Translating terms and cultural aspects from English to Swedish in a social scientific text about gastronomy
Abstract
The present study deals with the translation of a text about tourism and gastronomy. The analysis focuses on the translation of cultural words and terminology. The aim of the study was to analyse the translation problems that may arise in an academic text dealing with tourism and gastronomy, and see what strategies are usable to handle these problems. The translation strategies that are used in the analysis are Vinay & Darbelnet’s (2008) and Newmark’s (1988). A number of different translation problems were addressed, for instance how to deal with borrowings and with cultural adaptations.

Keywords: adaptations, borrowings, culinary tourism, cultural words, food, gastronomy, terminology, tourism

Thanks to:
My mother, who has always been there.
Magnus, for great support.
My friends and the rest of my family. You know who you are.
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1. Introduction

In recent years, a growing emphasis has been placed on tourism experiences and attractions related to food. In many cases eating out while on holiday includes the ‘consumption’ of a local heritage, comparable to what is experienced when visiting historical sites and museums.

(Hjalager & Richards 2001: cover page)

Food tourism is a phenomenon that has become much more popular in the last few years. The demand for this industry is clearly growing, and therefore as a natural side effect, texts on the subject are also needed – in all languages.

The present study focuses on an academic text written by Greg Richards called “Gastronomy: An essential ingredient in tourism production and consumption?” taken from the book Tourism and Gastronomy, edited by Anne-Mette Hjalager and Greg Richards. It is an excerpt that deals with subjects such as food culture in particular, and globalisation and tourism in general. The present study analyses the translation of terminology used and cultural aspects, especially those dealing with gastronomy. There are two different models that I have used for this translation. These are Newmark's (1988) and Vinay & Darbelnet's (1995/2004). Often, a single example can cover both the aspect of terminology and that of culture. That is, a term can also have cultural aspects to it and a cultural word can be used as terminology. An example of this is shown in (1):

(1) Their influence has to some extent reflected the power of national cultures, as exemplified in the extension of French haute cuisine through the elite of Europe, or the relative obscurity of Portuguese gastronomy.

Influenserna från detta har till viss del reflekterat nationalkulturernas makt, som exemplifierats i utbredningen av Frankrikes haute cuisine genom Europas elit, eller att den portugisiska gastronomin är relativt okänd.

This is a borrowing according to Vinay & Darbelnet (1995: 31–2). Some words, like haute cuisine for instance, can be directly borrowed into both English and Swedish because they are part of our culture. France and its cuisine have influenced us for a long time, and many words having to do with cooking or gastronomy have found their way into both languages. English has borrowed words from French and French cuisine such
as *chiffonade* and *gratin*. This process is similar in Swedish, just as we can see in example (1) above.

These kinds of similarities, but also certain kinds of dissimilarities, between the source text and the target text can often ensue in a translation. It is the task of the translator to transfer the meaning from one language to another and, naturally, overlaps between how languages (and cultures) are structured and dissimilarities can and will occur. This will be targeted in the present thesis.

1.1 Aim:

The aim of this thesis is to analyse the translation problems that may arise in an academic text dealing with tourism and gastronomy. What gastronomy terms are there in the text and how can they be translated? What strategies are usable to deal with these translation problems? Focus will be on terminology and cultural words, especially those that deal with gastronomy.

1.2 Method & Material

The primary source of this essay is an excerpt from the article “Gastronomy: An essential ingredient in tourist production and consumption?” by Greg Richards from the book *Tourism and Gastronomy*, edited by Anne-Mette Hjalager and Greg Richards, and published by Routledge 2002. The ST contains 4599 words, and the TT 4260 words.

As the text contains many subject-specific terms, the intended target group for my target text (henceforth TT) is, for instance, scholars and teachers in the field of social studies in general, but also researchers and teachers in other fields such as tourism sciences and gastronomy. However, I have attempted to make a translation that would interest a person without much knowledge in the fields that the text covers also.

I started by translating the text using as little theory as possible, so that I would not be influenced by any theories. This was because I was curious to see what type of strategies were used when translating intuitively.

The text was translated over a long period of time, and I would often have to use Google and look at parallel texts on the subject. The dictionary I used was mainly Norstedts English dictionary (*Engelsk-svenska Svensk-engelska ordboken*). Since my source text (henceforth ST) covered a number of different subjects, I was not able to
find any parallel texts that would correspond directly to what my ST was about when it came to the more specialised terms. The terms that I needed were for the most part found in papers that had been published in DIVA from different universities around Sweden and in other kinds of parallel texts such as publications from the authorities and forum posts, which gave me clues on whether my terms used would be acceptable or not. These papers were found by googling the needed terms, and, when needed, doing research in dictionaries and on Wikipedia for instance for clues about how to proceed. The papers were also used for supporting the terms chosen in the analysis. Many of the chosen terms and expressions have several different aspects connected to them, for example that they can be classified both as terminology and as cultural words. I also did a small corpus study in order to support one of my examples in the analysis.

I divided the analysis into a quantitative and a qualitative part, letting the quantitative part cover the translation in more general terms. The qualitative part, in turn, goes more in-depth on separate occasions of interesting finds. The largest part of the study, however, is the qualitative analysis.

