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# INSERTIONS IN POPULAR HISTORY TEXTS

A contrastive study on translation from English to Swedish and from Swedish to English

**Gustav Landälv**

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Supervisor:	Joseph Trotta
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# Abstract

**Title:** *Insertions in Popular History Texts. A Contrastive Study on Translation from English to Swedish and from Swedish to English.*

**Author:** Gustav Landälv

**Supervisor:** Joseph Trotta

**Abstract:** The purpose of this essay is to compare the frequency of insertions in an English popular history text and a Swedish popular history text. Moreover, the purpose is to compare the English text with its Swedish translation and the Swedish text with its English translation as regards the status of the insertions as clauses, phrases or (in the translation) something else than a clause or a phrase. Finally, the purpose is to compare the syntactic position of the insertions in each original text and its translation, and to attempt at estimating whether the translation of the insertions affects the readability of the translation compared to its original.

The theory is based on previous research regarding translations and readability, and on what counts as an insertion. This includes the assumption that insertions occur between commas, brackets and dashes, and make the text harder to read. Little research was found on the syntactic position of insertions.

The insertions found in the first 9000 words of an English popular history book and its Swedish translation (starting from chapter 1), and in the first 9000 words of a Swedish popular history book and its English translation (starting from chapter 1), were compared regarding what is mentioned above as the purpose of this essay. As for the syntactic position of the insertions and their translations, they were presented in two tables, each table representing a certain original and its translation.

The English original contained 111 insertions per 9000 words, whereas the Swedish original contained 72 insertions per 9000 words. As for the type of insertions, the most frequent pattern was that an English inserted phrase became a Swedish inserted phrase and vice versa. The most frequent syntactic position of the insertions was that between subject and finite verb in both the original and the translation, although in translation from Swedish to English an equally frequent position was the so called "Other position". Because some insertions were not rendered as insertions in the translations or put in the beginning or at the end of the translation, the translations might be more readable than the original texts in that regard, although this might be compensated by potential insertions that are only in the translations.

**Keywords:** Insertion, clause, phrase, syntactic position, popular history, readability, English, Swedish

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# 1. Introduction

A text based on scientific research but aimed at more than just the experts in the field “avoids formal language”<sup>1</sup> (Klepke & Rydell, 2013, p. 14). Insertions (such as *a man*, in ‘Gustav Landälv, a man, is the author of this essay’) which Lagerholm (2008) calls *inskott*, are “most common in formal, heavy style” and often makes the sentence “difficult to understand” (p. 140)<sup>2</sup>. The English term for *inskott* is *insertion* and *inserted phrase* according to Holmér (2001, p. 193), although her classification of those differs slightly from that of Lagerholm and reads “clause, part of a clause or separate word which is part of a surrounding clause but can be removed without it becoming ungrammatical” such as “Vissa don, *såsom spadar och hackor*, kallas hellre redskap än verktyg” (Holmér, 2001, p. 193, italics in the original)<sup>3</sup>. In view of the claim that insertions make the text more formal as well as difficult to understand, a specific type of text genre where such constructions might be undesirable is popular history – the three specific conditions given by Schou (cited in Holmqvist, 2016, p. 24) for something to be classified as popular history is that it should reach an audience beyond the academic and educational sphere of society, that it is easy to understand “in a thematic or linguistic regard”<sup>4</sup> (p. 24) – although works may differ as regards linguistic and stylistic complexity (p. 24) – and that it is aimed at “a large audience” (p. 24).

Also, English and Swedish present some syntactic differences (see Ingo, 2007, pp. 177–179) which might affect where insertions occur in each language. For example, Ingo (2007) mentions among other things that in Swedish there is inversion in the main clause when the sentence starts with a “determiner of the predicate”<sup>5</sup>, a sentence adverbial or a subordinate clause, whereas in English the word order in main clauses is “more stable” in this regard (p. 177). Moreover, there could be a difference in the occurrence frequency of various types of insertions in English and Swedish; Ingo (2007), mentions that “loosely inserted additions” are “very common” in English, but “less common” in Swedish (p. 74). However, the insertions that he

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<sup>1</sup> All English quotations from Klepke and Rydell (2013) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>2</sup> All English quotations from Lagerholm (2008) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>3</sup> All English quotations from Holmér (2001) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>4</sup> All English quotations from Holmqvist (2016) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>5</sup> All English quotations from Ingo (2007) – excepting linguistic examples – have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

presents do not seem to include finite clauses, since he only specifically mentions “modifiers, adverbials and clause equivalents” (2007, p. 74). As for inserted finite clauses it is, however, less likely that they are more frequent in English than they are in Swedish, since Ingo (2007) mentions that the percentage of main clauses and subordinate clauses is 3% and 3,8% respectively in English but 4,4% and 7,5% respectively in Swedish, regarding what Ingo (2007) calls a “partly fairly complex international agreement” (p. 176). This might indicate that insertions which are not made up of a finite clause are more common in English than in Swedish, whereas insertions in the form of a finite clause are more common in Swedish than in English, both when it is a main clause and a subordinate clause.

Thus, since the information by Ingo (2007) might indicate that certain insertions are more common in English than in Swedish whereas others are more common in Swedish than in English, it would be justified to study how insertions are used in English and Swedish history books written for a large lay audience, in translation from English to Swedish and from Swedish to English. More specifically, based on an extract from an English original and its Swedish translation and from a Swedish original and its English translation (see section 3.1), the specific questions that this study aims to answer are:

1. What is the frequency of insertions per total number of words in the two originals?
2. How are insertions translated from English to Swedish and from Swedish to English as regards their status as clauses and phrases?
3. Is there anything indicating that the readability of the original and the translation of each text differs as regards the translation of the insertions?
4. How are insertions translated from English to Swedish and from Swedish to English as regards their syntactic position?

## 2. Previous research

This section gives an overview of insertions, popular writing, and clauses and phrases.

### 2.1 Insertions

#### 2.1.1 Insertions in English

The information in this section concerns English insertions as regards their grammatical realisations and how they are marked off from the rest of the clause where they occur. No information is given on how such insertions affect the readability of the text, which is the topic of section 2.1.1.1.

According to Holmér (2001), insertions in English are surrounded by commas, brackets and dashes, commas being the most neutral punctuation mark (p. 136). Dashes are used around the insertion to “achieve a stronger disruption than a comma would do” (p. 139) and in many writing guides it is recommended that an en dash or an em dash be used around insertions containing a comma, so as to avoid confusion by more commas (pp. 139–140). As for brackets around insertions, the only thing mentioned by Holmér (2001) is that, like dashes, they<sup>6</sup> “more clearly separate the insertion from the surrounding clause” than a comma would do (p. 193), which seems to be a claim not applying to English only (see p. 193).

Blakemore (2005) provides a number of parenthetical constructions that are “licensed by the grammar” (p. 1671), all of which are included in this essay (see section 3.2). Those are:

1. Non-restrictive relative clauses: “Penn, who last week received an Oscar for his role in Clint Eastwood’s *Mystic River*, may also have thought of Eastwood’s previous picture, *Bloodwork* . . .” (Observer, quoted in Blakemore, 2005, p. 1671, italics in the original)

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<sup>6</sup> Here Holmér (2001) talks about what in Swedish she calls *parentestecken*, which includes brackets (see p. 141) and she claims that the use of *parentestecken* in Swedish and English is roughly the same (see p. 141). However, Holmér (2001) also uses the specific Swedish word *bågparenteser* for the signs used around insertions (see pp. 136, 141). Another word for *bågparenteser* is *rundparenteser* (Holmér, 2001, p. 39). In this essay the term *brackets* is used and refers to the following signs in between which the text can be written: ( ). Those signs equal what Holmér (2001) calls *bågparenteser/rundparenteser* (see p. 39). Finally, for these signs, according to Cambridge Dictionary (2021) the terms *brackets* and *round brackets* are normally used in British English whereas the term *parentheses* is used “mainly” in American English.

2. Nominal appositions: “Paul (Sean Penn), an ailing mathematics teacher with a few months to live, receives the architect’s heart in a successful transplant and hires a seedy private detective to discover the identity of his donor” (Observer, quoted in Blakemore, 2005, p. 1671).
3. Parenthetical adverbial clauses: “My idea, if you really want to know, was to treat the phenomenon as a conventional implicature” (Blakemore, 2005, p. 1671).
4. Discourse markers: “I am, after all, exhausted” (Blakemore, 2005, p. 1671).
5. Sentence adverbials: “The students were, unfortunately, on holiday.” (Blakemore, 2005, p. 1671).

Moreover, besides the parentheticals listed above (excepting *discourse markers* and the fact that *adverbial clauses* rather than *parenthetical adverbial clauses* are mentioned, (see Dehé 2014, pp. 3–4), Dehé (2014), in her study on what she calls *parentheticals* and their prosody in spoken English, also provides a list that includes the following types of constructions that she would consider parenthetical. Note that only the types of constructions that are included in this essay are mentioned below (cf. section 3.2 for constructions that were not included):

1. Clauses: “When we were on holiday – *that reminds me, I must pick up the photos* – we saw so many interesting places.” (Wichman, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 3, italics in the original).
2. Clauses introduced by a conjunction: “Ames, *as the FBI eventually discovered*, was a spy. (Potts, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 3, italics in the original).
3. Elliptical clauses: “For those of us who remember nineteen sixty-five *one or two of our listeners may* Tory party leadership contests used to be as the cardinals in Rome and leaders would emerge (Dehé, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 3, & ICE-GB, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 3, italics in the original).

4. Non-finite clauses: “The most fundamental of all parental wishes *to educate our children in our own morality* is indoctrination and a denial of their free development”. (ICE-GB, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 4, italics in the original).
5. Lexical phrases, in the form of adjective phrases, prepositional phrases and noun phrases, the following example being a noun phrase: “Robert, *no genius*, is applying for a scholarship to Harvard” (Huddleston and Pullum, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 4, italics in the original).
6. Sentence adverbs: “He is, *unfortunately*, ill”. (Urmson, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 5, italics in the original).
7. Right node raising: “Amanda is, or at least she used to be, my best friend.” (Peterson, quoted in Dehé, 2014, p. 6, italics in the original). See example 39, *Appendix 2*.

It cannot be ruled out that other parentheticals by Dehé (2014) equal constructions found in this study.

It should also be noted that Dehé (2014) mentions that some parentheticals like nominal appositions and non-restrictive relative clauses have a “default position” (p. 10) next to the element that they modify in the surrounding clause, while others can be placed more freely, such as: between the subject and the finite verb, in a “verbal complex [...], between a lexical verb and its complement [...], between a preposition or noun and complement [...], between a nominal head and a postmodifier [...], interrupting a sequence of premodifiers within a noun phrase” (p. 10) and “between a possessive pronoun or a determiner and a noun” (p. 10). An example of an apposition would be the italicised part in: ‘English, *a Germanic language*, is spoken by hundreds of millions of people’. An example of a non-restrictive relative clause would be the italicised part in: ‘Linguistics, *which is an interesting subject*, can be studied at the university’.

Finally, Ingo (2007) mentions that “attributes, adverbials and clause equivalents” are “very common” in English, “less common” in Swedish, and are marked by commas (p. 74). Similarly Ingo (2007) claims that adverbials in English are often marked off by commas and “are often perceived as loose parenthetical additions in the same way as clause equivalents” (p. 179). Ingo

(2007) also gives an example of a sentence adverbial surrounded by commas: I will, *of course*, come with you (p. 179, italics in the original).

### **2.1.1.1 English insertions and readability**

Generally, insertions do not seem to be associated with a more complex sentence structure, as indicated by the sources below:

Cutts (2020), in his book on how to write plain English, suggests that a certain sentence be split into more sentences (pp. 22–23). However, although he does not explicitly mention it, this leaves an insertion in the middle of one of the sentences, here italicised: “These problems – *and the low spending power of the area’s residents* – have badly hit services like shops and transport” (Cutts, 2020, p. 23, no italics in the original). In a sentence containing some insertions in the middle of it, which are not specifically specified, Cutts (2020) does, however, suggest a rephrasing so that the final version has no insertion in the middle of the sentence (see pp. 28–29). Nevertheless, Cutts does not ascribe the improvements to the elimination of insertions but to “sentence length and a bullet-list layout” (p. 29). Cutts (2020) also seems to accept the following sentence, where the insertion is italicised: “So, *if only for commercial reasons*, it’s important to control sentence length carefully” (p. 30, no italics in the original). Similarly, Cutts (2020) gives an example where nothing is said about the following construction: “The cost [...] of meeting a European Commission directive to combat acid rain, *approved by ministers in June*, will approach [...]” (New Scientist, quoted in Cutts, 2020, p. 31, no italics in the original). Finally, he does not disprove of the following sentence, where the italicised part might be an insertion: “In 2019, *as climate-change warnings have become more strident*, people in the Western world have begun to think more about how their own purchasing choices can make things better” (Cutts, 2020, p. 31, no italics in the original). This all indicates that Cutts (2020) does not consider insertions to make the text more difficult to read.

Furthermore, as regards commas, dashes and brackets – the signs used to isolate insertions from the rest of the text (see section 2.1.1) – Cutts (2020) mentions that a pair of commas can be used to mark something as “an aside, explanation or addition” and that it can be ignored without the meaning being lost (p. 101), which agrees reasonably well with the definition of insertions (cf. section 1). The example Cutts (2020) provides is: “Holmes, *having searched for further clues*, left by the back door” (p. 101, no italics in the original). He does not, however, advise against it for the sake of readability. Neither does he advise against the use of non-restrictive relative clauses, which he calls “**commenting clause**” (see p. 101, bold in the

original), but only describes how it differs from a restrictive relative clause, which he calls “**defining clause**” (see p. 101, bold in the original). It is interesting to note, however, that Cutts (2020) refers to a non-restrictive relative clause as “This kind of insert” (p. 101), and claiming that it “is not essential to the main point of the sentence” (p. 101) thereby clearly viewing it as something parenthetical. Regarding dashes, Cutts (2020) claims that dashes can be used “to indicate the start of an aside, explanation or addition” (p. 105) and that two of them can highlight the enclosed phrase, but that commas or brackets could have been used as well, although without causing the same emphasis (p. 105). Cutts (2020) also claims that a pair of dashes can occur more than once in the sentence but not to the point where the sentence “disintegrate[s]” (p. 106). As for brackets, Cutts (2020) claims that those are used around “an aside, explanation or addition that is relatively unimportant to the main text” (p. 106). Cutts (2020) also mentions that brackets in good places can be used to stop a sentence from “disintegrating” regarding its meaning, although it looks “cluttered”, like when they are used for explanations (p. 107). Thus, Cutts (2020) does not seem to advise against the use of such textual markers in connection to insertions, possibly excepting his comment previously referred to, saying that bracketed parts can make the sentence appear cluttered.

In addition, when Cutts is “transforming text into low-literacy English” (2020, p. 275), he gives an example of a medical consent form starting with “I, the undersigned, have had...” (p. 276), where the words *the undersigned* clearly are an insertion. Nevertheless, the only change suggested by Cutts (2020) in that regard is to replace those words with the person’s name (p. 277), which would not remove the actual insertion.

It should be noted, however, that when Cutts (2020) is “transforming text into low-literacy English” (p. 275) there is a removal of an insertion without it being explicitly mentioned, the insertion being in italics:

If the State agency finds that an individual has received a payment to which the individual was not entitled, *whether or not the payment was due to the individual’s fault or misrepresentation*, the individual shall be liable to repay the State the total sum of the payment to which the individual was not entitled (Cutts, 2020, pp. 275–276, no italics in the original).

The revised version is:

If the State Agency finds that it gave you money you were not meant to have, you must pay it all back (Cutts, 2020, p. 276).

Some indirect indications that insertions could make a text more difficult are given by Feng (2010), who has written about how an automatic readability assessment tool has developed (see p. iv). He claims that syntactic constructions typically considered difficult are relative clauses (2010, pp. 18, 97, 100) and sometimes also “conjoined sentences” (2010, p. 18).

Similarly, Saggion (2017), in his book *Automatic Text Simplification*, includes relative clauses, subordination and coordination among potentially difficult structures (p. 33). He also mentions that Chandrasekar et al. (referred to in Saggion, 2017, p. 33) were the ones introducing “[s]yntactic simplification” (p. 33) and that they “targeted constructions such as relative clauses and appositions” (p. 33). These two constructions, along with for example adverbial clauses, coordination and subordination, are also among the constructions included by Siddharthan (referred to in Saggion, 2017, pp. 37–39) as making the text harder to read and understand. All examples given of such constructions, however, come at the end of the sentence (see Saggion, 2017, pp. 38–39) and such constructions are not included in this essay (see section 3.2). Relative clauses and appositions are also mentioned by Saggion among the six constructions that were targeted for simplification in a corpus made up of Brazilian Newspaper articles, and so are coordinate and subordinate clauses (2017, p. 68). These four constructions are also mentioned among those targeted by Siddharthan (referred to in Saggion, 2017, p. 36) to simplify sentences (p. 36). Moreover, appositions and non-restrictive relative clauses are the constructions targeted for syntactic simplification prior to text summarization by Siddharthan et al. (referred to in Saggion, 2017, p. 74). Regarding relative clauses, Saggion (2017) also mentions that “non-defining relative clauses”, which follow after a comma or modify an indefinite noun, are separated to form a new sentence in what he calls “**syntactic simplification grammars**” (p. 64, bold in the original). The same is true of coordinated main verbs (Saggion, 2017, p. 64). Finally, according to Saggion (2017) mainly sentences with relative clauses were shortened in the simplification of texts for people on the autism spectrum (p. 72).

Similarly, Siddharthan (referred to in Petersen, 2007, p. 80) syntactically simplified sentences in “British news texts” (p. 80) among other things regarding conjunctions, relative clauses and

appositions (p. 80). This might be the same study as the one referred to in Saggion (2017). Also, in her review on readability, Benjamin (2012) mentions that embedded clauses cause difficulty because while processing those the reader needs to remember the main clause (p. 75).

