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Equivalence in Translation Across Genre Types

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Abstract

The current research investigates the topic of equivalence in translation considering differing genre types as defined by Katherine Reiss and R. W. Jumpelt. The literature review first addresses the imperfect nature of translation in practice, then offers a working definition of equivalence for the purpose of the study. The remainder of the literature review considers factors which must be considered when attempting to achieve an equivalent result in actual translation practice, moving from higher level decisions which dictate the translation assignment as a whole down to more moment by moment decisions in structure and word choice. A series of six short translations from German to English was subsequently conducted in the genres of business texts and linguistic research to test the validity of the points addressed in the literature review, with review from Cedarville University German faculty as well as naïve readers employed to test how natural the translated texts sounded and check for loss. A modified version of Julianne House's TQA model was also used to check for changes and loss which occurred in the translation process. While the information in the texts was successfully transferred from the source text to the target text and the majority of the readers did not suspect the texts to be translations, there were errors detected which some readers identified as signs that the text was not written originally by a native English speaker, though not necessarily that the text was a translation. The discussion addresses some of these errors in detail as related to the genre types and the elements discussed in the literature review.

Keywords

German, Reiss, translation, equivalence

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Equivalence in Translation Across Genre Types

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English, Literature, and Modern Languages

Abstract—*The current research investigates the topic of equivalence in translation considering differing genre types as defined by Katherine Reiss and R. W. Jumpelt. The background first addresses the imperfect nature of translation in practice, then offers a working definition of equivalence for the purpose of the study. The remainder of the background explains factors to consider when attempting to achieve an equivalent result in actual translation practice, moving from higher level decisions that dictate the translation assignment as a whole down to more moment by moment decisions in structure and word choice. A series of six short translations from German to English was conducted in the genres of business texts and linguistic research to test the validity of the points addressed in the previous discussion. These translations were reviewed by Cedarville University German faculty as well as naïve readers employed to test how natural the translated texts sounded and check for loss. A modified version of Julianne House's TQA model was also used to check for changes and loss from the translation process. While the information in the texts was successfully transferred from the source text (ST) to the target text (TT) and the majority of the readers did not suspect the texts to be translations, readers did detect some errors and identified them as signs that the text was not written originally by a native English speaker, though not necessarily that the text was a translation. The discussion addresses some of these errors in detail as related to the genre types and the elements discussed in the literature review.*

Keywords: Translation, equivalence, Reiss, German-English, effect

Introduction

Translation is one of the oldest activities undertaken by mankind, dating back to the earliest written records available (Draganovici, 2010). Despite the rise in language learning worldwide, English knowledge, and automated translation, human translation is still an essential part of global communication. However, as most professionals can attest, there are good translations and bad translations. To address the question of how to improve poor translations, I review various aspects of translation which factor into making a natural, easy-to-read translation which can pass for a work written by a native of the target language. As a backdrop for this effort, this paper will contrast Jumpelt's (1961) and Reiss' (1981) genre models to determine what goes into making a good translation in varying genre type.

Background

Introduction to Translation Studies

The topic of translation suffers no shortage of study in academic studies, and equivalence enjoys a wide breadth of literature dedicated to its analysis. However, one problem which Chesterman (1999) notes is the apparent lack of connection between translation studies and the actual practice of translating. According to him, actual translators "seem to find Translation Studies irrelevant, metaphysical nonsense" (Chesterman, 2017, p. 45). He cites the descriptive approach to translation studies as part of the problem, which study translations as they are, as opposed to the prescriptive approach, which attempts to pass down norms and practices for better translations (Chesterman, 1999, pp. 46-47).

Chesterman (1999) finishes his essay with various propositions on how to close the gap between practice and theory: general cause and effect, causes and conditions leading to subpar translations, and causes and conditions leading to desirable translations (pp. 52-54). This research is geared toward the last of these propositions, namely on factors beneficial for achieving an equivalent effect in translation, as will be defined below.

Imperfect Nature of Translation

Before delving into some of the main topics under equivalence, a brief note should be made on the nature of translation in general, which the reader is to keep in mind in the course of this research. The reality of translation as a human activity means that, despite continual improvements to the translation process over time, there will always be errors or misunderstandings even in quality translations. This may seem a bold statement to make, but one need only consider that even native speakers of the same language often misunderstand each other to realize that a perfect translation does not exist in any sense of the word (Buzaji, 2019; Reiss, 1981; Yaqub, 2014).

Usacheva, Makhortova, Popova, and Novikova (2015), citing George Munen, put forward three factors in addition to lexical and syntactical elements that further complicate the translation process: the specificity of linguistic signs in each language, the incompatibility of worldviews arising from language in reflecting non-linguistic realities, and the differences in culture and civilization in which a language is spoken (p. 48). Considering all the above factors, the principal goal of the translator is not to search for a single optimal translation but to reduce the loss of understanding and information between the source text (ST) and the target text (TT), avoiding errors which seriously affect the principal understanding of the text (Hervey, Loughbridge, and Higgins, 2006; Buzaji, 2019).

What is Equivalence?

Determining how exactly to define the very term "equivalence," is one of the initial difficulties encountered in researching the concept of equivalence and its implementation in translation, as it appears that no two authors can arrive at the same conclusion. Fortunately, some roughly common themes do exist across the literature. Reiss (1983) defines equivalence as achieving the same functionality of the target text (TT) compared to the source text (ST), and later in terms of the relation of linguistic signs in two different

linguistic communities. Vinay and Darbelnet (1958) focus on the replication of the textual "situation" in the ST with different wording in the TT, all while maintaining the ST stylistic impact, which points to translation at the level of sense, rather than precise image (as cited in Panou, 2013). Similarly, Yaqub (2014) mentions the transfer of meaning from one language to another by replacing the ST's textual material (grammar, graphology, lexis) with that of equal value in the TT, while holding meaning constant and preserving semantic and stylistic features as the precise form of the textual changes.

Suchanova (2013), quoting Nida and Taber (1969), Oetinger (1960), and Wilss (1982) respectively, defines equivalence as "reproducing in the [target language] (TL) the closest natural equivalent of the [source language] (SL) message," an exchange of elements in the SL for elements of equal value in the TL and a transfer from ST to TT which assumes an equal understanding of content and style (Suchanova, 2013, p. 156). Suchanova (2013) herself regards equivalence as a central idea in translation theory for its role in helping to define the connection between ST and TT "in terms of the degree of correspondence between the text units" (p. 156). Pym (2010) argues that perfect equivalence does not exist and that a more accurate term is assumed equivalence, which he defines as a relation of equal value between ST and TT segments established on form and function (Panou, 2013).

A few common threads can be drawn from these various definitions and discussions. One is the idea of a one-to-one relation, or as close as one can achieve, between the ST and TT across multiple variables (effect upon the reader, semantic value, style, meaning, function), which is established via the linguistic signs employed. Another aspect worthy of note is the concept of communicating on the level of sense, not image, as differences in cultural background may sometimes make the latter impossible. Examples of this would be the Egyptian Arabic بكرا في مشمش , "there will be apricots tomorrow" or Russian когда рак на горе свистит, "when a crab on a mountain whistles," which both convey the sense of a high degree of unlikelihood. Panou (2013) makes a similar claim in describing equivalence as the ST and TT sharing a sort of sameness. For the present purpose of this research, equivalence can be generally defined as a preservation and maintenance of information and features from the ST in the TT in light of its context, another point which will be addressed later.

