leaves the author in peace, as much as possible, and moves the reader towards him; or he leaves the reader in peace, as much as possible, and moves the author towards him” (Venuti, 1995, pp. 19-20). Thus, the translator either emphasises the word-usage and values of the SL or avoids this and makes the translation more in line with the TL structures and values. Schleiermacher favoured the former to allow the reader a similar experience as if he/she could read the original ST (Munday, 2012, p. 46).

With these notions as reference points, Venuti (1995) adopts the terms domestication and foreignisation (terms still in current use) and discusses the role of the translator at great length and his/her invisibility. This invisibility is inherently linked to whether a translation is more aligned with the values of the target culture, domesticated, thus the text reads fluently and the translator is seemingly invisible, or whether “the foreignness
of the foreign text” is emphasised, *foreignised*, and the reader is made aware of the cultural differences and is taken “abroad” (Venuti, 1995, pp. 43, 99-101). Venuti lambastes the fact that literary translation into English for the Anglo-American audience is heavily domesticated and he suggests that this has been a contributing factor in causing the audience to be unreceptive to the idea of “the foreign”. He argues that when the reader sees his/her own culture in another cultural context, it decreases the value of other cultures (1995, pp. 15-17). Venuti’s preferred method is thus foreignisation, and states, “Foreignizing translation in English can be a form of resistance against ethnocentrism and racism, cultural narcissism and imperialism, in the interests of democratic geopolitical relations” (Venuti, 1995, p. 20). These two concepts have been frequently adopted when investigating translations from a cultural point of view, and can be employed on both a micro-level for individual elements, or on a macro-level to describe whole texts. Katan (2012), however, highlights criticism directed at Venuti’s stance arguing that the exact opposite should be applicable when translating literature from English, in order to combat the imperialistic nature of Anglo-American culture that Venuti despises (p. 212). Therefore, it could be implied that Venuti’s stance should only apply to translation into English.

2.3 Retranslation

Retranslation usually refers to translating a text that has already been translated at an earlier stage into the same language, as opposed to a *mediated translation* through a second language (Gürçağlar, 2011, p. 233). Discussions on retranslation have often concentrated on literature, especially religious and cultural texts or dramas, highlighting that it can contribute to a wider discussion of the source text (Gürçağlar, 2011, p. 233). The general retranslation hypothesis implies that a retranslation will be closer to the source text than its predecessor. Some consider retranslation to be a solution to previous inadequacies, or that the first translation is an initial placing of the text in the target culture and retranslations can permit adjustments to this, ideas held by scholars such as Goethe (1992) and Berman (1990) (in Deane-Cox, 2014, pp. 3-4).

Another aspect that the theory considers is that a translation can age, due to cultural, linguistic or social changes, thus requiring a new translation. This, however, may not be the case for all texts and some survive the need to retranslate (Gürçağlar, 2011, p. 234; Gambier, 1994). Deane-Cox (2014) points out that theoretical discussion about the retranslation hypothesis is rare and underlines that it is not empirically-based either, and is only “[...] a means of illustrating different types of hypotheses and potential translation universals [...]” (p. 5). Koskinen and Paloposki (2015) investigate retranslations and highlight that the first translation can often be seen as an entity to be remodified and that a first translator may be “a predecessor to be outsmarted or improved upon” (p. 2). They suggest that the retranslator must take a “stance” in retranslation and distance themselves from the first translation and that the translation acts as “a response to an earlier one” (pp. 1-3). Thus, one can expect two translations of the same source text to be rather different.
2.4 Descriptive translation studies and norms

Descriptive translation studies are rooted in polysystems theories which developed in the 1970s. These theories elevated the status of translated literature from being considered an inferior form of literature to being a “system operating in the larger social, literary and historical systems of the target culture” (Munday, 2012, p. 165) and moved towards a systematic branch of translation studies. Out of this, Toury (2012) proposed developing a general theory to describe translation, based on an earlier paper by Holmes (1972) who mapped out a framework to describe translation studies. Toury states that the target, or “host” culture is the crucial factor in deciding the translated text’s position and that the ST and TT can never occupy the same “space” (2012, p. 21). Toury claimed that methodology is lacking in general theory, thus proposed a procedure in three stages which could be summed up as:

- Analysing the significance of the translated text in the target culture system.
- Locating the ST and initiating a comparative analysis of the ST/TT, concentrating on textual segments or ‘low-level linguistic items’ in parallel. The translational relationship can be investigated by looking at shifts (changes or movements) between ST and TT and their variations, or lack of.
- Using the analysis, make retrospective generalisations about the relationship tendencies and processes (Munday, 2012, p. 170; Toury, 2012, pp. 93-113)

Adopting these stages as a base, operational patterns can be reconstructed through shifts and invariance, and can be used to assess the translational processes employed and their so-called norms (Munday, 2012, p. 171). Norms in general can be described as being a community’s shared, general values as to what may or may not be acceptable and offer clues to “distinguish regularities of behaviour in recurrent situations” (Toury, 2012, pp. 63-64). Norms are not rules in themselves, but culturally, historically or societal restrictions learnt by a person (Munday, 2012, p. 172). In translational terms, norms are taken from occurrences of behaviour (here, translation strategies) and used to hypothesise reasons for the actual behaviour itself, which might reflect general tendencies. In the scope of this study tendencies relate to the norms of the target culture or the source culture, in other words, domestication or foreignisation practices.