However, in their article on how sentence structure affects the difficulty of a text Nenkova et al. (2010), claim among other things that the frequency and length of appositions “were [not] significantly correlated with fluency at the 0.95 confidence level” (p. 228).

Moreover, Hasselgård (2010) gives a number of examples of what she calls *parenthetical insertions* in the form of adjuncts, although not always within punctuation marks. She claims that adjuncts “realised by clauses or long phrases” are typically marked as parenthetical insertions “by means of [...] commas or dashes”, but are still relevant to how the clause is understood (p. 108). Regarding sentences with adjuncts in both medial and end position Hasselgård (2010) also mentions, however, that the adjuncts’ being in medial position “reduces the informational value” of those adjuncts (p. 177). Furthermore, Hasselgård (2010) claims that when medial adverbials contain more than four words they mainly occur in written language, possibly because of “the relative difficulty of processing such constructions” (p. 109). This is an indication of how other insertions in English could make the text harder to read, in addition to relative clauses and appositions. Hasselgård (2010) also mentions that when long adjuncts occur in medial position, especially as phrases between the verb phrase and another compulsory clause element, they are not always within punctuation marks (p. 109). Moreover, the “core of the clause” is not as disrupted when the adjunct is between the verb phrase and an ensuing compulsory clause element, as opposed to when it is between the subject and the beginning of the verb phrase or somewhere between the auxiliary and the main verb (Hasselgård, 2010, p. 109).

Finally, it should be noted, however, that out of all the textual elements mentioned above as making the text more difficult to read, the ones that are relevant to this essay are relative clauses, adverbial clauses, appositions and adjuncts, although adjuncts have not been specifically specified among the insertions (cf. the end of section 2.3.1 and 2.3.2).

### **2.1.2 Insertions in Swedish**

The information in this section concerns Swedish insertions as regards their grammatical realisations and how they are marked off from the rest of the clause where they occur. Their

effect on readability along with more discussion on the definition of *insertion* is the topic of section 2.1.2.1.

In Swedish, according to Holmér (2001), commas are “the most neutral sign for insertions” whereas dashes and brackets<sup>7</sup> mark the information as more or less important, respectively (p. 25). Holmér (2001) gives examples of insertions made up of words and phrases: “Ett annat exempel är förbränning, *oxidation*, av väte med syre (p. 25, no italics in the original): “Värdena måste, *åtminstone i komplicerade fall*, beräknas rent formelmässigt” (p. 25, no italics in the original).

Holmér (2001) also gives examples of insertions in the form of clauses, which she calls “parenthetical subclauses” (p. 26): “Andra påtagliga resultat av projektet, *vilket det tryckta material* [sic!] *utgör ett exempel på*, kan återanvändas i det fortsatta arbetet med webbplatsen” (p. 26, no italics in the original).

Similarly to Holmér (2001), Karlsson (2017) describes insertions as “parenthetical, inserted phrases or clauses in a sentence”<sup>8</sup> for which “the most neutral sign” is the comma (p. 193). As for dashes and brackets, dashes “emphasize the insertion whereas [brackets]<sup>9</sup> mark it as something less important” (Karlsson, 2017, p. 193). Some examples given by Karlsson (2017) are: “Många i publiken, *särskilt på norra läktaren*, hade vita hattar” (p. 193, no italics in the original): “Han talade hela tiden om irrelevanta fluktuationer (*jag tror det var så han sade*) och alla lyssnade andäktigt” (p. 193, no italics in the original).

Concerning dashes around what Karlsson (2017) calls “**insertions and additions**” (p. 214, bold in the original), Karlsson does not make a clear distinction between these two terms but specifies them as “e.g. [...] an added explanation, reservation, summary or the like” (p. 214), such as: “Jag kan inte – *i varje fall inte nu* – lova något bestämt” (p. 214, no italics in the original).

Finally, as regards insertions and brackets, Karlsson (2017) mentions that brackets (*parentes*, see footnote 9) “can be used around parenthetical insertions and explanatory

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<sup>7</sup> Holmér (2001) once again uses the Swedish umbrella term *parentestecken* (cf. footnote 6), but when doing so she provides a reference (starting with the Swedish equivalent of *cf.*) to a specific part about brackets in her book.

<sup>8</sup> All English quotations from Karlsson (2017) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>9</sup> The term used by Karlsson (2017) and translated as *brackets* in this essay is *parentes* and when using it Karlsson (2017) refers to more than just the signs for brackets (see specifically p. 217), but he uses the symbols for brackets next to the term (see p. 217). Karlsson (2017) also claims that the types of *parentes* normally used around insertions are *runda parenteser*, which can also be called *bågar* and *bågparenteser*, (p. 217) (cf. Holmér 2001). Those equal the signs referred to by the term *brackets* in this essay (see footnote 6).

additions” such as “synonyms, word explanations, definitions, comments, references etc.”. An example given by Karlsson is “Celiaki (*glutenintolerans*) är en autoimmun sjukdom” (p. 217, no italics in the original).

It should be noted, however, that regarding insertions in connection to dashes (p. 214) and brackets (p. 217) (*parentes*, see footnote 9) Karlsson (2017) provides examples of insertions at the end of the sentence, which are not included in this essay (see section 3.2).

Furthermore, insertions are described by Teleman et al. (1999a) as, among other things, not fully syntactically integrated clause elements that are often surrounded by dashes (p. 185). They also mention that main clauses can serve as insertions (p. 185).

Among other things Teleman et al. (1999b) give an example of a predicative attribute in a definitive noun phrase (NP): “*Denna film, så populär på 60-talet, skall nu visas igen*” (1999b, p. 92, italics in the original). They also provide an example of a non-restrictive attributive insertion that precedes the noun it modifies: “*Denna – av mig i flera år kritiserade – verksamhetsplan har nu satts i verket*” (1999b, p. 153, no italics in the original). Moreover, Teleman et al. (1999c) give examples of “modal adverbial elements”<sup>10</sup> (p. 101): “*Hur, rent praktiskt, har ni tänkt vara hygglig?*” (quoted<sup>11</sup> in Teleman et al., 1999c, p. 101, italics in the original).

Another type of insertion illustrated by Teleman et al. (1999c) is that of a so-called *free annex*. A free annex is made up of “an adverbial or nominal element or an appositive relative clause which does not have any equivalent pronominal or expletive element in the matrix clause” (Teleman et al., 1999c, p. 439): “*Karin kom, vilket förvånade oss, redan en kvart innan det skulle börja*” (Teleman et al., 1999c, p. 439, italics in the original). It is usually a sentence adverbial or a “free adverbial” (Teleman et al. 1999c, p. 439).

It should also be noted that according to Teleman et al. (1999c), some elements might be perceived as insertions because of their intonation and their punctuation in the text, although they appear in their normal syntactic position: “*Stina har, uppriktigt sagt, inte skött den här saken helt korrekt*” (Teleman et al., 1999c, p. 457, italics in the original).

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<sup>10</sup> All English quotations from Teleman et al. (a/b/c). have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>11</sup> When it explicitly says that it is quoted by Teleman et al. (1999b/c) but not from where, no specific source is given, but only the type of register. If it does not say that it is quoted, no specific register is given for the example.

Teleman et al. (1999c) also give an example of an insertion in the form of an elliptical conditional clause, in a clause with an adverbial of time: “Mojan skulle då, *om någon gång*, haft anledning att väsnas” (quoted in Teleman et al., 1999c, p. 591, italics in the original).

Moreover, Teleman et al. (1999c) provide an example of a reporting clause as an insertion (p. 845), where the insertion appears to be the only part that is not in italics (cf. previous examples):

“*Här hemma hos dig*, sa Bengt, *trivs jag verkligen*” (Teleman et al., 1999c, p. 845, italics in the original)<sup>12</sup>.

Finally, Teleman et al. (1999c) give an example of an insertion in the form of a “disjunctively coordinated main clause”, used to modify the information preceding it (pp. 917–918): “För tyskar är det här – *eller jag borde säga var det* – en av de viktigaste sakerna i deras liv” (quoted in Teleman et al., 1999c, p. 918, italics in the original).

### **2.1.2.1 Swedish insertions and readability**

Generally, insertions in Swedish seem to be more associated with textual complexity than their English equivalents. Also note that some definitions of *insertion* given by the authors referred to in this section are included here rather than in section 2.1.2. Finally, note that the authors referred to in this section do not always include both clauses and phrases in their definition of *insertion*.

For example, Mattson (2008) defines parenthetical insertions as “independent phrases that are inserted in the sentence, and they are always to be enclosed by commas”<sup>13</sup>. Her example is: “Sonen, *den slarvern*, ringde alltmer sällan till sina gamla föräldrar” (Mattson, 2008, no italics in the original). However, Mattson (2008) does not give any examples of insertions in the form of clauses. She claims that “all insertions disturb the reading pace, with or without commas,” – thereby also suggesting that not all insertions are within commas – and she recommends that they are put as a subordinate clause at the end of the sentence or become a separate sentence. Therefore, she suggests that her example is changed into: “Sonen ringde alltmer sällan till sina gamla föräldrar, som den slarver han var” (Mattson, 2008).

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<sup>12</sup> Note that in this example, the insertion is the only part that is NOT italicized.

<sup>13</sup> All English quotations from Mattson (2008) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

Furthermore, in an appendix for *Statens offentliga utredningar*, Ehrenbeg-Sundin (2008a) has written a plain language test made up of 35 questions that are meant to help determine the readability of judgements and draft judgements (p. 13). One of the questions is: “Is the build-up of the sentences simple, without, for example, long inserted clauses (insertions) and determiners before its head?” (2008a, pp. 24, 49)<sup>14</sup>. She also states that the readability of sentences deteriorates when they “have inserted clauses between important clause elements” (Ehrenberg-Sundin, 2008a, p. 49). Similarly, she claims that the readability of sentences deteriorates when they “have inserted modifiers between important clause elements” (Ehrenberg-Sundin, 2008b, p. 195). She also claims that those inserted parts are called insertions (2008a, p. 49; 2008b, p. 195), and she recommends more sentences or that the clauses are put at the beginning or at the end of the sentence (2008a, p. 49). Moreover, in an appendix where Ehrenberg-Sundin (2008b) and “the lawyers of the referee group of the inquiry” have analysed the readability of 50 judgements (p. 158), she associates insertions with “ideals of officialese” (see p. 159). It seems, however, as if she does not include insertions between punctuation marks only, as illustrated in the following example, where the insertion is in italics:

Enligt 7 kap. 1 § första stycket AFL har en försäkrad *vars arbetsförmåga är nedsatt med minst en fjärdedel på grund av sjukdom eller annan nedsättning av den fysiska eller psykiska prestationsförmågan och som var försäkrad vid försäkringsfallet enligt bestämmelserna i detta kapitel* rätt till sjukersättning eller aktivitetsersättning, om nedsättningen kan antas bestå under minst ett år. (Ehrenberg-Sundin, 2008b, p. 196, italics in the original).

Moreover, Wengelin (2015), in her study on the scientific validity of some advice on how to write plain language, claims that among the two pieces of advice that seem more scientifically valid, one concerns “*embedded subjunctive clauses*”, (p. 1, italics in the original)<sup>15</sup>, which, however, probably means *embedded subordinate clauses*, considering that in Swedish she calls them “*bisatsinskott*” (see p. 2, italics in the original). She claims that a study by Platzak (referred to in Wengelin, 2015, p. 11) shows that a text with an embedded subordinate clause between

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<sup>14</sup> All English quotations from Ehrenberg-Sundin (2008a/b) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>15</sup> All English quotations from Wengelin (2015) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

the finite verb and the object was harder to process than one where the subordinate clause was placed at the end of the sentence. This seems to contrast with the claim made by Hasselgård (2010) that “the core of the clause” is not as disrupted when the adverb is placed between the verb phrase and an obligatory clause element such as the object, rather than between the subject and the initial part of the verb phrase or between an auxiliary and the main verb (p. 109).

Finally, Lagerholm (2008) claims that insertions are elements that are put between elements that go together syntactically and with regard to the content (see section 1), and thereby “split a natural line of thought” (p. 140). He gives examples of both phrases and clauses, although without explicitly defining them as such:

“Ungefär samtidigt som Bellman, vid sidan av sin ständigt utökade repertoar av dryckes- och sällskapsvisor, började roa sig och andra med dessa ordensparodier [...] som, jämte det de manade till uppsluppen dyrkan av Backus och Venus, ej förglömmades sångens och musikens gud Apollo, innehöllo ...” (Fredmans epistlar och andra sånger, quoted in Lagerholm, 2008, p. 140, underlining in the original).

In the example above, the first insertion is a phrase whereas the other one is a clause. Lagerholm (2008) claims that insertions are “most common in formal, heavy style” (p. 140) (see also section 1).

### **2.1.3 Word order in English and Swedish**

Since syntactic differences between English and Swedish can affect where insertions are placed in the text, some relevant word order differences are explained and exemplified in this section. In the following section the word order in English and Swedish is illustrated based on some information given by Landqvist (2003, p. 9) for Swedish in his presentation of “Paul Diderichsen’s analytical model of positional grammar” (p. 1).<sup>16</sup> A similar table for Swedish sentences is given by Ingo (2007, see p. 178), although unlike Landqvist (2003) he does not include verb particles in the field of the non-finite verb (cf. Table 1 in this section) and only analyses main clauses (cf. Table 4 in this section). Note that Landqvist (2003) demonstrates

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<sup>16</sup> All English quotations from Landqvist (2003) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

that the field of the *Object/Predicative* includes several types of objects, including prepositional objects (p. 16), and that two objects can fill the slot at the same time (see p. 26). More specifically, as regards prepositional objects and direct objects in this essay, the prepositional objects differ from the direct objects in that they are preceded by a preposition that is between the object and the predicate, similarly to Bolander (2012, p. 176) – although the word order might vary – and similarly to Landqvist (2003, p. 25). As for indirect objects, also similarly to Bolander (2012), they are used with ditransitive verbs and denote “to which one or to which ones an action is aimed or to whose advantage or disadvantage something happens”<sup>17</sup> (p. 175). If an object and a predicative follow after the verb, the verb does not count as ditransitive in this essay, like after Swedish  *innebära* in insertion 23 or after English  *be* in insertion 55 (both in  *Appendix 1*). Thus, the words  *för den fraktionen* are part of a prepositional object in the Swedish translation of insertion 23:

In Tokyo, the ‘strike north’ faction, which wanted war against the Soviet Union, received a major setback. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 34)<sup>18</sup>

I Tokyo innebar det en svår motgång för den fraktion som ville anfälla norrut och önskade sig ett krig mot Sovjetunionen. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 25)

Note, however, that in insertion 55 (the first examples below) the verb  *was* follows, rather than precedes, the prepositional object  *for the French*. Also note that a prepositional object ( *för att pacificera...*) contains the clause elements preceding and following insertion 30 in Swedish (the second example below), in  *Appendix 1*:

The British were shaken by the news, but for the French, who had counted far more on a pact with their traditional ally Russia, it was a bombshell. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

Britterna var skakade av nyheten, men för fransmännen var det ett bombnedslag, eftersom de långt mer hade räknat med en pakt med sin traditionella bundsförvant Ryssland. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 31)

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<sup>17</sup> All English quotations from Bolander (2012) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>18</sup> Any underlining in the English quotes from Beevor (2012b) and/or in the Swedish quotes from Beevor (2012a) has been done by the author of this essay.

He had decided to secure Poland's quiescence by conquest, not by diplomacy, before attacking westwards. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 35)

Han hade bestämt sig för att pacificera Polen genom erövring, inte genom diplomati, innan han genomförde ett anfall västerut. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 26)

More specifically in the above example 30 from *Appendix 1* the prepositional object starting with *för att...* contains the adverbials *genom erövring* and *innan han genomförde ett anfall västerut*.

A prepositional object also precedes the Swedish and English insertion number 62 and the Swedish insertion number 70 in *Appendix 2*, presented in that order below:

Dessa underrättelser vidarebefordrades till general Dwight Eisenhower och dennes stab, som skulle leda de västallierade stridskrafterna i Europa, och resulterade i krav på att all export av kullager till Tyskland omedelbart skulle avbrytas, vad som än kontrakterats. (Agrell, 2006, p. 50)<sup>19</sup>

This intelligence was forwarded to General Dwight Eisenhower and his staff, who were to command the Western Allied armed forces in Europe, and resulted in demands for all exports of ball bearings to cease immediately, regardless of any contracts. (Agrell, 2019, p. 42)

Men två amerikaner deltog också i det som kom att kallas gruppens »inre krets«, Victor Sjaholm och I.S. Dorfman, bägge som representanter för den amerikanska fackföreningsrörelsen. (Agrell, 2006, p. 58)

But two Americans also joined what came to be called the group's 'inner circle', Victor Sjaholm and I. S. Dorfman, both as representatives of the American trade union movement. (Agrell, 2019, p. 50)

Similarly, the English insertion number 54 in *Appendix 2* is preceded by a prepositional object.

Furthermore, an indirect object precedes insertion 52 in English (the first example below) and follows after insertion 54 in Swedish (the second example below) in *Appendix 1*:

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<sup>19</sup> Any underlining in the Swedish quotes from Agrell (2006) and/or the in the English quotes from Agrell (2019) has been done by the author of this essay.

