

Examining Cultural Words Translation in Tourism Texts: A Systematic Review

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Abstract—The steady growth of tourism is increasing the demand for tourism translation. Cultural words (CWs) translation is challenging since they are absent from target cultures. This systematic review examines studies on CWs translation in tourism texts to comprehend the literature and explore future research tendencies. Following the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses, researchers did a comprehensive literature review. Twenty-one articles met the inclusion criteria after the protocol-required data selection and screening. The findings reveal that scholars are increasingly concerned with CWs translation in tourism texts. Moreover, all the included articles used varied theories. Most of them focused on applying various taxonomies of translation strategies to compensate for the losses of cultural connotations in cultural words' rendition. Besides, other researchers focused on CWs translation from different perspectives, such as translation quality assessment, Eco-translatology, meaning equivalence, cultural manipulation, and relevance theory.

Index Terms—cultural words, tourism texts, systematic literature review, cultural losses, translation strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

The tourism industry has grown significantly due to globalization, transportation advancements, and significant economic ranking (Wang, 2017). The prosperity of tourism has motivated a great need, massive increase, as well as zeal for tourism texts' translation (Tan et al., 2021). Translation of tourism-related words and phrases is referred to as tourism texts' translation (Liang, 2021). It is also a cross-regional, cross-cultural, and cross-language communicative practice. The transmission, interchange, recognition, and appreciation of aesthetics and morals of the nation's culture are now the main components of tourist translation rather than only language conversion. Tourism translation has piqued the interest of both translators and visitors, and tourism translation research has made significant advancements.

Despite these advancements in translation, the translation of tourism texts' still faces challenges. One of the most complicated aspects is translating cultural words (Rezaei & Kuhl, 2014) since these words may be absent in specific target cultures, which poses significant difficulties for translators. Cultural words (CWs) refer to certain expressions whose meanings are difficult to translate since CWs have no equivalents or counterparts in the target audience's cultural system (Pratama et al., 2021). CWs translation in tourism texts has aroused the interest of researchers such as Narváez and Zambrana (2014), Wang (2017), and Turzynski-Azimi (2021). This trend is supported by the possibility that these CWs can reflect the patterns and values of a specific culture. CW is a significant factor when dealing with difficulties in cross-cultural translation.

These words and expressions in the source language constitute cultural gaps in the target language, and the uniqueness of CWs creates problems for interpreters during translation (Mraček, 2018). Various research examined CWs translation in tourism texts to address these issues and to compensate for the cultural losses, for instance, Rezaei and Kuhl (2014), Ajtony (2016), Zheng (2021), and Charlston (2022). However, for the target readers' reference, the intricate and inaccurate translation may confuse potential tourists (Woodward-Smith, 2019). According to Chapman et al. (2020), although CWs translation taxonomies have been established, several overlapped categories could lead to some uncertainty. This view is consistent with Peñá's (2007) argument that to protect against validity hazards, the establishment of linguistic equivalence through translation procedures is frequently insufficient. Since translating into

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other languages, aspects such as functional equivalence and cultural equivalent must also be considered. These aspects put the translators and academicians in hot water when determining the procedures for translating CWs.

Consequently, it is necessary to clarify how these translation studies have dealt with the CWs in tourism texts and minimized the cultural connotations losses. Few papers have covered CWs translation in tourism texts. For example, what are the general trends of CWs translation in tourism texts? What are the cores of these studies? What kinds of taxonomies have been adopted in this field of study? What theories have been applied? Besides, since the CWs are complex and belong to a specific culture, translators must do their best to minimize the losses of cultural connotations and how they treat CWs that deviate from equivalents in connotative meaning. Therefore, we believe a detailed mastery of CWs translation in tourism texts is required.

This comprehensive literature review aims to understand the status of the study on CWs translation in tourism texts and the potential for further investigation in this area. The objectives of this research are as follows: 1) to investigate the general trends of CWs translation in tourist texts; 2) to evaluate the cores and theories utilized in earlier research on CWs translation in tourism texts; and 3) to explore the compensation strategies for the losses of cultural connotations in CWs translation in tourism texts.

II. METHODOLOGY

Following the guidelines established by PRISMA, a comprehensive search of the relevant literature was done for this investigation (Page et al., 2021).

A. Databases

Since bibliometric indicators and publication metadata are now the primary sources used for both research evaluation and research, the significance of bibliographic databases has substantially expanded (Martín-Martín et al., 2018). This research obtained data from Scopus as their primary database to thoroughly analyze how CWs are rendered in tourism texts. With a global and regional focus on social scientific publications, Scopus is one of the largest abstract and citation databases available (Singh et al., 2021). In addition to Scopus, there are two other databases: WoS (Web of Science) and Google Scholar since, in comparison to other databases, WoS and Google Scholar are the largest and most comprehensive sources of publication metadata and impact indicators (Chertow et al., 2021). For more in-depth multidisciplinary comparisons, all three databases offer enough coverage robustness.

B. Data Eligibility Criteria

The selection and screening criteria for the data, including which data would be included and which would be excluded, were supported by a protocol designed beforehand. In this study, the final papers or articles that were published between 2010 and August 15, 2022, are reviewed. Therefore, earlier review articles, books, and theses were not included. The study falls under social science or the arts and humanities, especially CWs translation and tourism. As a result, literature from subjects such as masses consumer psychology, business including hotel accommodation, ticket ordering, literary works, and others was omitted. The included publications or papers should also be written in English. The non-English-language articles were removed. When records were screened, those without "cultural words" and "tourism translation" in the titles, abstracts, or keywords were disregarded since they had no relevance to the research. The whole articles were removed if they just dealt with cultural words translation or tourism translation or if they did not incorporate the two integrated features. Finally, all duplicate records were eliminated from each level of the screening process.

C. Data Search

According to Chertow et al. (2021), Scopus, WoS, and Google Scholar are neither comprehensive but instead complement each other. This review aims to investigate the CWs translation in tourism texts. "Culture-specific item" is a term that some scholars employ, for example, Aixela (1997) and Davies (2003), while some commonly use "cultural words" (Newmark, 1988) or "culture-bound phenomena/concepts" (Baker, 2017) or "realia" (Toro, 2021). In this present study, cultural words are parallel with the above synonyms. Therefore, the keywords for searching were "cultural words, cultural references, culture-specific items, cultureemes or realia" and "tourism, tourists, travel, scenic spots, sights, scenes, or landscapes." The authors conducted a more in-depth document search using the TITLE-ABS-KEY index, as followed in Figure 1. After receiving the search results, the researchers did a priority filter in the database system by protocol. The findings were stored as CSV Excel files containing the bibliography, abstract, affiliations, and keywords. WoS and Google Scholar were used in the second phase of the investigation. Even though their search engine differs from Scopus, they must still adhere to the eligibility standards; when the findings were presented, RIS files were generated from them and distributed for additional screening.

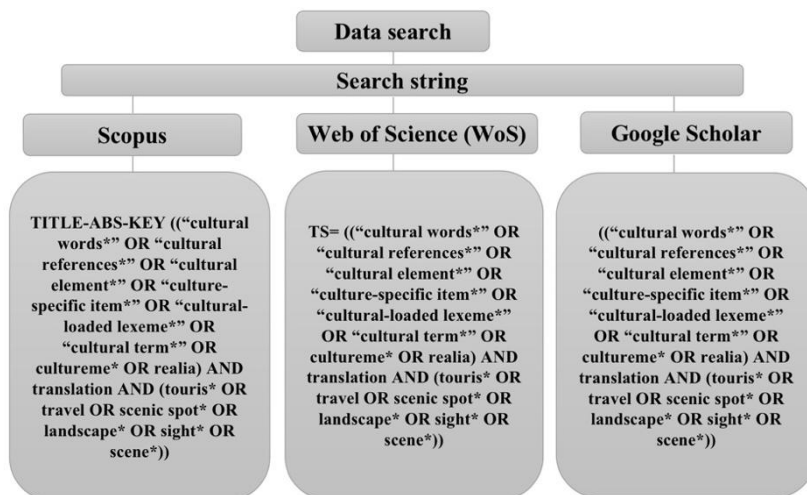


Figure 1. Search String Used in Databases Research

D. Data Screening and Extraction

All data were manually reviewed during the screening process to avoid employing an automated screening tool occurring unforeseen mistakes. In the first stage, two researchers went through each of the recovered records in Excel and RIS files manually using the titles, keywords, and abstracts from the records as their guidance. The papers had been retrieved from both Excel and RIS files. Articles that were ruled invalid will be flagged. When they finished screening, they reviewed their reasons for marking them and agreed on the outcomes. A third researcher would make the ultimate choice if they couldn't decide. Then, they looked for any records that were left over and retrieved the whole article. The researchers could get the complete text of the data using the subscription database. The screening criteria from step one must also be followed for the full reports. The final stage consisted of extracting the relevant information from the reports that were included to answer the research questions posed by this review. Data were retrieved initially by one researcher, who then had the data reviewed by another researcher to reduce the danger of bias in the current study.

E. Data Results of Data Extraction

Figure 2 illustrates the results of data screening and data collection. The authors obtained 411 records from three databases, Scopus (n = 223), Web of Science (WoS) (n = 108), and Google Scholar (n = 80). 117 records remain for screening after 234 records are eliminated during the duplication screening. Afterward, 62 records were disqualified because their TITLE-ABS-KEY did not adhere to the requirements, leaving 55 records that needed retrieval. The writers were able to obtain 46 complete articles to determine their eligibility. Consequently, 25 articles were disregarded due to irrelevant information, critical comments, and other factors. Additionally, this study contained 21 papers altogether. A rigorous content analysis was performed on all (21) full articles to fulfill the aims of this study. Afterward, a thorough examination and discussion of the study's findings are conducted.

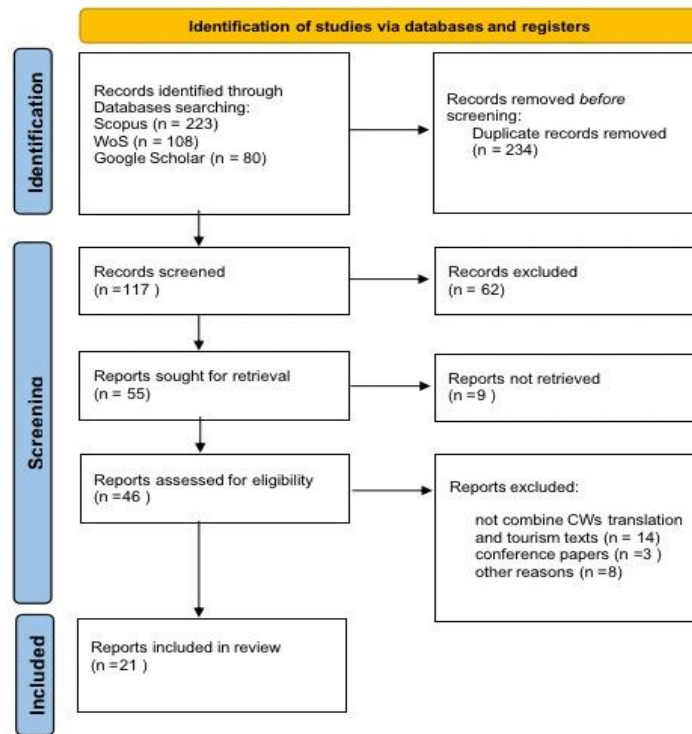


Figure 2 PRISMA Diagram of the Selected Studies (Page et al., 2021)

III. FINDINGS

The researchers discovered that the primary study emphasis of CWs translation studies in tourism texts published in the last 13 years was sorting out and synthesizing diverse debate topics and theoretical applications. The following are the specific outcomes.

A. General Trends of CWs Translation in Tourism Texts

Since Bassnett and Lefevere proposed the "Cultural Turn" in the 1990s (Liu, 2010), translation studies have increasingly evolved from linguistics and toward approaches to culture, society, and rights. As previously stated, academics have long been interested in translating CWs in tourism texts. A broad study of Figure 3 below shows continual growth in scholarly attention to the translation of CWs in tourism texts in the academic community during 2010-2014, with a matching increase in publications. However, research publications decreased somewhat in 2015 but steadily rose from 2016 to 2018, which also saw a rise and decline in quantity. CWs translation received more attention throughout the final period of publications on the topic (2019–2022) and increased to the peak in 2021. Quang et al. (2022) assert that the increase in the translation of CWs in tourism texts during this phase results from the coronavirus disease (COVID-19). According to their study, the epidemic stimulated consumers' desire to travel. When travel is impeded by contagious diseases, compensating consumption might favorably influence travel intentions. In conclusion, trend analysis shows that CWs translation in tourism texts has piqued the interest of scholars, and the overall number of articles has been continuously climbing.

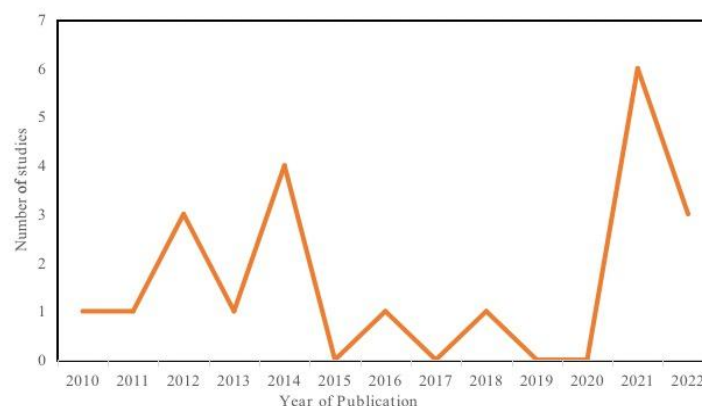


Figure 3 General Trends of CWs Translation in Tourism Texts

B. The Cores of Reviewed Studies

All translation study's theoretical underpinnings impact the general direction of translation and the approaches employed to address existing problems. Table 1 shows the cores in these studies.

TABLE 1
THE CORES OF REVIEW STUDIES

The cores of reviewed studies	21
Domestication and Foreignization (Venuti, 1995,2008)	9
Translation strategies	4
Eco-translatology (Hu,1991)	2
Translation quality assessment	2
Cognitive psychology	1
Cultural manipulation theory (Lefevere & Bassnett's 2001)	1
Meaning equivalence (Bell, 1991)	1
Relevance theory (Wilson & Sperber, 2004)	1

(a). Debate Over Venuti's (1995) Duality

Many translators struggle with maintaining culturally distinct aspects while ensuring maximum intelligibility in the CWs translation. Out of 21 articles, the researchers found that 61.9% (13) articles investigated dominant translation strategies in CWs translation in various tourism texts. And the widely utilized theory in 9 articles is Venuti's (1995) dichotomy of domestication and foreignization. Schleimacher initially proposed domestication and foreignization in 1963 and further refined by Venuti in 1995 (Birdwood-Hedger, 2007). Domestication is "a transparent, fluent, and invisible style to decrease the foreignness of the target language and lead the text to be familiar and recognized" (Munday, 2008, p. 144). Domesticating strategy, as a result, places a greater emphasis on aliens' capacity to grasp a particular meaning rather than an item, location, or person's description (Chung, 2021). On the contrary, Venuti (1995, p. 242) asserted that selecting foreign content and devising a translation strategy along lines that are disapproved by the language's mainstream cultural norms is known as "foreignization." In translation studies, domesticating and foreignizing approaches are frequently used, and each has benefits and drawbacks when translating CWs in tourism texts. The benefits of domesticating include retaining the text's brevity, ensuring that the reader comprehends the translated content, and piquing their attention. The translation's main flaw is the potential loss of the original's cultural and historical components. One of the benefits of foreignizing a language is that it allows one to transmit the traditions and practices of the language's native culture while also stressing the historical and cultural characteristics of the source language. Its downsides include ignoring the reader's comprehension and losing the purpose of luring tourists. The researchers reviewed the literature and found that many scholars have disputed Venuti's (1995) duality in CWs translation in tourist writings and concluded different findings. The results can be divided into three types: neutralization, single domestication or single foreignization, and a combination of domestication and foreignization.

1. Neutralization

In 2010, Sanning investigated the domesticating and foreignizing approaches in translating culture-bounded tourism texts from Chinese to English. The researcher proposed neutralizing, a new strategy. To satisfy the reader's needs and create correlative equivalents between the source language and the target language, it defines the process of continually altering the translator's comprehension of the content being rendered. There are three steps to neutralization. For translators, the first step is to adjust their conception of what constitutes a tourist text. The translator should also continuously assess the type of content being translated and any variances and commonalities between the source and target languages. The reader's needs must be met in the next phase. The translator should use a tourist-oriented method to grasp the reader's expectations and then strive to satisfy those demands. The final step is to produce various equivalents between the source language and the target language, including informational, conceptual, and aesthetical counterparts based on the features of the source language.

2. Single Domestication or Single Foreignization

Some theorists and academics believe foreignizing approaches cannot coexist in the exact text. According to Lefevere (1992), the domesticating and foreignizing translation processes are separate and cannot be employed in a single translation. In 2012, Mansor discussed how the Arabic travel writing of *Rihlat Ibn Battutah* was managed to turn into Malay. The review investigated how acceptable it is to translate cultural words like those for food and drink, clothing, and religious expressions. Acceptability demonstrates that the translation complies with cultural norms in the target language. The study was based on Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) translation strategies. The result suggested seven approaches of acceptability, such as standard borrowings, generalization, explicitation, nativized borrowings, borrowing with explicitation, functional equivalent through literal translation, and allocation of an established and well-known equivalent through literal translation. This concept is in the same vein as domestication. Likewise, Turzynski-Azimi (2021) investigated translation strategies utilized for CWs in Japanese tourism texts. The results suggested a higher tendency toward domesticating method in the CWs' renditions in Japanese tourism-related texts, which tended to

minimize the strangeness of the original language. The author adopted Nedergaard-Larsen's (1993) CWs classification, and CWs classification also influences which translation strategies are prioritized.

