On the run

*Cultural aspects, figurative language and runners’ jargon in the translation of training guides*

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Abstract

This study investigates translation choices and challenges in the translation of two training guides focused on running. It tests the validity of Reiss’s text-type theory in the translation of cultural aspects. Furthermore, the study discusses to what extent equivalence can be reached when translating an aesthetic language and finally, it comments on some characteristics of typical runners’ language. The results show that Reiss’s text type theory is not sufficient to guide the translation of cultural differences in the SL and TL but an analysis on phrasal and lexical level is also needed, where Koller’s equivalence relations and Newmark’s communicative translation are applicable. The results also show that figurative language is indeed possible to translate in these kinds of texts, where among others compensation proves a useful strategy. Equivalence on all levels of the text, however, is not always possible to reach. Finally, the findings of a special runners’ language were rather limited, although some examples indicating a presence of a runners’ jargon were found.

Keywords

Text type, cultural aspects, equivalence, figures of speech, terminology, runner’s jargon

Thanks

Special thanks to my Magnus, for splendid supervision, patience and availability
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1. Introduction

"To me, the biggest factor that makes running trendy is that running is the only sport where everyone’s a winner.”

(Büyükkayali, Olgay, 2012)

To many people running is not only a physical exercise or a sport but a lifestyle and passion shared with people from all different cultures and backgrounds. In the last couple of years running has become increasingly popular and we are experiencing a “Second Running Boom” (Running USA, 2015). Along with the increased numbers of runners, the publishing industry surrounding the sport has experienced a boom as well, with record high numbers of readers of journals, magazines and books with information and stories related to running. The translation of texts concerning running and runners give rise to the usual questions encompassing the art of translation. To what extent can a literal translation be advocated and when is a freer translation motivated? What guidelines and strategies are useful when there is no exact correspondence in source and target language? Cultural aspects, figurative language and terminology/jargon in runners’ language will be the focus of this study. Obvious examples of cultural aspects are expressions deduced from different units of measurements, as shown in (1).

(1) There may be days when you sleep through your morning run, or there will be days when it’s 90 degrees for your long run. Det kommer att finns dagar som du sover förbi ditt morgonpass eller dagar med nära 30 grader värme när du planerat in ett långpass.

In (1) the unit of measurement changes from Fahrenheit in the source text to Celsius in the target text but the cultural issue in this case is also about adjusting the temperature to something that a typical Swedish runner would recognise as a bit too hot for a long-distance run. Simply converting 90 Fahrenheit into Celsius would give around 32,2 Celsius, which is a rare temperature in Sweden, even in summer. Lowering the temperature slightly to nära 30 grader (‘near 30 degrees’) gives a typical Swedish runner the same impression.

The training guides contain many instances of figurative language that is sometimes difficult to render with a corresponding figure of speech in the target language, as in (2), illustrating a metaphorical concept in the source text.
“You can’t microwave healing,” Taylor says. “You have to slow bake it.”


The cooking metaphor in (2) is very striking but hard to transform into Swedish. The verb microwave could possibly be rendered by Swedish mikra, but this is more colloquial and not used in this general way about things outside of the kitchen. Furthermore, the metaphor fails in slow bake, not used in this way in Swedish. Using some creativity it would have been possible to create a metaphor and also a pun with the Swedish word laga. Laga has a double meaning in that it can refer both to cooking and mending. Thus, in order to keep the figurative language in Swedish the following could have been conceivable: “Du kan inte mikra läkprocessen”… “Skadan måste lagas långsamt”. However, keeping or rather re-creating the metaphor in this way seems far-fetched and unnatural and an option without figurative language is chosen, following the advice in Schröter (2005: 117–118); “producing poor wordplay in the translation is worse than producing no wordplay at all”.

This study investigates challenges similar to the ones above when translating two training guides addressing runners, published by the American magazine Runner’s World, into Swedish.

1.1 Aim and scope

The aim of this study is to investigate translation choices and challenges when translating two training guides published by a sports magazine focused on running. Three aspects will be focused on; cultural aspects, equivalence in figurative language and runners’ terminology/jargon:

- What cultural adaptations are necessary in order to present the text to the presumed target reader? To what extent can text type theories be applied?
- To what extent is it possible to reach equivalence in aesthetic language when translating this genre? Which stylistic features are best prioritized when there is a conflict between semantic equivalence and figure of speech?
- What are the distinctive features of the language in training guides for runners? To what extent does terminology and jargon give rise to challenges in the translation?
1.2 Material

1.2.1 Primary Material

Runner’s World is a monthly magazine that addresses runners of all skills or people who love running. The magazine is published in the US but circulated internationally since the 1990s with among others a Swedish edition (Wikipedia, Runner’s World). Swedish Runner’s World has its own content with articles covering major events in Sweden but also events worldwide. In addition to the monthly magazine, American Runner’s World offers training guides that can be downloaded for free from their webpage. Having contacted the editors of the Swedish webpage to make sure these guides had not already been translated into Swedish, two of them have been chosen as primary material for this study; “Your First Marathon”, which is a general training guide towards 26.2, and “Injury Prevention”, which contains advice on how to avoid injuries. The register is quite informal, with simple rather than complex sentence structure and with some instances of jargon and subjectivity. From here on the following abbreviations will be used; ST for source text, TT for target text and, similarly, SL for source language and TL for target language.

1.2.2 Target Reader

A monthly magazine like Runner’s World has a very special readership. According to the editor-in-chief the aim is to attract runners on all levels, complete beginners as well as experienced elite runners (Runner’s World, 2015). Reader surveys show that even though a vast majority of the readers, 87%, run between 20 and 70 kilometres per week, there are readers who run less than 10 kilometres per week (9%) as well as those who manage more than 80 (4%). Runner’s World attracts both women (increasingly) and men. Gabl (2009: 232) states that the average reader of the German edition of Runner’s World has a higher education than average and quite often works in high positions, which is likely to be true also for the Swedish edition. In any case, the target reader of the translated texts would be a potential reader of Swedish Runner’s World.

1.2.3 Secondary material

The secondary material chosen for this study focuses mainly on the concept of equivalence. Starting with Reiss’s (1981, Reiss & Vermeer 1984) theory of different text types, moving over to Koller’s (2011) work on equivalence on different levels, the theory will be rounded up with Newmark’s (1982) writings on equivalence in semantic
vs communicative translation. In addition to these translation theories inspiration is found in Schröter’s (2005) detailed work on the translation of language-play in dubbing and subtitling. Furthermore, there is a reference to Partington’s (1998) study of creative language in newspaper headlines. Finally, Gabl’s (2009) writings on a particular runners’ language will be consulted.

1.3 Method
When the appropriate texts had been chosen a pilot study was carried out indicating a number of aspects that could be focused on in the analysis. Highlighted were cultural aspects, figurative language and terminology/jargon. Parallel to the translation an investigation of secondary sources was performed resulting in the theories described in detail in the background section that follows. Throughout the translation comments were made whenever the translation was in any way challenging or illustrating clear examples supporting or disproving the translation methods and strategies discussed in the secondary sources.

Since Runner’s World has a Swedish online edition this was the obvious choice of parallel texts. Whenever in doubt of frequency of a certain term or expression in Swedish a search on www.runnersworld.se was performed. The corpora Korp vs COCA were also used to some extent. The language of Swedish Runner’s World was found to resemble that of the American edition in register (see 1.2.1) to a large extent, which set the language standard of the target text. Sometimes, due to cultural aspects and national standards it was necessary to re-write or render the TT very differently with regards to the ST. In these cases input from other sources, such as Spring, iForm, Marathon.se and 1177 Vårdguiden was vital.