One final note worth mentioning before leaving this definition is the intentionally general definition of the term "equivalence." This paper is aimed at an analysis and practical implementation of various elements of equivalence theory to ensure quality translation, not at creating a comprehensive definition of the term and arguing for the merits thereof. That discussion is worth a research project all its own, complete with subsequent debate and review in the linguistic community. With that disclaimer, this paper will now turn to some of the factors to consider in achieving equivalence in translation, moving from those of a more theoretical nature to strategic decisions made at regular intervals in the translation process proper.

Degree of Freedom

This question of freedom of translation bears great significance as to how the end product will read or sound. Hervey, Loughridge and Higgins (2006) pose the question as an establishing factor before one even begins translating a text. So what degree is permissible

or even desirable? To better frame the question, we can look at two points of definition for a good translation as defined by Dmitri Buzaji (2019): in regard to sense and meaning, any errors which occur should not affect the principle understanding of the text, and in regard to style and formulation, the TT must adhere to that of the original. Keeping these considerations in mind, we can evaluate various claims about degrees of freedom. Eugene Nida (1969) speaks of two main kinds of equivalence: formal equivalence, whereby the ST and TT match in form and context, and dynamic equivalence, in which the ST is conveyed as naturally as possible (Panou, 2013). Newmark (1988) further developed this idea with his semantic (formal) and communicative (dynamic) translations, where the former focuses more on closely replicated the precise meaning and the latter on producing an idiomatic effect in the TT. He also noted that translators are not locked into either one of these categories but can alternate between styles as they work through a text (Panou, 2013). Relatedly, House (1997) posited a match between the ST and TT in textual profile and function of the original, achieved through equivalent "pragmatic" means, as a basic requirement for equivalence in translation (Mansoor, 2018).

Another factor to consider under degrees of freedom is open choice. This principle, proposed by John Sinclair (2004), states that the translator must be aware when certain words can be paired together while retaining their isolated meanings. The important factor to keep in mind is what words can be together and which must be together, a topic which will be expounded upon in the discussion on collocation. This form stands in contrast to "idiom principle," when words fall into a preset form, typically an idiom (hence the title), which must be translated as a fixed group and cannot be broken down further (Kesić, 2015, p. 68).

Two translation strategies which fall principally under degree of freedom include transpositions and modulations. Transposition involves changing grammatical categories while preserving the meaning of the text in order to attain an idiomatic feel in the ST (Jones, 2014). Modulation goes a step further than transposition, changing the manner of thought of a translation unit, shifting from concrete to abstract, cause to effect, or means to result. Equivalence is often seen as a form of modulation which sometimes leads to wholesale replacement of translation units (TU) for an equivalent in the TT (Jones, 2014).

To close this category before moving on to the next, I will offer some cautionary remarks on the question of degrees of freedom. Jones (2014) rates equivalence (as a form of modulation) as 6/7 on a scale of remoteness from the original text, with direct borrowing ranked as closest. Beekman and Callow (1979), in their work on Bible translation, warn against unduly free translations for deviation from the original and highly literal translation for being difficult to comprehend in the TL, preferring a modified literal or idiomatic translation as required by the translation task. Their closing words on the topic serve as a good guiding principle in decisions of degree of freedom in almost all translation practice: "be literal as possible, idiomatic as necessary" (Beekman & Callow, 1979, p. 44).

Level of Translation

Moving on from the degree of freedom in translation, I turn to the consideration of the level of translation, which determines the size of the linguistic unit at which the text ought to be translated. Although some variation exists across translators' and linguists' opinions, most

seem to agree on a handful of principle classifications, even if they disagree as to the level at which equivalence ought to be pursued. The smallest unit, not surprisingly, is the word level, translating a text word-for-word and producing a very literal translation (Jones, 2014; Kesić, 2014; Mansoor, 2018; Yaqub, 2014). However, this level has limited value outside of closely related language pairs and should be used cautiously to avoid nonsensical translations. Next is the clause/phrase level, translating groups of words as a whole unit to preserve the form of the original, especially between unrelated languages. Idioms and proverbs fall into this category, as the meanings of their component words are typically obliterated in light of the phrase's meaning (Suchanova, 2013).

The next level up from the phrase/clause is the sentence (Jones, 2014; Kesić, 2014; Mansoor, 2018; Yaqub, 2014). An argument could be made that this level can be included in the previous level but, given that sentences often consist of more than one clause, it seems right to give it its own classification. Mansoor (2018) argues that this is the highest level at which one ought to translate a text. The final level is that of the thought/whole text, though this level is not widely acknowledged for being too broad and risking a shift toward gist translation, losing the finer details of the text in the process.

An important note to make is that the translation is not limited to any one of these levels in the course of their work, as with degrees of freedom. Baker (1992) suggests the translator start at the word level then progress to the sentence (as cited in Mansoor, 2018). Another valuable point is the attention to context. Bakhtin (1986) states that purely linguistic elements, such as words, phrases, and sentences, only acquire meaning in the context of the whole utterance (text). Likewise, Saeed (2009) stresses the importance of looking at context, the phrase, sentence, and whole text, to clarify any issues of lexical ambiguity. Similarly, Comza (2019) warns against allowing oneself to be hindered by individual words or grammatical constructions at the cost of the text's communicative function. Considering the value of larger context in clarifying and specifying meaning in combination with the semantic content of individual words, the clause seems to be the most useful and practical level of translation, especially with idioms and in dealing with unrelated languages, as mentioned earlier.

Genre

Moving along from level of translation, the translator must also consider the genre of the ST to achieve an equivalent result. Bakhtin (1986) describes speech genres by stating "all our utterances have definite and relatively stable forms of construction of the whole" and that they have "certain stable utterances" (pp. 78-79). He also maintains that genres are governed by speech styles, including the consideration of grammatical forms as a stylistic decision. According to Bakhtin, factors determining genre include content of the text, linguistic style, and compositional structure. He states that, based on a knowledge of genre types, one can assume these factors in a text from its opening words. Reiss (1981) works from this assumption in her analysis of text-type translation, stating that the translator should begin by looking for stylistic cues and patterns to establish the text type, then subsequently delve into the text variety, a culturally fixed sub-variety of text type which is dictated by the linguistic norms of the language. She also warns against carelessly transferring SL conventions into the TT, which would produce an unnatural and inappropriate translation. Komissarov (1990) also considers the genre-stylistic features of

an ST as one of the two foundational classifications of translation type, the other being the psycholinguistic features of the text's speech acts (as cited in Burukina, 2009).

Bakhtin (1986) distinguishes between what he calls primary (simple) genres and secondary (complex) genres, with the latter comprising what we typically think of as genres, such as research, commentaries, and novels. However, he also notes that no successful taxonomy has been created to categorize genres by their content and style, citing a lack of a unified basis in the knowledge of language styles as well as existing taxonomies being random, inexhaustive, and insufficiently differentiated. Burukina (2009) makes a similar complaint, claiming that many typologies are too broad or too narrow. The following is a sampling of various typologies offered over the last 50 years: Jumpelt (1961) with six types (aesthetic, religious, pragmatic, ethnographic, linguistic, psychological), Reiss (1981) with three (informative, expressive, operative), Hervey et. al. (2006) with five (empirical, philosophical, religious, persuasive, literary), Russian traditional styles with four (communicative-political, scientific-technical, military, artistic) (Burukina, 2009), and Burukina (2009) with nine, not including expressive works (social-political, legal, financial-economic, medical, scientific, religious, technical, military, advertising). The point of the above listing is not to disparage any of these typologies but, rather, to show a more general problem the translator faces when considering genre in trying to maintain equivalence. Further complicating matters is the fact the genres can overlap within a single text, requiring a weighing of priorities for the translation at hand (Burukina, 2009; Reiss, 1981).