2.5 Defining culture and culture-specific items (CSI)

Describing culture is exceedingly difficult as it is often very subjective and based on certain values and ideologies. Amongst many descriptions offered by scholars, Newmark (1995) expresses it as “[…] the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression” (p. 94). Newmark also makes distinctions between universal, personal and cultural language, describing cultural language as referring to specific items belonging to a particular culture, and which may present translation problems (e.g. names of food dishes). This depends on how much the source and target cultures overlap, and in terms of knowledge and awareness of the source culture within the target-culture audience (p. 94). Such translation problems are referred to, for example, by Pedersen (2005) as “crisis points” which can be regarded as “symptomatic of underlying norms” (p. 1).
Regarding translation vis à vis culture, “The translator is often portrayed as a mediator whose task is to make these various cultural manifestations accessible to the reader of the translation” (Davies, 2003, p. 68).

The term *culture-specific item* (CSI) is adopted by Aixelá (1996) and Davies (2003), relating to a cultural, extra-linguistic reference not considered as belonging to a linguistic system in itself. This term appears in numerous ways in different studies, such as an *extralinguistic culture-bound reference* (Pedersen, 2005, p. 2). Aixelá (1996) criticises the arbitrariness when identifying CSIs and the fact that they are considered to be recognised intuitively and perceived to be static entities, such as referring to proper names, organisations, art etc (p. 57). He claims, thus, that it is necessary to refer to both a specific ST and a specific TL within the target culture in order to identify a CSI:

In translation a CSI does not exist of itself, but as the result of a conflict arising from any linguistically represented reference in a source text which, when transferred to a target language, poses a translation problem due to the nonexistence or to the different value (whether determined by ideology, usage, frequency, etc) of the given item in the target culture. (Aixelá, 1996, p. 57)

This highlights the importance for textual comparison, as well as the implied idea that CSIs will be different between different ST and TL relations. This is highlighted by Davies’ (2003) example of *Halloween*, constituting a CSI in a language such as Chinese, but not necessarily in French where people might be more acquainted with the term (p. 69). Although CSIs work on a micro-level, they contribute to the setting, background and feeling to the overall text, thus patterns and tendencies cannot be ignored within the context as a whole. Categorisation of such CSIs shall be discussed in section 2.5.1 and strategies in 2.5.2 & 3.1.5.

2.5.1 Categorising CSIs

CSIs cover a wide variety of objects and ideas, and Newmark (1995) proposes a classification widely used in studies investigating CSIs in translation (including Öztemel & Kurt 2017; Daghoughi & Hashemian 2016). Newmark categorises as follows with subcategories:

- Ecology – including flora, fauna, geographical features.
- Material culture – food, clothes, houses/towns, transport.
- Social Culture – items belonging to work and leisure.
- Organisations, custom, activities, procedures, concepts – which can be political, administrative, religious and artistic.
- Gestures and habits (Newmark, 1995, p 95).

Categorisation is important, as highlighted by Davies’ (2003) comments that indicate that CSIs should be assessed as to their overall importance to the textual effect and that CSIs may be considered as items belonging to a bigger “network of references” and that different strategies might apply to different networks in a text (p. 97). This model will serve as a base for CSI categorisation for the study, as described in section 3.1.3.

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2.5.2 Translation strategies for CSIs

Translation strategies are described as “procedures leading to the optimal solution of a translation problem” (Fernandez Guerra, 2012, p. 5). When investigating translation of CSIs, scholars will often adapt other people’s taxonomies of procedures to suit their own needs and goals (see for example Aixelá 1996; Katan 2012; Olk 2013; Pedersen 2005). Consequently, there are many frameworks from which to extract suitable strategy descriptions. In such studies, it is not uncommon to find strategies judged relating to how ‘foreign’ or how ‘domesticated’ that strategy is considered. A taxonomy of seven translation procedures is devised by Davies (2003) in her analysis of translation strategies of CSIs in J.K. Rowling’s Harry Potter books. Her model is in response to the perceived fuzziness of a previous model used by Aixelá (1996).

Although Davies makes no claim as to where her strategies lie on any scale, Ötemel & Kurt (2017) utilise these strategies in their study, ranking them in their overview as to whether they are considered more domesticating or more foreignising (p. 306). A full description of strategies with examples from the present study is found in section (3.1.5).