The initial analytical work included a text type analysis, i.e. the method suggested by Reiss (1981, Reiss & Vermeer 1984). Her theories about different strategies for different text types served as a guide on a textual level. However, theories on a lexical/phrasal level were often needed as a complement, which is where Koller’s (2011) equivalence relations proved useful. Finally, Newmark’s (1982) equivalence in semantic vs communicative translation was applied both on a textual and a lexical/phrasal level. One of the strengths of this approach is that the translated texts are analysed on textual, phrasal as well as lexical level, which contributes to a rather thorough evaluation of the translation. One of the weaknesses is that less scope is given to an in-depth analysis of minor translation issues.
Creative headings in the ST constituted one of the greatest challenges in translating the guides. The approach advocated by Schrötter (2005: 108) that language-play is indeed often translated and, thus, possible to translate was applied with his ideas of compensation (2005: 119ff) in mind. When carrying out the analysis a quantitative analysis was performed at first, and from the result of this isolated examples were highlighted for a qualitative analysis and discussion.

2. Background

2.1 Reiss – on different text types

According to Reiss (1981, Reiss & Vermeer 1984) the translator’s mode of translation of a certain text depends mainly on the text type. Reiss bases her theory on the following three types of basic communication situations; the informative text, the expressive text and the operative text.

The informative text involves a “plain communication of facts” (Chesterman 1989: 108). The topic itself is the most important thing and the text is primarily structured on a semantic-syntactic level. The informative text can borrow features from other text types but these features are then only secondary to the informative feature. An example of a highly informative text is the instruction manual, where the most important aspect to convey to reader is the usage of the device (Reiss & Vermeer 1984: 207). The translation strategy suggested by Reiss for such informative texts is to focus on sense and meaning and thus “maintain the invariability of the content” (Reiss 1981: 127).

The expressive text is an aesthetic text type, where the topic is not as important as the way in which it is rendered. Compared to the informative text it is not only structured on a semantic-syntactic level but also on an aesthetic, artistic level, where the expressive possibilities of a language are fully explored. A typical expressive text type is the poem, where the artistic quality is as important as the meaning of the words (Reiss & Vermeer 1984: 207). The suggested mode of translation for this kind of text is to “identify the artistic and creative intention of the source text author” and to keep this artistic form in the target text (Reiss 1981: 128).

The operative text contains a focus on the reader of the text, who is supposed to act in a certain way as a result of reading the text. Thus, a certain “behavioural response” (Chesterman 1989: 109) is expected as an outcome of the text. Compared to the other two texts there is often a three-level structure; semantic-syntactic, aesthetic,
but also persuasive (Chesterman 1989: 109). A propaganda publication would be an example of an operative text type, since the main purpose is to make the reader react in a certain way (Reiss & Vermeer 1984: 207). The aim of the translation of this text type is to create the same behavioural reaction as in the source text.

Reiss (1981:124 / Reiss & Vermeer 1984: 207ff) also allows mixed forms since text types do not only exist in their pure forms. This should not pose a problem but the method for mixed forms is simply to let the dominant text type decide the translation strategy. To the three basic text types Reiss adds a fourth type; the audio-medial text type, which is supplemented by for example music or pictures.

Chesterman (1989: 105) illustrates Reiss’s text types in a triangle, where the informative, expressive and operative features make up the three different poles. This illustration serves as a good summary of the different text types. Within this triangle he places different text types near to the pole that is most characteristic for each specific text, e.g. a poem or a play near the expressive pole, a reference book or report near the informative pole and advertisements or speeches near the operative pole. Chesterman acknowledges Reiss’s mixed types and emphasizes the fact that no text type represents only one function. In the middle of the triangle, thus comprising an equal number of features from all text types, he places for example the tourist brochure.

2.2 Koller – equivalence relations

Reiss’s work is based on the concept of equivalence but her focus is on a textual level rather than on words and sentences. Koller (2011) offers a more detailed view in his classification of equivalence relations, listing five types in hierarchical order:

1. Denotative equivalence
2. Connotative equivalence
3. Text-normative equivalence
4. Pragmatic equivalence
5. Formal equivalence

Denotative equivalence; the focus is on the words and fixed phrases. Koller gives examples of challenges that arise when the words do not correspond exactly in the SL and TL, i.e. when the relation is not a one-to-one equivalence. Relations may be one-to-many, many-to-one, one-to-zero or one-to-part equivalences. A classical example is the English word grandmother or grandfather with a more specific correspondence in

Connotative equivalence: This takes into account the stylistic level of the text (formality, social use, geography, frequency etc). An example is sterben, i.e. ‘to die’, where Koller points out a connotative difference between the English equivalents die vs pass away. According to Koller (2011: 244), achieving connotative equivalence is one of the most difficult tasks in translation. Ingo (2007: 110) points out in addition that the connotation of a particular word may vary for speakers of the same language. Thus, a positive connotation to one speaker may be negative to another speaker.

Text-normative equivalence: Different kinds of texts such as instruction manuals and scientific texts function in different ways and follow certain norms. Thus, parallel texts in the TL form an important part of the research material used when translating a certain text type (Koller 2011: 251). Articles from Swedish Runner’s World will be used as parallel texts in this study in order to stay close to the text style of this magazine. There are many similarities between Koller’s text-normative equivalence and Reiss’s different text types above.

Pragmatic equivalence: How far the translator should strive to reach equivalence also depends on the target reader. It may be necessary to re-write texts to better work for a certain group of target readers, which could mean deviating from both connotative and denotative equivalence. A seemingly harmless interference is that of adding information to the TT, in which case the translator runs a risk of either underestimating or overestimating the reader’s previous knowledge of the subject area. A rather extreme example of pragmatic equivalence is the revised translation of Defoe’s Robinson Crusoe for children (Koller 2011: 251–252).

Formal equivalence: This level of equivalence takes into account the very form of the language. It includes for example rhyme, wordplay, metaphors and other aesthetic features. An example given by Koller (2011: 263) is the language in L. Carrol’s Alice in Wonderland, where wordplay is carried to an extreme. Reaching an equivalent aesthetic level is highly relevant for the primary material in this study, where figures of speech are very frequent.

To sum up Koller’s theory, equivalence in lexicon and on a phrasal level can only fully be reached when the translator takes all five equivalence relations into consideration. Thus, a phrase that manages both connotative and denotative equivalence
in the translation may fail to preserve the features necessary for formal equivalence, as will be seen in the analytic section.

2.3 Newmark – semantic vs communicative translation

Newmark’s writing (1982) handles equivalence as well in his distinction between semantic and communicative translation, which draws on Nida’s concept of formal vs dynamic equivalence (1964: 159ff).

Communicative translation focuses on the reader of the translation, whereas semantic translation is more author-centered. The same receiver-oriented approach is found in Nida’s dynamic equivalence (Nida 1964: 159). Within communicative translation the culture of the ST is transformed into the target culture, whereas it stays within the source culture within semantic translation. Communicative translation aims to create a similar effect on the second reader as on the reader of the original text. Semantic translation aims to render the exact meaning of the ST as far as the language structure of the TL allows. Newmark (1982: 39) gives the following example:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Semantic translation</td>
<td>Bissiger Hund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bissiger Hund</td>
<td>Dog that bites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative translation</td>
<td>Bissiger Hund</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bissiger Hund</td>
<td>Beware of the dog!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the contrasting example above a communicative translation is more effective and should be preferred although the semantic translation would be more informative. Generally, communicative translation is freer and semantic translation more literal. Nida (1964: 159) refers to “naturalness” in dynamic equivalence, which is recognised in Newmark’s communicative translation as well. Newmark claims that whereas a semantic translation is always inferior to the original, a communicative translation may actually be better than the original since the translator can make use of the full register of his own language when translating communicatively (Newmark 1982: 42).

