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Jezik in turizem, Language and Tourism, Sprache und Tourismus

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Predgovor

JASNA POTOČNIK TOPLER & MOJCA KOMPARA LUKANČIČ

Jezik/Language/Sprache "is our home, a home in which we must feel good" (Grosman, 2008, p. 165). "It is accordingly worth arranging it as fits our taste and needs, as we will live in it until the end of our days, so it is worth discovering and respecting the homes of others, in all their beauty and power" (Grosman, 2008, p. 165). Jezik/Language/Sprache is the cultural heritage of every single nation (Hall–Lew & Lew, 2014). Not only English as a Lingua Franca, but also other local languages are conceptualized as heritage resources (Hall–Lew & Lew, 2014). as they also contribute also to the development of the language of tourism as a specialized language and a special discourse (Hall–Lew & Lew, 2014; Irimiea, 2018). The monograph presents ten academic chapters that span from language learning and teaching, to lexicography, minority languages, and selected linguistic concepts. Božinovski analyses some of the features of the Slovene LSP Dictionary of Tourism (TURS) against the terminographic guidelines from Slovene and international literature, and proposes future improvements. Costantini, Sidraschi, and Zuin address the question of how 10 minority communities in Italy mobilize their local languages for self-representation within their tourism websites. Gugić determines the collocation strength and contrastive analyses of adjective-noun collocations in tourist advertising brochures about Istria found on the official website of the Croatian Tourist Board. Kompara Lukančič and Omrčen address the concept of movement and its introduction into tertiary education in Italian language classes during COVID-19 times. Kučiš and Jazbec analyse Slovene–German translations of selected online menus in the Slovene regions of Podravska and Gorenjska. The authors argue that when translating culinary vocabulary, it is essential that professional translators avoid mistakes and misunderstandings. Laskova suggests that online tourist resources could become part of the L2 classroom with the effect of reinforcing the students' motivation and adding to their knowledge about the places in which their foreign language is spoken. Lipavic Oštir connects linguistic landscapes with tourism by establishing linguistic relations in four locations on a small part of the border between Slovenia and Austria. Potočnik Topler examines teaching writing skills in English for Tourism by employing travel writing, which is not only a tool for teaching linguistic skills, but also encourages students to develop research interests and storytelling techniques. Reindl comments on Slovenian practice in local language variants of personal names and presents principles that can be used as guidelines for translators dealing with such name variants. Smajla and Podovšovnik present the results of an online survey conducted among the university students of tourism regarding their attitudes towards the methods of teaching and learning language for special purposes (LSP) during the COVID-19 pandemic.

This monograph combines a range of authors, disciplines, approaches and methods, thus showing the extraordinary diversity of the field of languages and linguistics. It is intended for linguists, students, and anyone who knows that the home of language is everywhere.

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ALL-INCLUSIVE LSP DICTIONARIES AND THE SLOVENE–ENGLISH DICTIONARY OF TOURISM

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Abstract The chapter analyses some of the features of TURS, the Slovene LSP Dictionary of Tourism (Mikolič et al., 2011) against the terminographic guidelines from Slovene and international literature, and proposes improvements for its future updates. Arguments are based on the concept of the so-called all-inclusive dictionary (Fuertes-Olivera, 2011), which caters for a wide range of user groups and needs; the chapter argues it is necessary nowadays for all publicly-funded terminographic projects to be implemented applying the all-inclusive principle. This is because online terminological sources are widely available, and, thus, used by all user categories (hence dictionaries should cater to all of them). The chief focus of this chapter is the treatment of homonyms in TURS, particularly in relation to the implications that has for its bilingual aspect (the latter often being neglected in Slovene terminography).

Keywords: LSP of tourism, terminology, terminography, bilingual dictionaries, homonyms

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1 Introduction

Language for Special Purposes (LSP)[1], as a subsystem of every national language, represents a mechanism for communicating specialised content, and one of the key elements in this mechanism is terminology. Terminology as a set of specialised lexis that reflects the subject matter of a certain subject-field, has existed in every national language since the beginning of spoken communication or, more accurately, has always appeared and developed parallel to the specialised field whose means of expression it is.

The first Slovene terms for specialised terms in the fields of Agriculture, Beekeeping, Hunting, Fishing and elementary crafts, for example, were formed in speech as early as in the Proto-Slavic era, and the first Slovene terminology that appeared in writing was in the prayer forms and sermons recorded in the Freising monuments in the 11th century (Orožen, 2009; J. Stabej 1968). It was only after 1818, when the first secondary schools were established on the territory of present-day Slovenia, that the Slovene terminology of many subject-fields started to develop more systematically and was recorded for the first time (Legan Ravnikar, 2009, p. 55),[2] while the first truly strong impetus was given to terminology development in the Slovene language during the period of socialist Yugoslavia (1945–1991).[3] Nevertheless, terminologies of certain fields started to develop in the Slovene language only after the country's independence in 1991. Some examples include Investment terminology, Military terminology and Tourism terminology, which have systematically evolved in the Slovene language only in the last few decades.[4]

[1] LSP is understood in this paper to represent all forms of specialised communication typical for subject-fields, sciences, professions and activities, which demands specific knowledge and mastery of specific terminology, and where we can differentiate between laypeople and experts (Vintar 2008: 14).

[2] Terminology evolves a. Parallel to the progress in the relevant subject-field (as new concepts call for new designations, i.e. terms), b. Depending on the general linguistic and political situation (in what situations a language is used and developed, i.e. before the mid-19th century Slovene was used mainly at home and orally) and c. Is recorded depending on whether the relevant text type exists (i.e. the Slovene terminology of many subject-fields was first recorded only after the first school text books and journals appeared in the Slovene language, which was after 1818) (Legan Ravnikar 2009: 55).

[3] Then finally the official language of the Republic of Slovenia, the Slovene language could finally develop across all scientific disciplines, and was recorded in expert and scientific literature, journals, manuals, encyclopaedias and dictionaries (LSP dictionaries of Technical Sciences, Forestry, Medicine, Electrical Engineering, Agriculture were compiled in that period) (Humar 1998: 19).

[4] The reasons for the terminologies of these three areas having developed only recently are different. The socialist system did not approve of capitalist concepts such as stocks and shares and the stock market, which prevented the development of Investment terminology. (If the subject-field does not evolve, the designations for the concepts of this subject-field also cannot emerge.) The language of the military in the Yugoslav era – a critical unifying element between the Republics – was Serbian, so military terminology in the national languages of the Republics only started to develop fully after the Federation broke up. That said, it is insightful to note that the first military terms in the Slovene language existed since the first translations of the Bible (Merše, 2007, pp. 100–122), because warfare is an

Tourism – today's economic powerhouse and one of the fastest growing industries in the world (which has decidedly been put on hold with the onset of Covid-19 in early 2020, and has since witnessed an unprecedented decline) – is a fairly new discipline. In fact, it has become a stand-alone field of academic research only towards the end of the 20th century (Shilova 2011; Taillon 2009) and it remains unclear to this day what Tourism is: A discipline, a community, or merely a field of study (Taillon 2009, p. 11). On the one hand this is an area of human activity close to everyman, and people do not need a high level of specialization to understand it, while on the other, it is a complex interdisciplinary field uniting numerous diverse areas, such as hospitality, sports, wellbeing, geography, history of art, IT, etc. and as such does not have clear functional boundaries and a defined content (Gotti, 2003, p. 19). The language of Tourism is not shared by a restricted group of specialists but is rather used by diverse groups of experts from different fields. Moreover, its promotional and persuasive function makes it an accessible register and thus familiar to the wide public. The language of Tourism exploits the lexical, phonetic, morphosyntactic and textual apparatus of general language (ibid.) as well as operating a set of specialised terms referring to specialised concepts, which is a characteristic of all LSPs. (Admittedly, tourism is closer to the realm of general language and thus easier to understand for non-professionals than certain other fields.) Some authors even claim that Tourism does not have its own terminology, or its 'own code', but rather merely adopts the general language lexis in a creative and original way (Gotti, 2003, p. 21).

While it is thus debatable whether the language of Tourism is an LSP at all, LSP tourism dictionaries do in fact exist, as does the Slovene dictionary of Tourism terminology. Since an ordered conceptual system is a prerequisite for ordering the terminological system of a subject-field (Jemec Tomazin, 2010; Humar, 2004) the unclear state and status of Tourism (is it a discipline, science, community ... cf. Taillon [2009]) and its LSP leads us to assume that Tourism terminology must be in need of ordering and systematization.

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important theme in the scripture. The first translation of the Bible into Slovene dates from 1557 (New Testament by protestant Primož Trubar). According to Slovene linguist Miran Hladnik (2004) that was the first critical moment in history when the Slovene language can be considered as privileged: It was the 12th language in the then world to have received a translation of the Bible. The second major historical moment for the Slovene language was in the late 20th century, when Slovene became the 30th and smallest language into which the present-day Bible was translated, i.e. MS Windows (ibid.).