According to Ospina (2004: 9), there are several reasons as to why one would use qualitative research and do a qualitative analysis. These reasons are, among others:

- Exploring a phenomenon that has not been studied before.
- To add nuance and a rich amount of detail that illustrates or documents knowledge that already exists of a phenomenon, generated quantitatively.
- Better understanding a topic by studying it concurrently using both methods.
- To try to “understand” a social phenomenon from the perspective of the people involved, rather than making an unsuccessful explanation from the outside.
- Understanding complex phenomena that are either difficult or impossible to capture quantitatively (Ospina 2004: 9).

All of these are, more or less, valid for the present study.

According to Johnson, the main reasons for quantitative analysis are:

- data reduction (summarizing trends, capturing the common aspects of a set of observations),
- inference (generalizing from a representative set of observations),
- discovery of relationship (finding descriptive patterns in data) and
- exploration of processes that may have a basis in probability.

In my study, I will only use the first goal mentioned (data reduction) (2008: 15–16).
2. Theoretical background

This section of the thesis presents definitions of all aspects that are viable for this study, such as terminology and cultural words. There is also a presentation of the translation strategies that are used in my translation, as well as a presentation of translation issues that can occur. This section is structured in the following way: 2.1 deals with terminology, 2.2 with cultural words, 2.3 discusses translation strategies and 2.4 deals with the translation issues and discontinuities that the translator faces.

2.1 Terminology

Terminology is defined as 'the doctrine or scientific study of terms; in use almost always. The system of terms belonging to any science or subject; technical terms collectively; nomenclature.' (OED, [www]). This is the definition that will be used in the present study.

In this thesis, terminology from the fields of gastronomy and (culinary) tourism are analysed. Gastronomy is defined as 'the art and science of delicate eating' (ibid, [www]). Tourism is defined as 'The theory and practice of touring; travelling for pleasure. (Orig. usually depreciatory.) Also, the business of attracting tourists and providing for their accommodation and entertainment; the business of operating tours.' (ibid, [www]). Culinary is defined as 'of or pertaining to cookery' (ibid, [www]). Therefore, culinary tourism would be defined as 'travelling for pleasure that is pertaining to cookery'. In my thesis, a gastronomy term is, quite simply, a term that pertains to the subject of gastronomy, and a culinary tourism term is a term that is part of the subject of culinary tourism.

The coining of terms is a natural part of what a translator does. A part of the foundation of traditional terminology is the so-called univocity principle, saying that only a single term should be assigned to a concept and vice versa. This principle exists to ensure communication that is efficient and effective. If it is violated, it is seen as a source of ambiguity. This principle has repeatedly been questioned during the last decade. Several scholars have begun to advocate the need to acknowledge synonymy and variation as a part of specialised terminology in addition to general language (Thelen 2010: 14).
2.2 Cultural words

*The Oxford English Dictionary* presents culture as 'the arts and other manifestations of human intellectual achievement regarded collectively' or 'the ideas, customs, and social behaviour of a particular people or society' (OED, [www]).

According to Newmark (1988: 94), *culture* can be defined as 'the way of life and its manifestations that are peculiar to a community that uses a particular language as its means of expression.' He distinguishes *cultural* from *personal* and *universal* language. With words such as *star*, *swim* and *mirror*, being universals, there are usually no translation problems. A cultural word is for example *tagliatelle*. *The Oxford English Dictionary* defines *tagliatelle* as 'Egg noodles cut into ribbons.' (OED, [www]). When it comes to these, there will be a translation issue unless there is cultural overlap between the source language (henceforth SL) and the target language (henceforth TL).

When a speech community focuses its attention on a topic in particular (usually being called *cultural focus*), it creates a large number of words to designate its special terminology or language – the English on sport, the French on cheese and wines, the Germans on sausages, etc. Oftentimes where there is *cultural focus*, there will be a translation problem due to the cultural gap between the SL and the TL. Mostly, cultural words are easy to locate. They are often associated with a particular language, and therefore a word-for-word translation is not possible (Newmark 1988:94).

There are a few general aspects to consider when translating cultural words. Firstly, it is of utmost importance to recognise the cultural concepts that are referred to in the SL text, and respect all foreign cultures and their respective countries. The translator of a cultural word must also bear in mind the motivation of the reader, how specialised the reader is (relating to the topic of the text) and the linguistic level of the readership (Newmark 1988: 96).

In the following subsection, the translation strategies of Newmark (1988) and Vinay & Darbelnet (1995/2004) will be presented. Also, a part of the section shows the kinds of problems that a translator faces, and what can be done to solve these.
2.3 Translation strategies

A translator has to use a number of different translation strategies in order to produce a good translation. The strategies can, however, be combined using the strategies of several different scholars. The translation strategies that will be explained below are from Newmark (1988: 46).