The preferred translation method for most non-literary texts is communicative translation (Newmark 1977, in Chesterman 1989: 124ff). Text types suitable for communicative translation are for example journalism, informative articles and books, scientific and technological writing, i.e. texts belonging to Reiss’s informative text type. The Runner’s World training guides clearly belong to this category, as will be shown in section 3. Subsequently, applying a communicative translation approach will most
likely be preferred in this translation and will be considered alongside the text type recommendations suggested by Reiss and the equivalent relations set up by Koller. However, before taking a closer look at the translation in respect of these theories figures of speech will be further elaborated on and some methods for translating a creative use of language will be investigated, among others with a reference to Schröter’s (2005) and Partington’s (1998) studies.

2.4 Figures of speech, language-play and unusuality

2.4.1 Definitions and references

As a background to figures of speech several secondary sources will be consulted to help defining and explaining the terms used in this section. What falls under this category are both the classical figures of speech found in the primary material as well as other instances of creative language. The figures of speech that will be analysed are ‘idioms’, ‘metaphors’, ‘hyperbole’, ‘puns’, ‘alliteration’ and ‘rhyme’, all defined and exemplified below.

Ingo (2007: 141–149) devotes some space to translation strategies that could be applied to idiomatic language. With his definition an idiom is a phrase or an expression, where you cannot rely on the meaning of the individual words that form the expression. He illustrates this with the Swedish idiom lägga benen på ryggen (‘set off quickly’). In English there is a similar construction in the idiom put one’s best foot forward (‘trying to make a good impression’). According to Ingo the preferred strategy when translating idioms is to find an equivalent idiomatic expression in the target language. Since this is not always possible, three additional strategies are conceivable (although not preferred); the idiom is translated word-by-word, the idiom is translated by an explaining expression, and a normal expression is translated by an idiom. The latter would mean some kind of compensation, a concept that Schröter (2005) investigates in detail in his study.

A metaphor is an imaginative way of describing something by referring to something else that has the qualities you want to express (Collins 1995: 1044). Lakoff & Johnson (2003) widen this definition considerably, viewing metaphors as something larger than just a rhetorical device. Metaphors are something we live by, something that structures our whole conception of the world. Our thought processes are made up by metaphorical concepts. One such concept is Time is money reflected in metaphorical
examples such as *You’re wasting my time* and *That flat tire cost me an hour* (Lakoff & Johnson 2003: 7–8).

A very simple hyperbolic example given by Claridge (2011: 1) is *they’re never at home*. According to Claridge (2011: 6–7) hyperbole is synonymous to overstatement and exaggeration, more frequent terms in everyday language. The hyperbole may be a combination of different tropes, among which the metaphorical hyperbole is one of the most common (Claridge 2011: 41). A large number of the realisations in Claridge’s study involve the existential fields of dying and killing (2011: 77). The hyperbole has several functions, such as a persuasive aspect in speeches and debates, a sensational aspect in newspaper language and sometimes an emotional appeal in literature and television (Claridge 2011: 2).

A pun is a witty or amusing use of a word with more than one meaning, or a word that sounds like another word (Collins 1995: 1333). Schröter (2005: 159) sets up the following criteria to identify the pun; a. the context must allow more than one possible meaning, b. there must be a conflict of meaning and c. the double meaning must be intended. The following example is repeated (2005: 104, 161) where the pun lies in the double meaning of *bank* (‘financial institution’ / ‘edge of river’); *When my wife called to tell me she needed help because she has lost her beloved platinum credit card by the river, I cried all the way to the bank*. Schröter devotes a full chapter to puns and strategies for translating these. The strategies found in his corpus are numerous and rendered here in a simplified version; direct copy, calque, the pun is lost but another source language aspect is transferred, creation of target language pun, creation of other language-play, translation without language-play and complete omission (Schröter 2005: 234). Schröter also points out that puns can co-occur with other categories of wordplay, in which case the pun might be lost while another aspect is preserved (Schröter 2005: 176).

Onic (2006: 250) defines alliteration as repetition of the same initial consonant in words in close proximity, as in *Only this morning, sir, you applied it to your boots to the butter, and to the brown bread* (example from Shaw’s *Pygmalion*, in Onic 2006: 249). He points out that it is sometimes hard to distinguish between intentional alliteration, i.e. the author’s decision to use an alliteration for a rhetorical effect, and alliteration that occurs by coincidence. When alliteration occurs in headlines it is often intentional, whereas there are a number of coincidental examples in the running text, for
example when auxiliary words and unstressed words happen to begin with the same letter (e.g. he has).

Rhyme means simply words with very similar sounds (Collins 1995: 1428). As Schröter (2005: 292) points out rhyme is a figure of speech that is quite straightforward and easily recognised by many people, e.g. light – night. A distinction between full (perfect) rhyme and half-rhyme is often made, however only full rhyme is considered in this study.

2.4.2 Schröter and compensation

Schröter (2005: 85) prefers the term ‘language-play’, as opposed to ‘wordplay’, since the latter is often synonymous with puns and, thus, too narrow for his purpose. His definition of language-play comprises creative language in a wider sense, including the most common figures of speech defined above. Although his study handles dubbing and subtitling of language-play in film, it is relevant for this study since he explores translation strategies in general and language-play challenges in particular. One special group of strategies is referred to as ‘compensation’, which means that a particular language-play is used to compensate for a loss of language-play elsewhere in the text (Schröter 2005: 119). Schröter (2005: 351–352) defines two main types of compensation, rendered here somewhat simplified; in the first category there is an effect in the ST that is triggered also in the TT, in the same place but by use of another element. As for the second type, the effect in the ST is triggered also in the TT by the same kind of element as in the ST, but in a different place. As mentioned above Ingo (2007: 145) advocates compensation as one of his proposed translation strategies for idiomatic expressions. He claims that whereas an overuse of compensation would give the TT the wrong stylistic value, a proficient translator should add a few idioms to the translation every now and then to compensate for those cases where the ST idiom has been lost in translation.

2.4.3 Partington and unusuality

Partington (1998: 121–122) coins the term ‘unusuality’ to refer to a re-working of the normal lexical usage of a string of words to create a rhetorical effect. According to Partington, unusuality is more likely to be found in some text types than others and it is very frequent in newspaper headlines, which he bases his study upon. Partington’s unusuality is a relevant concept when analysing the primary material of this study.
Unusuality is anticipated to be frequent also in the headlines of the two training guides, although the so-called pre-constructed word-strings will be categorised somewhat differently here. The pre-constructed phrases investigated by Partington include quotations, proverbs and sayings, idioms, expressions and collocations. This means basically any phrase or combination of words that is recognised as a unit. I find these categories rather similar in meaning and sometimes hard to distinguish and will refer to ‘pre-constructed phrases and expressions’ in general. Idioms and puns are already defined among the figures of speech and will be analysed among these. Some of the expressions analysed by Partington are phrases referred to as allusions by Ingo (2009: 151). These kinds of references allude to people, literature, events etc and according to Ingo they can be difficult to discover if a translator is not fully familiar with the SL culture.

Partington (1998: 125–127) distinguishes four main mechanisms of change in the way the pre-constructed word strings are re-constructed; substitution, expansion, abbreviation and re-phrasing, among which substitution and re-phrasing are the most common. Substitution means replacing one of the items in the original structure, however the reader should still be able to recognise the original. Expansion means adding something to the initial phrase. Abbreviations are shorter forms of the original quotation and, finally, rephrasing means a reformulation of the original word-string.