The object of this chapter is to research the state of Tourism terminology in the Slovene language with a special emphasis on its terminographic presentation. In the modern world, clarity and efficiency of communication are key to any successful business, more so in the Tourism business, where communication becomes the art of storytelling. In this respect, the creation of an LSP dictionary – which lays out the terminological system and connects it to the conceptual system of a subject-field[5] – is a viable way to make LSP communication easy, clear and unambiguous. Moreover, it is a way of bringing a subject-field, the understanding of which is in the public interest, closer to semi-experts and laypeople (since it is a fact that Tourism-related topics are discussed, written about and translated by experts as well as non-experts).

2 Methodology

This chapter will thus investigate – to paraphrase Slovene lexicographer Marjeta Humar (2004) – the maturity level of the Tourism field in Slovenia, by analysing its central terminological resource: the modern online freely-available corpus-based LSP dictionary of Tourism, referred to in this chaper as TURS (Mikolič et al., 2011).[6] Our focus will rest on the following two areas and related research questions:

1. The dictionary's treatment of homonymy and synonymy (with terminological variation) (*Does it differentiate clearly between separate concepts and their designations, and between different designations for the same concept?*), and
2. The multilingual component (what information on other languages is provided) (*Does it offer assistance in decoding, encoding and translation?*).

The analysis is based on international and particularly Slovene literature on terminology and terminography, and a survey of 20 Slovene and international LSP dictionaries, which was conducted for the purposes of a doctoral dissertation focusing on stock market terminology (Božinovski, 2015). TURS is analysed theoretically by studying papers on it, and practically by browsing it.

[5] An LSP dictionary demonstrates the maturity of a subject-field (Humar, 2004) and is the only tool that enables denominative efficiency and successful communication between experts and laypeople. The so-called denominative efficiency is possible in subject-fields that have analysed their concept system and overall body of knowledge fully and precisely (Jemec Tomazin, 2010, p. 90), and in subject-fields that are highly engaged in ordering their terminology (including all existing terminological variants).

[6] Turistični terminološki slovar (Mikolič et al., 2011) is referred to as the Slovene–English Dictionary of Tourism, or TURS, in this chapter. This is the only LSP dictionary of Tourism in Slovenia, although the Tourism Lexicon (Fuchs, Mundt & Zollondz, 2012) has recently also been published in the Slovene language (a translation of an originally German reference book).

Initially, TURS and its main features are introduced briefly, and then analysed against terminographic guidelines from Slovene and international literature (our focus is on the two areas mentioned). The findings lead us to propose improvements for the terminographic presentation of Slovene Tourism terminology, based on the model of an all-inclusive dictionary developed for stock market terminology (Božinovski, 2015). After all, a dictionary is a system-in-progress, as Humar lucidly puts it (1998, pp. 19–20), and this chapter strives to contribute to improving the system (of the Slovene LSP dictionary of Tourism). The discussion is concluded by outlining areas for further research. All the insights related to TURS and tourism terminology are the result of research done for this chaper, while the terminology and terminography background is drawn from Božinovski (2015).

3 Slovene LSP dictionary of Tourism (Mikolič et al., 2011)

The 'first Slovene Tourism dictionary' (Šverko, 2011) is a corpus-based dictionary available on the Termania online portal (Romih & Krek, 2012), a lexicographic database aggregator. Its wordlist was based on automatic term extraction from the 30,000,000-word corpus TURK (Mikolič, Vičič & Volk, 2009),[7] but was supplemented manually in certain cases (with terms relevant for the subject-field even if not attested in the corpus to a sufficient degree).[8] The dictionary is described as a *defining Slovene terminological dictionary of Tourism with English equivalents*, and is intended for a 'wide tourism discourse community' (Mikolič, 2013, p. 12), i.e. both those employed in the Tourism sector, as well as those using tourism services and researching tourism phenomena in a scientific context: service providers, tourism workers, journalists, translators, researchers, educators, school and college students, and tourists.[9]

The TURS microstructure consists of the headword (with word class label,[10] derived forms and intonation pattern), sub-field label (e.g. hospitality) and tourism-type

[7] According to its authors (Mikolič, 2013, pp. 13–15), the corpus which was built, inter alia, for the purposes of the dictionary, contains a representative mix of relevant texts from across the many domains related to Tourism, balanced in terms of authorship and text types.

[8] In automatic term extraction, minimum frequency was set to three (Mikolič, 2013, p. 17).

[9] This is truly a wide user base, and it can be categorised into semi-experts (service providers, tourism workers, journalists, translators, educators), experts (researchers) and laypeople (students, tourists) in terms of subject-field knowledge, and into linguists (translators) and non-linguists (everyone else) in terms of linguistic competence. These user profiles have different user needs, calling for all six major dictionary functions: Decoding texts in L1 or L2, encoding texts in L1 or L2, and translating texts from L1 to L2 and vice versa.

[10] Nominals, verbs and adjectives have the status of headwords (Mikolič, 2013, p. 21).

category (e.g. Cultural Tourism), definition(s),[11] collocations, synonyms, related terms, English equivalent(s). The macrostructure consists of a search window and a short description of the dictionary (its microstructure) (Mikolič et al., 2011).

The Editorial Board was composed mainly of linguists,[12] but it is stressed that they occasionally sought the advice of tourism experts from the Slovene Tourism Organisation and Faculty of Tourism Studies Turistica (Mikolič, Beguš & Koderman, 2010, p. 238). The project of compiling the dictionary was financed by the Slovenian Research Agency (ARRS) between 2008–2011 (Mikolič, 2013, p. 3).

4 Features of contemporary LSP dictionaries

LSP dictionaries are essentially utility products (Weigand, 1998). This means they should provide assistance to specific users facing complex needs in specific situations, and that they should be designed and compiled with all of this in mind (Araúz, Benitez & Hernández, 2008). Many lexicographers (Bergenholtz & Nielsen 2006; Nielsen 2002; Bergenholtz & Kaufman 1997; Bergenholtz & Tarp 1995, etc.) have dealt with the issue of how to design LSP dictionaries so that they are truly useful to different user groups simultaneously. This is increasingly relevant today, when the online format, which is becoming a norm in terminography, brings reference material closer to all potential users. While this is a welcome result of the Internet age, it is important to realise that freely available online dictionaries and databases will always be used by all users, irrespective of whether or not those dictionaries were designed for these users and their needs. It is therefore imperative that modern terminography projects, especially if they are publicly funded, follow the principle of the so-called *all-inclusive dictionary* (emphasis added), which contains information on terms and the subject-fields, as well as on terms and language (Fuertes-Olivera, 2011, p. 96), and can, thus, serve the needs of all user groups optimally. In the context of multilingual terminology science, the focus has increasingly been on a specialised learners' dictionary, usually primarily for

[11] Some headwords have several definitions, because homonymous terms are presented in one dictionary article under a single headword; definitions are numbered, and then all other microstructure elements (collocations, examples, equivalents) are labelled with the relevant number to show which definition they belong to.

[12] The papers presenting TURS do not talk about the profiles of the Editorial Board, but apparently the majority are Slovene language experts, at least one of them is a lexicographer, and there are IT experts among them. It is not clear whether there are any translators or native speakers of English among them. Today, dictionary Editorial Boards must necessarily be interdisciplinary teams consisting of lexicographers, subject-field experts, language technology experts, IT experts (Kosem, 2011, p. 43; Gorjanc, 2014, p. 10), and – in the case of multilingual dictionaries – translators and native speakers of all the languages of the dictionary (Božinovski, 2015, p. 73).

translators; it represents terminological lexis with a more extensive textual environment (e.g. Fuertes Olivera & Nielsen, 2011).

The time when terminography prepared dictionaries for experts, and lexicography for laypeople (Svensén, 1992, p. 107), is long over.

This Section focuses on two aspects of contemporary LSP dictionaries: the treatment of homonymy and synonymy (with terminological variation), and the multilingual component. It includes an overview of the relevant literature, international and notably Slovenian, and devotes special attention to the needs of translators. To illustrate possible terminographic solutions, it draws on the model LSP dictionary developed for Slovene and English Stock Market terminology (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015),[13] which represents an attempt to unite a defining and a bilingual dictionary into a single terminological resource, upgraded with information on the terms' typical context in both languages. Thus, an attempt at an all-inclusive LSP dictionary (i.e. a multifunctional bilingual defining LSP dictionary targeted at a wide user base).

4.1 Terminographic presentation of terminological variants and treatment of homonyms

Despite the ideal of terminology science, the daunting 'one concept–one term' principle (Felber, 1984), there are often in practice several designations for a single concept in the terminology of any LSP. Because absolute synonymy in LSP is rare, we speak of terminological variants rather than synonyms (Kalin Golob & Logar, 2008; Vintar 2008; Temmerman, Kerremans & Vandervoort 2005).[14] Typically these are pairs of domestic/foreign terms (*letališče/aerodrom, gurman/sladokusec/dobrojedec*) and various lexical or syntactic variants (*landing/touch-down*, *budget airline/low-cost airline, bed and breakfast/B&B).* They also include ortographic variants and in the case of TURS, various parts-of-speech: e.g. the Slovene nominal and adjectival equivalents *dobro počutje & velnes & velneški* for the English headword *wellness* (Figure 1).

[13] Slovar borzne terminologije (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015) is referred to in this paper as the Stock Market Dictionary.

[14] One of the reasons for the existence of terminological variants is a 'lack of discipline' in experts and other authors of texts, who do not use preferred terms and do not check for the existence of already coined and accepted terms in the case of new concepts (Kalin Golob & Logar, 2008). Another reason is inconsistent borrowing of terms from other languages, notably English. An updated and easily accessible LSP dictionary is precisely the place where experts and other authors *might* check for existing terms in such cases (but cannot in subject-fields and LSPs that do not have a developed linguistic infrastructure).

Synonymy is notably present in Slovene tourism terminology, not least because it has not yet been standardised, because new concepts are appearing rapidly, and because of a fast influx of foreignisms (especially from English) (Mikolič, 2013, p. 21).

vêlnes -a m (ê)
turizem dobrega počutja/velneški turizem, zdraviliški turizem / dejavnost dobrega počutja/velneška dejavnost
Zdrav celostni življenjski slog, ki zajema dobro počutje in ugodje ter vse dejavnosti za doseganje le-tega, kar se trži kot turistični proizvod.
○ *zdraviliški velnes*
○ *V Sloveniji se pomena velnesa zaveda čedalje več posameznikov in ponudnikov teh storitev in postaja ena glavnih panog na področju turizma ter zdravstvenih storitev.*
= dobro počutje, wellness
Angleški prevod: **wellness**

dôbro počútje -ega -a s (ó, û)
turizem dobrega počutja/velneški turizem, zdraviliški turizem / dejavnost dobrega počutja/velneška dejavnost
Zdrav celostni življenjski slog, ki zajema dobro počutje in ugodje ter vse dejavnosti za doseganje le-tega, kar se trži kot turistični proizvod.
○ *ponudba za dobro počutje*
○ *Največ užitkov si lahko obetate v Deželi dobrega počutja: v savnah, plavalnem bazenu, masažnih bazenih ali ob pestrem izboru masaž.*
= velnes, wellness
Angleški prevod: **wellness**

wellness [vêlnes] -a m (ê)
= dobro počutje, velnes, velneški

Figure 1: Complete dictionary articles for the accepted terms *velnes* and *dobro počutje*, and cross-reference article for the foreignism *wellness* in TURS.
Source: TURS (Mikolič et al., 2011).

If the purpose of terminology extraction is to identify and order the entire terminological apparatus of a subject-field, all terminological variants and synonyms are eligible candidates for inclusion into the word list of an LSP dictionary, including non-preferred and wrong ones. Such an extensive list of candidates for headwords gives subject-field experts the chance to prescribe preferred terms on the basis of actual use (Logar Berginc, Vintar & Arhar Holdt, 2013, p. 135).[15] It is then the role of the LSP dictionary to choose one of the terms as the preferred one and equip it with all the linguistic and encyclopaedic information, while giving the other variants of the term merely as uninformative cross-reference articles, and, thus, encourage users (in line with the so-called proscriptive approach) to use the former (Fuertes-Olivera, 2011, p. 110).

It is in the multi-lingual environment that a clear structure of dictionary information becomes even more important. Let us look at that in the following Section.

[15] A 'real' LSP dictionary is both prescriptive and descriptive: it lists all the lexis of a given subject-field, including dialectal expressions, jargonisms, vulgarisms, etc., whereby it will direct the user away from those and toward the preferred terms (Hudeček & Mihaljević, 2009, p. 93). Resting their decisions on terminological principles, terminographers should give preference to domestic (over foreign), shorter, more widely used, etc. terms (ibid., pp. 70–78).

4.2 Bilingual LSP dictionaries

Terminography science instructs that, when there are several equivalents, it is inappropriate to list them cumulatively, as they are usually not complete synonyms (Fuertes-Olivera, 2013, p. 35). One of the terms should be recommended and others only listed (the so-called proscription) (Fuertes-Olivera, 2011, p. 110). Similar to how normativity is enforced on terms in a monolingual context to facilitate LSP communication, so too users need a normative assessment of the L2 equivalent. Meaning discrimination and assigning of L2 equivalents to L1 terms has to be systematic, clear and unambiguous (Fuertes-Olivera, 2013, p. 39; Vrbinc, 2011, p. 70). In the case of polysemous headwords – as is the case with *vinotoč* (Figure 4) and *bakala* for that matter (Figure 4) –, equivalents should be separated using numbering, collocates, metalinguistic or encyclopaedic information (Svensén, 2009, pp. 262–3; Atkins & Rundell, 2008, pp. 214–264), or else individual terms should be treated as homonyms and given independent headword status, so that each only has one equivalent (as shown in /1/ above).

Equivalence between L1 and L2 terms is often not straightforward (i.e. the ideal case of full equivalence when there is only one term on each side and they cover the same concept, as in the case of e.g. *pustovanje–Carnival*, *turístično obmóčje–tourist region*). These are the most challenging instances, but also the critical ones for bilingual terminography: The user has to be made aware of all levels of partial lexical equivalence and instances of non-congruence[16] between L1 and L2 terminology (Božinovski, 2015, pp. 103–104; Jurko, 2010, pp. 62–70; Bergenholtz & Tarp, 1995, pp. 104–110).[17] Thus, even in the case of lexical gaps, a dictionary should find solutions. Descriptive equivalents are not sufficient here (Klinar, 1996, p. 220), rather a term equivalent is desirable. If it does not yet exist it should be coined for the purposes of the dictionary (Longyka, 2002, pp. 7, 13, 16; Cabré, 1999, pp. 116, 121). In the case of partial (non) congruence, the equivalent should be labelled accordingly (the ≈ symbol is often used) or a note on the discrepancy added (Atkins & Rundell 2008, pp. 212, 468).

[16] There are many examples in Tourism LSP: E.g. the Slovene *kozolec*, *gibanica*, *turistična ponudba* vs. the English *fly-drive, mini break, staycation.*

[17] A contrastive analysis of the lexis is required for a true bilingual dictionary, and it should be based on two corpora, comparable in terms of structure and size. The meanings of L1 headwords, grammar information, collocations and phraseological units are compared with the same set of terminological data for L2. Parallel corpora are not a suitable option for contrastive analysis for several reasons, including the fact that translations do not represent authentic texts, translators make mistakes and translations may be awkward or even (terminologically) wrong (Hirci, 1999, p. 151).

In the case of a bilingual bidirectional LSP dictionary (thus, e.g. Slovene-English and English-Slovene), the word list in each language has to be compiled separately[18] on the basis of two sets of authentic texts (L1 and L2 corpora). Only such a dictionary can present socially- or culturally-specific differences between the two concept systems and terminologies.[19] Ideally, two comparable corpora should be constructed for the same subject-field in L1 and L2 (a quick and cheaper but less reliable option is using WebBootCat [Baroni et al., 2006] in Sketch Engine [Kilgariff et al., 2014]), whereas the non-corpus solution is to use the word list of a monolingual LSP dictionary in L2.

As to grammatical information, it is relevant in LSP dictionaries for terms in the language that is less known to the user (in the case of a Slovene-English dictionary for Slovene speakers, thus, English terms should be equipped with it, not Slovene ones). It is essential to include contrastive differences and the pronunciation of foreign terms.[20] Pronunciation should be given in a format that all users understand,[21] e.g. an audio file (Kosem, 2014; Atkins & Rundell 2008).

5 Results

Going back to our two research questions from the beginning, analysis has shown that

1. The dictionary does differentiate between different designations for the same concept (synonyms and near synonyms are treated differently according to their status) but it does not transparently separate different concepts and their designations from each other (the dictionary does not

[18] Reversing the word list whereby the L1 equivalents in the first part become the L1 entry words in the second part is, of course, impossible in the case of culture-specific subject fields, such as the Stock Market or Tourism. For a discussion of the problems related to non-native speakers compiling the wordlist for the L2 section of a bilingual LSP dictionary see Božinovski (2015, pp. 115–116).

[19] Despite TURS being based on a corpus of authentic texts, and despite its author's intention for TURS to reflect through its terminology the specifics of Slovene Tourism (Mikolič, 2013), the L1 wordlist clearly needs supplementing and updating, as it does not include some of the terms that are key to Slovenian Tourism, such as *kozolec*, *na sončni strani Alp*. Either the corpus should be supplemented with target texts to allow for term extraction tools to pick up on such crucial terminology, or the word list should be supplemented manually, based on a detailed outline of the subject-field with all its sub-fields.

[20] Interestingly, Slovene LSP dictionaries consistently avoid providing pronunciation information for L2 terms. With very few exceptions, they do not, in fact, provide *any* grammar information on L2 terms, although providing some for L1 terms (Božinovski, 2015, pp. 249–262).

[21] The vast majority of Slovene non-linguist dictionary users (62–90 per cent) cannot decipher IPA pronunciation (Vrbinc & Vrbinc, 2004), meaning that the IPA format has no use value for an all-inclusive dictionary, either general or LSP, at least in the context of Slovenia.

apply the homonym principle but rather treats different terms as polysemous), and that

2. The dictionary includes but an elementary L2 component (bare English equivalents), which offers limited assistance in encoding and translation into English, especially for homonyms, but is useful as a Slovene-Slovene decoding dictionary since Slovene terms were included using the criterion of frequency and it is therefore likely a user will find in the dictionary a term they need the definition of.