But on 19 August, just in case the British and French declared war, Grossadmiral Erich Raeder ordered the pocket battleships *Deutschland* and *Graf spee*, as well as sixteen U-boats, to put to sea and head for the Atlantic. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

Men för den händelse att brittena och fransmännen faktiskt skulle förklara krig gav storamiral Erich Raeder den 19 augusti för säkerhets skull order om att såväl pansarskeppen *Deutschland* och *Graf Spee* som sexton ubåtar skulle löpa ut och bege sig ut i Atlanten. (Beevor, 2012a, pp. 30–31)

And the ambassador, Sir Nevile Henderson, reported to London soon afterwards that ‘the first impression in Berlin was one of immense relief . . . Once more the faith of the German people in the ability of Herr Hitler to obtain his objective without war was reaffirmed.’ (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

Och kort därefter rapporterade ambassadören sir Nevile Henderson till London att ”första intrycket av Berlin var en oerhörd lättnad. [...] Återigen fick det tyska folket sin tro på herr Hitlers förmåga att uppnå sina mål utan krig bekräftade.” (Beevor, 2012a, p. 31)

It should also be noticed that according to Landqvist (2003), the field of the object/predicative includes the extraposed subject (p. 16), which is also true of this study (see what follows English insertion 95 in *Appendix 1*). The extraposed subject in this essay also includes the *for...to* construction, preceded by the preparatory subject *it*, which appears to be how Estling Vannestål (2015) interprets that construction (p. 323) (see what follows the English insertion number 4 in *Appendix 2*). Nevertheless, in this essay the Swedish verb *gäller*, has been treated as a verb that does not take an extraposed subject, meaning that the *att*-clause following an expression such as *det gäller* is treated as a (direct) object (see the Swedish insertion number 4 in *Appendix 2*, which is within that type of direct object). The reason for treating that type of construction in this way is that Teleman et al. (1999c), claim that “the narrative subclause” after verbs like *gälla* cannot be in the onset position (p. 525). No construction with *gäller* was relevant for the Swedish translation of the English insertions in *Appendix 1*.

It should also be noted that in this essay, for the sake of simplicity, the field of the object/predicative includes non-finite phrases such as the one starting with *to* in the English

constructions finite verb + *to* + infinitive, and verb + *to* + *-ing*, and the field also includes phrases starting with *att* + infinitive in the Swedish construction verb + *att* + infinitive (see insertion 7 in *Appendix 1* – where the English insertion is preceded by a clause element within the predicative of the nearest superordinate finite clause – and insertion 101 in *Appendix 1* – where the English insertion is preceded and followed by clause elements within the prepositional object of the nearest superordinate finite clause – presented in that specific order below):

There he was to take command of the 57th Special Corps, including both Red Army and Mongolian forces, to inflict a decisive reverse on the Imperial Japanese Army. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 30)

Han skulle där ta befäl över LVII. specialkåren, som förutom soldater ur Röda armén även omfattade mongoliska styrkor, och tillfoga den japanska armén ett avgörande nederlag. (Beevor, 2012a, pp. 20–21)

Ordinary German soldiers, not just members of the SS, took to maltreating Jews with gusto by beatings, cutting off the beards of elders, humiliating and even raping young women (despite the Nuremberg laws against miscegenation) and setting fire to synagogues. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 51)

Vanliga tyska soldater, inte bara SS-medlemmar, gav sig entusiastiskt på den judiska befolkningen. Man misshandlade männen, rakade skägget av åldermännen, våldtog unga kvinnor (trots Nürnberglagarna mot rasblandning) och stack synagogor i brand. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 44)

The construction verb + *att/to* + infinitive was also relevant for insertion 9 (in English), 30 and 56 in *Appendix 2*.

Also, for example, in insertion 2, in *Appendix 2*, the Swedish insertion and its English translation are within the predicative of the nearest superordinate finite clause. Similarly, the Swedish insertion 14 in *Appendix 2* is within the direct object of the nearest superordinate finite clause.

Moreover, for the sake of simplicity, in constructions with verb + object + *to* + infinitive, such as *order somebody to do something*, the object is considered an indirect object and the

construction with *to* + infinitive is considered a direct object (see what precedes or follows insertions 44, 45 and 52 in English, in *Appendix 1* and presented in that order below):

An agreement with Hitler would allow Stalin to seize the Baltic states and Bessarabia, to say nothing of eastern Poland, in the event of a German invasion from the west. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 38)

I händelse av en tysk invasion västerifrån skulle en överenskommelse med Hitler göra det möjligt för Stalin att bemäktiga sig Baltikum och Bessarabien, för att inte tala om östra Polen.

(Beevor, 2012a, p. 29)

For Hitler, an agreement with Stalin would enable him to launch his war, first against Poland and then against France and Britain, even without allies of his own. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 38)

För Hitlers del skulle en överenskommelse med Stalin göra det möjligt för honom att trots bristen på egna allierade ändå kunna förklara krig först mot Polen, sedan mot Frankrike och Storbritannien. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 29)

But on 19 August, just in case the British and French declared war, Grossadmiral Erich Raeder ordered the pocket battleships *Deutschland* and *Graf Spee*, as well as sixteen U-boats, to put to sea and head for the Atlantic. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

Men för den händelse att briter och fransmännen faktiskt skulle förklara krig gav storamiral Erich Raeder den 19 augusti för säkerhets skull order om att såväl pansarskeppen *Deutschland* och *Graf Spee* som sexton ubåtar skulle löpa ut och bege sig ut i Atlanten. (Beevor, 2012a, pp. 30–31)

The same is true of the Swedish construction verb + object + *att* + infinitive, such as *beordra någon att göra något*, and the Swedish construction *få* + object + *att* (see analysis of Swedish insertion 13 in *Appendix 2*). The latter construction was also relevant for insertion 15 in *Appendix 2*, (where the Swedish *att* is preceded by a preposition and thereby becomes a prepositional object).

Furthermore, in a passive construction with verb + participle + *to* + infinitive or (in Swedish) verb + participle + *att* + infinitive, such as *be ordered to do something* or *vara tillsagd att göra något*, everything from *ordered/tillsagd* and onwards is considered as the predicative, excepting content adverbials that come afterwards (see insertion 5 for English, in *Appendix 1* and below, which is part of the non-finite phrase starting with *to report...*, which is, in turn, part of the predicative of the nearest superordinate finite clause):

He was told to report to the Kremlin to see Stalin's old crony from the 1st Cavalry Army in the civil war, Marshal Kliment Voroshilov, now the people's commissar of defence. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 30)

Han blev i stället tillsagd att bege sig till Kreml, för att där inställa sig hos marskalken av Sovjetunionen Kliment Vorosjilov. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 20)

However, it should be noted regarding the construction verb + object + *to* + infinitive, that the part *to* + infinitive – following the English insertion number 78 in *Appendix 1* – is a content adverbial, not a direct object:

Halifax also rang the Italian foreign minister, Count Ciano, to remove any doubt on the matter. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 47)

Halifax ringde också senare upp den italienske utrikesministern Galeazzo Ciano för att undanröja alla tvivel i frågan. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 39)

Finally, regarding the reflexive pronouns in the third person in English and Swedish, their syntactic function was not relevant to consider regarding translations from English to Swedish, other than in insertion 30 (see *Appendix 1*) in the construction *bestämma sig*:

He had decided to secure Poland's quiescence by conquest, not by diplomacy, before attacking westwards. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 35)

Han hade bestämt sig för att pacificera Polen genom erövring, inte genom diplomati, innan han genomförde ett anfall västerut. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 26)

The reflexive pronoun was here considered a part of the finite verb, similarly to an example given by Landqvist (2003, p. 42). Landqvist (2003), however, claims that this is the position for reflexive pronouns with verbs that are always reflexive (p. 41), which is not the case for the Swedish verb in insertion 30 (*bestämna*). Landqvist (2003) does not exclude putting optional reflexive pronouns in that position, however (see p. 42).

In addition, in English cleft constructions with *it* (see what precedes and follows the English translation of insertion 32 and 57 in *Appendix 2*), the element preceding the insertion and the relative clause following the insertion are considered as part of the same clause element. No cleft constructions, including English cleft-constructions with *what* and Swedish cleft-constructions with *det* were found in *Appendix 1*, possibly excepting the Swedish translation of the text containing insertion 23 in *Appendix 1*:

In Tokyo, the ‘strike north’ faction, which wanted war against the Soviet Union, received a major setback. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 34)

I Tokyo innebar det en svår motgång för den fraktion som ville anfälla norrut och önskade sig ett krig mot Sovjetunionen. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 25)

Moreover, the slot for what Landqvist (2003) calls *innehållsadverbial* (in this essay *content adverbials*) includes both adverbials of manner, space and time, as well as the agent, and multiple adverbials can be in that slot at the same time (Landqvist, 2003, p. 16). In this essay content adverbials also express condition (see what follows the English insertions 44 and 45 in *Appendix 1*) and concession (see what precedes the English insertion 93 in *Appendix 1*). Ingo (2007) uses the term *innehållsadverbial* at one occasion (see p. 178), but normally calls them *övriga adverbial*.

Ingo (2007) mentions that in Swedish main clauses the word order is inverted as regards the position of the subject when the sentence starts with a subordinate clause, a sentence adverbial or what he calls “a determiner of the predicate” (p. 177) (see section 1). Similarly, Landqvist (2003), gives an example of three Swedish affirmative main clauses where the onset position is occupied by the subject in two cases, and by an adverbial of time in the remaining one (see p. 15). When the subject is in the onset it is called “**non-inversion**” (Landqvist, 2003, p. 21, bold in the original) whereas when another clause element occupies that position and “the finite verb of the predicate precedes the subject” (p. 21), it is called “**inversion**” (Landqvist, 2003, p. 21,

bold in the original). The same difference is illustrated in Table 1 and Table 2 below, where the examples are given by the author of this essay. The arrow in the slot from where the element has been moved to the onset is similar, although not identical, to the one given by Landqvist (2003). Also, the terms *Onset field* (for main clauses)/*Initial field* (for subordinate clauses), *Middle field* (for both main- and subordinate clauses) and *Final field* (for both main- and subordinate clauses) are translations of the following terms used in the presentation of Paul Diderichsen's model by Landqvist (2003): *Fundamentfält/Inledarfält*, *Mittfält* and *Slutfält*.

**Table 1: Swedish main clauses with the subject in the onset**

Onset field	Middle field			Final field		
Onset	Finite verb	Subject	Sentence adverbial	Non-finite verb/verb particle	Object/Predicative	Content adverbials
Jag	ska	←	inte	glömma	nycklarna	på jobbet idag

**Table 2: Swedish main clauses with another element than the subject in the onset**

Onset field	Middle field			Final field		
Onset	Finite verb	Subject	Sentence adverbial	Non-finite verb/verb particle	Object/Predicative	Content adverbials
Idag	ska	jag	inte	glömma	nycklarna	på jobbet ←

Ingo (2007) also gives an example of a clause where the onset position is occupied by a sentence adverbial (see p. 178). A similar sentence is given in Table 3 below:

**Table 3: Swedish main clauses with another element than the subject in the onset**

Onset field	Middle field			Final field		
Onset	Finite verb	Subject	Sentence adverbial	Non-finite verb/verb particle	Object/Predicative	Content adverbials
Kanske	kommer	jag	←	glömma	nycklarna	på jobbet idag

It should be noted, however, that a sentence adverbial in the form of a negation could also be placed in the empty slot for sentence adverbials in Table 3, without the sentence becoming ungrammatical. It is also worth noting that at one point Ingo (2007) seems to be making a difference between negations and sentence adverbials (see p. 177), whereas later, he includes negations among other sentence adverbials (see p. 178). In this essay, negations are included among sentence adverbials. Finally, Ingo (2007) makes a difference between a number of adverbials that all occur in the English middle field: sentence adverbials such as *of course*, “non-emphasised adverbials of manner”, and “indefinite adverbials of time” such as *always*, *never* and *often* (p. 179). Such adverbials are all treated as sentence adverbials in this essay, if they have that syntactic position. Also, the adverb *then*, in the beginning of a sentence or clause was categorised as a sentence adverbial. However, there are also a number of adverbials in the beginning of a sentence, preceding an insertion, that have been categorised as content adverbials (see insertion 12, 14, 16, 25, 29, 49, 51, 53, 59, 60, 74, 83, 85, 89, 93 and 96 in *Appendix 1*, for English and/or Swedish, and insertion 1, 8, 17, 32, 36, 57 and 61 in *Appendix 2* for English and/or Swedish). The following example is insertion 89 from *Appendix 1*, where the content adverbial (of time) *At night* precedes the English insertion:

At night, with the blackout imposed, nothing was recognizable. (Beavor, 2012b, p. 49)

På natten var sig ingenting likt i och med den påbjudna mörkläggningen. (Beavor, 2012a, p. 42)

Similarly, two adverbials in the middle field, following the insertion, have been classified as content adverbials (see insertion 35 for English and 70 for Swedish in *Appendix 1* and below):

The French, on the other hand, having seen Russia as their natural ally against Germany since before the First World War, were much keener on the idea of a Soviet alliance. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 36)

Fransmännen, som ända sedan före första världskriget hade betraktat Ryssland som en naturlig bundsförvant mot Tyskland, var däremot betydligt mer entusiastiska inför tanken på en allians med Sovjetunionen. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 27)

General Maurice Gamelin, the commander-in-chief, had guaranteed on 19 May that the French army would come with ‘the bulk of its forces’ no later than the fifteenth day after his government ordered mobilization. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 44)

I Frankrike hade Maurice Gamelin, som var vice ordförande i högsta krigsrådet och därmed överbefälhavare i krigstid, den 19 maj garanterat att franska armén skulle anlända med ”huvuddelen av sina styrkor” senast på femtonde dagen efter det att hans regering hade givit order om mobilisering. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 36)

Similarly, insertion 4 in Swedish and English, and insertion 66 in Swedish in *Appendix 2* were preceded by a content adverbial that was not in the beginning of the sentence.

Ingo (2007) also mentions that in Swedish the negation has a different position in a subordinate clause than in a main clause (p. 177). Similarly, Landqvist (2003) describes the main difference between Swedish main clauses and subordinate clauses as such that in subordinate clauses, the finite verb is always preceded by the sentence adverbial, and there is no inversion (p. 31). Note that Landqvist (2003) does not use the term *subordinating conjunction*, unlike in Table 4 and 6 below, but uses the Swedish term *inledarord*<sup>20</sup> (see p. 9).

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<sup>20</sup> Initial word.

**Table 4: Swedish subordinate clauses**

Initial field	Middle field			Final field		
Subordinating conjunction	Subject	Sentence adverbial	Finite verb	Non-finite verb/verb particle	Object/Predicative	Content adverbials
Eftersom	jag	inte	ska	glömma	nycklarna	på jobbet idag

In English, according to Ingo (2007), the word order regarding the aspects mentioned above is “more stable” (p. 177), which he illustrates by a main clause starting with an adverbial, and by a main clause followed by a subordinate clause (see p. 177): the main clause in the first example (after the initial adverbial) has the same word order as the subordinate clause in the second example: subject – finite verb – sentence adverbial (see p. 177). Similarly, Estling Vannestål (2015) points out that an initial adverbial in English is followed by “subject-verb word order” (p. 440), although there are situations when English does have subject-verb inversion, as indicated by Estling Vannestål (2015) in her comment that inversion is “more frequent in Swedish than in English” (p. 440). Likewise, she mentions that certain adverbials of a single word such as *almost*, *never* and *often* can be placed before the finite verb if the verb phrase contains no auxiliary (p. 440). The words *never* and *often* are identical to the adverbials in the middle field mentioned by Ingo (2007, p. 179), referred to previously in this section and treated as sentence adverbials in this essay, although Ingo (2007) categorises *almost* as a sentence adverbial in the initial field (p. 179). In the example given by Estling Vannestål (2015), followed by a Swedish translation, the Swedish text has the adverbial after the finite verb: “I *almost fell* when I tried to pull my legs forward. (‘Jag *ramlade nästan* när jag försökte...’)” (Estling Vannestål, 2015, p. 440, bold and italics in the original). This is also illustrated in the sentences given by the author of this essay in Table 5 and 6 below, where the word order in English is identical after the onset and the subordinating conjunction, respectively.

**Table 5: English main clauses**

Onset field	Middle field			Final field		
Onset	Subject	Finite verb	Sentence adverbial	Non-finite verb/verb particle	Object/Predicative	Content adverbials
Today	I	will	not	forget	my keys	at work

**Table 6: English subordinate clauses**

Initial field	Middle field			Final field		
Subordinating conjunction	Subject	Finite verb	Sentence adverbial	Non-finite verb/verb particle	Object/Predicative	Content adverbials
Since	I	will	not	forget	my keys	at work (today)

Ingo (2007) also mentions that English uses commas to separate adverbials from the rest of the clause, making those appear to be “loose parenthetical additions”, and unlike what is normally the case in Swedish, those can occur between the subject and the predicate (p. 179). Ingo gives among other things the following example: “Allied forces, *after careful preparations*, landed on the coast of North Africa” (2007, p. 179, italics in the original). Other such examples of parenthetical additions given by Ingo (2007, p. 179) are *while still alive* and *however*. However, regarding subordinate clauses Estling Vannestål (2015) mentions that complex adverbials in English subordinate clauses are normally *not* placed between a subject and a finite verb (p. 440), and, without specifying it, she gives an example where it occurs between the subordinating conjunction and the subject in English, but between the subject and the sentence adverbial in Swedish: “When, ***for some reason***, *we don’t get* enough REM sleep, we actively try to make up for the deficit the next night. (‘När vi ***av någon anledning*** *inte får tillräckligt...*’)” (p. 440, bold and italics in the original). This seems to indicate that in English the insertion can occur between the subject and the finite verb in main clauses but not in subordinate clauses, whereas in Swedish the opposite applies.

Finally, according to Landqvist (2003) clauses can be coordinated (p. 35), like in the following example, where the term *Conjunction field* is a translation of what Landqvist (2003) calls *Konjunktionsfältet* (p. 35):

**Table 7: Coordinated clauses in English and Swedish**

Conjunction field	Onset field	Middle field			Final field		
+ Conjunction	Onset	Finite verb	Subject	Sentence adverbial	Non-finite verb/verb particle	Object/Predicative	Content adverbials
	I/ Jag	will/ ska	← ←	not/ inte	forget/ glömma	my keys/ mina nycklar	at work (today)/ på jobbet (idag)
and/ och	you/ du	know/ vet				that I am right/ att jag har rätt	

As mentioned by Landqvist (2003), such coordination can lead to *elliptical clauses* in which elements such as the subject and/or the predicate are omitted in the second clause (p. 35).