The complication around determining genre is made more bothersome by the fact that genre is a deciding factor in how to frame a text before setting about translating it (Hervey, et. al, 2006). Working within the bounds of her skopos theory, Reiss (1981) states that genre plays a key role in determining the author's intention. Shapochkin (2011) cites the importance of considering the field of the text at large, such as in political discourse, and being familiar with writing and style norms and traditions of the field in which one is translating to achieve the best possible equivalence. In addition to seconding this idea, Hervey et al. (2006) recommend that translators make themselves familiar with technical terms in both the SL and TL for the field in which they work to not mistakenly translate them as everyday words as well as with the logical trends and flow of thought patterns used within a field.

Related to the research at hand, some notes on the genres used for the purposes of this study are worthy of note. Reiss (1981) states that in the informational text-type, the translator should work on a basis of meaning and sense to maintain the content of the ST, which may include explicating implicit information of the ST in the TT. On a narrower scale, Hervey et al. (2006) stress the importance of accuracy and clarity of technical text (such as a linguistic journal), while allowing for a little more flourish in business texts to maintain a natural style. However, as Cozma (2019) found out in studying translations of EU legal texts, the translator must be aware of the structural complexity of the material at hand and be careful to not produce a meaningless, gibberish text.

Genre clearly holds a predominant role in the process of translation, and the translator would be committing a grave error to ignore it. All the same, the research demonstrates that there is no unified consensus on what constitutes a good text-type typology, especially

when considering mixed texts and how to preserve elements of both styles. It may very well be the case that one needs to find a typology which makes sense to them or create their own, based on research and rational consideration, as with Burukina. However, it may also be that trying to establish a set of hard and fast rules dictating what does and does not constitute a genre or sub-genre is a task that has no conclusive solution, a question which deserves its own research process and discussion. Perhaps a more modest solution for this study is to acknowledge that different genres do exist based on established norms and that the translator should look to works of similar style, period, audience, and content in guiding their translation decisions based on genre.

Audience

Arguably every text is written with a reading audience in mind, which the translator must consider when achieving an equivalent result. Several factors figure into this aspect of translation. The translator must determine whether the ST is intended for all readers or only a limited audience (Kallmeyer, Ewald, and Schopp, 2010). Even within a group of readers, the receiving audience is not homogeneous and the intended effects of the author or the translator could vary widely depending on whose intended effect is being imparted. Bakhtin (1986) emphasizes that, even in one-way communication, the reader must be considered an active participant in the communication process as a participant who may not respond as intended.

Reiss (1981) notes that upon a change in reading circles, "there is now no attempt any more to strive for a functional equivalence between the SL and the TL text, but for adequacy of the TL reverbalization in accordance with the 'foreign function'" (p. 122). In such an instance, where the ST and TT differ in purpose and function, a text-based typology should be replaced with a translation typology, that is, "to what end and for whom is the text translated?" (Reiss, 1981, p.131), which rather flies in the face of equivalence. Karpovskaya (2011), Kallmeyer et al. (2010), and Usacheva et al. (2015) widen the view on participants in the communicative process, including the writer, translator, publisher, and recipient, as well as the relationships at play among them.

An additional consideration regarding audience lies, not merely with the individual readers, but with the culture in which they live. Any attempt to achieve an equivalent result in translation must be based on a thorough knowledge of and familiarity with the culture of both the ST and TT (Jones, 2014). Kesic (2015), citing Lefevere (1992), and Mansoor (2018) note that once one moves outside the bounds of a linguistic family, in this case the European family, cultural and linguistic differences are thrust into the foreground, as with English and Arabic.

The above considerations speak to the importance and difficulty of considering the audience in translation. As with genre, there are several factors one must consider when addressing audience concerns, including the author, genre, time period, cultural background, and linguistic relation of the SL and TL. Presumably, using these factors as variables which change across translation assignments, the easiest text to translate would be written in the very recent past (about five years) into a TL closely related to the SL (French – Italian) in a similar cultural context for an audience who is familiar with the author and genre at hand. Likewise, the hardest text would be one written in a language

with no known relation to the TL (Aramaic – English) in a culture that is removed from that of the TL by values, perceptions, and time with the author writing in a genre unfamiliar to the current target audience Curiously, this set of descriptors is remarkably applicable to biblical texts.

Missing Cultural Categories

Appropriately following the consideration of audience from differing cultures is a short note on missing categories, concepts that may exist in the collective conscious of one culture but not in the other (Kesić, 2015; Yaqub, 2014). This could also extend to words which have no exact equal in capturing the same semantic qualities and pragmatic connotations (Mansoor, 2018). Beekman and Callow (1979) propose some solutions to this problem which, though not always perfectly preserving the form of the text, attempt to maintain the equivalent meaning of the ST. One such solution is modifying a generic word in the TL, specifying features of its form, stating its function and comparison, or using a combination of these tactics. Another solution, especially with culturally locked elements, is to employ loan words, typically with an explanation of word. The last option they give is cultural substitution, which preserves equivalence in terms of audience impact to the greatest degree by using a culturally understood equivalent of a word or phrase in the TL.

Lexical Considerations

Any discussion on translation must include lexical considerations, as words are the medium by which messages are communicated. Beekman and Callow (1979) classify lexicon as a key component of form, the basis for communicating the intended message. Shapochkin (2011), in his work on pragmatic equivalence, pays close attention to the selection of the best possible word to communicate not only the informational, but also the pragmatic aspect of the word used by the author in the ST to achieve what the translator perceives to be the author's intended effect for the reader. However, while not excluding the possibility of good translation, Jakobson (1959) argues that full equivalence between two words does not exist due to differing linguistic structures and terminology in the lexicons of the two languages (Panou, 2013). Saeed (2009) makes much the same point, attributing this lack to different conceptual classifications arising from linguistic relativity, especially between highly different cultures. Beekman and Callow (1979), in addition to making the same point as Shapochkin and Saeed, offer some specific examples of how lexical terms may not line up, including usage of generic terms in the SL where the TL uses specific terms or vice versa, such as when one commonly used word in the SL has a host of more specific terms in the TL, as well as where the specificity or generality of the word is not entirely clear even in context.

Additionally, the translator faces instances where one word in the ST has no one word equivalent in the TL and where explication may cause loss of some of the word's meaning or effectual value. Phrasal verbs and idioms also present their own problems, as they cannot be translated word for word but must be translated as a whole unit, requiring the translator to find the word or phrase to match the idiom or phrasal verb in the ST (Saeed, 2009).

As touched on in the section on genre, context plays an unignorable role in lexical considerations. If a word has more than one possible sense, the translator must consider the broader context to determine which sense is most fitting to the situation (Beekman and Callow, 1979; Saeed, 2009). Looking for common collates in reoccurring patterns via elicitation techniques can likewise help dispel ambiguities regarding context.

As a subtopic under context and semantic range, collocational range is worth an independent mention. Beekman and Callow (1979) define collocational range as the acceptable company of words in relation to the word in question. For example, "strong" and "powerful" have similar semantic meaning, but due to collocational restrictions of word groups, one cannot speak of "powerful tea" but can of "strong tea" (Saeed, 2009). As a rule, more generic terms will have larger collocational ranges than specific terms. Since collocational ranges differ across languages and are based in large part on choices and preferences of native speakers, the translator must be well studied to understand which words can hold the company of other particular words while still communicating the same idea as in the ST (Beekman and Callow, 1979; Saeed, 2009; Suchanova, 2013). A collocational clash, then, occurs when meaning components chosen conflict in meaning and agreement. Some methods Beekman and Callow (1979) propose to avoid collocational clashes include carefully studying meaning components of words and looking at both the primary (more common) and secondary (typically metaphorical) senses of the word in question (pp. 166-167, 172-173).