*Faithful translations* reproduce the precise contextual meaning of the ST, following the grammatical structures of the target language. Cultural words are 'transferred', and any deviation from source language norms are preserved in the translation. *Faithful translations* attempt to be completely faithful to the intentions of the ST's writer. *Semantic translations* differ only slightly from faithful translations; the only difference is that they have to be more observing of the beautiful and natural sounds of the SL text, sometimes compromising on “meaning” where appropriate so that no word-play or repetition occurs. Moreover, less important cultural words may be translated by culturally neutral words or functional terms without cultural equivalents. An example of this that Ingo (2009: 40) gives is that in a translation of a newspaper headline, such as the made-up follow-up of a recent hunt for a criminal: “The police arrested the fugitive at *Gatwick*”, the Swedish translation could be “Polisen grep rymlingen i *England*”. The reason as to why this happens is that a newspaper headline is short, and while an explanation of what Gatwick is might be the best choice in a longer text, this is not an available option in the restricted frame of space that a headline has. Finally, the distinction between *faithful* and *semantic* translation is that faithful translations are uncompromising and dogmatic, while semantic translations are more flexible, allowing for more free translations.

A famous duo of researchers in translation is Vinay & Darbelnet (1995/2004). A number of their translation strategies are also used in this translation. Their model encompasses phenomena such as *borrowing, calque, literal translation* and *oblique translation* such as *modulation* and *adaptation* (1995). A *borrowing* takes place when the SL word is transferred directly to the TL. An example of this could be a word such as *haute cuisine*, which is used in English to fill a semantic gap in the language. Calque is the “special kind of borrowing” where the SL expression or structure is transferred in a literal translation. An example of a calque is *skysrapa*. This is a literal translation of the English compound word *skyscraper*. A literal translation is a word-for-word translation. According to Vinay & Darbelnet, this is the optimal translation. An example
of this would be “I saw the man on the street yesterday” which in Swedish would be “Jag såg mannen på gatan igår”. A modulation changes the semantics and the point of view of the SL. It can either be obligatory, e.g. when the English words “why” and “because” translate to the Swedish words “varför” and “därför” (literally “wherefore” and “therefore”). It can also be optional and linked to preferred structures of the two languages, for example the English words “in the forest where the birds are singing” that becomes “i skogen där fåglarna sjunger” (literally “in the forest there the birds sing”). An adaptation involves changing the cultural reference when a particular situation in the source culture does not exist in the target culture. An example of this is Vinay & Darbelnet's suggestion that, when referring to the game of cricket in an English text, it might be best translated into French by referring to the Tour de France (or, in a Swedish setting, allsvenskan, the name for certain kinds of professional sporting leagues in Sweden).

In Furiassi, Pulcini and Rodriguez Gonsález (2012), borrowing is explained in more detail. There are direct borrowings, where loanwords are accounted for. These words can be non-adapted, something which is also called an anglicism in an English SL setting. They are words or multi-word units that are borrowed from the English language without or with only minor integration in the SL. In this way, the borrowing remains recognized as the SL element in the TT. An example of such a borrowing is the Swedish word thriller. (2012:6). There are also hybrid loans, multi-word units which freely combine an English element with another language (in the case of the present study, Swedish). An example of such a word would be the word charterresa. (ibid:7).

According to Chesterman & Wagner (2010: 57–58), there are also other type of translation strategies: the strategies that we use in general when we encounter a problem. These kinds of problems are three, and in respect to them, there are three kind of strategies. The problem types that one can typically encounter are search problems, for which search strategies are used, blockage problems, for which creativity strategies are used and, finally, text problems, for which textual strategies are used. Search problems are for example how to find a specific term and where to look on the Internet. These require search strategies: how to use dictionaries and how to find and use parallel texts, for example. Blockage problems happen when you get stuck. Creativity strategies include activities like going for a walk, sleeping on it or moving on to a different kind of text. Finally, the third kind of problem is the text problem: how to process a certain
bit of source text, when to use loanwords, etc. The strategies used here are known as
*text strategies*, which are essentially the same kinds of strategies that were covered in
the beginning of this section.

Yet another kind of problem that comes up when facing a translation is translation
issues and discontinuities, or “mismatches”, between the ST and the TT. This will be
covered in the following section.

### 2.4 Translation issues and discontinuities

According to Zavialova (2008:1), translation is a sensitive form of art. It is open for
criticism. The translator is constantly on the verge of being guilty of treason to a foreign
country, for having produced a translation that is not faithful to the original text. A
penalty may come for a text that is authored by another person. However, what is
lacking in the translation is not absent. Every time the text is translated, the translation
itself changes form and is inserted into the situation of its reception, which can include a
need for cultural assimilations, for instance (ibid: 2). A translator's inability to be
faithful to the original text is at times vital for meaning transfer. *Lacuna/lacunae*¹ and
errors constitute correct and necessary expressions of translation as a mode (ibid: 5).

### 3. Analysis and discussion

Below follows the analysis. It is split into two different parts: a quantitative part, where
quantitative findings of the whole text are presented, and a qualitative part, where a
variety of qualitative findings from the text can be found.

#### 3.1 Quantitative analysis

The ST contains 4599 words, compared to the TT which contains 4260 words. In the
quantitative analysis, I am counting the number of terms found in the text. The separate
inflections of the different terms will not be counted, but will be treated as a single
entity (for example, the words *gastronomi* and *gastronomin* are treated as the same
term). The variations of the term are written in parenthesis. I will also show how the

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¹ *In a manuscript, an inscription, the text of an author: A hiatus, blank, missing portion'*
(OED, [www])
different terms have been translated. Below, all the gastronomy terms are presented in a table. This is then followed by a table showing how the words were translated. This section mainly serves as a way to support the qualitative section. Therefore, there will not be much additional information along with the terminology tables. I will begin by presenting how many gastronomy terms were found in the text. In order to save space, I will only give the base form of the word.