It should be noted that, for the sake of simplicity English *both* and Swedish *både* count as coordinating conjunctions when the insertions are categorised syntactically in this essay (See the Swedish translation of insertion 33 and 77 in *Appendix 1*).

## 2.2 Popular writing in general and popular history in particular

One of the distinctions made by Klepke and Rydell (2013) as regards scientific and popular writing in general is that scientific writing is “often written in a formal language” whereas the popularized text “avoids formal language” (p. 14).

Moreover, when it comes to texts that are written by experts for non-experts, Melander (1987) makes a distinction between texts written for a limited number of recipients – such as

reports written for decision makers by scientists (p. 106) – and texts written for a larger audience in the form of books etc. (p. 106). His article is focused on the latter type of writing (1987, p. 106). Melander also compares a number of linguistic aspects of some scientific articles and their popularised equivalents in *Forskning och Framsteg*<sup>21</sup>, each pair of scientific article and its popularised equivalent being written by the same author and no more than five years apart (pp. 112–113). However, he does not compare the syntax of the texts, which is why his study has not been mentioned in section 2.1. Based on his results, Melander concludes that popular scientific language “cannot be considered to be particularly easy but rather fairly complicated and concentrated, but hardly extreme in any way” (1987, p. 119). Melander also maintains that the texts compared are very linguistically similar, although he does not believe this to be a general similarity between scientific and popularized texts (1987, p. 119).

Similarly, Gunnarsson (1996) claims that her definition of popular science is similar to the one from Eriksson and Svensson, being “such scientific information that is aimed at non-experts in the scientific field that the information entails”<sup>22</sup> (quoted in Gunnarsson, 1996, p. 142). Comparing two popular scientific articles – the first one being a part of “the *academic popular science*” and the second one of “the *traditional popular science*” (Gunnarsson, 1996, p. 143, italics in the original) – she describes the first one as having a style that is “traditionally, somewhat archaically, academic”, with sentences that have “inserted or subordinate clauses” (Gunnarsson, 1996, p. 147). In the second text there are “very few examples of subordinate or inserted clauses and phrases” (p. 150).

Finally, according to Schou (referred to in Holmqvist, 2016, p. 24), popular history is about reaching a large number of readers that are not in academia, in a language that is thematically and linguistically easy, despite varying linguistic complexity (see section 1). The same definition is used in this essay. Similarly, as regards the language, Popp (2015) – to whom Homqvist (2016) refers for a more thorough definition of popular history (p. 24) – talks about “the removal of socio-cultural access barriers” (p. 53) for popular history magazines regarding, among other things, an easy language with respect to vocabulary, grammar and terminology, and their being sold “at kiosks, train stations and in supermarkets” (p. 53). Popp does so by referring to Parker (referred to in Popp, 2015, p. 50).

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<sup>21</sup> *Forskning och Framsteg* is a magazine on popularised science.

<sup>22</sup> All English quotations from Gunnarsson (1996) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

## 2.3 Some important definitions

Since the insertions given in this essay are divided into clauses and phrases, this part of the essay aims at explaining and defining these concepts in accordance with how they are presented in English and Swedish.

### 2.3.1 Clauses

Biber et al. (2002) in their English definition of what they call “a single, complete clause” (p. 46) provide examples of main clauses with various clause elements, all of which contain a subject and a verb phrase with a finite verb (see p. 47). This also agrees reasonably well with their definition of a *finite clause/finite verb phrase*, which is “a clause (or verb phrase) that has either present/past tense or a modal verb” (p. 457), although no subject is mentioned in their explanation. Their definition of a finite clause also agrees reasonably well with the one given by Estling Vannestål (2015) which is “main- or subclause containing a finite verb”<sup>23</sup> (p. 550). All of the examples given by Estling Vannestål (2015) of clause-element combinations, however, contain both a subject and a finite verb (see p. 81) and she claims that the verb and the subject are “The two most important elements in a clause” (p. 81), thus emphasising the importance of the subject somewhat more than Biber et al. (2002). Moreover, similarly to Biber et al. (2002), Estling Vannestål (2015) claims that a finite verb is in the present tense, the past tense or in the imperative (p. 550), but unlike Biber et al. (2002) she does not specifically mention modal verbs. Note that Biber et al. (2002) also talk about so called *non-finite clauses*, which lack tense and modal verbs and, when subordinate, normally “have no overt link” (p. 226). Biber et al. (2002) do not explicitly explain to what the non-finite clauses have no overt link, but they probably refer to the main clause, considering that they claim that “the non-finite verb form itself signals that the clause is subordinate” (p. 226) and provide the following example: “[***Leaving the road***], they went into the deep darkness of the trees” (quoted<sup>24</sup> in Biber et al., 2002, p. 26, bold and italics in the original). Such clauses however, are considered as phrases in this essay and are therefore explained in section 2.3.2.

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<sup>23</sup> This specific quotation from Estling Vannestål (2015) has been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>24</sup> When it explicitly says that it is quoted by Biber et al. (2002) but not from where, no specific source is given for that example, but only the type of register. If it does not say that it is quoted, no specific register is given for that example.

Regarding Swedish, Hultman (2003) claims that a *sats* (in this essay *clause*) contains a subject and a finite verb (p. 271). (However, Hultman (2003) also claims that some types of clauses might lack a subject or a finite verb (271)). Hultman (2003) divides the finite verbforms into the present tense, the past tense and the imperative (p. 152), although only the first two tenses are relevant to this essay, since imperative clauses are not included in the material (see section 3.2). Note that modal auxiliaries (*verkar*) are included in Hultman's (2003) examples (see p. 272) and are also included among finite verbs in this study. Hultman's (2003) definition of a clause appears to include both main clauses and subordinate clauses since he claims that each main clause also includes its subordinate clauses (p. 273) and since he provides examples of such combinations of clauses (see p. 272). The definition is also similar to that of Telemann et al. (1999a) who claim that a *sats* (in this essay *clause*) contains a subject – which might be lacking in some types of clauses (p. 221) – and a “finite verb phrase”<sup>25</sup> (p. 221), and who include both main clauses and subordinate clauses in their definition (see p. 221).

When Biber et al. (2002) specifically talk about finite subordinate clauses they mention the following types, which are not as precisely categorised by Estling Vannestål (2015, cf. pp. 81–85):

- *Complement clauses, or nominal clauses.* According to Biber et al. (2002) their function in the main clause is that of subject, object or predicative (p. 256) and they can be either *that*-clauses or *wh*-clauses (pp. 256–257): “***That this was a tactical decision*** <subject> *quickly became apparent*” (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 256, bold and italics in the original): ““***What I don't understand*** <subject> *is why they don't let me know anything.*” <subject predicative>” (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 257, bold and italics in the original).

Similarly, Hultman (2003) mentions *nominala bisatser*, which are normally “*att-satser*” (*att*-clauses) and have the same function as a noun phrase (p. 283): “... problemet har varit **att för många parter har varit inblandade**” (quoted<sup>26</sup> in Hultman, 2003, p. 286, bold in the original).

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<sup>25</sup> This quotation by Telemann et al. (1999a) has been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>26</sup> All English quotations from Hultman (2003) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay. When it explicitly says that it is quoted by Hultman (2003) but not from where, no specific source is given by Hultman (2003), but only the type of register. If it does not say that it is quoted, no register is given for the example. Also, in connection to two linguistic examples taken from a passage where most examples come from a certain register according to Hultman (2003), it says in this essay that it is *probably quoted*, since it is not clearly stated if those examples are from the register in question or not.

- *Adverbial clauses*. According to Biber et al. (2002) their function in the main clause is that of an adverbial (p. 257): “***If you go to a bank, they’ll rip you off***” (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 257, bold and italics in the original).

Similarly, Hultman (2003) talks about *adverbiella bisatser*, which are “adverbials in verb phrases (very occasionally sentence adverbials)” (p. 283): “Ingen har **såvitt jag förstår** heller hävdad att de skulle förbjudas” (quoted in Hultman, 2003, p. 286, bold in the original). However, contrary to Biber et al. (2002), Hultman (2003) – in his definition of adverbial clauses – includes among other things comparative clauses (see p. 287 and this section).

- *Relative clauses*, which, according to Biber et al. (2002) are postmodifiers of noun phrases (p. 257): “He warned the public not to approach [the men, ***who are armed and dangerous***]” (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 257, bold, italics and underlining in the original).

Similarly, Hultman (2003) mentions *attributiva bisatser* (p. 283). They are “normally relative clauses, which are complements of heads in noun phrases” (Hultman, 2003, p. 283): “Hennes far, **vars enda barn hon är**, är såvitt jag vet ganska förmögen” (quoted in Hultman, 2003, p. 284, bold in the original). Note that in this essay, relative clauses can also start with a preposition (see *Appendix 2*, insertion 38).

- *Comparative clauses*, which, according to Biber et al. (2002), have the grammatical function of a complement in an adverb phrase or an adjective phrase (Biber et al., 2002, p. 258): “*Maybe Henry would realise she was not [as nice **as she pretended to be**]*” (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 258, bold and italics in the original). Hultman (2003) classify these as adverbial clauses, as mentioned previously in this section.

- Moreover, Biber et al. (2002) include *reporting clauses* and *tag clauses* (see p. 258), which are not included in this essay, however. They also include a number of so called *non-finite dependent clauses* (see p. 259), some of which are also included by Estling Vannestål (2015) as clauses with only non-finite verbs (see p. 82), but are treated as non-finite phrases in this essay and are therefore presented in section 2.3.2.

Based on the information above, a *clause* in this essay is any main clause, nominal subordinate clause, relative subordinate clause, or adverbial subordinate clause (including a comparative subordinate clause), that contains a subject – unless it has been omitted in a coordinated clause (see section 2.1.3) – and a finite verb (including a modal auxiliary) in the present or past tense. If the verb has been omitted it is considered a phrase rather than a clause.

A clause according to this definition includes points 1 and 3 by Blakemore (2005) and points 1–3 and 7 mentioned by Dehé (2014) in section 2.1.1.

### 2.3.2 Phrases

Regarding phrases, Biber et al. (2002) for English, and Hultman (2003) for Swedish include:

- *Noun phrases*. According to Biber et al. (2002) the head of a noun phrase is a noun that can be “preceded by **determiners** [...] and can be accompanied by **modifiers**” (Biber et al., 2002, p. 41, bold in the original). In the following example the head is preceded and followed by modifiers (see Biber et al., 2002, p. 41): “*heavy **rain** driven by gales*” (Biber et al., 2002, p. 41, bold and italics in the original). If the head noun is abstract, it can precede complements (Biber et al., 2002, p. 42).

Similarly, Hultman (2003) claims that *nominalfraser* are typically nouns “with possible modifiers” (p. 204): “*flickan som bor i vårt kvarter*” (Hultman, 2003, p. 204, italics in the original). Hultman (2003) also seems to treat determiners such as *en* as modifiers (see p. 204). In this essay numbers are treated as noun phrases (see insertion 42 in *Appendix 2*).

- *Verb phrases*. According to Biber et al. (2002) the head of a verb phrase is the main verb (p. 42). As for finite verb phrases, which are marked for present and past tense and can take a modal auxiliary, they are frequently split (Biber et al., 2002, p. 42): “*What’s he **doing?***” (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 42, bold and italics in the original). Nevertheless, it should be noted that Biber et al. (2002) also mention *non-finite verb phrases*, which are not marked for tense and have no modal auxiliary (p. 42), and which they virtually seem to equal to a *non-finite clause* (see p. 458). Non-finite verb phrases are “introduced by an infinitive, *-ing* participle or *-ed* participle” (Biber et al., 2002, p. 225). Furthermore, as already mentioned, they also talk about so called *non-finite clauses*, which lack tense and modal verbs and, when subordinate, typically “have no overt link” (p. 226): “*[**Leaving** the road], they went into the deep darkness of the trees.*” (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 226, bold and italics in the original). However, such clauses, as well as non-finite verb phrases like the ones mentioned above, are all considered as non-finite phrases in this essay, in accordance with the advice given by associate professor Joseph Trotta (personal communication, 2021-04-13).

Similarly, according to Hultman (2003) verb phrases consist of “a verb and its possible modifiers” (p. 228). Among other things, Hultman (2003) mentions that they “are the object of transitive verbs (*äta **glass***)” (Hultman, 2003, p. 228, bold and italics in the original). Moreover,

similarly to Biber et al. (2002), Hultman (2003) includes among verb phrases both *finite verb phrases*, which are the predicate of the clause and in which the verb has a finite form (p. 228) and *non-finite verb phrases*, which are noun phrases and in which the head is a “non-finite verb form” (p. 228). In this essay non-finite verb phrases where the main verb is an infinitive starting with *to* in English and *att* in Swedish are considered *non-finite phrases*, as mentioned previously in this section.

- *Adjective phrases*. According to Biber et al. (2002) adjective phrases “have an adjective as head” that can “take complements” and be preceded or followed by “optional modifiers” (p. 43): “so ***obnoxious*** that she had to be expelled” (Biber et al., 2002, p. 43, bold, italics and underlining in the original).

Similarly Hultman (2003) claims that in an adjective phrase the head is an adjective, which can have modifiers (p. 222): “***måttligt*** road” (p. 223, bold and italics in the original): “redo ***att börja dagen***” (p. 223, bold and italics in the original). In his definition of *adjective phrases* Hultman (2003) also includes *participle phrases* (p. 202), where the head is a participle (p. 222): “Sexton år ung, ***stolt körande sin Lambretta på väg till idrottsträningen***, blev alla tjejeers stjärnögde hjälte T.B. ***påkörd av en bil***” (quoted in Hultman, 2003, pp. 222–223, bold and italics in the original). Similarly to the participle clauses given by Biber et al. (2002) and mentioned previously in section 2.3.1, such participle phrases are considered *non-finite phrases* in this essay.

- *Adverb phrases*. According to Biber et al. (2002) the head of an adverb phrase is an adverb and it can be followed by complements, and both be followed and preceded by optional modifiers (p. 44): “so ***quickly*** you don’t even enjoy it” (Biber et al., 2002, p. 44, bold, italics and underlining in the original). After some hesitation, the English translation of insertion 48 in *Appendix 2* was classified as an adverb phrase.

Similarly, according to Hultman (2003) in adverb phrases the head is an adverb and it can have pre- and postmodifiers (Hultman, 2003, p. 244): “***alltför ofta***” (Hultman, 2003, p. 244, bold and italics in the original); “***mycket fortare än en raket***” (Hultman, 2003, p. 244, bold and italics in the original).

- *Prepositional phrases*. According to Biber et al. (2002) prepositional phrases are mostly made up of a preposition and a following noun phrase (p. 44), but they can also take complement clauses, which are typically *wh*-clauses and *ing*-clauses (Biber et al., 2002, p. 45): “*It was hard*

to live in Missouri, [*after spending so much time in California*]" (quoted in Biber et al., 2002, p. 45, bold and italics in the original).

Similarly, according to Hultman (2003), the prepositional phrase "is typically made up of a preposition as head and a complement" (p. 246). Examples of such complements provided by Hultman (2003) include noun phrases and subordinate clauses: "*bredvid den vanliga soptunnan*" (probably quoted in Hultman, 2003, p. 247, bold and italics in the original): "*De väntar bara på att jag ska dö*" (probably quoted in Hultman, 2003, p. 247, bold and italics in the original).

Finally, Hultman (2003) mentions a number of phrases which are not mentioned by Biber et al. (2002), but are included in this study. Those are *subjunktionsfraser* (in this essay *subjunctive phrases*), which can be comparative, predicative or concessive (Hultman, 2003, p. 249) and are presented more thoroughly below.

- *Jämförande subjunktionsfraser* (in this essay *comparative subjunctive phrases*), according to Hultman (2003) are "modifiers of words of comparison" such as *lika* and *färre* (p. 249) and are for example made up of a subjunction followed by a subordinate clause or a phrase such as a noun phrase (see p. 251): "*Nu stod vi mitt emot varandra som aggressiva djur, ungarna och jag, i hallen.*" (quoted in Hultman, 2003, p. 251, bold and italics in the original).

- *Predikativa subjunktionsfraser* (in this essay *predicative subjunctive phrases*), according to Hultman (2003) indicate what something is (p. 250) and are made up of the subjunction *som* plus a noun phrase or an adjective phrase (p. 251): "*Inte ens som aktiv höjdhoppare hade han tänkt så mycket på sin kropp*" (quoted in Hultman, 2003, p. 251, bold and italics in the original). This ought to include the type of *pseudoappositioner* (in this essay *pseudo appositions*) mentioned by Teleman et al. (1999b) which include subjunctive phrases starting with (*så*)*som* (Teleman et al., 1999b, p. 115): "*Naturkatastrofer såsom jordbävningar och översvämningar har som bekant tidigare drabbat endast kapitalistiskt styrda länder*" (quoted in Teleman et al., 1999b, p. 115, italics in the original).

- *Medgivande subjunktionsfraser* (in this essay *concessive subjunctive phrases*), according to Hultman (2003), "indicate a contradiction between the content of the phrase and an element in the rest of the clause" (p. 250) and are made up of a subjunction followed by a noun phrase, an adjective phrase, an adverb phrase or a prepositional phrase (see pp. 251–252): "*Men samma natt steg hon upp levande fastän dödligt sårad*" (quoted in Hultman, 2003, p. 251, bold and italics in the original).

Finally, elliptical clauses with a subject but without a finite verb are considered *non-finite phrases* in this essay. An example with such a phrase in italics would be: ‘*James being tired*, he went to sleep’.

Based on the facts mentioned previously in this section, a *phrase* in this essay is any textual unit that does not contain a finite verb. The potential phrase types of any insertion in the material of this essay are therefore: *noun phrases*, *verb phrases*, *adjective phrases*, *adverb phrases*, *prepositional phrases*, *subjunctive phrases* (including *comparative subjunctive phrases*, *predicative subjunctive phrases* and *concessive subjunctive phrases*) and *non-finite phrases*.

## 3. Material and method

In the following sections, the researched material is presented (see section 3.1) followed by a presentation of the method used to analyse the results (see section 3.2).