2.5.3 Comments on previous studies investigating CSIs

Studies investigating CSIs are extremely varied in nature, and models for classification and categorisation differ greatly, making them hard to compare. Moreover, results are often presented in very different manners, and often qualitatively. A majority appear to study translation of CSIs from English into other languages, such as Davies (2003) who investigates CSIs in translations of the Harry Potter books, and widely quoted scholar Aixelá (1996) who showcases his taxonomy of translation strategies for CSIs using Spanish translations of The Maltese Falcon. Less frequent seem to be studies investigating CSIs translated into English. Nonetheless, studies include: Ötemel & Kurt (2017) who investigate CSIs in Turkish author Latife Tekin’s Dear Shameless Death; Daghoughi & Hashemian (2016) who study Iranian author Jalal Al-Ahmad’s By the Pen; and Farahani & Mokhtari (2016) who also look at an Iranian novel Blind Owl by Hedayat. Although some of the studies are recent, they do not investigate modern literature; however, these studies all point towards domesticating strategies being the most common when translating into English, reflecting what has been previously mentioned about the target-culture bias of translations for the Anglo-American audience.

Searching for data on retranslation into English is even more problematic, underlining criticism mentioned in section 2.3. Nevertheless, there are interesting studies such as Leskobar (2017) who investigates personal and geographical names in three translations from the Slovenian tale Martin Krpan; and Shani (2006) who studies CSIs in two translations of Japanese author Kawabata’s Izu No Odoriko. Although neither presents statistical comparisons, both comment on tendencies of the retranslations to be more oriented towards the source culture than the predecessors, and become more foreignised, reflecting what the retranslation hypothesis implies. Despite tendencies of results in the studies, all display a combination of domestication and foreignisation approaches, and it is emphasised that a combination of procedures is necessary to
integrate the ST culture without estranging the TT audience too much (Davies, 2003, p. 97).

The difficulties highlighted above, in finding statistical data based on modern, popular literature, constitute one amongst several factors which motivate the current study; to present a methodical, comparable and reproduceable study in a contemporary genre.

3. Material and methodology

This study compares two translations of Liza Marklund’s 1998 novel Sprängaren in relation to the ST. Using a quantitative approach to answer the questions posed in the introduction, the study is based on the methodology of Descriptive Translation Studies (DTS) proposed by Toury (2012) (cf. section 2.4), investigating translational relations and shifts/changes (here of CSIs) between ST and TT, and to find strategic tendencies and norms. As the study involves two translations of the same ST, comparisons are made between the two regarding translation strategies within the realms of domestication and foreignisation. DTS was chosen as a preferred theory area as the current study deals with specific items and strategies on the micro-level, and DTS allows a methodical comparison for such items. As such studies appear to lack statistics, and are often assessed more qualitatively, it was decided to base this study on basic statistical comparisons in order to observe general patterns, changes and tendencies in translation strategies.

3.1 Primary sources and method

The primary sources for the study were the source text, Sprängaren by Liza Marklund (1998), and the two existing English translations, both with the title The Bomber, the first one published in 2000, and the second one published in 2011. In the present study, a 2002 edition of the first translation is used.

The choice of source text was due in part to its noted potential for CSIs, as well as its place in the increasingly popular genre of Scandinavian crime fiction, Nordic Noir. Moreover, research into CSIs often concerns culturally important texts, translation into languages other than English, and older texts, thus the current study offers a view of strategies in an area seemingly overlooked. It was purely coincidental that two translations were discovered as opposed to one, and after much research online, the conclusion was drawn that the second translation is the one of only three examples of an English-language retranslation of a Swedish crime fiction novel (all being Marklund’s), thus presenting an opportunity to explore a new area.

3.1.1 Liza Marklund, Sprängaren and its translations

In 1998, Swedish crime writer Liza Marklund (1962-) published Sprängaren, which was the first in a series about journalist Annika Bengtzon. The novel achieved overnight
success, outselling any other previously published novel in Sweden (Forshaw, 2013, p. 40). An English translation appeared on the Anglo-American market in 2000. With eleven novels in the series (all translated into English), films based on the novels, and other published work (including a co-written US best-seller with James Patterson), Marklund has been described by some as the ‘Godmother’ of Swedish crime fiction (Forshaw, 2013, p. 41).

The first English-language translation of Sprängaren, The Bomber, was undertaken by Kajsa von Hofsten and first published in 2000. Von Hofsten is a translator and subtitling consultant based in the United Kingdom and was responsible for the translation of two further Marklund novels (LinkedIn, Von Hofsten). The retranslation was completed and published under the same title in 2011 by Neil Smith. Smith has worked as a UK-based free-lance translator of Swedish to English since 2008 and has translated all but one of Marklund’s Annika Bengtzon novels, three of which are retranslations (LinkedIn, Smith). Neither translation offers any translator notes nor comments; however, the 2011 translation has both a map and a currency conversion chart proceeding the main text.

