



Strategies and Errors in Translating Tourism Brochures: the case of EFL Learners

Tahereh ZAHİRİ^{1,*}, Bahador SADEGHİ², Ataollah MALEKİ³

¹MA, Takestan branch, Islamic Azad University, Takestan, Iran

²Assistant Professor, Takestan branch, Islamic Azad University, Takestan, Iran

³Professor, Zanjan Medical University

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Abstract. Tourism English is a highly specialized discourse with its defining characteristics. In this study, the translation of travel brochures by Iranian EFL learners were studied. The study was carried out to reveal the nature of errors and strategies in Persian translations of English tourism brochures. The errors and strategies in translating travel brochures are under-researched in the tourism literature and similarly there is little discussion of tourism material in translation research. Thus, the current research was an attempt to fill a part of this gap. The participants of this research project were 20 sophomore students majoring in English Translation at Azad University. They were taking translation courses 1 and 2 respectively during the summer semester of 2014. The age of the participants ranged from 20 to 25 years and half of the participants were female learners. The results showed that translating travel brochures is just a lexical transfer but it encompasses cultural transfer where various strategies are used to translate travel brochures.

Keywords: Translating, Tourism, case of EFL Learners, Strategies

1. INTRODUCTION

The present study was carried out to reveal the nature of errors and strategies in Persian translations of English tourism brochures. To do so, it focused on an error analysis of translated tourism brochures. As Taylor (1975) points out, researchers are interested in errors because they are believed to contain valuable information about the strategies that people use to acquire language. In this paper it is argued that for translations of tourist brochures to enhance the tourist's experience, translations should not be literal but multidimensional i.e. culturally sensitive to their target audience and based on theories now available in translation studies. Thus, regardless of the accuracy of a translation, if the norms of the target community are overlooked it is a poor translation.

The translation of information that tourist destinations provide to their visitors is an important factor in effective tourism communication. The types of translation strategies and problems in the information of brochures, however, are under-researched in the tourism literature and there is little discussion of tourism material in translation research. The focus in the literature tends to be on the quality of translation in a literal sense. Crucially, tourism is a cultural experience (Bryce, MacLaren, & O'Gorman, 2013) and as such effective communication must be sensitive to cultural issues (Ryan & Gu, 2010). Within tourism research, there are few studies which address the errors and strategies in translating travel brochures. Thus, the current research is an attempt to fill a part of this gap.

2. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

*Corresponding author. *Email address: Tahereh Zahiri*

Translation is a difficult endeavor, especially when translating special pieces of text containing features not commonly found in other texts. A good example is travel brochures, which is the focus of this research proposal. The brochures contain certain linguistic features that may be overlooked, distorting the meaning of the text.

This study aimed at identifying the problem areas in in brochure translations. Translators are expected to comply with certain priorities and they also expect some tolerance on the part of the user of their product. In principle mistakes can be ignored if they do not impair the comprehension of the text and do not mislead the addressee. Thus a wrong translation may be tolerable if it clearly shows which meaning has been intended. If, however, the wrong translation changes the meaning completely, it is unacceptable. Obviously the translator must take into account several factors—lexical, grammatical, stylistic, idiomatic, etc. Thus, translation is a complex activity in which a number of factors need to be taken into consideration. The errors and strategies in translating travel brochures are under-researched in the tourism literature and similarly there is little discussion of tourism material in translation research. Thus, the current research was an attempt to fill a part of this gap.

3. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study was an attempt to provide answers to the following questions:

1. What is the translation strategies used in translating travel brochures from Persian to English?
2. What are the translation problems in translating travel brochures from Persian to English?

3.1. Significance of the study

The errors and strategies in translating travel brochures are under-researched in the tourism literature and similarly there is little discussion of tourism material in translation research. Thus, the current research was an attempt to fill a part of this gap. The findings of the study will be helpful in teaching translation and help those involved in brochure translation to avoid potential problems. The findings of the study are expected to help underpin the strategies used by EFL learners in translating brochures which, in turn, might be useful in teaching such strategies in EFL classes.

3.2. Theoretical background and concepts

In the globalization era, people tend to travel more and to discover new places and cultures. On the other hand, tourist destinations seek to attract more and more tourists. That is why tourist brochures play an important role in tourist and marketing industry and that is why there is a need to translate documents of tourist propaganda, such as tourist brochures. Thus, the present study is an attempt to underpin the nature of errors and strategies in English translations of Persian tourism brochures. In the following sections, the theory of translation will be discussed, translation of brochures with their specific features will be addressed, and a short review of the related literature will be presented.

3.3. Theory of translation

Translation is the process of facilitating communication between speakers of different languages. Translation implies understanding the source text based on the knowledge of the specific terms of the source and target language. This means that technical translators must have some familiarity with the subject matter they are translating (Cabré, 1999). Translation could be seen from two different viewpoints: translation as a process – the activity of translating and translation as a product—the activity of translating.

Translation refers to the relationship between source text (ST) and target text (TT). This intertextual relationship was formerly explored through the concept of equivalence. Although equivalence is an easily applied concept, it has been criticized widely among translation scholars for assuming symmetry between languages as if all translators need to do is to find the ‘right’ word (Wang, 2003). More recent translation research has considered translation as a process rather than a product. The process of translation is not to find the corresponding words in another language, but involves a series of decision making and consideration of the uses and users of the translations. This moves away from linguistic equivalence to the functional theory of translation, which advocates that a translation should be assessed in accordance with how appropriately it fulfills its intended function in the target context, rather than how faithfully it relays the source text meaning (Nord, 1991).

The Functional Theory of translation divides translation into two approaches: documentary where readers are aware that they are reading a translation and instrumental where readers may think that what they read was originally written in the target language. The form of translation mostly applied to tourism information is equifunctional translation in the instrumental approach, in which the TT maintains the function as the ST but not the form of the ST. The equifunctional approach is often adopted because the ST and the TT tourist texts usually share the same goal of attracting and informing tourists.

To achieve equifunctional translation, the translator needs to seek “equivalence” at the genre level, rather than at the linguistic level. For example, in the translation of tourism brochures, if the aim of a translation is to achieve the same function as the source text, when the translation is presented to the target readers they should easily recognize the text as a tourism brochure, based on their experience with other tourism brochures in their mother tongue. This means that the translator may have to remove some parts of the source text or to add some features which are typical of the genre in the target language.