2.5 A special runners’ language

2.5.1 Terminology and jargon

‘Terminology’ is defined as “technical terms collectively” in OED (2015). According to the wider definition in Collins (1995: 1722) terminology means all words and expressions used about a special subject. Arntz (1993: 5) discusses terminological equivalence in translation, claiming that terminology has become increasingly important with more and more complex texts and terms to be translated. When the terminology differs in two languages or when a term only exists in one of the languages Arntz (1993: 15–16) suggests three strategies in order to reproduce the term in the TL: 1. using a loan translation, 2. coining a new term in the TL, or, 3. paraphrasing the missing term in the TL. ‘Jargon’, as opposed to ‘terminology’, is defined as words and expressions used by a special group of people often making the language a bit difficult to understand (Collins 1995: 899). According to OED’s (2015) definition ‘jargon’ is often used contemptuously of a certain speech. Clayton (2002: 3) describes advantages and
disadvantages of jargon in business writing and points out two common sources of jargon; sports and the world of computers (Clayton 2002: 4). By using jargon, Clayton claims, reader and writer become part of the same in-group, sharing the same status. Naphine (1994: 32) uses ‘slang’ synonymously to jargon in his discussion of the effect of nursing jargon. He claims that jargon (slang) is used as a code, distinguishing those inside the group from those outside of it. Jargon can thus be said to have a community-building function.

2.5.2 Gable - the language of runners’ magazines

Gabl (2009) investigates the typical language of runner magazines. She includes ten different German magazines in her analysis, among which the German edition of *Runner’s World* can be found. On a lexical level, Gabl presents the typical vocabulary containing words concerning running. She comments on an increasing differentiation in the designation of runners, with new words such as *Marathonfinisher* (Gabl 2009: 233). In order to achieve this differentiation, basic lexemes quite often receive a local or temporal specialisation, such as *Aprilmarathon* (Gabl 2009: 233). Furthermore, Gabl notes an increasing popularity in expressions describing the exclusiveness and the fascination for the sport, with German examples such as *Laufseminar* (‘runner seminar’), *Marathonglück* (‘marathon luck’) and *Marathon-City*.

When it comes to morphology, Gabl finds some lexemes more popular than others. The superlative lexeme is popular and used in for example *Spitzen* (‘great’), *Rekord* (‘record’), *Super* (‘super/great’) and *Ultra* (‘ultra/extreme’). Abbreviations, such as *VCM* for Vienna City Marathon are fairly common and enable a shortening of the language. These forms become more and more recognized according to Gabl (2009: 235). Some abbreviations are difficult to understand outside the group that uses them and could be claimed to be classified as jargon according to the definition. Finally, Gabl comments on popular areas for metaphors, which are fauna, medicine, gastronomy, nobility, religion, war and military organisations, equestrian sports and technique (2009: 239). To sum up, some typical features may be recognised in the language of the two guides with respect to the characteristics of runners’ language specified by Gabl, runners’ terminology and jargon. This will be investigated in the end of the analytic section. First, however, text-type analysis and figurative language will be explored.

3. Analysis
3.1 Text type and cultural equivalence

3.1.1 Establishment of text type
Similar to the tourist brochure in the middle of Chesterman’s triangle (1989: 105), a monthly sports magazine like Runner’s World could be expected to contain features from more than one text type. According to the editor-in-chief (Runner’s World, 2015) the content of the magazine mirrors the requirements of a typical reader, which is a mix of runners’ stories, expert training advice, as well as advice on food and drink and evaluations of runners’ gadgets, i.e. informative features. Reiss (1981: 124) claims that evaluative language and rhetorical figures can be found whenever a certain behavioural outcome is expected from the reader. A reader of Runner’s World should become inspired to run more and eat healthier, i.e. to operate according to the purpose of the magazine. Thus, from the text genre, Runner’s World could be claimed to be a typical mixed text-type, likely to contain especially informative but also operative features.

3.1.2 The operative text type
The two training guides can also be categorized as mixed text types, but with a predominant operative feature, as shown in the quantitative overview below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>“Your First Marathon”</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>“Injury Prevention”</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primarily informative paragraphs</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primarily operative paragraphs</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>77%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mixed informative/operative paragraphs</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Both guides are structured in paragraphs listing recommendations and suggestions, most of them rendered in the imperative mood, e.g. build slowly, upgrade your shoes, listen to your body, eat well etc. The regulating vocabulary adds to this effect, by key words such as laws, rules, principles and strategies. To make the imperative language more appealing to the reader rhetorical figures are recurring operational features, especially in the headings, e.g. Train, Don’t Strain (rhyme) and Pick Your Pace (alliteration).

The aim of the guide “Your First Marathon” is for its reader to succeed in 26.2, the ultimate aim is for the runners to continue reading Runner’s World after having successfully completed 26.2 (thanks to this guide). In the translation of the texts this
predominantly operative aim has been taken into account and the same behavioural reaction is to be expected from the TT, as seen below.

(3)  

**Informative:**
Worn-out or ill-fitting shoes can lead to injury…

**Operative**
…so it’s best to replace yours now. Go to a specialty running shop [---]  

**Informative:**
Slitna eller illasittande skor kan leda till skador…

**Operative**
…så byt ut dem redan nu. Gå till en specialbutik för löpare [---]

In (3) the operative feature is predominant in both ST and TT, although slightly more so in the TT, where an imperative, *byt ut dem redan nu*, is used to render an evaluation in the ST, i.e. *it’s best to replace yours now*. My motivation for changing the structure to the imperative is simply word-economy. Furthermore, the imperative seems less strict in the TL in this case than it would have been in the SL (e.g. *replace yours now*). Most passages are structured like this, i.e. there is often a short informative text preceding the operative text. This structure is kept in the translation.

Reiss’s text-type theory can be applied to most of the operative paragraphs, in that the focus is on the reader and the operative effect is the same. However, in one section, “The Pill Problem”, the intended effect on the reader of the TT is deliberately different from that of the ST. This section is a guide to the right medication for pain and discomfort and one of the pill recommendations is illustrated below.

(4)  

“I inherited my dad’s bum knee and his heart disease.”

**PILL TO POP** Naproxen  
**MED SENSE** Naproxen does not seem to increase the risk of heart problems like other NSAIDs do. Take 200 to 400 milligrams every 12 hours for up to four days  

**WARNING LABEL** Avoid if you have kidney problems or high blood pressure. It can cause GI bleeding.

”Jag har fått min pappas dåliga knä och hjärtproblem.”

**VILKET PILLER?** Naproxen  
**TÄNK PÅ** En vanlig dos för vuxna vid reumatiska sjukdomar och akut smärta är 250–500 milligram morgon och kväll. Oftast ska man inte ta mer än 1000 milligram per dygn.  

**WARNING** Rådgör med läkare om du har astma, hjärtproblem, eller haft stroke eller om du har ökad risk för dessa tillstånd.

(4) starts with an injury description followed by a medical recommendation. The same medication (Naproxen) is recommended in ST and TT, which is not the case throughout “The Pill Problem”. The recommendation that follows leads to a different operative effect in ST and TT since the TT has been adapted to the national standards of the target
culture. The same goes for the warning label. Newmark’s (1982: 39) communicative translation has been applied here, in that the culture of the ST is transformed into the culture of the TT. The target culture clearly affects the translation in this case. Any medical advice given to people in Sweden should be in line with the advice given by 1177 Vårdguiden, i.e. the national service for wellness and health care information in Sweden. Advice on particular medication is not explicit on their webpage and rarely recommended as a first solution but comes towards the very end of the maladies. The whole section “The Pill Problem” was thus very difficult to adapt to a Swedish setting, since pills are generally not recommended in this way in Sweden. As Nida (1964: 160) observes, the difference between SL and TL culture may vary considerably, and although the SL and TL cultures are similar this is an example where they differ to a large extent, posing problems for the translator. An ethical observation should be made here as well as medical ethics in the SL and TL culture respectively had to be considered in the translation. Subsequently, although Reiss’s text-type theory is useful in the translation of operative paragraphs, it is sometimes not applicable when national standards and ethics differ in ST and TT culture. Below, some informative paragraphs will be analysed in the same way.