Saeed (2009) reviews several categories of lexical relations that a translator must keep in mind, either when analyzing the ST or choosing a word or phrase to use in the TT: homographs, where one written word has several unrelated meanings (letter: a written document or a unit in an alphabet); polysemy, where one word has several related meanings (говорить, "speak" or "say"); synonymy, in which multiple words have the same or similar meanings (use, utilize, or exploit); antonymy, where opposite meaning is expressed either as a binary pair (alive or dead), gradable scale (cold-cool-warm-hot), or reverse relations (above me or below you); and hyponymy, where a more specific word (hyponym) includes the meaning of a more general term (hypernym) plus an additional level of meaning (run or sprint). This last relation, notes Saeed (2009), can offer a view on various perspectives of cultural organization based on what words are considered hyponyms of others (p. 69).

As words are a foundational unit of language, the importance of their consideration cannot be overstated in the translation process, especially in attempting to reach an equivalent effect on the reader of the TT. Despite the frequent lack of perfect alignment of a word in the SL and TL in all categories, with careful analysis of semantic and collocational range, lexical relations, and context, a proficient translator can achieve a close, if not perfect, equivalent semantic effect.

Hierarchical Approach

Among other strategic decisions required for creating an equivalent translation, Reiss (1981) speaks of a hierarchy of equivalence criteria, whereby the key characteristic elements of an ST are determined for preservation in the TT. This is potentially at the expense of other elements in the ST, should various elements, such as wordplay and

meaning, contrast one another. The translator determines these elements based on features of the text as a whole, such as intended reading audience (if one audience is intended), text-type, content, and priorities of the translator as given in a translation brief (Hervey et al., 2006; Panou, 2013). The purpose of having a hierarchy in place, to cite Lörscher (2005), is so that "a translation … not merely conveys the sense and/or function of the SL text into TL, but … (is) an adequate piece of discourse produced according to the TL norms of language use" (p. 604). The value of a hierarchical approach to maintaining equivalence thus lies in establishing ahead of time what elements can and should be carried over and which must be left out due to linguistic constrictions, especially when dealing with wordplay or culturally locked items.

Ellipsis

In dealing with certain grammatical or lexical features, the translator may need to employ ellipsis to maintain an equivalent dynamic in the reading of the text. Beekman and Callow (1979) define ellipsis as omitting words from a SL for economy or adding for idiomatic effect (p. 70). Yaqub (2014) offers a couple reasons why ellipsis might be necessary, including economy of space in a text, emphasis on one aspect of a text, and holding to the structure of the TL (p. 228). He also mentions several levels of ellipsis, from the word level to sentence and word, depending on the amount of exegesis or concision needed.

Compensation

One final topic worthy of note in this study is compensation, defined by Jones (2014) as a strategy for rectifying deficiencies caused by missing semantic or grammatical concepts in either the ST or TT (p. xiv). Hervey, et al. (2006) use a similar definition along the lines of translation loss:

A technique of mitigating translation loss: where any conventional translation (however literal or free) would entail an unacceptable translation loss, this loss is mitigated by deliberately introducing a less unacceptable one, important ST features being approximated in the TT through means other than those used in the ST (p. 219).

This definition connects to the remarks on the imperfect nature of translation made earlier in this research and how important initial assumptions are in developing a translation strategy for everyday use. Compensation also relates to ellipsis, as many instances of compensation are in fact forms of ellipsis, where implicit items are made explicit or vice versa, wordplay is lost, or concrete items are made abstract, which typically reduces the equivalent effect upon the reader (Hervey et al., 2006). This concept will come into play in the translations done later in this study in dealing with the German subjunctive I construction that has no grammatical equivalent in English and is typically expressed via idiomatic means.

While compensation is a valid strategy, it requires careful implementation. Karpovskaya (2011) and Cozma (2019) both stress that whenever the translator deviates from the text, the move must be justified by the necessity of maintaining equivalence or in consideration of the understanding of the target audience.

Survey

In addition to the above conversation, I sent out a survey to several current translators to answer questions related to translation and equivalence. I received a survey back from one correspondent, henceforth to be referred to as Jan, who provided me with valuable insights from his time working as a translator.

Jan has worked on the translation of biblical narrative, hortatory, and apocalyptic literature for over 30 years from English into several languages of Papua New Guinea and has most recently started work as a consultant on an Austroasiatic language of SE Asia. He has not personally heard of Reiss' text-type theory of translation, instead working with Mildred Larson's Meaning Based translation theory. In discussing equivalence, Jan noted the difficulties in translation of biblical literature as being not only linguistic and cultural, but also chronical. He has subsequently defined equivalence in terms of "reproducing as closely as possible what the original author meant, which includes what the original hearer heard," while also stating that the genre type should also be faithfully replicated, i.e., poetry sounds like poetry, narrative sounds like narrative, and sarcasm is understood as such.

Jan also defined equivalence in terms of communication theory, whereby the speaker encodes meaning and the hearer decodes meaning. For Jan, equivalence in translation is not measured on a purely linguistic scale (i.e. free vs. formal), but more so on the level of meaning. As to the relation between equivalence and the translation purpose, Jan asserts the necessity to keep the two in balance, with the purpose informing the equivalence function. In his words, "I judge the equivalence of meaning by how well it fulfills the purpose."

Methods

I conducted six translations of my own to put the above-mentioned facets of achieving equivalence into practice, as part of my goal in this research is to bring practice and theory closer together. However, this plan required deviating from more traditional methods of study such as demographic surveys or SLA studies, and therefore, I decided I would conduct this research as a case study.

I chose Casanave's (2010) definition of a case study as the theoretical framework of my research. Casanave's definition of a case study as a tradition rather than a method is particularly important in this research, as my method of investigation, conducting my own translations followed by analysis of the results, does not seem to follow traditional methods of translation research. The focus of the case study approach on a closed context to enhance the understanding of a singular subject suits my analysis of Reiss' text-type theory and equivalence well (Casanave, 2010).

The project was conducted in three main phases following the completion of the literature review and the surveys. In the first phase, I conducted six translations from German to English, with all falling under what Reiss would classify as informational texts, while Jumpelt would place them in separate categories of "pragmatic" and linguistic literature. The first three texts were pulled from the German news website DW on the topics of China's economic difficulties, the Davos Summit in 2020, and Germany and the process of

leaving coal behind. The second three texts were linguistic research papers: the first on the topic of text classifications (appropriately enough), the second on the state of training for up-and-coming translators in Europe, and the third on the translation of metaphors in documents of the International Monetary Fund. In this first round, I made every effort to construct a faithful translation, that is, one which is grammatically acceptable in the TL that holds closely to the structure and wording of the ST and avoids idiomatic rewording in the TL (Hervey et al., 2006).

Before translating each text, I read the ST in its entirety to gain an understanding of the author's work and intention. The linguistic papers were not chosen with any special intention. However, the news articles were chosen for their differing styles. The China text is a basic text with little in the way of implied pragmatic meaning. The Davos text contains heavy use of the German Subjunctive I, which requires transformations to achieve a natural reading in English. Finally, the opinion piece was chosen as a text which has more idiomatic and pragmatically charged material, requiring special knowledge of the context in which the author is writing.