While other scholars, for example, AmirDabbaghian (2014), conducted a study to reduce the incomprehensibility and misleading in the English tourism translations of Iranian menus. Since Iranian culture is distinct, specialties can be found in Iranian cuisine. As a cuisine component, dish names are vital for transmitting culture and knowledge. The researcher concluded that foreignization is a primary tactic, and domestication is a secondary option. Rezaei and Kuhl (2014) examined the translation of two Iran travel guidebooks from Persian into English by *Oksana Beheshti* and *Amir Hassan Hakimian*. They investigated the strategies the translators used to translate CWs using Newmark's (1988) taxonomy and determine if the majority of these CWs have been domesticated or have been exposed to foreign cultures. The results revealed that the most common strategies utilized in translating these two guidebooks are transference and adding specific notes. In light of this, even though domesticating and foreignizing tactics have been employed, foreignization has been utilized the most frequently.

The contradiction in translation studies is between domesticating and foreignizing tactics, which cannot be combined in the exact translation. It's thought that the combination is impossible. Translating tourist literature entails further than only rendering the source language into the target language; its translation also involves interpreting the source language's exotic characteristics.

3. *Combination of Domestication and Foreignization*

The tourist texts cannot be entirely solved by either the domesticating or foreignizing strategy. Therefore, some scholars contributed to the combination of the two strategies. Zhang (2012) sought to investigate translations of tourism scenic spots' names in the Macau Historic Centre. The names of scenic spots tell stories about the historic sites and buildings they symbolize. The author summarized some site names were translated in the source orientation, while others were translated in the target orientation. Four possible reasons for the translations were explored: keeping western and Chinese religious cultures alive, local people's preference for names that are easy to remember, different cultures and ways of seeing things, and honoring history by keeping "non-equivalent names."

Fuadi (2016) investigated the interaction between CWs translation and Venuti's (1995) dichotomy in the cultural words' translation of an Indonesian tourism brochure. According to the findings, the translation process affects the strategies employed. Translations frequently use domestication strategies and take the target material into account when the cultural words are well-known. The translator adopts the domestication method to provide conversational translation while helping tourists grasp the message. Conversely, a translator will use a foreignization method and consider the original content while translating words from another culture. When employing the foreignization approach, the translator frequently introduces traditional cultural terms.

Zheng (2021) focused on CWs translation in Guangzhou's intangible cultural heritage and agreed that domestication and foreignization could be integrated to ensure the translation conveys the original language's cultural words and provides understandability in target language. The researcher suggested seven tentative strategies to achieve effective cultural communication and minimize losses, for example, literal translation, literal translation plus transliteration, literal translation plus explanation, transliteration plus explanation, transliteration plus category words, transliteration plus intra-text explanation, and transliteration plus free translation.

Chung (2021) examined the dispute around the translation of cultural building names in Hong Kong. The translation of 戏曲 (Pinyin: xiqu) is the case. Adapting Chinese opera into Western languages is an excellent illustration of domestication. While xiqu serves as an excellent illustration of the process of foreignization. To increase literacy rates in the recently established People's Republic of China, Hanyu Pinyin was formally adopted and promoted by the government in 1958. This system gained popularity after the People's Republic of China joined the United Nations in 1971, marking China's entry into the world political arena (Shang & Zhao, 2017).

The above 9 studies are conducted from Venuti's (1995, 2008) dichotomy to investigate the CWs translation tendency and bridge the cultural gaps between the source language and target language. The rest 4 studies adopted other theories: Terestyányi (2011) adopted Newmark's (1988) and Klaudy's (2003) taxonomies; Narváez and Zambrana (2014) used Kwieciński's methodology (2001); while Newmark (1988a), Aixelá (1996), Davies (2003), Olk (2013), Liang (2007, 2016), and Marco (2004, 2018), their translation strategies were utilized by Lin (2021). Arifin (2014) resorted to in-depth interviews and questionnaires to analyze the dominant translation strategies.

(b). *Hu's (2008, 2011) Eco-Translatology*

Only one of these theories used by the various research is a Chinese-proposed theory: Hu Gengshen's (2008, 2011) Eco-translatology. This theory leads translators to reflect on the remarkable awareness in focus toward an ecologically oriented translation. Hu Gengshen's (2008, 2011) underscores interpreter's selection and adaptation and their contexts across the linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions as they pertain to the rendering process evaluating CWs.

Geotourism is a sort of natural region tourism that leverages geology and landscapes to promote an area's geographical identity (Duarte et al., 2020). Based on eco-translatology, Liu and Meng (2018) investigated the English translation of CWs found in tourism-related texts and demonstrated the critical necessity of translators adopting translation strategies from the cultural, linguistic, and communicative dimensions. Similarly, Li et al. (2022) examined the three fundamental types of geotourism: geological features (GFs), geological processes (GPs), and cultural words

(CWs). They centered on their translation strategies from Chinese into English. They stated that language style variances, technical jargon, and cultural differences are obstacles to translation. Hu's (2011) Eco-translatology was analyzed and applied to reduce translation difficulties. Future translators working in geotourism translation will have access to these new theoretical guidelines as a resource.

(c). *Hu's (2008, 2011) Eco-Translatology*

Researchers have realized the quality of CWs translation may affect potential tourists' expectations and destination selection. Therefore, Pratama et al. (2021) and Wahidi et al. (2021) conducted a translation quality assessment in CWs translation of tourism texts. Pratama et al. (2021) selected Nababan's translation quality assessment theory (2012) to explore the accuracy of CWs translation and subdivided accuracy into accurate, less accurate, and inaccurate. The results revealed most of CWs translations are less accurate. Wahidi et al. (2021) resorted to questionnaires and in-depth interviews to analyze translation strategies and assess the accuracy level in the translation of CWs. They concluded accurate translations account for 89.26%.

(d). *Other Studies*

Translators face significant challenges in CWs translation. Some other studies try to explore these challenges from different perspectives. In 2012, Zhang adopted Lefevere's and Bassnett's (2002) cultural manipulation theory. In this article, the author summarized different manipulation strategies that can be used while translating Chinese tourism texts into English, including addition, omission, use of explanatory notes, and rewriting. But translators need to exercise caution while attempting to use them. Improper use of them could result in adding unnecessary information to the translation or omitting specific cultural characteristics in the source language, which would hinder cross-cultural conversation and contact.

Zhang et al. (2013) discussed the relationship between the CWs translation of tourism texts and relevance theory (Wilson & Sperber, 2004). This study concentrated on gloss translation, particularly transliteration with internal gloss, which is more helpful to arrive at an accurate "equivalent" in understanding the relevant content and disseminating the cultural identity. It covers the cognitive principle of relevance and the communicative principle of relevance and translation.

For their study, Jiang et al. (2022) focused on the English translation of Chinese CWs for intangible cultural assets from the perspective of cognitive psychology to determine how metonymy is used to convey meaning. This research argued that metonymy unifies the link between similar items in the source and target languages, making it a fundamental psychological driver and cognitive mechanism for translation strategies like substitution.

Rizalmi et al. (2022) attempted to identify the degree of Bell's (1991) meaning equivalence employed in translating CWs in tourism brochures. Literal and word-for-word translations were frequently used in translations. According to the findings of this study, the translator utilized more expressive words to translate the CWs from a source language into a target language. Fully, partially, and different meaning equivalence are the three levels of equivalence. The most frequent level of meaning equivalence is full equivalence.

C. *Compensating for the Cultural Losses*

Tourism text is highly significant in exhibiting to potential readers the gorgeous local scenery and excellent cultural attractions (Wu, 2018). In light of this, its translation can serve the same purpose for possible overseas readers. After reading the tourism translation, they will learn about the gorgeous sites and culture. "The more cultural (the more local, the more remote in time and space) a text, the less equivalent effect is conceivable unless the reader is imaginative, sensitive, and steeped in the SL culture" (Newmark, 2001, p. 49). Additionally, contrasting the source and target languages can disclose the cultural variances and voids that may make it challenging for international audiences to appreciate this culture-loaded content properly.