3.1.3. Examples of informative features

Although the text type is to a great extent operative in the two guides, there are some paragraphs where the informative feature is predominant. As stated in the background, Reiss advocates a plain rendering of facts in translating informative texts (Chesterman 1989: 108). The translation sometimes follows this recommendation as seen below.

(5) Sports docs can give you a comprehensive evaluation that includes diagnostic tests, from blood counts to bone scans to MRIs.

Idrottsläkare kan göra en fullständig undersökning som inkluderar diagnostiska tester av allt från blodvärden till röntgen av ben och MRT.

Example (5) communicates plain information and the content is very similar in ST and TT. However, in other informative paragraphs the mere rendering of facts suggested by Reiss is not possible, as seen in (6) below. Notably, this example is taken from the same paragraph as the example above.

(6) Podiatrists spend four years of training

Grundutbildningen till podiater i
specializing in feet. They’ll check the
wear patterns of your running shoes
and watch you walk and run to look
for biomechanical issues.

Sverige är treårig. En podiater
diagnosticera och behandlar
sjukdomstillstånd och skador i fot,
vrist och ibland även knä, ben och
höft.

The content in the ST and TT examples is very different. Even though they are both
informative, they provide the reader with different information. If Reiss’s theory fails to
account for the translation of the informative feature in this case, Newmark’s (1982: 39)
theory could again offer a better guide. This is an obvious example of communicative
translation, where the national standards of the target culture have been taken into
consideration in the translation. A mere transferring of facts would not have been
possible, since the discipline podiatry differs between the source and target cultures
both in education and in practice. Podiatry is less common in Sweden and the profession
podiatrer is probably not well-known to most people. There is in fact only one higher
educational institution, Karolinska Institutet (KI), offering an education towards this
profession. Furthermore, this educational programme is currently not running. There is
also disagreement in the designation of the profession in Swedish, as it is sometimes
referred to as podiatrer and sometimes as podiatriker. In this translation, the term used
by KI, i.e. podiatrer, has been chosen, which is also the preferred option on the internet,
where a Google search gives 901 000 hits compared to 9350 for podiatriker.

Another section where a seemingly uncomplicated rendering of facts would not
work in the translation is the section “Best Races for First-Timers”, which is a list of
recommended best races for beginners.

(7)  FARGO MARATHON
For perks of a big-city race without
the big fee
ING NYC MARATHON
To see all five NYC boroughs
ROCK ‘N’ ROLL ARIZONA
MARATHON
For a 26.2-mile party (27 live
music stages!)
THE WALT DISNEY WORLD
MARATHON
To enjoy a family vacation after the
race

BROMÖLLA MARATON
Småskaligt lopp, nybörjarvänligt, flackt
och lättlöpt.

---

AMSTERDAM MARATHON
Plan rutt med stigningar över kanalerna,
inte så stort deltagarantal som för övriga
huvudstäder.

BERLIN MARATHON
Europas största, banan där flest kvinnor
och män har satt världsrekord.

[---]
Newmark’s (1982: 39) recommendations on communicative vs semantic translation would again offer better guidelines than Reiss’s theory. As Koller (2011: 251–52) argues it may be necessary to re-write texts to better fit a certain target reader. In this case the whole section “Best Races for First-Timers” has been rewritten and adjusted to a Swedish setting, since the examples given in the ST are all American races, not as available to Swedish runners, especially not first-time runners. The focus of the TT should be on races that are available to people living in Sweden, which resulted in a mix of races in Sweden, Northern Europe and London, all fairly easy to access for the Swedish runner. In this case the TT is hardly a translation at all, but a complete re-writing on the same theme, aiming for pragmatic equivalence (Koller 2011: 251–252). Another strategy would have been to delete the paragraph altogether, but it is relevant to the reader and the kind of list that is often found in similar forums. A number of parallel texts from the electronic versions of *Spring*, *iForm* as well as www.maraton.se have been used to create the list in the TT. To sum up, the same conclusion is reached for operative as for informative paragraphs. Although Reiss’s theory is to some extent applicable it needs to be supplemented by other theories due to national standards and target reader. Next section will move from text type analysis to consider the figurative language found in the guides with respect to the sources in the background.

3.2 Equivalence in figurative language

In 3.1.2 the operative feature was claimed to be frequent especially in the headings and subheadings of the two training guides. This is natural since the purpose of a heading is to attract the reader’s attention and, thus, a conspicuous language may be expected. In the translation of the two guides, much effort has been put into rendering headings in a powerful way. The figures of speech found in the two training guides were defined in section 2.4.1. Especially the headings are rich in figurative speech but any occurrence in the text sections of the guides has been included in the tables below.

**Table 2 Distribution of figures of speech in “Your First Marathon”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure of speech in TT at the same place as in ST</th>
<th>Figure of speech in TT at other place than in ST (compensation)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creative idiom</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphor (fuel)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphor (fire)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperbole</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3 Distribution of figures of speech in “Injury Prevention”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure of speech in ST</th>
<th>Figure of speech in TT at the same place as in ST</th>
<th>Figure of speech in TT at other place than in ST (compensation)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creative idiom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metaphor</td>
<td>(war) 1 (maritime) 1 (gastronomy) 2 (fire) 1 (sport - boxing) 1</td>
<td>(war) 1 (railway) 1 - (fire) 1 (sport - boxing) 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hyperbole</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pun</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alliteration</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhyme</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in tables 2 and 3, much of the figurative language of the ST has been transferred into the TT. Most, but not all, creative idioms and metaphors have been kept in the TT, whereas puns, alliteration and rhyme to a greater extent have been lost. The hyperbole is equally frequent in ST and TT. To compensate for a certain loss, the translation strategies that Schröter (2005: 119) refers to as compensation are used, resulting in alliteration and rhyme at places where there is no such figure of speech in the ST. There are two reasons for this compensation. First, alliteration was found to be the most frequent figure of speech in the ST and since many of the examples were not transferred into the TT due to a conflict between content and form some other examples have consciously been added at other places in an attempt to stay close to the style of the ST. This is the strategy suggested by Ingo (2007: 145) in 2.4.2 for idiomatic expressions. The second reason for adding alliteration as compensation is that this figure of speech is one of the easiest to create without affecting the content too much. On some occasions rhyme is used as compensation and on one occasion there is a pun added. Below, examples from each category will be analysed in detail, to exemplify both when a certain figure of speech has been kept and when lost in the translation.

3.2.1 Idiomatic expressions

(8) and (9) illustrate two idiomatic expressions:
In (8) the idiomatic expression, *Good Grief*, is rendered by a similar idiom in the TT, *Bevare mig väl*, which is the preferred strategy according to Ingo when possible (2007: 141–149). Both expressions are exclamations, uttered to express a negative feeling such as irritation or annoyance. Furthermore, there is a biblical element in both, slightly more obvious in the TT, which means ‘(God) keep me safe’ (NE). *Good Grief* is a euphemism for *Good God* (The Free Dictionary). The form *bevare* is a subjunctive, a form that has become almost extinct in Swedish. In old Swedish it was common for verbs to take this form, but it remains in modern Swedish only in very few verbs. (Josefsson 2009: 76, 129, 210). Thus, a difference in register can be argued in the two expressions, as *Bevare mig väl* seems more formal and old-fashioned. However, this expression is also used today as a colloquial idiom where *bevare* has a faded sense (SAOB). A corpus search on the Swedish idiom gives 75 hits in Korp, with examples almost exclusively from blogs, i.e. from colloquial language. A corpus search on the English idiom in COCA gives 205 hits of which 25% comes from a spoken context.

