

English Language Features in Brochures Promoting Thai Tourism and Thai-English Translation Strategies

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Abstract

This study analysed English language features in translated brochures promoting Thai tourism and Thai-English translation strategies applied in the brochures' translation. With a lottery method, thirty bilingual brochures with Thai as source texts and English as translated texts promoting tourist attractions in the six regions of Thailand were selected. Durán-Muñoz's (2012) tourism language was used as a framework to analyse the English language features while Pinmanee's (2012) translation strategies were used as a framework to analyse the Thai-English translation strategies. All the data were also analysed inductively to explore any emerging patterns before developing them into themes. The findings revealed that Durán-Muñoz's tourism language and Pinmanee's translation strategies were spotted with some emerging themes being identified. Arguably, the findings can yield both knowledge addition in the literature and practical implications beneficial for translators, those interested in tourism translation, and those responsible for translation courses in the sphere of education.

Keywords: brochure translation, English language features, Thai-English translation, tourism translation, translation strategies

In Thailand, tourism revenue is claimed to be one of the largest revenue sources of the country. According to Morgan (2023), the tourism industry generated a revenue of 3 trillion baht in 2023. The tourism strength is clearly shown in the country's master plan under the National Strategy (2018-2037) which stipulates Thai tourism promotion, perceiving it as a powerful drive to maximise international competitive capabilities, generate more income, and mitigate Thai society's inequality (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Council, 2018). In attempting to be one of the world-class tourist destinations, the plan aims to attract more quality tourists by promoting national and local cultural heritage and identity.

Thai tourism has been promoted through several channels. One of the promotional marketing tools is the use of brochures, which can be in both printed and electronic versions. The brochures are popular tourism promotional materials (Brito & Pratas, 2015), falling under the advertising discourse category (Sulaiman, 2016). Embedded in the advertising discourse, the brochure language is claimed to perform intended promotional functions. That is to say, it needs to be persuasive and amply convincing, enabling potential tourists to become actual tourists (Dann, 1996).

Given that potential tourists include not only domestic tourists but also international tourists, increasing importance is attached to tourism translation. Despite this, Sulaiman (2016) notes that this translation type is frequently claimed to be of poor standard. This may be due to the following three challenges. First, tourism translation strives for the preservation of the persuasiveness expressed in a source text (Durán-Muñoz, 2011). This indicates that in the translation process, both semantic and perlocutionary equivalences need to be underpinned in tandem. Second, tourism language is claimed to be a specialised kind of discourse containing its own syntactic and textual features, particularly lexical features with its terminology being derived from diverse disciplinary areas, such as history, geology, sport, popular culture, and art (Agorni, 2016; Dann, 1996; Durán-Muñoz, 2012; Gandin, 2013; Maci, 2010). This suggests that the translation of tourism language is specialised (Durán-Muñoz, 2012) and may need specialised translators. Third, language is part of culture, and in the translation process in which a text from a source language is rendered into a target language, culture is unavoidable (Vermeer, 2000). Culture particularly plays a dominant role in tourism translation. We generally accept that different places and societies embody different cultural values. Tourism that involves travelling to other places and experiencing other societies is therefore culturally bound. In tourism translation, two cultures hidden in two different texts need to be mediated to achieve successful communication (Agorni, 2016). Still, as Agorni (2016) puts it, the key challenge can be “*the cultural traits which characterise destinations from a specific historical, geographic, and social point of view*” (p. 13). It can even be challenging when a source text and a target text display an obvious cultural non-equivalence, whereas cultural equivalence is commissioned by paying clients.

With said challenges, research giving insights into tourism translation is deemed necessary. However, Agorni (2012b) argues that such research is a recent development. It seems evident that in Thai-English and English-Thai tourism translation contexts, relevant research is likewise limited. Particularly, there has been scant research on the translation of tourism promotional brochures that highlights both tourism English features in translated brochures and Thai-English translation strategies being applied. The current study was thus undertaken to address the gap. The justification for analysing tourism English in brochure translation, apart from the analysis of translation strategies, is that tourism

English, albeit recognised as a powerful force to drive the economy worldwide, is understudied (Wilson, 2018). The two main issues, tourism English and translation strategies, are then rewarding areas to study. Two research questions were accordingly formulated. First, what English language features are demonstrated in brochures promoting Thai tourism? Second, what are Thai-English translation strategies applied in the translation of brochures promoting Thai tourism?

Literature Review

Tourism Language

Tourism language is specialised (Dann, 1996) with its discourse used in cross-cultural communication (Agorni, 2012b). Kelly (1998) describes the type of language as any text published by public or private organisations aiming at advertising information on a tourist destination and encouraging text readers to visit the place. Kelly's notion suggests that the text contains a dual function: informative and persuasive. The informative function is claimed to be the main function as the tourism texts' purpose is to inform about a tourist attraction and its relevant information (Durán-Muñoz, 2012). However, many scholars argue that the persuasive function is also key. For example, Dann (1996) claims that "*the language of tourism attempts to persuade, lure, woo and seduce millions of human beings, and in so doing, convert them from potential into actual clients*" (p. 2). Agorni (2012a) highlights the decisive role of the persuasive function by pointing out an abundant use of metaphorical associations and a rich application of adjectives, particularly extraordinary adjectives showing a sense of exaggeration and hyperbole, often through the use of analogy or comparison. Bhatia (2004) notes that tourism texts are perceived to be an advertising genre including several language advertising strategies, such as the use of positive words and systematic nominalisation, thereby indicating a persuasive function. As can be seen, many language strategies are claimed to be applied to persuade tourists who have various tourist purposes, such as seeking authenticity (MacCannell, 1989) as well as familiarity and strangeness (E. Cohen, 1972). With persuasiveness being highlighted, tourism language utilises positive language to denote pleasure including happiness, satisfaction, joy, peace, and excitement (Dann, 1996). This suggests that words signifying negativity, such as impossibilities, hopelessness, problems, and apathy should be avoided. Despite this, words conveying an imperative mood also prevail. Chiwanga (2014) attests to this conviction:

Imperative mood is associated with illocutionary force, thus a request of command. It is clear that the speaker wants to stress control over the listener, so the language is essentially oratory and attempts to persuade or dissuade using the rhetoric (e.g., ‘Think of not feeding animals in the national park’). (p. 154)

Chiwanga’s view indicates that the imperative mood in tourism texts needs not to be negative. Moreover, reflecting positivity, the mood can be used “*to urge the tourist to avail him/herself of the opportunities which are on offer*” (Durán Muñoz, 2012, p. 337).