Table 1. Gastronomy terms in the target text

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Number of occurrences in TT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mat</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>äta</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gastronomisk</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gastronomi</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>restaurang</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matkultur</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ätande</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pub</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cider</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dryck, kulinarisk</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maträtter, matvanor, föda, servera</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kök, rå, dricker, rätt, öl, bordsskick, Rainforest Cafe</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matlagningssätt, matlagning, McDonald's, närings, potatis, kött, fisk, rijsttafel, Slow Food-rörelsen, måltid, konsumera, recept</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Please see footnote for examples.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total term count: 116

2 fusionmat, matlagningskonst, matrelaterat, matproduktionen, snabbnaten, snabbmatkulturens, mattrender, matkritiker, matupplevelsen, matkonsumtion, Coca-Cola, kokkonsten, gastronomikonceptet, serveringen, konsumtionen, comfort food, Bierkeller, hund, apa, fläsk, nötkött, grodor, sniglar, häst, kamelkött, kamelmjölk, larver, färmljölk, blod, stekta, insekter, haute cuisine, grodätare, surkålsätare, pommes frites, Big Mac, McDonaldsrestaurang, hungersnöd, pintglas, cappuccino, serverandet, servitörerna, paella, rioja, regionala gastronomiska vägar, måltidsvägar, sparrisväg, musselväg, humleväg, ginväg, livsmedelsproduktion, Slow Food, provsmaka, couscous, Guinness, pubbägarna, barens, strandbar, après ski-barer, Glühwein, fondue, utomhusätandet, matkultur, caféer, långkok, laga, svårtillagade, kulinar, champagne, polenta, tomat- och vitlöksbrödet pa amb tomaquet, tallrikar, modeserviser, designerkockarnas, kockar, ingredienser, tv-kocken, gastronomiprodukten, eat, smaken, menyer, gastronomiska rutter
The three most frequently occurring gastronomy terms are very common terms (mat, äter) or a term that pertains to the subject strongly (gastronomisk). The word mat (food) is at the top of this Table 1 with 31 occurrences, followed by äta (eat) with 21 occurrences and gastronomisk (gastronomic) with 17 occurrences. This shows that the text is rather conventional on what gastronomy terms are used mostly. Examples of terms with only 1 occurrence are for example different kinds of food and drinks that are mentioned. There are exceptions to this, however. For example, the word cider is mentioned 6 times, and the words kött and fisk are mentioned twice. The reason for making this table is to summarize what sort of trends occur in this thesis regarding gastronomy terms (Johnson 2008: 15–16).

The following table covers four aspects: type of translation strategy, number of occurrences in the ST (shown within parenthesis), source word and target word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of translation strategy and number of occurrences in ST</th>
<th>Source word and target word</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>direct translation (62)</td>
<td>food -&gt; mat, eat -&gt; äter, gastronomic -&gt; gastronomisk, gastronomy -&gt; gastronomi, restaurant -&gt; restaurang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>loan (23)</td>
<td>potatis, pub, cider, Rainforest Cafe, McDonald's</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>semantic translation (4)</td>
<td>food -&gt; föda, food -&gt; näring, cuisine -&gt; kokkonsten, food, cuisine -&gt; matkultur, matlagningskonst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hybrid loan (5)</td>
<td>the Slow Food movement -&gt; Slow Foodrörelsen, McDonald's restaurant -&gt; McDonaldsrestaurang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calque (3)</td>
<td>fast food -&gt; snabbmatskulturens, food critics -&gt; matkritiker, beach bar -&gt; strandbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adaptation (9)</td>
<td>regional gastronomic routes -&gt; måltidsvägar, earth grubs -&gt; larver, cafe terraces and al fresco dining -&gt; utomhusätandet, food requiring elaborate preparation -&gt; långkok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modulation (5)</td>
<td>eating experience -&gt; matupplevelsen, related to food -&gt; matrelaterat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Something that can be noted in Table 2 is the fact that some terms are used on several different occasions. The reason for this is to ensure that a flowing text without much
repetition can be created. An example of these words is the word *food*, which is translated not only to *mat*, which would be the most conventionalized use of the word, but also *föda* and *näring*. According to Newmark, this is an example of *semantic translation* (1988: 46).

### 3.2 Qualitative analysis

In a text that covers tourism and gastronomy, there are all kinds of words that are part of the “lingo” that the target readers have already heard, requiring little explanation. Examples of these are found throughout the text: in *foods*, for example.

There are also words that are more specific. For a layman, these words are hard or even impossible to understand without context. These words will be discussed in what follows. In example (2), the translation of the term *Slow Food Movement* will be discussed.

(2) We are already seeing specific reactions to McDonaldization in the growth of the *Slow Food Movement*, which is particularly strong in Italy (see Scarpato, Chapter 8 this volume). Vi märker redan specifika reaktioner till McDonaldiseringen i uppvaknandet av *Slow Food-rörelsen*, som är särskilt stark i Italien (se Scarpato, kapitel 8 i denna volym).