Thus, the translation manages both denotative and connotative equivalence, as defined by Koller (2011: 230–234).

In (9) the creative idiom, *Beat those Postmarathon Blues* (‘beat the blues’), is not rendered by a similar idiomatic expression. Instead, another stylistic figure, a pun, has been created in the double meaning of the word *mara*. *Mara* is a colloquial short word for marathon, but it could also mean ‘nightmare’ or ‘bitch’, the latter originating in folklore referring to a supernatural woman, haunting people in their sleep (SAOB). The added pun in the TT is an example of Schröter’s first category of compensations (2005: 351–352), when the same effect is triggered in the TT in the same place as in the ST but by another stylistic feature. Furthermore there is alliteration in both ST and TT, i.e. *beat… blues* and *må… maran*. Even though the idiomatic expression in (9) is not rendered by an idiom in the translation, Koller’s formal equivalence (2011: 263) is achieved to a great extent. This is also an example of communicative translation (Newmark 1982), where the intended meaning of the title is rendered in the ST instead of a semantic, and more literal translation. There is naturalness in the TT option typical of both Nida’s dynamic equivalence (1964: 159) and Newmark’s communicative translation (Newmark 1982: 40). Although it should perhaps not be argued that the TT
option is superior to the ST option, this translation does indeed make use of the full register of the TT language (Newmark 1982: 42).

The complexity of translating idioms has been shown in this sub-section, where both connotative and denotative equivalence as well as communicative translation had to be considered. Furthermore, the use of corpora proved vital in determining the actual use of idiomatic expressions. The next figure of speech to be analysed is the metaphor.

3.2.2 Metaphors

Of the popular metaphorical areas mentioned by Gabl (2009: 239), war and gastronomy has been found in these training guides. Other popular areas are fire, fuel (machines), maritime and sport (boxing) as seen in tables 2 and 3 above. Below are three metaphors illustrating the same metaphorical concept (Lakoff & Johnson 2003: 7), i.e. the body is a machine/vehicle. Two of them, (10) and (11), are kept in the TT whereas the third metaphorical example of the same concept (12) has been rewritten.

(10) You’ll need to refuel… Du kommer att behöva fylla på energidepåerna

(11) Carbs are the body’s preferred source of fuel Kolhydrater är kroppens huvudsakliga bränsle

(12) Don’t run on empty Spring inte på tom mage

The metaphorical concept comparing the human body to a machine or vehicle needing fuel is repeated several times in the guide “Your First Marathon”. The image of a runner needing to refuel to be able to move forward is very straightforward and rendered in the same way in the TT on most occasions, as in refuel – fylla på energidepåerna and fuel – bränsle in (10) and (11) above. The metaphorical concept in the SL and TL thus seems very similar, i.e. the world is structured similarly in the ST and TT culture. However, the final metaphor in (12) is not rendered by a similar metaphor in the TT since there is no established metaphor of that kind. If the metaphorical concept had been identical it would have been possible to imagine Spring inte på tom tank as an option. However, the double meaning of run in the SL does not exist in the TL. Run could indicate both a vehicle moving and a human being running which is not equivalent to TL springa.

There is not a one-to-one relation (Koller 2011: 230) between run and springa, but a one-to-many relation. This is why formal equivalence is only partly achieved in (12). To
sum up, some metaphorical areas, e.g. fire, seem rather popular in this context. It is interesting to note that although a metaphorical concept may be the same in SL and TL, there can be differences in realisations. Related to the metaphor is the hyperbole, analysed below.

3.2.3 Hyperbole
The hyperbole dominates two paragraphs in “Your Guide to Injury Prevention”. There is a very similar distribution in ST and TT, illustrated with some examples below.

(13) The key to coming back from an injury and have a grieving strategy.  
Nyckeln till att återhämta sig från en skada och en strategi för att hantera sitt elände.

(14) If you can recognize each state of mourning  
Om man kan lära sig att känna till varje stadium i sorgeprocessen.

(15) Sport psychologist Jim Taylor, Ph.D., offers ways to reframe doomsday thinking.  
Idrottspsykologen Jim Taylor visar olika sätt att omformulera domedagstänkandet.

As seen in 2.4.1 Claridge (2011: 2) defines the following functions of the hyperbole; the persuasive aspect, the sensational aspect and the emotional appeal, none of which is relevant here. The aim of the hyperbole in this context is instead to emphasize the importance of coping with sport injuries. In a way the persuasive aspect could be said to be prevalent since the reader is persuaded to act in a certain way, but it is not as clear as in the examples given by Claridge (2011: 2). The examples above are metaphorical hyperboles (Claridge 2011: 41) involving death, a very common hyperbolic field according to Claridge (2011: 77). The handling process is described in terms that are otherwise used when describing death in (13) and (14), where the state of mind of the injured runner is compared to that of someone grieving a very dear friend. In (15), there is a comparison to utter ruin, i.e. to the end of the world. To readers who are not themselves confirmed runners especially the final hyperbole is very striking. The underlying death and doomsday metaphors are likewise consistent in the TT. Thus, the metaphorical concepts are similar and equivalence is reached on all levels defined by Koller (2011). If the hyperbole was found to be rather straightforward to translate, the pun was indeed the opposite, which will be seen in the analysis below.

3.2.4 Puns
A special challenge when it comes to figures of speech is the translation of puns, illustrated in (16) and (17).

(16) Cold Call Kalla fakta
(17) Hard Core, Healthy Runner Stark bål, skadefri löpning

*Cold Call* is taken from “Guide to Injury Prevention” and the paragraph deals with icing of injuries in order to speed up recovery. There is a very similar article in Swedish *Runner’s World* with the heading *Kalla fakta*, which has been borrowed in this translation. Two of the strategies defined by Schröter (2005: 234) have been applied simultaneously in translating the pun in this heading. *Kalla* is a direct translation of *cold*, whereas *call* and *fakta* are completely unrelated. Half of the pun is thus directly transferred into the TT, but to a large extent the TT pun has been re-created. Both *Cold Call* and *Kalla fakta* can be categorized as puns according to Schröter’s definition (2005:159), in that the context allows a double meaning of *cold vs kall* for a humorous effect, which is clearly intentional. *Cold calling* is a business strategy, which means contacting potential customers that the salesperson has not yet been in contact with, making the call “cold” (OED). *Kalla* in *Kalla fakta* could refer to both temperature, i.e. not warm, and to a lack of emotions. *Kalla fakta* is also the title of a Swedish debating and documentary programme (tv4play.se). Furthermore, it is used in other contexts where there is no humorous effect, such as tragic statistics and facts about hypothermia (e.g. Toresson 2013, Leman 2013). In the section that describes icing of injuries there is thus a hyperbolic nuance in the use of *Kalla fakta*, since the title seems somewhat exaggerated in relation to the cold facts and statistics this title usually refers to.