### 3.1 Material

The material used to study translations of insertions from English to Swedish is made up of the parenthetical insertions found in the first 9000 words (rounded off to the nearest full sentence and not including superscripted numbers for endnotes, the actual endnotes or the title of each chapter) from the beginning of chapter 1 and onwards in *The Second World War* (Beevor, 2012b) and its Swedish translation *Andra världskriget: Del 1* (Beevor, 2012a), translated by Kjell Waltman. As for insertions translated from Swedish to English, the material consists of the insertions found in the first 9000 words (rounded off to the nearest full sentence and not including superscripted numbers for endnotes, the actual endnotes or the title of each chapter) from the beginning of chapter 1 and onwards in *Skuggor runt Wallenberg: Uppdrag i Ungern 1943–1945* (Agrell, 2006) and its English translation *The shadows around Wallenberg: Missions to Hungary, 1943-1945* (Agrell, 2019). This choice of material is primarily based on the fact that they are books on World War II and excepting the English original they are published by Historiska Media, the “primary signum” of which according to Historiska Media (2018c) “is the publishing of popular historical and [...] subject oriented prose and historical novels and crime novels<sup>27</sup>”. As for the choice of 9000 words per original (based on a count in a Word document for each text passage), this amount of text generated an appropriate number of insertions to analyse in proportion to the scope of this essay. The choice of these works as the material of this study is described and motivated further in the rest of this section.

According to Moorhouse (2014, 20 April) in *The Independent* regarding Antony Beevor’s book *D-Day: The Battle for Normandy*, Antony Beevor is “the doyen of British popular history” and “The world’s bestselling military historian” who “has done more than any other current writer to drag history out of its ivory towers and into the nation's living-rooms” (2014, 20 April). It is clear that the Moorhouse who wrote it was the historian Roger Moorhouse (personal communication, 2019, 23 April). Regarding Beevor’s book *The Second World War*, it is

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<sup>27</sup> All quotations from Historiska Media (2018c) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

probably the same Moorhouse who claims in the Independent that “Antony Beevor has done a great deal to popularise history” and that the book “is sure to reach a wide and appreciative audience – and deservedly so” (2012, 2 June). Moorhouse also claims that the book has an “admirable clarity of thought and expression” and that one of Beevor’s “leitmotifs” is how soldiers and civilians, who were the ones affected by the conflict, had no control whatsoever over their lives (2012, 2 June). As for the sales of the book, according to Beevor (2021) *The Second World War* was “a No 1 bestseller in Britain and four other countries, and a bestseller in another five” (italics in the original). The e-book used for this study was published by The Orion Publishing Group, who claims to be “one of the UK’s leading publishers” (The Orion Publishing Group, n.d.). One of its imprints is Phoenix (The Orion Publishing Group, n.d.) under which this specific e-book was published, although it is the Orion Publishing Group that is given in the section called *References* in this essay. Regarding the Swedish translations of Beevor’s works, the publishing house Historiska Media (n.d.) claims that in *Andra världskriget, del 1* Beevor “describes [...] brilliantly and informatively the military processes while at the same time, in great detail, he makes visible the destinies of individuals”<sup>28</sup> and his prose is “crystal-clear and understanding [sic!]”. Historiska Media also claims that Beevor’s books have so far been sold in over half a million copies in Sweden and that *Andra världskriget* is his “really great achievement”<sup>29</sup> (2018b).

As for Wilhelm Agrell, he is, according to Historiska Media (2018d) “an historian and a professor of intelligence analysis at Lund University”<sup>30</sup> and “**The country’s foremost expert on military intelligence**” (bold in the original). It is not mentioned how well his books have sold or in how many languages. However, Historiska Media (2018d) mentions that he has “written a long line of books on Swedish security policy, the Cold War and the evolution of modern military intelligence”. *Skuggor runt Wallenberg*, according to Bokus (2021), “provides new information about the people around [Raul] Wallenberg”<sup>31</sup> and provides more clues as to why he was captured in 1945 and brought to Moscow. The book was translated by Simon Moores at Academic Editing and Translation Services (AETS). Moreover, it is likely it was translated into British English, since Moore’s degrees mentioned by Moores (n.d.) were

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<sup>28</sup> All quotations from Historiska Media (2018a) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>29</sup> All quotations from Historiska Media (2018b) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>30</sup> All quotations from Historiska Media (2018d) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

<sup>31</sup> All quotations from Bokus (2021) have been translated from Swedish by the author of this essay.

obtained at University of Surrey, University of London, and London School of Economics and Political Science.

All in all, the works discussed above (all e-books in this study) appear to be similar enough for the study that is the focus of this essay, for the following reasons:

- The books are non-fictional historical texts and the Swedish translation, as well as the Swedish original and its English translation are published by a publishing house that is partly specialised in popularised history.
- The books are about World War II.
- The books have been translated from British English to Swedish and from Swedish to what is probably British English, respectively.
- The author of each book is a qualified historian.

However, although the choice of material renders this essay balanced in that regard, it should be mentioned that the limited number of primary sources makes the results of this study more likely to have been affected by the linguistic preferences of merely four people (the two authors and the two translators), which is a weakness of this essay. Another such weakness is that only one textual genre is represented in the material.

## 3.2 Method

In this essay, the definition of *insertion* is identical to that of Holmér (2001) in that it is “part of a surrounding clause but [...] can be removed without it becoming ungrammatical” (p. 193). Therefore, when a main clause is between commas and followed by another main clause introduced by a conjunction, the first main clause is not included as an insertion, such as: “On 23 July, the Japanese attacked again head-on, but they failed to break the Soviet line.” (Beavor, 2012b, p. 33).

The insertions included in this study are limited to those that are between commas, brackets and dashes, similarly to Landälv (2021) but unlike some of the examples given in section 2, which are not surrounded by any punctuation marks. However, the following types of text passages are not considered as insertions although they are between any of the punctuation marks mentioned in the previous sentence:

- information between commas that would change the meaning of the sentence if it were removed. After some hesitation, however, example 2 in *Appendix 2* has been included:

Flygtrafikens enda skydd var därför möjligheterna att undgå upptäckt, framför allt genom att planen flög nattetid och i nedsatt sikt, något som gjorde sommarmånaderna särskilt vanskliga. (Agrell, 2006, p. 27)

Therefore, the air traffic's only protection was avoiding detection, primarily by flying at night and in reduced visibility, which made the summer months particularly hazardous. (Agrell, 2019, p. 19)

Also, if the insertion would only make the sentence considerably harder to understand if it was removed, it is still included as an insertion. Finally, short adverb phrases, such as *however* and *meanwhile*, as well as dates between commas have been included as insertions in this essay although the meaning of the sentence might change without them.

- information that, if removed, would leave the sentence without the finite verb of the main clause, although the sentence might be grammatically correct in spoken language, such as the passage *Hitler had pushed his foreign minister Joachim von Ribbentrop into making overtures to Poland* in: "To protect his eastern flank in case he did strike west first, Hitler had pushed his foreign minister Joachim von Ribbentrop into making overtures to Poland, offering an alliance." (Beevor, 2012b, p. 35).

- information that, if left out, would make the sentence ungrammatical even if there would be a finite verb of a main clause in the sentence, such as *held hard in the centre tying down the bulk of the Japanese forces* in: "While the Soviet infantry, which included three rifle divisions and a para troop brigade, held hard in the centre tying down the bulk of the Japanese forces, Zhukov sent his three armoured brigades and a Mongolian cavalry division from behind in encircling movements." (Beevor, 2012b, p. 33).

- information sealed off by commas in an enumeration, similarly to Landälv (2021, p. 17). Such an example would be *faceless* in: "During the purge, this 'mediocre, faceless, intellectually dim'

soldier had strengthened his position by zealously eliminating talented commanders.” (Beevor, 2012b, p. 30).

This also includes information where only one of the surrounding commas is used in an enumeration, whereas the other is used for a different reason, for example to separate clauses.

- information between commas as a result of commas in numbers such as *000 men* in: “But they were unaware that Zhukov’s force had by now increased to 58,000 men, with nearly 500 tanks and 250 aircraft.” (Beevor, 2012b, p. 33).

- information between commas as a result of a comma splice. However, after some hesitation insertion 5 in *Appendix 2* has been included:

Olsen var visserligen inte infödd amerikan, hans föräldrar hade invandrat från Norge när han var liten, men han hade gått i skola, studerat vid universitet och arbetat i USA och var gift med en amerikanska. (Agrell, 2006, p. 28)

Admittedly, Olsen was not a native-born American; his parents had emigrated from Norway when he was little, but he had gone to school, had studied at a university, and had worked in the United States, and was married to an American. (Agrell, 2019, p. 20)

- information within quotation marks, similarly to Landälv (2021, p. 18), as this is originally somebody else’s writing and might therefore skew the results such as:

Ribbentrop ‘produced a lengthy document’, Henderson reported, ‘which he read out to me in German, or rather gabbled through to me as fast as he could, in a tone of the utmost annoyance . . . When he had finished, I accordingly asked him to let me see it. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 42)

However, also similarly to Landälv (2021, p. 18), insertions that are paraphrases or only partly quotations have been included. Also, if the quotation marks surround the translation of one or

more words from another language than English or Swedish, the insertion within quotation marks has been included:

Although the prevailing attitude in France was the resigned shrug of *il faut en finir* – ‘it must be got over with’ – the anti-militarist left seemed to agree with defeatists on the right that they did not want ‘to die for Danzig’. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 50)

Den rådande inställningen i Frankrike var visserligen en resignerad axelryckning – *il faut en finir* (‘det måste få ett slut’) – men den antimilitaristiska vänstern verkade hålla med defaitisterna på högerflygeln om att de inte ville ”dö för Danzig”. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 43)

- information between commas that would not be between commas if it was not for the previous or the ensuing insertion, such as the words *Gregori Zhukov*, followed by an insertion in: “On 1 June 1939, Georgii Zhukov, a short and sturdy cavalry commander, received an urgent summons to Moscow” (Beevor, 2012b, p. 30).

- references to other sources within brackets (similarly to Landälv, 2021, p. 18).

- insertions at the end of a sentence (similarly to Landälv, 2021, p. 18) and in the beginning of a sentence. This also includes insertions adjacent to a colon or to a semicolon, excepting insertion 69 in *Appendix 2*.

- reporting clauses. However, insertions within a reporting clause are included, such as:

‘It’s to present us with a *fait accompli*,’ wrote General Paul de Villelume, the chief liaison officer with the government, ‘because the English fear we might go soft.’ (Beevor, 2012b, p. 50)

”Det är att ställa oss inför fullbordat faktum”, skrev general Paul de Villelume, högste förbindelseofficer vid regeringen, ”eftersom engelsmännen fruktar att vi skulle kunna tappa modet.” (Beevor, 2012a, p. 43)

- insertions in interrogative and imperative clauses.

- insertions in dialogue.

- finally, for the sake of simplicity, insertions coordinated with a conjunction are treated as one insertion even if there is an extra comma between the first insertion and the ensuing coordinating conjunction, since the second insertion would be ungrammatical without the previous insertion because of the conjunction. Such an example would be: “The Poles, well aware of the dangers of provoking Stalin, and rightly suspecting that Hitler wanted their country as a satellite, proved exceedingly cautious” (Beevor, 2012b, p. 35). Similarly, conjoined phrases and clauses that are not separated by a comma are counted as one phrase and clause respectively, such as the phrase “both Nationalist and Communist” by Beevor (2012b, p. 34).

In the document called *Appendix 1* for the English original and its Swedish translation, and in the document called *Appendix 2* for the Swedish original and its English translation, each insertion in the original is presented and underlined in the sentence where it occurs, together with the equivalent sentence or sentences in the translation, where the passage or passages equivalent to the insertion are underlined.

As for the internal build-up of the insertions they are divided into the subcategories of *clauses* and *phrases*, according to the criteria for these terms in sections 2.3.1 and 2.3.2 respectively. Some of the translations of the insertions, however, are recalcitrant in that regard. The status of the insertions and their translations as clauses, phrases or (regarding the translations) as recalcitrant, is given in section 4.1 (from English to Swedish) and 4.2 (from Swedish to English). Thus, the insertions in the English original (and their Swedish translations) in *Appendix 1* are analysed in section 4.1. with subsections, and the insertions in the Swedish original (and their English translations) in *Appendix 2* are analysed in section 4.2 with subsections. Note that in the appendix where the insertion is given, there is also a reference to the author, the year of publication and the relevant page number of the original and of the translation.

Furthermore, each insertion in the original text is given an ordinal number in the appendix where it occurs and this number is used to represent the insertion in the table where the insertions are placed according to their syntactic position in section 4.1 (for *Appendix 1*) and 4.2 (for *Appendix 2*).

Note that if the insertion is part of a clause element in the clause where it occurs but marks the end of that clause element, that insertion is classified as being between the clause element it is a part of and the following clause element. For example, an inserted relative clause that is part of the subject is categorised as being between the subject and the clause element that follows the relative clause. One difficulty in this regard concerned the syntactic position of the Swedish translation of some inserted English noun phrases such as insertion number 54 in *Appendix 1* where the Swedish noun phrase is “ambassadören sir Nevile Henderson” (Beevor, 2012a, p. 31), but only the words *sir Nevile Hendersson* equal the English insertion (see also insertion 40, 78 and 84 in *Appendix 1* and insertions 7, 10, 13, 52 and 68 in *Appendix 2*). For the sake of simplicity, the definitive noun phrase preceding the equivalent of the insertion (here *ambassadören*), has been classified as the head. However, in another four insertions (insertion 1, 33, 34 and 77 in *Appendix 1*) it was the Swedish title that equalled the English insertion such as *utrikesministern* in “utrikesministern lord Halifax” (Beevor, 2012a, p. 39). For the sake of simplicity, in these four examples it is the accompanying proper name that counts as the head and thereby determines the syntactic position of the Swedish equivalents of the English insertions. Also as regards insertion 11 in *Appendix 2* it should be noted that although the English insertion is preceded by an indirect object, the equivalent indirect object in the translation is an inserted postmodifying apposition, following the Swedish equivalent of the insertion.

Moreover, if the insertion does not occur between two clause elements in a clause (which thus has a finite verb in it) but rather between two clause elements in, for example, a non-finite phrase that serves as a clause element in the nearest superordinate finite clause, that insertion is still classified as occurring between the clause elements that surrounds it in the non-finite phrase. However, it is noted in the relevant appendix that those elements are part of a larger clause element in the nearest superordinate finite clause (see insertions 30 in both English and Swedish and insertion 101 in English in *Appendix 1* and insertions 4 (in Swedish and English), 13 (in Swedish), 14 (in Swedish), and 51 (in English) in *Appendix 2*). Note that in the tables in section 4.1 and 4.2 the term *object/predicative* also includes the extraposed subject, and the term *content adverbial* includes the agent in passive constructions.

Also, for the sake of simplicity, the recalcitrant translations of the insertions are the ones translated in such a way that the translation of the insertion does not equal an uninterrupted string of words and/or could not equal a phrase or clause on its own (see for example insertion

23 in *Appendix 1*, where the equivalent of the insertion is split by words that do not equal the insertion in the English original). However, if the translated equivalent of the insertion is part of a larger phrase in the translation but *could* equal a phrase or clause of its own, and is not split, it is considered a phrase or clause (see for example the Swedish translation of insertion 1 in *Appendix 1*). Also, after some hesitation insertions 2, 75, 106 and 111 in *Appendix 1* were *not* considered recalcitrant. Note that a subordinate clause counts as a full clause in this regard. Finally, insertions are *not* considered recalcitrant if the translation of the insertion contains additional information that is not in the equivalent sentence in the original in the Appendix (see for example insertion 90 in *Appendix 1*).

Concerning the readability of the originals and their translations, it is measured based on the following criteria, which are mentioned where the actual numbers are given towards the end of section 4.1 and 4.2 respectively: **1.** The number of insertions in each original. **2.** The number of translated insertions that are not between punctuation marks, not including the translated insertions that are part of a larger insertion in the translation or that are not translated at all. **3.** The number of translated insertions that are in the beginning or at the end of the sentence.

Any remaining inconsistencies in this essay are the sole responsibility of its author.

## 4. Results and discussion

This chapter presents the results of the research that this essay is based on. It is worth noting that in the English original the frequency of insertions was 111 per 9000 words, whereas in the Swedish original the frequency was 72 per 9000 words. The details of the results are given in the remaining subsections.

### 4.1 Translation from English to Swedish

The English original had 111 insertions per 9000 words, which is more than the Swedish original (see section 4.2). Below in this section the English insertions and their Swedish translations are presented, according to their status as clauses or phrases in the English original and their Swedish translation (some Swedish equivalents of the insertions are neither a clause nor a phrase, and those are treated separately in this section). Thereafter follows a few comments on the readability of the original and the translation, and finally a table presenting the syntactic position of the English insertions and their Swedish translations (Table 8).

- No inserted English clause was realised as a Swedish inserted or non-inserted phrase. This might support the hypothesis that insertions in the form of phrases are more common in English than in Swedish, whereas the opposite applies regarding insertions in the form of clauses, based on some statistics given by Ingo (2007) (see section 1).

- 25 of the 111 insertions (23%) were English inserted clauses realised as a Swedish inserted or non-inserted clause. Their numbers in *Appendix 1* are: 3, 4, 10, 11, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 27, 29, 32, 39, 43, 51, 55, 68, 74, 81, 83, 86, 90, 92, 93, 102. The following example is from insertion 19, where the insertion is a subordinate relative clause in both languages:

When the commander-in-chief of the Trans-Baikal Front, who had come to observe the battle, suggested that he should halt the offensive for the moment, Zhukov gave his superior short shrift. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 34)

När chefen för militärområdet Transbajkal, som hade kommit för att observera slaget, föreslog att de skulle avbryta offensiven för stunden brydde sig Zjukov inte om detta. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 24)

- 21 of the 111 insertions (19%) were English inserted phrases realised as a Swedish inserted or non-inserted clause. This too might support the hypothesis that insertions in the form of phrases are more common in English than in Swedish, whereas the opposite applies regarding insertions in the form of clauses, based on some statistics given by Ingo (2007) (see section 1). The numbers of those insertions, in *Appendix 1*, are: 2, 7, 18, 24, 26, 31, 36, 37, 41, 58, 61, 62, 64, 70, 71, 75, 76, 79, 87, 98, 111.

