

ENGLISH-THAI TRANSLATION STRATEGIES USED BY PROFESSIONAL
NOVEL AND SCIENTIFIC-TEXT TRANSLATORS



Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Master of Arts Degree in English
at Srinakharinwirot University

January 2014

ENGLISH-THAI TRANSLATION STRATEGIES USED BY PROFESSIONAL
NOVEL AND SCIENTIFIC-TEXT TRANSLATORS

A THESIS
BY
NAIYANA KET-AIM

A large, faint watermark of the Srinakharinwirot University seal is centered on the page. The seal is circular with a scalloped outer edge. Inside the seal, there is a grid pattern with a cross-like symbol in the center. Thai text is written around the inner circle of the seal.

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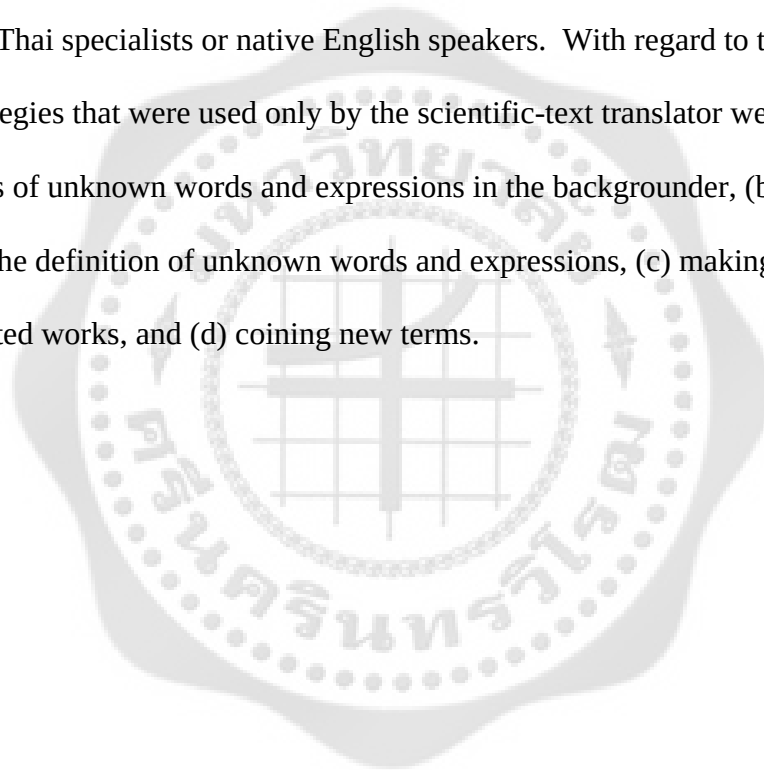
AN ABSTRACT
BY
NAIYANA KET-AIM

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
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The purposes of this study were to investigate: (a) the strategies used by professional translators when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai, (b) the problems that they encountered and the strategies used to cope with those problems, and (c) whether or not there were any similarities or differences between the strategies, problems, and solutions used. The participants were professional translators of novels and scientific texts who met the purposive criteria. Interviews and observations were used as instruments to collect the data. The data from the interviews and observations were then analyzed, and the consistency of the data obtained from the two instruments was examined. The findings showed that the professional translators applied several strategies, both similar and different, when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. The findings revealed that the similar strategies such as using synonyms, using loan words, or paraphrasing were the result of the translators using common strategies, which could be applied to both literary and non-literary texts. The findings showed that the different strategies were adding extra information, which was not permitted in scientific-text translation because of copyright issues, and retaining the passive form in the Thai translation of scientific texts, because it is more characteristic of a scientific text. The findings also showed that the translators experienced both similar and different problems when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. In terms of the similarities, the problems that they typically encountered were unfamiliar or ambiguous words, expressions, and sentences. In terms of the differences, the novel

translator sometimes confronted with the problem of culturally specific concepts whereas the scientific-text translator typically encountered problems when translating technical terms and proper names. To overcome these problems, both translators applied similar and different strategies. Four solution strategies they frequently used were: (a) using dictionaries to define unknown words and expressions, (b) searching for supportive information from credible sources, (c) interpreting the meanings of unfamiliar or ambiguous words, expressions, and sentences from the context, and (d) consulting with English and Thai specialists or native English speakers. With regard to the differences, the four strategies that were used only by the scientific-text translator were: (a) looking up the meanings of unknown words and expressions in the background, (b) surfing the Internet for the definition of unknown words and expressions, (c) making references to other translated works, and (d) coining new terms.



กลยุทธ์ในการเปลี่ยนนโยบายและเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์จากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย
ของนักแปลอาชีพ



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การวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษา (1) กลยุทธ์ที่นักแปลอาชีพใช้ในการแปลนวนิยายและเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์จากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย (2) ปัญหาที่นักแปลพบและกลยุทธ์ที่นักแปลใช้ในการแก้ปัญหาเหล่านั้น และเพื่อศึกษาว่า (3) นักแปลทั้งสองสาขาใช้กลยุทธ์ในการแปลพบปัญหาในการแปลและใช้กลยุทธ์ในการแก้ปัญหาเหมือนหรือต่างกันหรือไม่อย่างไร กลุ่มตัวอย่างที่เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยนี้ประกอบด้วยนักแปลนวนิยายและนักแปลเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์ที่มีคุณสมบัติครบถ้วนตามเกณฑ์ที่กำหนดไว้ เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการเก็บข้อมูลคือการสัมภาษณ์และการสังเกตกลุ่มตัวอย่างโดยผู้วิจัย จากนั้นผู้วิจัยนำข้อมูลที่ได้นำมาวิเคราะห์เพื่อศึกษากลยุทธ์ในการแปล ปัญหาที่พบและกลยุทธ์ในการแก้ปัญหาที่นักแปลใช้และเพื่อศึกษาความสอดคล้องกันของข้อมูลที่ได้จากเครื่องมือทั้งสอง ผลการวิจัยพบว่านักแปลอาชีพทั้งสองสาขาใช้กลยุทธ์หลายกลยุทธ์ในการแปลนวนิยายและเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์จากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย ซึ่งบางกลยุทธ์ก็เหมือนกันและบางกลยุทธ์ก็ต่างกัน สำหรับกลยุทธ์ที่นักแปลใช้เหมือนกัน เช่น การใช้คำที่มีความหมายใกล้เคียงกัน การยืมคำในต้นฉบับมาใช้ในฉบับแปล หรือการแปลแบบถอดความ เป็นผลจากการที่นักแปลใช้กลยุทธ์ทั่วๆ ไปที่สามารถใช้ได้ทั้งในการแปลเอกสารแนวนั้นทั้งคดีและแนวสารคดี ในส่วนของกลยุทธ์การแปลที่ต่างกัน พบว่ามีสองกลยุทธ์คือ (1) การเพิ่มข้อมูลลงในเอกสารฉบับแปล ซึ่งไม่สามารถทำได้ในการแปลเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์เนื่องจากประเด็นเรื่องลิขสิทธิ์ และ (2) การคงรูปกรammaไว้ในการแปลเอกสารทางวิทยาศาสตร์ เนื่องจากกรammaเป็นลักษณะเฉพาะที่นิยมใช้ในเอกสารประเภทนี้ นอกจากนี้ผลการวิจัยยังพบว่านักแปลทั้งสองสาขาประสบปัญหาทั้งเหมือนและต่างกันในการแปลนวนิยายและเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์จากภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาไทย สำหรับปัญหาที่เหมือนกัน พบว่านักแปลทั้งสองสาขามีปัญหาในการแปล คำ สำนวนและประโยคที่กำกวมหรือที่นักแปลไม่คุ้นเคย ในส่วนของปัญหาที่ต่างกัน พบว่านักแปลนวนิยายบางครั้งมีปัญหาในการแปลเรื่องที่เกี่ยวข้องกับวัฒนธรรม ในขณะที่นักแปลเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์มักประสบปัญหาในการแปลคำศัพท์เฉพาะด้านและการแปลชื่อเฉพาะ ในการแก้ปัญหาดังกล่าว กลยุทธ์ที่นักแปลทั้งสองสาขาใช้บ่อยๆ มีสี่กลยุทธ์ คือ (1) หาความหมายของคำหรือสำนวนจากพจนานุกรมต่างๆ (2) หาข้อมูลเพิ่มเติมจากแหล่งข้อมูลอื่นๆ ที่น่าเชื่อถือ (3) ตีความความหมายของคำ สำนวนหรือประโยคที่ไม่เข้าใจหรือกำกวมจากบริบท และ (4) ปรีกษาผู้เชี่ยวชาญทั้งชาวอังกฤษและชาวไทยหรือปรีกษาชาวอังกฤษเจ้าของภาษา ในส่วนของกลยุทธ์ในการแก้ปัญหาที่ต่างกัน พบว่ากลยุทธ์ที่ใช้โดยนักแปลเอกสารเชิงวิทยาศาสตร์เท่านั้น ได้แก่ (1) ค้นหาความหมายของคำหรือสำนวนที่ไม่เข้าใจจากเอกสารส่วนคำอธิบายเพิ่มเติมที่ทางสำนักพิมพ์ให้มาพร้อมกับบทความที่แปล (2)

ค้นหาความหมายของคำหรือสำนวนจากเครือข่ายอินเทอร์เน็ต (3) อ้างอิงคำแปลจากงานแปลของ
นักแปลท่านอื่น และ (4) คิดคำใหม่ขึ้นมาใช้เอง



The thesis titled
“English-Thai Translation Strategies Used by Professional Novel
and Scientific-text Translators”
by
Naiyana Ket-aim

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for the Master of Arts degree in English of Srinakharinwirot University.

..... Dean of Graduate School
(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Somchai Santiwatanakul)

January 2014

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Naiyana Ket-aim

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS BACKGROUND

Introduction

Advances in communication and technology have resulted in the constant demand for new texts to meet the demands of individuals seeking to access information in both academic and non-academic contexts. However, some texts, including famous movies, popular novels, guidebooks, textbooks, and scientific texts are usually written in English and from Western countries. Consequently, there is a need for translation of those texts for people who are not fluent in English and who would otherwise be denied access to these texts. Translation, therefore, is required to transfer information when communication occurs between people who speak different languages.

Translation is divided into two main categories, literary translation and non-literary translation, based on the content of the source text (Sager, 1983). Literary translation focuses on texts such as novels, short stories, folk tales, movie scripts, plays, songs, and poems. In any literary translation, apart from equivalence in meaning, the translation has to preserve the stylistic devices of the original work in the target language (Bush, 1998; Leech & Short, 1981). A literary translator has to be able to transfer feelings, cultural nuances, humor, and other subtle elements present in the original texts to the target receptors (Haque, 2012). In contrast, non-literary translation is the translation of factual and information-oriented texts which have the primary objective of providing information for readers. Examples of non-literary texts include biographies, encyclopedias, textbooks, how-to books, and academic articles (Bednářová-Gibová, 2012; Byrne, 2006; Newmark, 2004). For these kinds of texts, Markel (2003, as cited in Byrne, 2006) and Thivierge, Morcos, and Howard (2010) suggested

that the translation has to be accurate in terms of content, easy to read and understand, and appropriate for the reader.

According to Al-Hassnawi (2004), literary translation differs from non-literary translation in that literary texts usually contain the use of figurative language, idiomatic expressions, emotive meanings, and connotative meanings, while non-literary texts generally do not contain these linguistic features. In contrast, non-literary texts, especially scientific texts, usually contain specialized terminology and notations, abbreviations, acronyms, and syntactic complexity. These specific linguistic features make literary translation different from non-literary translation, often creating difficulties in terms of translation.

Problems of literary translation, therefore, concern finding equivalents not only for lexis, syntax, or concepts, but also for literary features such as style, tone, figurative language, connotations, cultural items, and culture specific concepts (Haque, 2012; Khan, 2008; Stauning & Harsanyi, 2012). According to Haque (2012), some of the problems with literary translation include the translation of words which can be easily misinterpreted, specific cultural references, figurative language, proper names, and complex sentence structures. In terms of non-literary translation, especially the translation of scientific text, the major difficulties are usually caused by technical terms, particularly new terminology (Newmark, 1988; Rask, 2008). The difficulties are likely to increase when the translator has to deal with technical terms in the original text that do not have equivalents in the target language (Al-Hassnawi, 2004; Al-Tamimi, 2013; Rask, 2008; Soualmia, 2010). According to Elmgrab (2011), Falih (2009), and Vermes (2003), another significant obstacle in translating non-literary texts is proper names. One reason is that some proper names may have associative meanings that refer to the distinctive features of people, a connotation which a translator from a different culture could miss and fail to translate the proper names appropriately (Vermes, 2003). A further problem that translators have to deal with when

translating non-literary texts is abbreviations and acronyms, particularly those that are not widely recognized or common among users and professionals (Doornekamp, 2011; Kasprowicz, 2010; Medina, 2004).

Several experts in translation (Baker, 1992; Larson, 1984; Newmark, 1988; Nida & Taber, 1974; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995) have proposed various translation strategies that can be used for translating literary and non-literary texts. Larson (1984), for example, categorized strategies for translating texts into two groups, which include (a) strategies for translating concepts that are shared between the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) and (b) strategies for translating concepts that are unknown in the TL. In the case of concepts that are known or shared between the SL and the TL, five ways to find TL equivalents are suggested by Larson: (a) descriptive phrases by translating a single word in the SL into several words of the TL, (b) synonyms by using other words in the TL which have similar meanings with the word in the SL, (c) doublets by using two nearly synonymous words or phrases, which occur as a unit, such as *spots and blemishes* to emphasize an idea or meaning or for stylistic reasons, (d) negating antonyms by using a word in the TL that has opposite meaning of the word in the SL, and giving it a negative meaning, e.g. *not bad* instead of *good*, and (e) reciprocal lexical items by using words that are reciprocals of one another such as the words *give* and *receive*. When concepts for objects and events to be translated are not known in the TL, Larson (1984) suggested three alternative strategies: (a) using a generic word and modifying it with the features of form of the SL word, with a statement function of the SL word, with both the form and function of the SL word, or by comparing the SL word with something that the TL readers are familiar with and there is a term for it in the TL; (b) using a loan word and modifying it with either a classifier or a description of the form, the function, or both the form and the function of the SL word; and (c) using a cultural substitute by replacing a SL word with the word in the TL referring to a

concept in the TL culture although it is not exactly the same as the concept denoted in the SL word.

Similarly, Baker (1992) recommended that in the case of the TL having no direct equivalent for a word in the source text, a translator may use one of the following strategies: (a) using a more general word, (b) using a more neutral or less expressive word, (c) using cultural substitution, (d) using a loan word or loan word plus an explanation, (e) paraphrasing by using a related word, (f) paraphrasing by using an unrelated word, (g) omitting words that are considered unimportant, and (h) using an illustration.

Besides the translation strategies that can be used for all kinds of texts, experts in translation (Baker, 1992; Davies, 2003; Graedler, 2000; Hermans, 1988; Hervey & Higgins, 1992; Larson, 1984; Newmark, 1988) have proposed strategies for dealing with particular cases in translation. For example, Newmark (1988) suggested five strategies for translators to deal with idioms. These strategies include (a) translating an idiom with a counter-identical TL equivalence, (b) translating an idiom with a non-identical TL idiom that conveys the same sense, (c) paraphrasing an idiom, which risks losing the stylistic impact of the idiom, (d) providing a literal translation of an idiom, which risks losing the semantic impact, and (e) deleting an idiom, which risks losing both the stylistic and the semantic impacts.

Furthermore, Hervey and Higgins (1992) discussed three strategies for translating proper names, including (a) exotism, in which the proper name in the SL remains unchanged in the TL, (b) transliteration, in which the proper name is converted to correspond characters of the TL alphabet, and (c) cultural transplantation, in which a SL name is replaced by the TL name that has the same connotation as the original one. Lastly, Graedler (2000) suggested four strategies to deal with culture-specific concepts: (a) making up a new word, (b) explaining the meaning of the SL word, (c) preserving the SL term in the TL, and (d) using a word in the TL that has a similar meaning.

A number of studies (e.g. Bunchutrakun, 2008; Burimjitt, 2007; Chaitrikal, 2005; Iewtrakool, 2004; Jampathip, 2003; Lohchingchairith, 2003; Muangkote, 2010; Muangyai, 2003; Onsomboon, 2007; Puangtong, 2006; Punpakdee, 2009; Robrue, 2007; Tisan, 2009; Worakitsawat, 2004; Yaprom, 2009) have investigated the translation strategies used when translating literary and non-literary texts from English to Thai. In terms of the translation of novels, for instance, the results of various studies (Jampathip, 2003; Junmukda, 2005; Kaewanant & Seedam, 2004; Kulpradit, 2006; Puangtong, 2006; Robrue, 2007; Tisan, 2009; Yaprom, 2009) indicated that in order to transfer ideas, images, emotions, and feelings without changing the meaning of the original text to facilitate the TL readers, the translators have to adopt several strategies in the translation process. For example, Jampathip (2003) conducted a study to investigate the translation strategies used by the translator of *Dracula* from English into Thai and found that the strategies employed in translating this novel at the lexical level were direct translation, transliteration, adding more details, replacing single words with phrases or complete sentences, coining new words, substituting words for those referring to aspects of Thai culture, translating original words into Thai idioms, and deleting words. The strategies that the translator employed at the sentence level included adding or deleting details in sentences, shortening sentences, rearranging the order of words or phrases in sentences, changing negative sentences into affirmative sentences, and dividing long paragraphs into shorter ones. In addition, Yaprom (2009) applied the translation strategies proposed by Larson (1984) to investigate the strategies used to translate an English novel entitled *The Kite Runner* into Thai and found that the translator used many strategies, including using literal translation, using loan words of proper names from the source text, using loan words with classifiers, using loan words along with footnotes, generic to specific, explicit to implicit, implicit to explicit, passive to active, using synonyms of the SL words, negating antonyms of the SL words, using doublets, and using cultural substitutes.