The second pun, (17) *Hard Core, Healthy Runner*, has not been kept in the translation but the strategy is a translation without language-play (Schröter 2005: 234). The pun in the ST lies in the double meaning of *hard core*, sometimes spelled *hardcore*, which could refer to the most committed members of a certain group, but also to very explicit pornography. However, this section of the training guide discusses the importance of core training for successful running, thus, *hard core* here means simply well-trained core muscles. It would have been possible to create a similar pun in Swedish using the word *magstark*, meaning both something ‘imprudent’, but also of course ‘strong stomach/core’, in other words more or less the same as a hard core. A possible title could then have been *Magstark löpning*, but this option has not been
chosen since it could indicate an insolent hidden meaning and give the wrong impression of the content. Subsequently, some formal equivalence was sacrificed in order to achieve a better connotative equivalence, as defined by Koller (2011: 244). Worth pointing out is the statement by Schröter (2005: 176), that the pun may deliberately be disregarded by the translator in order to rescue another figure of speech. This has been applied in (17), sacrificing the pun (since the TL offers no good equivalence) and instead rescuing the alliteration in hard, healthy rendered by stark, skadefri. (16) is an example of the opposite. There are two figures of speech in the ST, both a pun and alliteration. It would not have been possible to rescue both in the TT, but it can be argued that formal equivalence (Koller 2011: 263) is still reached to a large extent since the more conspicuous of the two features, i.e. the pun, is preserved. To sum up, the headings containing puns proved particularly complex for several reasons; not only in finding words with a double meaning, but also in finding a double meaning reflecting the content and reaching connotative equivalence. Furthermore, both puns simultaneously contained alliteration, a figure of speech discussed in detail below.

3.2.5 Alliteration

Alliteration is the most frequent of the figures of speech in the two training guides. As Onic (2006: 250) points out, intentional alliteration may be difficult to separate from coincidental, but the distribution in tables 2 and 3 illustrates what is most likely intentional alliteration. Some examples are given below.

(18) Rehearse Your Race Lägg upp löprundan
(19) Connect with others Träna tillsammans
(20) Everything you need to know to get to the start and finish lines feeling fit and ready to run your best Allt du behöver veta för att ta dig till start- och mållinjen i god form och redo att göra ditt bästa lopp någonsin

(18) Rehearse Your Race, would semantically be nearer to Planera ditt lopp or Planera loppet, but with a freer translation, as in Lägg upp löprundan, alliteration is preserved. Besides, this option better reflects the content of the text section that follows. (19) Connect with Others, contains no alliteration, but has been rendered with alliteration in the TT, i.e. Träna tillsammans, which is also semantically the most suitable option for this section. In (20), there are three instances of alliteration that could be both intentional and coincidental. Feeling fit and ready to run are probably intentional, but in
this case there is a conscious decision to ignore the alliteration in the TT since it seems less important than the semantic content, which is here prioritized. (19) is a clear example of compensation, but does not fit into the categories defined by Schröter (2005: 351-352). In this case the advice offered by Ingo (2007: 145) for idiomatic expressions has been followed, in that a few examples have been added to compensate for other losses, to stay near to the overall style of the ST. In conclusion, alliteration is a very common figure of speech, and in these guides ideal as compensation for loss of other figurative language. Finally, some comments on the use of rhyme in these guides.

3.2.6 Rhyme
Rhyme is rather frequent in the guide “Your First Marathon”. Although it is quite straightforward and can be easily recognised by the reader (Schröter 2005: 292) it can prove a real challenge when trying to render it in a translation. Some examples of how the distribution of rhyme differs are shown below.

(21) This plan will help you build more stamina so you can run stronger – for longer

Den här guiden hjälper dig förbättra din kondition och styrka inför långa pass

(22) The Pill Problem

När är tablett rätt?

None of the occurrences of rhyme in the ST has been preserved in the TT, which was simply too difficult to manage without losing semantically and creating clumsy sentences. As seen in (21), run stronger – for longer has been completely rewritten in the TT. In (22), rhyme has been used consciously in the TT, i.e. tablett – rätt, even though there is no rhyme in the ST in this place. This is a kind of compensation, belonging to the second category defined by Schröter (2005: 351–352). On the other hand, this means losing the alliteration that could have been preserved in something like Problem med piller. However, piller is often found in a negative context in Korp, whereas pill is used more neutrally in COCA, i.e. there is a difference in connotation (Koller 2011: 244) connected to culture. Furthermore, a google search shows that the expression the pill problem is frequently used for side effects of oral contraceptives for women. Thus, the ST title could also be claimed to be a pre-constructed phrase or an expression as defined by Partington (1998: 121–122), further explored below.

3.2.7 Unusuality in pre-constructed phrases and expressions
In relation to the figures of speech some examples of Partington’s (1998) unusuality in pre-constructed phrases and expressions will be given. There are obvious differences between Partington’s (1998: 121–122) newspaper headlines and the headings in Runner’s World. Still, Partington’s study is relevant as unusuality occurs in these guides and is interesting to look at in a contrastive analysis of ST and TT. Unusuality was not as common as expected and only four examples were found in the guides in total. However, as Ingo (2007: 151) points out finding these kinds of pre-constructed phrases or allusions requires profound knowledge of the translator in the SL culture and it is possible that some expressions have been overlooked. In any way, the two most striking examples will illustrate this creative use of language.

(23) Runner’s Digest Lättsmält för löpare
(24) The Usual Suspects De vanliga bovarna

(23) Runner’s Digest and (24) The Usual Suspects are both examples of quotations as defined by Partington (1998: 121–122). Runner’s Digest is a re-working of Reader’s Digest, which is an American general interest monthly magazine (with the sub-title Det bästa in the Swedish edition). Partington’s mechanism substitution (1998: 126) is used in the reworking of the original title, i.e. reader’s is cleverly substituted by runner’s. There are only two phoneme alternations, which makes it easy for the reader to recognise the original form. (24) The Usual Suspects is an idiomatic expression rendering 266 hits in COCA (e.g. Canned ingredients are the usual suspects when it comes to chili’s high sodium count, source: Good Housekeeping). There is also an allusion to the title of a German-American thriller movie from 1995. In (24) the expression has not been altered but kept in its original (idiomatic) form. The comic effect lies in the unexpected reference to culprits when investigating possible injuries connected to runners. As for the translations of (23) and (24), unusuality has not been used in the Swedish versions, Lättsmält för löpare and De vanliga bovarna. Since unusuality is about reworking a phrase that is instinctively recognised by the reader the effect is culture-bound. In order to keep the unusuality in the translation the translator would have to re-work a similar instinctively known phrase in the target culture. A real challenge since the heading should also fit the content of the section (digestion in (23)). Thus, a figure of speech has been added, i.e. alliteration in (23), to compensate for this loss. The movie The Usual Suspects has the Swedish title De misstäkt which could
have been chosen as a translation but this title is less known to the target reader than its English equivalent and this heading has been rendered without language-play. To sum up, corpora were again useful in defining and analysing examples of Partington’s unusualness. Although not very frequent, pre-constructed phrases proved a real challenge in the translation. This will conclude the section on figurative language, and the presence of a typical runner’s language will be investigated in the section that follows.

3.3 Terminology – typical runner’s language or jargon

The guide, “Your First Marathon”, contains a few examples of specialisations in the designation of running events in the ST, similar to the onesGabl (2009: 233) describes.

(25) First-Timer’s Marathon Ditt första maraton
(26) Flying Pig Marathon -
(27) Rock ’n’ Roll Arizona Marathon -
(28) Postmarathon blues Må bra även efter maran

(25) – (28) illustrate four examples of specialisations of a marathon event in the ST. Two of these, (26) and (27), are names of American marathon events. As explained in section 3.1.3 these have not been translated into Swedish, but the section has been re-written for a Swedish audience. None of the marathon events in the TT contains similar specialisations. The other two examples, (25) First-Timer’s Marathon and (28) Postmarathon blues have been rephrased in the TT without any specialisation. An equivalent specialisation, such as Förstagångslöparens maraton, would be too long and less suitable for a heading. Förstagångslöpare can be found on www.runnersworld.se but not in headings. 12 examples of förstagångslöpare are found in Korp, but none of them in headings. Likewise, the final example (28) would have been hard to render with the same kind of specialisation in the TL. Most attempts would not be idiomatic, and/or they would again be too long for a heading. Specialisations are less frequent in “Guide to Injury Prevention”, and only occur in the following example.