3.1.2 Data collection for the study

Firstly, CSIs had to be defined in order to be identified. They were considered to be anything that related specifically to either cultural items rooted in the ST culture, or items in the ST considered as differentiating from recognisable Anglo-American culture, and which might present potential problems to a translator, as described in section 2.5. Personal names, such as Annika Bengtzon, Christina Furhage etc, were discounted as they were considered peripheral, and there are also different translation conventions when translating between languages sharing a script, although they are usually retained in modern literature (Leskovar, 2017). Moreover, the sheer number of personal names was deemed to potentially affect results in a negative way. Measurements and currency, although differing between ST and TT cultures, were also left out as these were not considered culturally-bound enough to the ST. Secondly, the ST was read twice, retrieving CSIs and entering them (in context) into an Excel list under a CSI categorisation system (see 3.1.3 below). Subsequently, the two TTs were read and the corresponding CSIs in both the translations were found and extracted and entered in context into the same Excel document for comparison.

3.1.3 Categorisation of CSIs

Due to the scope of the study being limited, Newmark’s categorisation (mentioned in 2.5.1) formed a base for CSI collection in the current study as the number of categories was limited. It was adapted accordingly to suit the nature of the data found in the study, thus:

- Ecology/Geography – ecological/geographical features, names for areas, regions, towns, roads
- Material culture – buildings, clothes, food, houses/homes, shops, other (e.g. transport)
- Social Culture – literature, TV- and radio programmes, songs, other (e.g. non-organisational occupation-related words)
Organisational culture – organisations, administration terms, organisational jobs, companies, other (e.g. educational institutes, traditions)

Gestures and habits (mentioned in 2.5.1) appeared an awkward category to define and was removed as it did not appear to encompass CSIs retrieved from the ST. Ecology was expanded to include towns, regions and roads as they were considered features rather than materialistic or ‘ownable’ entities.

3.1.4 Data analysis

After collation was completed, each CSI from the ST was compared to its TT translation, and the translation strategy that best suited the transfer from ST to TT was noted next to each TT translation within the framework for strategy taxonomy (described below in 3.1.5 & 3.1.6). Due to the limitations of the study and number of CSIs, it was decided to note types rather than tokens, thus repeated words with identical translations in both TTs were discounted. In many cases, the *Merriam-Webster* and *Oxford English* dictionaries were consulted to determine the categories and nature of the words used, and many Swedish organisations and bodies had to be consulted online to verify whether official English translations were being used. After all the strategies had been evaluated, a quantitative exercise was performed by pen and paper, noting CSI type and occurrences against translation strategy. Subsequently, patterns and tendencies could be observed and noted; see Results (section 4).

3.1.5 Davies’ translation strategies model

Davies’ strategies model (2003), briefly mentioned in 2.5.2, formed the base for the taxonomy of translation strategies in the current study. They are described below with examples extracted from the results. All Swedish-language examples are from Marklund 1998, and English-language translations are marked either belonging to the 2002 or 2011 publication.

3.1.5.1 Preservation

The term in the ST may be kept in its original form in the TT, often used for names and places. This might also include a slight orthographical modification to suit the target audience:

- *En glögg på morgonkvisten, herrn?* (p. 141)
  - “*Some glogg for the early bird, sir?*” (2002, p. 135)

Preservation may also include a literal (linguistic) translation, without any explanation. This might also render the CSI as slightly strange in the TT:

- *Folk från journalisthögskolan är uppknutna för att svara i telefonerna för *ring och sjung* […]* (p. 40). (*ring och sjung* = a phone-in radio programme to express viewpoints)
  - "*We’ve got students from the School of Journalism manning the phones for *Ring and Sing* […]*” (2002, p. 33).
Aixelá (1996) also mentions officially-recognised translations for organisations and bodies in his sub-category, *linguistic translation*. This label includes a close literal translation into the TL, offering “linguistic transparency” but staying close to the ST (pp. 59-60). This corresponds to Davies’ umbrella term of *preservation*.

### 3.1.5.2 Addition

The CSI may be preserved as above, but the item alone may be hard to comprehend, thus the translator might insert additional information for clarification:

> Hon köpte en pastasallad och en **julmust** […] (p. 159).
> She bought a pasta salad and a **Christmas Must, the special Swedish Christmas soft drink** […] (2002, p. 392).

Too much information, however, can lead to a disruption of the text and overemphasise an element. In certain circumstances, footnotes might be a way of dealing with extra information.

*Preservation* and *addition* are considered by Ötemel & Kurt (2017) as foreignising strategies. The following five categories are regarded as being predominantly domesticating strategies.

### 3.1.5.3 Omission

In certain instances, a suitable translation may not be found and it may be deemed more appropriate to remove the CSI than draw unnecessary attention to it. It may also be an act of “desperation” on the translator’s part and require too much time to solve (Davies, 2003, p. 79):

> […] hon åtminstone fick gott om poäng på **MedMera**. (p. 223)
> […] consoling herself with the fact she would get a lot of bonus points. (2011, p. 212)

(*literal translation*) - she got at least a lot of points on her MedMera card.