6 Discussion

TURS largely follows the terminographic guidelines for presenting synonymous terminology (summarised from Mikolič, 2013, pp. 22–25). All corpora-extracted and manually approved candidates have headword status, whereby preferred terms are presented in complete dictionary articles, while variants and synonyms are given only in empty cross-reference articles,[22] directing the user to use the former. If two terms have equal status (both are equally frequent and accepted in the LSP community as suitable),[23] they are both given in complete dictionary articles (Figure 1). The main principles guiding the selection of preferred/accepted terms were frequency and Slovene origin (ibid.). This supports the decoding function well, since information can be found by searching any of the terms that appear in actual discourse.

Assuming its normative function, TURS takes on the ambitious role of preserving heritage and original Slovene expressions in trying to direct usage: Variant terms are offered as preferred ones, even if corpus usage does not attest sufficient frequency in three cases: 1. For original Slovene terms which have become disused and replaced by internationalisms (e.g. *pustolovstvo* vs. *avanturizem*), 2. For archaic Slovene terms that represent cultural heritage (e.g. *semenj* vs. *sejem*), 3. For Slovene neologisms in order to launch them into the LSP community and help them catch on (e.g. *dobrojedec* vs. *gurman*). There are also terms that authors suggest but cannot be found in the

[22] Orthographic variants (e.g. *poskuševalec/poizkuševalec*) do not have headword status, they are given in brackets next to the preferred term (headword).

[23] Subject-field experts are mentioned by authors as being consulted only in case of doubt in the initial stage of the dictionary process, i.e. during manual checks of automatically extracted terms (Mikolič, Beguš & Koderman, 2010, p. 238). It is, therefore, unclear what role (if any) subject-field experts played in determining the (preferred, accepted) status of terms later in the process. This is problematic, since it is subject-field experts who are the only ones competent to decide issues related to the conceptual system of a subject-field (Žagar Karer, 2011, p. 149), and, thus, the only ones capable and competent to (co-)write definitions, systematise terminology and choose preferred terms.

corpus – those are not given in independent dictionary articles, but rather only appear in the synonym field of the respective headword (e.g. *sprejemna agencija*).[24]

Synonyms are given in a separate field in TURS, following the symbol '=', i.e. after examples of use and before related terms. This works fine for monosemous terms, but gets increasingly complex and difficult to read in polysemous entries, because TURS does not apply the homonym principle. Thus, rather than giving homonyms in separate dictionary articles, where each headword would have their own definition, examples of use, synonyms and L2 equivalents, TURS presents homonyms in a single dictionary article using numbering: Definitions are numbered, and the examples of use, synonyms and L2 equivalents are then labelled with the number of the relevant definition they refer to (Figure 2). This makes homonymous entries increasingly 'costly' in the sense of comprehension-related costs (Nielsen, 2008); i.e. users need to invest extensive efforts to understand the information presented in the dictionary.[25] Let us not forget that the organisation of information on the screen is increasingly important in the digital age: Layout has to be simple and well structured so that the user does not get lost (Lew, 2011b, p. 15).[26]

[24] Again, it is not clear how and by whom these decisions were made – were any subject-field (Tourism) experts consulted at this stage? After all, normative decisions should always be made by terminographers in cooperation with subject-field experts (e.g. Hudeček & Mihaljević, 2009, pp. 70–78).

[25] Additional research is surely needed to assess the users' perspective on the user-friendliness and transparency of TURS' layout adequately, but surely the 'mathematics' of *to host (1), to organise (1), to adapt (2), to arrange (3)* – which is how English equivalents are given for the term *prirediti* with 'three meanings' – is a challenge to any user, including a linguist (linguists being more versed in using dictionaries and more familiar with the conventions of presenting information there).

[26] In the context of the online medium, contemporary dictionary users are faced with a lack of quality information on the one hand, and »information death« on the other (Prinsloo et al., 2011: 216). Several hundred studies have shown that what modern users appreciate, above all, is an easy-to-use interface that allows for the display of information to be filtered according to user preferences, which the contemporary dynamic dictionary accommodates with ease (Gorjanc, 2014; Lew & de Schryver, 2014; Kosem, 2011; Lew, 2011a; Müller-Spitzer, Koplenig & Töpel, 2011, p. 203; Lew, 2010; Rozman, 2010; Vrbinc, 2005; de Schryver & Joffe 2004; Vrbinc & Vrbinc, 2004; etc.).

bakalá -ja m (â)
kulinarični turizem / kulinarika
1. Bela morska riba trska (lat. Gadus morhua) ali polenovka (ko je posušena), ki se jo v kuhinji pripravlja na več načinov.
2. Ribja jed iz posušene trske ali polenovke, pripravljena na istrski način, in sicer tako, da se polenovka stolče in skuha v slani vodi, nato pa se ji, ko se ohladi, primešata oljčno olje in česen; danes se najpogosteje jé kot namaz za hladno predjed.
○ *Poznamo več načinov priprave bakala, in sicer v paradižnikovi omaki, s krompirjem, na brodet, ocvrt, mariniran, tudi na belo ali po istrsko ga lahko pripravimo na več načinov, vendar večjih razlik ni, razen v začimbah. (1)*
○ *Da bi delo lažje potekalo, je kulinarična sekcija pridobila tudi stroj za tolčenje bakalaja. (1)*
○ *Od domače hrane se še vedno da dobiti zelje s klobaso, pršut in bakala, sicer pa na žalost prevladujejo čevapčiči, ražnjiči, kotleti. (2)*
○ *Po vaseh so za božični večer pripravili bakala ali ribe, pet vrst zelenjave in spekli fritule, v mestu pa so spekli ribe, pripravili suh bakala, solato, ohrovt in polento. (2)*
= bakalar, (2) bakala na belo/beli bakala
GL. ribja jed
Angleški prevod: **codfish / dried codfish / dried cod / baccalà (1), bakala / baccalà (codfish in Istrian regional cuisine, prepared as a spreadable paste made from dried codfish mixed with extra virgin olive oil and garlic) (2)**

Figure 2: Homonymous entry for *bakala* with two definitions and several L2 equivalents in TURS.
Source: TURS (Mikolič et al., 2011).

Many authors argue that terminological homonyms should be given as separate entries in LSP dictionaries (Žagar Karer, 2011; Atkins & Rundell, 2008; Bergenholtz & Tarp 1995). In practice, however, they often appear in a single entry as a polysemous term with numbered senses (like in the case of TURS). In any event, it is imperative that these different senses appear with meaning discriminators, i.e. a few words setting the different meanings (terms, to be exact) apart. There are several options to choose from, such as the menu system, signpost/shortcut system, guide words, cues, mini-definitions (Lew, 2010, p. 1121).[27] In the case of *bakala* in TURS (Figure 2), the following simple solution could be used:

1. *bakala* [vrsta ribe];
2. *bakala* [ribja jed].

This is particularly important in a multi-lingual environment when users can get confused as to which L2 equivalent corresponds to which meaning of a polysemous L1 term (illustrated well by the entry for *bakala* in TURS; Figure 2). Particularly from a multi-lingual perspective, thus, it is best – and most user-friendly – to give each homonym independent headword status, so that each term can have its own L2 equivalent (Svensén, 2009; Atkins & Rundell 2008, pp. 214–264).

[27] Here are some examples from the Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015): *borza [organizirani trg], borza [institucija]; likvidni [trg], likvidni [vrednostni papir]*. All homonyms have headword status, and are equipped with meaning discriminators to set them apart, even in the online word list (Božinovski, 2015, p. 77).

A simple reorganisation of the entry for *bakala* according to the homonym principle would result in two dictionary entries with cleaner layouts, making the numbers in brackets – (1), (2) – next to all elements of the microstructure after the definition redundant:

bakalá -ja m (â) [VRSTA RIBE]
kulinarični turizem / kulinarika
Bela morska riba trska (lat. Gadus morhua) ali polenovka (ko je posušena), ki se jo v kuhinji pripravlja na več načinov.

- *Poznamo več načinov priprave bakala, in sicer v paradižnikovi omaki, s krompirjem, na brodet, ocvrt, mariniran, tudi na belo ali po istrsko ga lahko pripravimo na več načinov, vendar večjih razlik ni, razen v začimbah.*
- *Da bi delo lažje poteklo, je kulinarična sekcija pridobila tudi stroj za tolčenje bakalaja*

= bakalar
GL. ribja jed
Angleški prevod: codfish / dried codfish / dried cod / baccalà

bakalá -ja m (â) [RIBJA JED]
kulinarični turizem / kulinarika
Ribja jed iz posušene trske ali polenovke, pripravljena na istrski način, in sicer tako, da se polenovka stolče in skuha v slani vodi, nato pa se ji, ko se ohladi, primešata oljčno olje in česen; danes se najpogosteje jé kot namaz za hladno predjed.