- 56 of the 111 insertions (50%) were English inserted phrases realised as a Swedish inserted or non-inserted phrase. This was thus the most common combination, similarly to the results in section 4.2. Their numbers in *Appendix 1* are: 1, 5, 6, 8, 9, 12, 13, 14, 21, 22, 25, 28, 30, 33, 34, 35, 38, 40, 42, 44, 45, 47, 50, 54, 57, 59, 60, 65, 66, 67, 69, 72, 73, 77, 78, 80, 82, 84, 85, 88, 89, 91, 94, 95, 96, 97, 99, 100, 101, 103, 104, 105, 106, 107, 109, 110. The following example is from insertion 72, where the insertion is a noun phrase (apposition) in both languages:

He claimed that his reasonable demands on Poland, those which he had been careful never to present to Warsaw, had been rejected. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 45)

Han påstod att hans rimliga krav på Polen – de som han hade varit noga med att aldrig lägga fram för Warszawa – hade förkastats. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 37)

- 3 of the 111 insertions (3%) were English inserted clauses realised neither as a coherent phrase nor as a coherent clause in Swedish: 23, 49, 63. The following example is from insertion 49, where the English insertion is a subordinate (adverbial) clause:

On 17 August, when the German army was carrying out manoeuvres on the River Elbe, two British captains from the embassy who had been invited as observers found that the younger German officers were ‘very self-confident and sure that the German Army could take on everyone’. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

När den tyska armén den 17 augusti genomförde manövrer vid floden Elbe tyckte två kaptener som hade bjudits in som observatörer från brittiska ambassaden att de yngre tyska officerarna var ”mycket självsäkra och förvissade om att den tyska armén kunde ta sig an vem som helst”. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 30)

- 6 of the 111 insertions (5%) were English inserted phrases realised neither as a coherent phrase nor as a coherent clause in Swedish: 46, 48, 52, 53, 56, 108. The following example is from insertion 46, where the English insertion is a (non-finite) phrase:

The so-called Pact of Steel with Italy, signed on 22 May, amounted to very little, since Mussolini did not believe his country would be ready for war until 1943. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 38)

Den så kallade stålpakten, som Italien och Tyskland hade undertecknat den 22 maj, var inte mycket värd, eftersom Mussolini inte trodde att hans land skulle vara redo för krig förrän 1943. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 29)

Moreover, since the previous research in this essay does not specify the frequency of insertions as regards their syntactic positions and does not contrast English and Swedish, there is little reference to these in section 4.1.1–4.1.9. Nevertheless, in view of sections 2.1.1.1 and 2.1.2.1, the following general observations can be made which might indicate that the Swedish translation is slightly easier to read than the English original, although only as regards the use of insertions:

- The Swedish translation of the following 34 insertions with the following ordinal numbers in *Appendix 1* are not within commas, brackets or dashes: 1, 2, 6, 9, 12, 14, 23, 24, 25, 33, 34, 35, 38, 40, 47, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 56, 60, 63, 68, 77, 78, 82, 84, 85, 95, 105, 106, and 107 (note that insertions in the beginning or at the end of the sentence in the Swedish translation are not included here but dealt with below in this section, and English insertions equalling part of an insertion in Swedish, such as insertions 46 and 48 are also not included). According to the definition of *insertion* used in this essay (see section 3.2), those 35 English insertions are therefore not realised as insertions in the translation. This might make the Swedish translation easier in that regard, since Lagerholm (2008) claims that *inskott*, are “most common in formal,

heavy style” and often makes the sentence “difficult to understand” (p. 140) (see section 1). He does not give any examples of insertions that are not surrounded by punctuation marks (see p. 140.)

- 11 of the 111 English insertions (10%) in *Appendix I* have been translated so that their Swedish equivalents are in the beginning of the sentence (the insertions numbered 8, 13, 59, 61, 65, 69, 73, 81, 97, 109 and 111, some of which are discussed in section 4.1.4). Also, another 14 of the 111 insertions (13%) have been translated so that they are at the end of the Swedish sentence (the insertions numbered 5, 18, 22, 27, 44, 45, 55, 58, 62, 80, 89, 91, 99 and 103). These are positions recommended by Ehrenberg-Sundin (2008a) for inserted clauses (see section 2.1.2.1) and, as regards the end of the sentence, also for inserted phrases, as indicated by the example given by Mattson (2008) (see section 2.1.2.1). A difference, however, is that Mattson (2008) recommends that those phrases be turned into subordinate clauses at the end of the sentence (see section 2.1.2.1), which is not taken into account in this essay. Also, none of the sources consulted seems to indicate that inserted phrases should be put in the beginning of the sentence. Nevertheless, English inserted phrases that are in the beginning or at the end of the Swedish translation are also considered as facilitating the translation in this essay.

However, it should be remembered that the Swedish translation might contain insertions that are not in the original, and therefore render the translation more difficult. Nevertheless, such insertions are beyond the scope of this essay.

Finally, as for the syntactic position of the English insertions and their Swedish translations, they are presented in Table 8 as follows:

**Table 8: The syntactic position of the English insertions and their Swedish translations**

Syntactic position in English text	Between content adverbial and subject	Between subject and finite verb	Between subject and sentence adverbial	Between sentence adverbial and finite verb	Between finite verb and object/predicative	Between object/predicative and content adverbial	Between object/predicative and coordinating conjunction of new clause	Between coordinating or subordinating conjunction (not relative pronoun) and subject	Between subjects, objects/ predicatives or between content adverbials, including when those are conjoined by a coordinating conjunction before or after the insertion	Other position
Syntactic position in Swedish text										
Between content adverbial and finite verb	14, 29, 60, 83, 85, 96,	16,								
Between subject and finite verb		3, 10, 15, 19, 21, 26, 28, 31, 32, 40, 41, 42, 57, 64, 67, 71, 72, 75, 76, 79, 86, 87, 90, 100, 104, 110	2, 20, 37, 68, 98,	36,						

Between subject and sentence adverbial										
Between subject and non-finite verb	25,	4, 39,								
Between sentence adverbial and finite verb										
Between finite verb and sentence adverbial			6, 47,							
Between finite verb and object/predicative		50,								35,
Between finite verb and content adverbial		105,								
Between object/predicative and content adverbial						78, 84, 102,				
Between object/predicative and coordi-	93,						43,		101,	

nating conjunc- tion of new clause										
Between coordi- nating or subordi- nating conjunc- tion (not relative pronoun) and subject		82,							77,	33,
Between subjects, between objects/ predi- catives or between content adver- bials, including when those are conjoined by a coordi- nating conjunc- tion before or after the insertion		34,							11, 17, 30,	
Beginning of sentence	59,	13, 65, 69, 73, 97, 109, 111,							8, 61,	81,
End of sentence	89,	18, 22, 62, 103,	58,			44, 45,	27,	80,		5, 55, 91, 99,

Other position	12, 49, 51, 53, 74,	1, 9, 23, 24, 46, 48, 54, 56, 63, 70, 92, 108,			38, 95	7,				52,	66, 88, 94, 106, 107,
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#### 4.1.1 Between subject and finite verb in English and Swedish

The most common syntactic position of the English insertions and their Swedish translations is that between subject and finite verb in both languages, which represents 26 of the 111 insertions, thus 23%. One such example would be insertion number 3, underlined in the following example:

Stalin's purge of the Red Army, begun in 1937, still continued, so Zhukov, who had been accused once already, presumed that he had been denounced as an 'enemy of the people'. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 30)

Den utrensning av Röda armén som Stalin hade inlett 1937 var fortfarande i full gång, så Zjukov, som redan hade anklagats en gång, tog för givet att han hade fördömts som en "folkets fiende". (Beevor, 2012a, p. 20)

Another example is insertion number 26. Note that the insertion is two conjoined phrases in English and two conjoined clauses in Swedish:

The Poles, well aware of the dangers of provoking Stalin, and rightly suspecting that Hitler wanted their country as a satellite, proved exceedingly cautious. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 35)

Polackerna, som var väl medvetna om faran med att provocera Stalin och med rätta misstänkte Hitler för att vilja göra deras land till en satellitstat, visade sig dock vara ytterst försiktiga. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 26)

Moreover, the following example is insertion number 42:

Vyacheslav Molotov, the new Soviet foreign minister, expressed concern at German support for the Japanese, whose forces were still locked in combat with the Red Army either side of the Khalkhin Gol, but he nevertheless indicated a Soviet willingness to continue discussions, especially about the Baltic states. (Beevor, 2012b, pp. 37–38)

Molotov – Sovjetunionens nye folkkommissarie för utrikes ärenden – uttryckte sina farhågor för Tysklands stöd till Japan, vars styrkor fortfarande var bundna i strid med Röda armén på båda sidor om Chalchin-Gol, men han visade ändå att Sovjetunionen var villigt att fortsätta diskussionerna, särskilt beträffande Baltikum. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 29)

The next example is number 86:

Hitler, who had been reassured constantly by Ribbentrop that the British would back down, was clearly stunned. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 48)

Hitler, som ständigt hade lugnats av von Ribbentrop och försäkrats om att britterna skulle ge vika, var uppenbarligen slagen av häpnad. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 40)

Finally, it might be worth noting that in example 110, the translation of the insertion is partly inserted and partly non-inserted:

But three days later the army high command – the OKH or Oberkommando des Heeres – became concerned that the Polish armies might be evading the planned encirclement west of the Vistula. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 53)

Men tre dagar senare började den tyska arméns överkommando OKH (Oberkommando des Heeres) oroa sig över att de polska arméerna kanske höll på att undgå den planerade dubbla omfattningen väster om Wisła. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 46)

#### **4.1.2 Between subject and finite verb in English but “Other position” in Swedish**

Another frequent category is that where the English insertion is between the subject and the finite verb whereas the translation has an “Other position”, accounting for 12 of the 111 insertions, thus, 11% of the insertions. The following six insertions are all different as regards the syntactic position of the Swedish translation of the English insertion:

- number 1, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between the finite verb and the subject:
- number 9, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between a coordinating conjunction and the finite verb:
- number 24, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is within the subject:
- number 54, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between the subject and an indirect object:
- number 70, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between the subject and a content adverbial:
- number 92, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between the subject and a verb particle.

The following example is insertion 54:

And the ambassador, Sir Nevile Henderson, reported to London soon afterwards that ‘the first impression in Berlin was one of immense relief . . . Once more the faith of the German people in the ability of Herr Hitler to obtain his objective without war was reaffirmed.’ (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

Och kort därefter rapporterade ambassadören sir Nevile Henderson till London att ”första intrycket av Berlin var en oerhörd lättnad. [...] Återigen fick det tyska folket sin tro på herr Hitlers förmåga att uppnå sina mål utan krig bekräftade.” (Beevor, 2012a, p. 31)

Another 3 insertions in this category, are not translated as a coherent string of words in Swedish, hence the “Other position”. The first such example is insertion 23:

In Tokyo, the ‘strike north’ faction, which wanted war against the Soviet Union, received a major setback. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 34)

I Tokyo innebar det en svår motgång för den fraktion som ville anfälla norrut och önskade sig ett krig mot Sovjetunionen. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 25)

The next example is insertion number 46:

The so-called Pact of Steel with Italy, signed on 22 May, amounted to very little, since Mussolini did not believe his country would be ready for war until 1943. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 38)

Den så kallade stålpakten, som Italien och Tyskland hade undertecknat den 22 maj, var inte mycket värd, eftersom Mussolini inte trodde att hans land skulle vara redo för krig förrän 1943. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 29)

The final such insertion is number 63:

Embarrassingly, a unit of Brandenburger commandos, who did not receive the cancellation order in time, had advanced into Poland to seize a key bridge. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 41)

Pinsamt nog hade en avdelning ur specialförbandet ”Brandenburg” inte fått kontraordern i tid utan gått in i Polen för att ta en viktig bro. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 33)

For a more exact syntactic analysis of each of these three translations, see *Appendix 1*.

Finally, in another three examples – number 48, 56 and 108 – the insertion is a coherent part of a finite clause in the translation:

The Free City of Danzig and the Polish Corridor which, created to give Poland access to the Baltic, separated East Prussia from the rest of the Reich were brandished as two of the Versailles Treaty’s greatest injustices. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 38)

Fristaden Danzig och den polska korridoren, som skilde Ostpreussen från övriga Tyska riket och hade skapats för att ge Polen tillträde till Baltikum, framhölls som två av Versaillesfredens största orättvisor. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 30)

Henderson, although an arch-appeaser, was finally convinced that ‘the corporal of the last war was even more anxious to prove what he could do as a conquering Generalissimo in the next’. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 40)

Henderson var visserligen en eftergiftspolitikern av stora mått, men han lät sig ändå till slut övertygas om att ”korpralen från förra kriget var ivrigare än någonsin att bevisa vad

han skulle kunna åstadkomma som segrande generalissimus i det kommande”. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 32)

The Polish army, although fighting often with desperate bravery, was severely handicapped not just by its obsolete weaponry, but above all by its lack of radios. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 52)

Den polska armén stred visserligen – ofta med förtvivlad tapperhet – men den var svårt handikappad, inte bara av sina omoderna vapen, utan framförallt av bristen på radiosändare.

(Beevor, 2012a, p. 46)

For a more exact syntactic analysis of each of these three translations, see *Appendix 1*.

#### **4.1.3 Between subject and finite verb in English, but in the beginning of the sentence in Swedish**

In another 7 out of 111 insertions (6%), the English insertion is between a subject and a finite verb, whereas the Swedish translation is in the beginning of the sentence: In three of those insertions the English insertion is the short adverb phrase *meanwhile*, translated as *under tiden*. Those insertions are number 13, 65 and 97, presented in that order below:

Zhukov, meanwhile, was bringing in tank reinforcements under cover of darkness and concealing them. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 33)

Under tiden förde Zjukov i skydd av mörkret fram och dolde sina stridsvagnar. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 23)

Ribbentrop, meanwhile, made himself unavailable to both the Polish and British ambassadors. (Beevor, 2012b, pp. 41–42)

Under tiden hade von Ribbentrop gjort sig oanträffbar för både den polske och den brittiske ambassadören. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 33)

Army Group South, meanwhile, forced back the Łódź and Kraków armies, inflicting heavy casualties. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 50)

Under tiden tvingade armégrupp ”Syd” tillbaka Łódźarmén och Krakówarmén efter att ha tillfogat dem svåra förluster. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 44)

#### **4.1.4 Between content adverbial and subject in English but between content adverbial and finite verb in Swedish**

Furthermore, 6 out of 111 English insertions (5%) were between the content adverbial and subject, whereas the Swedish translation of those insertions was between the content adverbial and the finite verb. The reason why the Swedish equivalent of the English insertion is followed by the finite verb is due to the so-called subject-verb inversion (see section 2.1.3). The following example is insertion number 96:

On 3 September at Bydgoszcz (Bromberg), random firing against Poles in the streets led to a massacre in which 223 ethnic Germans died, although the official German history puts the figure at 1,000. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 50)

I Bydgoszcz (Bromberg) ledde den 3 september slumpartad skottlossning mot polacker på gatorna till en massaker där tvåhundraotjugotre folktyskar dog, även om den officiella tyska historieskrivningen anger siffran tusen. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 43)

It is also worth noting that insertions 14, 60 and 85 are dates that could stand as independent phrases but, if removed from the Swedish translation, would make the Swedish translation ungrammatical:

At 05·45 hours on Sunday, 20 August, Zhukov launched his surprise attack, first with a three-hour artillery bombardment, then with tanks and aircraft, as well as infantry and cavalry. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 33)

Klockan 5.45 söndagen den 20 augusti satte Zjukov igång sitt överraskningsanfall, som inleddes med en tre timmar lång artilleriförberedelse och sedan genomfördes med stridsvagnar och flygplan samt infanteri och kavalleri. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 24)

On Saturday, 26 August, the German government cancelled the commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the Battle of Tannenberg. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 41)

Lördagen den 26 augusti ställde den tyska regeringen in firandet av tjugofemårsminnet av slaget vid Tannenberg. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 32)

On the morning of Sunday, 3 September, Sir Nevile Henderson carried out his instructions to the letter. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 48)

Söndagsmorgonen den 3 september följde sir Nevile Henderson sina instruktioner till punkt och pricka. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 40)

#### **4.1.5 Between content adverbial and subject in English but “Other position” in Swedish**

Another 5 of the 111 English insertions (5%) are between content adverbial of time and subject, whereas the Swedish translation of those insertions have a so called “Other position” Those are presented below:

Insertion 12, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between the finite verb and the subject:

In three days of heavy fighting, however, Zhukov eventually forced them back across the river in a counter-attack with his tanks. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 33)

Efter tre dagars hårda strider genomförde emellertid Zjukov ett motanfall med sina stridsvagnar och lyckades till slut tvinga japanerna tillbaka över floden. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 23)

Insertion 51, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between a coordinating conjunction and the finite verb:

But on 19 August, just in case the British and French declared war, Grossadmiral Erich Raeder ordered the pocket battleships *Deutschland* and *Graf spee*, as well as sixteen U-boats, to put to sea and head for the Atlantic. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

Men för den händelse att briterna och fransmännen faktiskt skulle förklara krig gav storamiral Erich Raeder den 19 augusti för säkerhets skull order om att såväl

pansarskeppen *Deutschland* och *Graf Spee* som sexton ubåtar skulle löpa ut och bege sig ut i Atlanten. (Beevor, 2012a, pp. 30–31)

Insertion 74, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is between a subject and (direct) object:

In London, once certain clarifications had been obtained on the facts of the invasion, Chamberlain issued the order for general mobilization. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 45)

I London utfärdade Chamberlain, när man väl hade erhållit vissa klagörande fakta om invasionen, en order om allmän mobilisering. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 37)

Insertions 49 and 53, where the Swedish translation of the insertion is split:

On 17 August, when the German army was carrying out manoeuvres on the River Elbe, two British captains from the embassy who had been invited as observers found that the younger German officers were ‘very self-confident and sure that the German Army could take on everyone’. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

När den tyska armén den 17 augusti genomförde manövrer vid floden Elbe tyckte två kaptenar som hade bjudits in som observatörer från brittiska ambassaden att de yngre tyska officerarna var ”mycket självsäkra och förvissade om att den tyska armén kunde ta sig an vem som helst”. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 30)

When news of Stalin’s agreement to talks reached Hitler at the Berghof, his Alpine retreat at Berchtesgaden, he is supposed to have clenched his fists in victory and banged the table, declaring to his entourage: ‘I’ve got them! I’ve got them!’ (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

När nyheten om att Stalin hade gått med på att föra samtal nådde Hitler i hans residens Berghof utanför Berchtesgaden i Salzburgalperna lär han segerrikt ha knutit nävarna, drämt dem i bordet och förklarat för sitt följe: ”Jag har dem! Jag har dem!” (Beevor, 2012a, p. 31)

For a more exact syntactic analysis of each of the Swedish translations of insertion 49 and 53, see *Appendix 1*.