*Fast food* is a phenomenon that has rooted itself in the Swedish language as the calque *snabbmat*. When it comes to *slow food* and the *slow food movement*, however, Swedish is at a loss. While the word *långkok* has been established for a long time, this word cannot in itself describe the whole movement, as the word *långkok* would imply that the foodstuff being prepared is something that needs a long cooking time, and *slow food* entails more things: dried hams, fine, mature cheeses, and also the cultural aspect of relaxation and no stress. *Slow food* is even an organisation (Slow Food International, www). Another term that could possibly be used in Swedish is *långsam mat*. However, this term has become associated with foods that have a low carbohydrate content. An example of this usage is the *Expressen* headline “Långsam mat kan göra dig smalare” (*Expressen*, [www]). The article is about glycemic index and eating right when it comes to nutrients, there is nothing about the *slow food* that is discussed here. To avoid confusion, I avoid using it. The other reason as to why I do not use it is that the term
långsam mat is much less commonly used than the term Slow Food. The term långsam mat, including all of its meanings, has 23,100 results on Google versus 102,000 results for Slow Food. Both of the searches were made for Swedish results, so most of these results should be in Swedish. Therefore, the term slow food remains unchanged – slow food movement becomes Slow Food-rörelsen. Support for the usage of capital letters in Slow Food is found at Slow Food Stockholm's homepage (www). This term serves as a hybrid loan (Furiassi, Pulcini & Rodriguez González 2012: 7). The term is also supported by the organisation Slow Food in Sweden. When googling it, the following example was found on their homepage (Slow Food Stockholm, www):

(2a) Internationellt arbetar Slow Food-rörelsen för ekologisk produktion, bevarandet av lokala och regionala matkulturer och utvecklingen av ett jordbruk som varken utarmar jorden eller människorna som brukar den.

What I noticed when translating this text was that the word food can have many different translations in Swedish. Only using the word mat as a translation would prove to be repetitive in most cases. There can be food for nutrition, food that grows, food that is for pure pleasure. Most of these words can have different translations; therefore I mirrored this, keeping away from any repetitiveness by using semantic translation in this case (Newmark 1988:46). Below follows an example of this:

(3) There is of course a close link between food and the body. Naturligtvis finns det ett nära samband mellan födan och kroppen.

In the sentence where the word food appears, there is a discussion about the link between the body and food. In order to make the TT easier to read, I attempted to find a narrower meaning in Swedish. Therefore, this is a semantic translation according to Newmark (1988: 46). The word födan differs from the standard word maten.

Compounds can also be formed, something which example (4) shows.

(4) […] and new ‘fusion foods’ are also being created to feed the ‘global soul’ (Iyer 2000). Ny “fusionmat” skapas för att livnära den “globala själen” (Iyer 2000).
In English, this term is in its plural form. However, the word mat in Swedish is not in the plural, and therefore this translation becomes imprecise. Should I instead use a synonym for the word foods, unwanted precision may be obtained. For example, using a word such as maträtter, it would not take up the aspects of the word foods that differ from the word maträtter. The words are not completely synonymous. According to Vinay & Dabelnet, the term is a literal translation (1995: 33–5). The word fusionmat can for instance be supported in an article from the Swedish newspaper Expressen. In this article, it is mentioned “6 restauranger med husmanskost och fusionmat” in the headline (Expressen, [www]).

Example (5) below illustrates borrowing. In this case, it is a gastronomy term that has been borrowed from French into Swedish.

(5) [p 5] Their influence has to some extent reflected the power of national cultures, as exemplified in the extension of French haute cuisine through the elite of Europe, or the relative obscurity of Portuguese gastronomy. Influenserorna från detta har till viss del reflekterat nationalkulturernas makt, som exemplifierats i utbredningen av Frankrikes haute cuisine genom Europas elit, eller att den portugisiska gastronomin är relativt okänd.

According to Vinay & Darbelnet, this example is referred to as a borrowing (1995: 31–2). Since it is not adapted in any way, it is also accounted for as a non-adapted loanword, according to Furiassi, Pulcini & Rodriguez González (2012: 6). Words like haute cuisine can be directly borrowed into both English and Swedish because they are part of our culture. France and its cuisine have influenced us for a long time, and many other words that have to do with cooking or gastronomy have found their way into both languages. In English, words such as pork, veal and à la have been borrowed into the language. We have words such as chiffonade and gratin, too. This process is similar in Swedish. According to Edlund & Hene (1991:80), the restaurant business offers many examples of borrowings, and French especially is a big part of this, even if other languages can add to these loans as well. The use of the term haute cuisine can for instance be seen on the Nobis group's homepage (the owners of, for instance, the famous restaurant Operakällaren in Stockholm). The usage of the term there is as follows “Operakällarens Matsal serverar internationell haute cuisine, signerad Stefano Catenacci.” (Nobis, www).
Finding the proper terms can sometimes prove to be difficult, especially if the
term (or at least parts of it) has synonyms in the target language. This is the case in (6).

(6) In his classification of cultural attractions, Munsters (1994) identifies regional gastronomic routes as a specific cultural tourism product. The routes he identifies in the Benelux include an asparagus route, a mussel route, a hops route and a gin route. Many of these routes are seasonal, reflecting the link between agricultural cycles and local food production.