On the other hand, qualified translators can adapt their translation strategies to accommodate the elements of a wide variety of cultural variables. Because of this, they can accomplish the maximum degree of cultural interaction while simultaneously lowering the amount of loss. Reviewed studies have suggested that the cultural aspects of tourism texts should be considered and emphasized in CWs translation to compensate for cultural differences, cultural gaps, and cultural losses. As seen from Fig.2, 13 studies focused on the dominant translation strategies' taxonomies proposed by different scholars, which accounts for the most significant proportion (Sanning, 2010; Terestyányi, 2011; Mansor, 2012; Zhang, 2012; AmirDabbaghian, 2014; Arifin, 2014; Narváz & Zambrana, 2014; Rezaei & Kuhi, 2014; Fuadi, 2016; Chung, 2021; Lin, 2021; Turzynski-Azimi, 2021; Zheng, 2021). However, their studies are still not comprehensive since the cultural losses were not explored from an overall perspective. For example, what are the types of cultural losses in CWs translation in tourism texts, why are they deemed as losses, and how to overcome every kind of cultural losses in a practical way?

IV. DISCUSSION

This study focuses on the CWs translation in tourism texts, as seen in the data from Figure 1. The general trend of CWs translation in tourism texts has piqued the interest of scholars; there are increasingly more papers being published.

And the cores of these articles are various. Thirteen papers examined the translation strategies of CWs translation compensate for cultural losses. Sanning (2010) suggested a new approach, namely neutralizing, as the benchmark for the Chinese-to-English translation of tourist texts, which can encourage cultural interaction. It describes the act of continuously adjusting the translator's perception of what is being translated to meet the needs of the reader and produce corresponding equivalents. The author proposed the concept-based principle for CWs translation. Since the translations of Chinese tourist materials are replete with transliteration and Pinyin. Pinyin or transliteration, however, is not always sufficient for the English reader to understand tourist texts. If Pinyin were widely employed in translating Chinese tourist texts, essential historical and cultural elements would be lost.

Mansor (2012) investigated the concept of acceptability in the translation of CWs in its modern Malay translation *Pengembaraan Ibn Battutah*. Toury (1995, p.57) introduced the concept of "acceptability" in translation when discussing the norms of translation behavior. Acceptability in practice demonstrates that the translator complies with cultural norms in the target culture. This idea is also connected to domestication, which was put forth by Venuti in 1995. However, in his "initial norm," Toury (1995, p. 56) developed a fundamental standard for translation. The translator can decide whether to subject themselves to the target culture (acceptability) or the source text (adequacy) following this standard. The adequacy of Arabic-Malay translations of cultural words is neglected. Likewise, according to Turzynski-Azimi's (2021) study, there is a predominant tendency for domesticating method in the renditions of CWs in Japanese travel texts, which lessens the impact of unfamiliarity. The source culture may be weakened to some extent.

In 2014, however, AmirDabbaghian concluded that it is best to use the domestication as little as possible when translating menus. Since menus are meant to introduce readers to alien cultures, the translator should introduce the original culture to readers. The researcher asserted that foreignization is a primary tactic and domestication is a secondary option. This suggestion also supports Rezaei's and Kuhi's (2014) research. Considering this, both domesticating and foreignizing tactics have been employed, foreignization has been utilized the most frequently in the CWs translation, which contributes to the preservation of the source languages and cultures. However, foreignization may bring confusion to potential readers due to the non-equivalent of CWs translation.

We still have articles that combine domestication and foreignization. Such as Zhang Meifang (2012) asserted the names of scenic spots and their translations each have their own stories about the history of Macau, regardless of the translation methodologies used or whether the translation is source culture orientation or the target culture orientation. This assertion is in line with Fuadi (2016)'s, Chung's (2021), and Zheng's (2021) studies. They all support the combination of Venuti's (1995) domestication and foreignization.

Terestyńyi (2011) found geographical elements mentioned in CWs translation from Hungarian to English do not cause issues since nature is segmented similarly in the two languages. She used Newmark's (1988) transference and componential analysis and Klaudy's (2003) generalization, additions, circumlocations, and omission. The results indicated that transcription/transference, circumlocation, and addition are the most common translation procedures used in the tourism brochures of the Hungarian National Tourist Office. It defies Klaudy's (2003) judgment that circumlocation occurs when a culturally unique item serves an educational purpose or communicates cultural information. Since the primary purpose of these brochures is to pique potential tourists' interests, the author concluded that transcription/transference could be used to achieve the strangeness that draws us to our goals while we're traveling. A certain amount of meaning is unavoidably lost, but if there were extensive explanations or additions, the language's stream would be disrupted, and its primary purpose would be obscured.