*MedMera* is a loyalty card and the translator has decided that it is of little importance, and rather than explaining it, opts to remove it.

### 3.1.5.4 Globalisation

This involves the CSI being replaced with a more general term, usually in a hyperonymic relation. This strategy allows a broader readership to understand the reference:

> Hon hittade en halvmält **Centerrulle** i pennlädan […] (p. 216). *(Center = brand of chocolate pastilles)*
> She found a half-melted **chocolate bar** in the pencil tray […] (2002, p. 211).

The name of the chocolate has been deemed irrelevant and so has been replaced by a generic description.
3.1.5.5 Localisation

Instead of losing the specificity of a CSI, as with globalisation, a counter-strategy may be applied, finding a cultural equivalent in the target culture:

De åt en snabb frukost med jordgubbsfil och kalaspuffar […] (p. 236).
They ate a quick breakfast of strawberry yogurt and Sugar Puffs […] (2011, p. 225).

Although the CSIs are virtually identical, the translator has chosen a brand name anchored in the knowledge of a local, British audience. (N.B. jordgubbsfil, fil being a special type of soured milk, has been ‘globalised’ to strawberry yoghurt.)

3.1.5.6 Transformation

Neither localising or globalising, a translator might want to avoid lack of clarity and opt to replace a CSI reference with a (slightly) different reference in the target culture:

[…] rad efter rad med likadana gula kedjehus med tegelgavlar […] (p. 204).

The term kedjehus (lit. chain-houses) is a specific term for a particular type of house. The translator might perhaps have opted for globalisation and used houses or buildings; however, a different, recognisable term was used to evoke a particular feeling.

3.1.5.7 Creation

Seemingly a rare strategy, it involves creating a CSI not present in the ST. This can be applicable to the creation of new names to convey “descriptive meaning” or deliver semantic transparency (Davies, 2003, p. 87):

[…] men alla kallar det för Dafa Spar. […] (p. 53).
[…] usually goes under the name of PubReg. […] (2002, p. 46).

Dafa Spar is an acronym, only partly explained in the novel, for a state-managed citizen register. The translator has created a new acronym based the words Public Register, thus not a direct translation but her own invention. Public register is also used as a translation for the same term elsewhere in the novel (see also 4.1.4) as a ‘globalisation’ as it is otherwise a general term.

3.1.6 Taxonomy in the study

The taxonomy of strategies established in 3.1.5 above formed the basis for the taxonomy in the current study. Due to the nature of the results, three changes were subsequently implemented to Davies’ category of preservation as it was felt that it was too broad.

- CSIs that preserved the original CSI or a slightly modified orthographical convention (such as glögg → glogg) were classified under the label preservation.
• CSIs that were wholly linguistically translated or used an official translation (such as journalistförbundet → the Journalists’ Association) were labelled as linguistic translations as mentioned in 3.1.5.1 and used by Aixelá (1996).

• CSIs that were partly translated and partly retained a ST element (such as Kungsholmstorg → Kungsholm’s Square) were sorted under a label, partial translation (a label created especially for the study) in order to distinguish it from a wholly translated or wholly retained CSI.

These extra labels helped investigate patterns applied to certain types of CSIs, as one might consider certain linguistic or direct translations as being weaker forms of foreignisation (see diagram in Pedersen 2005, p. 4).

3.1.7 Problems encountered

During the data collection, several problems were encountered and noted. Firstly, after having extracted a test chapter of CSIs as isolated words, it was deemed necessary to extract whole clauses or sentences as the nature of the context was crucial in understanding the transfer. The 2011 e-book had a different page and chapter format, thus hampering the speed of the data collection. Some translation processes also appeared to use more than one strategy, which seemed to contradict some of the original taxonomy. For example:

[…] Christina hade bestämt platsen, Blå Hallen i Stadshuset. (p. 251)
[…] Christina had chosen the venue, the Blue Hall of the City Hall, where they have the Nobel Dinner (2011, p. 239)

This uses both linguistic translation and addition strategies. Newmark (1995) mentions the concept of couplets which relate to a combination of strategies, often for CSIs. As the scope of the study is limited, it was subsequently decided to appraise each example as to where the main strategy was deemed to lie, in this example the CSI is linguistically translated first in order for an addition to be possible. The idea of couplets was felt to impede rather than aid the study. This did not affect many CSIs.

Some individual CSIs also posed problems such as pepparkaka (a thin ginger biscuit) being translated to cookie, owing to the US-English word being a generic or global term for ‘biscuit’, and in British-English being used to denote a very specific type of biscuit. In such circumstances, the globalisation strategy took precedence as it was assumed that the translation is intended to be accessible to all anglophone readers, thus globalisation covers both intentions.
4. Results and discussion

This section provides both a general overview of the observed translation strategies in the study, as well as a more detailed breakdown of strategies according to CSI type. A discussion then follows in relation to the research questions. An overview of the subcategory breakdowns is listed in the appendix.