- *Od domače hrane se še vedno da dobiti zelje s klobaso, pršut in bakala, sicer pa na žalost prevladujejo čevapčiči, ražnjiči, kotleti.*
- *Po vaseh so za božični večer pripravili bakala ali ribe, pet vrst zelenjave in spekli fritule, v mestu pa so spekli ribe, pripravili suh bakala, solato, ohrovt in polento.*

= bakalar, bakala na belo, beli bakala
GL. ribja jed
Angleški prevod: bakala/baccalà (codfish in Istrian regional cuisine, prepared as a spreadable paste made from dried codfish mixed with extra virgin olive oil and garlic)

(1)

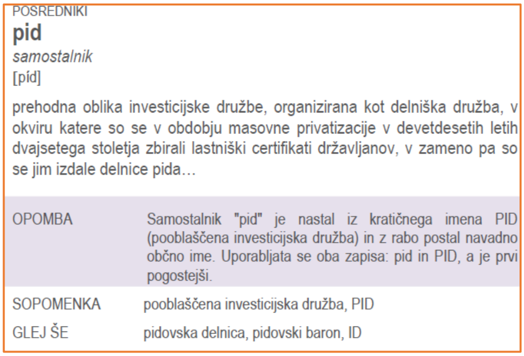
In a detailed presentation of TURS by its authors we can read, inter alia, that 'some terms have several meanings if they belong to different domains' (Mikolič, 2013, p. 20). This is apparently the root cause of such a complex and opaque layout of dictionary articles in TURS: The authors consider them to be single terms with several meanings, when clearly these are different concepts bearing the same designation (i.e. the definition of homonymy).[28] For instance, *organizirati* (1) – *Narediti, da kaj deluje, poteka* (= to make something work, to set an event in motion in the meaning of *to organise*) – is first, a very general meaning, in no way tied specifically to the area of Tourism, and it is therefore questionable whether it merits inclusion at all,[29] and second, it is clearly separate from *organizirati* (2) – *Omogočiti, da se kak javni dogodek začne, uresniči (*= to receive or entertain guests in the meaning of *to host*), which does indeed belong in the Tourism domain.

Returning to comprehension-related costs, it is unfortunate that the data categories for synonyms and related terms in TURS are not introduced in a more user-friendly way. It is, namely, a known fact that lexicographic abbreviations and symbols are off-putting to non-linguists (Atkins & Rundell, 2008). In addition, the unlimited space offered to modern LSP dictionaries by the online environment eliminates the need for lexicographic cryptography. TURS introduces English equivalents with a clear 'Angleški prevod:' but uses '=' to introduce the synonym field ('Sinonimi:' could be used) and 'GL.' to introduce related terms ('Glej tudi:' would be better). A good layout in this respect was developed for the Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015) – see Figure 3 for how three data fields are

[28] The authors' unusual conception of homonymy and polysemy is illustrated in this passage from Mikolič (2015, p. 198): "These are *some sort of* homonymous terms, i.e. terms that have the same designation but different meanings in different domains. Because they are *connected through the original form of the term*, TURS does not present them as separate entries …." (*emphasis added*).

[29] The informative nature of definitions in TURS is sometimes very weak, even for non-experts, while experts will surely be unimpressed with a definition such as the one above for *organizirati* (1). A similar example is 'Strokovnjak/-inja za pokušnjo.' for headword *poskuševálec, poskuševálka* (Mikolič et al., 2011). It is context that illustrates the meaning of the headword slightly better, i.e. *poskuševalec vina; Arome čajev, ki so na tržišču, ocenjujejo visoko usposobljeni in izurjeni poskuševalci.* However, this leaves the user wondering whether the term can only be used in the context of drinks (wine and tea are mentioned – what about beer?), or in connection with food as well (*poskuševalec čokolade/chocolate tasters, poskuševalec sladoleda/icecream taster?*). For the sake of comparison let us look at the English definition of *taster* from COBUILD Advanced English Dictionary (a general dictionary, not even an LSP one): *A taster is someone whose job is to taste different wines, teas, or other foods or drinks, in order to test their quality.* It is supplemented with an example sentence: The world's best job is being advertised - chief chocolate taster *(*https://www.collinsdictionary.com/dictionary/english/taster, accessed March 27, 2021*). The Collins' definition mentions the substances (general categories) that tasters typically taste, in addition to pointing out they are tasting them* for quality*, and is, thus, more detailed than the definition from the Slovene* LSP *dictionary, which is a paradox, since only terms with definitions more specific than found in general language dictionaries belong in an LSP dictionary (*Žagar Karer & Fajfar, 2015, p. 33*). The fact that some definitions in TURS are poorly designed is all the more awkward, because TURS prides itself on being a* defining *dictionary (emphasis added) that provides accurate definitions of concepts (e.g. Šverko, 2011, pp. 135, 136).*

introduced with full words that all users understand, i.e. 'Opomba', 'Sopomenka', 'Glej še' ('Note', 'Synonym', 'See also', respectively).



POSREDNIKI

pid

samostalnik

[píd]

prehodna oblika investicijske družbe, organizirana kot delniška družba, v okviru katere so se v obdobju masovne privatizacije v devetdesetih letih dvajsetega stoletja zbirali lastniški certifikati državljanov, v zameno pa so se jim izdale delnice pida…

OPOMBA	Samostalnik "pid" je nastal iz kratičnega imena PID (pooblaščena investicijska družba) in z rabo postal navadno občno ime. Uporabljata se oba zapisa: pid in PID, a je prvi pogostejši.
SOPOMENKA	pooblaščena investicijska družba, PID
GLEJ ŠE	pidovska delnica, pidovski baron, ID

Figure 3: Simple, full words introducing data fields (*Opomba/Note*), (*Sopomenka/Synonym*) and (*Glej še/ See*) in the entry for *pid* (Stock Market Dictionary).
Source: Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015).

Moreover, despite the online format, there are no hyperlinks that would take users directly to the synonym entry when clicking it. Browsing the dictionary is thus possible only via the search field.

Let us turn our attention to the bilingual aspect now. TURS includes English equivalents and is, thus, intended, in addition to its other functions, to serve translation purposes (Šverko, 2011, p. 131). International communication is mentioned as one of the functions of multilingual LSP dictionaries in a paper describing the dictionary (Mikolič, Beguš & Koderman, 2010, p. 234) and translators are mentioned among the dictionary's intended users (Mikolič, 2013, p. 12). On the other hand, the name of the dictionary – Defining *Slovene* Terminological Dictionary of Tourism *with English equivalents* (emphasis added) – suggests that the authors did not have the ambition to create a true bilingual or translation dictionary.

In a paper presenting the dictionary and its structure (Šverko, 2011), L2 equivalents are mentioned last in a short paragraph headed 'Translations' (ibid.: 149). The role of these 'translations' and how they are intended to help translators and make TURS a translation dictionary is not explained.

Let us look at an example. The homonymous entry for *vinotoč* gives four L2 equivalents (*wine shop, wine tavern, taproom, wine bar*) (Figure 4). With 'two meanings' (in fact, they are two concepts represented by two terms) covered by this dictionary article and four English equivalents listed in random order (i.e. without any additional information, such as if the four L2 terms are in fact synonyms, or whether they somehow correspond to the two meanings of the headword), this is a complex mix for any Slovene native speaker. A Tourism expert will be left wondering how to incorporate the chosen equivalent into text, a layperson will stop short of deciding how to choose at all, because there are no meaning discriminators, no guidelines.[30] This is in contrast with terminography science.

The authors of TURS are aware of the contrastive terminology issues associated with culture-specific subject fields such as Tourism (cf. e.g. the discussion of differences between the Slovene *turistična kmetija* and English *guest ranch, farm cottage* and *vacation farm*, and other terms) (Mikolič, 2013, pp. 36–37). However, they do not attempt to resolve the issues of lexical gaps[31] and the many instances of non-congruence between the Slovene and English LSP of Tourism. That said, descriptive equivalents are offered in some cases (e.g. *codfish in Istrian regional cuisine, prepared as a spreadable paste made from dried codfish mixed with extra virgin olive oil and garlic* for the headword *bakalà*). However, since L2 equivalents are not separated from each other in any meaningful way (aside from being numbered to show which 'meaning' of the headword they correspond to), and since there is no outline provided in TURS of the relationships between L1 and L2 terms (complete, partial equivalence; differences in use), the L2 information can only confirm the assumptions of users rather than provide assistance in translating (Fuertes-Olivera, 2013, p. 35).

[30] LSP dictionaries that only list L2 equivalents but do not provide any information on them, are not bilingual dictionaries – they are monolingual dictionaries with L2 equivalents (Košmrlj-Levačič 2005: 64) – so the descriptive name for TURS must have been chosen with this awareness in mind. Incidentally, the majority of Slovene LSP 'bilingual' dictionaries is of this type, offering users only the most elementary terms themselves, without instructing users in any way on how to use this terminology (for a detailed analysis of 20 Slovene and international LSP dictionaries see Božinovski [2015, pp. 249–262]).

[31] For instance, authors do not go beyond establishing that 'Slovene terms for many English terms do not exist', giving examples such as *all-inclusive* and *last minute* (Mikolič, 2010, p. 236).

vinotòč tudi vinotóč -óča m (ȍ ọ́; ọ̑)
vinski turizem (1, 2), kulinarični turizem (1, 2), turizem na kmetiji (2), podeželski turizem (2) / vinarstvo, enologija, kulinarika
1. Točilnica, prodajalna vina zlasti za pitje zunaj lokala.
2. Strežba in prodaja vina in drugih alkoholnih in brezalkoholnih pijač lastne pridelave; ob tem lahko vinogradnik v primernih prostorih na svoji domačiji ponudi tudi preprostejše domače jedi (hladne prigrizke, domač kruh, domače pecivo). Hrano in pijačo lahko v vinotoču strežejo in prodajajo vse leto, dokler imajo svojo lastno pijačo.
○ *razvoj vinotočev (1, 2)*
○ *koprski vinotoč (1, 2)*
○ *Komerciala je obsegala potniško službo, skladišči v Kopru in Ljubljani, transportni park, vinotoč ter vodenje te službe z odgovarjajočimi zaposlenimi. (1)*
○ *Tako vinotoč kot osmica smeta gostom nuditi lastno pijačo, hladne prigrizke ter domač kruh in domače pecivo. (2)*
GL. vinoteka, vinska klet, osmica
Angleški prevod: **wine shop, wine tavern, taproom, wine bar**

Figure 4: Dictionary entry for *vinotoč* in TURS with four non-disambiguated English equivalents.
Source: Mikolič et al., 2011.

As to grammatical information, it is relevant in LSP dictionaries for terms in the language that is less known to the user (in the case of TURS, thus, English terms should be equipped with it, not Slovene ones). It is essential to include contrastive differences[32] and the pronunciation of foreign terms.[33] Pronunciation should be given in a format that all users understand, e.g. an audio file (Kosem, 2014, p. 4; Atkins & Rundell, 2008). The vast majority of Slovene non-linguist dictionary users (62–90 per cent) cannot decipher IPA pronunciation (Vrbinc & Vrbinc, 2004), meaning that the IPA format has no use value for an all-inclusive dictionary, either general or LSP, at least in the context of Slovenia. TURS, as mentioned, does not include any information on L2 terms.

6.1 Suggestions for improvement

Initially let us stress that many aspects in which TURS deviates from terminographic guidelines (most notably those related to information on L2 terminology) are shared by the majority of Slovene LSP dictionaries (cf. analysis of 20 Slovene and international LSP dictionaries in Božinovski (2015, pp. 249–262). It would thus

[32] For instance, a user should be warned that an expression is typically singular in L1 but plural in L2: *kapitalski trg – capital markets* (the case of Stock Market terminology, cf. Božinovski, 2015, p. 78). It is possible to add explicit notes about syntax or grammar, e.g. for the headword *government: »/…/ A singular verb is used to talk about the government as a whole* (e.g. The new government does not have popular support.), *and a plural verb to highlight that it has many individual members* (e.g. The government are planning further cuts in public spending.). /…/« (Vrbinc, 2011, p. 68).
[33] Interestingly, Slovene LSP dictionaries consistently avoid providing pronunciation information for L2 terms. With very few exceptions, they do not, in fact, provide *any* grammar information on L2 terms, although providing some for L1 terms (Božinovski, 2015, pp. 249–262).

appear that Slovene terminography largely does not support translation, and the same is true of TURS: It offers only lists of equivalents, which offer little or no assistance in translating from Slovene to English, and in encoding in English. Since it wants to serve translators and be a translation dictionary (Mikolič, 2013; Šverko, 2011), its presentation of L2 terminology has to be upgraded.

The authors of TURS stress many times, not least in connection with supplementing the underlying corpus (Mikolič, 2013), that TURS is a work-in-progress, that new terminology will be added to reflect the development of the Tourism domain. We are, thus, putting forward some suggestions on how to improve and expand the microstructure of TURS to make it more user-friendly and answer the needs of translators. After all, the only sensible approach in terminography – especially in lesser used languages like Slovene where, usually, a single terminology resource is compiled for a domain – is to apply the all-inclusive dictionary principle. This means that the LSP dictionaries that are compiled with public funding should be designed with the needs of all user groups in mind.

6.1.1 Adjusted microstructure and homonyms in separate entries

In addition to the dictionary features enabled by modern technology (audio files for pronunciation, the dynamic principle of showing dictionary information – i.e. filtering information according to user preferences[34]), which currently depend on the Termania host, not on the authors of dictionaries available there, the first suggestion is to demystify lexicographic symbols and abbreviations. Using the words ‘Sinonim’ and ‘Glej tudi’ to introduce these data fields will make dictionary articles easier to read to an average user, as argued in connection with Figure 3.

The second suggestion is related to reconsidering the inclusion of grammatical information for the headword in a style that currently baffles a typical user. If we take the undecipherable ‘code’ for *turistično območje* (Figure 5): '-ega -a s (í, ȏ)'. The letters that follow the headword represent 1. The genitive form in this case, because the headword is a nominal, where ‘-ega -a' could easily be replaced by the much more informative and familiar *turističn**ega** območj**a*** with the genitive endings in bold (if the

[34] A good example of a multi-functional online LSP dictionary is the accounting dictionary (Fuertes Olivera et al. 2021), which exists in as many as four versions. It is intended for native speakers of Spanish who need help with either 1. Decoding English texts or 2. Translating English texts into Spanish, or 3. Acquiring additional accounting knowledge (in English or Spanish), or 4. Translating English accounting phrases / collocations into Spanish. The display of information is adjusted to the user profile.

authors truly consider this to be a critical piece of information for an LSP dictionary); 2. The grammatical gender label 's', standing for 'srednji spol' (neuter), which, again, could easily be spelled out to avoid confusion, or left out altogether without compromising the dictionary's utility value;[35] 3. The intonation pattern for the headword (í, ô). Note that these are three different categories of information given together in one string without being separated in any way (e.g. typographically, with colours), at least not visibly.

turístično obmóčje -ega -a s (í, ô)

Figure 5: Headword *turistično območje* with grammatical information in TURS.
Source: Mikolič et al., 2011.

Following the guidelines from lexicography and terminography literature, one could easily decide to leave out grammar information for the headword in L1 in this case, since all intended users of the dictionary are L1 native speakers, and usage in no way deviates from general patterns. This is also in line with including into a dictionary and on the screen as little information as possible (but everything that is relevant).
The third suggestion is related to the treatment of homonyms or, as the authors call them, terms with several meanings. They should be given in separate entries, clearly set apart using meaning discriminators, with only those microstructure elements accompanying them that belong there (rather than having examples of use and synonyms and L2 equivalents for another term being nested together, creating confusion). An illustration is provided in (1).

6.1.2 Extended treatment of English terminology

In the spirit of an all-inclusive dictionary that we are arguing all publicly-funded terminography projects should result in, here are a few proposals on how to supplement L2 terminology in TURS and any other Slovene-English LSP dictionary.

[35] We can reasonably assume that a typical Slovene speaker does not remember declension patterns they had learnt in primary school, but that, rather, they use appropriate declinations (for masculine, feminine and *neuter* nominals) according to their native speaker competence. Nevertheless, a survey of Slovene dictionary users' grammar knowledge could be conducted in the context of further research to substantiate this claim empirically.

L2 equivalents should appear with grammatical information, including pronunciation (audio file) and different word forms and patterns. In a multi-lingual context it is critical to understand that even experts only master their subject-field within their given national language and culture, but not necessarily in the context of the target culture (Nielsen, 2010, p. 72). This means that Slovene Tourism experts potentially need extensive information on how to use English tourism terminology correctly, such as grammatical information, pronunciation, collocations and examples of use, and an outline of the differences in meaning and use between the L1 and L2 terms. Linguists (translators, proof-readers, interpreters) are, conversely, language professionals, but only in the realm of general language, not LSP: LSP (in their native as well as foreign languages) is like a foreign language to them, as they do not understand the terminology fully, and don't know how to combine words into phrases meaningfully and idiomatically. What they need are informative encyclopaedic notes describing the concepts behind the L1 and L2 terms, and the differences between them.

If L2 is English, it is sensible to provide nominal headwords with the articles (to show whether a term can be used with both, and the plural form (to show if it exists) – in both cases, thus avoiding countability information in a complex lexicographic manner – while, for verbal headwords, the 3rd person singular form, past form and past participle should be given. It is important to note that entire words or even constructions should be given, not just the endings: e.g. for the verb *to guide*, the forms *she guides*, *he guided*, *I had guided* should be given in suggested constructions, to increase their information value rather than the terse lexicographic '-s, -ed, -ed'.

When several L2 equivalents correspond to a single L1 term, there are two possible approaches: The dictionary can either 1. Give them in order of preference (normative function) or, alternatively, frequency (typical usage), or 2. Choose and offer only one equivalent. If several options are offered, clear sense disambiguation and illustrative examples are necessary to show users when to use which. As a way of illustration, sense disambiguation between the L2 equivalents *bond*, *note* and *debt* for the L1 term *obveznica* from the Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski and Berk Skok 2015) is provided in Figure 6. This is a case of divergent polysemy, where one L1 term has three different L2 equivalents. The dictionary article uses a combination of the vertical and horizontal layouts (Božinovski, 2015) and describes the differences between the three equivalents in a special data field ('Discrepancies between L1 and L2'). This is a data field completely separate from the definition, which only defines the L1 term. Extensive usage and encyclopaedic notes are needed by L1 speakers to be able to understand and use L2 terms correctly.

Further, an illustration of terms in context is paramount for non-native speakers of a language. Therefore, L2 equivalents have to be shown in their typical syntactic and paradigmatic patterns as translations of the L1 examples of use.[36] This is to show contrastive differences between the use of corresponding L1 and L2 terms. Unpredictable and untransparent collocations are the most relevant for inclusion into a dictionary (Bergenholtz & Tarp, 1995). As a way of illustration, a selection of translated examples of use for the headword *obveznica* and its equivalent *bond* from the Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015) is provided in Figure 7. (Different examples of use are, of course, provided in the Dictionary for the other two equivalents, *note* and *debt*.)

SLOV	obveznica		
RAZLAGA	dolgoročni dolžniški finančni instrument, ki ga izda javni (država, občina) ali zasebni izdajatelj (banka, podjetje), in katerega izdajatelj je dolžan imetniku na določen dan v prihodnosti izplačati glavnico, v vmesnem času pa običajno v rednih intervalih obresti		
ANGL	**bond**	**note**	**debt**
IZGOVOR, OBLIKE	[VB bɒnd / ZDA ba:nd] <a bond; the bond; bonds>	[VB nəʊt / ZDA noʊt] <a note; the note; notes>	[det] <a debt; the debt; debts>
ODSTOPANJA SLO/ANG	Če ima obveznica dospelost 1–10 let, je v ameriški angleščini "note". (V Sloveniji je obveznica vsak dolžniški finančni instrument z ročnostjo, daljšo od enega leta. Podobno velja v britanski angleščini za "bond".) V ameriški angleščini pa obstaja razlika med "bond" (obveznica z dospelostjo 10 let in več) in "note" (obveznica z dospelostjo med enim in desetimi leti).		Angleški "debt" se uporablja za vse dolžniške finančne instrumente, hkrati pa (redko) tudi konkretno za obveznice. Za slovensko množinsko obliko "obveznice" se uporabljata tako edninski "debt" kot množinski "debts".

Figure 6: Simplified dictionary entry for *obveznica* in the Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015) showing the terminographic presentation of three divergent English equivalents.

Source: Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015.

[36] In the case of a true bilingual dictionary with two separate word lists, the L1–L2 word list should give L1 terms, typical collocations and examples of use with their L2 equivalents, while the L2–L1 word list should give L2 terms, typical collocations and examples of use with their L1 equivalents (Bergenholtz & Tarp, 1995, p. 121).

donos desetletnih grških obveznic
Greek 10-year bond yield

mednarodno trgovanje z obveznicami
bond trading in international markets

povprečna velikost posla z obveznicami
average bond trade size

obveznice s tržno vrednostjo 1,2 milijarde EUR
bonds with a market value of EUR 1.2 billion

naložbe v obveznice
investments in bonds; bond investments

nizek dnevni promet z obveznicami
low daily traded volume in bonds

posli z obveznicami PRB10
trades in PRB10 bonds

z rastjo inflacije pada cena obveznic
as inflation rises bond prices drop

Figure 7: Selection of translated examples of use for the headword *obveznica* and equivalent *bond* from the Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015).
Source: Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015.

To conclude this discussion, we have drawn up a contrastive Slovene-English entry modelled upon the Stock Market Dictionary (Božinovski & Berk Skok, 2015) for the tourism-related term *turistična ponudba* (Figure 8). This headword was chosen because it specifically reflects the Slovene tourism reality (Mikolič, 2013, p. 36), is notoriously difficult to translate into English[37] and, thus, terminographically complex (there is no straightforward equivalence between L1 and L2 terms).

In Slovene tourism texts, *turistična ponudba* is an umbrella term that represents natural and cultural goods, as well as services and products offered to tourists (Planina & Mihalič, 1997). As such it has no ready-made English equivalent. There are two types of *turistična ponudba*: *primarna* and *sekundarna* (ibid.), the former roughly corresponding to *tourist attraction* and the latter to *tourism infrastructure, products and services*.

The first surprise comes when you search the corpus[38] for instances of the headword in the sense of tourist attraction (*primarna turistična ponudba*) versus tourism infrastructure and services (*sekundarna turistična ponudba*): the phrase *turistična ponudba* is almost exclusively used as a synonym for the latter. This was included into the dictionary article as a note, in a special data field under the headword.

[37] Cf. The discussion about lexical non-congruence in Mikolič (2013, pp. 36–37).
[38] We have searched the LSP tourism corpus TURK and Gigafida (http://www.gigafida.net/ –access March 28, 2021), the Slovene general-language corpus.

The entry gives three L2 equivalents, providing grammatical information on countability (*infrastructure* cannot appear with the indefinite article or in the plural) for all of them, and an explanation of the lexical non-congruence between L1 and L2 terms. Term equivalents are provided (as they should be in any dictionary), although the situation is rather complex, which the user is made aware of by means of a note on the deviations between L1 and L2. Thus equipped, a translator will be able to choose the most appropriate equivalent depending on context, or even find another solution outside of the dictionary. Moreover, even non-linguists are served well with such an explanation, as it is given in Slovene (the native language of all dictionary users).

There are, of course, several limitations to this illustration, including the fact that 1. The definition is provisional as no tourism experts were consulted, 2. Pronunciation for the L2 equivalents is not given and audio files are advisable, 3. Examples of use are scarce.

SLOVENSKA IZTOČNICA	**turistična ponudba**		
RAZLAGA	Naravne in kulturne dobrine, storitve in blago, ki so ponujeni turistom. Turistična ponudba se deli na primarno in sekundarno.		
OPOMBA	Izraz *turistična ponudba* je običajno rabljen kot sopomenka za *sekundarno turistično ponudbo.*		
GLEJ ŠE	primarna turistična ponudba; sekundarna turistična ponudba		
ANGLEŠKI USTREZNIK	**tourist attraction**	**tourism infrastructure**	**tourism products and services**
OBLIKE USTREZNIKA	<a tourist attraction, the tourist attraction, tourist attractions>	<~~a tourism infrastructure~~, the tourism infrastructure, ~~tourism infrastructures~~>	<a tourism product/service, the tourism product/service>
ODSTOPANJA SLOV./ANGL.	*Turistična ponudba* je pojem, specifičen za slovenski turizem, zato nima pravega ustreznika v angleščini. V angleščini uporabimo izraz, primeren glede na kontekst: če je govora o primarni turistični ponudbi, tj. naravnih danostih, kulturni dediščini, prireditvah ipd., uporabimo ustreznik *tourist attraction.*	*Turistična ponudba* je pojem, specifičen za slovenski turizem, zato nima pravega ustreznika v angleščini. V angleščini uporabimo izraz, primeren glede na kontekst: če je govora o sekundarni turistični ponudbi, tj. infrastrukturnih objektih in napravah, proizvodih, storitvah, (prenočitvenih in prehrambenih) zmogljivostih ipd., uporabimo glede na pomen enega izmed naslednjih ustreznikov *tourism infrastructure; tourism infrastructure and services; tourism products and services.*	
ZGLEDI	*Razne rokodelske spretnosti iz preteklih obdobij so danes zanimiva turistična ponudba za številne izletnike in turiste.* *Various handicraft skills from times past represent an appealing tourist attraction for many day-trippers and tourists.*	*raznolika in cenovno ugodna turistična ponudba diverse and affordable tourism products and services* *turistična ponudba za mlade youth & student products and services* *Obstoječa turistična ponudba v občini je pusta in dolgočasna. The municipality's tourism infrastructure and services lack appeal.* *vključevanje kulturne dediščine v turistično ponudbo incorporating cultural heritage into tourist products and services*	

Figure 8: Illustrative dictionary entry for *turistična ponudba* with three L2 equivalents offered and the discrepancies between L1 and L2 explained.

Source: own.

7 Conclusion

In order to transform TURS into an all-inclusive dictionary (Fuertes-Olivera, 2011) through future upgrades, its design and layout will need to be revised in several respects. Initially, the word list should be supplemented to reflect the Slovene tourism reality truly. A good starting point is a layout of the Tourism subject-field, which tourism experts should outline on the basis of the defined sub-fields, mapping out a detailed conceptual system of Tourism. In the next stage, tourism concepts should be assigned the relevant terms (and terminological variants, synonyms in accordance with the corpus approach). As a result, the existing word list is bound to change: Non-terms should be removed and missing terms added. Subject-field experts and terminographers are the key staff profiles at this stage, the former making sure that the conceptual system is complete and that definitions are accurate and subject-specific.

Next, homonyms should be treated in separate entries, as outlined in this chapter. The inclusion of grammatical information for L1 terms should be reconsidered, while, conversely, the inclusion of linguistic and encyclopaedic information for L2 terms should be considered for inclusion. Tourism translators and native speakers of English should be included into the editorial work to make sure the information on L2 terms caters for encoding in English and for translation into English.