3.4. Newmark’s Theory of Translation

Newmark (1988, p.81) makes a distinction between translation methods and translation procedures by stating that translation methods relate to whole texts while translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language. He has categorized methods of translation into the following types:

- *Word-for-word translation*: in which the source language word order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context.
- *Literal translation*: in which the source language grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context. Newmark (1988) argues that literal translation ranges from word for word translation to collocation to collocation, to clause to clause, and finally to sentence to sentence translation. Venuti (2000) encourages translators to be accurate as they are not legitimized to change words that have one-to-one translations only because they think other translations sound better than the

original. Thus, under many circumstances, literal translation is considered an appropriate strategy by which a given audience is given basic information about the travel and tourism.

- *Faithful translation*: it attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the target language grammatical structures.
- *Semantic translation*: which differs from faithful translation only in as far as it must take more account of the aesthetic value of the source language text.
- *Adaptation*: which is the freest form of translation, and is used mainly for plays and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the source language culture is converted to the target language culture and the text is rewritten. Hatim (2001) has described adaptation as the adjustment where strategies including addition, omission, and cultural substitution are used. These are used to enhance the acceptability of the target text in that it makes the intended meaning more easily comprehensible to the audience. Guidère (2006) has examined a large sample of advertisements translated into English, Spanish, Portuguese, and Arabic, observing that translators use adaptation for a number of certain functions. First, translators adapt the source language to accommodate cultural differences. Guidère (2006) suggests that translators should pay attention to the social and cultural aspects of the target market ranging from religion, to social habits, to rules of conduct, to ethical norms. The second function for which translators of advertisements, in general, and travel brochures, in particular, use adaptation in dealing with technical terms by substituting technical terms with easier words that make messages clearer and more understandable to the target audience. The third function of adaptation is that it enables translators to add words that add to the promotional value of the product. Undoubtedly, using this strategy provides translators with a certain degree of freedom by which they can apply their cultural knowledge and linguistic abilities using addition and omission.
- *Free translation*: it produces the target language text without the style, form, or content of the original. Omission is defined as dropping a word or words from the source language text in translation (Iacovoni, 2009) which can be the outcome of cultural clashes between the source text and the target text. Due to such clashes, the translator omits words that do not have equivalents in the target language or that may not seem natural to the target audience. According to Fraiwan (2007), omission is justified on the grounds that it is used to delete words that may hinder the acceptability of the target text to the target audience. Otherwise, omission is the result of translator's carelessness, lack of attention, and ignorance, which is not justifiable. Such carelessness or ignorance may lead to deleting necessary words that are essential to persuading the readers to choose the advertised tour. Translators may also make use of the strategy of addition allows the translator to add certain words that may help satisfy the target audience. According to Newmark (1988), translators may have to add additional information that can be cultural, technical or linguistic. Addition is utilized to serve purposes such as emphasizing a specific function of the tour, promoting a tour, highlighting the main effect of the advertised tour, helping customers identify the type of the tour they intend to choose, or for linguistic purposes.

Translators may add some information to emphasize the functions of the commodities and in the case of our study, the specific features of a tour. Additions for functional purposes serve to persuade customers to opt for a tour. Since functional additions serve a problem-solving role, the additions made assure customers that the advertised tour will help them meet their requirements.

Advertisements may also serve promotional functions which may help persuade customers to choose the advertised products or tours. The purpose of such additions is to show that the advertised tour is distinguished from other tours. This strategy is sometimes used to persuade customers that using the advertised product or choosing the advertised tour will give them an additional benefit along with its main function. Words may also be added to help the target

audience better identify the type of the tour they are looking for. In this way, addition helps customers to better find the tour that matches their needs.

- *Idiomatic translation*: it reproduces the message of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original.
- *Communicative translation*: it renders the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership (1988, pp. 45-47).

Newmark (1988) proposes the following translation procedures:

- *Transference*: it is the process of transferring an SL word to a TL text. It includes transliteration. Catford (1965) defines transliteration as a strategy in which the translator represents the sounds of the source language word using the target language writing system. This is what Stalls and Knight (1998) call phonetic translation. According to Shukri (2004), translators use transliteration as a last resort when they encounter items that have no target language counterparts. Therefore, it can be said that transliteration solves the problem of non-equivalence in the target language. Ran (2010) argues that transliteration is mostly used in translating brand names so that more consumers remember them and leave an unforgettable impression on them.

Pollard and Chan (2001) hold that the benefit of transliteration is that it makes the target reader closer to the original at least phonologically, helping the translator to avoid giving inadequate translations, especially for commercial names of products which are intended to be used as brand names that are circulated among a vast audience. Al-Shehari (2001) analyzed English advertisements and their Arabic translations and concluded that advertisements translated from English to Arabic are frequently translated using transliterating brand names. Investigating English TV advertisements and their Arabic translations, Fraiwan (2007) concluded that transliteration is frequent in all advertisements because they are all concerned with brands. Another strategy which is very similar to the strategy of transliteration is transference which more highly reflects the translator's faithfulness than transliteration because in transference the source text is transferred to the target text using the letters source language. Smith (2006) defines transference as untranslated retention of the original in that the transferred words in the source text are exactly copied to the target text. Transliteration and transference as two translation strategies may not always meet the expectations of a given audience, and since literal translation may not be appropriate to be used in an advertising text, translators may opt for the strategy of adaptation which is addressed in the following section.

- *Naturalization*: it adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL (Newmark, 1988, p.82)
- *Cultural equivalent*: it means replacing a cultural word in the SL with a TL one. however, they are not accurate (Newmark, 1988, p.83)
- *Functional equivalent*: it requires the use of a culture-neutral word. (Newmark, 1988, p.83)
- *Descriptive equivalent*: in this procedure the meaning of the culture-specific word is explained in several words (Newmark, 1988, p.83).
- *Componential analysis*: it means "comparing an SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components." (Newmark, 1988, p.114)
- *Synonymy*: it is a "near TL equivalent." Here economy trumps accuracy. (Newmark, 1988, p.84)

- *Through-translation*: it is the literal translation of common collocations, names of organizations and components of compounds. It can also be called: calque or loan translation. (Newmark, 1988, p.84)
- *Shifts or transpositions*: it involves a change in the grammar from SL to TL, for instance, (i) change from singular to plural, (ii) the change required when a specific SL structure does not exist in the TL, (iii) change of an SL verb to a TL word, change of an SL noun group to a TL noun and so forth. (Newmark, 1988, p.86)
- *Modulation*: it occurs when the translator reproduces the message of the original text in the TL text in conformity with the current norms of the TL, since the SL and the TL may appear dissimilar in terms of perspective. (Newmark, 1988, p.88)
- *Recognized translation*: it occurs when the translator normally uses the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term. (Newmark, 1988, p. 89)
- *Compensation*: it occurs when loss of meaning in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part. (Newmark, 1988, p.90)
- *Paraphrase*: in this procedure the meaning of the culture-specific word is explained. Here the explanation is much more detailed than that of *descriptive equivalent*. (Newmark, 1988, p.91)
- *Couplets*: it occurs when the translator combines two different procedures. (Newmark, 1988, p.91)
- *Notes*: notes are additional information in a translation. (Newmark, 1988, p.91)

3.5. Tourist brochures

Tourist brochure is a special kind of text containing many technical data used for advertising purposes. Tourist brochures have many features such as graphical design, pictures or different fonts. Texts in these documents are not continuous but rather separated into sentences or paragraphs placed variously in the page. Individual paragraphs or expressions can be followed by pictures, graphics, tables, etc. The graphical structure of booklets establishes the meaning of the text. That should be taken into account while translating. Translations of such texts differ from translations of coherent texts. Three main functions of text are distinguished. The main purpose of tourist brochure is to catch reader's attention, inform and attract. All these three aspects form the message of the text.

Travel brochures can be classified as communicative acts, a term proposed by van Leeuwen (2004) to replace speech act, which is limited to only spoken language. In the case of travel brochures, the communicative intent is to provide tourists with the essential information for helping them decide what places to visit and which tours to book. Therefore, successful travel brochures must be both informative and persuasive, and they rely heavily on the use of words and images to achieve this aim.

Holloway (2004) believes that it is the reliance on brochures as a principal marketing tool that distinguishes tourism from virtually any other form of business. Due to the intangible and heterogeneous nature of tourism products, travel brochures have a distinctive function in that they can act as a substitute for a product which cannot be physically seen or inspected prior to purchase (Holloway, 2004). To maximize their persuasive power, tourism brochures are found to be loaded with language and images.

Weightman (1987) believes that the language of travel brochures becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy as the tour brochure directs expectations, influences perceptions and thereby provides

a preconceived landscape for the tourist to discover. As consumers' cognition is likely to be influenced by the linguistic and visual means employed in travel brochures, it would be of interest not only to linguists but also to marketing professionals to investigate how the words and images contribute to the persuasive power of promotional materials.

Bühler (1990) attempted to show the extent to which tourism language is comparable to other languages by examining four principal properties: functions, structure, tense, and magic. Dann (2001) adds four additional characteristics of the language of tourism, which distinguish the language of tourism from other forms of communication: lack of sender identification, monologue, euphoria, tautology. These are equally important for the translator as for the writer of the tourism text. Language of tourism is language-like in its properties; it is structured, it follows certain grammar rules, it has a specialized vocabulary and a semantic content, it conveys messages and operates through a conventional system of symbols and codes; moreover, it adopts a special register (Dann, 2001).

Therefore, tourist brochures have to appeal to the tourists, firstly by form and pictures, and secondly by addressing the tourist in spotless English. The language should meet the criteria of accuracy and fluency, and be effective in terms of the communicative situation of a tourism text.

4. PREVIOUS STUDIES

Hogg, Liao, and O'Gorman (2014) argue that for translation to enhance the tourist experience literal accuracy is not enough and translations should be culturally sensitive to their target readers. Using the example of museum websites as a form of purposive tourism information designed to both inform and attract potential visitors, they analyzed websites of museums in the UK and China. They argue that no matter how accurate a translation may be, if the norms of the target tourist community have been ignored a translation may fail to achieve its purpose and may even have a detrimental effect on the tourism experience. By bringing together translation and tourism theory, they demonstrate when the cultural element of tourism is considered alongside the translation of texts, the need for linguistic accuracy is superseded by a requirement for cultural sensitivity.

Maasalmi (2013) examined the use of language in tourism marketing. Tourism English is a highly specialized discourse which has its own established practices and characteristics and, in this study, travel brochures from three English speaking areas were compared to discover whether there are differences in their language use despite sharing the same specialized discourse. The material for this study was gathered from a tourism corpus compiled at the University of Joensuu in 2004. The data in this study included a total of 101 travel brochures from the United States, Canada and the British Isles. A corpus software called WordSmith Tools was used to compile separate sub-corpora for words from the brochures of the different areas. The words in the sub-corpora were then manually examined to identify all adjectives in them and they were categorized using a semantic categorization by Downing and Locke (2002). To have a manageable database and to achieve more applicable results, some adjectives were omitted using two criteria. The adjectives had to appear in at least three different brochures in the sub-corpus with a total of at least ten instances. The final databases for each area included approximately 300-400 adjectives with the most common ones having several hundred instances in the corresponding sub-corpus. Despite having several semantic categories for the adjectives, the main focus of this study was on the ones having the biggest effect on making the brochures seem attractive and appealing to the reader. The results were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

The results of this study suggest that although these three different English speaking areas shared a highly specialized discourse, there were statistical differences in the way they used

adjectives in their tourism brochures. Quantitatively, the British travel brochures seemed to use a greater number of the adjectives which contributed most to the persuasion of the reader. The British brochures also have the most variability in these adjectives. The results also strengthen the idea from previous studies that cultural differences can have a clear effect on specialized discourse like Tourism English.

Kang and Yu (2011) examined the stylistic features of tourism English by focusing on authentic materials from British and American official tourism websites as well as a corpus called Tourism English Corpus and Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English used to make comparisons. The results showed that Tourism English Corpus had different stylistic features. The average word length in Tourism English Corpus was a little longer than that in Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English. Concerning lexical density, there was no significant difference between the two corpora. With regard to the distribution of content words, content words in Tourism English Corpus outnumbered those in Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English. Nouns were the most frequently used in both corpora and there were more nouns and adjectives but less verbs, proverbs, and pronouns in Tourism English Corpus. In addition, proper nouns, scenic nouns, nouns of direction, descriptive adjectives with positive meaning, general superlative adjectives, and verbs with the meaning of visiting and enjoying were more frequently used in Tourism English Corpus. Finally, the average sentence length in Tourism English Corpus was shorter than that in Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English. These differences point to the distinctive features of tourism English.

Cultural dimension in translation studies has recently received considerable attention. According to Chan (2004: 52), translation without regard to cultural aspects leads to distortion. Newmark (1988: 94-100) believes that differences between the source and target cultures result in problems in translation. These differences can show themselves a number of ways, including terms used in tourism brochures, which are limited to the source culture and have no equivalents in the target culture. Such concepts or terms, known as culture-specific concepts or culture-bound terms, are very problematic in translation.

4.1. Previous studies in Iran

Samadi, Shomoossi, and Eslami Rasekh (2011) conducted a study to identify strategies used by Iranian translators of legal texts. The problems of translating legal terms were found to fall into four categories. Analysis of the data revealed that legal translators in order to solve the problem of non-equivalence, resort to paraphrasing so that they can clarify the meaning of the legal terms for the target readers. In translation of legal terms which lack an established terminology in the Persian legal language, the strategies used was primarily cultural substitution indicating that the legal translator prefers to carry the legal effect to the target language to make the translation more natural. The data analyzed for the third problem, i.e. translation of dated and archaic-sounding terms showed that translators prefer the strategy of translation by a cultural substitution where the translator seeks to produce a legal effect on the target reader. For the fourth category, i.e. problems caused due to the use of common words with uncommon meanings, the dominant strategy was cultural substitution (73.68 %) showing that translators opt for the reader's understanding even if some part of meaning is lost in the translation. Overall, the highest frequency of strategies applied for the translation of legal terms was found to belong to the cultural substitution strategy.

Ahmadi and Ketabi (2011) conducted a study in order to examine the extent of translatability of color idiomatic expressions in English- Persian and Persian- English texts. The next purpose of the study was to explore the translation strategies used in translation of color idiomatic expressions. The third aim was to find cultural similarities and differences between color idiomatic expressions in English and Persian. 190 English and 90 Persian color idiomatic

expressions along with their equivalents were gathered from monolingual dictionaries and then their equivalents were detected from bilingual dictionaries. The analysis of data revealed that the following strategies were used in translating color idiomatic expressions: 1) using a non-idiomatic expression; 2) using an idiom of similar meaning and form; 3) using an idiom of similar meaning but dissimilar form; 4) literal translation; 5) paraphrasing and finally 6) loan translation. Moreover, the results of the study showed that an ideal translation strategy in translating an idiom by using another idiom in the target language is not always possible. On the other hand, literal translation without considering its restrictions may lead to an awkward and unnatural translation. The strategy of translating an idiom with a normal, non-idiomatic expression can be appropriate when there is no corresponding equivalent in the target language. The results also revealed many interesting cultural similarities and differences between color idiomatic expressions in English and Persian.

Bagherzadeh Kasmani and Rahmani (2012) analyzed translation errors made by Iranian EFL students. The subjects of this study were 30 undergraduate translation students, studying at Islamic Azad University, Sanandaj branch, and 30 undergraduate translation students studying at Islamic Azad University, Tonekabon branch. The subjects were asked to translate different predetermined Persian sentences into English. The researchers used Dulay, Burt, and Krashen's (1982) classifications model of error analysis for analyzing learners' errors. The results of this study indicated that interference from the learners' mother tongue was the core cause of errors confirming the major idea of strong version of contrastive analysis.

Sabzalipour (2012) made an attempt to identify and classify translation errors employing a class of 10 advanced level students. The study was carried out to see the frequency of errors in their translation from Persian into English and to identify the type of errors. Many subjects referred to their Persian- English dictionaries when they did their translation. Some of them actually translated word by word into English. Such phenomenon led them to come up with awkward expressions in their writings. They took for granted that whatever, written in the dictionary, was absolutely appropriate and correct. They also opted for direct translation. The study revealed that approximately 31% of errors of these subjects resulted from L1 transfer. Other major errors involved intra-lingual errors (68%).

Gorjian (2012) studied the translation of English proverbs into Persian by Iranian translators focusing on lexical, stylistic, cultural and rhetorical parameters. The main focus was on form, content and context. At the content and context levels, there found to be several shared properties between SL and TL equivalents which were connotatively motivated while at the formal level the lexical differences were found to be problematic. The study provided a model to facilitate the translation of English proverbs into Persian with the minimum loss in the connotative meaning of the source language proverbs. It also proposed a theoretical model concerned with weak, moderate and strong versions of conceptual translation equivalents, which may be applicable in the other domains of translation practices at linguistic and metalinguistic levels.

Sharififar (2007) investigated cultural differences between English and Persian which may be problematic in translating from English into Persian. The study aimed also to investigate the way cultural elements are dealt with in the selected corpora and to check whether the procedures proposed by Newmark, Vinay and Darbelnet and Mollanazar are sufficient and adequate for the translation of cultural elements from English into Persian. Two dramas, *A Streetcar named Desire* by T. Williams and *The Pilgrim's Progress* by J. Bunyan and one novel, *The Great Gatsby* by S. Fitzgerald and their corresponding translated Persian versions were analyzed. The study was narrowed down to only non-verbal, religious and social cultural elements, using Newmark's theory of translation (1998). The findings obtained from the textual analyses of the data showed that the transfer of social cultural elements was the least problematic and of non-verbal elements including acoustic and linguistic signs as well as religious elements were the most problematic

for the translators. The findings also indicated that there was no evidence to show a consistent effort on the part of translators to use any particular translation approach in the process of achieving adequate translations. The textual analyses of the translated works demonstrated that the translators of the dramas mostly adopted a communicative translation approach, while the translator of the novel used a semantic approach.

The findings showed that procedures suggested by Newmark, Vinay and Darbelnet and Mollanazar account well for the transfer of social elements. For nonverbal and religious elements, it was observed that Newmark's procedures were comprehensive and worked well nearly for all cultural elements included in the selected corpora Vinay and Darbelnet's and Mollanazar's procedures, however, were found to lack some elements which may be considered as their shortcomings. In brief, regardless of some inevitable differences between English and Persian cultures, the themes of the works were found to be adequately transferred into the target language, and the strategies used by the translators, in general, accounted for the transfer of cultural elements.

Akbari (2013) studied the translation of idioms from one language into another with the maximal success in conveying the same conceptualization, connotation and shades of meaning. The study reviewed a variety of idiom translation strategies introduced by leading figures in translation studies. As the study indicated, there are no ready-made, fixed strategies to be prescribed to translators in dealing with idioms and it is up to the translator himself or herself to draw upon the best strategies while translating idioms.

Shamsaefard, Falahati Qadimi Fumani, and Nemati (2013) examined four different Persian translations of Hamlet to find out the strategies used for translation of similes based on the strategy model proposed by Pierini (2007). The Persian translations selected were those by Beh Azin, Farzad, Pasargadi and Shahin. To collect the relevant data, the whole original text of Hamlet was read thoroughly and finally 85 examples of similes were extracted from it. Later, through comparing the English similes and their Persian equivalents, the type of strategy used for each simile was determined. The results indicated that from among the six strategies proposed by Pierini, all the translators had applied the first strategy, literal translation, much more than the other ones. Meanwhile, none of the translators had used reduction of the simile, if idiomatic, to its sense in their work. Further, very low application of retention of the same vehicle plus explicitation of similarity features and replacement of the vehicle with a gloss was reported in the four translations. The results also indicated that there were no statistically significant differences in the application of strategies in the four translations of Hamlet meaning that the four translators had used the strategies similarly.

Fahim and Mazaheri (2013) conducted a comparative study of strategies applied in translating culture-specific items of romance novels in the two periods in the history of Iran namely, before the Islamic Revolution of Iran (taking place in 1979) and after the Revolution that is 'Islamic republic government' vs. 'Pahlavi dynasty' in order to see how the sociocultural situations of the respective eras have affected the choice of strategies applied by Iranian translators. In order to achieve this objective, four masterpieces of English literature including 'Wuthering Heights', 'The Scarlet Letter', 'Pride and Prejudice' and 'Gone with the Wind' and their translations from before and after the Islamic Revolution were compared and contrasted. Extracting culture-specific items of the novels and applying Aixelá's model (1996) for eliciting translation strategies, the results then were put into numerical mode in order to explore the frequencies of translation strategies applied in each period. The results of data analysis revealed the most and least frequent strategies of each period, the significant difference between them and the predominance of conservative approach toward the translation of culture-specific items of romance novels in both periods with a more conservative tendency before the Revolution and more Substitution nature after the Revolution.

Ghaemi and Benyamin (2010) made an attempt to identify the interlingual strategies employed to translate English subtitles into Persian and to determine their frequency. The study, a corpus-based, comparative, descriptive, non-judgmental analysis of an English-Persian parallel corpus, comprised English audio scripts of five movies of different genres, with Persian subtitles. The study's theoretical framework was based on Gottlieb's (1992) classification of subtitling translation strategies. The results indicated that all Gottlieb's proposed strategies were applicable to the corpus with some degree of variation of distribution among different film genres. The most frequently used strategy was transfe (54.06%) and the least frequently used strategies were transcription and decimation (both 0.81%). It was concluded that the film genre played a crucial role in using different strategies.

4.2. Participants

The participants of this research project were 20 sophomore students majoring in English Translation at Azad University. They were taking translation courses 1 and 2 respectively during the summer semester of 2014. The sample was an opportunistic one for the reasons of logistics (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The age of the participants ranged from 20 to 25 years and half of the participants were female learners. All the participants spoke Farsi as their L1 and English as L2.

4.3. Instruments

The major materials used in the study were excerpts of brochures which are given to learners to be translated in the classroom during the teaching session. Each session, usually one English and one Farsi passage were used for translation.

4.4. Procedure

The research reported here was an attempt to understand the nature of classroom translation problems of Iranian EFL learners. For this purpose, three cohorts of English Translation students taking introductory and advanced translation courses participated in the study in order to identify the sources of their translation problems and offer solutions for the betterment of the situation. The texts used for translation in this thesis came from websites of popular travel agencies in the United States and the United Kingdom. The classroom translations of at least one English text into Farsi and vice versa were regular classroom practices during translation classes. They were asked to write their own translations. Each student produced his own version of translation for that text and these translations were collected at the end of each session for later analysis by the researchers.

5. RESULTS

5.1. Answering research question 1

In order to answer the first research question of this study, which was the investigation of the English translation strategies applied in tourism brochures from Persian to English, the students' translations were analyzed and the results were presented in Table 1.

Table 1. Frequency and percentage of the applied translation strategies.

No.	Strategy	Frequency of translation strategy	Percentage of translation strategy
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Strategies and Errors in Translating Tourism Brochures: the case of EFL Learners

1	Omission	20	18.86%
2	Addition	18	16.98%
3	Substitution	17	16.03%
4	Transference	15	14.15%
5	Adaptation	13	12.26%
6	Literal translation	12	11.32%
7	Couplet	10	9.43%
Total		106	100%

As it is obvious in the above table, the most frequent applied strategy among the learners was omission. That is, among the 106 strategy cases, 20 cases were recognized as omission. In that case, as learners had not enough knowledge about the unit of meaning in the target language, they omitted that unit from the source text and consequently the unit was completely taken out in target text. The example is:

❖ ما مفتخریم که به عنوان نماینده انحصاری فروش راه آهن اروپا در ایران، امکان خرید بلیط قطار را برای مسافریین فراهم نماییم.

❖ *We are pleased, as Rail Europe Sale in Iran, to make it possible for our passengers to buy their train tickets.*

In the above sentence, the learners totally ignored the word "نماینده انحصاری" from their source texts which could be translated into their target texts as "*General Sale Agency*" or the abbreviation form of "*GSA*".

The second frequent applied strategy was addition. Among the 106 strategy cases, 18 cases were recognized as addition. That is, the learners added a unit of meaning to their target texts which was not directly deduced from the source text. The example is:

❖ وقت طلاست بویژه هنگام تعطیلات.

❖ *Time is a valuable commodity when it is holiday time.*

In this case, the learners added the unit of meaning "valuable commodity" into their target texts which was not literally existed in the source text.

The third frequent strategy was substitution which was occurred in 17 cases. In these cases, learners changed the meaning of a target text unit. That is, although the target text was clearly a translation of the source text, the semantic meaning of the target text has changed. The example is:

❖ در این سفر، مشغله ها و در دسرهای زندگی روزمره کاملا فراموش میشوند.

❖ *In this journey, everyday life back home seems a million miles away.*

In the above sentence, the unit of meaning of "کاملا فراموش میشوند" can be literally translated into "*totally ignored*" while the students used and substituted the unit of meaning "*seems a million miles away*" in their target texts in order to have better translation.

Transference was the fourth frequent applied strategy among the learners which occurred in 15 cases. That is, the students considered the unit of meaning source text as the loan words and used it in their texts. In fact, the learners totally ignored the fact that only cultural objects should be transferred to the target texts. These cultural words includes the names of all famous live or dead people; geographical names of newly independent countries; names of periodicals and

newspapers; titles of works and films; names of private companies and institutions as well as nationalized institutions, street names, and addresses. The example is:

- ❖ در بازدید از آتشگاه شما میتوانید سوغات یزد را تهیه نمایید.
- ❖ *In visiting Atashgah, you can buy Yazd Souvenir.*

In this example, the learners ignored the above-mentioned rule and considered the word "آتشگاه" as the loan word and consequently transferred it to their target texts. Transference of this word in the target text was not informative enough so that the maxim of quantity was violated. In other words, applying such words do not allow the target readers to have a coherent interpretation of the text. Learners should use the word "fire temple" in order to have communicative text.

The fifth frequent strategy which was occurred in 13 cases in students' translation was adaptation. In these cases, as the unit of meaning of the source text did not exist in the target text due to some cultural differences, students recreated the effect of the source text in their target texts to fill this gap. In the other words, the students adapted the source text to their culture using paraphrasing. The example is:

- ❖ در بازدید از بازار میتوانید از تیمچه دیدن نمایید.
- ❖ You can visit Timcheh on bazaar. Timcheh is a small caravanserai and now a roofed area inside the bazaar.

In this sentence, the word "تیمچه" does not exist in the culture of target text and consequently the learners should make a short description about that unit of meaning to provide the target readers enough information.

The literal translation was the next frequent applied strategy. In this case, the learners applied word-to-word translation for the source text. That is, they ignored the coherent semantic meaning of the target texts and the fact that some units of meanings or words may have better equivalents in the target text and can be used to have the same effect on target text as that of source text and let their target texts to have a coherent interpretation. The example is:

- ❖ سفرهای دریایی نهایت آرامش اند.
- ❖ *Cruises are the extreme pleasure.*

In this sentence, students used an inappropriate unit of meaning for their translations. Instead, they should use "*Cruises are what you expect from pleasure*" because applying this sentence sounds natural and clear in the target language and let readers to communicate appropriately in the target language.

The last strategy which students applied in English translation of tourism brochures was couplet. In this kind of strategy, students combined two translation strategies in order to deal with a single unit of meaning. As it is seen in the below example, they joined omission and addition strategies together.

- ❖ به دلیل نرخ متفاوت هزینه های رومینگ در کشورهای مختلف، پیشنهاد میشود جهت دانستن نرخ دقیق مکالمات با شرکت مخابرات تماس بگیرید.
- ❖ *If you would like to use your mobile phone while on tour, please contact your mobile operator and check with them regarding the roaming charges.*

In this example, the students deleted one of the units of meaning of the source text and added the other unit into their target texts. More specifically, the source unit of meaning "به دلیل نرخ

"متفاوت هزینه های رومینگ در کشورهای مختلف" was deleted and meanwhile, the target units of meaning "if you would like to use your mobile phone while on tour" was added which did not exist in the source text.

Figure 1 graphically represents the most frequent applied strategy to less one more conspicuously.

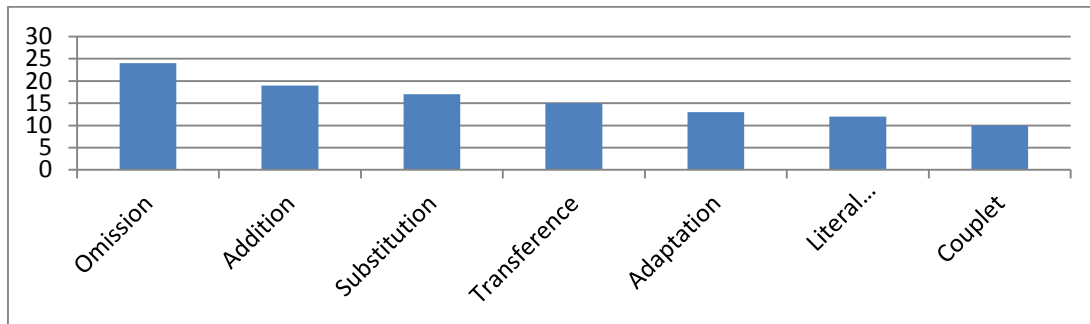


Figure 1. English translation strategy in translating tourism brochures

The following figure, also, indicates the percentages of applied English translation strategies more clearly.

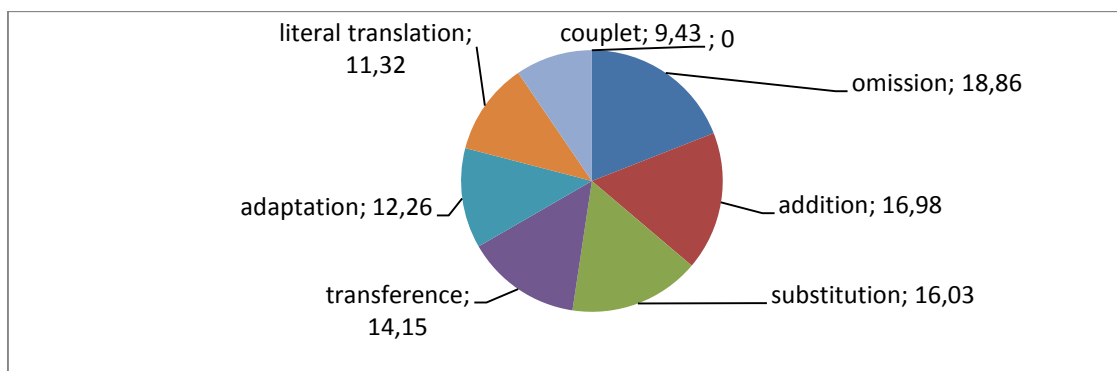


Figure 2. Percentage of applied English translation strategy

As it is obvious in the above table, from 106 applied strategies, 18.86 percent were recognized as omission strategy. 16.98% of these strategies were addition and 16.03 were substitution strategy. Transference and adaptation strategy were recognized as 14.14% and 12.16% respectively. 11.32 And 9.43 percent were recognized as couplet strategies respectively.

6. DISCUSSION

Based on the above results, omission, addition, substitution, transference, adaptation, literal translation and couplet were identified as the frequent applied translation strategies among learners in translating tourism brochures. From 106 cases of translation strategies, 20 cases (18.86%) were recognized as omission strategy, 18 cases (16.98%) as addition strategy, 17 cases (16.03%) as substitution strategy, 15 cases (14.15%) as transference, 13 cases (12.26%) as adaptation, 12 cases (11.32%) as literal translation and 10 cases (9.43%) as couplet. From these cases, 11.32% strategies were inappropriate literal translation which could have negative effects on the process of cross-cultural communication on the tourist brochures.

Considering the above findings, it is clear that ignoring the deserved attention of the cultural issues in tourist brochures can cause miscommunication and consequently inadequacy to attract tourist.

6.1. Answering research question 2

In order to answer the second research question of this study, which was the students' translation problems or errors in translating travel brochures from Persian to English, the students' problems were analyzed and the results were presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Frequency and percentage of students' error in translating tourism brochures.

No.	Students' error	Frequency	Percentage
1	Syntactic Errors	15	16.85
2	Semantic Errors	65	73.03
3	Pragmatic Errors	9	10.11
Total		89	100

As it is obvious in the above table, students' problem in translating tourism brochures can be classified into three main types including syntactic errors, semantic errors and pragmatic errors.

In addition, the results of Table 2 indicate that syntactic errors occurred in 15 cases (16.85%), semantic errors occurred in 65 cases (73.03%) and pragmatic errors occurred in 9 cases (10.11%). The following figures present the frequency and percentages details of each type of errors more clearly.

Table 3. Frequency and percentage of students' syntactic errors.

No.	Syntactic Errors	Frequency	percentage
1	Grammar	4	26.66%
2	Syntax	8	53.33%
3	Punctuation	3	20%
Total		15	100

As it can be seen in the above table, the students' syntactic errors contain grammar, syntactic and punctuation errors. From the total 15 syntactic errors, 4 cases were recognized as grammar errors, 8 cases as syntax errors and 3 cases as punctuation errors. The following figure illustrates the percentage of each type of error.

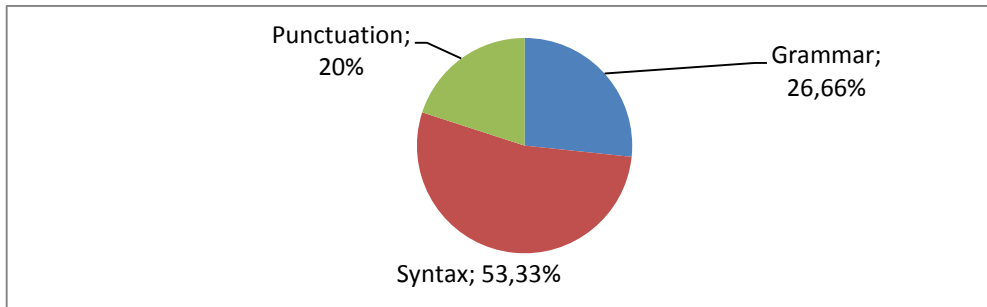


Figure 3. Percentages of students' syntactic errors.

Figure 3 indicates that more than half of syntactic errors were syntax errors (53.33%). Moreover, grammar and punctuation errors were recognized as 26.66% and 20% respectively.

Table 4 reveals that semantic errors include addition, omission, terminology or word choice, literal translation or word-to-word translation, false cognate, ambiguity, and spelling. Errors recognized as addition occurred in 6 cases (9.23%), omission in 25 cases (38.46%); terminology in 8 cases (12.30%), literal translation in 10 cases (15.38%), false cognate in 11 cases (16.92%), ambiguity in 2 cases (3.07%) and spelling in 3 cases (4.61%).

Table 4. Frequency and percentage of students' semantic errors.

No.	Semantic Errors	Frequency	Percentage
1	Addition	6	9.23%
2	Omission	25	38.46%
3	Terminology	8	12.30%
4	Literal translation	10	15.38%
5	False cognate	11	16.92%
6	Ambiguity	2	3.07%
7	Spelling	3	4.61%
Total		65	100

The following figure represents the percentage of each error more clearly

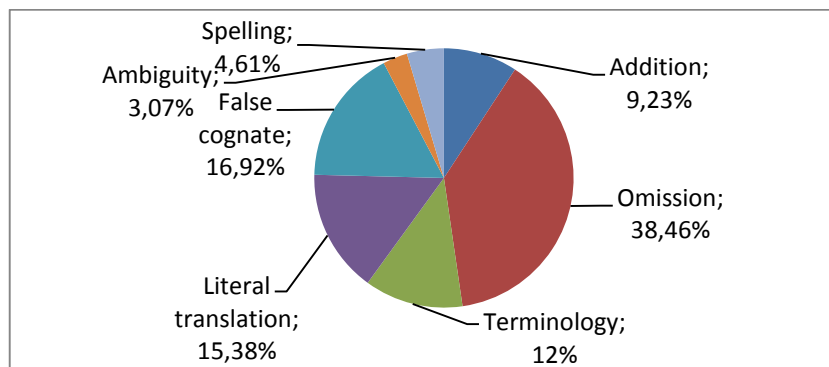


Figure 4. Percentages of students' semantic errors.

Figure 4 shows that in semantic errors, the first frequent type of error was omission followed by false cognate errors. The third frequent error was recognized as literal translation. The fourth frequent one was terminology. The fifth and sixth errors were addition and spelling respectively. The last type of error was ambiguity one.

Table 5. Frequency and percentage of students' pragmatic errors.

No.	Pragmatic Errors	Frequency	Percentage
1	Misunderstanding of source text	2	22.22%
2	Mistranslation into target language	7	77.77%
Total		9	100

The results of Table 5 indicate that pragmatic errors contain misunderstanding of the source text and mistranslation into target language. Each of these errors occurred in 2 and 7 cases respectively. The percentage of each type of error is presented in Figure 5.

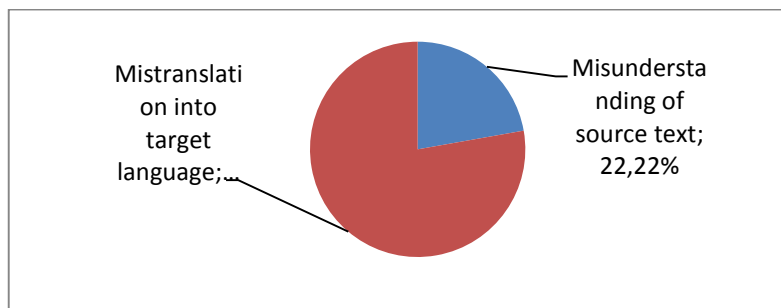


Figure 5. Percentages of students' pragmatic errors.

As it can be seen in the above figure, more than half of the pragmatic errors were recognized as mistranslation into target language (77.77%). Errors regarding misunderstanding of the source text were recognized as 22.22%.

7. DISCUSSION

Following the above statements, the students' problems or errors in translating tourism brochures is categorized into three main types including syntactic and semantic as well as pragmatic errors. Syntactic errors were recognized in 15 cases (16.85%). From these cases, 4 cases (26.66%) were recognized as grammar errors, 8 cases (53.33%) as syntax errors and 3 cases (20%) as punctuation errors.

The semantic errors which were the main problematic area occurred in 65 cases (73.03%). These type of errors contained addition (f=6), omission (f=25), terminology (f=8), literal translation (f=10), false cognate (f=11), ambiguity (f=2) and spelling (f=3) errors. Pragmatic errors occurred in 9 (10.11%) cases. Misunderstanding of the source text and mistranslation into target language, which occurred in 2 (22.22%) and 7 (77.77%) cases respectively, were two common types of pragmatic errors.

7.1. General Discussion

The results of the present study showed that learners applied some translation strategies for translating tourism brochures from Persian to English. These strategies were omission, addition, transference, literal translation, substitution, couplet and adaptation. The more frequent applied strategy was omission (18.86%) and the less frequent one was couplet (9.43%).

In addition, in translating these kinds of brochures, students made some errors including syntactic, semantic and pragmatic errors. The semantic errors (73.03%) were recognized as the main type of errors followed by syntactic errors (16.85%) and pragmatic errors (10.11%).

The syntactic errors contained grammar (26.66%), syntax (53.33%) and punctuation (20%) errors. The pragmatic errors included misunderstanding the source text (22.22%) and mistranslation into target text (77.77%). And, omission (38.46%), addition (9.23%), false cognate (16.92%), ambiguity (3.07%), literal translation (15.38%), spelling (4.61%) and terminology (12.30%) were different types of semantic errors.

The results of this study are in accordance with a number of previous studies (Eftekhar & Nouraey, 2013; Chan, 2004; Hogg, Liao, & O’Gorman, 2014; Leeuwen, 2004; Newmark, 1988) who believed that translating tourism brochures is a communicative cultural act because literal accuracy is not enough and ignoring cultural aspects leads to distortion.

The results of this study are not in line with those of Eftekhar and Nouraey (2013) who stated that over half of the students' errors were recognized as grammatical, semantic or pragmatic ones and grammatical errors held the highest frequency among the other types of errors. Instead, the results indicated that the total recognized errors were syntactic, semantic and pragmatic ones and the semantic errors held the highest erroneous type.

In addition, as the main reasons for students' making errors were lack of sufficient knowledge and unfamiliarity with the target culture, the results of this study are in accordance with those of Arens et al., (2009) and Snell-Hornby (1999) who stated that students' errors result from dealing with two different systems, two different cultures, misunderstanding, carelessness, oversight, or lack of proofreading.

It can be concluded that translation of tourist brochures is a culture-bound issue which needs translator to have knowledge of both the source culture and the target culture to minimize cultural ambiguities. In this regard, translators should have creativity to deal with different words and concepts including cultural and jargon issues. That is, the translators should simultaneously pay attention to the social and cultural aspects of the target language such as religion, social habits, rules of conduct, and ethical norms; and able to modify, omit, and insert what is necessary for creating an acceptable and communicative translation in order to manipulate social and cultural values to meet the demands of the target audience.

8. CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions can be made about the translation of English travel brochure into Persian:

- 1) The translation of advertising brochures is not only a lexical but also a cultural transfer.
- 2) The translators omit, change, and reformulate certain parts of the ST to fit the target context. Consequently, the translators employ different strategies in an attempt to reduce the gap between the SC and the TC in order to avoid message distortion. Specifically, the translation strategies adopted in translating brochures are transliteration, literal translation, addition, omission, adaptation, substitution, transference, and couplets.

- 3) Transliteration is frequently used in translating brand names and technical terms. However, transliteration is sometimes over used with words that have available equivalents in the TL.
- 4) Literal translation is considered mainly useful in translating the explanations of the products' benefits and the how-to-use instructions mentioned in the body copies of the brochures.
- 5) Addition as a translation strategy is used for several purposes including functional, promotional, linguistic, and illustration purposes.
- 6) Substitution is considered useful to fill the cultural gap. On the other hand, substitution results in using non-frequent lexical items such as that are not circulated in the target culture.
- 7) Omission is used to avoid redundancy, cultural contradictions, or ambiguity. Omission is unjustifiable especially when it leads to the deletion of a functional word or a word that may positively affect the promotional message. Such kind of omission can be attributed to the translator's lack of attention in reading and translating the brochures.

8.1. Implications

This study has some implications that might be beneficial for different individuals including Iranian Touring and tourism Investment Companies and Cultural Heritage authorities as well as translators. First, Touring and Tourism Investment Companies and Cultural Heritage authorities can recognize the importance of linguistic quality of the brochures and textbooks through which Iran; especially Iranian culture can be introduced to other cultures and countries.

Second, the finding can provide some insights for translators to identify inappropriate tourism translation cases as well as the reason behind them. It also provides the most frequent types of errors occurring in tourism brochures in order to enable translators to avoid them. Third, studying the reasons of learners' errors can give teachers some ideas about why learners make errors; and also can provide them useful information on learners' language and level of translation; and types of problems that is the most confronted by students.

8.2. Suggestions for further research

Future researches can seek to answer several issues that are still not being investigated in this study. First, as gender was not considered as a variable in this study, future studies can be done just by male or female participants; or both of them simultaneously in order to understand whether there are any differences between the types of strategies they apply. Also, future studies can investigate whether there is any difference between male and female errors in translating tourism brochures. Second, future studies can be done with other ESP texts in order to clarify whether the students apply and make similar strategies and errors in translating the texts.

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