In the second phase, I revised the translations I created in the first round, trying to achieve a more balanced or idiomatic style that would sound natural to TT readers and communicate the same informational and effectual content that would be conveyed to the ST audience, thereby achieving an equivalent effect (Hervey et al., 2006). To do this, I modified the TT while working directly off the ST to avoid any significant changes of meaning or style. I tried to capture the sense of the ST author's work by taking into consideration the factors which were discussed in the literature review. One source which I feel worthy of mention is the dictionary website Reverso, which shows instances of the word searched for in context, as well as how it has been translated in other works.

In the third phase, I conducted a two-part evaluation of my translations. The first was a comparison of the ST and modified TT (TTm) through the lens of a modified form of House's 1997 Translation Quality Assessment (TQA) model, looking for loss of content or stylistic grammatical changes that occurred in the translation process. After looking for said changes, I compiled the results into a spreadsheet to determine in which translations various changes took place. The second part of the evaluation consisted of two external review processes. The first was conducted by the resident German professor at Cedarville University, Dr. Annis Shaver, to check for any major technical errors in meaning or sense. The second involved the use of "naïve" readers, those who have no direct knowledge of the project. They read each text and gave their feedback as to whether anything seemed unnatural or unusual about the texts. The news articles were given to twenty-seven local business students, with nine reading each of the three translations. Each student was asked what news source the article had come from and if the writer was a native speaker of English. If they thought the writer was not native, they were asked what gave them such an impression. The results of these component analyses were then compiled to provide an overall picture as to the successfulness of achieving equivalence.

As a final note of transparency, I acknowledge that I have little in the way of education in the field of translation. On the one hand, this fact allows for a certain degree of unbiased analysis in following the facts where they may lead me. On the other hand, it means that the

translations I produce may not be of the quality expected by professionals. I have chosen German as my language of work, as I have been involved in intensive study of the language for the last six semesters at Cedarville. German is also linguistically related to English, albeit distantly, thus making for a more suitable introduction to translation than my other language specialization, Russian. The genres in which I translated were also chosen for their relatively factual content that would not be heavily laden with hidden pragmatic content, perhaps the one exception being the opinion piece.

Findings

Translation Quality Assessment

The main categories of observations I identified in the course of my evaluation were as follows: SSO (switched sentence order), ignoring cases where such a move was required by the differences in German and English grammar; MMc/w (modified meaning at the clause or word level), whereby a related, more natural variant was chosen in place of a literal or faithful translation; CON (contracting two or more sentences into one); UT (unclear translation due to ambiguity in word choice or phrase structure); PC (possible calque); PO (particle omission); CLT (colloquial or idiomatic translation); MOD (modulation); TRN (transposition); ELLc/e (contractive or expansive ellipsis); COM (compensation); CT (cultural terminology), where a proper noun has differing names in two languages; and ULM (unlisted meaning in dictionary). The types of modifications refer to the manner in which the text was changed, not from what and to what the text was changed. Only the top four categories were listed for each genre and the overall count.

Across all six translations, I found 228 modifications from the categories listed above. Before looking more closely at the specific cases of modification, the total number of observations in the business texts (henceforth referred to as BT) far exceeded that of the linguistic texts (henceforth LT) by a margin of 148 to 80. The most widely observed categories across both genres were CLT (32), SSO (31), TRN (25), and ELLe (20). I also counted 11 instances of UT, some of which related to possible content loss, but most of which were connected to a phrase which had no clear, natural-sounding translation.

Perhaps even more curious than the number of instances observed between the genre types are the categories of said modifications. The number of SSO was close between the two, with 15 in the BT and 16 in the LT. However, while SSO was the second most observed change in the LT (TRN had the most at 17), it only came in fourth in BA. I observed 22 instances of CLT in BT, half of which were in the opinion piece, compared to only 10 in all LT. I also observed 17 instances of CON, ELLe, and COM in BT. The fourth highest amount in LT was MMw with nine occurrences.

The differences in number of occurrences between genres and frequency of modifications within genres point to the necessity of a different set of requirements when translating a text with the goal of achieving an equivalent result, the merits of which will be discussed later. The important fact here is the statistical difference in changes required between BT and LT. For a more nuanced and experienced view at the conveying of content and

pragmatic understanding, I now turn to the professional peer review portion of my findings.

Professional Peer Review

Dr. Shaver's review showed a marked difference between the business and linguistic texts. The vast majority of her notes concerned the linguistic texts, with only a handful of remarks on the business texts related to style and word choice. Some of her remarks touched on stylistic issues such as an unclear idiomatic translation or the translation of the German "sich" to English singular "themselves." Most remarks, however, were directed toward grammar and word choice which could affect the meaning of the text. Two such examples of word choice issues include the words "geisteswissenschaftliche" and "Sachtexten," which could be translated as "humanities/humanistic" and "non-literary/specialized" respectively (ignoring the "text" portion of the latter word). Another comment arising from ambiguity includes my translation of the phrase "die Gesetzmäßigkeiten des Übersetzens" as "the principles of translation," whereas Dr. Shaver corrected it to say, "the principles of the translation." As the linguistic texts have a scientific nature, their primary task is the clear communication of information, which must be transferred from the ST to the TT. Therefore, it is logical that the majority of Dr. Shaver's notes concern issues of clarity and precision. In no case did Dr. Shaver make any mention of loss of content, which, while not a guarantee that translation loss did not occur, does indicate that the main informational content of the texts was successfully conveyed from the ST to the TT.

Surveys

The naïve reader surveys conducted among the business students at Cedarville provided perhaps the most enlightening results of all. Of 27 surveys sent out, I received 24 responses. All nine students in group one responded to the China article, eight of nine in group two responded to the Davos article, and seven of nine in group three responded to the coal opinion piece. Sources which the students mentioned as to the origin of the articles included the New York Times, BBC, Washington Post, Wall Street Journal, CNN, Fox News, and Bloomberg, with three students recognizing the piece as originating from a foreign source. An objection could be raised here that the students were not asked if the texts were translated, and therefore, did not think to consider foreign news sources. My rebuttal to this objection is that these evaluations were designed to see whether or not the texts could pass as written by a native English speaker, thus masking their nature and signaling a successful translation and equivalent effect if nothing was suspected.

Eight students in the first group thought the writer of the article was a native speaker of English, and one did not, citing occasionally awkward wording such as the phrase "certain stability." One of the students who considered the author to be a native of English did cite the use of words of "however" and "yet," as well as phrases such as "Middle Kingdom" (in reference to China), to be odd for a native speaker. Overall, this translation was well received.

Five students in the second group thought the writer of the article was a native speaker of English, two did not, and one stated that there were no clear indicators of the author's linguistic background. As with the China article, the two students who did not think the

author was a native of English cited several instances of confusing wording, such as "himself those of the USA" and the use of USA and US as opposed to simply saying America. One of the students also successfully identified the text as a translation from a European news agency, even though this possibility was not expressly given. The student's evaluation is made all the more remarkable by the fact that this individual is not a native English speaker. Although not as successful as the first translation, the second was well received overall.

The most curious results arise from the third group of students. Of the seven who responded, only two believed the writer was a native of English, four did not, and one was not sure, stating that if the writer was a native speaker of English, his or her native dialect was not American. Those who did not think the writer was native consistently cited choppy sentence flow, unusual sentence structure, and word choice which indicated overreliance on a thesaurus, as well as an informal style. As with the second translation, this one was also identified by one student as a translation, going so far as to specify the country of origin. Needless to say, this translation was received the most poorly of the three.