#### **4.1.6 Between subject and sentence adverbial in English but between subject and finite verb in Swedish**

Another 5 of the 111 English insertions (5%) were between the subject and the sentence adverbial, whereas the Swedish translation of the insertion was between the subject and the finite verb. The following example is insertion 20:

Zhukov, who had come to Moscow fearing arrest, now returned there to receive from Stalin's hands the gold star of Hero of the Soviet Union. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 34)

Zjukov, som hade kommit till Moskva i skräck för att bli gripen, återvände nu dit för att erhålla hederstiteln Sovjetunionens hjälte och ur Stalins hand ta emot utmärkelsetecknet Gyllene stjärnan. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 25)

The next example, finally, is insertion 68:

A company of Kriegsmarine assault troops, who had been hidden aboard the *Schleswig-Holstein*, later stormed ashore but were bloodily repelled. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 43)

Ett kompani landstigningstrupper ur Kriegsmarine som hade hållits dolt ombord på *Schleswig-Holstein* stormade senare i land men slogs blodigt tillbaka. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 35)

#### **4.1.7 "Other position" in English and Swedish**

5 of the 111 insertions (5%) had a so called "Other position" in both English and Swedish: - insertion 66, which is within the direct object starting with *Directive No. 1/direktiv nummer 1*, between a postmodifying prepositional phrase and a postmodifying relative clause in both English and Swedish:

The next day, Hitler issued Directive No. 1 for Operation White, the invasion of Poland, which had been prepared over the previous five months. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 42)

Följande dag utfärdade Hitler direktiv nummer 1 för operation Weiss – invasionen av Polen – som hade förberetts under de gångna fem månaderna. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 34)

- insertion 88, where the insertion in both English and Swedish is between a post modifying prepositional phrase (*with evacuee children/av barn som skulle evakueras*) of the predicative starting with *packed/fulla*, and a post modifying non-finite phrase to the noun *children/barn* in the same prepositional phrase:

Railway stations were packed with evacuee children, a luggage label tied to their clothes indicating their names and addresses, clutching rag dolls and teddy bears. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 49)

Järnvägsstationerna var fulla av barn som skulle evakueras, med en lapp med namn och adress fäst vid kläderna, gripande om sina trasdockor och nallebjörnar. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 42)

- insertion 94, where the insertion in both English and Swedish is between a reporting clause and dialogue:

‘It’s to present us with a fait accompli,’ wrote General Paul de Villelume, the chief liaison officer with the government, ‘because the English fear we might go soft.’ (Beevor, 2012b, p. 50)

”Det är att ställa oss inför fullbordat faktum”, skrev general Paul de Villelume, högste förbindelseofficer vid regeringen, ”eftersom engelsmännen fruktar att vi skulle kunna tappa modet.” (Beevor, 2012a, p. 43)

- insertion 106, where the English inserted noun phrase is within the agent, between the head and a postmodifying relative clause, whereas in Swedish it is within the agent between the head and a postmodifying inserted (noun) phrase:

Much of the killing, however, was carried out behind the lines by the SS *Einsatzgruppen*, the Security Police and the *Volksdeutscher Selbstschutz* militia (Ethnic German Self-Defence), who longed for revenge. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 52)

Många av morderna utfördes emellertid bakom linjerna av säkerhetstjänsten SD och säkerhetspolisen SiPo (Sicherheitsdienst respektive Sicherheitspolizei) samt av den paramilitära organisationen Folktyska självförsvaret (Volksdeutscher Selbstschutz), som törstade efter hämnd. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 45)

- finally, in insertion 107, the English insertion is between a sentence adverbial and a non-finite verb, whereas in Swedish it is between an (indirect) object and a sentence adverbial:

This did not, however, stop them from looting at every opportunity – money, clothes, jewellery, food and bedding. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 52)

Detta hindrade dem emellertid inte från att plundra så fort ett tillfälle yppade sig – pengar, kläder, smycken, mat och sängkläder. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 46)

#### **4.1.8 Between subject and finite verb in English but at the end of the sentence in Swedish**

4 out of 111 English insertions (4%) are between the subject and the finite verb in English but at the end of the sentence in Swedish. The following example is insertion number 18:

Japanese infantry, despite having no effective anti-tank guns, fought desperately. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 33)

De japanska infanteristerna stred förtvivlat trots att de saknade effektiva pansarvärnspjäser. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 24)

The next example is insertion 22:

The Japanese had been shaken to the core by this unexpected defeat, while their Chinese enemies, both Nationalist and Communist, were encouraged. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 34)

Det oväntade nederlaget hade skakat japanerna ända in i märgen och uppmuntrat deras kinesiska fiender, både nationalister och kommunister. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 25)

The final example is insertion 103:

Grenades would be lobbed into cellars, which was where families, rather than partisans, sheltered. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 51)

Handgranater kastades in i källare, där det var familjer som sökte skydd, inte partisaner. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 45)

#### 4.1.9 “Other position” in English but at the end of the sentence in Swedish

4 of the 111 English insertions (4%) were in a so called “Other position”, while their Swedish equivalents were at the end of the sentence. The following example is insertion number 5:

He was told to report to the Kremlin to see Stalin’s old crony from the 1st Cavalry Army in the civil war, Marshal Kliment Voroshilov, now the people’s commissar of defence. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 30)

Han blev i stället tillsagd att bege sig till Kreml, för att där inställa sig hos marskalken av Sovjetunionen Kliment Vorosjilov. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 20)

The English insertion is within the direct object *Stalin’s old crony from the 1st Cavalry Army in the civil war [...] now the people’s commissar of defence*, which, in turn, is part of the non-finite phrase starting with *to see Stalin’s old crony...*, which serves as a content adverbial (of reason) in the non-finite phrase starting with *to report to the Kremlin...*, which, finally, is part of the predicative of the nearest superordinate clause.

In insertion 55, the English insertion is between the prepositional object and the subject:

The British were shaken by the news, but for the French, who had counted far more on a pact with their traditional ally Russia, it was a bombshell. (Beevor, 2012b, p. 39)

Britterna var skakade av nyheten, men för fransmännen var det ett bombnedslag, eftersom de långt mer hade räknat med en pakt med sin traditionella bundsförvant Ryssland. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 31)

Furthermore, in insertion number 91, the English insertion is between a sentence adverbial and a subject:

Then, despite all of Bonnet's attempts to prevaricate, the French ultimatum (whose text still avoided the dreaded word 'war') expired at 17.00 hours. (Beevor, 2012b, pp. 49–50)

Klockan 17.00 löpte sedan det franska ultimatumet (vars lydelse fortfarande undvek det fruktade ordet "krig") ut, trots alla Bonnets försök till undanflykter. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 43)

Finally, the English insertion number 99 is between a reporting clause and dialogue:

'Every person', wrote a Gefreiter (lance corporal), 'who was not already a ruthless enemy of the Jews, must become one here.' (Beevor, 2012b, p. 51)

"Varenda en som inte redan var en radikal judemotståndare måste bli det här", skrev en vicekorpral. (Beevor, 2012a, p. 44)

## 4.2 Translation from Swedish to English

The Swedish original had 72 insertions per 9000 words, which is less than the English original (see section 4.1). Below follow the Swedish insertions as regards their status as clauses, phrases or (in the translation) something that could not be classified as a clause or a phrase.

- 12 of the 72 Swedish insertions (17%) were clauses that became an English inserted or non-inserted clause. Their numbers in *Appendix 2* are: 3, 5, 36, 37, 38, 39, 49, 57, 61, 62, 64, 72. The following example is from insertion 72, where the insertion is a subordinate relative clause in both languages:

USA, som fram till krigsinträdet i december 1941 upprätthållit diplomatiska relationer med Tyskland, hade saknat en organisation för hemlig underrättelseinsamling och brittiska SIS hade på ett tidigt stadium förlorat alla sina underrättelsekontakter i själva Tyskland, något som man först motvilligt erkände för sina amerikanska partners när väl det bilaterala underrättelsesamarbetet inletts. (Agrell, 2006, p. 59)

The United States, which had maintained diplomatic relations with Germany until it entered the war in December 1941, had lacked a clandestine intelligence-

gathering organization and the British SIS had lost all its intelligence contacts in Germany at an early stage. This was something they only reluctantly admitted to their American partners once their bilateral intelligence work had commenced. (Agrell, 2019, p. 51)

- One of the 72 Swedish insertions (number 48) was a clause that became an English inserted phrase. This might contradict the hypothesis that insertions in the form of phrases are more common in English than in Swedish, and that insertions in the form of clauses are more common in Swedish than in English, based on some statistics given by Ingo (2007) (see section 1). This is also contrary to the results in section 4.1 where, conversely, no inserted clause in English was realised as a Swedish inserted or non-inserted phrase.
- 2 out of 72 Swedish insertions (3%) were phrases that became an English inserted or non-inserted clause. Their numbers are: 18, 47. This too might contradict the hypothesis that insertions in the form of phrases are more common in English than in Swedish, and that insertions in the form of clauses are more common in Swedish than in English, based on some statistics given by Ingo (2007) (see section 1). The following example is insertion 47, realised as a prepositional phrase in Swedish but as a restrictive relative clause in English:

Dess chef William T. Carlson, med täcknamnen Limit och Jigger, anlände i april 1944. (Agrell, 2006, p. 45)

Its chief, William T. Carlson, who had the cover names Limit and Jigger, arrived in April 1944. (Agrell, 2019, p. 37)

- 55 of the 72 Swedish insertions (76%) were phrases that became an English inserted or non-inserted phrase. This was thus the most common combination, similarly to the results in section 4.1. The number of the insertions are: 1, 2, 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 58, 59, 60, 63, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 71. The

following example is from example 50, where the Swedish insertion and its English translation are both prepositional phrases:

Tikander hade, med stöd av den brittiska underrättelsetjänsten, börjat använda en i Sverige bosatt italienare, Renato Senise, som underrättelsekälla. (Agrell, 2006, p. 46)

With the support of British intelligence, Tikander had begun to use an Italian living in Sweden, Renato Senise, as an intelligence source. (Agrell, 2019, p. 38)

- No Swedish insertion realised as a clause became something else than a clause or a phrase in English. This is different to the English insertions in section 4.1, which were sometimes translated into something else than a clause in Swedish.
- 2 of the 72 Swedish insertions (3%) were phrases but became something else than a clause or a phrase in English. Their numbers are: 13, 14. The following example is from insertion 14, where the Swedish insertion was not translated:

Både finansdepartementet och OSS hade behov av underrättelser om svensk krigshandelspolitik, valutatransaktioner och samröre med fienden, och Olsen kom under sin verksamhet i Sverige att använda omkring 150 dollar (motsvarande cirka 630 svenska kronor enligt den krigstida växelkursen) per månad för anskaffning av »konfidentiell information«. (Agrell, 2006, p. 30)

Both the Treasury Department and the OSS needed information on the Swedish wartime trade policy, currency transactions, and collaboration with the enemy. During his activities in Sweden, Olsen was to use around \$150 per month for acquiring confidential information. (Agrell, 2019, pp. 22–23)

Moreover, since the previous research in this essay does not specify the frequency of insertions as regards their syntactic positions and does not contrast English and Swedish, there is little reference to these in section 4.2.1–4.2.4. Nevertheless, in view of sections 2.1.1.1 and 2.1.2.1, the following general observations can be made which might indicate that the Swedish

translation is slightly easier to read than the English original, although only as regards the use of insertions:

- 7 of the Swedish insertions (number 11, 13, 29, 30, 43, 44, 54) are not inserted in the English translation. (Note that insertions in the beginning or at the end of the sentence in the English translation are not included here but dealt with below in this section, and Swedish insertions equalling part of an insertion in English, such as insertions 21, 58 and 69, are also not included. Also, insertion 14 is not included, since it was not translated. Insertion 54 in English was included after some hesitation.) This might make the Swedish translation easier in that regard, since Lagerholm (2008) claims that *inskott*, are “most common in formal, heavy style” and often makes the sentence “difficult to understand” (p. 140) (see section 1). He does not give any examples of insertions that are not surrounded by punctuation marks (see p. 140.)

- another 6 insertions (number 5, 18, 42, 44, 50, and 62) are in the beginning or at the end of the sentence. This might indicate that the English translation is slightly easier to read in that regard than the Swedish original, since these are positions recommended by Ehrenberg-Sundin (2008a) for inserted clauses (see section 2.1.2.1) and, as regards the end of the sentence, also for inserted phrases, as indicated by the example given by Mattson (2008) (see section 2.1.2.1). A difference, however, is that Mattson (2008) recommends that those phrases be turned into subordinate clauses at the end of the sentence (see section 2.1.2.1), which is not taken into account in this essay. Also, none of the sources consulted seems to indicate that inserted phrases should be put in the beginning of the sentence. Nevertheless, Swedish inserted phrases that are in the beginning or at the end of the English translation are in this essay also considered as facilitating the translation.

However, it should be remembered that the Swedish translation might contain insertions that are not in the original, and therefore render the translation more difficult. Nevertheless, such insertions are beyond the scope of this essay.

Finally, as for the syntactic position of the Swedish insertions and their English translations, they are presented in Table 9 as follows:

**Table 9: The syntactic position of the Swedish insertions and their English translations**

Syntactic position in English text	Between content adverbial and subject	Between subject and finite verb	Between subject and sentence adverbial	Between adverbial and finite verb	Between finite verb and object/predicative	Between object/predicative and content adverbial	Between object/predicative and coordinating conjunction of new clause	Between coordinating or subordinating conjunction (not relative pronoun) and subject	Between subjects, objects/predicates or between content adverbials, including when those are conjoined by a coordinating conjunction before or after the insertion	Beginning of sentence	End of sentence	Other position
Syntactic position in Swedish text												
Between content adverbial and finite verb	1, 61,								17,			8, 32, 54, 57,
Between subject and finite verb	36,	3, 6, 10, 12, 16, 19, 21, 24, 34, 37,	49, 71,		65,					44,		43,

		40, 46, 47, 55, 64, 68, 72,										
Between subject and sentence adverbial		38,										
Between subject and non- finite verb												
Between sentence adverbial and finite verb												
Between finite verb and sentence adverbial												
Between finite verb and object/ predi- cative					31,							
Between finite verb and content adverbial												
Between object/ predi- cative and content adverbial						23, 25, 26, 51, 52, 63, 69,				18,		14,

Between object/ predicative and coordinating conjunction of new clause						56, 62			5,		
Between coordinating or subordinating conjunction (not relative pronoun) and subject											
Between subjects, between objects/ predicatives or between content adverbials, including when those are conjoined by a coordinating conjunction before or after the insertion								7, 41,			11, 13,

Other position		22,	15,		9,				29,	50, 66,	42,	2, 4, 20, 27, 28, 30, 33, 35, 39, 45, 48, 53, 58, 59, 60, 67, 70,
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#### 4.2.1 “Other position” in Swedish and English

The most common grammatical position of the Swedish insertions and their English translation was that of “Other position” in both languages, which was occupied by 17 out of 72 insertions (24%). In a number of those, the insertion in both Swedish and English is within a clause element of the nearest superordinate finite clause:

In insertion 2, 39, 60 and 67 the insertion is within the predicative.