The word route can mean several things in Swedish. The definition of the word in Norstedts engelsk-svenska ordbok is rutt, [färd]väg or led, among other things (Svensén et al. 1991: 538). Therefore, I had to make several attempts while googling before I could find a few sources that can be deemed as trustworthy. According to Chesterman & Wagner, this is an example of a search problem (2010: 57). In order to solve this, I had to use a search strategy: finding parallel texts (ibid: 57). In an official publication from the Swedish Agency for Economic and Regional Growth (Tillväxtverket), the words sparrisvägar, musselvägar, humlevägar and ginvägar could be found (Tillväxtverket 2010: 15). I also tried searching for the word gastronomiska vägar in the light of this, using a word-for-word translation from the source text. This had very few results (6 results, one of them from Tillväxtverket, however). In the same text as I found the word for route, I found the term måltidsvägar, along with regionala gastronomiska vägar as an alternative (Tillväxtverket 2010: ibid). The term måltidsväg seems to be an established term (about 4000 results for måltidsväg on Google). In the end, I decided to use both. This can be connected to Mayer’s univocity principle (Thelen 2010: 14), which says that only a single term should be assigned to a concept and vice versa. This principle is there to ensure communication that is efficient and effective. If it is violated, it is seen as a source of ambiguity. However, the principle has been questioned on a number of occasions during the last decade. There are scholars who have begun to press on the need to acknowledge variation and synonymy as a part of specialised
terminology in addition to our general language. I argue that none of these terms is very established in Swedish (måltidsvägar and regionala gastronomiska vägar), and therefore I used both examples in order to complement each other. This would make the communication more efficient, as both of these terms would reach a larger audience as opposed to only one of them. This was supported by the text from Tillväxtverket, which is a trustworthy source. According to Vinay & Darbelnet, all of these terms except for måltidsvägar are literal translations (1995: 33–5). The term måltidsvägar is an additional explaining term that can be seen as a semantic translation (Newmark 1988: 46).

In this text, there are also modulations. An example of one, and how it was dealt with, follows in (7).

(7) More and more, 'we are what we eat', not just in the physical sense, but also because we identify with certain types of cuisine that we encounter on holiday. Det blir alltmer vanligt att talesättet “du är vad du äter” inte bara manifesteras rent bokstavligt, utan också för att vi identifierar oss med det vi äter på semestern.

After googling this, it turns out that while the saying “we are what we eat” exists in Swedish as “vi är vad vi äter” as opposed to “du är vad du äter”. The results clearly point to the version “du är vad du äter” being much more common with about 1.6 million hits, while “vi är vad vi äter” only has about 115 000 results. However, this saying becomes subject to a little word play in the text on several occasions, using the saying in similar ways, such as in we are where we eat. Here I have used the English model for the saying: vi är var vi äter. This is because the first time I used the more frequent translation (using du) as a guide to the reader to know that there is a proper Swedish saying being referred to. The other times, the English way of saying it (with vi) is used to refrain from being too close to the reader, as this text is a scientific article. Because of the semantic change in the Swedish version, this is an optional modulation according to Vinay & Darbelnet (2004:133). The reason as to why it is optional is the fact that translating it directly (from 'we are what we eat' to 'vi är vad vi äter') will not make a difference in the understanding of the words. As mentioned, I have even used both varieties in the translation.

Below in (8) follows an example of using an English term that is part of English speaking cultures in a Swedish setting.
The ‘comfort foods’ of childhood become the refuge of the adult cocooner. Any attempt to change our eating habits is seen as an attack on our national, regional or personal identity.

The word *comfort food* is part of the Anglo-Saxon culture. In Swedish, it becomes an anglicism, according to Furiassi, Pulcini & Rodriguez González (2012: 6). According to the OED [www], *comfort food* is a type of food that provides comfort. It entails any food (often with a high content of sugar and carbohydrates) that is associated with childhood or with home cooking. There is no direct equivalent in the Swedish language, however, there are many words and expressions with similar meanings, or at least taking up certain aspects of the word *comfort food*. An example is the word *snabbmat*, which takes up some of the aspects of the term *comfort food*, but not all of them.

*Snabbmat* is food that is quickly obtainable (and therefore comforting in the sense that the hunger gets stilled quickly), it is often quite flavourful (it is commonly known that fat gives flavour), but it is not prepared with the love and care (“home-style cooking”) that *comfort food* also is known and famous for. Another Swedish word that has similar properties is the verb *tröstäta*. This word also has to do with food that comforts (its literal meaning is eating for comfort), but unlike *comfort food*, the word has a tendency to have pitiful overtones. I compared the two terms in two different corpora: the newspaper texts from the *Korp corpus* [www] for Swedish and the *COCA corpus* for English. The Swedish newspaper text corpora had 13 results for the word *tröstäta* and the English corpus had 326 results for the term *comfort food*. I decided to choose the 10 first random results in both of the corpora in order to look at the situations the terms would occur. What I found from studying these 10 examples of each term suggested that the hypothesis of *tröstäta* having pitiful overtones and *comfort food* was not accurate.