On the other hand, Arifin (2014) proposed the problem of non-equivalence in CWs translation and analyzed that translators should use translation strategies to provide accurate, understandable translations. The study results indicate that translation strategies such as translation by cultural substitution, translation by loanword with explanation, and translation by loanword with definition are used to translate the CWs, concepts, and expressions. Similarly, it is discovered that the translator treats some terms with an explanation or definition rather than being translated. It implies that the translator wishes to expose foreign tourists to some native cultural words while preventing these local terms from becoming extinct. Similarly, Narváez and Zambrana (2014) adopted Kwieciński's methodology (2001) exoticisation, explanation, and assimilation to deal with CWs translation. They demonstrated pure exoticisation is the most frequent procedure. Their findings lead them to conclude that, rather than moving towards one pole or the other, exoticisation or assimilation, CWs translation techniques exhibit a general tendency towards merging each other, suggesting a balance between the informative and appellative functions of tourist materials. Finally, Lin (2021) identified a noticeable phenomenon in that, in cases where the TL (target language) culture is without an equivalent, a variety of approaches might be employed to fill the "lacuna" in the culture. Applying intercultural adaptation, modulation, a literal translation, or a functional equivalent is possible.

Other scholars, Pratama et al. (2021) and Wahidi et al. (2021) conducted translation quality assessments; however, the study of Wahidi et al. (2021) assessed the translation quality through interviews and questionnaires. In another two studies, Liu and Meng (2018) and Li et al. (2022) investigated Hu's Eco-translatology theory. They suggested that CW translation should involve "multi-dimensional adaptation and adaption selection" from the linguistic, cultural, and communicative dimensions, with the best translation being the one that integrates and adapts the most thoroughly. Finally, some studies explored CWs translation from different perspectives, such as Lefevere's and Bassnett's 2001

cultural manipulation theory (Zhang, 2012); Wilson and Sperber's (2004) relevance theory (Zhang et al., 2013); cognitive psychology (Jiang et al., 2022); Bell's (1991) meaning equivalence (Rizalmi et al., 2022).

V. LIMITATION

Finally, only about 21 publications best satisfy the requirements for literature screening in the field of research on the analysis of CWs translation in tourism texts, which remains a relatively tiny body of research. This suggests that the study of CWs translation in tourism texts has not yet piqued the interest of academics. Although these articles stress the translation of CWs in tourism texts, they always concentrate on examining translation tendency (domestication or foreignization) and dominant translation strategies, and many of them are still in the exploration and discovery stages. How the translation of CWs in tourism texts compensates for cultural losses and why there are losses have not yet been studied. Therefore, there is still much to learn about the study of CWs translation in tourism texts. Further research is required to identify the variables influencing cultural losses in CWs translation in tourism discourses.

However, the study's weaknesses must also be considered. Even though the researchers made every effort to assemble all pertinent papers for review, some papers may be neglected. Additionally, this systematic review only incorporated papers from three databases. Only articles published in English are considered for review; all other language-based publications are not included. It's important to note that there are still limitations in these areas of the study. These limitations can be overcome with further research that integrates data from a wide range of sources and languages.

The current study adds to the study of CWs translation in tourism texts by shedding light on the compensation for cultural gaps in renditions. In addition, this study provided a resource for future scholars interested in culture-related translation. The relationship between CWs translation and tourism texts has not received much attention in research, and many cultural losses have not been examined. Linguists could investigate the cultural losses of CWs translation in tourism discourses, such as the loss of religion, the loss of rhetorical strategies, etc. A comprehensive examination of the cultural losses of CWs translation in tourism discourses is another option for academics to consider.

VI. CONCLUSION

The authors reviewed the previous studies and systematically reviewed the CWs translation in tourism texts. They have thoroughly explored the general trends of CWs translation in tourism texts, the theoretical framework, and the cultural differences and losses in CWs translation of tourism texts. The results reveal that the CWs translation in tourism texts has driven scholars' enthusiasm, and the number of articles is generally increasing. Besides, several theoretical frameworks have been dissected in a range of tourism-related texts. The analysis of translation tendency towards domestication and foreignization is the most dominant. Additionally, researchers also investigated CWs translation from different perspectives. Furthermore, cultural differences and cultural losses are also considered.

The present study's findings also suggest that cultural gaps and differences are ubiquitous in the CWs' translation of tourism texts. In other words, cultural losses in tourist texts' translation are inevitable. It is essential to investigate the cultural losses in CWs' translation of tourism texts and how to minimize them to assist scholars in better grasping the CWs in cross-cultural communication.

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