More specifically, in insertion 2, the Swedish insertion is, between the direct object *upptäckt*, which is a part of the predicative (starting with *möjligheterna*) of the nearest superordinate finite clause, and a post-modifying noun phrase of the predicative of that superordinate clause. In English the equivalent predicative starts with *avoiding*, and the insertion is followed by a post-modifying relative clause, rather than a post-modifying noun phrase:

Flygtrafikens enda skydd var därför möjligheterna att undgå upptäckt, framför allt genom att planen flög nattetid och i nedsatt sikt, något som gjorde sommarmånaderna särskilt vanskliga. (Agrell, 2006, p. 27)

Therefore, the air traffic’s only protection was avoiding detection, primarily by flying at night and in reduced visibility, which made the summer months particularly hazardous. (Agrell, 2019, p. 19)

The following example is insertion 39, where the predicative starts with *relativt/relatively*:

Den traditionella diplomatposten var relativt – men som det skulle visa sig inte fullständigt – säker. (Agrell, 2006, p. 42)

The traditional diplomatic post was relatively—but as it turned out, not completely—safe. (Agrell, 2019, p. 35)

The next example is from insertion 60, where the predicative begins with *professorn Finn Jensen/ Professor Finn Jensen*. More specifically, the insertion is between the head and a postmodifying relative clause:

OSS lokalrepresentant var professorn Finn Jensen (täcknamn Jenkins) som senare kom att tjänstgöra i Danmark. (Agrell, 2006, p. 50)

The local OSS representative was Professor Finn Jensen (cover name Jenkins), who later served in Denmark. (Agrell, 2019, p. 42)

Similarly, in insertion 67, the insertion in both Swedish and English is within the predicative, although this time between the head and a postmodifying apposition:

En av dem var Willy Brandt, alias Herbert Frahm, en landsflyktig tysk socialdemokrat som efter spanska inbördeskriget slagit sig ner i Norge. (Agrell, 2006, p. 56)

One of these was Willy Brandt, alias Herbert Frahm, an exiled German Social Democrat who had settled in Norway after the Spanish Civil War. (Agrell, 2019, p. 48)

In insertions 27 and 28 the insertion in both Swedish and English is in a text passage that is not a full clause, thus lacking a finite verb. In both occurrences, the insertion is within a noun phrase between the head and a postmodifying non-finite phrase:

Moral Operations Branch (MO), avskild från SO i januari 1943. (Agrell, 2006, p. 36)

The Morale Operations Branch (MO), detached from SO in January 1943; (Agrell, 2019, p. 29)

Counter-Intelligence Branch (X-2), inrättad i januari 1943 som en del av SI men från juni samma år en egen avdelning. (Agrell, 2006, p. 36)

The Counter-Intelligence Branch (X-2), set up in January 1943 as part of SI, but a separate branch from June of the same year; (Agrell, 2019, p. 29)

Moreover, in insertion 20 and 59, the insertion is within the content adverbial. In insertion 20 the content adverbial starts with *med översten... /with Colonel...:*

De första stegen mot att skapa en federal underrättelsetjänst med dessa uppgifter hade tagits redan sommaren 1941, då Office of Coordination of Information (COI) bildades med översten William (Wild Bill) Donovan som chef. (Agrell, 2006, p. 35)

The first steps towards creating a federal intelligence agency with these duties had already been taken in the summer of 1941, when the Office of Coordination of Information (OCI) was formed, with Colonel William (Wild Bill) Donovan as its chief. (Agrell, 2019, p. 28)

In insertion 59, the content adverbial is *vid Svenska Kullagerfabrikens.../ at the Svenska Kullagerfabriken....* Also note that in English the content adverbial is within the prepositional object starting with *in recruiting* of the nearest superordinate finite clause.

Våren 1944 hade Secret Intelligence via sin representant vid det amerikanska generalkonsulatet i Göteborg lyckats rekrytera tre svenska agenter vid Svenska Kullagerfabrikens, SKF, anläggningar. (Agrell, 2006, pp. 49–50)

In the spring of 1944, SI had succeeded in recruiting three Swedish agents at the Svenska Kullagerfabriken (SKF) plants via its representative at the American consulate general in Gothenburg. (Agrell, 2019, p. 42)

In insertion 35, the insertion is within the content adverbial starting with *inte minst...*, whereas the insertion in the English translation is within the predicative starting with *due to*. More specifically, the insertion is within a noun phrase in that content adverbial/predicative and a postmodifying relative clause of the head *ministern/minister* of that noun phrase.

Efter specialutbildning sändes han till Stockholm med uppdrag att senare fortsätta till Finland, något som aldrig blev av, inte minst på grund av det häftiga motståndet från den amerikanske ministern i Helsingfors, Robert McClintock, som motsatte sig alla OSS-operationer i landet. (Agrell, 2006, p. 41)

After specialist training, he was sent to Stockholm with the task of later continuing on to Finland, which never materialized. This was especially due to fierce resistance from the American minister in Helsinki, Robert McClintock, who opposed all OSS operations in the country. (Agrell, 2019, pp. 33–34)

Regarding insertions 30 and 45, they are within the direct object. More specifically insertion 30 is within the direct object starting with *OSS viktigaste/OSS's most important*, which is part of the non-finite phrase starting with *att kontrollera/to controll* in the nearest superordinate finite clause:

Bland annat kom OSS-stationen i Bern att kontrollera OSS viktigaste uppgiftslämnare i den tyska riksledningen, tjänstemannen vid Auswärtiges Amt, Fritz Kolbe. (Agrell, 2006, p. 38)

The OSS station in Berne also came to control the OSS's most important informant in the German Reich government, a German Foreign Office official by the name of Fritz Kolbe. (Agrell, 2019, p. 30)

As for insertion 45 it is between the head and a postmodifying relative clause:

Brewer ersatte en tillfällig SO-medarbetare (Hans Ericksson) som arbetat under en täckbefattning på marinattachéns kontor. (Agrell, 2006, p. 44)

Brewer replaced a temporary SO employee (Hans Ericksson) who had been working undercover at the naval attaché's office. (Agrell, 2019, p. 36)

As regards insertion 48, it is within the subject, between a premodifier and the head in both Swedish and English:

En stor, och som det långt senare skulle visa sig fatal, svaghet i sättet på vilket OSS byggdes upp var att rekrytering av kaderpersonal och agenter startade i full skala innan någon genomtänkt och systematisk personkontroll hade utvecklats, något som i sin tur förutsatte en verksamhet som syftade till att kartlägga, följa och bekämpa fientliga underrättelsetjänster och deras infiltrationsförsök. (Agrell, 2006, p. 45)

A major, and later fatal, weakness in the way the OSS was established was that the recruitment of cadre personnel and agents began on a large scale before any well-thought-out and systematic vetting procedure for individuals had been developed. In turn, this required an operation designed to map, monitor, and combat enemy intelligence services and their infiltration attempts. (Agrell, 2019, p. 37)

Insertion 53 is within the agent starting with *av centralt placerade personer/by high-level Finnish intelligence officials*. More specifically, the agent is within a post modifying noun phrase (starting with *chefen.../the head...*) and a post-modifying relative clause of that noun phrase:

I takt med att Finlands utträde ur kriget närmade sig kontaktades Tikander av centralt placerade personer i den finländska underrättelsetjänsten, bland dem chefen för den finländska signalspaningen, överste Reino Hallamaa, som sommaren 1944, mot väl tilltagen betalning, försåg amerikanerna med uppgifter om blottor i deras chiffersystem (se vidare kapitel 18). (Agrell, 2006, p. 47)

As Finland's withdrawal from the war drew nearer, Tikander was contacted by high-level Finnish intelligence officials, including the head of the Finnish signals intelligence (SIGINT) organization, Colonel Reino Hallamaa, who, in the summer of 1944, supplied the United States with information on weaknesses in their encryption system in return for a generous payment (see also chapter 18). (Agrell, 2019, p. 39)

It should also be noted that in insertion 33 and 70, the insertion is followed by a postmodifier of the subject, but preceded by another clause element. In insertion 33, the preceding clause element is a content adverbial in both Swedish and English:

Ännu en »löshäst« anlände till Stockholm sommaren 1942, Roy V. Peel, som varit gästprofessor i Sverige under två år i början av 1930-talet. (Agrell, 2006, p. 40)

Yet another 'loner' arrived in Stockholm in the summer of 1942, Roy V. Peel, who had been a visiting professor in Sweden for two years at the beginning of the 1930s. (Agrell, 2019, p. 32)

In insertion 70, the preceding clause element is a prepositional object in Swedish and a direct object in English:

Men två amerikaner deltog också i det som kom att kallas gruppens »inre krets«, Victor Sjaholm och I.S. Dorfman, bägge som representanter för den amerikanska fackföreningsrörelsen. (Agrell, 2006, p. 58)

But two Americans also joined what came to be called the group's 'inner circle', Victor Sjaholm and I. S. Dorfman, both as representatives of the American trade union movement. (Agrell, 2019, p. 50)

Finally, as for insertions 4 and 58, see *Appendix 2*.

#### **4.2.2 Between subject and finite verb in Swedish and English**

The syntactic position between subject and finite verb in both Swedish and English is occupied by 17 out of 72 insertions (24%), which is thus as frequent as the insertions in the previous section. The following example is insertion 3:

Hans hyresrum (hotellrum var det inte tal om) kostade honom nästan lika mycket som hela traktamentet. (Agrell, 2006, p. 28)

His lodgings (a hotel room was out of the question) cost him almost as much as his whole allowance. (Agrell, 2019, p. 20)

The next example is insertion 6, where an extra insertion, (*SF*), which is not in the Swedish original has been added:

I oktober 1942 hade Olsen utsetts till finansdepartementets samverkansman med det nyinrättade OSS, vars ekonomiavdelning, Special Funds, skulle sköta en utlandsverksamhet som till skillnad från State Departments måste hållas hemlig. (Agrell, 2006, p. 28)

In October 1942, he was appointed the Treasury Department's liaison with the newly created OSS, whose economic division, the Special Funds Branch (SF), was to conduct foreign operations that, unlike the State Department's, had to be kept secret. (Agrell, 2019, p. 20)

The next insertion is number 24:

Dess propagandadel, med ungefär halva personalstyrkan, blev ett nytt federalt organ, Office of War Information (OWI), medan de resterande delarna fördes samman till Office of Strategic Services som placerades under den högsta militärledningen, Joint Chiefs of Staff. (Agrell, 2006, p. 36)

Its propaganda section, with about half its staff, became a new federal agency, the Office of War Information (OWI), while the remaining sections were amalgamated into the OSS, which was put under the highest military command, the Joint Chiefs of Staff. (Agrell, 2019, p. 29)

The final example is insertion 68:

Den av Moskva styrda kommunistiska internationalen, Komintern, började i samband med det Spanska inbördeskrigets utbrott 1936 företräda en så kallad folkfrontspolitik som syftade till ett taktiskt samarbete mellan alla antifascistiska krafter i olika europeiska länder. (Agrell, 2006, p. 57)

With the outbreak of the Spanish Civil War in 1936, the Moscow-controlled Communist International (Comintern) began to advocate a so-called Popular Front policy designed to bring about tactical cooperation between all anti-fascist forces in various European countries. (Agrell, 2019, p. 49)

### 4.2.3 Between object/predicative and content adverbial in Swedish and English

7 of the 72 insertion (10%) in this essay were between object and content adverbial in both Swedish and English. The following example is insertion number 23, preceded by a predicative and followed by a content adverbial (of time) starting with *medan*:

Dess viktigaste enhet var Research and Analysis Branch (R&A), medan både Secret Intelligence och Special Operations var enheter som mest sysslade med planering och utbildning. (Agrell, 2006, p. 36)

Its most important unit was the Research and Analysis Branch (R&A), while Secret Intelligence (SI) and Secret Operations (SO) were both units primarily involved in planning and training. (Agrell, 2019, p. 29)

The final two examples are insertions 25 and 26, which, similarly to insertion 23 above, are preceded by a predicative and are followed by a content adverbial (of time) starting with *medan*. Note that insertion 26 is part of a larger insertion (insertion 25) but in the analysis of insertion 26 the preceding part of the insertion is included in the larger predicative:

Dess propagandadel, med ungefär halva personalstyrkan, blev ett nytt federalt organ, Office of War Information (OWI), medan de resterande delarna fördes samman till Office of Strategic Services som placerades under den högsta militärledningen, Joint Chiefs of Staff. (Agrell, 2006, p. 36)

Its propaganda section, with about half its staff, became a new federal agency, the Office of War Information (OWI), while the remaining sections were amalgamated into the OSS, which was put under the highest military command, the Joint Chiefs of Staff. (Agrell, 2019, p. 29)

Dess propagandadel, med ungefär halva personalstyrkan, blev ett nytt federalt organ, Office of War Information (OWI), medan de resterande delarna fördes samman till Office of Strategic Services som placerades under den högsta militärledningen, Joint Chiefs of Staff. (Agrell, 2006, p. 36)

Its propaganda section, with about half its staff, became a new federal agency, the Office of War Information (OWI), while the remaining sections were amalgamated into the

OSS, which was put under the highest military command, the Joint Chiefs of Staff. (Agrell, 2019, p. 29)

#### **4.2.4 Between content adverbial and finite verb in Swedish but “Other position” in English**

4 of the 72 Swedish insertions (6%) are between a content adverbial and a finite verb but have an “Other position” in English. The following example is insertion 8, where the English translation is a part of the prepositional complement *in the European Theatre of Operations (ETO)* in the content adverbial starting with *With operations...*:

Med en växande verksamhet vid olika underrättelsestationer och baser på den europeiska krigsskådeplatsen (European Theater of Operations, ETO) blev det emellertid omöjligt att sköta den kamerala verksamheten direkt från Washington. (Agrell, 2006, p. 29)

With operations at various OSS stations and bases in the European Theatre of Operations (ETO) expanding, it was, however, impossible to manage the economic activities directly from Washington. (Agrell, 2019, p. 21)

In insertions 32 and 57, the insertion in the English translation is between the head of a content adverbial and a postmodifying clause element in a so-called cleft construction (see section 2.1.3):

Först efter ett år, under sommaren 1943, började något som liknade en OSS-station vid legationen ta form. (Agrell, 2006, p. 38)

It was only after a year, in the summer of 1943, that anything like an OSS station at the legation began to take form. (Agrell, 2019, p. 31)

Först i efterhand, när kriget var över, fick OSS och dess efterföljare SSU (Strategic Service Unit) klart för sig vidden av det dubbelspel Hallamaa och hans medarbetare ägnat sig åt i Stockholm. (Agrell, 2006, p. 49)

It was not until later, when the war was over, that the OSS and its successor, the Strategic Service Unit (SSU), realized the extent of the double game Hallamaa and his colleagues had been playing in Stockholm. (Agrell, 2019, p. 41)

Finally, the translation of insertion 54 in English is preceded by a prepositional object and followed by a reference within brackets:

I takt med att Finlands utträde ur kriget närmade sig kontaktades Tikander av centralt placerade personer i den finländska underrättelsetjänsten, bland dem chefen för den finländska signalspaningen, överste Reino Hallamaa, som sommaren 1944, mot väl tilltagen betalning, försåg amerikanerna med uppgifter om blottor i deras chiffrsystem (se vidare kapitel 18). (Agrell, 2006, p. 47)

As Finland's withdrawal from the war drew nearer, Tikander was contacted by high-level Finnish intelligence officials, including the head of the Finnish signals intelligence (SIGINT) organization, Colonel Reino Hallamaa, who, in the summer of 1944, supplied the United States with information on weaknesses in their encryption system in return for a generous payment (see also chapter 18). (Agrell, 2019, p. 39)

## 5. Conclusion

Based on the research questions in section 1 in this essay the frequency of insertions was studied in the popular history texts *The Second World War* (Beevor, 2012b) and *Skuggor runt Wallenberg: Uppdrag i Ungern 1943 – 1945* (Agrell, 2006). With regard to these same texts and their respective translations *Andra världskriget: Del 1* (Beevor, 2012a) and *The shadows around Wallenberg: Missions to Hungary, 1943-1945* (Agrell, 2019), what was also studied was the status of the insertions as clauses, phrases or (in the translation) something else than a clause or a phrase. Moreover, based on the translation of the insertions some attempts were made at comparing the readability of each original and its translation. Finally, a comparison was made of the syntactic position of the insertions in the originals and their respective translations. The research questions in section 1 can thus be answered as follows:

1. The frequency of insertions in the English original is 111 per 9000 words, whereas in the Swedish original, the frequency of insertions is 72 per 9000 words. This might indicate that insertions are more frequent in English popular history texts than in Swedish popular history texts, making Swedish a more readable language in that regard. However, more extensive research is required for any general conclusions.
2. The most common pattern was that an insertion realised as a phrase became an inserted or non-inserted phrase in the translation. This accounts for 56 of the 111 English insertions and their Swedish translations (50%), and for 55 of the 72 Swedish insertions and their English translations (76%). Similarly, the second most common pattern was that an inserted clause was realised as an inserted or non-inserted clause, accounting for 25 of the 111 English insertions and their Swedish translations (23%) and for 12 of the 72 Swedish insertions and their English translations (17%). This might indicate that insertions in both English and Swedish original popular history texts are most frequently inserted phrases rendered as inserted or non-inserted phrases in translation to Swedish and English, respectively. It also might indicate that the second most common type of insertion in both English and Swedish original popular history texts are inserted clauses rendered as inserted or non-inserted clauses in

translation to Swedish and English, respectively. However, more extensive research is required for any general conclusions in this regard.

3. As regards the English original and its Swedish translation, the Swedish translation might be more readable since 34 of the English insertions were not inserted in the Swedish translation, and another 25 insertions equalled the beginning or the end of the sentence in the Swedish translation. Similarly, regarding the Swedish original and its English translation, the English translation might be more readable since 7 of the original insertions are not inserted in the translation and since another 6 insertions are in the beginning or at the end of the sentence in the English text. This might indicate that English and Swedish original popular history texts are rendered more readable in their Swedish and English translations, respectively. However, these differences between each original and its translation might be compensated by insertions in each translation that have no inserted equivalent in the original.
  
4. The most common syntactic position of the English insertions and their Swedish translations was that between subject and finite verb in both languages, representing 26 of the 111 insertions (23%). The second most common syntactic position was that between subject and finite verb in English but with an “Other position” in Swedish, equalling 12 of the 111 insertions (11%). In the Swedish original and its English translation the two most (and equally) frequent syntactic positions was that of “Other position” in both languages and that between subject and finite verb in both languages, each category equalling 17 of the 72 insertions (24%). This might indicate that the position between subject and finite verb is where inserted elements are most frequent in both English and Swedish original popular history texts, and that this information is kept in that position in the translations, be it inserted or non-inserted in the latter. However more extensive research is required for any general conclusions in this regard.

In view of the previous information in this section some questions for further research are as follows:

- What would be the answer to the research questions of this essay based on a different and/or more extensive material?
- Are there any insertions in the translated texts that do not have an inserted equivalent in the original? If so, what is the frequency, type and syntactic position of those insertions?
- As regards the frequency, type and syntactic position of insertions, do English and Swedish original texts generally differ from texts translated from these languages to Swedish and English respectively?

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# Appendices

Appendix 1. *Insertions in popular history texts. A contrastive study on translation from English to Swedish and from Swedish to English – appendix 1.*

Appendix 2. *Insertions in popular history texts. A contrastive study on translation from English to Swedish and from Swedish to English – appendix 2.*