The term *comfort food* is used in a morale-boosting manner such as in *first, bring comfort food, like pizza; it will boost the morale of even the biggest grumps*, just like it is obvious that it is the manner that most, if not all of the usages of the word *tröstäta* are used for. Examples of this usage are *Men ett försummat barn kan förlora lusten att röra på sig, det kan tröstäta eller så kan hormonbalansen påverkas, [...] till den olycklige Tony Soprano som hasar ner i tofflor och morgonrock för att tröstäta ur kylskåpet., Många vill tröstäta sig ur krisen*. However, we can see that there is one aspect that
comfort food has and the word tröstäta does not: using the term in elaborate food descriptions such as in For me, this is the perfect comfort food because you have buttery Parmesan grits combined with a rich, tomato-based sauce that [...] and [...] doing upscale comfort food like garlic-honey glazed salmon and gourmet pizzas. Thereby, the term comfort food and the word tröstäta have different connotations, and are not fully interchangeable.

Doing a search on comfort food on Google and narrowing it down to Swedish results, we see that the term actually is used in its English form in Swedish as well. For example, you can find a short article on Allt om Mat's website where they mention “Comfort food – mat att njuta” and “Comfort food - matminnen, nostalgiska recept och recept med det lilla extra.“ (Allt om Mat, www). While the term is not Swedish, it is easily understandable in context. According to Vinay & Darbelnet, comfort food as a term is a borrowing (1995: 31–2).

Slogans are also part of our cultural heritage, which is seen in (9).

(9) The Rainforest Cafe, for example, claims Rainforest Cafe ® is a wild place to shop and eat®!

Examplevis hävdar Rainforest Cafe att Rainforest Cafe ® är en vild plats att köpande och äta®!

This slogan comes from a café that does not exist in Sweden, and therefore it has not been translated even if the slogan is quite a long one. Instead, according to Vinay & Darbelnet, this is a borrowing (1995: 31–2). However, it does not make much of a difference for the text. The reader gets the information from context by reading the lines following the slogan. It is also part of the brand name, just as McDonald's “I'm lovin' it” (McDonald's, [www]) or Burger King's “Taste is King” (Burger King, [www]), etc.

Below in (10) follows an example of adaptation due to cultural differences, having to do with colonialism.

(10) Food is a support for images that bind nations, and they may also be the source of negative ‘they-images’ and stereotypes, such as ‘Frogs’, ‘Limeys’ or ‘Krauts’ (ERICarts 2000).

In this instance, I have had to make an adaptation, being less clear than in the English source text. Here, different nationalities are compared to foodstuffs: frogs are the French, since it is well known that they are known for loving their frog legs. Limeys is a derogatory slang word for the British, as their sailors would revel in lime fruits and other citrus fruits in order to fight scurvy during the colonial era. It is an abbreviation of lime-juicer (OED www). Krauts is a pejorative name for German soldiers in particular and Germans in general, eating sauerkraut (OED, www).

The Swedish word grodätare could most probably be interchanged with grodlårsätare (since that is what is really eaten on a frog) but after a quick Google search, it turns out that the word grodätare is considerably more common with over 7000 results as opposed to the approximate amount of 163 results for grodlårsätare. Another reason as to why grodätare would be used in Swedish is since this is a pejorative term that needs no specification of which part of the frog is eaten. It would simply make less sense to insult someone by using an exact specification. There are two Swedish translations for Limeys: citronätare and limeätare. When doing a Google search for citronätare, it is quickly noticeable that there are two different meanings of the word: the conventionalized meaning of a person who eats lemons, and the derogatory term for the Brits. In order to avoid any confusion, I decided to not use that word. I also made a Google search for the word limeätare, but there were only four results. The only viable result that came up was from a very informal, spoken-like context. The rest of the results were links that were either spam or unusable in other ways. The low number of results would suggest that this usage of the word is not particularly rooted in the Swedish language. Therefore, I decided to simply omit it. This is supported by Zavialova's theories. According to her, what is lacking in a translation is not absent, and “a translator's inability to be faithful to the original text is at times vital for meaning transfer” (2008: 1–2). This is a lacuna (Zavialova 2008: 5). This can also be connected to Newmark's theory on cultural focus (1988: 94). The Englishmen were a seafaring people during the colonial era, and therefore a derogatory term for their seafarers would be logical. Since the term is not particularly rooted in the Swedish language or culture, there is a cultural gap. The term does not add anything else than being an extra example to what stereotypical pejorative names there are. Using another example of a word that would be pejorative to Brits (as that is what the word limeys is) would simply not make sense as it would deviate from the theme of the ST, either by keeping the implication that these words are food-related pejorative terms by using another food
related word or completely deviating from the relation to food, only using another pejorative term. The word *Krauts* was simply translated to *surkålsätare*. It exists on Google, even if it is quite rare (181 results). An example of it in use is on a forum for BMW motorcycles, where the following is said: “Jag kör BMW trots att den är tillverkad i Tyskland. Även surkålsätare kan ibland göra något vettigt!” (Svenska BMW MC Klubben, www). It is arguable if there is cultural reasoning for this. Supposedly, the timid Swedish nature plays a part. Sweden has for a long time been a small, in later times neutral country and in peace for almost 200 years (Gabrielson 2003:163), as opposed to the “giants” down on the continent. A need for pejorative words looking down on the big countries has therefore not really been required. In Sweden, there has only really been a need for making jokes of the neighbours, the Norwegians (Roliga Norgeskämt, [www]), or even looking down on people coming from different parts of the country (for example speaking about *sillastrybare* for people from Blekinge (*sillastrybare*| folkmun.se, [www])).