Discussion

Results

The differences observed between the modifications made in translating BT versus LT show that Reiss' three-fold delineation of genres is insufficient for precisely achieving an equivalent effect, though it does serve as a good metric to establish the purpose of the translation. While such an observation would seem to make Jumpelt's (1961) or Burukina's (2009) more detailed approaches to genre more appropriate to achieving equivalence, the fact that some texts required different types of modifications than others even within BT and LT shows that genre classification is not a suitable basis for setting a standard of achieving equivalence. If someone were to try to create a genre classification for every type of literature based on the categories most needed to achieve equivalence, he or she could theoretically create an endless list of types. Therefore, it stands to reason that Hervey et al. (2006) and Beekman and Callow (1979) make an invaluable recommendation in stating that familiarity with the TL literature and culture is critical in producing a quality translation.

One issue which, looking retrospectively, I see with my translations, is that I tended more towards a faithful translation. While this did ensure a high degree of accuracy in conveying the information of both BT and LT, it also resulted in the texts sometimes sounding awkward and unnatural, a factor which Dr. Shaver and the students identified in their reviews. Baker (1992), Bakthin (1986), and Suchanova (2013) would likely view these errors as resulting from a lack of sufficient editing on the clause and sentence levels, as I focused more on the level of individual words and short phrases to avoid adding or subtracting meaning. I should have first established my hierarchy of criteria to determine what elements were most essential in achieving equivalence (Hervey et al, 2006; Lörscher, 2005; Reiss, 1983).

While there were few instances of special lexical difficulties, the presence of MMw in the translation rubric demonstrates that even between two related languages such as German

and English, missing categories and lexical considerations will always play a central role in translation at large and achieving equivalence in particular (Beekman & Callow, 1979; Jakobson, 1959; Kesić, 2015; Saeed, 2009). In this regard, one particular instance that I found somewhat difficult to successfully render naturally in English was the German "Kohlaussteig," literally "coal exit." While such compound words are perfectly normal in German, they can cause difficulties in translation. The mental image in English is clear enough, but sounds wholly unnatural, hence my rendering of "Leaving Coal Behind."

The main conclusion to draw from these results is the necessity of familiarity with the subject matter at hand to achieve an equivalent result. While the research does indicate a difference in changes necessary to achieve equivalence across the genres translated here, a hierarchy of priorities and knowledge of SL and TL usage norms are a much more fruitful line of approach than broad genre classifications when considering equivalence. Additionally, while the factors of equivalence listed in the literature serve as a helpful reminder of factors to keep in the back of one's mind while working, they are obviously not to be a strict checklist which the translator must keep on hand while working.

Future Research
One natural vein of future research on this topic is evaluating the previously mentioned factors important to equivalence in relation to other languages, including into and from English. It is likely that, as one moves further from closely related languages within a linguistic family and eventually into other language families altogether, the factors important for equivalence are thrust into the foreground more clearly as word-for-word and phrase translation are made more difficult (Yaqub, 2014). Such research could be helpful in preparing translators of those language sets as to what they can expect in terms of difficulties of translation and achieving equivalent results in practice.

Similarly, as Chesterman (1999) notes, further research is needed in the areas of applying theory to practice. One way which this research could serve as a platform off which to base said research is to look for other factors which contribute to equivalence in translation, which would ideally enable translators to render more natural sounding texts for their audiences. These factors, as noted above, likely vary from language to language, and given the number of language pairs in international translation (English aside), the field for research is rich in this regard.

Conclusion

The literature review of the present research addresses several categories which contribute to achieving an equivalent, i.e., natural, result in translation, here specifically looking at German to English translation, in an attempt to close the gap between translation theory and practice. I produced a series of six translations across what Jumpelt (1961) classifies as two genres, and Reiss (1981) classifies as one. After review by myself, Dr. Annis Shaver, and business students at Cedarville University, I concluded that thinking in terms of fixed genres was less effective in achieving equivalence than familiarity with TL norms of use. While genre is a useful tool in knowing what to expect in translating a text of a particular variety, there is no substitute for the multifaceted decisions one must make on

a regular basis in the translation process. In closing, no matter how well done a translation may be, as Buzaji (2019), Reiss (1981), Usacheva et al. (2015), and Yaqub (2014) recognize, there is no such thing as a perfect translation. My recommendation to the reader is simply this: if one wishes to truly understand in its natural form what the author intended, there is simply no substitute to learning the language and finding out for oneself.

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Appendix A: Translations (English)

Linguistic Text A:
FIRST LINGUISTICALLY ORIENTED APPROACHES

In the 50's and 60's, research in the area of machine/automatic translation was given ever greater concentration, and contributed to the consideration of translation as predominantly or even exclusively a phenomenon of linguistics, as the compilation of a translation theory that structured the language in such a way that the text could be analyzed by a computer in the SL (source language) and synthesized in the TL (target language) was essential for the implementation of a mechanical translation theory. (citation). However, it was determined that it was not technical problems that needed to be dealt with, but linguistic. The efforts to convey text- and text-type specific principles of the text configuration increased and set themselves up as a task to convey and order factors, and to establish correlations between the text function and constitution, in order to derive translation methods.

R. W. Jumpelt was one of the first to observe translation from a linguistic perspective and as a field of linguistics, and occupied himself only with texts from the areas of technology and science, similarly to Kade and Jäger some time later. His theory builds on the premise that the text type determines all criteria. He suggests six text genres: aesthetic, religious, pragmatic, ethnographic, linguistic, and psychological. With him, the grammatical-stylistic and lexical problems are dealt with. which appear as a result of the differing lexis and style of non-literary texts. Jumpelt spoke of "linguistic-stylistic adequacy" and meant thereby the grammatical correctness and adherence to the linguistic-stylistic usage norms of the respective text. However, he must admit that a scientific analysis of a text on lexical, morphological, and syntactic levels is not always enough, and therefore in the case of a text in the areas of science and technology, the content is given attention above all else, thereby the further linguistic functions are assigned a secondary role. The focus of his research is primarily the quantifiable requirements and linguistic aspects, so that the principles of translation can be described.

If in the past the attention was given to literary texts, the scope is now limited to scientific texts as a result of increasing demand concerning science, quantifiability, and ease of formalization. The goal, as much as possible, is the elimination of all factors that determine the translation and are considered subjective.

Albrecht Neubert deals with the problem of translatability and views the solution of the problem of the "optimal translation" as a first step that translation studies must make. It's about the adequate translation which can no longer be recognized as such, it's about the setting laws which secure the reformulation of the SL text into the TL text. Neubert speaks of a pragmatically adequate translation which is "simultaneously the most correct." In 1983, he considered a text as "well-formed" if it matches the norms of the parallel TL text genre. In Neubert, one comes across four types of SL texts, classified by degrees of translatability: 1) texts not specifically directed at the SL, transferable to the TL (i.e.,

technical texts); 2) texts specifically directed at the SL, by definition not for translation (i.e., legal documents, local news); 3) texts simultaneously directed at the SL and not SL-focused (i.e., fine literature); and 4) texts specifically directed at the TL (information for foreign countries). With 1 and 4, a two-level communication act takes place; with text types two and three, a translation provides information about a source text. His typology is based on an analysis of the text location, the culture-specific elements are left out, and the typology focuses principally on an analysis of the content of texts.

Although not initially, representatives of the Leipzig School speak about translation of texts and not sentences. As early as the mid 60's, their attention was not only on the production of texts, but also underlined the importance of their reception and understanding. Consequently, the mental-cognitive aspect was brought into attention in addition to the communicative aspect.

Linguistic Text B:

The activity of translation has existed from time immemorial, namely out of the need to communicate between civilizations and cultures. Although interpretation and translation are ancient activities and services, which belong to the most important achievements of human civilization, translation studies only became established as an independent discipline in European universities in the middle of the 20th century, as it was previously considered a part of linguistic research due to its interdisciplinary character. The tumultuous development of modern translation studies raises multifaceted questions, as millions of pages are translated yearly, with that amount steadily increasing, even as considerable attention is given to foreign language learning. Translators and interpreters who are thoroughly academically trained and have particular competencies are required for the demanding activity of conveying language and culture between countries and regions. This article is aimed at pointing out the heterogenous and deficient training of professional translators in Europe, especially in southeastern Europe. The almost revolutionary technological developments in the field communications have changed the profession of the translator and interpreter and subsequently its training. Đurović quite rightly claims: "A fundamental prerequisite for the translator and interpreter is internet research competence, which serves as an immense source of obtaining information. The internet provides an inexhaustible pool of lexicons and terminology databanks, as well as parallel and reference texts." The results of research in translation studies in recent decades have also altered the discipline and its teaching to a large degree.

The job of translator is not a protected occupational title. Anyone who has command of a foreign language and can translate a text from a source language to a target language can call themselves a translator. To protect this occupational group, the translator can acquire certain degrees, licenses, and designations, such as "generally qualified translator" or "government approved translator." In numerous countries, universities offer study tracks such as "Degree in Translation" and "Degree in Interpretation" or "M.A. Translation/Interpretation." However, in some southeastern European countries, translation and interpretation are still incorporated into the curriculum of foreign language studies. The present article deals with the institutionalization of translation studies in

Slovenian universities, which occurred in the mid-90's of the previous century, later than in other European universities, in the course of Slovenia's entry into the EU and its multilingual policy. Additionally, the translation paradox should be brought to attention and the question addressed of how much theory and research translation training actually needs. In closing, several considerations on the relationship between research, the market, occupation, and practice are presented, whereby the European competency profile for professional translators will also be discussed.

2. New Dimension of Translation in the 21st Century

The changes in the relatively young, independent, academic discipline of translation studies are the result of significant, cultural, political, and technological changes in the world, brought on by globalization. "Today, at all international meetings, in international businesses and committees, agencies, editorial offices, radio and TV stations, in diplomatic missions and governments in all countries, in border and customs authorities, in internationally active transport, export, and import firms, etc., translation is ongoing." The traditional perception of translation as an ancillary, secondary communication act has been enriched by a further dimension, namely that of global and international intermediation in the context of the democratic communication theory: everyone together over all and independent. As translation has ceased to be considered exclusively as a linguistic transfer of information, it has begun experiencing a new, further dimension.

Linguistic Text C:

The appearance of novel metaphors has increased with the spread of texts about the global economic crisis at the beginning of the 21st century. The overwhelming majority of these texts originate from English and contain many metaphors which are translated via differing methods. The chapter on the developments in the world economy and in global finance markets from the English-language yearly report of the 2010 International Monetary Fund (IMF) will be analyzed as the corpus of this work and compared with its translations into Spanish and German. 2010 posed a special challenge for the global economy due to instability, bailout packages for EU countries, and increasing debt. The IMF's evaluations serve as a measure of the world economy, and its yearly reports are read by over a thousand banks, government authorities, and universities (a listing of subscribers is available on the institution's website). The present research focuses on the following questions: What types of metaphors appear in the IMF's 2010 yearly report? What methods are used for translating these metaphors? Existing methods which have not yet been postulated? Lakoff and Johnson, who postulate the cognitive or conceptual metaphor, introduced a paradigm shift with their influential metaphor theory. They are of the opinion that metaphors are omnipresent and belong to human reason and action. The authors distinguish between structural metaphors, orientation metaphors, ontological metaphors, and visual metaphors, each based on the nature of the source domain. As the first parameter of this study's analysis emphasizes typology, all metaphors of the corpus will be categorized first according to the four types mentioned above. Thereafter, a second classification criteria will be applied in light of the cognitive metaphors used in economic terminology. This criteria was postulated by the economist Henderson (1982) and

distinguishes among three groups of metaphors according to their function and degree of specialization in economic language. The first group is comprised of metaphors that have a purely ornamental function, the second of metaphors of the standard language, and metaphors which portray specific economic problems or expand theories or ideas of the specific discipline belong to the third group. The classification based on Lakoff and Johnson's criteria (1980) as well as the economically focused differentiation of Henderson (1982), allow for the presentation of areas of agreement between both classifications. The methods of translation which were used for the German and Spanish versions of the corpus provide a further parameter for analysis. Dobrzyńska (1995) describes three possible methods for translating metaphors, which were thematized in many studies starting at the end of the 1990's. The first method is "metaphor through a similar metaphor" (M g M), the second functions on the principle of "metaphor through a different metaphor" (M1 g M2), and the third is "metaphor through circumlocution or paraphrase" (M gP). These three methods were effectively employed very often at the beginning of the 21st century in the translation of metaphors in economic language (Serón 2005; Ramacciotti 2012). The metaphors of the corpus translated into Spanish and German will each be classified according to the utilized translation methods. The question of the classification is, then, to what extent the metaphors can be assigned to one of the three aforementioned translation methods, or if further methods which are not mentioned here can be detected. The software Linguistic Inquiry and Word Count (LIWC), which enables classification of words by semantic field and affective quantitation, will be employed for the identification of the metaphorical expressions in the original English text. Subsequently, a manual search will be conducted to identify the aggregate of the metaphors in the text. These will all be entered into a databank to thoroughly determine the typology of the occurring metaphors as well as the applied translation methods in the corpus.

Business Text A:

Historically Low Growth in China's Economy

Such a level of growth would be a dream for most countries. For China, it's a disaster. In the past year, the economy grew only 6.1%, the lowest value in almost thirty years. Experts now warn of scaremongering.
China's economy is feeling the effects of the trade war with the USA and a cooling of the worldwide economy. After a growth of 6.6% in 2018, the Middle Kingdom registered a mere 6.1% economic growth last year, according to the newest numbers from the Chinese Statistics Office. However, experts emphasize the appearance of a certain stability in the fourth quarter. Accordingly, GDP grew by 6.0% between October and December, reaching the same value as in the third quarter. Economic growth was registered at 6.4% in the first quarter, and 6.2% in the second.

Still on Course
These values still place the Chinese economy within its target zone between 6.0% and 6.5%, as specified by the administration. However, they're also the worst figures in almost thirty years - the last time the economy experienced such weak growth was in 1990. The

head of the Chinese Statistics Office, Ning Jizhe, cited several worldwide sources of instability and risk leading to the economy experiencing "increasing downward pressure." The slightly improved atmosphere at year's end may be connected to the de-escalation of the trade war between Beijing and Washington, according to observers. President Trump announced in October the settlement of a partial agreement which was signed this week. The agreement provides for the two sides to not protect themselves with additional punitive tariffs. Furthermore, China has committed itself to considerably increasing its imports from the US. However, most observers do not see this deal as the end of the conflict between the old world power and newcomer China.

Weakening Retail
The Chinese retail market is also weakening, achieving a mere increase from 8.0% to 8.2% in the third quarter. The administration plans to stimulate companies in the internal market with measures such as tax cuts in order to reduce dependence on foreign exports. At the same time, online trade posted a growth of 16.5%. Experts continue to emphasize the contradiction between growing state control and the the necessity of creating a decentralized and consumption-driven economic system to reach sustainable growth.

Historically Low Birth Rate
Yet another statistic could serve as a source of unease in Beijing - the birth rate has fallen to its lowest level in 70 years. For every 1,000 inhabitants, only 10.48 children were born - the lowest number since 1949. Even the administration's abandonment of the so called One Child Policy has not brought about the hoped-for increase in the population. Above all else, observers see the economic concerns of young couples as the reason for the low birth rate. Many such couples hesitate to start a family, as they don't feel they are able to provide health insurance, upbringing and education for a child, in addition to the high cost of living and rent.

Aging Population Growing into a Problem
At the same time, more marriages are being divorced than ever before - in the first three quarters alone, 3.1 million couples filed for divorce. According to information from the Statistics Office, China currently has 1.4 billion inhabitants. As all Chinese are promised healthcare and retirement, the rapidly aging society could become a major problem for Beijing in light of the weakening economy.

Business Text B:

Trump Praises Economical Development under His Administration in Davos

President Trump's second appearance at the World Economic Forum was awaited with bated breath. Above all else, in his address he praised the United States' economic success and the trade deal with China.

At the beginning of the annual meeting of the World Economic Forum in Davos, President Trump praised the economic development of the US under his administration in the highest terms. In his speech, he said "America is growing and flourishing, and yes: America is winning like never before." In contrast to the previous administration with its low growth and stagnating or falling wages, Trump described the current development as "spectacular," predicting "huge" chances for the US economy in the future. "The time for skepticism is over," according to the president, and called for other countries to take an example from the USA, claiming that the "American Model" will produce the biggest profits of the 21st century.

Trump reaffirmed that the negotiations with China on the second phase of their trade deal would begin very soon. He also added that the USA's relationship with China has "never been better," citing that President Xi Jinping is defending China's interests, and Trump those of the USA. According to Trump, the trade deals he has completed, among others that with China, are a model for trade in the 21st century. Furthermore, he put forward future prospective bilateral trade deals, including one with the United Kingdom following their exit from the European Union.

Broadside against the Fed
The president also used his appearance in Davos to renew his critique on the US Central Bank. According to Trump, the US has reached an unprecedented level of prosperity and experienced a wave of new business foundings since his election. "This, despite the fact that the Fed raised the rates too quickly and lowered them too slowly."

At the same time, the president pledged himself to the preservation of nature and announced that the USA would join the WEF's "One Trillion Trees" Initiative. Despite upcoming worldwide challenges, Trump insisted on a more positive attitude regarding politics and economics, stating that fear and doubt help no one and that we ought to look forward optimistically without uttering the phrase "climate change." With these words, Trump set himself on a collision course with Swedish climate activist Greta Thunberg. According to the president, "We must reject the perpetual prophets of downfall and their predictions of apocalypse." Thunberg was also present in the audience.

Thunberg: As good as nothing done
At the beginning of the 50th World Economic Forum (WEF) in Davos, Thunberg accused top representatives in politics and economics of failure in the fight against climate change. Despite worldwide protests, practically nothing has been done, said the Swede in her first appearance in the Swiss winter sports resort. The seventeen-year old stressed the fact that emissions of climate-damaging greenhouse gases are continually increasing and cited the need for "far more" effort in this regard, warning "that's only the beginning" and demanding that governments must finally take climate change seriously. Though she could not personally complain of not being heard, according to Thunberg, the same can not be said for science and the voice of the youth. In her words, across the world, a consciousness for environmental protection has taken form in the minds of many.

Thunberg set off the worldwide movement "Fridays for Future" with her school strike and campouts in front of the Swedish Parliament. She was recently chosen as Time Magazine's Person of the Year and received the 2019 alternative Nobel Prize.

Other Young Climate Activists
In addition to Thunberg, other "icons" of the climate change movement were also invited to Davos, including Canadian Autumn Peltier, who has strived to conserve water from childhood, and Irish teenager Fionn Ferreira, who has come up with a solution to keep microplastic from getting into the oceans. Several youth climate activists demanded, like Thunberg, a stronger say for their generation in the fight against climate change. According to Natasha Mwansa from Zambia, the politicians have the experience, the youth have the ideas, and the two must be better integrated with one another.

On the first day of the meeting, WEF founder Klaus Schwab called the participants to cooperative efforts, stating that everyone can contribute to building a better world. "We can't just create a new world, we must," said Schwab, emphatically repeating the responsibility of the 50th Annual Meeting to deliver results. "This is a work meeting, not a talking shop." Schwab also demanded that young activists like Greta Thunberg must be taken seriously, affirming that "we must search for solutions together."

Business Text C:

Op-Ed: Leaving coal behind, the energy revolution needs new momentum
It's now official: Germany is leaving coal mining and its use as fuel behind. Now the foundering energy movement must reacquire its drive, because the need for electricity isn't going anywhere, according to Jens Thurau.

Good news first: the federal government has reached an agreement with all involved parties to stop using coal by 2038. It's about time. In the past, it may have very well seemed as though the effort to end coal usage in Germany would be dashed on the rocks of various challenges in its path. Now, the four federal states affected by the new law have also agreed that it should come this month.

However, this success has come at the cost of the concessions made by politicians to the coal mining regions. Around 20,000 workers will be affected if the surface mines and power stations are gradually closed starting now (and many climate experts say it's already far too late). 40 billion euros flow into the region, so the politicians are aware of the symbolic value coal has, both in the East and the West. The Ruhr effectively served as the engine of the "Economic Miracle" after WWII, so naturally it was difficult for those involved in coal to confront the end of coal industry there (the last mine closed a year ago).

Coal miners make the headlines

Even disregarding climate protection, the demand for brown coal would not have lasted economically beyond 2038. But as of late, the right-wing populists in the AfD (Alternative for Germany) haven't missed a single opportunity to decry the supposed betrayal of the coal miners in the East by the aloof politicians of the West. And while job losses in these regions are making big headlines, around 26,000 jobs were lost in 2017 alone in the wind energy sector without so much as a whimper due to the failure of the administration to promote its development in the area. No one is talking about billions of euros for those affected regions.

One of most important tasks of our politicians is to accomplish a turnaround in this regard. Germany, one of the strongest industrialized nations in the world, first left nuclear energy behind, and is now also leaving coal. That can only be compensated for by a massive development of wind and solar power, which although loudly called for, is only half-heartedly implemented in practice. There is great fear of angry local citizens who have already managed to hinder the construction of important new energy grids (wind power from the North for industry in the South). Many years ago, the administration characterized the energy transition as the "moon landing," but you can only get to the moon when everything works. Without the development of renewable energy, our spaceship is going nowhere.

The Administration is the One-Eyed Man among the Blind
All the same, there is now a resolution, very likely soon a law, which will regulate the transition away from coal. However, one look at Australia, where the continent is on fire in multiple places, yet the administration peevishly and unapologetically holds on to coal, demonstrates that the German government, with this arduous compromise, is still a one-eyed man among the blind. The tempo of further development of renewable energy must now be accelerated.

The politicians must now start a new dialogue with the people in the four affected federal states of Sachsen, Sachsen-Anhalt, Brandenburg and Nordrhein-Westfalen, with all their injuries and excitements. A first step could be stating that the coal transition is a black and white issue, and that it will soon be a law.