Regarding non-literary translation, the results of studies investigating the translation strategies used in non-literary texts, such as those by Iewtrakool (2004), Kunavarote (2006), Lohchingchairith (2003), Muangyai (2002), and Punpakdee (2009) indicated that in order to remain faithful to the original work and to read naturally in Thai, translators had to apply multiple strategies. For example, Lohchingchairith (2003) investigated the strategies employed when translating eight science documentaries from English to Thai and found that the translator used numerous strategies, for example generalization, transliteration, addition of explanatory words and phrases, deletion of words and phrases, rearrangement of words and phrases in sentences, and structural adjustment.

In terms of translation problems, several studies (Nudthakien, 2007; Punpakdee, 2009; Srisunthornthai, 2006; Suansom, 2001; Tisan, 2009; Yaprom, 2009; Yimlamai, 2000) have indicated that linguistic and cultural differences between English and Thai pose various problems in translation. Furthermore, the results of previous studies also revealed that literary texts and non-literary texts have their specific translation problems and need to be dealt with in different ways. For literary translation, Suansom (2001), for instance, found that vocabulary and expressions, complex sentences, and proper nouns from a foreign language were the three main problems in translating *The English Patient*, an English novel, into Thai. The translator had to apply various strategies to cope with these problems, for example searching for information from a variety of sources, consulting English and Thai native speakers, and interpreting other possible meanings. In addition to the difficulties already discussed, the results of studies conducted by other researchers (Nudtakien, 2007; Srisunthornthai, 2006; Yimlamai, 2000) indicated that pronouns, passive sentences, figurative language (hyperbole, metaphor, personification, and simile), idioms, slang, profanity, and dialects posed problems for literary translators. With respect to non-literary translation, studies conducted by Lohchingchairith (2003) and Yaila-or (2000) confirmed that technical

terms and new terminology, particularly those found in scientific and technical texts, posed great problems for translators.

From the review of literature, it is obvious that a number of studies have been conducted to investigate translation strategies, translation problems, and the strategies that translators use to solve those problems. However, most of these studies are content-analysis research, and the analysis was based on the frameworks of translation strategies, proposed by theorists such as Baker (1992), Larson (1984), Newmark (1988), and Nida (1964).

According to Bryman and Bell (2007), the results of content-based research may not always reflect reality. Additionally, information about translation strategies obtained through content analysis may only be inferred by the researcher; therefore, inferential procedures may not be enough to answer why translators used those strategies. In order to obtain more accurate data, a qualitative study in which interview and observation were used to collect data was conducted to investigate translation strategies, problems, and strategies that professional translators used to solve those problems. In addition, studies conducted to investigate similarities and differences between translation strategies, translation problems, and strategies to solve those problems in translating literary and non-literary texts could not be found. Therefore, this study also investigated these issues, and novels were selected to represent literary texts and scientific texts were selected to represent non-literary texts.

Purpose of the Study

The main purposes of this study were to investigate: (a) the strategies used by professional translators when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai, (b) the problems encountered by the translators and the strategies that they used to solve the problems, and (c) the similarities and differences between translation strategies, common translation problems, and the strategies used to solve the problems by professional translators of novels and scientific texts.

Research Questions

The study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What strategies did professional translators use when translating novels from English to Thai?
2. What problems did professional translators experience when translating novels from English to Thai?
3. Which strategies did professional translators employ to solve the translation problems?
4. Which strategies did professional translators utilize to translate scientific texts from English to Thai?
5. What problems did professional translators experience when translating scientific texts from English to Thai?
6. Which strategies did professional translators use to solve the translation problems?
7. What were the similarities and differences between the translation strategies, translation problems, and the strategies that professional translators of novels and scientific texts used to solve these problems?

Significance of the Study

As the data of this study concerning English-Thai translation strategies, translation problems, and the strategies used to solve these problems were obtained directly from literary and non-literary professional translators, the findings could provide helpful information that can be used for reference or as a model for translation for translation teachers, novice translators, and those who are interested in English-Thai translation to adopt to suit their work. For instance, if the results obtained from this study confirmed that the participants used the strategies proposed by Baker (1992), Larson (1984), and Newmark (1988) in translating idioms from English into Thai, the results then could be used as effective strategies for translating idioms. In addition, the strategies used by experienced translators in

this regard could guide translation teachers, novice translators, and those who are interested in English-Thai translation to select more effective strategies when translating texts from English to Thai.

Furthermore, the strategies used to solve the translation problems experienced by professional translators might also be beneficial for novice translators and those who are interested in English to Thai translation. The findings will allow them to learn more about the problems they might encounter in English to Thai translation, and how professional translators deal with those problems, allowing them to adopt more suitable strategies to cope with potential problems they may encounter in translation.

Definition of Term

Translation strategies refer to techniques used by translators when translating any type of text.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I of the study introduces its background and the reasons why this study was conducted. Chapter II presents a review of the related literature and research studies pertaining to the subject of this thesis. Chapter III details the methodology of this study. Chapter IV presents the results of the study, while Chapter V discusses these results and suggests recommendations for further studies.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This study aimed to investigate the translation strategies used by professional translators translating literary and non-literary texts, the problems they encountered, and the strategies that they used to solve the problems. Therefore, this chapter presents a review of the related literature concerning these topics, and the content is divided into five main parts:

- (a) Text genre and translation
- (b) Literary translation
- (c) Non-literary translation
- (d) Translation strategies
- (e) Previous related studies

Text Genre and Translation

According to Cornbleet and Carter (2001), text can be used for “both written and spoken language. It can be a stretch, an extract, or complete piece of writing or speech” (p. 3). Each text has distinctive characteristics that can be seen in the language and structure used in it. Linguists categorize texts into genre, or text type, based on the way that the text was created, the register of language it uses, and the kind of audience to whom the text is addressed (Copeck, Barker, Delisle, Szpakowicz & Delannoy, 1997). Examples of genres given by Copeck et al. (1997) are: prayers, conversations, songs, speeches, poems, letters, and novels. Kessler, Nunberg, and Schutze (1997, as cited in Copeck, et al. 1997) added that texts can be written in many genres such as scientific articles, news reports, movie reviews, and advertisements.

The entire realm of text can be divided into two broad genres: literary and non-literary texts (Bednářová-Gibová, 2012; Newmark, 2004). Some scholars refer to literary text as

“fictional text” (Menrath, 2003), “non-technical text” (Byrne, 2006), or “expressive text” (Newmark, 1981). Similarly, a number of terms are commonly used to denote non-literary text such as “non-fictional text” (Menrath, 2003), “specialized text” (Popovič, 1977, as cited in Bednárová-Gibová, 2012; Sdobnikov, 2012), “technical text” (Byrne, 2006; Newmark, 1988), or “informative text” (Newmark, 1981). However, compared with other terms, the terms “literary text” and “non-literary text” are broader and cover more different text types (Bednárová-Gibová, 2012).

Literary texts differ from non-literary texts in that they are not primarily intended to convey information. In contrast, they are written for artistic purposes in order to stimulate the reader’s imagination (Bednárová-Gibová, 2012; Menrath, 2003; Newmark, 2004). According to Kurland (2000), literary texts can be categorized into three types according to the general appearance of the text: (a) stories and novels, (b) poetry, and (c) plays. In addition, literary texts also include texts in other formats such as film scripts, songs, and political speeches. Non-literary text, according to Gokhila and Thiyagarajan (2012) and Newmark (2004), is an informational writing that deals with real events, people, or facts. The content usually deals with technology, natural sciences, and social sciences such as medicine, pharmacy, economy, psychology, or law. Examples of non-literary texts are biographies, autobiographies, encyclopaedias, dictionaries, textbooks, guide books, how-to books, historical books, newspaper and magazine articles, menus, brochures, and leaflets.

Based on the text genres classified above, translation therefore is divided into two main categories: literary translation and non-literary translation (Bednárová-Gibová, 2012; Newmark, 2004; Sager, 1983). Literary translation is the translation of all forms of literature, whether written in prose or verse, including novels, short stories, plays, songs, and poems. The goal of this type of translation is to reproduce something equivalent to an original literary piece, in terms of the aesthetic, meaning, and style (Ghazala, 2013; Marabout, 2010; Xiaoshu

& Dongming, 2003). In contrast, non-literary translation is the translation of factual and information-oriented texts. The primary objective of this kind of text translation is to provide information for readers (Bednárová-Gibová, 2012; Byrne, 2006; Newmark, 2004).

Literary Translation

As already discussed, literary translation is the translation of literary works with the purpose of reproducing parallel texts that will be equivalent to an original literary text in terms of content and style. Literary translation aims to offer the target reader the same experience as that gained by the readers of the original work (Ghazala, 2013; Marabout, 2010; Xiaoshu & Dongming, 2003).

Characteristics of literary translation.

According to Hrehovčík (2006, as cited in Bednárová-Gibová, 2012), the quality of literary translation, in particular literary prose, is based on the similarity in meaning between the source and target languages, as well as function and style. To achieve these objectives, a literary translator must have a thorough and profound understanding of the content, style, and function of the source text in order to accurately reproduce these basic components in the TL.

In terms of meaning, the main aim of literary translation is to preserve the meaning of the original text. To create a new and valid piece of literary text in the TL, without the loss of meaning, requires a literary translator to search for appropriate and equivalent words, phrases, and sentences in the TL, which correspond as closely as possible to the source text (Hatim & Mason, 1994; Marabout, 2010; Samuelsson-Brown, 2004). In other words, the purpose of a literary translation is for the TL audience to understand the TL message in the same way that the SL readers understood the SL message (Nida & Taber, 1974).

Furthermore, the arrangement of the translated text should be easy for the readers of the TL to understand (Hatim & Mason, 1994).

With respect to style, according to Zhongying (1990), elements like style and other artistic features in literary texts are central aspects and should be given priority in a literary translation. A literary translator is therefore required to capture the style and artistic features of the SL and mimic them in the TL. All aspects of style and other literary features in a given piece of literary text, such as lexical choice, formality, tone, irony, imagery, metaphor, symbol, theme, and climax should be fully reproduced in the TL (Bush, 1998; Leech & Short, 1981; Marabout, 2010; Samuelsson-Brown, 2004; Xiaoshu & Dongming, 2003).

Furthermore, according to Hassan (2011), an effective translation should reflect the imaginative, intellectual, and intuitive qualities that the author brought to the original text. The style of writing should also be as similar as possible to that of the source text and ideally should seem as if the original author was writing in the TL (Marabout, 2010; Samuelsson-Brown, 2004). The literary translator, therefore, has to pay attention to the style and particular features of a literary text in order to produce the same aesthetic effect in another language.

Lastly, the function of the translation, in the context of the target situation should also be taken into consideration in literary translation. According to Nord (2006), a translation should share the same purpose or function as it did in the original, in terms of the target audience. For example, the author of a novel may try to convey the language used by contemporary teenagers in the source text. In order to achieve the same emotional effect on the target text recipient, the language used in the target text should correspond to that of the TL used by contemporary teenagers, in order for the story to seem authentic and to appeal to the target audience.

Apart from the previously mentioned aspects, Toury (1995) suggested that literary translators should also pay attention to the usage norms of literature in the TL. In other words, the translation should conform to models and norms which are deemed literary in the

TL. This is due to the fact that some of the features that identify a work as having literary value in the SL may not be considered to be at the same literary level in the TL. In terms of literary translation, the target text may require a variety of features and techniques in order to more effectively translate it. Toury (1995) concluded that a translation may require adjusting or adding other features to enhance the translation as a target literary text.

In conclusion, the most prominent features of a literary translation include the retention of meaning, the mimicry of style and aesthetic function, and following the usage norms of the TL literature. These features should have the same impact on the target readers as the original text had on its readers, and the quality of a literary translation depends on how well a translator represents the features of the source text in the target text.

Problems with translating literary texts.

According to Marabout (2010) and Xiaoshu and Dongming (2003), literary translation can be a complex task because it involves the reproduction of the intentions, thoughts, feelings, and experiences of the author from one language to another. Therefore, apart from the problems of non-equivalent lexis, syntax, and concepts between the source and target languages; the common problems found in literary translation include problems translating artistic style, figurative language, connotations, and specific cultural references in the original text (Haque, 2012; Khan, 2008; Marabout, 2010; Stauning & Harsanyi, 2012; Xiaoshu & Dongming, 2003).

Style.

Style is one of the core features of literary language and therefore needs to be paid attention in a literary translation. According to Leech and Short (1981), style can be described as the language habits of an individual writer, as reflected in their writing, which helps them to form their identity as an author. In general, style has three components: (a) sentence structure, i.e. how short or long, or how simple or complex a sentence is; (b)

specification, i.e. how much detail is offered in the description of a given concept; and (c) formality, i.e. the level of formality that a writer uses in different situations or different types of writing (Chesla, 2001, as cited in Marabout, 2010). The way in which an author uses certain lexical, structural, and stylistic elements creates a unique or individual style for literary writers.

According to Marabout (2010), if the original text style is not adequately transferred into the TL, a literary translation will not be successful. In practice, mirroring an author's individual style in a literary work in another language is not an easy task. Bednářová-Gibová (2012) claimed that the ability to capture and maintain the source author's style in the TL is one the most difficult aspects of the literary translation. This is because each literary author has their own lexical and stylistic peculiarities that may be difficult to replicate or imitate in another language.

According to Haque (2012), the stylistic marks of one language can be vastly different from another. As far as the source and target languages are concerned, it is not always possible to transfer all the content and the artistic style of the original text into the target text (Haque, 2012; Kolawole & Salawu, 2004; Yinhu, 2011). Preserving the original stylistic subtleties, therefore, is usually impossible or cannot be achieved completely (Nida & Taber, 1974). These problems are typical barriers to translation and may result in the target audience responding less positively to the target text than the original audience responded to the original text.

Figurative language.

According to Newmark (1988), the translation of figurative language is complex because it involves frozen chunks of words, which have a different overall meaning than the meanings of the individual words. In other words, figurative language is problematic in terms of translation because it cannot be translated literally. Therefore, figurative speech

should be translated into an equivalent concept in the TL. In order to grasp the original meaning of figurative language, a translator must identify the intended meaning in the original text and replace it with a corresponding figure of speech in the TL (Al-Hasnawi, 2007; Newmark, 1988; Shojaei, 2012). For example, *It's raining cats and dogs* is an idiomatic expression and cannot be translated word-for-word. It has to be translated into the TL using a similar idiomatic expression. For example, it can be translated into Thai as ฝนตกหนักมาก (*It rained heavily.*) or ฝนตกเหมือนฟ้ารั่ว (*It rained torrentially.*).

Furthermore, according to Larson (1984), Nida (2001), and Shojaei (2012), the meaning of some figurative language is too complicated to be understood without sufficient cultural knowledge of the source text. As far as the source and target languages are concerned, figurative language is associated with indirectness, which also largely contributes to the difficulty of literary translation. Shojaei (2012) added that people from different cultures use completely different expressions to convey similar meanings. While an expression may be easily understood by the members of some communities, the same expression may seem vague or even nonsensical to speakers of other languages.

Baker (1992) claimed that idioms and fixed expressions pose particular difficulties for translators because: (a) they often have no equivalent in the TL; (b) a fixed expression or an idiom might have a similar counterpart in the TL, but the context of its usage may be very different; (c) an idiom may be used in the source text, in both literal and idiomatic senses at the same time; and (d) the way in which idioms are used in a text, the contexts in which they can be used, and the frequency with which they should be used may differ in the source and target languages. Baker (1992) also maintained that the main problems that idiomatic and fixed expressions caused difficulties for translators could be related to two main areas: (a) the ability to recognize and correctly interpret the meaning of an idiom and (b) the ability to

translate an idiom to another language in a way that conveys exactly the same idea as it does in the original language.

Connotations.

Connotation poses problems in translation because translators may not understand the connotative meanings of certain words. According to Yifang (2008), some terms share the same primary meaning, but have secondary or additional meanings that may differ considerably. In some cases, the same mythical animal has different attribute and connotative meanings in two different cultures. For example, in the Chinese culture, the dragon and the phoenix are revered as they symbolize the emperor and the empress, respectively. In Chinese culture, the dragon is also seen as an ancestor. On the other hand, for British native speakers, a dragon is usually a personification of evil, a destructive, fire-breathing monster that must be destroyed. Therefore, when a translator is from a different cultural background, they may not be able to adequately interpret the explicit connotation of a particular word or expression, or may even misinterpret them. Furthermore, Ranua (2009) stated that connotations vary depending on the situation and the context, and that the same word may have different meanings in different situations. Thus, when these words are used in different circumstances, they may have very different connotative meanings. For instance, the adjective *gay*, which primarily meant *happy* or *joyful*, has strong connotations to homosexuality. However, the word also has other connotative meanings such as *colorful*, *flamboyant*, and *lively*. Therefore, a translator should pay more attention to the connotations of a word than its meaning in a specific context.