Another recognised aspect of tourism language is languaging which is a technique of using foreign or coined words in a text. It is argued that in the tourism arena, this technique activates “*a sense of exotic feeling in the tourist*” (Durán Muñoz, 2012, p. 337) and “*sweetens the language*” (Chiwanga, 2014, p. 157). The languaging technique can be found in many types of tourism materials, especially in brochures and menus (Chiwanga, 2014). As this technique includes invented words, it implies that creativity is welcomed, and it needs to be devised on purposes, namely persuasive purposes, which are considered to be crucial for tourism text types.

Durán Muñoz (2012, p. 337-338) interestingly characterises tourism text features into the following three levels: lexical, syntactic, and functional. The lexical language features involve positive adjectives, superlatives, very careful lexical choices of keywords (including languaging), and cultural references or realia. The syntactic language features concern preference for nominalisation, imperatives, and the present simple tense. At a functional level, this includes two primary functions: referential and persuasive functions. At this level, other secondary functions are sometimes identified, namely expressive function, conative function, and poetic function. Durán Muñoz’s description of tourism text features appears to comprise all pertinent levels that can benefit this research. It was accordingly applied as one of its analysis frameworks. However, it should be noted that at the functional level, only the primary functions were selected.

Translation Strategies

Translation is generally understood as a transfer process from a source language to a target language in which either linguistic transfer or meaning transfer is foregrounded depending on translators’ or commissioners’ purposes. To produce translation works, translation strategies are needed. These strategies are considered to be ways or methods applied when transferring a source language to a target language. Many scholars express their views on how translation strategies should be. For example, Baker (2018) proposes word-level translation strategies devoted to cultural contexts. Her eight translation strategies include translation by a more general word (superordinate), translation by a more neutral/less expressive word, translation by cultural substitution, translation by use of a loan word or loan

word plus explanation, translation by paraphrase using related words, translation by paraphrase using unrelated words, translation by omission, and translation by illustration. Newmark (1988) offers twelve translation strategies to deal with cultural words. They are transference, cultural equivalent, neutralization, literal translation, label, naturalization, componential analysis, deletion, couplet, accepted standard translation, paraphrase, and classifier.

Notwithstanding, despite a plethora of strategies being offered in the literature, the study selected a set of strategies suggested by Pinmanee (2012) due to two justifications. First, her strategies can also accommodate translation in cultural contexts, ones that prevail in tourism translation. Second, these strategies include those at word and structure levels. The second justification is deemed significant as this covers not only word-level translation but also sentence-level translation, which can provide more insights into Thai-English tourism translation contexts. Her strategies are as follows.

- 1) Using loan words or borrowed words for the names of people, things, or places by romanising or transliterating the names in a source text into target language alphabets
- 2) Using one form with a variety of meanings when a word in a source language can be translated into several words with the same meaning in a target language
- 3) Using one meaning with a variety of forms when several words in a source language can be translated into merely one word in a target language
- 4) Using addition to clarify meaning with readers' understanding as an ultimate goal
- 5) Using deletion when some texts in terms of words, phrases, and sentences are deemed familiar in target readers' cultures or when they are considered unimportant, redundant, or vague
- 6) Using generalisation when unshared concepts in a source language culture are diagnosed, and the concepts should hence be generalised to facilitate target text readers' understanding
- 7) Using cultural substitution by substituting cultural-specific concepts or items in a source language with similar ones in a target language when target text readers' understanding is prioritised over the preservation of a source language culture
- 8) Using word and sentence reformations to make a translated text suit a target language's grammatical structure

Tourism Translation

Tourism is argued to be associated with a cultural experience (Bryce et al., 2013). Tourism texts are therefore loaded with culture-specific items (Durán-Muñoz, 2012), and tourism translation is perceived as a cultural mediation

(Agorni, 2016; Durán-Muñoz, 2012; Terestyényi, 2011). Aixelá (1996) describes the culture-specific items in translation as:

Those actually actualized items whose function and connotation in a source text involve a translation problem in their transference to a target text, whenever this problem is a product of the nonexistence of the referred item or of its different intertextual status in the cultural system of the readers of the target text. (p. 58)

Aixelá's notion suggests that translation strategies are needed to cope with the challenges. Dann (1996) similarly points out this issue, adding that tourism translation can create tension when decisions have to be made on selected translation strategies: either domestication or foreignisation. These two types of strategies, domestication and foreignisation, are introduced by Venuti (1995). Venuti views domestication as a strategy that can provide target text readers with familiarity by mitigating cultural differences through replacing unfamiliar foreign concepts with familiar things and foreignisation as a strategy to offer something strange from their familiarity by using some features of a source language. Dann (1996) notes that in tourism translation contexts, the domestication strategy can pose a risk of losing translated text readers who are considered potential tourists as it may lessen their recreational drives. Concerning the foreignisation strategy, Dann writes that cultural differences introduced as key and attracting features may run a similar risk when the readers cannot decode the differences. Dann notes that these risks of the two strategies may result in potential tourists declining a tourist offer. Sanning (2010) also points out the advantages and disadvantages of the two strategies. The domestication strategy, Sanning claims, helps target text readers understand a translated text, but perhaps some cultural and historical aspects of a source text can be lost. For the foreignisation strategy, Sanning says that it reveals and disseminates the cultural and historical aspects of the source text, but it can overlook the readers' understanding which possibly leads to losing the function of attracting target tourists. Agorni (2012b) suggests that tourism translators need to strike a balance: utilising various strategies and determining the extent to which cultural differences should be amplified or diminished depending on certain situations. Durán-Muñoz (2011) similarly contends that translators must carefully ponder each separate situation and then make a decision on suitable strategies for translating culture-specific items, particularly those that do not exist in a target culture (so-called *realia*), to attract potential tourists to target destinations. Agorni's perception as well as that of Durán-Muñoz indicates that translators need to take into account provided situations and employ their criticality to strategy selection.

Related Studies

Concerning the language used in tourism brochures, Tyschenko and Krasucka (2020) examined evaluative vocabulary in British travel articles taken from the Official Tourism Website of Great Britain. They applied descriptive and deductive methods and elements of functional, discourse, and pragmatic analyses. An important finding showed that the use of a positive strategy was utilised to form tourists' positive attitudes towards certain tourist objects. To fulfil the formation, it was found that evaluative language was used. They were, for example, evaluative adjectives, superlative adjectives, and evaluative adverbs.

In the field of tourism translation, Terestyényi (2011) explored Hungarian-English translation techniques in tourism brochures published by the Hungarian National Tourist Office. This qualitative research collected data on culture-specific items in the brochures and grouped them into four categories: geography, ethnography, ethics, and art and culture. The findings showed that the typical translation techniques applied were transcription/transference, circumlocution, and addition. However, Terestyényi noted that when using addition with lengthy explanations, the flow of the texts could be broken and original meaning, to some degree, can be lost.

Another interesting study was conducted by Sodiq et al. (2021) who did descriptive qualitative research to identify the translation techniques used in translating cultural issues in Indonesian tourism brochures, particularly the religious tourist destinations in Semarang City. The results showed ten translation techniques: pure borrowing, established equivalence, pure borrowing-established equivalence, deletion, pure borrowing-deletion, generalisation, modulation, generalisation-pure borrowing, pure borrowing-modulation, and modulation-deletion. The two most dominant techniques were found to be pure borrowing and established equivalence.

In Thai-English tourism translation contexts, Chueasuai (2022) analysed the tourism discursive elements in the Tourism Authority of Thailand's English web pages promoting Bangkok. Using Durán Muñoz (2012) and Dann (1996) as an analysis framework, one of Chueasuai's findings revealed that literal translation was used to maintain original meaning while adaptation was applied to bolster the tourism discourse quality despite some of the original meanings being changed.

From the review of relevant literature, in the context of Thai-English tourism brochures, English language features and translation strategies utilised in the brochures appear scarce. To address this gap, the current study therefore investigates these two issues.

Research Methodology

Data under Study

The selected brochures comprised printed and electronic brochures boosting Thai tourism. These brochures were bilingual, containing Thai as source texts and English as their translated texts. They were published by governmental bodies, private organisations, or community-based organisations. The information presented in the brochures, though varied, appears to share a common scope of information: they include such information as historical and cultural facts of tourist destinations, local food and products, tourist activities, accommodation and services, provided contacts, and routes and transportation. Thailand comprises six regions: North Thailand, Central Thailand, Northeast Thailand, East Thailand, West Thailand, and South Thailand (Boontang, n.d.). Using the simple random sampling technique (lottery), the study had five brochures representing the attractions in each region, thereby examining thirty brochures in total. It should be noted that the analyses of the English language features and translation strategies were based on the same set of data. That is to say, the translated versions of the brochures were used to analyse the English language features whereas the analysis of the translation strategies was based on the comparison of the Thai source texts and the English translations of the brochures.

Data Analysis

This study applied both deductive and inductive approaches to data analysis. The following steps were undertaken.

- 1) The brochures were read multiple times until the data was familiarised.
- 2) Durán Muñoz's tourism language (2012) was used to analyse the English language features in the English versions of the brochures. In addition to this, emerging language features were noticed, coded, and developed into themes.
- 3) Pinmanee's translation strategies (2012) were used to analyse Thai-English translation strategies applied in the brochures' translation. The identified strategies were counted every time for frequency and calculated for percentage. Notably, other translation strategies, in addition to those proposed by Pinmanee, were also processed into code and theme development.
- 4) Each English language feature and Thai-English translation strategy, accompanied by their examples, were described and discussed.
- 5) The data analysis results were submitted to three English language experts for inter-rater reliability. Jacob Cohen's (1960) Kappa statistics and criteria for the interpretation of Kappa values proposed by Landis and Koch (1977) were applied. Said criteria and their interpretations are as follows.

0.81-1.00	Almost perfect agreement
0.61-0.80	Substantial agreement
0.41-0.61	Moderate agreement

0.21-0.40	Fair agreement
0.00-0.20	Slight agreement
Less than 0.00	Poor agreement

Here, the Kappa result for the English language features was 0.85 while that for Thai-English translation strategies was 0.82. These indicate the almost perfect agreements among the experts. Nevertheless, for some different opinions, the researcher and the experts discussed them to arrive at a conclusion.

Findings and Discussion

English Language Features

By using Durán-Muñoz's (2012) tourism language features as the analysis framework, the findings were classified into the following three linguistic levels: lexical, syntactic, and functional.

Lexical Level

Durán-Muñoz's lexical level that was identified included four English language aspects: positive adjectives, superlatives, very careful lexical choices of keywords and languaging, and cultural references or realia. Moreover, two emerging aspects were found, namely adverbs and source language symbols.

1) Positive adjectives

The findings showed that the positive adjectives were largely applied. These words were, for example, 'amazing', 'good', 'fascinating', and 'delicious'. This accords with some scholars' notions (i.e., Dan, 1996; Durán-Muñoz, 2012; Kelly, 1998) and is in line with Tyschenko and Krasucka's study (2020). Notably, many positive adjectives identified are those more powerful, stronger, and more intense than regular ones (e.g., 'extraordinary', 'complicated', 'stunning', 'superb', and 'meticulous'). It echoes Agorni's (2012a) view that highlights the use of extraordinary adjectives to express a sense of exaggeration, and thereby persuasion. Nevertheless, although overall the positive adjectives abounded, in some brochures, they were few. Arguably, those with few positive adjectives tended to focus on descriptive information, as opposed to persuasive information.

2) Cultural references or realia

It was found that when concepts implied in Thai cultural words did not exist in English, these words were transcribed into English. Some Thai untranslatable words were followed by explanations of what they were or looked like, such as 'Bueang Yuan (Vietnamese pancake)' and 'bon (asking holy spirits for help and promising something in return)'. However, other Thai untranslatable words were also used without explanations, such as 'wai' and 'sontam'. Observably, the words presented without their explanations seem well-known among international tourists.

3) Very careful choices of keywords and languaging

This study found that keywords and languaging were very carefully selected. For example, ‘serene’ and ‘simple’ can be interpreted as the selected keywords used for attracting those wishing to escape from a hectic life, and ‘explore’ for attracting those keen on browsing things. The finding reflects Durán-Muñoz’s (2012) notion that the type of language feature is used to serve tourists’ holiday expectations. For the languaging technique, the current study revealed many Thai words being applied, as in ‘chedis’ (or ‘pagoda’ in English) and ‘klong’ (or ‘canal’ in English). It should be noted that these Thai words actually have their English equivalents. Durán-Muñoz (2011) claims that languaging is used to arouse tourism text readers’ interests. From Durán-Muñoz’s notion, it can be said that the languaging used in the brochures under study possibly aims at achieving this purpose. The finding also espouses the notion of Chiwanga (2014) who asserts that the languaging technique can be found in tourism promotional materials, particularly in brochures and menus.

4) Superlatives

In this study, the superlatives were both with adjectives (e.g., ‘the freshest’, ‘the greatest’, and ‘the biggest’) and with the morphological form (e.g., ‘the most unique’, ‘the most elegant’, and ‘the most attractive’). This finding is consistent with that in the study conducted by Tyschenko and Krasucka (2020) who identified the rich use of superlative adjectives in British travel articles. Chueasuai (2022) claims that the use of superlatives is for exhibiting the best quality of what is offered. From his conviction, it can be argued that the use of superlative form in the brochures in the current study is for the sake of persuasion.

5) Adverbs

The use of adverbs is an emerging language feature. These adverbs specified the degree to which adjectives applied, such as ‘extraordinarily tasty’, ‘comfortably cool’, and ‘elaborately created’. It can be argued that such a use is an affective element in tourism language, generating readers’ emotionality and accordingly persuading them to experience tourist offers. This finding is similar to that of Tyschenko and Krasucka (2020) which revealed the use of adverbs in British travel articles. However, Tyschenko and Krasucka pointed out evaluative adverbs whereas in the current study, degree adverbs were identified.

6) Source language symbols

This study found the use of source language symbols, such as ‘Ban Bo Suak Kiln Site and Glazed Ceramics (แหล่งเตาเผาโบราณและเครื่องเคลือบบ้านบ่อสุก)’, ‘Khuan Ron Hill (ควนhornฮิลล์)’, and Phu Phayak (ภูพัยักษ์). The use of these symbols seems similar to Dann’s (1996) concept of languaging. However, the perceived difference is that the languaging involves romanising words in the source language, as opposed to using the source language symbols. In the translation literature, it appears that the use of source language symbols in tourism promotional texts using English as a target language has rarely been mentioned.

Given that many tourists thirst for authenticity (MacCannell, 1989) and strangeness (E. Cohen, 1972), it can be argued that in the current study, the Thai language symbols in the English version of the brochures were used for maximising an exotic feeling, a sense of authenticity, and strangeness to make the tourism texts more interesting.

Syntactic Level

From the data analysis, Durán-Muñoz's (2012) three language features were spotted. They were nominalisation, imperatives, and present simple. Moreover, the use of active voice was noted as an emerging language feature.

1) Nominalisation

Nominalisation is understood as the process of making verbs and adjectives into nouns. In this study, the use of nominalisation was found to be frequent. The examples included 'The dedication of all villagers has been made to conserving local wisdom.' and 'The influence of the Malaysian culture can be seen here.' The findings are consistent with Bhatia's (2004) notion that nominalisation is preferred in tourism texts. However, nominalisation itself is also claimed to be a common language feature of academic writing: making general statements with a focus given to ideas rather than actual actors (Purdue University, 2024). This suggests that tourism language is indeed derived from various syntactic features and registers (Agorni, 2016; Dann, 1996; Durán-Muñoz, 2012; Gandin, 2013; Maci, 2010).

2) Imperatives

The use of imperatives was found in every brochure being studied, for example, 'Pamper yourself with a Thai massage' and 'Say yes to the sand sea sun paradise'. Generally, imperatives in English are used to give orders and instructions. They seem to convey both neutral and negative connotations. However, as the current study revealed the prevalent use of imperatives, this reflects Chiwanga's (2014) viewpoint, stating that this sentence structure in tourism texts is oratory and aimed at persuasion.

3) Present simple

Although tourism texts generally make use of various English tenses, the use of the present simple tense in this study predominated. Some examples are 'Bangkok is well known as a vibrant food hub with delicious food.' and 'Thai and foreign tourists enjoy participating in a range of fascinating cultural activities.'. The results indicate that the use of the present simple tense is not restricted to showing facts and habits. Rather, as Durán-Muñoz (2012) claims, it can be used in tourism promotional texts to make holiday time still and everlasting.

4) Active voice

Noticeably, most of the sentences in all studied brochures prefer using an active voice structure. Some examples are 'The park has also prepared signs to convey different meanings along the route.' and 'It consists of a chedi with a

funnel-like float fille or lotus bud as the principal structure.’. Given that tourism texts assume an intimate communication (Dann, 1996), the current study argues that the use of active voice can serve the purpose of forming personal feelings and emotions as well as bringing readers to the mentioned moments, compared with that of passive voice which appears more detached and therefore impersonal.

Functional Level

The analysed data displayed Durán-Muñoz’s (2012) two linguistic functional aspects in the tourism texts: referential and persuasive.

1) Referential function

The findings revealed that the referential function was largely applied. The examples included ‘This also has a classroom where you can learn to mould and draw a pattern on the celadon ware.’ and ‘It is a historic city recorded in the Ayutthaya chronicle’. This reinforces Durán-Muñoz’s claim (2012) that as tourism texts aim at giving information on tourist destinations to readers, the obvious manifestation of the referential function is found.

2) Persuasive function

In this study, the persuasive function was expressed in various forms of lexical language features, namely positive adjectives, superlatives, very careful lexical choices of keywords and languaging, cultural references or realia, adverbs, and source language symbols, all of which were mentioned earlier. Moreover, persuasion was also found in the use of ‘you’, as in ‘You will see the most surprising performance in the world.’ and ‘It is a rare opportunity for you to seize.’. This study argues that the word ‘you’ in the tourism texts may be used to enhance readers’ intimacy, showing that the information presented is specially for readers. This is assumingly a way of persuasion.

At the syntactic level, the persuasive function was conveyed through the use of imperatives, present simple, and active voice, as discussed elsewhere in this paper. It was also found that the use of questions could, to some extent, persuade tourism text readers. For example, ‘Are you adventure lovers?’, ‘Why should you wait?’, and ‘Do you want to be part of our sacred festival?’. The use of questions in the tourism texts may tacitly aim to require readers’ interactions, which can create personal communication and hence be persuasive. Another aspect at the syntactic level was found in the sentences that implied an affective discourse, for example, ‘Here will be your second home.’, ‘We understand privacy is your priority.’, and ‘You are not our customers but friends and relatives.’. This can be ascribed to the assumption that when emotional bonds are established and connected, readers are probably prone to be easily convinced.

Thai-English Translation Strategies

From the data analysis, translation strategies proposed by Pinmanee (2012) were applied with two emerging strategies being identified, as displayed in Table 1.

Table 1: *Identified translation strategies*

Translation Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Pinmanee's translation strategies (2012)		
1) Loan words or borrowed words	353	20.42
2) One form with a variety of meanings	519	30.03
3) One meaning with a variety of forms	23	1.33
4) Addition	278	16.08
5) Deletion	38	2.19
6) Generalisation	86	4.97
7) Cultural substitution	132	7.63
8) Reformation of words and sentences	223	12.90
Emerging translation strategies		
9) Generalisation with loan words or borrowed words	45	2.60
10) Maintenance, addition, or deletion of quotation marks	31	1.79

From Table 1, the translation strategy most applied was one form with a variety of meanings (30.03%), followed by loan words or borrowed words (20.42%), addition (16.08%), reformation of words and sentences (12.90%), cultural substitution (7.63%), generalisation (4.97%), generalisation with loan words or borrowed words (2.60%), deletion (2.19%), maintenance, addition, or deletion of quotation marks (1.79%), and one meaning with variety of forms (1.33%). It should be noted that in most circumstances, more than one translation strategy was applied in one sentence.

Loan Words or Borrowed Words

The strategy was found with a frequency of 353 (20.42%). Most of the loan words or borrowed words were used when their English equivalents could not be found. However, in several cases, although equivalents are available, loan words were still applied, such as 'Wat' (or 'temple' in English) and 'Klong' (or 'canal' in English). This can be associated with the languaging technique in tourism language that arouses "*a sense of exotic feeling in the tourist*" (Durán Muñoz, 2012, p. 337) and "*sweetens the language*" (Chiwanga, 2014, p. 157). Based on this contention, it can be argued that such a technique in tourism language is used for the same purposes in tourism translation. In addition, the languaging technique in translation can also be related to Venuti's (1995) concepts

of domestication and foreignisation. Dann (1996) and Sanning (2010) address these strategies in tourism translation contexts. They claim that domestication helps readers understand translated texts while foreignisation addresses foreign features attracting readers to offered tourist destinations. Based on their convictions, it can be said that loan words or borrowed words and the languaging technique fall under the foreignisation category.

One Form with a Variety of Meanings

This strategy was most used with a frequency of 519 (30.03%), as shown in the following examples.

Example 1: สวยงาม

beautiful, gorgeous, stunning, magnificent, splendid,
picturesque, resplendent, wondrous, superb, exquisite,
pleasant, terrific, marvellous, fabulous, charming

Example 2: พัฒนา

develop, upgrade, cultivate, improve, progress, grow, thrive,
evolve, widen, blossom

Example 3: สร้าง

build, construct, establish, form, make, set up, constitute

This strategy was found the most frequent possibly because brochure language is persuasive (Chiwanga, 2014). As brochure translation is a function maintaining translation (Federici, 2007), persuasiveness is thus to be preserved. It can be argued that here the strategy can help such preservation by creating smoothness and at the same time avoiding redundancy that causes boredom. Nevertheless, this study argues that although a word in a source language can be translated into various words in a target language, they are not completely equivalent in terms of meaning, and a thin line or distinction can be found. Therefore, the words should be carefully selected and used according to certain situations suitable for them.

One Meaning with a Variety of Forms

This strategy was identified with a frequency of 23 (1.33%), as displayed in the examples.

Example 1: เพื่อให้ท่านได้ผ่อนคลายในวันหยุดพักผ่อน

to help **you** feel relaxed on your holiday

Example 2: สิ่งอำนวยความสะดวกมีให้พร้อม ไม่ต้องหอบหิ้วมาเอง

We have all the facilities for you. No need to **carry** anything with you.

Example 3: ซึ่งพระองค์ท่านได้พระราชทานชื่อเขื่อนว่า “เขื่อนภูมิพล”

He named the dam ‘Bhumibol Dam’.

In Example 1, ‘ท่าน’ was translated to ‘you’ in English. The meaning of ‘you’ can be expressed in various terms in Thai, such as ‘คุณ’, ‘เธอ’, ‘แก’, and ‘เอ็ง’. Example 3 is likewise. The pronoun ‘พระองค์ท่าน’, which means ‘he’, was a royal word that Thai subjects used with those in a royal family. The pronoun ‘he’ can actually be used in other terms, such as ‘เขา’ and ‘มัน’. These examples clearly reflect different cultures implied in the two languages. To be specific, Thai culture features hierarchical values whereas English culture values equality (Kapur-Fic, 1998). As a consequence, diverse terms in Thai, which are used in various situations and contexts taking into account the factors of age, gender, seniority, and social status, can convey the same meaning. Such classification is not found in English. This indicates that language is shaped by culture, and so is translation which inevitably deals with cultural mediation (Baker, 2018; Hatim, 2009, Munday, 2016; Vermeer, 2000). Apart from different values underlined in different cultures, the use of one meaning with a variety of forms can reflect another Thai cultural aspect of fun-pleasure orientation, the concept raised by Komin (1990). This concept is similarly noted by Kapur-Fic (1998) who mentions Thai people’s joyful behaviour and gives an example of their use of poetic words, such as compound nouns with homophones. Notably, the poetic words are still used now. This can be seen in ‘หอยหัว’ in Example 2 which shows alliteration. This then reiterates a close connection between language and culture.

Addition

This strategy was used with a frequency of 278 (16.08%) at word, phrase, and clause levels, as shown in the following examples.

Example 1: การชมพระอาทิตย์ตกยามเย็น

Enjoying **beautiful** sunset

Example 2: ที่หมู่บ้านชากแง้ว อำเภอบางละมุง จังหวัดชลบุรีแห่งนี้ ยังมีชื่อในนิราศเมือง
แก่ง ดั่งสุนทรภู่เขียนพรรณนาในนิราศเมืองแก่ง เมื่อปี พ.ศ. 2350 ขณะ
เดินทางไปเยี่ยมบิดาที่เมืองแก่งด้วย

The name of Ban Chak Ngaew in Bang Lamung District, Chon Buri Province, was mentioned in “Nirat Muang Klaeng”, **the famous poem** written by Sunton Phu in 1807 during the writer’s journey to Muang Klang, **Rayong Province** to visit his father.

Example 3: วัดแห่งนี้เคยมีพระอาจารย์ที่น่าเลื่อมใสอย่างหลวงปู่ทอง สุสังวโร

This temple used to be under Luang Pu Tong Susangwaro, a highly respected monk, **who is believed to have achieved the fruit of righteousness.**

From the examples, the addition occurred at a word level (Example 1), a phrase level (Example 2), and a clause level (Example 3). The findings are in agreement with the study done by Terestyényi (2011) who found that this strategy was typical in Hungarian-English translation of tourism brochures. It can be said that this strategy was used in the current study for two purposes. The first purpose is for meaning completion (Pinmanee, 2012). In Example 2, many Thai people know where ‘เมืองแกลง’ (Muang Klang) is, but when translated into English, ‘Rayong Province’ was added to show that ‘เมืองแกลง’ (Muang Klang) is located there, the information presumably unknown to general foreign tourists. The second purpose is for persuasion (Chueasuai, 2022). Some words, particularly adjectives and adverbs, were added to fortify the tourism language, as shown in the addition of the word ‘beautiful’ in Example 1.

Deletion

The use of this strategy was with a frequency of 38 (2.19%), as displayed in the following examples.

Example 1: มีบริการที่พักรวมถึงร้านอาหารที่ผ่านการคัดสรรมาแล้วอย่างดี

We have accommodation and restaurants for you.
(‘ที่ผ่านการคัดสรรมาแล้วอย่างดี’ or ‘very well selected’ was deleted.)

Example 2: ที่นี้ถือเป็นจุดชมวิวที่นักท่องเที่ยวและมารอชมพระอาทิตย์ตกดินที่มีมนต์ขลัง

Here is a viewpoint spot to admire the sunset.
(‘นักท่องเที่ยว’ or ‘tourists’ and ‘ที่มีมนต์ขลัง’ or ‘mysterious’ were deleted.)

Example 3: “ชาวเล” เป็นกลุ่มคนที่อยู่ตามเกาะต่าง ๆ ในภาคใต้ของไทย เชื่อกันว่าเป็น

ลูกหลานสืบเชื้อสายจากชาวไดยก ชนพื้นเมืองบนเกาะบอร์เนียว ซึ่งมี
ประเทศ 3 ประเทศตั้งอยู่ คือ มาเลเซีย บรูไน อินโดนีเซีย

Chao Lae are a major group who live on the islands in South Thailand. They are believed to be the descendants of the Sea Dyak tribe on Borneo Island.

(‘ซึ่งมีประเทศ 3 ประเทศตั้งอยู่ คือ มาเลเซีย บรูไน อินโดนีเซีย’ or ‘that comprises 3 countries: Malaysia, Brunei, and Indonesia’ was deleted)

The examples above echo Pinmanee's (2012) view that the deletion strategy was used to remove unimportant information or that assumed to be known in target language cultures. The current study result was also in alignment with Sodiq et al. (2021) whose study investigated the Indonesian-English translation of Indonesian tourism brochures.

Generalisation

The frequency of the strategy was 86 (4.97%). Some examples are below.

Example 1: ข้าวยำ ไก่ทอดและ

salad-mixed rice and grilled chicken

Example 2: พิธีบายศรีสู่ขวัญ

Welcoming blessing

Example 4: พระพิมพ์ปางมารวิชัย

Thai ancient amulet

From the examples, the generalisation strategy was used to help target text readers imagine general pictures of the cultural-bound items in a source text culture. The finding conforms to Terestyényi (2011) and Sodiq et al. (2021). Nevertheless, it should be noted that in the given examples, the generalisation was used at the expense of some cultural losses. This issue is similarly raised by Pinmanee (2018).

Cultural Substitution

The current study found such substitution with a frequency of 132 (7.63%), as demonstrated in the following examples.

Example 1: กระยาสารท

Spring roll

Example 2: สุโขทัยในน้ำมีปลา ในนามีข้าว

Sukhothai is the land of milk and honey.

Example 3: ดินแดนแห่งพระศรีอารยเมตไตรย

the Buddhist utopia

As evidenced in the examples, the cultural substitution was used when the source text culture was not in focus. The cultural concepts were expressed in the forms of words, phrases, and proverbs. This indicates that although tourism texts are culturally underlined, and the translation of them is assumed to depict the source text cultures, we can indeed apply the cultural substitution. The strategy, as Larson (1998) claims, can produce dynamic equivalence without presenting the actual source cultures. For the proverb translation, as in Example 2, the finding suggests that the cultural substitution strategy appears to suit such translation for

it can provide readers with both the clear picture and the language flavour (Pokasamrit, 2013).

Reformation of Words and Sentences

This strategy was found with a frequency of 223 (12.90%). The examples are below.

Example 1: บริการให้เช่าเรือหางยาวสำหรับท่องเที่ยวเกาะใกล้ ๆ

There are also **long-tailed boats** for hire if you wish to explore **the nearby islands**.

Example 2: เปรียบบ้านหลังที่สอง

Here will be **your second home**.

Example 3: มีคลองเชื่อมระหว่างชุมชน พร้อมให้สัมผัสวิถีชีวิตของผู้นอนริมน้ำ

Both communities are linked by this klong where tourists can also enjoy the ways of life of people living along it.

The word-reformation strategy was applied in Examples 1 and 2. Namely, the Thai words comprised the head nouns followed by their modifiers while in the English ones, modifiers precede head nouns. In Example 3, the Thai active voice structure was changed into the English passive sentence, and this reflects the use of the sentence-reformation strategy. The word and sentence reformations imply the notion of translation as the meaning transfer process claimed by many scholars (e.g., Agorni, 2016; Hatim & Mason, 1990; Larson, 1998; Newmark, 1988). That is to say, the meanings in a source text are prioritised over their source text forms. Therefore, these meanings are transferred although expressed in the different forms of a target language.

Generalisation with Loan Words or Borrowed Words

This is an emerging translation strategy. It was found with a frequency of 45 (2.60%). Some examples are below.

Example 1: นาซิดาแก

Chicken rice (Nasidagae)

Example 2: โอ่งมังกร

Ong Mangkorn or Big dragon jar

Example 3: ฟ้อนเจิง

Northern-style dance or Fon Jeung

Example 1 used the general term ‘Chicken rice’ followed by the loan word or borrowed word in the bracket (Nasidagae). In Example 2, the loan word or borrowed word ‘Ong Mangkorn’ came before its generalised term ‘Big dragon jar’. In Example 3, the generalised term ‘Northern-style dance’ was used with ‘or’

connecting it to its loan word or borrowed word ‘Fon Jeung’. The strategy indicates that while the generalisation strategy is used for facilitating target text readers’ understanding, loan words or borrowed words can also be used alongside to give the readers, to some extent, the flavour of a source language culture. Given that such flavour can give rise to increased persuasion, it is argued that using the strategy can be interesting for tourism translation in which persuasion is deemed vital. It should be noted that while the cultural losses are claimed to be a challenge when using the generalisation strategy (Pinmanee, 2018), the strategy of generalisation with loan words or borrowed words may, to some extent, help tackle the challenge.

Maintenance, Addition, or Deletion of Quotation Marks

The other emerging translation strategy is the use of a quotation mark with a frequency of 31 (1.79%). It was found that the quotation marks in the source texts were maintained, added, or deleted. Some examples are as follows.

Example 1: ภายในมณฑปประดิษฐาน “รอยพระพุทธรบาทขององค์พระสัมมาสัม

พุทธเจ้า”

It is a small mondop that inside enshrines “**the Buddha’s footprint**”.

Example 2: ต้องไม่พลาดเยือนประสาทหินพนมรุ้ง

You cannot miss “**Phanom Rung Historical Park**” (Prasat Hin Phanom Rung).

Example 3: “ส้มตำ” หนึ่งในอาหารไทยที่ชาวต่างชาติอยากสัมผัสลิ้มลอง

Somtam is usually one of the Thai foods that foreign tourists would like to try.

The examples above show the transference of the quotation marks in brochure translation: the maintenance (Example 1), the addition (Example 2), and the deletion (Example 3). The findings conform to that of Prommak (in press) who identified the use of this strategy in the Thai-English translation of business annual reports. Prommak argued that the quotation marks were maintained when complete equivalence in terms of meaning was attempted, the addition was applied when the contents needed emphasis, and the marks could also be discarded if the emphasis of contents was considered unnecessary or if the same contents were earlier emphasised with the marks in the same text. Since the use of this strategy was also found in the current study, it can be claimed that this strategy can be used not only in business translation but also in tourism translation. It is also interesting to further study whether the strategy is applicable in other translational contexts.

All in all, derived from the findings in this study, Table 2 suggests translation strategies for certain translational situations in the context of Thai-English tourism brochure translation.

Table 2: *Translation strategies for certain translational situations in Thai-English tourism brochure translation*

Translation Strategy	Translational Situations
Loan words or borrowed words (with or without their explanations)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - For names of people, places, and things - For words that lack equivalents in a target language - For languaging purposes to maintain source culture feelings that help arouse target text readers' interests
One form with a variety of meanings	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To create language smoothness and persuasive aesthetics
One meaning with a variety of forms	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To attain linguistic norms underlined in a target text (When source text and target text cultures vary, their lexical usages are presumably different.)
Addition	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - For meaning completion and clarification - To maximise persuasiveness
Deletion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To reduce or condense text redundancy - To discard unnecessary information - To make translated texts concise when some information is assumedly known or familiar by target text readers
Generalisation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To facilitate target text readers' understanding of unshared concepts in a source text culture (Some cultural losses, to some degree, can ensue.)
Cultural substitution	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To provide a similar notion in a familiar context and hence create a similar impact in a target culture
Reformation of words and sentences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To compensate for different language structures between two languages

Generalisation with loan words or borrowed words	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To help target text readers understand general concepts of words and simultaneously provide flavours of a source culture
Maintenance, addition, or deletion of quotation marks	<p>Maintenance of quotation marks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To preserve the highlighted concepts/ideas in a source text <p>Addition of quotation marks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To amplify the concepts/ideas in a source text <p>Deletion of quotation marks</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - To reduce redundant highlighted concepts/ideas that are previously underlined - To discard unnecessary quotation marks when contexts are adequate for readers to perceive the highlighted concepts/ideas - To increase reading smoothness

Conclusion

The study's findings can be argued to collaborate with some scholars' claims and studies in the existing literature. Moreover, they also add more knowledge to it by revealing the emerging English language features and Thai-English translation strategies, which can be the issues for being verified and evaluated in further studies. Here, either confirmation or argumentation of them is expected to encourage healthy debates and therefore expand knowledge in the realm of translation.

The findings suggest that translators of tourism texts need to understand the features of tourism English so that they can effectively apply such features to produce English translation. The findings also imply that apart from translation knowledge and skills, translators' linguistic competence is necessary. Such competence could be reflected through the use of translation strategies that calls for their grammatical knowledge (such as 'reformation of words and sentences') and their lexical knowledge (such as 'one form with a variety of meanings'). Moreover, since this study made more evident the importance of culture in tourist language features and tourism translation strategies, the implication is that translators need to be cultural experts in both source and target languages. This means that they need not only cultural knowledge but also cultural awareness and sensitivity so that they will be able to effectively negotiate them in their translation, the process which Pym (2017) regards as intercultural communication. All in all, it can be claimed that according to the findings, translators of tourism texts and possibly of other text types are to take into

account their continued development of the mentioned three aspects: translation knowledge and skills, linguistic knowledge, and cultural knowledge.

For pedagogical implications, some of the findings can be included in learning contents in general translation courses or tourism translation courses in particular. With culture playing a pivotal role in tourism translation, as evidenced in the findings, translation teachers may design some activities that help their students realise cultural differences and raise their cultural awareness and sensitivity. Should students be equipped with these aspects, they can be expected to critically select appropriate translation strategies to cope with cultural challenges arising in their translation. Moreover, the translation strategy ‘one form with a variety of meanings’, which was found to be used the most frequently, implies that the teachers need to help the students broaden their range of vocabulary, particularly persuasive vocabulary items essential in tourist contexts. Furthermore, diverse translation strategies identified in this study indicate that translators’ critical judgement in selecting translation strategies appears to be a salient point. Therefore, translation students’ criticality needs to be enriched. Their teachers may develop the students’ critical thinking inductively through various techniques, such as asking them to justify why they opt for certain strategies, as opposed to others. Here, open-ended questions should be continuously posed, and other peers’ and the teachers’ responses welcomed. This can entail classroom discussion which helps cultivate translation students’ criticality. By allowing everyone in class to express their ideas and reasoning on translation, deep and meaningful learning is encouraged as they are engaging in their reflection and metacognition (Biggs, 1994). Such learning is compatible with the well-known concept of active learning. It can be thus said that these findings are indeed useful for translation teachers to establish and promote active learning in their translation classes.

Those interested in doing translation-related research may replicate this study in the contexts of other languages to verify whether the findings are applicable. Future research can also add the method of interviewing brochure translators for the avenue may reveal their justifications for using certain translation strategies. Moreover, the research findings suggest that culture is key in tourism promotion, and this may call for research investigating how a particular culture is presented through its source language and translated into a target language in tourism promotional texts. Given that two different cultures are claimed to embody different values, preferences, and expectations, it could be interesting to explore how these cultural aspects are mediated and at the same time underlined to attain a persuasive function, which is the ultimate goal of tourism promotion.

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