4.1 General results

A total of 367 CSIs were retrieved from the ST. As regards general domestication and foreignisation strategies, there appears to be very little difference between Translation 1 (Kajsa von Hofsten, 2000, studied edition 2002) and Translation 2 (Neil Smith, 2011) as in Figure 1. The results indicate that within the scope of CSIs, domestication strategies are generally preferred in both.

![Overview of general strategies](image)

**Figure 1 - overview of domestication/foreignisation strategies for CSIs in the translations studied.**

On the surface, it might appear as if there is very little difference in the domestication/foreignisation strategies observed between the translations; however, looking in more detail, subtle differences can be witnessed when investigating individual translation strategies (see Figure 2 below).
The most striking overall observation is that globalisation is by far the most frequently employed strategy in both translations, accounting for over a third of CSIs, which points towards a norm for this domestication strategy. In Translation 2, there is a marked shift away from the use of addition and omission, towards preservation and globalisation. This is interesting, as the major shifts both involve similar movement within both domesticating and foreignising strategies. In order to better understand the shifts, each CSI category is presented below with some general comments.

4.1.1 Ecology and geography

The overall results in this category of CSIs indicate that preservation is the overwhelmingly preferred strategy in both translations, which contributes to the strong foreignisation of this type of CSI. Translation 1 also frequently uses globalisation, addition and omission, whereas Translation 2 often utilises partial translation.

Table 1. Strategies observed in percentages for CSIs in ecology/geography category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Translation 1</th>
<th>Translation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>items</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>41.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic translation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial translation</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>10.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalisation</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localisation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The clear shift from globalisation, omission and addition in Translation 1 towards preservation and partial translation in Translation 2, keeps the CSIs relatively untouched. This was discovered to be most pronounced in the translation of area and region names (see examples 1 & 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Translation 1</th>
<th>Translation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1) Bagarmossen</td>
<td>the south suburbs (globalisation)</td>
<td>Bagarmossen (preservation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2) i Småland</td>
<td>in Småland, in southern Sweden (addition)</td>
<td>in Småland (preservation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3) på restaurang Vildsvin på Fleminggatan i fredags kväll.</td>
<td>at the restaurant last Friday night. (omission)</td>
<td>in the Vildsvin restaurant on Fleminggatan on Friday evening. (preservation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4) … Södertunneln</td>
<td>The South Tunnel (globalisation – due to 'south' relating generally rather than specifically to island of Söder)</td>
<td>The Södermalm Tunnel (partial translation also with expansion of 'Söder' = Södermalm)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Preservation was a preferred strategy in both translations for roads. The use of omission and globalisation relating to road names is almost completely absent in Translation 2, nearly always preserving the CSI or occasionally partly translating it (see examples 3 & 4). Translation 2 appears thus to place a bigger emphasis upon keeping references in the setting as close to the source text as possible.

4.1.2 Material culture

*Material culture* encompasses a wider variety of CSIs; consequently, there is a bigger range of strategies employed here. The overall tendencies are to employ a high level of globalisation, although linguistic translations are also frequently used.

**Table 2. Strategies observed in percentages for CSIs in material culture category.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Translation 1</th>
<th>Translation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>items</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic translation</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial translation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalisation</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>36.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localisation</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A noteworthy shift between translations was regarding localisation. Translation 2 reduced this strategy in favour of globalisation primarily relating to house/home-related CSIs (example 5).

Food CSIs constituted a significant proportion of the results. In this subcategory, both translations were quite consistent, primarily using either a linguistic translation for something easily translatable and recognisable, or using globalisation for items that might be perceived as difficult to explain, or which seem strange to the reader (example 6). The only preservations for food were to be found in Translation 1 (example 7) and the only transformations were in Translation 2 (example 8).

Both translations appear to be more domestication-oriented in this category.

### 4.1.3 Social culture

Social culture witnessed some of the biggest shifts in translation strategies. Translation 1 uses predominantly foreignising strategies, whereas Translation 2 uses almost exclusively domesticating strategies.

#### Table 3. Strategies observed in percentages for CSIs in social culture category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Translation 1</th>
<th>Translation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Items</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalisation</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>37.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localisation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>56</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of CSIs in this category comprised the subcategories of literature, TV- and radio programmes, and songs, which are perhaps amongst some of the most culturally-bound references in the source text. Translation 1 translated these particular CSIs more often directly, or preserved them with italics, sometimes with an addition for clarification (examples 9 & 10). Linguistic translations, especially of literature or songs, were often witnessed in Translation 1 (example 11).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST</th>
<th>Translation 1</th>
<th>Translation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9) direkt i Rapports extra sändning</td>
<td>live on the Rapport special bulletin (preservation)</td>
<td>a live broadcast on the television news (globalisation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10) medan Ekot låtsades att grejen var deras.</td>
<td>whilst the radio news program Eko pretended the story was theirs. (addition)</td>
<td>while the radio news bulletin was pretending that it was their story. (globalisation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11) … slog planlöst upp OS-chefen i Nationalencyklopedin</td>
<td>… and looked up the Olympics supremo in the Dictionary of National Biography (localisation)</td>
<td>… and idly looked up the Olympics boss in the Dictionary of National Biography (localisation)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Translation 2, however, placed less importance on preserving or directly translating these types of CSI, and used mainly globalisation and localisation strategies moving the reader towards the target culture and ignoring the specifically Swedish references.