Culture-specific concepts.

According to Baker (1992), Haque (2012), Larson (1984), Newmark (1988), and Nida and Taber (1974), the translation of culturally specific concepts is problematic when translating texts from cultures which are not closely related. This is because each language

has its own cultural and conventional peculiarities. There are instances of objects or concepts that exist in one culture, but not in another. For instance, the SL may contain terms that are culturally specific, such as religious beliefs, social customs, types of food, festivals, fabrics, arts and crafts, architecture, and other elements that are radically different in the TL. These culturally specific terms are difficult for a translator from another culture to understand as they are unfamiliar with such concepts. As a result, these terms and concepts often become a barrier to understanding and cause difficulties in translation.

The most common problem in translating culturally specific references according to Haque (2012), Larson (1984), Newmark (1988), and Yifang (2008), is if there is no counterpart in the TL for the specific cultural references in the SL. In this case, the translator will be unable to find lexical equivalents for items or concepts that are unknown in the TL. In some other cases, a translator may identify a comparable term in the TL, but it may not be the exact equivalent with the term in the SL.

In conclusion, the use of specific language devices in literary texts poses a great challenge for translators. In literary translation, the translator may encounter difficulties such as effectively reproducing the style of the original text in the TL. In addition, the translator may experience problems accurately recognizing and interpreting the meaning of figurative language and connotations correctly, as well as finding equivalent terms in the TL. Finally, the translator may experience difficulty with finding counterparts for specific cultural references in the source text in the TL. These factors have caused many problems for translators and have become an impediment to retaining meaning and aesthetic effect in the TL.

Non-literary Translation

As stated earlier, non-literary translation is the translation of texts concerned with knowledge and facts, of which the main function is to carry messages or transmit information

to the target audience. The translator's goal is therefore to reproduce a target text that conveys the same information as conveyed by the source text. Non-literary translation is a vital tool that enables people who speak different languages to share information in their field (Bednárová-Gibová, 2012; Byrne, 2006; Newmark, 2004).

Characteristics of non-literary translation.

According to Byrne (2006), the aim of non-literary translation, particularly the translation of technical texts, is to present new information to a new audience, not to reproduce the source text in a way that reflects the style of the original. Basically, non-literary text is mostly free from emotive language, connotative and symbolic meanings, metaphors, idioms, and other forms of figurative language. In contrast, non-literary texts usually contain standard language and technical terms, depending on the subject matter (Al-Hassnawi, 2004; Bednárová-Gibová, 2012; Gokhila & Thiyagarajan, 2012; Newmark, 1988). Additionally, the readers of non-literary works do not read them merely for pleasure as readers of literary works do. They read them for the information contained in the original text (Al-Hassnawi, 2004; Newmark, 2004). Therefore, when translating this type of text, the accuracy of the content takes priority over the style used by the writer. However, this does not mean that style is not important in non-literary translation; the characteristics of style in these translations are marked by the use of standardised terms, technical terminologies, and the level of formality of the vocabulary, which is also related to textual conventions (Ingo, 2007, as cited in Rask, 2008).

In addition, according to Bednárová-Gibová (2012), non-literary translation requires a very close and faithful approach to the source text, with a focus on precise terminology, and minimal creative input from the translator. This means that non-literary translators cannot change or distort the information in the source text or insert their own commentary in the translation. Doornekamp (2011) added that inaccuracies and errors must be avoided because

in some non-literary texts, even the smallest mistake in translation can result in the serious distortion of meaning. For example, accidentally placing a decimal point in the wrong place in a medical document could turn out to be fatal, and inaccuracies in a contract may result in its annulment. In this sense, the non-literary translators seem to have a higher level of responsibility than literary translators because the potential results of their errors have much more serious consequences. Besides these, Markel (2003, as cited in Byrne, 2006) pointed out that the presentation of information in the target text also has to be clear and unambiguous. The main concern of the translator is to ensure that the target readers can easily understand the translated information.

Furthermore, consideration of the target audience is another important issue in non-literary translation (Nord, 2006; Thivierge et al., 2010; Zhongying, 1990). According to Doornekamp (2011) and Newmark (1988), the target audience's background knowledge must be taken into account in non-literary text translation. In other words, the choice of words used in the target text largely depends on the intended readers. In general, the target audience for these texts is divided into three main groups: laymen, students, and experts. The documents for students and laypeople usually use simple sentences, with only essential technical terms and often in combination with an explanation, whereas documents for experts will be long in terms of content, as well as using complex sentences, and terminology without definitions or any other form of explanation. According to Nord (2006) and Thivierge et al. (2010), when a translated work is appropriate for the intended audience, the target text fulfils the same informative purpose as the source text and provides information congruent with the knowledge of the target audience. Therefore, knowing who the target audience will be is crucial for the translator in terms of performing the desired communicative function.

In short, non-literary translation deals with texts concerned with knowledge and therefore focuses more on information than artistic style or aesthetic function. The

translation of this kind of text should be accurate in terms of the content, appropriate for the intended audience, and easy to read and understand.

Problems with translating non-literary texts.

In the literature, several scholars (Doornekamp, 2011; Newmark, 2004; Rask, 2008) identified problems that frequently occur in non-literary translation. They reported that the problems include translating unfamiliar or peculiar terminology in a particular subject field, insufficient terminology to identify the concepts of the subject fields in the TL, as well as the translation of new terminologies, proper names, and abbreviations and acronyms.

Technical terms.

According to Cao (2007, as cited in Beneš, 2008), Newmark (1988), and Wiseman (2000), one of the biggest problems in non-literary translation is usually caused by technical terms. Some of the difficulties involved in the translation of technical terms, include translating unfamiliar or peculiar terminology in a particular subject field and insufficient terminology to identify the concepts of the subject fields in the TL. The former problem usually occurs when a translator encounters jargon in the original text that they are not familiar with. As a result, the translator may misinterpret or mistranslate these terms in the TL. The latter problem typically arises when a translator comes across technical terms which do not have equivalent terms in the TL. The problem becomes more complex for translators when translating technical terms into the TL when there is a shortage of technical terminology for relevant fields (Al-Hassnawi, 2004; Al-Tamimi, 2013; Soualmia, 2010). Consequently, a translator may be confronted with the problem of insufficient terminology when attempting to translate concepts into the TL.

New terminologies.

As there are constant developments and discoveries in many fields all over the world, new vocabularies are coined to meet the need to refer to these new discoveries, inventions,

and innovations. These neologisms, often related to medical, scientific, and computer-related terminologies, have developed so rapidly during the past few decades that dictionaries struggle to stay relevant (Al-Hassnawi, 2004). According to Al-Hassnawi (2004), Al-Tamimi (2013), and Khuwaileh (2010), most new terminologies are developed in Western countries. As a result, translators experience difficulty finding lexical equivalents of these new terminologies in other languages. This is especially difficult when trying to translate new terminologies into TL that drastically lack terminology for many technical subjects, such as Arabic. For instance, Khuwaileh (2010) reported that translating modern computer terminologies from English to Arabic was problematic for translators because the language lacked adequate computer terminology. As a result, translators were forced to find Arabic equivalents for modern computer terminologies. In addition, Khuwaileh (2010) claimed that bilingual Arabic dictionaries are still not varied enough or updated enough. Therefore, translating computer texts from English to other languages, like Arabic, which do not have terminologies for modern computer technology can be a daunting prospect for translators. Furthermore, according to Pearson (1998, as cited in Beneš, 2008), rapid technological progress could result in the uncontrolled coinage of new concepts. This is due to the fact that in countries which lack standardized, generally accepted terms for new terminologies, the same concept may have a different name in two regions, leading to confusion and miscommunication. Consequently, a translator may also become confused about which term should be selected for translation.

Proper names.

The problems commonly experienced by translators when translating proper names are divided in three areas. The first concerns the problem of how to accurately pronounce the proper names in a source text. The problem is resulted from the differences between the morphological structure and alphabetical system of the source and target texts. Therefore, a

translator with insufficient knowledge of the source text may not be able to pronounce and transcribe the proper names accurately (Elmgrab, 2011; Spiegel, 2003). The second problem is the use of a non-standard transliteration system in the TL. Elmgrab (2011) and Falih (2009) stated that transliteration strategies in languages such as Arabic still lack unified patterns or standardization. Therefore, the translator may become confused about which transliteration rules are standardized and generally accepted. The third problem according to Vermes (2003), is proper names that are associated with other meanings. According to Vermes (2003), some proper names can provide information about the characteristic features of the people that they refer to. For example, the names of some famous historical figures, such as *Richard the Lionheart*, *James the Lackland*, or *Ivan the Terrible*, have an epithet permanently attached to their names. The problem is that a translator from a different culture could miss and fail to translate the proper names appropriately. This problem requires a lot of attention and consideration from translators in order to avoid misinterpretation and mistranslation in the TL text (Vermes, 2003).

Abbreviations and acronyms.

Many English terms such as Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome (AIDS), Heart Failure (HF), Uniform Resource Locators (URL), Immunoglobulin (IgA), and Ultrasonography (USG) are commonly abbreviated and rarely written or spoken in their full form. As a result, the shortened forms of such words or phrases are widely used, especially when the document has been written by an expert for other experts in the field. The problem is that some abbreviations and acronyms, particularly those that are not widely recognized among users and professionals, appear independently or are not accompanied by any sort of explanation, and the sentence in which it is used may offer little context to help comprehend its meaning. In such situations, it is difficult for the translator to tell what these abbreviations and acronyms actually stand for (Doornekamp, 2011; Kasprowicz, 2010; Medina, 2004).

Furthermore, translators may experience difficulty translating abbreviations or acronyms with multiple meanings. According to Kasprowicz (2010), some acronyms have many different meanings; for example, *CF* has over 20 medical meanings and *MA* has over 25 medical meanings. Consequently, the translator is confronted with the complicated task of identifying the exact meaning of source text abbreviations or acronyms. In addition, according to Doornekamp (2011), a number of abbreviated forms are coined annually, but are not always updated in dictionaries. As a result, it becomes even harder to translate those abbreviated forms into the TL as they have no source of reference. Therefore, the translator has to take these issues into account when translating abbreviations and acronyms into the TL.

In conclusion, the major difficulties in the translation of non-literary texts are usually caused by technical terms, new terminologies, proper names, and abbreviations and acronyms, particularly those that are not well-known to the general public. As a result, translators should pay special attention to these problems in order to achieve a high quality translation of a non-literary text.

Translation Strategies

Several translation experts (Baker, 1992; Larson, 1984; Newmark, 1988; Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995) have proposed various translation strategies which can be used for translating literary and non-literary texts. Baker (1992) recommended that when a word in the TL has no direct equivalent in the SL, a translator may use one of the following strategies:

1. Translation by a superordinate term. This strategy is implemented by replacing a word in the SL referring to something specific by a TL word that refers to something more general. For example, Baker (1992) illustrated that the English word *shampoo* was translated into Spanish by using a more general Spanish word, which means *wash*, as in the following example:

Source text (English): *Shampoo* the hair with a mild WELLA-SHAMPOO and lightly towel dry.

Target text (back-translated from Spanish):

Wash hair with a mild WELLA shampoo and rub lightly with a towel (Baker, 1992, p. 27).

2. Translation by a more neutral or less expressive word. This strategy is usually adopted to translate an expressive word in the SL by using a less expressive word in the TL that has the same propositional meaning. This strategy is also applied to avoid conveying the wrong expressive meaning of the word in the SL. For example, Baker (1992) claimed that the English word *archaic* is translated into Japanese by using a less expressive Japanese word, which means *ancient*, as in the following example:

Source text (English): The shamanic practices we have investigated are rightly seen as an *archaic* mysticism.

Target text (back-translated from Japanese):

The shamanic behaviour which we have been researching should rightly be considered as *ancient* mysticism (Baker, 1992, p. 29).

3. Translation by cultural substitution. This strategy involves replacing a culture-specific word or expression in the SL with a TL word or expression which describes a similar concept in the TL. For example, Baker (1992) illustrated that the English word *cream tea*, which does not have an equivalent word in Italian was translated into Italian as *pasticceria*, which means *pastry*. Cream tea is an afternoon meal in Britain consisting of tea to drink and scones with jam and clotted cream whereas *pasticceria* or *pastry* is a type of food in Italy. In this case, the word *pastry* does not exactly convey the same

meaning of the SL word, but it describes a similar concept and one more familiar to the Italian reader.

4. Translation using a loan word or a loan word with explanation. This strategy means using SL words in the target text. It is commonly used for translating culture-specific items, modern concepts, and buzz words. Also, a translator may add extraneous information to explain the meaning of a loan word in the translated text when it first appears in the TL, and then it can be used on its own. For example, Baker (1992) illustrated that the English word *shamanic* was translated into Japanese by using a loan word from the SL as in the following example:

Source text (English): The *shamanic* practices we have investigated are rightly seen as an archaic mysticism.

Target text (back-translated from Japanese):

The *shamanic* behaviour which we have been researching should rightly be considered as ancient mysticism (Baker, 1992, p. 35).

5. Translation by paraphrase using a related word. This strategy involves using some description to explain the meaning of a word in the SL, that has lexicalized in the TL, but in a different form. For example, Baker (1992) demonstrated that the word *related* was translated into Chinese by paraphrasing using related words in Chinese, which mean *have a kinship relation* as shown in the example below:

Source text (English): There is strong evidence, however, that giant pandas are *related* to the bears.

Target text (back-translated from Chinese):

But there is rather strong evidence that shows that big pandas *have a kinship relation* with the bears (Baker, 1992, p. 37).

6. Translation by paraphrase using unrelated words. This strategy involves using some description to explain the meaning of a word in the SL, that is either totally new or not lexicalized in the TL. For example, Baker (1992) stated that the word *integrated* was translated into Arabic by paraphrasing using unrelated words in Arabic that mean *carries out all steps of production in its factories* as shown in the example below.

Source text (English): They have a totally *integrated* operation from the preparation of the yarn through to the weaving process.

Target text (back-translated from Arabic):

The company *carries out all steps of production in its factories*, from preparing the yarn to weaving it... (Baker, 1992, p. 39).

7. Translation by omission. This strategy refers to replacing the source text message with nothing or deleting it. For example, Baker (1992) demonstrated that the English SL phrase *gave us* was omitted in the translated text as shown in the example below:

Source text (English): The panda's mountain home is rich in plant life and *gave us* many of the trees, shrubs and herbs most prized in European gardens.

Target text (back-translated from Chinese):

The mountain settlements of the panda have rich varieties of plants. There are many kinds of trees, shrubs and herbal plants that are preciousy regarded by European gardens (Baker, 1992, p. 41).

8. Translation by illustration. This strategy involves using illustration to exemplify a word that cannot be described clearly or concisely. This strategy can be used when the equivalent item refers to a physical entity that can be illustrated, particularly to avoid over explanation and in order to be concise.

On the other hand, Larson (1984) categorized strategies for translating texts into two groups, which are (a) strategies for translating concepts that are shared between the SL and the TL and (b) strategies for translating concepts that are unknown in the TL. In the case of concepts that are known or shared in the SL and TL, Larson proposed five methods to find TL equivalents:

1. Descriptive phrases. This strategy involves the translation of a single word in the SL into several words in the TL. Larson (1984) provided an example of the Greek word *πατροπαραδοτος*, which does not have an exact equivalent in English. Therefore, this single Greek word was translated into an entire phrase in English, *received by tradition from your fathers*.
2. Synonyms. This strategy involves using other words in the TL that have a similar meaning with the word in the SL. For example, *police* can be translated into a set of related words that have a similar meaning in English, such as *police officer*, *policeman*, or *cop*.
3. Doublets. This strategy involves using two nearly synonymous words or phrases, which occur as a unit, such as *spots and blemishes*, *holy and righteous*, and *strangers and foreigners* to emphasize an idea or meaning or for stylistic reasons.
4. Negating antonyms. This strategy is used in the event that there is no equivalent word in the TL, by using a word in the TL that has opposite meaning of the word in the SL and giving it a negative meaning. For example, Larson (1984) pointed out that the word *bad* is translated into Aguaruna by using a negated antonym, *pegkegchua*, which means *not good* as a lexical equivalent.
5. Reciprocal lexical items. This strategy involves using words that are reciprocals of one another, such as the words *give* and *receive*. Larson (1984) provided an example with the sentences *John gave me the hat* and *I received the hat from John*.

When the concepts of objects and events to be translated are not known in the TL, Larson (1984) suggested three alternative strategies that a translator can use to find an equivalent expression in the TL. These alternative strategies include:

1. Modifying a generic word. This strategy involves the use of paraphrasing, i.e. using a generic term and modifying it with an explanation of the meaning of the components of the SL word. Larson (1984) recommended that when a word in the SL cannot be located in the TL the translator should analyze the word in the SL in order to identify its generic and contrastive components as well as the function of the word in its context. Larson (1984) claimed that an adequate equivalent in the TL may be identified after such an analysis. In some cases, a generic term is appropriate if the focus is not on the functions or other components of meaning. However, in some cases, the form and function require more detail for reasons of clarity. The four possible modifications are listed below.
 - (a) Modified with features of form. This strategy concerns the use of a generic word, modified with the features of form of the SL word. For example, Larson (1984) claimed that the word *wine* is unknown in the Hopi language of the Native American Hopi people in the United States of America. Therefore, when translating this word into Hopi, the translator modified a generic word *juice* with features of form, *fermented grape juice*.
 - (b) Modified with a statement of function. This strategy refers to using a generic word and modifying it with a statement of function about the SL word. For example, Larson (1984) stated that the word *centurion* is unknown in the Mazahua language of Mexico. Therefore, when translating this word into Mazahua, the translator modified a generic word *man* with a statement of function: a man *that commands 100 soldiers*.

- (c) Modified with both form and function. This strategy involves the use of a generic word and modifying it with both the form and function of the SL word. This strategy is applied with words that describe action and appearance, as well as the purpose required. For example, Larson (1984) illustrated that the word *mainsail* is unknown in the language of the Tetelcingo Aztecs of Mexico. Therefore, when translating this word into Tetelcingo Aztec, the translator modified a generic word *cloth* with both form and function that means the cloth *on the pole that was in front of the boat in order that the wind might push the boat*.
- (d) Modified by a comparison. This strategy involves the use of a generic word and modifying it by comparing the SL word with something the TL readers are familiar with and there is a term for it in the TL. In another example provided by Larson (1984), the word *wolf* is unknown in the Aguaruna language of Peru. Therefore, when translating this word into Aguaruna, the translator modified the generic word *animal* by using the comparison, an animal *like a fierce dog*.
2. Modifying a loan word. According to Larson (1984), loan words usually refer to people or things, which are unfamiliar for the TL readers. Thus, in some cases, a classifier needs to be added to a loan word in order to clarify that the word is the name of a person or thing. In other instances, a loan word may need to be modified in terms of its form, function, or a combination of both. The four possible modifications are listed below.
- (a) Modified by a classifier. This strategy involves the use of a loan word and modifying it with a classifier of the SL word. For example, Larson (1984) pointed out that the loan word *Amazon* is unknown in the Aguaruna language of Peru. Therefore, when translating this word into Aguaruna, the translator added the classifier *a river* to modify the loan word: *a river called Amazon*.

(b) Modified with a description of form, function, or both. This strategy refers to the use of a loan word and modifying it with a description of form, function, or both the form and the function of the SL word. For example, Larson (1984) illustrated that the loan word *anchor* is unknown in the Teutila Cuicatec language of Mexico. Therefore, when translating this word into Teutila Cuicatec, the translator modified the loan word with a description of both its form and function as *irons called anchors tied with ropes so the boat could not go any further*.

3. Modified with a cultural substitute. This strategy involves substituting a SL word with the word in the TL, which refers to a concept in the TL culture, although it is not exactly the same concept denoted in the SL word. For instance, Larson (1984) stated that the word *fox* is unknown in Africa. Therefore, when translating this word into African languages, the translator substituted it with the word *hyena*, which is familiar for the readers in the TL culture.

In more comprehensive details, Newmark (1988) proposed strategies that could be applied both to literary and nonliterary texts. These translation strategies are:

1. Literal translation. This strategy involves converting words or sentences to their equivalents in the TL, in which the words are translated individually and out of context. For example, the French sentence *L'homme était dans la rue* is literally translated into English as *The man was in the street* (Newmark, 1988).
2. Transference. This strategy involves transferring a SL word into a TL text in its original form. Normally, this strategy is used specifically when dealing with proper names, culture-specific words, and coinage. This strategy is sometimes utilized to retain the flavor of the SL (Newmark, 1988).
3. Naturalization. This strategy involves adapting the SL word to the phonetic and morphological norms of the TL to make it familiar to the tongue of the TL speaker. For

example, the English proper name *Edinburgh* was adapted to French as *Edimbourg* to make it more easily for the French speakers to pronounce it.

4. Cultural equivalent. This strategy involves replacing a culture-specific word or expression in the SL with a TL one. For instance, the word *baccalauréat* in French is translated by *(the French) "A" level* in English (Newmark, 1988).
5. Functional equivalent. This strategy involves using words or phrases in the TL to explain the function of the SL word. For example, the polish word *Sejm* is translated into English as *Polish parliament* (Newmark, 1988).
6. Descriptive equivalent. This strategy involves using some words or phrases in the TL to clarify the meaning of a word in the SL. This strategy is applied when description is more important than function. For example, the word *Samurai* is described as *the Japanese aristocracy from the eleventh to the nineteenth century* (Newmark, 1988).
7. Synonymy. This strategy involves using other words or phrases in the TL that have the same or nearly the same meaning. This strategy is applied when a word in the SL does not have an exact equivalent word in the TL, when the SL word cannot be literally translated into the TL, and when the word is not important in the source text. For example, the SL phrase *personne gentille* is translated into English as *kind person* (Newmark, 1988).
7. Through-translation. This strategy involves using literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations, the components of compounds, and phrases. In general, this strategy is utilized only when these terms are already recognized terms in the TL. For instance, the organization name *European Cultural Convention* is translated into French as *Convention culturelle européenne*. (Newmark, 1988).
8. Shifts or transpositions. This strategy involves changing in the grammar of the SL to suit the TL, such as changing from singular to plural (e.g. furniture – des meubles),

changing the SL verb to a TL noun (e.g. *essaie* – attempt), changing the SL conjunction to a TL indefinite adjective (e.g. *des que* – any), and changing the order of adjectives (e.g. *la maison blanche* – the white house) (Newmark, 1988).

9. Modulation. This strategy involves changing the point of view in the TL to express the same phenomenon in a different way. For example, the French sentence *Il n'est pas lâche* is translated into English as *He is extremely brave* (Newmark, 1988).
10. Recognized translation. This strategy involves using the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term in the TL. For example, the institutional term *Rechtsstaat* is translated into English as *Constitutional state* (Newmark, 1988).
11. Translation label. This strategy involves literal translation of new institutional terms. For example, the SL term *heritage language* is translated into French as *langue d'heritage* (Newmark, 1988).
12. Compensation. This strategy is applied when a feature, such as a loss of meaning, a sound-effect, a metaphor, or a pragmatic effect, in one part of a sentence is compensated for in another part of the same sentence, or in a contiguous sentence. For example, in case translating the French sentences *Quelques jours apres la Liberation, on retrouva son corps dans un charnier. Elle a ete fusillee le 8 juillet 1944 a l'age de 23 ans. Elle fut une militante exemplaire* into English, the last two sentences are translated into English as *This girl was shot on 8 July 1944, at the age of 23. She was an exemplary resistente*. This is because the English tense system cannot reproduce the effects achieved by the interplay of tenses (Hervey & Higgins, 1992).
13. Componential analysis. This strategy involves comparing a SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning, but is not an exact equivalent by using their similarities and differences. As the SL word has a more specific meaning, TL sense components should be added to produce a more accurate approximation of the meaning of the word.

For example, the SL English word *oyster* was translated into Persian by using the TL word for *crab* as an equivalent. The SL and the TL words both refer to types of sea food, but they are not the same thing (Maasoum & Davtalab, 2011).

14. Reduction and expansion. This strategy involves omitting or adding some information in order to make the target readers understand the translated text better. For example, the SL adjective of substance plus a general noun *science linguistique* was reduced to the English TL noun *linguistics*, or the SL adjectives *cheveux égaux* can be expanded into a noun phrase consisting of a head noun modified with an adverb and a past participle, *evenly cut hair* (Newmark, 1988).
15. Paraphrasing. This strategy involves expressing the meaning of a SL word or phrase by using other words in the TL. For instance, the SL phrase บริเวณชุมชน (*surrounding community*) was translated into English as *in the midst of the community* (Mungchomklang, 2009).
16. Couplets, triplets, and quadruplets. This strategy involves the combination of two or more different strategies for dealing with a single problem. This strategy is used in particular for translating cultural words. For instance, transference can be combined with a descriptive or a cultural equivalent when translating a cultural word from one language into another (Newmark, 1988).
17. Notes, additions, and glosses. This strategy involves adding information that is not present in the SL text to the TL text. This strategy is employed when the word in the TL cannot convey the exact meaning of the SL word or it is not clear enough. The additional information can be added to the text, at the bottom of the page, at the end of the chapter, or at the end of the book in the glossary. For example, the city name *Debrecen* is translated into English as *the city of Debrecen, in West Hungary* (Newmark, 1988).

Likewise, Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) proposed seven translation strategies for translating from the SL to the TL. They divided the strategies into two main categories: strategies for direct translation procedures and strategies for oblique translation procedures. Strategies for direct translation procedures are used when the structural and conceptual elements of the SL can be translated into the TL. It consists of borrowing, calque, and literal translation.

1. Borrowing. This strategy refers to taking a word or an expression from the SL and using it in the TL, because the TL does not have a lexicalized correspondence. For example, some French words such as *alcool*, *redingote*, *paquebot*, and *acajou* are borrowed from other languages (Vinay & Darbellnet, 1995).
2. Calque. This strategy is a loan translation by borrowing a word or phrase from another language while translating its components literally. For example, the English message *Compliments of the Season!* is translated into French as *Compliments de la saison!* (Vinay & Darbellnet, 1995).
3. Literal translation. This strategy involves converting a SL word or sentence to the nearest equivalence in the TL. For example, the English sentence *I left my spectacles on the table downstairs* is literally translated into French as *J'ai laissé mes lunettes sur la table en bas* (Vinay & Darbellnet, 1995).

Strategies for oblique translation procedure are used when the structural or conceptual elements of the SL cannot be directly translated without altering the meaning or upsetting the grammatical and stylistic elements of the TL. It consists of transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation.

1. Transposition. This strategy means substituting one word class with another without changing the meaning of the SL message. It also covers a change in the grammar from the SL into the TL, such as changing from singular to plural, changing the position of

an adjective, changing a word class or the part of speech of a word in order to keep the same sense, as well as to make it sound more natural. For example, the French sentence *Il a annoncé qu'il reviendrait* can be re-expressed by transposing a subordinate verb with a noun, *Il a annoncé son retour*.

2. Modulation. This strategy is a variation of the form of the message, achieved by a switch in point of view. This change may be done when a literal or transposed translation, although may result in a grammatically correct utterance, may be considered awkward, unidiomatic, or unsuitable in the TL. For example, the phrase, *The time when...* is translated into French as *Le moment où...* or the English negative sentence *It is not difficult to show...* is translated into French positive sentence as *Il est facile de démontrer....*
3. Equivalence. This strategy is applied when a word, phrase, or sentence in the SL has an equivalent term in the TL and conveys the exact meaning, even if its structure is not equivalent. For example, the French onomatopoeia *Aïe!* is translated into English by using the equivalent onomatopoeia *Ouch!*, or the French proverb *Il pleut à seaux/des cordes*. is translated by using the English proverb *It is raining cats and dogs*, which has the same meaning (Vinay & Darbellnet, 1995).
4. Adaptation. This strategy involves adapting a source text's cultural elements with those of the target culture by using a different situation to express the message in the source text. For example, the title of the French film *Trois hommes et un couffin* is translated into English as *Three men and a baby* (Vinay & Darbellnet, 1995).

Besides the translation strategies that can be used for all kinds of texts, some translation experts (Baker, 1992; Davies, 2003; Graedler, 2000; Hermans, 1988; Hervey & Higgins, 1992; Larson, 1984; Newmark, 1988) have proposed strategies for dealing with particular

translation situations, such as strategies for translating idioms, strategies for translating proper names, and strategies for translating culture-specific concepts.

Regarding strategies for translating idiomatic expressions, Newmark (1988) suggested five strategies. These strategies include (a) translating an idiom with a counter-identical TL equivalence, (b) translating an idiom with a non-identical TL idiom that conveys the same sense, (c) paraphrasing an idiom, which risks losing the stylistic impact of the idiom, (d) providing a literal translation of an idiom, which risks losing the semantic impact, and (e) deleting an idiom, which risks losing both the stylistic and semantic impacts. Similarly, Baker (1992) suggested four strategies for translating idioms: (a) using a TL idiom of similar meaning and form, (b) using a TL idiom of similar meaning, but dissimilar form, (c) paraphrasing a SL idiom, and (d) omitting a SL idiom.

With respect to strategies for translating proper names, Hervey and Higgins (1992) discussed three strategies, including (a) exotism, in which the proper name in the SL remains unchanged in the TL, (b) transliteration, in which the proper name is converted to corresponding characters of the TL alphabet, and (c) cultural transplantation, in which a SL name is replaced by the TL name that has the same connotation as the original one. Similarly, Hermans (1988) stated that at least four strategies can be used for translating proper names: (a) copy by using the SL name in the TL text exactly as it was in the source text, (b) transcription by transliterating or adapting the phonology or spelling of the source text name to suit the TL, (c) substitution by replacing the proper name in the SL with a common name in the TL, (d) omitting by deleting the source text proper name in the target text, and (e) combinations of the above strategies.

In terms of strategies for translating culturally specific concepts, Graedler (2000) suggested four strategies: (a) making up a new word, (b) explaining the meaning of the SL word, (c) preserving the SL term in the TL, and (d) using a word in the TL that has a similar

meaning. In addition, Davies (2003) distinguished seven strategies for dealing with culture-specific concepts: (a) preservation by transferring a SL term unchanged into the target text with no further explanation, (b) addition by keeping a SL term and adding explanation in the TL text to clarify the term, (c) omission by deleting a SL problematic term in the TL text, (d) globalization by replacing a SL term with a more neutral or a general term in the TL to make it more accessible to readers with a different cultural background or knowledge, (e) localization by substituting a SL term with an existing concept in the target culture, (f) transformation by modifying or shifting the meaning of a SL term, and (g) creation by creating a new term for the SL term.

As can be seen from the translation strategies previously discussed, some of these strategies are called different names by different scholars, but are otherwise identical. That is some strategies differ only in terminology or in subdivision, e.g. where one scholar names only one strategy the other differentiates two different strategies. Some of the strategies recommended by translation experts may have slightly broader or narrower perspectives, but all share essentially the same procedural processes. Despite the plethora of strategies presented in the previous section, they are all similar in that they are used to assist translators in translating words, phrases, or sentences from the SL to the TL.

Previous Related Studies

It was found that the previous research related to the present study can be divided into two main categories: (a) the studies investigating translation strategies used to translate literary and non-literary texts and (b) the studies related to translation problems in literary and non-literary texts and the solutions used by translators. The studies related to translation strategies can be subdivided into two categories: (a) studies conducted by researchers investigating the strategies used by translators in the selected texts and (b) studies conducted

by researchers who carried out the translation themselves to directly learn the strategies involved in the translation of either literary and non-literary texts.

With regard to studies related to translation problems and solutions, studies conducted by researchers who investigated translation problems encountered by translators as well as solutions offered by the translators of the selected texts were not found. The studies that were found can be divided into two categories: (a) studies of translation problems and solutions by researchers who interviewed professional translators directly or used questionnaires to collect data on these issues from professional translators and (b) the study of translation problems and solutions by researchers who conducted the translation themselves to personally investigate the problems and the solutions to these problems.

Studies on strategies for translating literary and non-literary texts from English to Thai.

As previously stated, the study of translation strategies can be divided into two categories: the studies conducted by researchers who investigated the use of translation strategies in selected texts and the studies conducted by researchers who translated the selected text themselves. Additionally, it was found that the analysis of the translation strategies of these studies were based on frameworks of translation strategies, which were proposed by translation experts such as Baker (1992), Catford (1965), Larson (1984), Newmark (1988), and Nida (1964).

The study of translation strategies by researchers who investigated the translation strategies used by translators in translating a selected text.

In terms of literary translation, it was found that the studies covered a variety of texts, including novels (Jampathip, 2003; Junmukda, 2005; Kulpradit, 2006; Puangtong, 2006; Robrue, 2007; Tisan, 2009; Yaprom, 2009), short stories (Changprachak, 2001; Seungjitsirirote, 2001), movie scripts (Muangkote, 2010; Muangyai, 2003; Raktaetrakul &

Rungsimanont, 2006; Theerawikran, 2006), children's books (Khongnantha, 2003; Yanwaree, 2001), song lyrics (Wisedsook, 2002; Yusamran, 2010), and poems (Onsomboon, 2007). The main objective of all of these studies was to investigate the translation strategies used by translators in translating the selected texts. For example, Onsomboon (2007) analyzed the strategies employed to translate contemporary American poetry. These translation strategies were based on the framework proposed by Baker (1992), and the results revealed that the translator employed almost all of the strategies suggested by Baker (1992) to translate the poetry, except translation by illustration. The most frequently employed translation strategies identified in the study were translation by paraphrase using a related word and translation by a more neutral or less expressive word. In addition, Muangkote (2010) studied the strategies that the translator used when translating English comedy films into Thai language subtitles. The analysis of data was based on the translation strategies proposed by Newmark (1988). The study indicated that literal translation, transference, cultural equivalents, reduction, and sentence adjustment were the most frequently used strategies to translate the subtitles.

With regard to the strategies used in translating novels, several studies (Jampathip, 2003; Junmukda, 2005; Kulpradit, 2006; Puangtong, 2006; Robrue, 2007; Tisan, 2009; Yaprom, 2009), have been conducted. For example, Robrue (2007) investigated the strategies used by the translator of the English-language novel, *The Da Vinci Code* into Thai. The analysis was based on the translation strategies suggested by several translation scholars such as Catford (1965), Newmark (1988), and Nida (1964). Robrue (2007) reported that the translator used several strategies to translate the novel. The translation strategies used at the word and phrase level were transliteration, using words which refer to thing that exist in Thai culture, and deleting words and phrases. At the sentence level, the translation strategies used were transliteration and adding more details. The translator also used two more strategies in

translating the novel: (a) retaining the SL code message and putting its translation in parenthesis so that the readers could compare the original code message with the translation and (b) using กลอนสุภาพ (*klong-su-pap*), a Thai rhyming pattern, instead of iambic pentameter, the rhyming pattern of the English original poem. Furthermore, some studies (Kaewanant & Seedam, 2004; Puangtong, 2006; Tisan, 2009; Yaprom, 2009) applied the translation strategies proposed by Larson (1998) to investigate translation strategies that translators applied in translating novels from English to Thai. Firstly, Kaewanant and Seedam (2004) examined the translation of *Diary of A Mad Bride*, and found that twenty strategies were employed in translating the novel. They stated that the most common strategies included using loan words, idioms, generic and specific words, cultural substitutes, similes, doublets, and free variation. In addition, Puangtong (2006) studied the strategies applied in the translation of the novel *Eragon* and found that thirty nine strategies were employed. He reported that the most frequently used strategies included using generic words with a classifier, using loan words with a classifier, and skewing. Likewise, Yaprom (2009) investigated the translation strategies used in the translation of the novel *The Kite Runner* and identified thirty seven separate strategies. She reported that the most common strategies included using loan words, doublets, similes, and metaphors. Lastly, Tisan (2009) analyzed the strategies used to translate the novel *Frankenstein* from English to Thai. The findings indicated various strategies used by the translator to translate this novel, such as generic to specific, specific to generic, passive to active, explicit to implicit, implicit to explicit, common expression to idiom, and common expression to hyperbole.

With regard to non-literary translation, it was found that the studies covered several text types, such as newspaper news (Muangyai, 2002; Sittirak, 2002), cookbooks (Klinkajorn, 2002; Kunavarote, 2006), marketing texts (Burimjitt, 2007), scientific texts (Lohchingchairith, 2003; Punpakdee, 2009), and academic articles (Chaitrikal, 2005;

Chucherdsak, 2003; Lewtrakool, 2004). For example, Kunavarote (2006) applied the translation strategies suggested by Baker (1992) to analyze the strategies used to translate five bilingual cookbooks. The results indicated that three strategies were frequently used: illustration, literal translation, and cultural substitution. In addition, she found that the translator also used other strategies that were not proposed by Baker (1992), which included using literal translation, adding information, and using more specific words. In addition, Lewtrakool (2004) analyzed the strategies used in the translation of a documentary text entitled *China's Unknown Gobi Alashan*. The analysis was based on the translation strategies suggested by Baker (1992), Saibua (1999), and Supon (1998). The results of the study revealed that the translator used five strategies to translate the article at the syntactic level. These strategies included rearranging word order (22%), adding or omitting (15%), modifying active voice into passive voice (4%), changing sentences to phrases (2%), and modifying negative sentences into affirmative sentences (2%). With respect to the semantic analysis, eight strategies were identified: using transliteration, using a loan word or a loan word plus an explanation, using a phrase or a sentence to substitute for a word and vice versa, adding conjunctions, omitting words or phrases, using a more neutral or more expressive word, using cultural substitution, and paraphrasing with a related or unrelated word.

In terms of the translation of scientific texts, only two related studies were found. The analysis of the translation strategies of both studies were based on the translation strategies suggested by several theorists such as Catford (1965), Larson (1984), Newmark (1988), and Nida (1964). The first study was conducted by Lohchingchairith (2003) to investigate the strategies employed to translate eight broadcast scientific documentaries. She reported that the translators employed several strategies in translating the documents, such as transliteration, generalization, addition of explanatory words and phrases, omission of words and phrases, rearrangement of words and phrases in sentences, and subject omission. The

results also indicated that transliteration was the most popular strategy used to cope with non-equivalent scientific terms, while structural change was significantly used at the sentence level. Moreover, it was found that due to time limitations and the restriction of space on the footage, the translator had to shorten some overly long sentences without sacrificing any important information from the original version. Likewise, Punpakdee (2009) studied the variety of translation strategies used to translate scientific news, and the results revealed that the translators used various strategies including transliteration, literal translation, adding of explanatory words or phrases, omitting of words and phrases, changing phrases into sentences, changing passive sentences into active sentences, changing direct to indirect speech, adjusting paragraphs, and rearranging statements.

The study of translation strategies by researchers who translated texts themselves to learn translation strategies directly.

The purposes of these studies were for the researchers to practice translating by applying the theories of translation to the actual translation process. From the review of literature, it was found that only literary texts were selected by the researchers for the investigation, but the texts covered various literary genres, including novels (Kedsom, 2000; Khaojaree, 2002; Wichayathian, 2003), short stories (Porn-Ngam, 2008; Tiyyangkoon, 2004), song lyrics (Sonsri, 2001), children's fables and fairy tales (Panthasen, 2002), and movie scripts (Jiranansuroj, 2002). For example, Kedsom (2000) explored translation strategies through the translation of the novel *The Pelican* from English to Thai. The data was analyzed, based on the translation strategies proposed by several scholars such as Hatim and Mason (1994), Nida (1964), and Saibua (1999). The results revealed that Kedsom used several strategies such as using literal translation, using transliteration, adding explanatory words or phrases, omitting words and phrases, using cultural substitution, translating passive sentences in English into passive sentences in Thai, and rearranging the order of words in

sentences. Similarly, Tiyyangkoon (2004) translated the Maeve Binchy short story collection, *The Garden Party* from English to Thai. The analysis of data was based on the translation strategies proposed by Newmark (1988). The results showed that the researcher applied several strategies to translate the short story such as literal translation, transference, addition or omission of words and phrases, cultural substitution, and rearrangement of words and phrases in sentences.

Studies related to problems and solutions in translating literary and non-literary texts from English to Thai.

As previously mentioned, studies related to problems with the translation of literary and non-literary texts from English to Thai and possible solutions were divided into two main types. They were: (a) the study of translation problems and solutions by researchers who interviewed professional translators or used questionnaires to collect data on these issues from professional translators and (b) the study of translation problems and solutions by researchers who conducted the translation themselves to personally investigate the problems and the solutions to these problems.

The study of translation problems and solutions by using interviews or questionnaires to collect the data from professional translators.

From the review of related literature, it was found that only two studies of this type have been conducted. The first one was conducted by Nudthakien (2007), who investigated the English to Thai translation problems experienced by professional translators of both literary and non-literary texts in the fields of education, law, science and technology, and novels. An interview was designed to gather information from fifteen professional translators. The findings indicated that problems in translating English to Thai were the result of three factors: language, culture, and general and background knowledge. The language problems included semantics and grammatical structure. The problems with

grammatical structure stemmed from the differences between English and Thai grammatical structures. The most frequent grammatical problems encountered by the translators were pronouns, passive sentences, and tenses. The semantic problems were a result of misunderstanding the meanings of technical terms, idiomatic expressions, slang, and connotations of words. In terms of cultural problems, the translators were sometimes confused by cultural features in the original English texts because of the absence of such features in Thai culture. With respect to the problem of not having sufficient knowledge, the translators encountered this problem because they lacked general knowledge regarding the subject matter in the texts being translated. With regard to the strategies the translators used to solve these problems, the translators searched the meanings of words from various dictionaries to resolve the problems of unknown words and expressions. Sometimes they searched for definitions in encyclopedias and on the Internet. Additionally, translators solved semantic problems and ambiguous grammatical structures by analyzing the original meaning and considering the context and the communicative situation that the sentences were embedded in. In terms of the cultural problems, the translators used various strategies to cope with culture-specific concepts and figurative language such as substituting them with the terms in the TL that have similar meanings, paraphrasing, adding information to explain the meanings of the SL terms, and asking English native speakers to clarify the terms.

The other previous study was conducted by Yaila-or (2000), who investigated the translation problems and the solving strategies used by professional translators working in the field of science and technology. A questionnaire was used to gather information from the translators. The study revealed that the main problem was that they did not understand the content of the scientific texts because the texts usually contained unfamiliar technical terms and complex sentence structure. The translators coped with these problems by asking for assistance from professionals in the related field, using technical dictionaries, referring to

scientific or technical manuals, or using English terminology directly in the translated text. Furthermore, the translators agreed that a training course in science and technology would be the most beneficial to help them to solve these problems. Additionally, it was found that education and work experience also had an impact on the translation problems of Thai translators working in this field. The respondents with fewer than five years of work experience had the greatest problems with their translation work.

The study of translation problems and solutions by researchers who personally translated texts to learn about translation problems and offer solutions.

From the review of the related studies, no study of this type was conducted with non-literary texts. The researchers typically selected literary texts such as novels (Suansom, 2001), short stories (Yimlamai, 2000), children's books (Panthasen, 2001), and song lyrics (Klangsombut, 2001; Srimongkol, 2002) as a case study. For example, Yimlamai (2000) reported that she encountered several problems in the process of translating the short story *The Pelican* from English into Thai. The problems included translating figurative language, satire and humor, narrative, proper names, and title of the short story. She applied various strategies to cope with these problems such as searching for more supportive data from reliable sources and the Internet and asking both Thais and foreigners for alternative solutions and for different possible interpretations of contexts. Similarly, Suansom (2001) translated the novel *The English Patient* from English to Thai as a case study. The researcher encountered several problems with translating this novel, including problems with translating unfamiliar vocabulary and expressions, complex sentences, proper names, and culturally specific concepts. She utilized various strategies to cope with these problems, for example searching for supportive information from multiple sources, consulting Thais and native English speakers, finding more possible interpretations, and referring to experiences in the adjustment of the translated text.

As the above-mentioned studies have revealed, the problems resulted from linguistic and cultural differences between English and Thai. The results of these previous studies revealed that the grammatical problems faced by translators of both literary and non-literary texts were translating tenses, complex sentences, passive sentences, proper names, and pronouns. Problems found particularly in the translation of literary texts, especially novels, were translating figurative language and connotative meaning, while the problem of translating technical terms was usually found in non-literary texts. In terms of cultural problems, the translators were often faced with the problem of culturally-specific elements or concepts that are sometimes difficult to find an equivalent meaning in Thai. Another problem identified by these studies was the problem of insufficient knowledge about the subject matter of texts being translated. With respect to strategies used to solve these problems, the results based on these previous studies indicated that these problems could be resolved with the use of various strategies, depending on the difficulty of the problem in question. Some examples included looking up the meanings of words and expressions in dictionaries, searching for more information from a variety of reliable sources, interpreting different possible meanings from contexts, and consulting specialists or Thai and English native speakers.

Summary

Texts can be divided into two broad genres: literary and non-literary texts. Based on these text genres classified, translation therefore is divided into two main categories: literary translation and non-literary translation. Literary translation is the translation of all forms of literature, which the main function is to entertain readers. In contrast, non-literary translation is the translation of texts concerned with knowledge and facts, which the primary objective is to provide information or knowledge for readers. The translation of a literary text should preserve the meaning and style of the original text and follow the usage norms of the

TL literature, whereas translation of non-literary text should be accurate in terms of the content, appropriate for the intended readers, and easy to read and understand. Regarding problems with translating literary and non-literary texts, the problems that frequently occur in literary translation included the problem of how to effectively reproduce the style of the original text in the TL and the problems in translating figurative language, connotations, and specific cultural references in the original text. In contrast, the main problems in the translation of non-literary texts are usually caused by technical terms, new terminologies, proper names, and abbreviations and acronyms.

Furthermore, from the review of related literature, several studies have been conducted to investigate the translation strategies used by translators to translate literary and non-literary texts from English to Thai, the problems that they encountered, and the strategies that they used to solve those problems. It was found that linguistic and cultural differences between English and Thai pose various problems in translation. In order to make the translated text more acceptable to the target readers, the translators had to apply several strategies in translating and solving the translation problems based on appropriateness in a variety of situations, with the aim of closing the gap between English and Thai.

Although there have been many research studies on translation strategies, translation problems, and solution strategies that translators used in translating literary and non-literary texts from English to Thai, very little studies has been conducted to investigate these issues from translators directly. Therefore, this study was designed to investigate concerning these topics by using interviews and observations to collect the data from professional translators.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the methodology used in this study, chiefly (a) the selection of the text types and the participants, (b) the instrumentation, (c) the procedures for data collection, (d) the data analysis, (e) the confidentiality, (f) the validity of the research methodology, and (g) the reliability of the research methodology.

Participants

Selection of the text types.

Novels were selected to represent the literary text in this study for two reasons. Firstly, according to Nudthakien (2007) and Tisan (2009), compared to other genres of literary texts, the novel is the most popular form of literature that has been translated into Thai. As can be seen in bookstores, many novels, particularly popular novels, have been translated into Thai. Another reason was that, according to Haque (2012) and Newmark (1988), novel translation is more complex than the translation of other genres and poses many difficulties for the translator. Therefore, it was instructive to discover which strategies translators use to translate English novels into Thai, what types of problems they typically encounter, and how they solve them.

Scientific texts were selected to represent non-literary text in this study because science and technology are universally relevant and practical. For example, new medical advances may allow people to live longer and also improve their quality of life. Most of the knowledge and informational resources in this field are typically from Western countries and are usually written in English. As a result, there is a need for translation of this material in order to make full use of these texts possible for Thai people who cannot read English (Iewtrakool, 2004). Moreover, constant technological and scientific advancements have led to coining new

English terminologies to express new concepts, techniques, and innovations. These terminologies have developed very rapidly during the last few decades that dictionaries are struggling to stay relevant (Al-Hassnawi, 2004). As a result, translators have struggled to find lexical equivalents of neologisms in the target language. Therefore, it was interesting to discover how translators of scientific texts solve this problem. Furthermore, only a few studies (Lohchingchairith, 2003; Punpakdee, 2009) have been conducted to investigate the problems experienced by translators when translating scientific texts from English into Thai and the strategies that they used to overcome these difficulties. For these reasons, it is important to conduct further studies about these topics.

Selection of the participants.

Purposive criteria were used to select the participants, and they are as follows:

1. The translators have at least ten years of experience as a translator and have specialized knowledge in the areas of literature (novels) and science and technology (scientific texts).
2. The works of these translators have been widely accepted by well-known publishers.
3. The translators were willing to be interviewed and observed.

The participants in this study were two professional translators who met the purposive criteria described above. The translator of novels had more than twenty years of experience, translating both English to Thai and Thai to English. Apart from her specialized knowledge as a translator of literature, she has also worked as a writer, publishing fifty novels and ten short stories. She has received awards for both her translations and original work from a number of institutes, including the Translators and Interpreters Association of Thailand and the Bangkok International Book Fair. The other participant was a doctor. He also worked as a freelance translator, with over ten years of experience of translating scientific texts from English to Thai for one of the prominent magazines in Thailand. The magazine offers readers

various features, such as geography, science, history, nature and cultures. The science translator was responsible for translating articles in scientific areas. His translated works covered a wide range of topics, from general healthcare to specific medical knowledge.

Instrumentation

The instruments used to collect the data in this study consisted of interviews and observations. The details of the two research tools used in this study are discussed below.

Interviews.

The first instrument used to collect data in this study was a semi-structured interview, a research method used to collect qualitative data by setting up a situation (the interview) which allows both the interviewer and the subject the flexibility to probe for details or to discuss issues (Cohen & Crabtree, 2006). It often contains a list of questions that an interviewer wants to ask, but allows the interviewer the flexibility to ask further questions. The interviewer may ask these questions out of sequence, as some questions may arise naturally during the interview process. The researcher can use this method to delve deeply into a topic and to thoroughly understand the answers provided. In addition, this method also allows a researcher to collect information from individuals about their practices, beliefs, or opinions. It can also be used to gather information on past or present behavior or experience (Harrell & Bradley, 2009). Therefore, the use of a semi-structured interview allows the researcher to question the participants in detail about the translation strategies that they have used, the common problems they have experienced, and the strategies that they have used to solve the problems.

The interview questions were designed to gather information concerning the translation strategies used by professional translators when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. In addition, they aimed to find out the typical problems experienced by the translators and the strategies that they used to solve them. The interview questions were of

the open-ended type in order to provoke the participants into speaking freely and openly about the topics that the research asked.

Observations.

The other tool for collecting data in this study was the observation of the participants through think-aloud sessions. The think-aloud method of data collection is concerned with the thought processes of the participants as they carry out particular tasks, which they describe in words to the researcher (Charters, 2003). According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006), observation can be used in addition to the interview in order to have more accurate information. By using this method, the researcher can find out whether the data obtained from the observation are consistent with the data obtained from the interview. Therefore, in this study, this tool was used to investigate whether or not the participants used the same strategies, encountered the same problems, and solved the problems in the same way as they said they had in their interviews.

In the think-aloud sessions, the participants were asked to translate a section of text and described their translation strategies, problems, and strategies to solve the problems. The excerpt of the literary text used in the session was taken from pages 104-106 of a novel entitled *The Life of Pi* by Yann Martel (2001), and was 530 words in length. The excerpt of the non-literary text taken from pages 36-40 of a scientific article entitled *Longevity: On Beyond 100* by Stephen Hall contains 580 words. The article was published in *National Geographic* magazine, Volume 223, No. 5, in May 2013. The researcher's thesis advisors were asked to read the selected excerpts to ensure that they were suitable in terms of both content and length.

Data Collection Procedures

The data were collected from May 2 to June 5, 2013. The procedure for the interviews is as follows: Firstly, the researcher contacted tentative participants based on the purposive

criteria, as discussed earlier. After that, the researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with each of the participants. They described their translation strategies, the problems they experienced, and strategies they used to deal with them. The researcher used their responses to the open-ended questions as a guideline, which led to other questions as they arose in conversation.

After the interview session, the researcher provided each participant with an excerpt of the text. During the observation, the same questions that were used in the interview process were asked again about the translation strategies they used, the problems they encountered, and the strategies employed to deal with them. The interview and observation sessions lasted approximately 120 to 180 minutes per participant. In other words, the interviews took about 80 to 120 minutes, while the observations lasted around 40 to 60 minutes. The interviews and observations were all conducted in Thai to make it easier for both the researcher and the participants to be asked and to understand the questions. All of the data were audio-taped, and the recordings were transcribed by the researcher immediately after each interview and observation. If there were any ambiguities concerning translation strategies, problems, and the strategies typically used to solve them, the participants were asked to clarify them either while they were being interviewed or observed, or over the telephone after the interview and observation. The consistency of all the data obtained from each participant through the interview and observation was then thoroughly examined and analyzed.

Data Analysis

The data from the interviews and observations were transcribed and then translated into English by the researcher, and the accuracy of the translation was examined by an English native speaker. Then the data were analyzed according to the research questions and were categorized into three groups: (a) the translation strategies used by the professional translators of novels and scientific texts, (b) the problems they encountered, and (c) the strategies they

used to solve the problems. In addition, the similarities and differences between the strategies used by professional translators, the problems that they experienced, and the strategies they used to solve these problems were also presented in parallel in each section.

Confidentiality

The participants were informed that their names and personal data would not appear in the study or be included in the data analysis, and that all information related to this study would be destroyed immediately after its completion.

Validity

The interview questions used in the interviews and think-aloud sessions were developed based on the purposes of the study and a review of the related literature. The questions were examined by the thesis advisors for validity and appropriateness before they were used with the participants. The relevancy of the questions to the purposes of the study was also confirmed by the thesis advisors. Furthermore, in order to guarantee the validity of the information obtained from the interviews and observations, the participants were asked to verify the accuracy of the transcriptions. In the event that any ambiguities were discovered, the participants were asked to clarify these issues during the interview and observation process or in a follow-up telephone call.

Reliability

In terms of the reliability of the data collected for this study, the researcher used interview questions, two excerpts from the literary and non-literary texts and the transcripts of the interviews and observations through think-aloud sessions with each of the participants in order to ensure consistency. All the instruments were categorized according to the translation strategies proposed by experts on translation including Baker (1992), Larson (1984), Newmark (1988), and Vinay and Darbelnet (1995) and a review of the related literature. Additionally, the thesis advisors also examined the data in terms of the accuracy of

the data analysis and the data categorization, and gave suggestions on both the categorization and analysis of the data.



CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This study was conducted to investigate the translation strategies used by the professional translators of novels and scientific texts, the problems that they encountered, and the strategies that they employed to solve the problems. In addition, it aimed to answer the question of whether or not there were similarities and differences between the translation strategies used by the professional translators, the problems they experienced, and the solutions strategies they used to solve the problems. Therefore, the study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What strategies did professional translators use when translating novels from English to Thai?
2. What problems did professional translators experience when translating novels from English to Thai?
3. Which strategies did professional translators employ to solve translation problems?
4. Which strategies did professional translators utilize to translate scientific texts from English to Thai?
5. What problems did professional translators experience when translating scientific texts from English to Thai?
6. Which strategies did professional translators use to solve translation problems?
7. What were the similarities and the differences between the translation strategies, translation problems, and the strategies used by the professional translators of novels and scientific texts?

This chapter presents the findings of the study. To answer the seven research questions, results of Research Questions 1 and 4 are reported simultaneously to compare the similarities

and differences between the translation strategies used by the two professional translators, results of Research Questions 2 and 5 are discussed together to compare the similarities and differences between the problems encountered by the two translators, and results of Research Questions 3 and 6 are presented in parallel to compare the similarities and differences between the strategies they used to solve the problems. Some samples from the transcripts of the interviews and the observations were used to provide examples of the findings for each topic. The interviews and observations were transcribed and then translated into English by the researcher. The accuracy of the translation was then examined by an English native speaker. The data obtained from the interviews and the observations were also examined for the consistency of the two instruments.

Overall, the data obtained from the interviews were consistent with the data obtained from the observations. The strategies, problems, and solution strategies that were not identified in the observations were the results of the content of the excerpts from the selected texts; thus, fewer strategies, problems, and solution strategies were reported in the observations than in the interviews.

The Translation Strategies Used by the Professional Translators of Novels and Scientific Texts

The data on Research Questions 1 and 4 were analyzed in combination to answer Research Question 7 regarding the similarities and differences of the translation strategies used by the two professional translators. The findings revealed that in order to reproduce a target text that conveys the same information as the source text, the participants applied various strategies, both similar and different, when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai.

Similar translation strategies used by the professional translators.

The translation strategies used by both translators were found to fall into two types. They were: (a) the translation strategies used when the structural and conceptual elements of the source language could be translated into the target language and (b) the translation strategies used when the structural and conceptual elements of the source language could not be directly translated into the target language.

The translation strategies in cases where the structural and conceptual elements of the source language could be translated into the target language.

For these cases, two strategies were found to be used by the two participants. These strategies were: (a) using literal translation and (b) using synonyms.

Using literal translation.

The participants claimed that they attempted to use words in the target language that conveyed the same meanings as the words in the source language in order to translate novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. If a word in the source language had a lexicalized correspondence in the target language, they used the equivalent word in the target language. In other words, they used a Thai corresponding word to translate an English word that has an equivalent word in Thai. Furthermore, it was found that the participants also applied this strategy when translating simple English sentences that could be literally translated into Thai.

Novel translator:	I use the Thai words that have the same meaning as the ones used in the original text. ... If we have a directly equivalent word in Thai, I will use that word. I try to select words that can convey a meaning that is close to the source text. ... For example, the word <i>confirm</i> and the nouns <i>touch screen</i> and <i>working woman</i> have equivalent words in Thai, so I translated
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them into Thai as ยืนยัน (*confirm*), จอสัมผัส (*touch screen*), and ผู้หญิงทำงาน (*working woman*) respectively. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I translate by using Thai equivalent words if the meanings of the English and Thai words are exactly the same. ... For example, I translated the word *osteoarthritis* into Thai as โรคข้อเสื่อม (*osteoarthritis*). (Interview)

Novel translator: ... Such as the sentence, *I am here, Piscine*, can be literally translated into Thai as ฉันอยู่ตรงนี้ พิซีน (*I am here, Piscine*). (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: I literally translated the sentence, *She should have diabetes!*, into Thai as เธอควรจะเป็นโรคเบาหวาน (*She should have diabetes!*). (Think-aloud)

Using synonyms.

The participants explained that they sometimes used other words or phrases in the target language that had similar meanings with the meaning of the word in the source text when they could not find the exact equivalent words or phrases in the target language. They further explained that in a particular context the equivalent word in Thai may not be suitable for the context of the English source text. Therefore, they used other words with similar meanings which conveyed a more suitable meaning for the context.

Interviewer: Can we use synonyms for the source text words that do not have directly equivalent words in Thai, for example using the Thai word พวงมาลัย (*necklace of flowers*) for the word *garland* in English? (Interview)

Novel translator: Yes, but it also depends on the context whether that synonym can convey the same meaning as the original word. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I sometimes use other words in the target language that are closest in meaning to replace the words in the source language. (Interview)

Novel translator: For example, in the sentence *The stripes don't melt*. Although the word *melt* has an equivalent word in Thai, which is ละลาย (*melt*), this word does not suit this particular context. So I used the word หายไป (*disappear*), which has a similar meaning, but was more appropriate in this case. (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: ...Such as the word *waiver* in the sentence *But it may also provide Little Bird with a waiver from serious diseases that typically ravage humans as they age*. The word *waiver* can be literally translated into Thai as การละสิทธิ์ (*waiver*). But I chose to translate this word into Thai asปลอดภัยจาก (*safe from*), which has a similar meaning, suits this context, and is easy to understand. (Think-aloud)

The translation strategies in cases where the structural and conceptual elements of the source language could not be directly translated into the target language.

When encountering with this situation, the participants applied ten strategies to create equivalents in the target language. The translation strategies that they used in these cases included (a) using a loan word or a loan word plus an explanation, (b) paraphrasing, (c) using cultural substitution, (d) using interpretative translation, (e) adding words or phrases in the translated text, (f) omitting words or phrases in the source text, (g) rearranging the order of

words, phrases, or sentences in the source text, (h) translating passive sentences in English into passive sentence in Thai, (i) dividing one complex sentence into a number of simpler sentences, (j) separating paragraphs, and (k) combining paragraphs.

Using a loan word or a loan word plus an explanation.

The participants stated that sometimes they took words from the English source text and used them in the target text when they could not find equivalent words in Thai for these English words. The participants explained that they used a loan word in two ways: with and without an explanation. When using a loan word without an explanation, they either retained the source language word exactly as it appeared in the original text or transliterated it. They added that they typically used these strategies when the proper name, culturally specific concept, or technical term had no equivalent in Thai and presented no difficulties for readers in understanding the meaning of the word.

Novel translator: I use two strategies to deal with words in the source text that have no equivalent words in Thai. The first strategy is using the English word in the translated version. The second strategy I use is transliterating it into Thai. ... I use transliteration for translating people's names. I also use this strategy for place names. For example, I transliterated the road name *Sukhumvit Road* into Thai as ถนนสุขุมวิท (*Sukhumvit Road*). (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: In case the Thai language does not have an equivalent term for the English technical term, I may use the source text term or transliterate it into Thai. Like when translating the word *X-ray* into Thai, sometimes I retain the word *X-ray* in the translated text, but sometimes I transliterate it into Thai as เอ็กซเรย์ (*X-ray*) because I think that Thai people are already

familiar with this word. ... Some of the medical terms, such as the name of germs or diseases, have no equivalent name in Thai so I usually transliterate them into Thai. (Interview)

Novel translator: I transliterated the technical term *Equus burchelli boehmi* into Thai as อีควัวส์ เบอ์เชลล์ โบเอห์มี. (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: Like this sentence, *Some mutants repaired their DNA more effectively than normal cells ...*, I transliterated the word *DNA* and *cells* into Thai as ดีเอ็นเอ (*DNA*) and เซลล์ (*cells*). (Think-aloud)

In terms of using a loan word plus an explanation, the participants pointed out that when the information provided in the source text contained either culturally specific concepts or unfamiliar technical terms that the target readers would probably not understand, they used the English word and added an explanation to explain the term. The translator of novels added that she often applied this strategy in translating novels when she wanted to clarify difficult terms or to help readers understand some terms more clearly, whereas the scientific-text translator stated that he not often applied this strategy because mostly the author of the article him/herself has already explained the meanings of unfamiliar words or new technical terms in the source text.

Novel Translator: Extra information can be added to the target text when the source text words are too difficult to understand, or when they do not contain enough details for readers to be able to understand them. ... For the word *Ollie*, I first transliterated it into Thai as ออลลี (*Ollie*), and then put the English word in parenthesis after this word. Then I added some description to explain the meaning of this word in the translated version as

อลลี (Ollie) เป็นท่าพื้นฐานในการเล่นสเก็ตบอร์ด โดยที่ทั้งตัวคนและสเก็ตบอร์ด

ลอยขึ้นไปบนอากาศพร้อมกัน (Ollie is a skateboard trick where the

rider and board leap into the air). This explanation will help

Thai readers understand the meaning of this word better.

(Interview)

Scientific-text translator: If required, I will put the necessary information in parentheses and ask the editor to decide if it is necessary to add such information to the target text. ..., but usually explanations for any word or new technical term that are thought to be unfamiliar for the target readers are provided in the source text already by the writer of the article. (Interview)

Novel translator: When I translated the sentence *Mr. Kumar said, "Allahu akbar."* into Thai, I first transliterated the words *Allahu akbar* into Thai as อัลลอฮ์อักบาร์ (*Allahu akbar*), then I added extraneous information องค์อัลเลาะห์ผู้ยิ่งใหญ่ (*Allah the Almighty*) to explain the meaning of this word in the translated version. (Think-aloud)

Paraphrasing.

The participants said that sometimes they used some description to explain the meanings of words in the source text that they could not find equivalent terms for in the target language. They applied this strategy for translating culturally specific concepts, figurative language, or technical terms in the source language that had no replacements in the target language. Furthermore, the translator of novels claimed that she preferred to use this strategy when translating English idioms into Thai because it might assist Thai readers in understanding how these idioms are used in the English language.

Novel Translator: Considering its meaning, the slang word *frenemy* should be paraphrased into Thai as เขา หรือ เธอ เป็นทั้งเพื่อนและศัตรูในคนเดียวกัน
(*He or she is both my friend and enemy.*). (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: If I can't find the suitable words in the target language for the words or expressions in the source text, I sometimes paraphrase them by using other words in the target language to explain the meanings of those words or expressions. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I used the Thai phrase นั่งรวมกลุ่ม (*sitting together in group*) to explain the meaning of the idiom *held court* in the sentence,
One afternoon, Little Bird and three other Laron men held court for an interview at the back of an appliance store in nearby Pias. (Think-aloud)

Using cultural substitution.

The participants stated that they sometimes replaced a culturally specific word or expression in the source language with a target language word or expression that describes a similar concept in the target language. They further explained that they typically adopted this strategy for translating culturally distinct concepts or figurative language that lacked equivalents in the target language. However, the scientific-text translator claimed that he rarely dealt with complex culture-specific concepts or complicated figurative language when translating scientific texts from English into Thai. Therefore, he seldom applied this strategy in translation. The participants added that the use of this strategy enabled the target readers to understand the intended meanings of the source language terms more clearly. In addition, it also gave the readers a familiar concept that they could identify with.

Novel translator: ... The other strategy I use to translate the idiom *out of the frying pan and into the fire* into Thai is using a Thai idiom that

has the same meaning such as *หนีเสือปะจระเข้* (*Run away from a tiger and into a crocodile*). The use of this strategy makes it more familiar to Thai readers and therefore easier to understand the meaning of this idiom. (Interview)

Novel translator: I translated the idiom *don't cross that bridge until you come to it* into Thai by using the Thai idiom *อย่าตื่นไปก่อนไข* (*Don't worry about something until it actually happens*) to help Thai readers better understand the meaning of this idiom. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: The strategy I typically use to translate English idiomatic expressions into Thai is to use Thai idiomatic expressions that have the same meaning as the English ones. ... For example, the exclamation of surprise *Holy cow!* cannot be literally translated into Thai as *วัวมหัศจรรย์* (*Miraculous cow*) or *วัวศักดิ์สิทธิ์* (*Holy cow*). It should be translated into Thai by substituting it with an exclamation of surprise use in Thai that has the same meaning such as *คุณพระช่วย* (*Oh my god!*). (Interview)

Using interpretative translation.

The participants explained that when they dealt with words, phrases, or sentences from the source text that were either difficult to understand or had multiple meanings, they firstly tried to identify the intended meaning of the original word, phrase, or sentence before selecting their replacements in the target language. The participants concluded that in order to cope with these problems, it was necessary to understand the main concepts of the message in the source text first before interpreting and translating them into Thai.

Novel translator: I translated the simile *It looks like she got a taste of her own medicine* into Thai as ดูราวกับว่าเธอกำลังได้รับผลกระทบจากการกระทำของเธอ (It looks like she is receiving an effect of her own doing.).

This simile cannot be literally translated into Thai. We have to understand the actual meaning of this simile before translating it into Thai. In this case, we have to interpret what this sentence means before translating it. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: The word *battery* in the expression *a battery of tests* cannot be directly translated into Thai as แบตเตอรี่ (battery). It is necessary to interpret what the exact meaning of this word before translating it into Thai. In this context, the word *battery* means *many*, so this expression should be translated into Thai as มีการตรวจสอบมากมาย (Having many tests.). (Interview)

Novel translator: Before I translated the sentence *He wasn't so demanding of the zebra* into Thai, I had to interpret the exact meaning of this sentence first. Considering its context, this sentence refers to Mr. Kumar putting the carrot into the zebra's mouth without holding it like the teacher did. (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: I interpreted what the clause *serious diseases that typically ravage humans as they age* in this sentence (... But it may also provide Little Bird with a waiver from serious diseases that typically ravage humans as they age.) meant. In this context, it refers to the serious diseases that typically afflict elderly people, so I translated this clause into Thai as โรคภัยที่มาพร้อมกับ

ความชรา (*serious diseases that typically occur when we are old*).

(Think-aloud)

Adding words or phrases in the translated text.

The participants stated that sometimes they added either words—such as classifiers, conjunctions, and transition signals—or other kinds of words or even phrases to the target text in order to make it read more smoothly in Thai or for stylistic reasons.