(29) says Clint Verran, a 2:14 marathoner and physical therapist säger Clint Verran, som är fysioterapeut och som springer marathon på 2.14
(29) is an example of what Gabl calls impressive specialisation (2009: 233). In the TT this is rendered by an equally impressive relative clause. The lack of specialisations in the Injury Prevention-guide is probably connected to the content being focused on injuries and not on the marathon event as such. A difference in language structure should also be noted. In both German and Swedish compound nouns are very common and a productive way of word formation (Inghult 1980: 13). According to Sager & Ormelius (1983: 7) there are almost unlimited possibilities of creating compounds in the Swedish language, whereas the English language writes in two or more words. Thus, it is rather surprising that the specialisations are found in the English ST and not in the Swedish TT. The popular superlative lexemes described by Gabl (2009: 234) in the German magazines have no equivalence in the ST or TT of this study.

According to Gabl (2009: 235) abbreviations are increasingly popular in the language of runner magazines. As noted in the background, these could be part of a runners’ jargon, and have a community-building function, giving runners a shared status or code (Clayton 2002: 3, Napthine 1994: 32). The tables below show the distribution of abbreviations connected to the language of running. Only abbreviations and short forms connected to running and running injuries have been included in the table, whereas abbreviations of medication have been excluded.

**Table 4 Abbreviations in “Your First Marathon”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST abbreviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Translation in TT</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EZ (= ease)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lätt (not abbreviated)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD (= long, slow distance)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Långpass (not abbreviated)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RICE (= rest, ice, compression, and elevation)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Vila, is, tryck och höjd (paraphrased)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITB (= iliotibial-band)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ITBS (= iliotibialbandsyndrom)</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-Ks</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>femkilometerslopp (not abbreviated)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5 Abbreviations in “Injury Prevention”**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ST abbreviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>TT abbreviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rehab</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>rehab</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-K</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>femkilometers- (not abbreviated)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITBS</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>ITBS</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITB</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>ITB</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IT band</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PT (= physiotherapist)</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>fysioterapeut (not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Paraphrasing has been used in some cases, which is one of the strategies suggested by Arntz (1993: 15–16) when there is no equivalent term in the TL. Most runners are likely to be familiar with abbreviations of established distances such as 26.2 (ST) vs 42,2 (TT) and these are used to the same extent in the ST and TT The abbreviations describing different modes of running, such as long-distance runs, are less established. They do occur in parallel texts, but normally come with a clarification. There is no established abbreviation for PT in the TL although PT is sometimes used in parallel texts as a loan translation (Arntz 1993: 15). Here, *fysioterapeut* is used instead in the TT, which is less confusing to the reader. Similarly, *PR* could have been rendered by *PB*, meaning *personbästa* (‘personal record’), or by *persa* (‘break your personal record’). However, this is more common in blogs and chats (e.g. *Jag skulle persa!* meaning ‘I was in for a PB!’). To sum up the tables it is clear that abbreviations are used to a greater extent in the ST than in the TT. This is due to the fact that many of the ST abbreviations are not established terms in the TL. Online parallel texts were used to check the frequency of most common abbreviations in the tables above. This confirmed the more frequent use of abbreviations in the SL. It also confirmed the use of 42,2, *ITB* and *rehab* in the TL.

**Table 6 Statistics on abbreviations in parallel texts**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviations</th>
<th><a href="http://www.runnersworld.com">www.runnersworld.com</a> (SL)</th>
<th><a href="http://www.runnersworld.se">www.runnersworld.se</a> (TL)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>26.2/42.2</td>
<td>1900</td>
<td>24 articles, 25 blogs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITB</td>
<td>85 articles</td>
<td>15 articles, 158 blogs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rehab</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>22 articles, 131 blogs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Gabl (2009: 235) states, these kinds of abbreviations are becoming more and more established, which might be a fact also in the TL. The material used in this case is rather limited and may not reflect the typical runners’ language in general. Apart from the abbreviations very few, if any, examples that could be classified as runners’ jargon were found in the guides. The following might be argued to be a bit difficult to recognise for people outside of the runners’ community, thus being part of a runners’ jargon.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>source text</th>
<th>target text</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conversational pace</td>
<td>pratempo</td>
<td>= a running pace that enables you to talk while running</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(31) 5-K-race pace 5-kilometertempo = the pace you typically run when running 5 km
(32) Yasso 800s Yassos åttahundringar = an exercise for determining your marathon pace

All except perhaps Yasso 800s would probably be understood, if not used, by most people also outside of the runners’ community. In the TT Yasso 800s has been explained to the reader, since this is an exercise invented in the US. According to Koller (2011: 251–52) such an explanation is an addition to reach pragmatic equivalence. As with any addition the translator runs the risk of underestimating the reader, a possibility also in this case. To sum up, there are some differences in designations of runners events in ST and TT, where specialisations were found to be more common in the SL. Likewise, abbreviations, some of which could be classified as jargon, were more common in the SL. Other examples of jargon were very rare in both ST and TT.

4. Conclusion

The aim of this study was threefold; to analyse what cultural adaptations were appropriate in order to present the text to the target reader, to investigate to what extent equivalence could be reached when rendering a figurative language in the TT and, finally, to find out to what extent a possible runners’ language would pose difficulties to the translator. The results showed that Reiss’s text type theory was not sufficient to guide the translation of cultural differences in the SL and TL. Although a text type definition proved useful for translation strategies, the text needed to be analysed on a phrasal and lexical level as well, where other translation theories such as Koller’s equivalence relations and Newmark’s communicative translation were applicable. The primary material was found to be a mixed form of the informative and the operative text type, with an emphasis on operative features. Typical of an operative text type, there were numerous aesthetic features that constituted a special challenge. The overall result was that figurative language is indeed possible to render in this kind of translation, but some figures of speech are inevitably lost, due to differences in language structure, and sometimes due to differences in metaphorical concepts in the different cultures. Thus, equivalence on all levels of the text was not always possible to reach. Nevertheless, compensation proved an important translation strategy in order to give the TT the corresponding style and register. The findings of typical runner’s language and runner’s jargon were rather limited and, thus, this area did not pose any real problems in the
translation. Rather surprisingly specialisations in the designation of running events were found in the ST but not possible to render in the same way in the TL. Likewise, abbreviations were found to be more common in the ST and not as established in the TL. It is hard to say from the results of this study if a developed runner’s jargon exists. If so, it is not a jargon that could be expected in printed magazines or in the training guides used as primary material. The primary material used in this study was very limited and focused on two specific areas only; marathon training and injury prevention. It is possible that a more comprehensive investigation of the language in the printed magazine or the online edition would give a different result when it comes to text-type, figurative language as well as the characteristics of a typical runners’ language. Furthermore, creating a corpus by collecting terminology from the magazines would have enabled a more profound use of parallel sources, possibly affecting the outcome of the study. This could indeed be interesting as a follow-up. Another suggestion for further research would be isolating each of the aspects for a more detailed investigation, especially figurative language that could very well make up a study of its own.
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www.runnersworld.se/artiklar/1-5-miljoner-loper-minst-en.htm

http://www.runningusa.org/state-of-the-sport-race-trends?returnTo=main


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Parallel texts

Articles from *Runner’s World* found on [www.runnersworld.se](http://www.runnersworld.se)

Inspiration to list “Bra lopp för nybörjare”:

