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硕士学位论文

从功能对等的视角看商务英语的翻译

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摘要

长期以来，奈达的功能对等理论一直得到人们的高度评价并对翻译实践产生了重要影响。本论文的主要目的在于探索功能对等理论的理论基础价值及其对商务英语的翻译工作者的帮助。奈达的对等理论将研究的重点转移到文本与读者的关系上，以读者的反映作为评价翻译的标准，从而在翻译界独树一帜。

众所周知，随着经济全球化的发展，国际商务已非常普遍，商务英语的作用日益突出，很多人都在研究商务英语的翻译。但到目前为止，从笔者所掌握的材料看，商务翻译还有大量的研究工作需要去做。

本文通过把对等理论，特别是奈达的功能对等理论运用于商务英语之中，将商务英语的语言特征和对商务英语的研究有机地结合在一起。奈达的功能对等"首先是意义上的对等，其次是风格的对等"。奈达主张译文读者对译文的反应应与源文读者对源文的反应一致。我们认为上述两点实际上是一样的。因为如果源文与译文在意义与风格上是功能对等的，那么读者对两者的反应必然是一样或大致一样的。

为了证明这一理论能够应用于商务英语的翻译，我们从功能和风格两个角度总结了商务英语的特征。就功能而言，我们认为商务英语主要有两个功能，信息功能和交际功能；就风格而言，我们认为商务英语具有如下特征：清晰，简洁，精确，一致，谦让，形式性和完整性。

以此为基础，我们翻译了大量商务英语的例子，在词，句，文本各个层次都取得了意义和风格上的对等。这充分表明功能对等理论完全能够应用于商务英语的翻译。但另一方面，对等理论也需要进一步改进。

关键词：商务英语，翻译，功能对等，文化

Abstract

Dr. Nida's theory of functional equivalence has been highly valued and has influenced the practice of translation in general. The primary purpose of this paper is an attempt to explore the theoretical basis of Nida's functional equivalence theory and provide practical help to translators in translating business English. As different from other equivalence theory, Nida's equivalence theory distinguished itself by shifting it's focus of attention to the relationship between text and reader, and by regarding reader's response as the criterion of translation.

It's known to all that with the globalization of economy, international business is now very common and business English is being more and more important. A great many people are doing research work on business English and business English translation. But as far as the author of this paper can see, our translation work still leaves much to be desired. The study of these underlying difficulties becomes quite necessary and important.

This paper combines the language features of business English with the study of business English translation. We have done the two by applying equivalence theory, especially Nida's functional equivalence. By functional equivalence, Nida refers to the equivalence "first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style". Nida also holds that the degree to which the receptors of the message in the receptor language respond to the TLT should be the same as the degree to which the receptors in the source language respond to the SLT. We think the two points above are in effect the same because when the TLT and the SLT are functionally equivalent in meaning and style, the degree to which the receptors of the message in the receptor language respond to the TLT is surely the same or almost the same as the degree to which the receptors in the source language respond to the SLT

In order to prove that this theory can be best applied to business English translation, we summarized the language features of business English from two perspectives, namely, the perspective of function and the perspective of style. In view of function, we think business English mainly has two functions, the informative function and the interpersonal function. In view of style, we think business English language has the following features:“ clearness, conciseness, correctness, consistency, courtesy, formality and completeness”.

On the basis of the above discussion, we have translated plenty of examples of business English, achieving functional equivalence in both meaning and style at the word level, the sentence level and the discourse level. This result indicates that Nida's theory of functional equivalence can be best applied in business English translation and functional equivalence can be achieved. On the other hand, equivalence theory still needs to be improved.

Key words: business English, translation, functional equivalence, culture

List of Abbreviations

ST= source text

SL = source language

TL= target language

TR= target reader

TT= target text

SLT=source language text

TLT=target language text

ESP=English for specific purpose

EGP=English for general purpose

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INTRODUCTION

The emergency of business English is both the outcome of social development and English linguistic development itself. In the age of Knowledge Economy of the 21st century, as an important functional product of English, business English shows its overwhelming strength. Its application ability and spread are salient, which is an undisputable fact and exciting phenomenon. It is said that there are altogether 1.6 billion people in the world who use English as their first language or second language and almost 90% of them use business English everyday. For Chinese businessmen, whose native language is not English, business translation is an indispensable tool for them when they do business with their counterparts from English-speaking countries since English nowadays is an international language.

There are many reasons for the necessity of spreading business translation in China today. Firstly, not all Chinese businessmen, at least for now and in the foreseeable future, are competent in English especially in business English. Many businessmen still depend on their interpreters or translators. Or even worse, most businessmen are not competent enough by now to communicate in English directly with their counterparts and customers from English-speaking countries. Secondly, government officials and decision-makers of domestic business organizations need translated business documents for reference and making decisions. Globalization may mean many non-English speakers get involved in international business while business translation is an essential contribution to equipping those persons to make the wheels of China's relations and trades with the outside world turn smoothly. Thirdly, legal issues, especially international business litigations have to be processed through English since many witnesses and evidences have to be obtained and elaborated in English. For Chinese, after China's accession to World Trade Organization, more and more businessmen have access to the outside world to expand their businesses. However, language becomes a prominent issue for more and more Chinese businessmen. Under this circumstance, business translation plays a critical role in international trade for Chinese businessmen. It is of vital importance not only for businessmen but for the development of Chinese economy.

As researchers in the field of translation, we all know that there are five translation developments in China from the religious translation about two thousand years ago till the present day. During this long period of time, there have appeared a great many translators and translation theorists like Ma Jianzhong, Yan Fu, Lin Shu, Lu Xun, Fu Lei and Qian Zhongshu and the contemporary translation experts like Wang Zuoliang and Xu Yuanchong, Liu Zhongde, Wang Zongyan etc. The works translated have ranged from the world famous novels to scientific pieces. The focus in translation theory seems to have been on literal translation and free translation, or on the faithfulness and the smoothness of the translation. In the western world, there have also been five developments in translation. Though the works are mainly translated from one western language to another, it is a kind of cross-culture work. Translators have been doing a lot of researches on the relation between linguistics and translation. There are a number of linguists and translators researching on the translation theory and practice, among whom Eugene A. Nida from America may be considered the one who has made the greatest contribution to the translation field and who has influenced the field most deeply.

Encouraged by Nida, Tan Zaixi and many other Chinese translators have put forward the idea of advocating a completely separate new subject of translatology-a science separated from linguistics. (It' s said that the advocator Nida has changed his idea later though.) Also it's said that his dynamic equivalence has once dominated the field of translation. The "dynamic equivalence" has been changed into the "functional equivalence" in order to avoid misunderstanding. (Excerpted from Jin Di's *On Equivalent Translation*). True, this is a dominating theory and has a macro-control over the field of translation. Just as Nida said, translating a message is translating its meaning (of course, not including poems). "Translating consists in reproducing in the receptor language the closest natural equivalent of the source language, first in terms of meaning and secondly in terms of style."

In the Chinese academic field, more and more scholars have come to make researches on translating and translation, intending to establish a discipline called Translatology. In the history of China there have ever been so many people as today who are dedicating so much time and effort to the task of translation. More and more work has been done on the re-translation of world- famous novels such as The Red and the Black, Anna Kareninna, The Dream of Red Mansion and some other literary works. Much work has also been done on contrastive studies of Chinese and English language. Much effort has been made on the establishment of Chinese translation theory. There's also been work and effort done on the translation of scientific works, and on the related translation theory. However, it has been taken for granted that the translation of scientific works or materials or those of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) is just literal translation or the translation of lower rank. So there is no necessity to spend time studying the translating and translation of ESP. That is to say, literature translation has been the focus of people's attention.

Nevertheless, with the deepening of globalization of world economy, international business intercourse has been in a much more frequent trend. The English involved in various fields in commercial activities, such as technology transfer, foreign trade, the introduction of foreign investment, international financing, transnational tourism, international transportation, is as a whole called business English. English has become an indispensable linguistic communication means in the field of world economy. And it is reported in statistics that nearly 90% of those who use English as their first language or second language approach business English every day.

As a tool in cross-national commercial exchange, business English has been encountering a conflict in translation between supply and demand. On the one hand, translators in all lines have all their hands full and busy because of the gradual expansion of international exchange and cooperation and more onerous tasks involved in C-E or E-C business translation; on the other hand, by means of some modern media, such as e-commerce and internet, translators are requested to provide quick and correct commercial messages of high quality, and, as a result, they have much less time to dwell on the wording and specific skills and techniques. Under such conditions, translators are required to improve their speed and quality of translation through conversance with commercial knowledge and proficient skills in business English translation.

And since a few years ago, pragmatic translation has been attached great importance to. ESP is a kind of pragmatic language. As a branch of ESP, business English began to be studied about 20 years ago. And the translation of business English is becoming more and more important because it has been playing a very important role both in the economic world and people's life. Business letters, contracts, telexes and telegraphs, e-mails, different kinds of documents like policies, letters of credit, arbitrary documents, advertisements all belong to this category. Most of the time, both versions of Chinese and English are needed, and sometimes businessmen who don't speak English need translation. Moreover, contracts are often prepared bilingually in the international trade. As a result, Business English, as a subject, is offered in more than 200 universities. According to the data of Oct.2004, over 400 colleges and universities are offering business English courses in China. This is the very reason why business English translation should be brought to the point.

It is true that a few scholars including some university teachers have been doing something on business English translation. For example, much work has been done on the skills of how to translate the terminologies, long sentences with adverbial and attributive clauses in contracts. Also much effort has been made on the theory of business English translation. And at the same time, the style and language features of business English have been discussed. But as far as I know, the work is far from being systematic.

In view of the above-said cases, this paper aims to solve the following problems:

1. Why can Nida's Functional Equivalence principle be applied to the translation of business English?

2. What are the language features of business English? and

3. How is functional equivalence achieved in business English translation?

This thesis will contain five chapters:

Chapter One will be a literature review. It will introduce Nida's theory of functional equivalence in detail. It will illustrate how he advocated this theory, what the content of this theory is, and why it can be applied to business English translation. At the same time, a comparison will be made between Nida's theory and some other theories.

Chapter Two is to describe the language features of business English. It will describe the features of business English from two perspectives: the perspective of function and the perspective of style.

Chapter Three argues that the translation of business English is a kind of cross-cultural translation.

Chapter Four will be focused on skills and strategies for business translation under the guidance of Nida's theory of functional equivalence. Of course, this will be the core part of the thesis.

Chapter Five deals with the shortcomings of Nida's theory and tries to put forward some new suggestions.

The end of this thesis will be the conclusion, which will summarize the main results achieved from the present study.

Chapter 1 Literature Review

1.1 Equivalence in Previous Translation Studies

Equivalence is an ideal goal in translation. The main goal of translation is to establish a particular type of correspondence between the source text and the target text. The nature of correspondence has been referred to as "faithfulness" or "fidelity", or more predominantly, as "equivalence", which has been defined in a multitude of ways, in a huge amount of literature.

Using the word equivalence might probably cause the impression of seeking the absolute corresponding equivalent expressions in two languages. But this is not the case. Equivalence cannot be understood in its mathematical meaning of identity, but should be understood in terms of proximity. There are no two foliages that are exactly alike. In the same way, the ideal of exact equivalence is unlikely to be achieved because there are few absolute synonyms between two languages; and something is always lost (or even gained) in the translating process. What the translator is pursuing is to produce a rendition as close to the ideal as possible

Equivalence can be said to be the central issue in translation although its definition within the field of translation has caused heated controversy. Many different theories on the concept of equivalence not only have their own shining points but also help develop and enrich the translation theory. The theory of equivalence has been studied by many scholars---Jakobson, Nida and Taber, Catford, House, Wilss and Newmark. Their studies of equivalence are in relation to the translation process, with different approaches, and have provided fruitful ideas for further study on this topic. For instance, we have "equivalence in difference" (Jacobson, 1959: 232), "closest natural equivalent" (Nida, 1964:159), "formal equivalence" vs. "dynamic equivalence" (Nida & Taber, 1982: 200), "communicative equivalence" (Jager, 1973: 47-61), "pragmatic equivalence" (Wilss, 1982: 3; Baker, 1992: 217). These theories have been developed through different stages. In the early stages. there are those translation theorists who are in favor of a linguistic approach to translation and who seem not to be aware that translation in itself is not just a linguistic matter. In fact, when a message is transferred from the SL to TL, the translator is also dealing with two different cultures at the same time. This aspect has been taken into consideration by a group of theorists in the later stage. They are in favor of a pragmatic or functionally oriented approach to translation. However, there are other translation scholars who seem to stand in the middle, such as Baker, who claims that equivalence is used "for the sake of convenience because most translators are used to it rather than because it has any theoretical status" (Kenny. 1998: 77). Equivalence has been defined and explained in various ways. Being aware of this, Baker (1993: 236) declares that the question is no longer how equivalence might be achieved but, increasingly, what kind of equivalence can be achieved, and in what contexts.

1.1.1 Jakobson and the Concept of Equivalence in Difference

Roman Jakobson's study of equivalence gave new contribution to the translation theory since he introduced the concept of "equivalence in difference". On the basis of his semiotic approach to language and his famous words "there is no signatum without signum"(1959:232), he suggests three kinds of translation: Intralingual (within one language, i.e. rewording or paraphrase), Interlingual (between two languages), Intersemiotic (between sign systems). Jakobson claims that, in the case of interlingual translation, the translator makes use of synonyms in order to get the ST message across. This means that in interlingual translations there is little full equivalence between code units. According to his theory, "translation involves two equivalent messages in two different codes". Jakobson says that from a grammatical point of view languages may differ from one another to a greater or lesser degree, but this does not mean that a translation cannot be possible, in other words, the translator may face the problem of not finding a translation equivalent. He believes that translation can never become impossible since there are several methods a translator can choose such as loanwords or loan-translations, neologisms or semantic shifts, and finally, by circumlocutions, regardless of cultural and grammatical differences. It can be concluded that Jakobson's theory is essentially based on his semiotic approach to translation according to which the translator has to recode the ST message first and then s/he has to transmit it into an equivalent message for the target culture.

1.1.2 Meetham and Hudson and Their Definition of Equivalence

Meetham and Hudson claim that the main goal of translation is, no doubt, to establish a particular type of correspondence between the ST and the TT. The nature of correspondence has been referred to "faithfulness" and "fidelity", or more predominantly to the concept of "equivalence":

"Translation is the replacement of a representation of a text in one language by a representation of an equivalent text in a second language." (Meetham & Hudson, 1972:713)

The authors continue to make the problem of equivalence very plain, "Texts in different languages can be equivalent in different degrees (fully or partially equivalent), in respect of different levels of presentation (equivalent in respect of context, of semantics, of grammar, of lexis, etc.) and at different ranks (word-for-word, phrase-for-phrase, sentence-for-sentence)."

Meetham and Hudson as well as Jakobson conceive the translation task as something that can always be carried out from one language to another, regardless of the cultural or grammatical differences between source text and target text. Their researches belong to the first stage.

1.1.3 Wilss' Definition of Equivalence

Wilss (1982a:134) states that "the concept of TE (translation equivalence) has been an essential issue not only in translation theory over the last 2000 years, but also in modern translation studies" and that "there is hardly any other concept in translation theory which has produced as many contradictory statements and has set off as many attempts at an adequate, comprehensive definition as the concept of TE between SLT (source language text) and TLT (target language text)". In his definition, "translation is a transfer process which aims at the transformation of a written SL text into an optimally equivalent TL text, and which requires the syntactic, the semantic and the pragmatic understanding and analytical processing of the SL text" (1982b: 3). His phrase "optimally equivalent" is reasonably appropriate, the problem is that he fails to present what makes the optimality.

1.1.4 Newmark's Dichotomy

Newmark (1981:38) states that "opinion swung between literal and free, faithful and beautiful, exact and natural translation, depending on whether the bias was to be in favor of the author or the reader, the source or the target language of the text." He categorizes translation by a degree of dependence on source language emphasis or target language emphasis as follows (1988: 45)

source language emphasis	target language emphasis
word-for-word translation	adaptation
literal translation	free translation
faithful translation	idiomatic translation
semantic translation	communicative translation

Newmark says "communicative translation attempts to produce on its readers an effect as close as possible to that obtained on the readers of the original" and that "semantic translation attempts to render, as closely as the semantic and syntactic structure of the second language allow, the exact contextual meaning of the original" (1981: 39).

Wilss and Newmark are making progress on the concept of equivalence because they draw their study away from the linguistic aspects of translation and regard translation as a form of communication.

1.2 Nida's Functional Equivalence

1.2.1 Functional Equivalence and Dynamic Equivalence

The adequacy of translation has traditionally been judged on the basis of the correspondence in lexicon and grammar between the source and target languages. The correspondence has frequently been stated in terms of "equivalence", even though the term equivalence is often not used. There is, however, a serious problem involved in discussing the adequacy of a translated text primarily in terms of lexical and grammatical features, or even in terms of discourse structures. Translation means communication, and this process depends on what is received by persons hearing or reading a translation. Judging the validity of a translation cannot stop with a comparison of corresponding lexical meanings, grammatical classes, and rhetorical devices. What is important is the extent to which receptors correctly comprehend and appreciate the translated text. Accordingly, it is essential that functional equivalence be stated primarily in terms of comparison of the way in which the original receptors comprehend and appreciate the text and the way in which receptors of the translated text comprehend and appreciate the translated text.

There are a number of fundamental problems involved in studying translation adequacy in terms of "readers' responses". In the first place, it is often very difficult to determine how the original readers comprehend the text and in the second place, it is frequently impossible to evaluate effectively the responses of those who read a translated text. One of the reasons for this latter difficulty is that many people have certain presuppositions about what a translated text should be like. They not only expect a literal, awkward text, but also often believe that if a translation is not linguistically peculiar, then it is not a faithful translation of the original. Some people assume that a valid judgment about a translation could be obtained by asking people to rate a translation on a seven-point scale in terms of such features as accurate/inaccurate, good style/poor style, idiomatic/flat, and easy/hard, but the bases for judgment would differ so radically from one person to the next that nothing really worthwhile would be derived from such a process.

According to Eugene A. Nida (*Language And Culture-Contexts in Translating, 2001*), the adequacy of a translation depends on a great many different factors: the reliability of the ST itself, the discourse type (from lyric poetry to grocery lists), the intended audience, the manner in which the translated text is to be used (e.g. read in the quiet of one's study or acted on the stage), and the purpose for which the translation has been made, e.g. to inform, to change behavior, to amuse, or to sell a product. These same factors apply not only to the translated text, but also to the original, a fact that only complicates any evaluation of a translation.

In general it is best to speak of "functional equivalence" in terms of a range of adequacy, since no translation is ever completely equivalent. A number of different translations can in fact represent varying degrees of equivalence. This means that "equivalence" cannot be understood in its mathematical meaning of identity, but only in terms of proximity, i.e. on the basis of degrees of closeness to functional identity.

Such a view of functional equivalence implies different degrees of adequacy from minimal to maximal effectiveness on the basis of both cognitive and experiential factors. A minimal, realistic definition of functional equivalence can be stated as "The readers of a translated text should be able to comprehend it to the point that they can conceive of how the original readers of the text must have understood and appreciated it." (Nida, 2001) Anything less than this degree of equivalence should be unacceptable.

A maximal, ideal definition of functional equivalence could be stated, as "The readers of a translated text should be able to comprehend and appreciate it in essentially the same manner as the original reader did." (Nida, 2001)The maximal definition implies a high degree of language-culture correspondence between the source and target languages and an unusually effective translation so as to produce in receptors the capacity for a response very close to what the original readers experienced. This maximal level of equivalence is rarely, if ever, achieved, except for texts having little or no aesthetic value and involving only routine information.

There is always some loss and distortion in verbal communication since no two interlocutors ever have exactly the same designative and associative meanings for the same phonological, lexical, grammatical, and discourse features. Their grids for comprehension and evaluation are always somewhat different, but their experience in the use of language and their capacity for foreign-language empathy make it possible for them to communicate effectively. There are no neat formulas for measuring functional equivalence in either monolingual or bilingual contexts since there are too many factors involved and there is no way in which the different parameters of verbal communication can be given mathematical values. Despite the lack of precision in communication, there is, however, a useful way to think and talk about functional equivalence, namely, by means of isomorphs. We may define functional isomorphs on the basis of the means for accomplishing essentially the same results within different systems.

The concept of functional adequacy in translation has been described in a number of books and articles as "dynamic equivalence". In *Toward a Science of translating* (Nida 1964) dynamic equivalence is treated in terms of the "closest natural equivalent", but the term "dynamic" is misunderstood by some people as referring only to something which has impact. Accordingly, many individuals are led to think that if a translation has considerable impact then it must be a correct example of dynamic equivalence. Because of this misunderstanding, the author prefers to use the expression "functional equivalence" in describing the degrees of adequacy of a translation.

The terms "function" and "functional" seem to provide a much sounder basis for talking about translation as a form of communication since the focus is on what a translation does or performs. A lack of functional equivalence can then be described in terms of a failure to provide isomorphic limits. Compensation for a lack of isomorphism may be introduced as a means of accurately representing the meaning of the source text. For instance, because of the lack of close correspondence in figurative expressions, it may be necessary to translate some figurative expressions in the source language by non-figurative phrases in the target language. If, however, too many such figurative expressions become non-figurative, much of the impact of a passage may be lost, something that is particularly critical in the case of poetry. In order to compensate for such loss, it may be important to translate some non-figurative expressions by means of figures in the target language. In this way some balance with the original text can be obtained in the translated text.

1.2.2 Principles for DE (FE) Production

Summarily speaking, according to Nida (2001), the following principles can be applied to produce functional or dynamic equivalence:

(1) If a close, formal translation is likely to result in a misunderstanding of the designative meaning, certain changes must be introduced into the text of the translation or the literal translation may be retained and a footnote explaining the likely misunderstanding must be added.

(2) If a close, formal translation makes no sense, or in other words it is totally obscure in designative meaning, certain changes must be introduced into the text unless the source text is purposely obscure, in which case the obscurity may be retained, and a footnote explaining the nature of the obscurity may be very useful and in most instances fully justified.

(3) If a close, formal translation is so semantically and syntactically difficult that the average person for whom the translation is being made is very likely to give up trying to comprehend it, certain changes are warranted, although it may be useful to indicate the nature of such changes in an introduction or in footnotes.

(4) If a close, formal translation is likely to result in serious misunderstanding of the associative meanings of the source text or in a significant loss in a proper appreciation for the stylistic values of the source text, it is important to make such adjustments as are necessary to reflect the associative values of the source text.

(5) The manner in which a translation is to be used has a significant influence upon the extent to which adjustments are to be made.

(6) The fact that a source text must be translated in such a way as to occur with accompanying codes usually requires a number of adjustments on all levels: phonology, lexicon, syntax, and discourse.

1.3 The contribution of Functional Equivalence to Chinese Translation Studies

Nida's ideas on translation have a great influence on Chinese translation scholars. His theory was first introduced into China during the 1980's, since then, his theory has become the earliest, the most influential and the most frequently mentioned western translation theory in China. His contributions to the field of translation mainly lie in three areas: 1) He brought communication theory and semiotics into translation theory and put forward the functional equivalence principle. 2) He also brought the latest research studies of modern linguistics into the translation theory. 3) He is the first to incorporate the response theory as one of the translation criteria. (周仪、罗平，

1999:32-33)

Functional equivalence provides new perspectives toward translation. Before the introduction of functional equivalence, translation studies in China were mostly limited to the static analysis of translation criteria. At that time, Chinese translation studies were mostly translation experiences focused on translation techniques. The contrast between literal translation and free translation has been primarily the focus of discussion or debate, yet very little constructive advice as to what should be done to improve poor translation was provided until the introduction of the approach of functional equivalent. The problem is that both the literal and the free translation approaches mainly dwell on the relationship of the source text to the target text, whether in terms of form or content, keeping social circumstances of translation lost from sight. While the approach of functional equivalent translation introduces a new dimension--the relationship of receptors to the target language text, it also makes contribution to shift the focus from the comparison of a pair of texts, the source-language and the target-language texts, to a comparison of the two communication processes involved.

In the perspective of communication, functional equivalence allows more freedom and flexibility to the translator who used to follow strict formal equivalence in order to be "faithful" to the SL. When translators focus on the form of ST, their translation is ST oriented correspondently. As a result, the readers may find the TT obscure and even unintelligible. Following functional equivalence, on the other hand, translators have more space to put the message of text or, in other words, its semantic meaning in a way to meet the receptor's linguistic and cultural needs. The translator doesn't have to stick to the form of the source text as long as the meaning is conveyed to the target reader. The receptor-oriented dynamic equivalence criteria give priority to adaptations in grammar, lexicon and cultural information, which is considered essential to achieve naturalness in TT.

Chapter 2 The Language Features of Business English

2.1 The Definition of Business English

By business English we mean the language of English used in the register of business. How to define "business" is the central problem to solve in defining the scope of business English.

Traditionally, business simply meant exchange or trade for things people wanted or needed, but today it has a more technical definition. It includes the production, distribution, and sale of goods and service for a profit. One good example is the conversion of iron ore into metal machine tool parts. The machine tools, made up of the various parts, need to be moved from a factory to a market place or a machine dealership, which is known as distribution. The sale means the exchange of goods or services for money. For example, a machine tool is sold to someone in exchange for money or a mechanic offers a service by repairing a machine tool for money, which we call sales. According to Chen Zhunmin, business English can be defined as:

1.English that has direct relation with business, which is the narrowest definition

2.English that has relation with fields such as economic management and law etc, which is the middle definition.

3.English that is beyond personal relationship, which is the widest definition.

4.English that is used in analyzing the features of English in business register, making business training plans, choosing and compiling textbooks, but it does not mean that everything can be included, which is the exact definition (Chen Zhunmin: Summary of the Sixth International business English Symposium, (《第六届全国国际商务英语研讨会论文集》2006:1) .

According to Nick Briger, an English expert on business English, the following aspects all fall into the category of business English, that is, "language knowledge, communication skills, professional content, management skills and cultural awareness"(Xiang Yanhong, 2000:21). In Nick's viewpoint, a researcher on business English should at least have a good command of the above-mentioned knowledge and skills.

So, in the definition of business English, there are two points that determine what business English is: one is the English language, the other is the profession of business. It is not business English without either of them.

2.2 The Classification of Business English

Like EGP, business English also has spoken and written forms. Since the length of this paper is limited, what is discussed in this paper is about written business English in order to make the viewpoints more clear. Written business English, namely, practical business English writing, is the model of practical language. According to Liao Ying, practical business English writing can be classified into eight kinds as follows:

1. Letters, widely used on various occasions of social relations and business affairs, including private letters and official letters,

2. Commercial documents, widely used in the fields of economy and trade, including general business letters, and special commercial documents,

3. Etiquette documents including congratulatory documents, and condolatory documents,

4. Contract or deed, including the intention agreement, sales confirmation, agency agreement, contract, cultural exchange agreement, letter of appointment, stipulations of agreement etc,

5. Informative and revelational documents used to inform or to bring something into a public notice, such as notification, announcement, poster, notice, found, memos, advertisement etc,

6. Expository writing, used to explain or illustrate a certain problem or matter, including trademark, instructions of products, certificate of quality, caption, etc,

7. Bills and vouchers, including bills, forms, receipts, policy, I.O.U., order, shipping documents, certificates, etc,

8. Documents for meeting affairs, including those signed or issued before, during or after the meeting.

The classification above is based on their practical functions accordingly, not strictly based on their exact academic definitions.

The main function of practical business English writing is, to inform the counterpart or remind the public of the action according to the rules stipulated in what is written. Simply, they are informative and interpersonal. For example, the sentence "WHEN AIRED REPLY" in telegram or telex is translated briefly into "何时航寄的，复" instead of "请问何时航寄的，请回复" because the style of telegram or telex is brief in business English. Only translated briefly in clear and concise Chinese can the informative and interpersonal functions be said to be successfully achieved. Such a practical writing has its specific style, i.e.: standardization, formalization and specialization as well as the essential language features in the following.

2.3 The Language Features of Business English

It's very difficult to describe the features of business English. Generally speaking, ESP and EGP(English for general purpose) have some characteristics in common because ESP is based on EGP. As mentioned earlier, it is not a neatly-defined category. But it mainly belongs to the category of ESP. The English language used in the register of business has its special features, which are stated as seven Cs, that is, completeness, concreteness, clearness, conciseness, courtesy, consideration and correctness. (Liao Ying; Liu Zhenqian): However, in this paper, we will look into the features of business English from the perspectives of function and style.

2.3.1 The Language Features of Business English from the Perspective of Function

Functions of language are closely related to translation, and so are the language features of business English. Translation is the art of language. People use different words for different purposes and effects, which are exactly the functions of language. In the translation process, the translator shall achieve similar effects of the translated text as the SLT, in that in different types of words or different contexts, language fulfills different functions. A translator therefore should first of all be able to recognize the functions of language in different texts or contexts and then tries his utmost to choose an equivalent sentence or discourse in the translation, which has the same language function as the sentence or discourse of the original, so that the TL readers could appreciate the translation in the same or similar manner as the SL readers do. Thus functional equivalence is achieved.

Those who are studying business English may have a good command of EGP. They may be good at grammar, and they may have very good linguistic intuition. But this is not enough if they want to study and translate business English idiomatically. What's significant is that they must probe into the language features of business English in detail.

As mentioned previously, the informative function and the interpersonal function are the two main functions of business English. We'll discuss these in detail as one part of the language features of business English in this section. First, the language functions Nida talked about will be introduced.

As Nida said in his book *Language, Culture and Translating*, language has two types of functions, one is psychological functions, the other is sociological functions. The psychological functions may be described as the means by which people negotiate with reality, and the sociological functions can be said to be those ways by which people negotiate with other persons. And the sociological functions may be regarded as external and interpersonal. Business English is a kind of pragmatic English, whose main features are external and interpersonal. Therefore the analysis of the language features of business English can be started from the angle of sociological functions.

The primary sociological functions of language, according to Nida, contain the following types: interpersonal, informative, imperative, performative, and emotive. The interpersonal function is listed first because of its strategic importance, though it is often overlooked in discussions because it is too common in everyday circumstances including business activities.

The interpersonal function of language primarily involves the ways in which people negotiate and/or maintain social status, in other words, how they make use of language to help establish themselves in the social "pecking order" and how they maintain these relations with other persons. In most languages there are quite distinct levels or registers, including ritual, formal, informal, casual, and intimate speech. (Nida, 2004:12). In business English, the interpersonal relationship is essential to the success of a business transaction. If you negotiate with your counterpart, you should know how and when to use polite language, vague language or logical language, which are used according to different registers. The use of these various registers depends primarily upon the purposes of power and solidarity (Nida, 2004: 13). Just as Mark Ellis said in his book *Teaching Business English*, The most important characteristic of exchanges in the context of business meetings, telephone calls, and discussions is a sense of purpose. Even used in phatic manner, business English can obtain interpersonal function. But unlike in EGP registers, in business English the speaker is often pressed for time at business meetings, so it is impossible to keep on chattering cleverly about inconsequential matters.

The most obvious function of language is informative, the use of speech or writing to influence the cognitive content or state of other people. In business English, this function is especially obvious. Information has to be conveyed with minimum risk of misunderstanding, and the time for processing needs to be short. Therefore there is a preference for clear, logical thought emphasized by the kinds of words that indicate the logical process (for example, 'as a result', 'for this reason', 'in order to'). (Ellis & Johnson 2002: 7)

The imperative function of language involves an attempt to influence the behavior of receptors. This function may be accompanied by commands or exhortations, but it is often more effectively carried out by means of an appropriate illustration, a pointed joke, or a searching question. And in the interpersonal communication of business English, it is in advertisements that this function is most obvious.

The performative function of language involves primarily a change in the status of receptors. "Those who employ performative language are often authority figures, or they are credited with possessing esoteric knowledge about the power of words, and in most instances, performative language is highly ritualized and fixed in form(Nida, 2004:15).

The emotive function of language involves altering the emotive state of receptors, and for this purpose it must depend heavily upon the associative or connotative meanings of words. The emotive function varies from the deeply religious devotion to the hilarious situation.

However, in view of the purpose of business English, the language in this special register may have the following two main functions, that is, interpersonal and informative functions. The reason why the rest of the functions (the imperative, the performative, and the emotive) are not listed here in business English is not that they are unimportant, but that they can be considered involved in the two functions emphasized: the interpersonal function and the informative function. According to Gillian and George, language has "transactional" and "interpersonal" functions. The distinction between "transactional" and "interpersonal" stands in general correspondence to the distinction between "informative" and "interpersonal".

Relatively few discourses are restricted to a single function. In fact, most speaking and writing involve several different functions and often in quite different proportions. But business English involves most obviously the interpersonal and informative functions in almost the same proportions. The features of the informative function and the interpersonal function are the language features of business English from the perspective of function. In the following section, the language features will be discussed from the perspective of style.

2.3.2 The Language Features of Business English from the Perspective of Style

Nida said, "Style may be defined technically as the message carried by the frequency of distributions and traditional probabilities of its linguistic features, especially as they differ from those of the same features in the language as a whole." (Bloch, 1953). Accordingly, though style depends upon grammar; for while grammar is predictive (i.e. describes what can be said), style is classificatory and dynamic (Saporta, 1960,P.93)" (Nida, 1964:222). When we talk about the language features of business English, style refers to how words, sentences and discourse are used in the business register. This is of course style in its narrow sense.

Business English has its own concrete or specific features in lexeme, syntax, and discourse. A lot of domestic scholars hold the idea that business English writings possess the features of seven Cs, namely, completeness, concreteness, clearness, conciseness, courtesy, consideration and correctness. In my opinion, the language features of business English are as follows.

1) Conciseness

Business English is frequently used in writings and in international negotiations. In both cases it should be very concise. Conciseness is the most important language feature. Unnecessary repetition is avoided, and wordy, long or out of date phrases or commercial jargons are seldom used in order to make the sentence concise without sacrificing completeness, concreteness and courtesy. Meetings are often short because business people are always pressed for time and the informative and interpersonal functions are their ultimate purposes.

For example, in the following pairs of examples, the second sentence of each pair is more concise and felt better in showing the interpersonal and informative functions.

(1) a. I wish to express my heartfelt gratitude to you for your kind cooperation.

b. Thank you for your cooperation.

(2) a. In compliance with your request, we immediately contacted ABC Co., Ltd., San Francisco, and now wish to inform you of the result as follows.

b. As requested we immediately contacted ABC Co., Ltd., with the following result.

(3) a. We have begun to export our machines to the foreign countries.

b. We have begun to export our machines.

In (1)a and (2)a, the wordy and redundant expressions show nothing but humiliation. And in (3)a it's just a kind of repetition to say "export" "to the foreign countries". This does not help to convey the informative and interpersonal functions.

Just as "conciseness" is important, the features of "clearness, consistency and correctness" are essential both in source text and in target text. If the source text is not clear, or the terms are not consistent and the expressions are not correct, neither the informative function nor the interpersonal function can be achieved. The target text can't be expressed clearly and no effects can be produced on the receptors. Then we have the following features of "clearness, consistency and correctness" concerning the aspect of meaning.

2) Clearness

Clearness is one of the main language features of practical English writing, which avoids misunderstanding. Equivocal words or sentences are avoided absolutely. It is especially important in contracts, agreements, announcements, notices, posters, advertisements and business letters calling for specific reply.

For example, numbers and dates are especially clear in business English, "一周内"should be "in one week or less", "七月十日前" is "on or before July 10", "八月下旬" is "within the last ten days of August".

A sentence like "Fluctuation in the freight after the date of sale will be for the buyer's account" should be rewritten as the following:

Any increase in freight after the date of sale will be for the buyer 's account. Or

Any increase or decrease in the freight after the date of sale will be for the buyer's account.

3) Consistency

By "consistency" we mean that fixed phrases and collocations including some jargons and trade terms should always be consistent and can't be changed at will. Examples like "face-to-face discussion(亲临洽谈业务)", "down payment(定金)", "CIF(到岸价)", "FOB(离岸价)" etc. fall into this category.

4) Correctness

Practical English writings for international business, especially business letters, are often bases for various commercial documents such as contracts, agreements, so they are concerned with the rights, obligations, etc. of the two sides of a trade. The important details attract the reader's special attention, so they must be correct and precise. Otherwise the information should be wrong and the interpersonal relation would break up, and in consequence, this would bring the business cooperation to an end. In such cases, correctness means much more than grammar, punctuation, and spelling of words. A mechanically perfect letter is not enough. The facts should be correct and the expressions should be appropriate. This is what the correctness of business English writing means. For example:

The goods supplied are exactly equal to the sample.

It is very difficult to guarantee that the goods supplied are exactly equal to the sample. So the above example can't express the effectiveness of the language functions though there is no mistake in grammar, punctuation or spelling of words. It is often written as follows:

a. The goods supplied are similar in quality to the sample.

b. The sample represents as nearly as possible what we can supply.

c. The sample is the nearest in size to the goods you need.

5) Formality

Business English is in a sense legal language, therefore the language used is often very formal and sometimes some usages have become formulae. For example, expressions like "upon receipt of", "be in a position to", "with the exception of" and words like "whereby", "hereby" and "thereby" etc have become formulae in business English and they are most frequently used in formal business letters and contracts. What Christine Johnson and Mark Ellis said also proves the "formal" feature of business English:

"Social contacts are often highly ritualized. Formulaic language is used (in greetings and introductions, for example) in the context of a routine pattern of exchanges. A certain style is generally adopted which is polite but also short and direct (taking into consideration the need to be economical with time). Although some situations may require more than this (for example, keeping a conversation going over lunch), the style and content of social interactions will be typified by a desire to build a good relationship while avoiding over-familiarity" (Christine Johnson and Mark Elli, 2001:7).

6) Courtesy

Courtesy is an important language feature of practical English writing for international business, especially for international business letters. A letter expressed in the way of refined and courteous urbane is effective in putting the interpersonal and the informative functions to light. Courtesy not only means politeness, but also means thinking about the interests of the customer. If one takes a courteous attitude in a business English writing, he/she is using the "you" attitude properly instead of the "we" attitude. In doing this, he/she is more considerate of others and more likely to be successful in achieving his/her purposes.

7) Completeness

The informative function determines that practical business English writing contains all the necessary information that the readers (the counterpart or the public) might need and responds to all the questions and requirements of the readers to make it highly informative and efficient. For example, when the buyers write a letter to accept an offer that the sellers made, the buyers must state his conditions of acceptance in detail or quote the evidences of the offer, such as quotation sheets, letters, advertisements, etc., because such a letter is in fact functioning as a business contract and will be binding on both parties after receipt by the sellers.

Incompleteness of practical writings, such as business letters, will lead to the counterpart's unfavorable impression toward your firm. He may give up the deal if other firms can provide him with the information needed. Sometimes, incompleteness will even cause unnecessary disputes and lawsuits.

In order to verify the completeness, six "Ws"(who, what, where, when, why and how) are often used. For example, in a letter of order, it should be made clear who wants to order, what he wants, when he needs the goods, where the goods are to be sent and how payment will be made. If some special requirements are put forward, the reasons for them are often provided.

The last three points above, namely, the features of formal, courteous and complete, are most frequently shared in business English, esp. in business English letters, contracts and other documents. When we do business English translation, we must take both the language functions and the seven stylistic features into account, and make the target text the equivalent of the source text in both meaning and style.

Chapter 3 The Translation of business English is a Kind of Cross-cultural Translation

With the development of modern linguistics, further understanding of the essence of translation is characterized by defining translation as communication. And finally people come to realize the social historical content of the translation activity. More and more scholars began to view translation as "cross-cultural communication". In fact, they have found that cultural factors in international communication are far more significant than the purely linguistic differences. Translation is regarded as an act of communication across cultural barriers. The translation no longer entails "linguistic substitution or mere code-switching but a 'cultural transfer'" (Snell-Horn by 1989:319). Mary Snell-Homey and Nida both give one chapter dedicated to discuss the relationship between language, culture, and translating. Snell-Homey has concluded that "Whereas linguistics has gradually widened its field of interest from the micro- to the macro-level translation studies, which is concerned essentially with texts against their situational and cultural background, should adopt the reverse perspective." (1988:35) "Beginning with the twentieth century, the developments in linguistics, especially from the Prague school the structuralism, and the functionalism. The focus of philology shifted from the formal features of particular literary text to the role of language as a code, a system for communication, and an integral part of culture." (Nida, 1993:160) In his view, biculturalism is even more important than bilingualism, since words only bear meanings in terms of the cultures in which they function.

3.1 Culture Defined

Culture is quite multi-dimensional and complex. It is broad in its scope that scholars have a difficult time arriving at one central theory or definition for what it is. There are at least 500 definitions about culture. These definitions range from those that conceive of culture as an all-encompassing phenomenon(it is everything) to those that take a narrow view of the concept (it is opera, art and ballet). The concept of culture was first defined in the book *Primitive Culture* by Ed. Tylor in 1871, a renown

British anthropologist. He defined "culture" as a complex whole which includes knowledge, belief, art, morals, law, customs, and any other capacities and habits acquired by man as a member of society. Based on Tylor's definition, anthropologists of modern times have redefined the concept of culture. Hobel (1976) defined it as an integrated system of learned behavior patterns which are characteristic of the members of a society and which are not the result of biological inheritance. Porter (1991) laid out a definition that culture is the deposit of knowledge, experience, belief, value, attitudes, meaning, religion, notion of time, role, spatial relation, concept of universe... and all the material objects and possessions accepted by a group of people in the course of generation through individual and group striving. These definitions, though differ in details, share the following common grounds:

(1) that culture is learned; (2) that it is the deposit of all kinds of social activities; (3) that it is related to all human communications

Culture features vary from nation to nation, also change with time even within the same nation. As fresh needs arise in a culture, its language responds by inventing new words or borrowing words from other languages or by attaching new meanings to existing words. We, therefore, define culture as the total pattern of beliefs, customs, institutions, objects, and techniques that characterize the life of a human community. So, besides the above-mentioned features, culture also entails the following characteristics: (1) culture is a group phenomenon; (2) culture exists not only in people's spiritual life but also in people's material life; (3) culture develops with social changes.

However, another factor inherent in culture shall not be ignored, i.e. "Culture is contagious", as a prominent anthropologist once remarked, meaning that traditions, ideology, customs, beliefs, tools and sentiment may diffuse from one people or nation to another. To be sure, a cultural trait must offer some advantage, some utility or pleasure, to be sought and accepted by a people ... within the limits of desirability on the one hand and the possibility of communication on the other. Diffusion of culture has taken place everywhere and in all times. The diffusive character of culture can explain why culture is transferable and translation possible

Business English texts, also a carrier of culture, cannot separate itself from culture. Although the whole world becomes "smaller", cultural differences in different countries do not disappear. Culture has immeasurable influence on the target audience since some cultural features are based on race, nationality, or religious belief. In Torbiorn's words, "The culture prevailing in a country will determine many important respects, the way in which individual people will perceive their surroundings, how they will interpret what they see, and how they will react to it... These appear to be natural and obvious and it is often difficult to envisage or understand other ways of doing things, and even more difficult to adopt them" (Torbiorn, 1982:5). It thereof can be concluded that the cultural differences may lead to difficulties or even misunderstanding in communication between cultures and across cultures. Business English translators therefore must have a better understanding of both cultures because cultural differences may result in different responses to the same text. In general, however, the differences in culture give rise to more important adjustments than the differences in language. Cross-cultural consciousness is a must for Business English translators.

3.2 Translation Difficulties Resulting from Cultural Differences

It is obvious that language and culture are intimately connected. The special natural environment and the different pace of development lead to different cultures and there are of course some linguistic gaps. The study of cultural differences can be made from different angles, but Robin Burling (1932:35) pointed out, "the vocabulary of a language reflects the culture of its speakers". Each culture presents to its members, in conscious and subconscious ways through words, the idea and concepts that culture transmits from generation to generation. Therefore, this part will study the cultural impact on translation from this perspective.

3.2.1 Culture-loaded Terms may have no Equivalents in the Target Language

A culture-loaded term with no correspondence in target culture is one of the difficulties. Peter Newmark points out, "Frequently where there is cultural focus, there is a translation problem due to the cultural 'gap' or 'distance' between the source and target languages" (Newmark, 1988:94).

Chinese and Western cultures diverge greatly in their geographical environment, values, beliefs and traditions. For some terms it is quite difficult to find a direct correspondence in the target language. The fact that source language culture and target language culture are greatly remote from each other would automatically make it difficult to find lexical equivalents. Examples of concrete business English concepts which are notoriously difficult to translate into Chinese are the names of medicines, such as Intralipid, Vamin, Pedel, Sulvvit and so on. There are no counterparts of these products in China. So they are often translated into "英脱利匹特", "凡命", "派达益儿", "永乐维他" by means of transliteration. Of course, the translation techniques for these kinds of terms are varied and dependent on the context, as literal translation alone will result in confusion on the part of target text readership.

3.2.2 Culture-loaded Terms with Different Associative Meanings

Nida declares, "The most serious problem involved in transfer derives from the fact that the same objects or events may have quite different symbolic values." (Nida, 1969:73) In the case of business English translation, semantic conflict may derive from differences in the religious belief and customs. The translator must always reckon with the fact that emotive responses to certain term may be different in divergent cultures. For instance, in the western mythology, dragon is not a symbol of good luck as in the Chinese culture. On the contrary, it represents wickedness, ugliness, and even a virago. So its associative meaning in the English culture is quite different from that in the Chinese culture. In other words, the expression has a similar counterpart in the target language, but the two expressions have different connotations, and they may not be pragmatically transferable. This has to be paid much attention to when we translate.

To conclude this chapter, the above illustrations are incomplete and far from enough. However, knowledge of these differences will certainly be of some help to the translation of business English. Culture and language are for most of the time interwoven, and it is separated in this chapter just for the convenience of analysis.

Chapter 4 Functional Equivalence in Business English Translation

4.1 Exploration of Principles for the Business English translation

In order to explore feasible and effective ways of translation, it might be helpful to establish in advance some basic principles which can serve as both norms in the course of translating and criteria in translation criticism. When the aim is to produce a functional equivalence, determined primarily by a comparison of the impact and appeal in the texts of the source language and the target language, the basis for the choice of one or another alternative must depend upon (1) faithfulness to the content of the source language text; (2) the respective functions of the literary genre in the source and target languages; (3)the decoding capacity of receptors, and(4)how and in what circumstances the target language text is to be employed(Jin Di & Nida,1984:92).To be more explicit, we can conclude the following principles from Nida's functional equivalence theory.

4.1.1 Meaning has Priority over Form

Some translators have been quite unwilling to sacrifice the formal elements of the target language text for the sake of preserving what they regard as the integrity of the source text. They insist upon literal translation by trying to reflect every meaningful features of the text in a form which is as similar as possible to the source language structures, for they are convinced that only in this way can they produce the most accurate reflection of the original. These translators defend their literal translation because they do not want to bring into the text any possible excuse for divergent interpretation. This idea is quite misleading in business English translation since what we are translating is the content instead of the form. For example:

Notice of particulars of shipment shall be sent to Buyer at such time and by such means that the said notice shall be received by Buyer within 7 days after shipment.

Translation:

装运通知的具体内容应当在这样的时间，以这样的方式送达买方，从而使买

方在装运后七天内接到通知。

Although it normally avoids outright grammatical mistakes, this kind of translation is usually stylistically awkward in Chinese. Pragmatically speaking,. the ambiguity of "time" and "means" can not be made clear and it's not necessary to make them clear, so according to the functional equivalence theory, the improved translation is:

卖方须及时以适当的方式将装运详情通知买方，以便买方在装运后 7 天内收到该装船通知。

Nida(1969:5) says the original message includes two aspects: form and content. He also stresses that content enjoys priority over form when the conflict between content and form arises. The "meaning" here entails translating both designative meaning and associative meaning. For example, a literal translation of the English expression "Christmas comes but once a year" (圣诞节一年只有一次) misses the speaker's implication of the English text. A far more satisfactory rendering would be "佳节良辰，机会难得".Although it reproduces the content without the form of the original, in this way, the original culture is converted to the target culture.

In a word, if a more or less literal correspondence is functionally equivalent in both designative and associative meaning, then obviously no adjustments in form are necessary. But if a close, formal translation is likely to result in a misunderstanding of the designative meaning, certain changes must be introduced into the text of the translation. If a close, formal translation is likely to result in serious misunderstanding of the associative meanings of the source text or in a significant loss in a proper appreciation for the stylistic values of the source text, it is important to make necessary adjustments to reflect the values of the source text.

4.1.2 Complete Intelligibility on the Part of the Readership

Translating means communicating and this process depends on what is received by persons hearing or reading a translation. Judging the validity of a translation depends much on the extent to which receptors correctly understand and appreciate the translated text. Therefore, besides translating the content of the original message, the first concern of a translator should be whether the translated text is intelligible to its readers. A satisfactory dynamic equivalent translation requires a high degree of intelligibility with the receptors.

To ensure the complete intelligibility on the part of the readers, the translator should take the reader's cultural background and decoding ability into consideration and free him self from the form of the original text. The translation must fit in with the target receptors' decoding ability, otherwise it will not be properly understood by the readers. Nida puts forward the idea of changing the original form for the sake of meaning partially out of consideration for the readers since a close, formal translation is likely to result in an awkward translation or to be misunderstood by its readers. However, generally speaking, the target audience of business English is unfamiliar with the source culture. We shall notice these two features during translation.

Naturalness is a part of the principle of intelligibility and is also targeted toward the receptor language. The naturalness has two implications: the version makes sense and reads naturally. If a translation does not make sense it can hardly be understood by the readers. The best translation is one that does not sound like a translation and translationese should be avoided.

As English and Chinese belong to two different language families, they each possess their own unique ways of expression. The translator should make the best use of the target language and the forms of the translated version should be used by or acceptable to the target audience. However, we must admit that no translation is supposed to eliminate all traces of foreign setting and many difficult themes and accounts may not be naturalized by the process of translating such as when the source and receptor language represent very different cultures. For example, as far as a letter of Chinese style is concerned, the date is put at the right corner at the bottom of the last page. The inside address is often omitted, and the complimentary closure is not always stated as "您忠实的"; sometimes it is "此致·敬礼". Different style conveys the same function-interpersonal function. And of course it is formal and courteous too. When it is analyzed in this way, we may say different cultures are taken into account before the functional equivalence is achieved.

4.1.3 Creating the Similar Effect as the Original Text

Functional equivalence can be interpreted in such a way that the target language receptors must not only know how the original receptors must have understood the content of the text, but they should also be able to appreciate some of the impact and appeal which such a text must have had for the original receptors. In other words, priority should be given to target receptor's intelligibility. However, intelligibility is not measured merely in terms of whether the words are understandable and the sentences grammatically constructed, but in terms of the total impact the message has on the one who receives it (Nida, 1969:22). Therefore, it would be wrong to think that the response of the receptors in the second language is measured merely in terms of comprehension of the information, for communication is not merely informative. It may take on other functions such as expressiveness. This response can never be identical, for the cultural and historical settings are too different, but there should be a high degree in equivalence of response, or the translation will fail to accomplish its purpose. Let's take "Better late than the late." as an example. This is an English advertisement which may appeal to you to buy some medicine or medical service like insurance. This sentence is concise and clear. When used in a special advertising environment with a picture or something like that, it is informative and the reader/watcher would react upon it. But strictly speaking, it's not a complete sentence. First, according to the traditional sentence patterns, it belongs to the pattern of "SVA", but the "S" and the "V" are both missing. Second, according to Nida's kernel expressions, this sentence contains two parts. The front part before "than" is similar to kernel expression 5,"John is sick" and the back part is similar to expression 6"John is a boy". And the back part with the conjunction "than" together acts as the adverbial in the whole sentence. Through the above analysis, we can translate the sentence into: "迟到总比丧命好". In a special advertising environment, this Chinese version may produce a similar effect among the receptors in TL as the SL produced on the SL receptors.

4.1.4 Continuum Dynamic Adjustment

The essence of the dynamic in translation is just a dynamic process that adjusts the function of the rendering to the same function of the original in a specific condition. The principles of dynamic adjustment and their practical implications are not matters of plus-minus categories for easy pigeonholing of examples of formal and semantic adjustments. In each case a translator is faced with a continuum and where on such a continuum the adjustment is justified depends upon a host of factors. Some translation theorists attempt to set up formulas designed to specify precisely what should be done in each type of situation, but there are too many different types of situations, too many different genres, too many different kinds of audience, and too many purposes for translating and communicating. What is needed is not elaborate formulas or theories, but translators with unusual sensitivity to the resources of language, the importance of culture, and the art of translating.

Therefore, the realization of functional equivalence in translating business English in reality is a dynamic process of choosing the best translation from various alternatives, which are able to help the translator produce rendering of the close function to the original. To create such a close function, the translator has no choice but to take the whole factors in functional identity, such as cultural factors, linguistic factors, the target reader, the source language and the target text into consideration. Nonetheless, since the cultural and linguistic factors in Chinese and English text are definite, and only the factors of target readers, original and target texts are changeable, the translator needs merely to satisfy the requirements of target receptors and comply with the source and target texts so that his translation is able to become the valid closest natural equivalent of the original.

4.2 Exploration of Effective Strategies in Translating Business English

Of course, the above-mentioned principles only serve as guides, instead of directives or restrictions. In the process of business English translation, we often come across the problem of how to put a word or sentence into equivalent version in the target language. We should be flexible with the methods of translation and always base our choice on the specific context in line with the four principles. Due to the lack of relevant reference materials and the limitation of the capacity, the writer will only suggest here merely several skills and strategies of realizing functional equivalence.

4.2.1 Functional Equivalence on Lexical Level

In this part the discussion will go to the translation techniques on lexical level. These following methods are just some possible means of translating words peculiar to English context. However, the choice of translation strategies depends more on the context and the expectancy of the readers.

1) Literal translation

Literal translation is where the forms of the original are retained as much as possible, even if those forms are not the most natural forms to preserve the original meaning. Literal translation is sometimes called word-for-word translation (as opposed to thought-for-thought translation). Nida (1993:125) proposes if a more or less literal correspondence is functionally equivalent in both designative and associative meaning, then obviously no or little adjustments in form are necessary. Literal translation can be applied to cases when the translated version is grammatically correct, functionally equivalent to the original language, and when the target reader can understand both the designative and associative meaning. It strives to reproduce both the ideological content and style of the entire work and retain as much as possible the figures of speech and sentence structures or patterns. These translations can be accepted by the target readers and even be incorporated into the target language. Examples go as follows:

Credit Guarantee	信用担保
Unfair Competition	不公平竞争
Floating Interest Rate	浮动汇率
Shipping Details	装运细节
Risk Management	风险管理
Chartering Agent	租船代理人
Comparative Advantage	相对优势
Management Training	管理培训

Business Representative　　业务代表

Fundamental/Basic Law　　基本法

The above translations almost give no alternation to the original structure. However, by "literal translation", it does not necessarily mean a word-for-word or unit-for-unit translation from the original into corresponding lexical units in the receptor language. It means "the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents'" (Peter Newmark, 1981:46). English and Chinese are very similar in being quite flexible in their word order, sometimes the order coincides, which is very convenient, but often it does not coincide and then problems will arise. Word order, construction and parts of speech then have to be adjusted to the grammatical and lexical structures of the receptor language so as to keep the translation natural and smooth. For example:

(1)offer without engagement　　无约束力的报盘，虚盘

(2)null and void　　无效

(3)competitive international bidding　　国际公开招标

(4)lot separation　　隔票

(5)foreign judicial immunity　　外国国家司法豁免

(6)force and effect　　效力

These examples show four distinct types of adjustments, i.e. change in word order, addition, structural alteration and omission. Translations of these terms are obligatorily adjusted from the grammatical and lexical structures of English so that the renderings will be intelligible and smooth for the target readership. In examples (3)&(5), some elements have to be added as indicated by words underlined; Some words are not necessary to be translated since they almost mean the same as other words as in examples (2) and (6). Changes in word order and structural alterations are also frequently used methods in literal translation as seen from the above-examples (1)&(4)

It is preferable and advisable to employ the literal method in translating business English on condition that the translated version can be understood by or have the same impact on the target readership as the original does on its readership.

2) Free translation

If the respective functions of the source text and target text happen to be identical in some instances, a translator may render these word by word. But only a few single texts can be dealt with in this way. A free translation is one that preserves the meaning of the original but uses natural forms of the target language, including normal word order and syntax, so that the translation can be naturally understood. Free translation attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. Free translation sometimes reads smooth and is closer to the original in structure. Free translation is found to be effective in translating cultural words which have no equivalent images in the target language. In this case the original images have to be changed to fit the target setting.

A free translation cannot effectively be produced unless the translator has a professional understanding of the meanings and culture of the source text. This strategy is widely used in translating short abbreviations. For instance,

C.I.F.(cost, insurance and freight)	到岸价
F.O.B.(free on board)	离岸价
F.P.A.(free from particular average)	平安险
W.A.(with particular average)	水渍险
E.X.W.(ex-works)	工厂交货
F.C.A.(free carrier)	货交承运人
F.A.Q.(fair average quality)	大路货，一般货

The equivalence existing in the above examples makes the information quite clear in the TLT. Both the TLT and the SLT are formal, clear, concise and correct. Though the SLT is equal to the expression in the bracket in each example, the translation is not a surface conversion. Otherwise the functional equivalence in style can't be achieved and no informative or interpersonal function can be reached either.

Some other examples concerns the translation of brand names which shows the free translation due to cultural differences. In China, there is a kind of export battery whose brand name is "白象" in Chinese. It seems all right to translate the brand name into "White Elephant". The problem is "White Elephant" is a fixed expression in English which means "a burdensome possession". It might be much better to translate it into "Brown Lion" since the lion is the symbol of power, strength and bravery in the western culture.

The translation of titles and organizations should be expressed by the appropriate specialized terms on the basis of extensive consultation of available technical literature, thorough comprehension and repeated deliberation. On certain occasions, by free translation, the readers are sure to get more information, which is clearer and closer to the original, and the version is smoother and idiomatic Chinese. Therefore, this method is widely used.

3) Explanation

"Anything that can be said in one language can certainly be said in another language"(Nida, 1984:14). However, for some English-flavored expressions in business English texts, no direct correspondents can be found in Chinese, nor can literal translation be used to reflect the original meaning to the full extent. In this case, explanation can be resorted to at the sacrifice of the form to fill out the underlying meaning. Take the translation of "general cargo vessel" as an example: The source-language word is semantically complex. It refers to "A vessel designed to handle break-bulk cargo such as bags, cartons, cases, crates and drums, either individually or in unitized or palletized loads." So after careful deliberation, we explain it as "杂货船".

It is often true that the same text may have various translations according to its different functions. The choice is completely decided by the particular situation and supposed target readers that these variants are respectively suitable for. For example, as a department of Economic and Commercial Counselor's Office, Embassy of the People's Republic of China in the United States of America, Office of China Compliance can be translated as "中国履约办公室"; while as a department of Center for Drug Evaluation and Research, then we had better render Office of Compliance into "新药合法性室". The dynamic equivalence of translating Office of Compliance does not mean that a translation version is generally able to fit any cases, but in reality means only the closest natural equivalence for a specific situation. So are the renderings of other business terms. All of them are significant to be transferred according to the different situations where they occur. The basis for the choice of one or another alternative must depend upon how and in what circumstances the target language text is to be employed.

There are other expressions particular to business English which cannot find formal equivalents in Chinese. We will use explanation method to translate them. For examples:

(1)trim. This is a maritime term which means "to make (a boat, a ship or an aircraft) evenly balanced by arranging the position of the cargo or passengers". This verb is known in the target culture but simply not lexicalized. We explain it as "调整货物或乘客的位置使（船或飞机）平稳".

(2)ballast. Ballast refers to heavy material that is placed in the hold of a ship or the gondola of a balloon to enhance stability. By taking the target readers into consideration, explanation expression "压舱物" or "压载" more clearly reflects the original connotation.

Explanation is a useful option if the word which lacks an equivalent in the target language refers to a physical entity which can be explained and kept short, concise, and to the point. In fact, the above-discussed explanatory translation is also a kind of free translation in nature.

4) Literal translation with annotations

This method is extremely useful in translating jargons and slangs. The accurate implication of some of these words or expressions can not be found in dictionaries while others can't be properly explained in dictionaries since they originate from literal quotations in the western culture. The best way to realize dynamic equivalence is literal translation with annotations in brackets or in the margin. Let's take "bed and breakfast deals" as an example. By literal translation, it should be translated into "床

头和早餐交易", which will confuse most target text readers. So some explanations must be added to make it more understandable. It is a kind of business trick by fictitious selling. A person or company sell out his stocks by arranged transaction first and then buy in the same stocks the next day to cause a capital loss and in consequence a tax reduction. This only exists in the Great Britain because of its special revenue policy.

Another example is about the translation of "blue chip" which is "蓝色的筹码" in Chinese by literal translation. This term originates from the poker gambling game in the western countries. In this game, there are round chips of three colors, red, white, and blue, each of which stands for a definite number. Blue chip stands for the biggest number which is almost ten times as big as red chips. So "blue chip" is used to refer to hot number, stocks with good profits, prosperous enterprise, and even big shots in every walk of life. The target text reader will get a better understanding of the term after reading the explanations about it.

4.2.2 Functional Equivalence on Syntactical Level

1) Voice

Voice is a grammatical category which defines the relationship between a verb and its subject. The use of the passive voice is extremely common in many varieties of written English and can pose various problems in translation. Chinese verbs having no voice refer to the fact that the form of the verb in Chinese does not change to indicate its relationship with the subject of the clause.

Here are some examples, which confirm that we are sensitive to the difference in function of the passive in English and in Chinese and generally tend to replace a large number of English passive structures with active structures in Chinese texts in order to avoid unnaturalness and negative connotations.

(1) The sellers have made a favorable quotation but demand that the total quantity of the goods should be lifted within 2-3 weeks.

卖方报价优惠，但要求全部货物要在2到3星期内装运。

(2) If a written agreement for the extension of the period of existence of the JVC is not signed by three years prior to the expiration of the then current period of

existence, the JVC shall terminate at the end of such current period of existence and the provisions of clauses 4.5 and 4.6 shall then apply.

如不在本合资公司(JVC)现有合同期到期前3年签订书面协议，自本合同到期之日起本合资公司即告终止，并开始实施(执行)本协议第四条第五、六款的规定。

(3) The efficiency of machines has been more than doubled or trebled.

这些机器的效率已增加了一倍或两倍多。

(4) We apologize for the trouble caused to you and would like to assure you that all possible steps will be taken by us to avoid any recurrence of similar nature in our future business with you.

此事给你方带来麻烦，我们对此表示歉意，并向你方保证我方将采取一切措施，避免今后在与你方交易中再发生类似的情况。

Rendering a passive structure by an active structure can affect the amount of information given in the clause, the linear arrangement of semantic elements such as agent and affected entity, and the focus of the message. However, one must weigh this potential change in content and focus against the benefits of rendering a smooth, natural translation in contexts where the use of the passive for instance would be stylistically less acceptable than the use of the active or an alternative structure in the target language. For example:

Employee's telephone and address information shall be considered confidential and shall not be disseminated without the permission of the employee.

员工的电话和地址被认为是个人隐私，如果没有本人的同意不能公开。

The above sentence indicates that its subject is the affected entity rather than the agent, and the agent is left unspecified. This is done to show the stress of "Employee telephone and address information" and to distance the writer from the other statements made in the text. We would not break away passive structures on translation, otherwise, the focus of the message will be changed, and similar effect cannot be achieved.

The most important things to bear in mind as far as voice is concerned are the frequency of use of active, passive, and similar structures in the source and target languages, their respective stylistic value in different text types, and -- most important of all -- the function of the passive and similar structures in each language. The idea is not to replace an active form with an active one and a passive form with a passive one; it is always the function of a category rather than the form it takes that is of paramount importance in functional equivalence translation.

2) Collocations

In business translation we must deal with English collocations to fit in with Chinese collocations since both languages have their own idiomatic collocations, which is mainly manifested by verbs collocating with nouns, adjectives with nouns, and verbs with adverbs etc. The way of looking at a collocation would be to think of it in terms of the tendency of certain words to co-occur regularly in a given language. For example: When butter or eggs go bad they are described in English as rancid and addled, respectively. Both rancid and addled mean "stale/rotten", but addled butter and rancid eggs are unacceptable or at least unlikely collocations in English (Palmer, 1976). Moreover, words which we might think of as synonyms or near-synonyms will often have quite different sets of collocation. English speakers typically break rules but they do not break regulations. This is also true in Chinese. The same degree of mismatch that can be observed when comparing the collocation patterns of synonyms and near-synonyms within the same language is evident in the collocation patterning of dictionary equivalents/near equivalents in two languages. For example, the English verb develop collocates with a number of nouns, for each of which Chinese uses a different verb.

Develop

(1) Develop safety precautions and provide training to technical workers as required.

采取安全预防措施并按要求培训技术工人。

(2) Developing, posting and maintaining notices that announce to customers the availability of the interpreter service.

起草、张贴、保留可为客户提供翻译服务的告示。

(3) How are job descriptions developed?

如何履行岗位职责?

More collocation examples:

Cover

(1) Enclosed you will find a check covering all commissions due to you up to date.

随函附上支票一张，包括今天为止应付给你的佣金。

(2) We have specially raised the commission to 5% as to enable you to cover the advertising expenses you may incur in sales promotion.

我们特提高5%的佣金以便你方能支付在促销中所需要的广告开支。

(3) The goods are covered against all risks.

货物已办理所有保险。

Discount

(1) They are US $ 1 each, but if your order exceeds 1000 pieces, we will give you a 10% discount.

他们的单价为一美元，若定货超过一千件，我方将给予你公司九折折扣。

(2) The exporter may take the accepted bill to a discount bank before the maturity if he is in urgent need of amount of money.

出口商如果急需这笔钱，他可以把这个承兑了的汇票去贴现银行贴现。

(3) Exchange dealers only work with these differences, i.e. with premium and discount, expressed in decimal points, between the spot and forward prices.

外汇经纪人只赚取这些差额，即利用即期汇率与远期汇率之间的差价，以小数点表示的贴水和升水。

The use of established patterns of collocation also helps to distinguish between a smooth natural translation, one that reads like an original, and a clumsy translation which sounds "foreign". The above examples given are written in ordinary language, common grammar, idioms and words that meet that kind of situation.

3) Division

Long sentences occupy a big part in business English since it is a morphologic and hypotaxis language and full of inflections. While Chinese is a parataxis language, the structure of sentence is organized not as strictly as English in grammar. English sentence especially long sentence could be a tight, terse one because many sentence elements are organized in an unchangeable way, and words that used as connection symbols occupy an unremarkable part. On the contrary, Chinese sentences are mostly short and connected with each other by logic relations and context, not by grammar marks. So in many cases, long sentences in business English should be divided into short sentences in light of features of the Chinese language. For example,

Whereas under the original contracts the plaintiffs complied with the obligation of opening letters of credit within a reasonable time in advance of the first shipment period, in relation to the contracts amended as aforesaid the plaintiffs took no steps whatever to open the appropriate letters of credits, either within a reasonable time of the first shipment period or at all.

In this sentence, many grammar marks appear and many proposition phrases are used to connect the whole sentence. The first part of the sentence is an adverbial clause of concession. There are three proposition phrases to modify the obligation in this part. And the main part of the sentence is in the second part. In the second part, two infinitive phrases are used as adverbial phrase of purpose and are connected by the phrase *either...or,* which is the modifier of *took....* Though it is only one sentence here, the structure is very complex . It is very important to understand the logic relationship of each part of the sentence. The suggested translation is as follows:

虽然申诉人根据原合同履行了在第一个装运期以前合理时间内开立信用证的义务，但在合同作了上述修改之后， 申诉人在第一个装运期的合理时间内没有或根本没有采取任何步骤开立适当的信用证，或对现有的信用证做适当的变更。

This example shows that division does not mean dividing the long sentence into several parts at random. It is divided in light of sense groups and then restructured on the basis of the logic relation of Chinese. Another example:

If, under the contract, the buyer is to specify the form, measurement or other features of the goods and he fails to make such specification either on the date agreed upon or within a reasonable time after receipt of a request from the seller, the seller may, without prejudice to any other rights he may have, make the specification himself in accordance with the requirements of the buyer that may be known to him.

The adverbial clause of condition in this sentence is very long, the two levels of meaning are connected by the conjunction *and.* And in the second level, an adverbial phrase of time *either on the date upon or within a reasonable time after receipt of a request from the seller* appears. If this sentence is only expressed by one sentence when it is translated into Chinese, the entire meaning can not be conveyed clearly at all. As a result, necessary divisions are needed. Consequently, the adverbial clause of condition is still in the first part and the adverbial phrase of time is placed before the verb it modifies. The translation is like the following:

若按本合同之规定应由买方决定货物之形状、尺寸或其他特征，但买方在双方议定的时间内，或在收到卖方的要求后的合理期限内，未能作出上述规定，则卖方有权根据买方的已知要求自行规定，此情况不损害买方享有的任何其他权利。

4.2.3 Functional Equivalence on Textual Level

Text, sometimes called discourse, is the largest linguistic unit of language. It is basically made up of words, sentences. According to the principle of functional equivalence clarified in Chapter One, discourse equivalence should be the ultimate aim of a translation (in this sense discourse should be the real translation unit). However, discourse equivalence can only be built upon the basis of functional equivalence in words and sentences. On the basis of functional equivalence in words and sentences, cohesion device should be used to make all the words and sentences work as a whole. Cohesion is the network of lexical, grammatical, and other relations which provide links between various parts of a text. Reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and collocation devices are identified for establishing cohesive links in English. Each device is explained below in some detail with an attempt to explore its relevance to coherence in translation equivalence.

1) Reference

Reference is a device which allows the reader or hearer to trace participants, entities, events, etc, in a text. In English, pronouns are often used to refer to a noun proceeding to avoid repetition. Apart from personal reference, English also uses items such as the, this, that, these, and those to establish similar links between expressions in a text. In the example of "Mrs. Thatcher has resigned. This delighted her opponents", the reader has to go back to the previous stretch of discourse to establish what *This* refers to. But in Chinese, a totally different pattern seems to be in operation. Pronouns are hardly ever used and, once a participant is introduced, continuity of reference is signaled by omitting the subjects of following clauses. In business English translation, sometimes, there should be omission of pronouns in the Chinese version too. For example:

Credit cards enable their holders to obtain goods and services on credit. *They* are issued by retail stores, banks, or credit card companies to approved clients. The *bank or credit card company* settles *the client's* bills, invoicing *him* monthly and charging interest on any outstanding debts. *Their* profit comes from the high rate of interest charged, the card-holder's subscriptions, and the fees paid by some organization that accept cards.

Translation:

信用卡能使持卡人通过赊帐的方式购买商品、得到服务。信用卡经零售商店、银行和信用卡公司发放给经过认可的客户。银行或信用卡公司结清客户的帐单，按月给客户开列其消费清单，并收取欠款的利息。这些金融机构的利润来自所收取的高额利息、持卡人支付的认购费以及接受信用卡消费的单位缴纳的代理费。

It is obvious that translating "they" into "信用卡" but not "它们" accords with the language convention of Chinese and makes the target text more coherent . So does "him". And the pronoun "their" in the last sentence refers to "the bank or credit card company", and its reference meaning is translated out in the target text to make the whole text coherent linguistically and easily to be understood.

2) Conjunction

Obviously, there are fewer conjunctions in the Chinese text than in the English one. English conjunctions are used to express the logical and grammatical relations between words or to connect context in syntactical structures. There are some similarities between English conjunctions and Chinese conjunctions. Firstly, they have the same functions . Exactly speaking, these conjunctions could reflect all kinds of semantic relations and logic relations between clauses, sentences and paragraphs when they are used as cohesive devices to connect sentence with sentence or paragraph with paragraph. Secondly, both in English and in Chinese, conjunctions are placed in most cases at the beginning of the clauses and they are just like ties that relate sentences together. Thirdly, in terms of style, some conjunctions are very often used in the written form both in English and Chinese. For example, in English, there are "alternatively", "hitherto", "thereby", "hence" etc., and in Chinese, there are "再者", "而后", "故", "鉴于" and so on.

However, there are also some differences. Conjunctions sometimes could be omitted by using lexical cohesion since Chinese is a paratactic language. On the contrary, English is a hypotactic language, and conjunctions can not be omitted in most cases, and they have to be used as a tie that link sentence to sentence into a text.

According to the analysis above, we think that translation equivalence could be achieved in terms of conjunction. Since English and Chinese conjunctions have the same functions and occupy the same or similar position (most of them are placed at the beginning) in the sentence, literal translation is very often used, and translation equivalence could be realized this way. For example:

I am pleased to inform you that the dispute has now been settled *and* we should be back to normal production within a few days. *Nevertheless, as* you can imagine, we are now faced with a sizeable backlog of orders. I have spoken to our production manager this morning, and he informs me that it will take at least ten days to clear these.

Translation:

所幸的是，我可以告知您，纠纷现在已经解决，我们几天内就能恢复正常生产。不过，您可以想象的到，我们已经积蓄了一大堆定单。即日上午我已与生产部经理谈过，他告知我至少要花十天来消除这些积压。

In the target text the three conjunctive words — "and", "nevertheless" and "as" — are translated literally. But since Chinese is paratactic, the meaning of "and" and "as" can be understood in text without the use of the two conjunctive words. This example shows that in business translation, translators should have much freedom to make options as those doing literary translation rather than just translate literally and formally.

3) Substitution

Substitution is the replacement of one item by another. In terms of grammatical and rhetorical systems, substitution is considered to be an important device used to avoid redundant repetition. Although both English and Chinese have the phenomenon of substitution, there do exist some differences in the use of substitution between both languages.

First of all, English words have their inflections. Nominal substitutes have their singular and plural forms and verbal substitutes must be changed according to the tense of the sentence. For example,

I bought a red jumper, and then I saw a nicer blue *one.*

I bought a red jumper, and my sister *did* too.

However, Chinese words do not have inflectional forms. So translators have to consider whether to translate the substituted meaning or not according to the convention of the target language. For example, Chinese does not have corresponding nominal substitute for the English word "one". In the aspect of translation, when used as a nominal substitute, "one" is often translated into "一个", and in many cases, it is not translated into the same nominal substitute, but into the form of reference, and it is also the case with other substitutes. For example:

This is the year, they predict, that Web-enabled phones will take off, both here and in Europe. If you don't already have *one*, you'll probably find *one* under the Christmas tree.

Translation:

他们预言：今年将是可上网手机在欧洲和这里开始流行的一年。如果你到现在还没有，今年的圣诞节就会在圣诞树下发现一部作为礼物的可上网手机。

In the original text, the two words "one" are used to substitute the mentioned "Web-enable phone" respectively to avoid repetition. In order to make the translation cohesive when translating, the translator translates the second "one" by repeating "可上网手机", but omit the first "one". The formal changes achieve a functional equivalence.

4) Ellipsis

Ellipsis can be defined as substitution by zero. With the use of ellipsis the conversation will be briefer so that the new information can be stressed. At the same time, the relationship between elliptical structure and elliptical items contribute very largely to cohesion within the text. There are also three types of ellipsis: nominal, verbal, and clausal. The following examples will show us how to deal with the ellipsis to realize translation equivalence.

In future trade the key development to watch is the relationship between the industrial(...)and the development nations.

Translation:

在将来的贸易中，一个要注意观察的重要趋势是<u>工业化国家</u>与发展中国家之间的关系。

Historical evidence shows that birth(...)and death rates level off as countries move into the industrial stage.

Translation:

历史证据表明：一些国家进入工业化阶段以后，<u>人口出生率</u>和死亡率便会拉平。

In order to avoid repetition, the word "nation" after "industrial" is omitted in the English version and "rate" after "birth", which is accordant with English grammar to made the expressions shorter and the message clearer. But in the translation according to the language convention of Chinese, instead of a formal translation the two omitted words are added to help the target readers read easily.

5) Collocation

According to Halliday, (1985:333) "there are other instances of lexical cohesion which do not depend on any general semantic relationship of the types just discussed, but rather on a particular association between the items in question — a tendency to co-occur. This co-occurrence tendency is known as collocation".

The following are examples to illustrate this phenomenon:

Many Third World nations with high unemployment and low wages have seen an emigration of workers to the developed nations. Western Europe has received millions of *such workers* from Mediteration countries. The developing nations profit when these worker bring their savings and their acquired technical skills back home. Many developing nations benefit when Western nations establish manufacturing in *their countries* to take advantage of cheap labor.

Translation:

在很多失业率高、工资低的第三世界国家出现了工人移居发达国家的现象。西欧接受了来自地中海国家的这种工人数以百万计。当这些工人把他们的积蓄和学到的技能带回本国时，这些发展中国家就受益了。西方国家在本国利用廉价的劳动力开办工厂，同时也使他们的国家从中得到了好处。

In the above example, there are two categories of lexical collocations: one is related to "developing nations": "Third World nations, Mediterranean countries, the developing nations, high unemployment and low wage, *such workers*, these workers, cheap labor"; the other related to "developed nations": the developed nations, Western Europe, Western nations, establish manufacturing and so on. If translating "such worker" into "这种工人" formally the target readers will be confused, but analyzing the context logically, the reference meaning of "such workers" is the same as that of "cheap labor", so the functional equivalence will be achieved by translating "such workers" into "廉价劳动力". Similarly, it is better to translate "their" in the last sentence into "发展中国家" rather than put it literally into "他们的". The suggested translation is: ...西欧接受了来自地中海国家的数以万计的廉价劳动力。...西方国家在本国利用廉价的劳动力开办工厂，同时也使发展中国家从中得到了好处。

Another example goes as follows:

One of the things we have to understand about Japanese society is its gender structure, a structure similar to what the United States had in the 1950s. Women do all the domestic labor. Men are in the factories and shops and they're working long hours, but they don't do much work when they come home. They don't take care of children; they don't do housework, cooking, etc. In the U.S. *there are both men and women in* *the work force and both men and women at home.* Japanese workers may work longer in the marketplace, but you have to calculate *the total amount of work* that people do to figure out how hard people are working and how much leisure time they have.

Translation:

我们必须了解日本社会的一个特点，那就是他的性别结构，与美国五十年代时类似的结构。妇女包揽全部家务劳动，男人到工厂、商店上班，工作时间很长，但回到家里就不干活了。他们不看管孩子，不做家务事，不做饭，等等。在美国，有很多男人和女人都在劳动大军之列，也有都在家里的。日本工人可能在市场里工作的时间较长，但是我们在估计人们工作的辛苦程度以及他们有多少闲暇时，必须把整个工作量都计算进去。

Comparing with the original text, we'll find that coherence is lost in the target text. The topic of the original text is the different gender structure between America and Japan, that is, the issue whether men do housework or not. Then how can the situation happen that "有很多男人和女人都在劳动大军之列，也有都在家里的"? In addition, why Japanese workers work longer "在市场"? What's more, what is "整个工作量" about? So the literal translation is incoherent and obscure. In the original text, there are two lexical collocations describing the work outside and inside home respectively---(1) in factories and shops, in the work force, in the marketplace; (2) do domestic labor, take care of children, do housework, cooking, at home, etc. In light of the collocations, the meaning of " in the marketplace" should be "在职场，在工作地点" but not "在市场"; "at home" should be "从事家务劳动" but not "在家里"; "the total current of work" should be "全部的工作和家务劳动". So the suggested translation of the last two sentences is: "在美国，男女都参加工作，也都从事家务劳动。日本工人可能在职场劳动时间较长，但我们在估计人们的劳动强度和闲暇时间多少时，必须把全部工作和家务劳动都计算在内。"

Through free translating based on the analysis of collocation, the information is better represented in the target text, which appears more coherent and logical, and performs the same function as the source text does.

Chapter 5 The Functional Equivalence Theory needs Further Improvement

Good theory is based on information gained from practice. Good practice is based on carefully worked out theory. Functional equivalence theory has proved to be very effective in cross-cultural translation. Its advantages are very obvious, although the highest degree of equivalence is hard to achieve. However, there is no universal theory that applies to all translation materials, neither is the theory of functional equivalence. Its limitations ans flaws are also seen through practice of cross-cultural translation. Some translation theorists even disagree with and attack the functional equivalent theory.

5.1 Suitable Texts Type

There is no universal theory that applies to all translation materials, neither is the theory of functional equivalence. Its limitations and flaws are also seen through the practice of business English translation. We must acknowledge that functional equivalence is suitable to texts whose main functions are informative. These kinds of texts do not aspire for aesthetic values of language, but it stresses logical clarity and precise reasoning and avoids ambiguity and vague expressions. Works of science and technology, works of social science can apply functional equivalence theory well in translation. Using functional equivalence theory in Literary works translation will have some problems. For example, One should not translate poetry as though it were prose.

5.2 Reader's Response Needs to be Re-explained

The translator should take the reader's cultural background and decoding ability into consideration. But we should not stress "the readers' response" too much, because it is very difficult to find out how the original readers responded to the text when the work was done hundreds of years ago. It is also impossible to evaluate effectively the target readers' response. That is because, on one hand, we have all kinds of readers ranging from the educated ones who know a lot about source culture to the less educated ones who know nothing about the source culture. On the other hand, readers of different times may have quite different cultural background and knowledge basis. But the translation can not be continually renewed for each new generation. So a translation which once successfully gained the intended response from the readers may not really work for the new generation because of the cognitive change of the readers.

5.3 Blocking the Cultural Exchange

Some translators argued that functional equivalence is too target reader oriented. Nida once says the English phrase "white as snow" should be translated "as white as egret feather" when its target readers live in tropic area. For tropical people, snow is quite a strange thing they have never seen. Such phrase as "as white as snow" will cause confusion. However, in this globalizing world, people and countries are no longer isolated. Tropical people also have a clear idea of what snow is. So they can accept "as white as snow" as easily as the source text readers.

Furthermore, one of the purposes of a translation is to exchange ideas and culture. Translation should reflect the alien things and introduce the ideas and customs from a strange culture. By remaining the alien things in translation, we can promote understanding among different countries and peoples. Sometimes the translator might intentionally use the unfamiliar terms in the target text and expect them to be accepted by the target readers.

For example, for the sentence "In the country of the blind, the one-eyed man is king", traditionally the functional equivalent could be "蜀中无大将，廖化充先锋". Now the functional equivalence should be the formal correspondence "盲人国里，独眼为王". The reason why "蜀中无大将，廖化充先锋" is discarded is that it is too culture-loaded. Chinese readers may have a misconception that the English people know the Chinese culture very well. On the other hand, "盲人国里，独眼为王" will be accepted by Chinese readers without causing confusion.

For words which are strongly culture-loaded, any attempt to translate them with target language words or phrases will not be appreciated. On the contrary, literal translation will not only show the differences in customs and habits between the two cultures, but also enrich the vocabulary of the target language. When there are no proper equivalents in the target language, new words can be coined. Numerous new vocabularies were coined by translators such as 因特网，巴士，咖啡，沙丁鱼，吉普...etc. Only by transliteration in such cases, can closest equivalent and readers' similar response be achieved.

Conclusion

Functional theory has a relatively short history but attracts much attention especially in the field of business translation which develops more and more quickly from either theoretic or practical perspective. In this thesis, a functional equivalence oriented approach to translation of business English has been explored. The main points of the thesis are summarized as follows:

The whole thesis starts with the introduction of functional theory, mainly functionalists in Germany. After a survey of the development of functional theory, functional equivalence put forward by Nida is proposed as a reasonable one to guide business translation. We hold that Nida's functional equivalence is a term with comprehensive implicatures. It is the comprehensiveness and flexibility that make the concept quite applicable in translation, including business English translation. Though Nida's theory surely needs to be improved, this paper has proved that it can be applied to business English translation except for English advertisements and other special situations .

Then the language features of business English are analysed under the guidance of Nida's functional equivalence theory, which is conducted from both the perspective of function and style. As Nida said, language has two types of functions, one is psychological functions, the other is sociological functions. The primary sociological functions of language contain the following types: interpersonal, informative, imperative, performative, and emotive. However, in view of the purpose of business English, the language in this special register may have the following two main functions: interpersonal and informative functions. When we talk about the language features of business English, style refers to how words, sentences and discourse are used in the business register. Business has its own concrete features in lexeme, syntax, and discourse. We hold the idea that business English writings possess the following features: conciseness, clearness, consistency, correctness, formality, courtesy and completeness. Furthermore it is demonstrated that the translation of business English is a kind of cross-cultural translation so as to set a good foundation for the research on translation skills and strategies. It is stated that culture-loaded terms may have no equivalents in the target language, and the same culture-loaded term may have different associative meanings in different cultures.

This paper explores the translation of business English in the light of the positive elements of Nida's functional equivalence. It is found that either the advocating of literal translation or free translation as the sole method is inevitably one-sided because translation does not stop at the target message. It is impossible to translate every word or sentence in an article literally, nor is there any necessity of translating every sentence freely. Instead of attempting to defend literal or free translating, or trying to reconcile the two by aiming at a compromise, Nida's functional equivalence approaches the problem from a dynamic perspective. First of all, some principles for the business English translation are summarized under the guidance of Nida's functional equivalence theory. It is found that meaning has priority over form; complete intelligibility on the part of the readership and creating the similar effect as the original text should be the goal of translation; the realization of functional equivalence in translating business English in reality is a dynamic process of choosing the best translation from various alternatives. Different translation strategies may be applied as long as it can transfer the original meaning properly and to the "same" effect. Some effective strategies are explored on lexical, syntactical, textual level respectively. Equivalence on textual level should be the ultimate pursuit in the process of translating. However, equivalence is only the desirable result, rather than the aim of translation. The effects of translation have to be harnessed to the different cultural, economic and religious settings. On the analogy of this, functional equivalence in the translation of business English in fact refers to the closest equivalence of the original business English text in the target language by selecting the most suitable rendering way.

The positive elements of Nida's functional equivalence inform and guide the decisions we have to make in the course of performing business translation. However, every option will have its advantages and disadvantages. Little research work has been done on it so far. Thus this thesis is a prime and bold attempt. Undoubtedly, more proper approaches to business translation will emerge in the near future since translations are continually a "work in progress" and can always be improved. Any comments and suggestions for improvement will be greatly appreciated..

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