Novel translator: I add words or phrases in the translated version to make it read more naturally or more smoothly. I sometimes do this so that the readers could understand the character's feelings or emotions more clearly. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: For example, in the sentence *Other anti-inflammatory medicines (NSAIDs) block both COX-1 and COX-2*, I put the word เอ็นไซม์ (*enzyme*) in parenthesis before the technical terms COX-1 and COX-2 for the editorial team to consider whether it should be added to the translated version. (Interview)

Novel translator: For example, in this paragraph, *We came to the zebras. Mr. Kumar had never heard of such creatures, let alone seen one. He was dumbfounded.* I added the word เดิน (*walk*) and the word กรง (*cage*) in translating the first sentence to make it read more naturally in Thai as พวกเราเดินมาถึงกรงม้าลาย (*We walked and came to the zebra cage.*). I also added the phrase แม้แต่ชื่อของพวกเขา (*even their name*) in the second sentence, so it was translated as อย่างว่าจะเคยเห็นเลย แม้แต่ชื่อของพวกเขา มัน เขาก็ยังไม่เคยได้ยินมาก่อนเลย (*Not only had he never seen them, even their name, he had never*

heard of it before.). As for the last sentence, I translated it as *เขางงจนอ้าปากค้างเลยทีเดียว (He felt so surprised that his jaw dropped.).* You see, the phrase *จนอ้าปากค้างเลยทีเดียว (... that his jaw dropped)* was added to modify the adjective *dumbfounded* so that the readers could understand the character's feelings more clearly. These additions did not change the meaning of the source text, but they provided the readers with a clearer picture how this character felt. (Think-aloud)

Omitting words or phrases in the source text.

The novel translator said that she sometimes omitted words or phrases in the source text that were either unimportant, redundant, or repetitious. Additionally, the scientific-text translator explained that he normally translated every word, phrase, and sentence, but due to the limitations of space in the magazine, he sometimes omitted words, phrases, or sentences that he considered unimportant to the main concepts of the article. The participants emphasized that the omission should not affect the overall meaning of the source text.

Novel translator: Sometimes I delete words or phrases in the source text that do not convey an important meaning or are redundant or repetitious in the translated version. But the deletions should not result in the loss of any important details. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: The words, phrases, and sentences in the original text can be omitted if they are determined to be unnecessary in the target language. (Interview)

Novel translator: I translated the sentence *The zebra's thick, strong, black lips grasped the carrot eagerly,* into Thai as *ม้าลายรีบใช้ริมฝีปากหนาสีดำจับแครอทไว้ทันที (The zebra used its thick and black lips to grasp*

the carrot immediately.). I didn't translate the adjective *strong* into Thai because I think that it was not an important detail. If I translate this sentence into Thai as ม้าลายรีบใช้ริมฝีปากหนา แข็งแรง สีดำ จับแครอทไว้ทันที (*The zebra used it thick, strong, and black lips to grasp the carrot immediately.*), it will make this sentence read unnaturally in Thai. (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: For example, in this sentence, *Robles lives with her teenage daughter, Samantha, in a cinder-block, metal- roofed home perched on a hillside in Pinas.* A description of the Robles' house *in a cinder-block, metal-roofed home perched on a hillside*, can be deleted in the translated version if there is not enough space. The readers still understand the content in its entirety even though some phrases have been deleted. (Think-aloud)

Rearranging the order of words, phrases, or sentences in the target text.

The participants explained that due to the fundamental differences between English and Thai grammatical structures, it was sometimes necessary to change the form of a sentence or to adjust any part of the translation to suit Thai grammatical structures. They added that such an adjustment also enhances the naturalness of the translated version. They emphasized that the alteration should still retain the entire idea of the original text without losing any of the important meaning.

Novel translator: I mostly try to follow the grammatical structure of the original text, but as we know, English and Thai use different grammatical structures, so sometimes I have to adjust or rearrange order of the words, phrases, or sentences in the

source text to make them conform to the Thai grammatical structures. But such an adjustment must not change the meaning in the source text. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: As everyone knows, following the word order of the source text cannot always be achieved in an English to Thai translation. Sometimes, we have to rearrange the word order in a sentence to make the target text more natural or to better suit Thai syntax. (Interview)

Novel translator: I didn't translate the sentence *Have they been painted with a brush?* into Thai as พวกมันถูกทาสีด้วยแปรงหรือ (*Have they been painted with a brush?*) because it sounds awkward in Thai. So I changed it into an active Thai sentence and rearranged the order of words in the sentence so that it was both grammatically correct and more naturally in the target Thai language. I ended up translating this sentence into Thai as ใครเอสีไประบายพวกมันหรือ (*Who painted them (the zebras)?*). (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: When translating the sentence “*We are laughing,*” explained Sanchez, “*because we know we are immune to cancer and diabetes*” into Thai, I combined the clauses *We are laughing* and *because we know we are immune to cancer and diabetes* to make one sentence in the target text. I also deleted the pronoun *we* in these clauses, and then moved *explained Sanchez* to the end of the Thai sentence and switched its order to suit Thai syntax. So I translated this sentence into Thai as ที่หัวเราะนี้เพราะรู้

ว่า พวกเรามีภูมิคุ้มกันทานโรคมะเร็งและเบาหวานไม่ละครับ ชันเชซอธิบาย ((We are) laughing because (we) know that we are immune to cancer and diabetes, Sanchez explained.). Although the form had been changed, the main idea had not become distorted. In contrast, the alteration made the translated sentences read more naturally in Thai. (Think-aloud)

Translating passive sentences in English into passive sentences in Thai.

The novel translator pointed out that she would translate passive English sentences into passive Thai sentences when the original sentence conveyed a negative meaning or described an undesirable situation. She further explained that she normally changed passive sentences in English into passive sentences in Thai by adding the Thai verbs *ถูก* (to be affected) or *โดน* (to be affected) in front of the source text verb. In contrast, the scientific-text translator stated that the scientific articles he translates are usually written in the passive form; therefore, he typically used the passive form to translate passive sentences from English to Thai. He argued that, particularly in terms of the translation of scientific or medical texts, the passive form is presently used in a broader sense, which indicates either a positive or a negative meaning.

Novel translator: If a passive sentence in English has a negative meaning, I will translate it into a passive sentence in Thai by adding the Thai word *ถูก* (to be affected) or *โดน* (to be affected) before the source text verb. For example, the sentence *He was punished by his teacher last week* has a negative meaning; so I translated it into Thai as *เขาถูกครูลงโทษเมื่อสัปดาห์ก่อน* (*He was punished (by his teacher) last week.*). (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I usually translate passive English sentences into Thai by keeping their format as they were in the source text. I mean, I will not change a passive English sentence into an active Thai sentence because I think that with the influence of the English language on the Thai language, the use of the passive pattern has been accepted in Thailand now. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I translated the verbs *is forced* in the sentence *A herniated (slipped) disk occurs when all or part of a disk in the spine is forced through a weakened part of the disk*, into Thai as ถูกดัน (is forced). (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I translated the passive in the sentence *...was the subject of a famous photograph, shown at many scientific meetings, taken when he was a 15-month-old baby...*, into Thai as เขาเป็นผู้ที่อยู่ในภาพอันโด่งดังและถูกแสดงในงานประชุมทางวิทยาศาสตร์หลายครั้ง ภาพนี้ถูกถ่ายตอนเขาอายุได้ 4 ขวบ (He was the person in the famous photograph that was shown at many scientific meetings. This picture was taken when he was four years.) I still used the passive form in the Thai version. (Think-aloud)

Dividing one complex sentence into a few simple sentences.

The participants stated that sometimes they divided a long or complex sentence in the source text into a few simple sentences in the target text. They utilized this strategy in the case that the sentences in the source text were too long to be literally translated or too complicated to be understood. The participants added that the use of this strategy enabled the target readers to understand the ideas in the source text more easily.

Novel Translator: With English sentences that are too long or complicated, I sometimes divide them into a few simple sentences in the translated version. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I firstly try to follow the sentence format of the original text. If a sentence in the source text is too long or too complicated to understand, I will rearrange or divide it into a few simple sentences in the target text so that it becomes easier for the readers to get the idea. (Interview)

Novel Translator: I translated this long English sentence, *He marveled at everything, at how tall trees came tall giraffes, how carnivores were supplied with herbivores and herbivores with grass, how some creatures crowded the day and others the night, how some that needed sharp beaks had sharp beaks and others that needed limber limbs had limber limb*, into Thai by separating it into nine simple Thai sentences as This strategy will help Thai readers understand this sentence more easily. (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: I translated the sentence *Victor Rivera, twenty-three years old and about the same height as Salazar, was the subject of a famous photograph, shown at many scientific meetings, taken when he was a 15-month-old baby so small that the ear of corn he was holding was a little larger than his arm*, into Thai by separating it into four simple sentences as (Think-aloud)

Separating paragraphs.

The participants stated that they sometimes separated the information in one paragraph in the source text into two or three paragraphs in the target text when they encountered long paragraphs in the source text that contained many details. The participants further explained that they also rearranged the order of ideas in the original paragraph in order that it would be easier for the target readers to understand the concepts in the source text.

Novel translator: I sometimes separate one long paragraph in the source text into two or three paragraphs so that the target readers can understand the story more easily. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I mostly follow the paragraph order of the original text, but when a source text paragraph contains too many details, I separate it into two or three paragraphs so that the target readers can understand the concepts in the original text more easily. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I separated this paragraph ... into two paragraphs in the translated version because I think that doing so would make the translation read more easily and more naturally in the target Thai language. (Think-aloud)

Combining paragraphs.

The participants said that they sometimes combined two or more paragraphs that discussed one related idea in the source text into one paragraph in the target text. The participants further explained that the use of this strategy enabled the target readers to understand the content in the source language more easily.

Novel translator: I sometimes combine two or three paragraphs that are not too long together so that the readers can understand some concepts in the original text more easily. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I sometimes combine two or three paragraphs in the source text that share the same idea into one paragraph to help readers follow the information in the source text more easily. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I combined this paragraph... with the next paragraph to make one paragraph in the translated version. These two paragraphs discussed the same concept, which is a recessive mutation in a single gene, so I combined them together. (Think-aloud)

Different translation strategies used by the professional translators.

From the analysis, the participants used two different strategies in translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. These strategies were: (a) changing passive sentences in English into active sentences in Thai and (b) adding extra information in the target text.

Changing passive sentences in English into active sentences in Thai.

The novel translator said that she would change passive sentences in English into active sentences in Thai when the source text sentences conveyed positive or neutral meanings. She added that the use of this strategy made the translation works read more naturally in Thai. In contrast, the scientific-text translator reported that he rarely changed passive English sentences into active Thai sentences because he followed the style of scientific texts, in which the passive form is typically used.

Novel translator: I usually change passive English sentences into active Thai sentences when the original sentences had positive or neutral meanings. ... For example, I translated the sentence *This novel*

was released last week, into a Thai active sentence as นวนิยาย

เรื่องนี้ได้ออกวางจำหน่ายเมื่อสัปดาห์ที่แล้ว (*This novel released last*

week). I avoid using the passive form in the translated text

because it sounds unnatural. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I don't change passive sentences in English into active

sentences in Thai. (Interview)

Novel translator: I translated the sentence *They're called zebras*, into Thai by

changing it into an active Thai sentence ตัวนี้ เขาเรียกว่าม้าลายครับ

(*This (animal), we called (it) zebra.*) because it read more

naturally in the target Thai language. (Think-aloud)

Adding extra information to the translated text.

The participants claimed that they did not normally add extraneous information to translated texts. However, the novel translator stated that she sometimes added extra information to help readers better understand some terms in the original text. She further explained that the additional information could be put in the target text in three ways: (a) within the text if the addition was not too long, (b) in the form of notes at the bottom of the page, and (c) in the form of notes in the glossary. In contrast, the scientific-text translator explained that the meanings of unfamiliar words or new terminology have already provided in the source text by the author of the article; therefore, it was unnecessary to add extra explanations to the translated text.

Novel Translator: Extra information can be added to a translated novel in three ways: within the text if it is not too long, at the bottom of the page, or in the glossary. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: In general, the meanings of difficult words or new technical terms are usually explained in the original articles, so I don't need to add any more details. (Interview)

Novel translator: In this case, I added the extra information องค์อัลเลาะห์ผู้ยิ่งใหญ่ (Allah the Almighty) after the transliterated word อัลลอฮ์อักบาร์ (Allahu akbar) in the translated text. (Think-aloud)

The Translation Problems Encountered by the Professional Translators of Novels and Scientific Texts

The data on Research Questions 2 and 5 were analyzed in combination to answer Research Question 7 in terms of the similarities and differences between the translation problems encountered by the professional translators. The findings showed that the participants experienced both similar and different problems in translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai.

Similar translation problems experienced by the professional translators.

Based on the analysis, the findings revealed that the participants typically faced two problems in translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. They were: (a) unfamiliar words and expressions and (b) ambiguous words or sentences.

Unfamiliar words and expressions.

Despite the fact that they were experienced translators, the participants admitted that they occasionally faced the problem of unknown words or expressions in the source text. They added that they sometimes encountered unfamiliar terms whose meaning they could not locate in dictionaries.

Novel translator: I sometimes don't understand the meanings of unfamiliar words and expressions in the source text novels. ... I didn't know the

meanings of the words *bog snorkelling* and *omnishambles*. ... I didn't know what the slang *frenemy* meant. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: Sometimes there are words or expressions in the scientific articles that I have to translate that I don't know the meanings of. ... Sometimes I can't find the meanings of scientific and technical terms, particularly new terms. ... One term I could think of is *Annulus fibrosus*. I didn't know exactly what it meant because I couldn't find it in any dictionaries, so I used the generic term เยื่อหมอนรองกระดูก (*the tough circular exterior of the inter vertebral disc that surrounds the soft inner core, the nucleus pulposus*), which was a rough translation of the term to translate it into Thai. ... Sometimes, I can't find equivalent expressions in Thai to replace those in the English source text. (Interview)

Novel translator: I didn't know what the word *Equus burchelli boehmi* in this sentence meant. (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: I didn't know the meaning of the word *held court*. (Think-aloud)

Ambiguous words or sentences.

The participants explained that they were sometimes confronted with the problems of ambiguous words or sentences because the English words had multiple meanings, and some terms might have connotative meanings that could be interpreted in different ways. As a result, they misinterpreted or misunderstood the meanings of these terms.

Novel translator: Sometimes I translate words in the source text novel wrongly because I misunderstand the meanings of those words.

...Sometimes I don't understand the connotative meanings of words in the source text. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I sometimes misunderstand some words or sentences in the source text because I don't know that they have secondary or additional meanings or that they are idiomatic expressions. ... I sometimes mistranslate passive English sentences because I misunderstand the sentence structure. (Interview)

Different translation problems experienced by the professional translators.

The data analysis showed that the participants faced three different problems. They were: (a) culture-specific concepts, (b) technical terms, and (c) proper names.

Culture-specific concepts.

The novel translator explained that she sometimes faced the problem of culturally distinct words when translating novels from English into Thai. In contrast, the scientific-text translator stated that he hardly ever encountered culturally specific concepts in the articles that he translated; therefore he seldom experienced this problem.

Novel translator: I sometimes face the problem of culturally specific concepts that I have never heard before. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I have rarely come across concepts in an article that are not found in Thai culture. In some cases, the concepts or terms that I have to translate, even though they are not found in Thai culture, are not culturally specific, so they are not difficult for Thai readers to understand. (Interview)

Novel translator: I did not sure what this sentence means as it was a quote from the Holy Qur'an: *In all this there are messages indeed for a people who use their reason.* (Think-aloud)

Technical terms.

The novel translator stated that she seldom had problems with technical terms because they were typically rare in novels. In contrast, the scientific-text translator said that he frequently faced problems with scientific technical terms, particularly new terminologies that do not have equivalent terms in the Thai language. In some cases, he could locate Thai equivalent terms for these words, but they were not official coinages of the terms, a requirement set by his publisher.

Scientific-text translator: I sometimes can't find Thai equivalent terms for some English technical terms. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: There is no Thai equivalent coined for the technical term *Laron syndrome*. (Think-aloud)

Proper names.

The novel translator reported that she did not encounter with this problem in translating novels. However, the scientific-text translator said that he sometimes faced with the problem of how to accurately pronounce and transcribe English or other foreign proper names in the source text, particularly people's names, into Thai.

Scientific-text translator: Sometimes I have problems because I don't know the correct pronunciation of proper names I found in the original text, especially the names of people from countries that I'm not familiar with. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I'm not sure if I pronounced and transcribed names of people like *Meche Romero Robles* and *Guevara-Aguirre* into Thai accurately. (Think-aloud)

The Solution Strategies Used by the Professional Translators of Novels and Scientific Texts

The data on Research Questions 3 and 6 were analyzed in combination to answer Research Question 7 regarding the similarities and differences between the solution strategies used by the two professional translators. The findings revealed that the participants used both similar and different strategies to cope with problems that they encountered when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai.

Similar solution strategies used by the professional translators.

Based on the analysis, the findings revealed that the participants typically used four similar strategies to solve the problems that they experienced when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. These strategies included the following: (a) finding meanings of unknown words and expressions from dictionaries, (b) searching for essential information from credible sources, (c) interpreting the meanings of unfamiliar or ambiguous words, expressions, and sentences from the context, and (d) consulting with English and Thai specialists or native English speakers.

Finding meanings of unknown words and expressions from dictionaries.

The participants reported that they searched for the meanings of words in dictionaries to identify unknown words and expressions. They added that they used various dictionaries, both general and technical, to assist them in defining the words or expressions that they were unfamiliar with in the source text.

Novel translator: I usually find the meanings of unfamiliar words from dictionaries. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I also search for the meanings of unknown words and technical terms from both general and technical dictionaries. (Interview)

Novel translator: Mostly, the text that you gave me to translate did not contain many difficult words, but I also checked dictionaries to make absolutely sure about their meanings. (Think-aloud)

Searching for essential information from credible sources.

The participants said that sometimes they had to find more supportive data from various reliable sources such as textbooks, academic articles, and encyclopedias in order that they could understand some terms or topics in the source text more clearly. The scientific-text translator added that sometimes he had to read several texts in order to clearly understand some particular terms in the articles he was translating.

Novel translator: When translating novels with historical or cultural content, I read books and magazines related to the subject in order to better understand the content in the source text. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: Scientific text translation requires a high degree of precision, so I usually read several texts so that I completely understand the topic of the text that I am translating. (Interview)

Interpreting the meanings of unfamiliar or ambiguous words, expressions, and sentences from the context.

The participants explained that they solved the problem of unfamiliar words or sentences by analyzing their meanings from the context and considering the communicative situation that the sentences were embedded in. They typically applied this strategy to deal with words or expressions that they could not find definitions for, in either dictionaries or other sources. The participants added that they also utilized this strategy to resolve the problem of ambiguous words and sentences. They further explained that when they encountered such problems they would first interpret the meanings of the words, expressions,

or sentences in question and then literally translate them into simple words or expressions in Thai.

Novel translator: I cope with the problem of unknown words and expressions by interpreting and then guessing the meaning of those words from their context. ... With ambiguous words and sentences I consider the context and the situation that the words or sentences are embedded in. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: When I can't find an equivalent expression in Thai for the expression in the source text, I interpret its meaning and then literally translate it into Thai. ... I make interpretations and guess the meanings of ambiguous words and sentences from the context. (Interview)

Novel translator: I guessed the meaning of the expression *Salaam alaykum* from its context. (Think-aloud)

Scientific-text translator: I interpreted the meaning of the word *held court* by considering its context. (Think-aloud)

Consulting English and Thai specialists or native English speakers.

The participants revealed that sometimes they consulted both Thai and English speakers who were specialists in the relevant areas, about the most accurate translation of certain words, phrases, or sentences. However, the scientific-text translator stated that he would resort to this strategy only when he could not solve the problems by himself by using other solution strategies, and because he could solve a translation problem with the use of these strategies most of the time, he hardly ever had to consult an expert. Furthermore, the novel translator added that she also asked her friends, who were native English speakers, about the meanings of certain words or expressions.

Novel translator: I sometimes ask friends, who are native English speakers when I do not understand the meanings of particular words and expressions. I also ask specialists in certain fields to clarify any terms that I don't understand. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I also ask both English and Thai specialists and native English speakers about problem words, phrases, or sentences. Mostly I can solve such problems myself, so I don't often have to consult anyone. (Interview)

Different solution strategies used by the professional translators.

The data analysis showed that four strategies were adopted only by the scientific-text translator to solve the problems: (a) looking up the meanings of unknown words and expressions from the backgrounder, (b) surfing the Internet for unknown words and expressions, (c) making references to other translated works, and (d) coining new terms.

Looking up the meanings of unknown words and expressions in backgrounders.

The scientific-text translator explained that he always looked up the meanings of unknown words and expressions in the backgrounder, which is a list of words, technical terms, and expressions that always accompanies the article to be translated. The backgrounder is provided by the magazine that publishes the article, and is a useful guide to the article for the translator to understand unfamiliar terms in the source text. With regard to the translation of novels, the translator was not able to employ this strategy as backgrounders are only provided by the publishers of scientific articles.

Scientific-text translator: When I don't understand the meaning of words or expressions in the articles, I usually look up their meanings in the backgrounder that the publisher has given me. (Interview)

Surfing the Internet for unknown words and expressions.

The novel translator said that she seldom used the Internet to define unknown words. In contrast, the scientific-text translator said that he usually searched for the meanings of unknown words and technical terms on the Internet, especially the official dictionary of the Royal Institute. This is because his publisher requested that he only used words and terms that were officially coined by the Royal Institute. The scientific-text translator further explained that apart from using online dictionaries, he also used other types of websites that provided information concerning the meanings of words or the technical terms that he was looking for.

Novel translator: I don't rely on the Internet to find the meanings of words.
(Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I usually find the meanings of unknown words and technical terms on the Internet, particularly in the dictionary from the Royal Institute, because the publisher that I'm working with told me that I have to. ... If I could not find the meaning of the word I'm looking for from this website, I would search how those words or technical terms are used in other reliable websites. ... For example, when I translated the word *Annulus fibrosus* into Thai, I firstly searched for its meaning in the dictionary from the Royal Institute, but I couldn't find it. So I used search engines like Google or Wikipedia to find out how this word was translated into Thai by other specialists, on a number of other websites. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: I searched for the meanings of words and technical terms that I didn't know from online dictionaries. (Think-aloud)

Making references to other translated works.

The novel translator stated that she normally searched for the meanings of unknown words or expressions in dictionaries. She seldom read other translated novels to find out how other translators translated unfamiliar words or expressions. In contrast, the scientific-text translator said that he often read other people's translated works to find out how the technical terms for which he could not find definitions were translated into Thai by other professional translators.

Novel translator: I rarely read other translated works to learn how a word or expression was translated by other translators. I usually find the meanings of unknown words or expressions from dictionaries. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: Another strategy I often use to solve the problem of the lack of an official word in Thai is the use of existing resources from reliable websites. I search the Internet to see how the technical term that I can't find an equivalent term for is translated into Thai by other translators or even experts. (Interview)

Coining new terms.

When the novel translator encountered the problem of the lack of an equivalent word in Thai, she said that she had never coined a new word or expression in a translation. Instead, she would adopt other strategies to cope with the problem, such as retaining the English word in the translated text, transliterating, paraphrasing, or interpreting the meaning from the context. The scientific-text translator explained that he also used these strategies when he encountered English words which lacked equivalent terms in Thai. However, he further explained that in some cases these strategies could not be used because they could not

provide a suitable meaning for the words in the source text; therefore he had to coin new terms for them himself.

Novel translator: I have never coined new words to deal with absence of a corresponding word in Thai. There are still many strategies that I can use, like using the English word in the translation, transliterating it into Thai, paraphrasing, or interpreting its meaning from the context. (Interview)

Scientific-text translator: Sometimes, I coin new terms to solve the problem of new words that I can't find an equivalent word for in Thai. For example, I coined the Thai term เยื่อหมอนรองกระดูก (*the tough circular exterior of the inter vertebral disc that surrounds the soft inner core, the nucleus pulposus*) for the technical term *Annulus fibrosus*. ... I literally translated the name of the institute *The National Institute of Arthritis and Musculoskeletal and Skin Diseases*, into Thai as สถาบันโรคข้ออักเสบและระบบกระดูกกล้ามเนื้อและผิวหนังแห่งชาติ (*The National Institute of Diseases of the Bones, Joints, Muscles, and Skin*). In this case, I have created a new term for the name of this institute as no official term for it exists in Thai. (Interview)

Summary of the Chapter

The findings showed that the professional translators applied several strategies, both similar and different, when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. In terms of the similarities, the translators applies 13 strategies: using literal translation; using synonyms; using a loan word or a loan word plus an explanation; paraphrasing; using cultural

substitution; using interpretative translation; adding words or phrases to the translated text; omitting words or phrases from the source text; rearranging the order of words, phrases, or sentences in the source text; translating passive sentences in English into passive sentences in Thai; dividing one complex sentence into a number of simpler sentences; separating paragraphs; and combining paragraphs. In terms of the differences, the translators used two different strategies: changing passive sentences in English into active sentences in Thai and adding extra information to the target text. Additionally, the findings revealed that the translators encountered both similar and different problems when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. Regarding the similarities, they typically encountered two problems: the problem of unfamiliar words and expressions and the problem of ambiguous words and sentences. With respect to the differences, the novel translator was sometimes confronted with the problem of culturally specific concepts, whereas the scientific-text translator typically encountered problems when translating technical terms and proper names. Regarding strategies to solve the problems, the findings revealed that the translators used both similar and different strategies to cope with problems that they encountered. In terms of the similarities, four solution strategies they frequently used were: using dictionaries to define unknown words and expressions; searching for important information from credible sources; interpreting the meanings of unfamiliar or ambiguous words, expressions, and sentences from the context; and consulting with English and Thai specialists or native English speakers. Regarding the differences, four solution strategies were found to be used solely by the scientific-text translator: looking up the meanings of unknown words and expressions in the backgrounder, surfing the Internet for the definition of unknown words and expressions, making references to other translated works, and coining new terms.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

This chapter discusses the findings obtained from an analysis of the collected research data. The chapter is divided into four parts: (a) the discussion based on the data analysis, (b) an emerging question, (c) conclusion, and (d) recommendations for further studies. The data analysis identifies the strategies, problems, and solutions used by translators. The discussion was based on the findings provided by the participants, and a question emerged from the data analysis. The conclusion and recommendations for further studies were also derived from the data analysis.

Discussion

The results revealed a variety of strategies used by translators to achieve equivalence in translation. However, it is notable that the strategies used by the translators were rather similar, even though the texts differed in terms of the content and the writing styles. That is, a scientific text is more factual and informative, whereas a novel is more expressive and descriptive. For example, whether the text being translated was a novel or a scientific text, when the translators could not find equivalent words in the target language, they used loan words from the source text. In addition, they used synonyms when they were unable to find an exact equivalent in the target language, or when the equivalent word in the target language did not suit the context of the source text. Therefore, these strategies are generally employed in the translation process, regardless of the type of text.

In addition, it should be noted from the results of this study that a translator should be aware of which strategies are the most appropriate alternatives for a particular context or type of content. In terms of the content and context, a translator should use corresponding terms

in the target language when an equivalent is available. In the case that the original text contains a new term, which is defined in the paragraph but has no Thai equivalent, the translator only needs to use transliteration, without adding any additional information. In some cases, the original text may not define a new term, so the translator must add extra information to clarify it.

In other cases, a single strategy may be enough; however, in other instances the results revealed that the translator sometimes combined more than one strategy in order for the target readers to develop a better understanding of the terms in the source text. For example, transliteration alone is not enough for the target readers to understand the meaning of a term. In this instance, a translator should combine strategies, such as adding extraneous words and phrases, and providing more detailed information for particular cultural terms. For example, the term *Ollie*, which is a kind of skateboarding trick, is difficult to understand without a cultural reference point. Therefore, transliteration and cultural information should be added to help the reader to more clearly understand the terms.

Also, a translator should be aware of the target audience and their influence on a translator's choice of strategies. The target readers are an important factor in determining which strategies should be used. For instance, the scientific text translator explained that when translating technical terms for laypeople, he would transliterate the English terms into Thai, followed by the English words in parenthesis. However, when translating the same information for experts in the field, it was unnecessary to transliterate the original term.

Additionally, the background knowledge of the target audience on a particular topic also has an impact on the translation because it will inform a translator of how simple or complex the language should be in the target text. This implies that if the translator lacked information about the target audience it would be difficult to choose the most suitable strategies from the source text and achieve the intended function. Therefore, the results of

this study indicate that the target audience should be clearly identified so that the translator can select the most appropriate strategies.

One of the most interesting issues identified in this study was that while the results indicated that a translator should never add or omit content, they also revealed the necessity of modifying the text to include extraneous information. The findings revealed that these changes were made to avoid repetitious language and for the text to read more naturally and smoothly. This suggests that the main concern of any translation is to reproduce a counterpart in the target language which maintains the meaning and tone of the source text and sounds natural in the target language.

On the other hand, the scientific text translator said that adding extra information was not permitted because of copyright issues. The results revealed that translators also need to follow the restrictions imposed on translation assignments, which have a direct influence on the choice of strategies available to a translator. Therefore, translators also need to follow the policies of their publishers, or establish the amount of leeway they are allowed by their publishers.

The results also revealed that in certain cases, some translation strategies were not applicable to particular languages, especially when they differed in terms of both language and culture. For example, English and Japanese, or Japanese and Thai have major structural and grammatical differences. Therefore, translators might need to add or omit some words to preserve the meaning.

One significant finding from this study was that the novel translator usually changed passive sentences in English into active sentences in Thai, because the active form is used in Thai to express emotional language. On the other hand, the scientific text translator usually retained the passive form in the Thai version because it is more characteristic of a scientific text. The passive form is more suitable for a scientific text because it is more factual and

related less to feelings and emotions than novels. Therefore, translators need to be aware of the significance of active or passive forms if they want to retain the original meaning of the text. The decision to use the active or passive form in the translated text should be at the discretion of the translator and whether or not it is suitable.

An Emerging Question

The results revealed that the professional translators could not identify a single translation strategy proposed by the experts that they actually used when translating novels and scientific texts from English to Thai. Instead, they relied on their own language skills and professional experience. They selected translation strategies at their discretion, applying those that they felt were the most appropriate or fitting for the task at hand. These translators could be described as more outcome-oriented, focusing on producing the most accurate translation of the source text message in the target language. They could also be described as problem-solving because they did not apply a general theory to the entire translation, but rather responded to problems in the text on a case-by-case basis. During the data analysis, a question emerged of whether or not translation theories are applicable to actual translation. Therefore, in order to be efficient translators the most important thing is a high level of proficiency in the target and source languages, as well as the ability to solve problems and rely on their personal knowledge and professional experience.

These two translators were far less concerned with the application of theoretical concepts suggested by experts in the field. However, they were not an exception to the rule. In practice, translation theories are generally ignored by translators, who prefer more expedient and practical methods. The novel translator in this study reported that she had no problems translating humorous or satirical writing because of her high level of English, background knowledge, and previous experience. However, this is not always the case, and other experienced translators have described the translation of humor and satire as

particularly problematic. Humor can be defined as something which amuses people, or that they find funny, such as a joke. Humor requires a high level of cultural understanding, because much of it is based on regional or national stereotypes, as well as wordplay, which requires a profound understanding of the language and the culture. Satire is a form of humor, but it is primarily a literary format, which uses a combination of exaggeration, irony, and sarcasm to criticize the vices of a particular group of people, society, or historical period. Satire requires an even more profound understanding of the source language and culture, so it can be even more difficult for translators to understand and effectively translate into the target language. Therefore, a very high level of both language proficiency and cultural knowledge are required for certain translation tasks.

Conclusion

This study aimed to investigate the strategies used by professionals to translate novels and scientific texts from English to Thai, to identify the problems that they encountered, the strategies that they used to solve those problems, and whether or not there were any similarities or differences between the strategies, problems, and solutions used. The participants were two professional translators. The first was a translator of novels, while the second was a translator of scientific texts. The instruments were interviews and observations with the participants. The data from the interviews and observations were then analyzed, and the consistency of the data obtained from the two instruments were examined.

It was found that the two translators used almost identical strategies and solutions to solve their translation problems. However, some differences, such as adding information, coining new terms, and switching from passive to active and vice versa, were found. The data indicate that several strategies should be applied in translating and solving the problems. The data also indicate that to overcome the gap between the source and target languages,

translators need a high level of proficiency in both. Furthermore, professional experience and cultural knowledge play an important role in the translation process.

Recommendations for Further Studies

Recommendations for further studies are presented as follows:

1. This study was conducted with only two professional translators. In further studies, a larger number of subjects should be asked to participate in order to ascertain the reliability of the present study.
2. The professional translators of other types of texts, such as songs, poems, textbooks, and business news, should be asked to participate in further studies to verify whether or not the results are comparable with those established by the professional translators in the present study.
3. Since this study concentrated exclusively on English to Thai translation, further studies should be focused on Thai to English translation in order to provide useful information for translators of Thai to English.
4. In comparison to the studies on literary texts, very little research has been conducted to investigate the strategies, problems, and solutions involved in the translation of non-literary texts. Additional studies should be conducted on the translation of other kinds of non-literary texts, such as medical reports, computer textbooks, and economic news.



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APPENDIX



INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Main Questions

1. What translation strategies do you use in translating a text into Thai?
2. What problems do you have in translating an English text into Thai?
3. When you encounter the problems, how do you solve them?

Follow-up questions include

1. What strategies do you use to translate titles, dialogues, and descriptions in novels?
2. What strategies do you use to translate titles of scientific texts?
3. What strategies do you use when you encounter anything related to culture?
4. What strategies do you use when you encounter English idioms?
5. What strategies do you use when translating English metaphor?
6. What strategies do you use when translating slang from English into Thai?
7. What strategies do you use when translating simile from English into Thai?
8. What strategies do you use when translating English pronouns into Thai?
9. What strategies do you use to translate English technical terms into Thai?
10. What strategies do you use to translate new English terminologies into Thai?
11. How do you deal with English words that have more than one meaning or have multiple interpretations?
12. What strategies do you use to deal with English passive sentences?
13. When you encounter English complex sentences, what do you do?



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