4.1.4 Organisational culture

Both translations were very consistent in the strategies used for Organisational culture.

Table 4. Strategies observed in percentages for CSIs in organisational culture category.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Translation 1</th>
<th>Translation 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>items</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preservation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic translation</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>20.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partial translation</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addition</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omission</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Globalisation</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>44.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Localisation</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transformation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The only noteworthy change in this category is a shift from the use of addition in Translation 1 to globalisation in Translation 2 such as with a couple of company names (examples 12 & 13). Globalisation was otherwise consistently preferred in both translations, especially when dealing with CSIs relating to organisational names and administrative terms (examples 14 & 15).
Both translations rely heavily on domesticating translations strategies.

4.2 Discussion of research questions

After having presented the results according to CSI categories, let us now turn our attention to the general research questions posed in the introduction.

The first research question was, “What translation strategies are employed by the translators when translating culture-specific items?” The results from the study reveal that both translators have made use of almost all the available strategies within the realms of both domestication and foreignisation, based on the slightly adapted version of Davies’ (2003) taxonomy, described in sections 3.1.5/3.1.6. The one exception is the creation strategy, featuring in only 2 cases in Translation 1 and totally absent from Translation 2. Globalisation is the most frequent strategy in both translations, accounting for the largest share of total strategies employed, and accounting for the majority of domesticating strategies. This reflects domestication trends found in other studies mentioned in 2.5.3.

The second question posed was, “What differences in strategies can be observed between the two translations, and what might this tell us about translation tendencies (or norms)?” Based on the results, shifts were observed between Translation 1 and Translation 2 in the use of certain strategies depending on the CSI category. Despite both translations showing predominantly foreignising strategies for ecology/geography, there was a shift away from globalisation, as well as weaker shifts from omission and addition, all towards preservation. This occurred in relation to area, road and region names. These shifts, as well as the move away from addition, showed a strong tendency for keeping CSIs in their original form in Translation 2. In material culture, a small shift away from localisation towards globalisation was witnessed, although both translations were fairly consistent in using domestication strategies. In social culture there was a large shift from a preference for the foreignisation categories of preservation, linguistic translation and addition towards the domestication strategy of globalisation. This generally concerned CSIs that pertained to very cultural concepts, such as literature, TV-programmes and songs. Organisational culture witnessed far fewer shifts, usually from addition to globalisation, frequently with Swedish company names. However, both translations use mainly domesticating strategies.
The range of observed differences highlights very distinct ways of dealing with the “crisis points” that Pedersen (2005) describes CSIs as being, and highlights the complexity of presenting a Swedish context at the same time as needing to please readers. Also, findings also highlight the different ways CSIs are treated, in line with what Davies (2003) claims about different CSIs belonging to different networks which might require different strategies (briefly mentioned in 2.5.1).

As far as norms are concerned, the results of the investigation indicate that through the tendencies towards domestication, both translations appear to subscribe more to the norms of the target culture and help the reader feel more at home. This supports what Venuti (1995) points out about the bias of Anglo-American literature towards domestication. This was achieved by the overwhelming preference for the globalisation strategy, although instances of localisation, omission and transformation were observed. Strategy changes were witnessed between Translation 1 and Translation 2, and these changes indicate a shift towards more emphasis on the foreignisation of the scene (such as places and roads) rather than the ‘props’ (the literature read or the TV programmes watched). This appears to correspond with the idea of Nordic Noir placing heavy emphasis on the setting, and could indicate that norms are changing to allow more foreignness of a scene or stage, or quite simply that where someone is going is more important than what they are eating or singing. The idea of relevance is tackled by Aixelà (1996) suggesting that CSIs are treated differently depending on their textual function and that relevance, recurrence and coherence all play a role (pp. 69-70). The results of the current study indicate that the translators place slightly different emphasis on different types of CSIs; however, we still witness similar strategy tendencies within material culture and organisational culture, which could indicate more stable or stronger norms in dealing with these types of CSIs.

The fact that Translation 2 moves clearly away from addition to preservation seems to indicate that there is more emphasis on the ‘foreign element’ when it does appear, by not making any further explanations which may impose on the reader. This is highlighted by the fact that there is a map of central Stockholm at the beginning of the novel (which does not exist in the original or Translation 1). Nonetheless, its existence permits the reader to better understand place references which will feel foreign and allows the novel to flow. However, one could question Venuti’s (1995) notion of the translator’s ‘visibility’ of using foreignisation strategies, as removing additions seems to allow the reader to be more in peace and makes the translator less apparent overall.