(11) Homesick American tourists in far-off countries can take comfort in the knowledge that they will likely run into those familiar golden arches and the restaurant they have become so familiar with. Amerikanska turister som längtar hem i länder långt borta kan lugna sig med att veta att de antagligen kommer att stöta på de gyllene bågarna och restaurangen som de känner så väl.

In Swedish, there is a slang term for McDonald's that comes up occasionally: “Den gyllene måsen” (Slangopedia, www). This term is frequent on forums, in blogs and in Swedish everyday language. However, since this is about an American family and not in a Swedish setting (even if written in Swedish), I used a more direct approach to this instead of making a cultural adaptation. According to Vinay & Darbelnet, this is a literal translation (1995: 33–5). According to Google, the term “de gyllene bågarna” is used in Swedish everyday language (on several blogs, et cetera). Searching for “de gyllene bågarna” grants about 4500 results. This is nowhere near the English institution that is “The Golden Arches”, however. Searching for this term gives 2 780 000 results (granted that some of the results come from elsewhere), and the first result shows a Wikipedia article about the Golden Arches themselves. (BBC News, www).

In (12), there are examples of adaptation and borrowings.
The tendency for ‘forgotten’ traditional foods to be rediscovered and turned into gastronomic products has accelerated in recent years, as the rise of polenta and pa amb tomatàquet illustrate.

The dish pa amb tomatàquet is not very well known in Sweden. Here, the Italian version of the dish, bruschetta, is more common with ca 168 000 results (for bruschetta) on the Swedish part of Google versus about 56 300 for pa amb tomatàquet. Therefore, I added an explanation to the word in my translation, making it an adaptation, according to Vinay & Darbelnet (1995: 39–40). The terms polenta and pa amb tomatàquet are both borrowings, according to Vinay & Darbelnet (1995: 31–2).

4. Summary and conclusion

The aim of the study is to analyse the translation problems that may arise in an academic text dealing with tourism and gastronomy, and what strategies are usable to deal with these problems. There are two research questions for the study: What terms are there in the text and how can they be translated? What strategies are usable to deal with these translation problems?

This thesis argues that, in the translation of a text that deals with tourism and gastronomy, several different translation issues ensue. The translation issues, and how I handled them, follow below.

The ST is an excerpt of the text “Gastronomy: an essential ingredient in tourism production and consumption?”.

The analysis was divided into two separate sections: one quantitative section, introducing all the terms in a general manner with a table analyzing the number of terms, also identifying the terms. This was followed by a table in which examples of the different translations of the terms were presented along with which translation strategies that were used. Furthermore, the qualitative section went more in-depth with the analysis, analyzing interesting examples in the translation one by one.

Something that permeated the study was the usage of parallel texts. These had to be used in most occasions in order to support the chosen translations. An example of the
essentiality of using parallel texts was the translation of the word *regional gastronomic routes*, in which it was necessary to use a search strategy in order to locate the correct term. As the term *regionala gastronomiska vägar* is so rare, I also used a second term, *måltidsvägar*, in order to complement it. This can be connected to the *univocity principle*, saying that only a single term can be assigned to a concept and vice versa. This principle has been argued against, and in my thesis I support this claim.

As opposed to adding words in the text, the opposite did also occur. In the case of the terms *frogs, limeys and krauts*, I only translated two of the words: *frogs* and *krauts*. This is because *limeys* is strongly connected to British colonialism, as the British sailors would eat citrus (lime) on their long voyages. In Swedish, this word is hardly used. This is connected to Zavialova's theories, saying that what is lacking in a translation is not absent, and that sometimes, a translator has to deviate from the text so that meaning transfer can occur properly. A deviation such as the lack of a translation of the word *limeys* is called a *lacuna*.

What is the most common in my study, however, is for the meaning to actually get transferred 'safely'. The translation strategies that I have used in the study, being Newmark's and Vinay & Darbelnet's, include *loans* in which *non-adapted loans* such as *haute cuisine* are available, along with *hybrid loans* such as *Slow Food-rörelsen*, the flexible *semantic translations* such as using several translations in Swedish of the word *food*, *adaptations*, such as the previously mentioned case of *limeys*, and *modulations*, such as using a less common translation in Swedish for the saying “we are what we eat” in order to follow the word game that occurs in the ST. This is an example of an *optional modulation*, since it is not a must to convey the meaning.

Naturally, there are also *literal*, or *faithful* translations, such as the translation of *regional gastronomic routes* into *regionala gastronomiska vägar*.

In conclusion, while there were not any general finds that could be applied for this whole study, it shows that there are many interesting cases of different translation problems that can occur regarding the gastronomy terms of this text. Not everything has been covered in the scope of a single thesis, and this fact opens up for further research. For instance, only in this text, tourism terminology and social scientific terminology can be researched.
References

Primary sources:


Secondary sources


Parallel texts