The fact that so little time has passed between the translations implies that cultural changes in the target culture would not be sufficient to account for changes in norms in those cultures or between translations. However, what has happened is that the genre of Nordic Noir gained huge global exposure in the time between Translation 1 and Translation 2 (2000-2011). In that time the translation of Swedish fiction to English almost tripled from twelve in 2000 to 33 titles in 2011 (Büchler & Trentacosti, 2015). So one could pose the question as to whether norms are in the process of changing within this genre.

The final question asked, “In relation to the retranslation hypothesis, what direction does the latter translation move in when considering domestication/foreignisation?” Comparing the results of both translations, neither displays any extreme tendencies,
although both are more domestication-oriented as regards the translation of CSIs. As earlier criticised by Deane-Cox (2014), the retranslation hypothesis does not seem rooted in empirical data and could therefore be questioned as a benchmark. In terms of CSIs, the data from this study does not display a strong gravitation towards foreignisation in the retranslation as the hypothesis implies. Statistically, and rather surprisingly, the total amount of domestication/foreignisation strategies used is virtually unchanged between translations. However, the fact that shifts do exist when assessing strategies in relation to the type of CSI might show that the idea of a translator taking a ‘stance’ (as mentioned by Koskinen and Paloposki 2015) is certainly an element that should be considered rather than from a purely domestication/foreignisation point of view. It should be assumed that unless a retranslation is markedly different, there would be no obvious point in executing one.

4.3 General discussion

The discovery of the tendency towards domesticating norms of CSIs in both translations has uncovered what could be described as an insufficiency of the umbrella terms *domestication* and *foreignisation*, or of any of the previous dichotomies, to describe a translation when comparing it to a predecessor. In her conclusion, Davies (2003) also challenges the traditional positioning of texts on a scale of closeness to TT or ST, and that seemingly opposing strategies may all contribute to the accessibility to the TT. This criticism has arisen in the current study because if the raw data of the current study was simply observed from a purely domestication/foreignisation viewpoint, then it would not have uncovered any major differences in the overall results (as both translations are more domestication-oriented in dealing with CSIs) and one could have thus questioned the necessity of executing a new translation. However, it was by taking the descriptive translation studies angle and using strategies as a comparative method on a micro level that the study uncovered movements and differences within domestication and foreignisation. In addition, categorisation of CSIs into groups, rather than commenting upon individual words, proved essential in being able to compare translations. This highlights the importance of both the method and the usefulness of descriptive translation studies to uncover these movements.

Initially, Davies’ (2003) model for strategies was a decent base, but it was deemed rather broad in the term *preservation*, which was adapted in the present study. She herself both mentions and criticises previous models, and devised her own. This highlights the importance of being critical of others’ models and to modify where needed. In relation to this study, a modification enabled the observation of subtle movements.
5. Concluding words

The overall aim of this study was to compare two existing English-language translations of the novel *Sprängaren* (The Bomber) by Liza Marklund from the viewpoint of culture-specific items (CSIs) and translation strategies employed.

Results showed a wide-ranging and varied use of translation strategies, as well as showing that the translation of CSIs is generally domestication-oriented. It also uncovered shifts in the strategies used in the later translation. The results of the present study do not confirm the retranslation hypothesis, which suggests that retranslations will shift more towards foreignisation. However, the study has provided a quantitative insight into the strategies employed, as well as highlighting shifts in strategy, without affecting the overall proportion of domestication and foreignisation. This could also provide advice to translators as to how to distance themselves from a first translation, without distancing them further from a source text. The study has also highlighted an insufficiency of the terms *domestication* and *foreignisation* when comparing translations, and has underlined the importance of investigating at a micro level.

CSIs are only one aspect of comparing and evaluating a translation. To investigate a translation in its entirety, future studies will also need to investigate syntactic, idiosyncratic and structural elements and appraise associated strategies and norms to discover whether there are any similar orientations towards domestication or foreignisation. To consolidate findings and to get a stronger idea of general or changing norms, a further study of the other two retranslated novels in Marklund’s series could be undertaken, and comparisons made against other translations in the same genre, as well as against other genres and retranslations that have wider timescales from their predecessors. This would, however, be a substantial task and the subject of more extensive research.
References

Primary Sources

Secondary Sources


**Web-based sources**


### Appendix

Table of total observed translation strategies in the study.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KVH = Kajsa von Hofsten (Translation 1, 2000)</th>
<th>NS = Neil Smith (Translation 2, 2011)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>KVH</th>
<th>NS</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Eco-geography zones</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Land names</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Region names</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Material Culture</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buildings</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Foods</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Housing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shops</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Social Culture</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TV/Radio programmes</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Organisation of culture</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital names</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration systems</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organisational/poc</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Company names</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Total**                       | 46  | 19 | 65    |