Lastly, since TURS has been online for several years, user search techniques and needs can be evaluated and findings applied in creating upgrades of the dictionary. On the basis of a clear definition of target users for a Tourism dictionary, a survey of user needs (among Slovene native speakers) is suggested in the context of future research. Moreover, an analysis of the state-of-the-art of tourism terminography in other languages is relevant for planning the future updates of TURS adequately.

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Minority Languages as a Resource for Tourism Promotion on the Web: The Case of Some Minority Communities in Italy

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Abstract Minority languages have been the subject of a rich literature in the field of the sociolinguistics of tourism and a number of works have underlined that they have been increasingly used in tourism promotion in the last few decades as they convey overtones evoking authenticity. Travel websites do not only provide a first glance at a destination for potential guests, but they are also part of the tourist experience because they introduce visitors to relevant contents related to specific places. In view of this, in websites of a destination where a minority language is spoken the use of the local variety could be particularly relevant in order to promote a specific place as offering an immersion into a unique cultural experience. The present article addresses the question how ten minority communities in Italy mobilize their local languages for self-representation purposes within their tourism websites.

Keywords: minority languages, tourism websites, tourism communication, language commodification, multilingualism

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1 Introduction

1.1 Minority languages and tourism promotion

Minority languages have already been the subject of a rich literature in the field of the sociolinguistics of tourism. A number of works have underlined that minority languages have been increasingly used in tourism promotion as they convey overtones evoking authenticity (see Cohen, 1988; Zhu, 2012). Heller (2003) suggests that globalization in tourism has brought about "a shift from understanding language as being primarily a marker of ethnonational identity, to understanding language as being a marketable commodity on its own, distinct from identity" (Heller, 2003, p. 474). Heller, Pujolar and Duchêne (2014) have underlined that the processes of commodification of language involve "new ways of using and representing languages and language practices in the specific field of tourism" as well as the reassessment of minority languages as a "symbolic and economic capital" (Heller, Pujolar & Duchêne, 2014, p. 561). Hall-Lew and Lew (2014) also remark that a linguistic variety can frame the identity narrative and sense of place for a destination and that "international tourism settings turn multilingualism and cosmopolitanism into economic assets" (Hall-Lew & Lew, 2014, p. 344; on the correlation between minority languages and the economy of minority communities, see also Grin, 1999; Grin & Vaillancourt, 1999; Strassoldo, 2014).

A consequence of this new role minority languages have taken in tourism is that new awareness among members of communities speaking a minority language emerged as to the value their language conveys as a carrier of a specific weltanschauung, thus improving a sense of identity, self-regard as part of a group having exclusive cultural features. This, in turn, initiated in some cases a virtuous circle of language preservation and revival (Cohen, 1988; de Azeredo Grünewald, 2002; Greathouse-Amador, 2005; Kelly-Holmes, Pietikäinen & Moriarty, 2011; Lonardi, Martini & Hull, 2020).

The new role minority languages have taken in tourism – or at least their potential – appears to be clearly perceived in some communities speaking minority languages in Italy (see Toso, 2009; Negro, 2014). Protto (2014), for instance, underlines that awareness of the value of the German dialect spoken in the village of Sauris (Friuli Venezia Giulia, Italy) as a resource for tourism promotion has emerged in the last few years, as is testified by the fact that Sauris raises considerable interest in culturally and linguistically kindred nearby Austrian regions of Carinthia and Tirol (in addition to Italy); at the same time, she claims that tourism can provide "further incentive for learning and using a local language" (Protto, 2014, p. 66). Lonardi, Martini and Hull (2020) discuss the results of interviews to privileged observers in the Cimbrian-speaking village of Giazza (Italy), which clearly show awareness of the local language and culture as an asset in tourism marketing. One of the interviewees is reported as saying that "with globalization, people realized they needed to find something typical of the territory and started promoting local products and some aspects of the local culture too" (Lonardi, Martini & Hull, 2020, p. 2); moreover, the authors reported that several interviewees underline that "direct contact with tourists, genuinely interested in their culture and language, has rekindled their understanding of the value of their language" (ibid.), which in turn "has renewed their sense of pride in their culture and identity and encouraged many to learn more to preserve this valuable heritage and to deliver authentic experience" (ibid.).

It has already been highlighted in the literature on tourism studies that travel websites do not only provide a first glance at a destination for potential guests, but they are also part of the tourist experience because they introduce website visitors to relevant contents related to specific places (Thurlow & Jaworski, 2009). In view of this, in minority language destination websites the use of the local variety could be particularly relevant in order to promote a specific place as offering an immersion into a unique cultural experience. Building on a case study on websites related to two bilingual communities in Ireland and Finland, Kelly-Holmes, Pietikäinen and Moriarty (2011) show that minority languages are employed "extensively where the product or the provider are part of the minority language industry or infrastructure" "both for local legitimacy and to authenticate their product" (Holmes, Pietikäinen & Moriarty, 2011, p. 40). At the same time, however, the promotion of tourism needs to be 'inclusive' in order to address the audience of potential visitors and needs to resort to national (or global) languages (Kelly-Holmes & Pietikäinen, 2014).

1.2 Aims of the study

The present article addresses the question how these conflicting instances, involving local languages and communication on a national or global stage, are coped with in tourism promotion websites of some minority language communities in Italy, and in particular how these communities mobilize local languages for self-representation purposes within the tourism discourse. To do this, we will first provide a short depiction of the locations we focused on from a linguistic and tourism viewpoint (Section 2), we will then describe the research methods we adopted and we illustrate the results (Section 3); we will then try to discuss how to interpret the results (Section 4) and draw the conclusions (Section 5).

2 Context of the study

2.1 Multilingualism in Italy

Italy is characterized by a significant richness in terms of linguistic diversity. Beside standard Italian, which is nowadays the native language of most Italians, regional Romance vernacular varieties are also spoken as well as non-Romance local languages (Albanian, Germanic, Greek and Slavic). Twelve languages have been recognized as minority languages according to national legislation which was passed in the 1990s (law 482/1999). Specific regional legislation further determines the fields of application of the national law on minority languages with respect to school teaching, public services, use of minority languages in mass media, etc., and more in terms of general preservation. Revitalization and standardization of minority languages are promoted through initiatives organized by regional agencies or local cultural associations.

2.2 Scope of the study

Since an exhaustive mapping of the use of minority languages in tourism websites would be tantalizing (the legislation on minority languages is likely to be applied in many more than 1,000 municipalities), we have selected ten tourist locations, eight in Northern Italy and two in Sardinia. These locations have in common the fact that a minority language is spoken and that national or regional legislation sets the ground for language planning actions. They may vary significantly, however, as far as other features are concerned; we considered here four factors as particularly relevant to potentially affect the appeal of the minority language in tourism marketing: the dimension of the community, the number of minority language active speakers, the type of tourist offer and the number of beds in accommodation facilities, as an indicator of 'touristicity', see Gismondi and Russo, 2004 (see Table 1).

Table 1: Destinations inquired in the present study with relevant sociolinguistic and economic variables.

Location	Inhabitants	Minority speakers	Type of tourist offer	Number of beds in accommodation facilities[1]
Gressoney	±1100	70-80%	alpine, ski	4058
Alagna Valsesia	±700	20%	alpine	1685
Rimella	±150	90%	alpine	74
Luserna	±260	60%	alpine	67
Palù del Fèrsina	±160	90%	alpine	212
Sappada	±1300	n.a. (±60%)	alpine, ski	1050
Sauris	±400	60%	alpine	903
Val Resia	±900	n.a.	alpine	93
Alghero	±40,000	50%	seaside	15027
Carloforte	±6,000	85%	seaside	n.a.

[1] Data from <dati.istat.it>, services > tourism > capacity of collective accommodation – municipality data > capacity of collective accommodation establishments by type of accommodation > hotels and similar accommodation, holiday and other short-stay accommodation, camping grounds, recreational vehicle parks and trailer parks.

In the following subsections we give some more details on these destinations.

2.2.1 Walser communities in Aosta Valley and Piedmont

The term Walser refers to Alemannic populations who emigrated in medieval times from Valais (Switzerland) and then settled in colonies throughout the Alps. Walser communities are located in Italy in various Alpine settlements in Aosta Valley and Piedmont, roughly around the Monte Rosa massif.

These settlements date back approximately to the 13th century (Dal Negro, 2011). We examine here three destinations, Gressoney (Aosta Valley), Alagna Valsesia (Piedmont), and Rimella (Piedmont).

Gressoney/Greschòney (Aosta Valley) includes two municipalities, Gressoney-Saint-Jean (about 800 people) and Gressoney-La-Trinité (about 300 people). The latest statistical survey on the Walser-speaking population dates back to the 1990s, when about 50% of the inhabitants of the two communities were still active speakers. Estimates in the early 2000s suggested that about 35% of the population are active speakers of Walser (Prezzi, 2004); passive knowledge of Walser may involve a much more significant number of residents in Gressoney (between 70% and 80%, see Angster, Dal Negro, 2015). Winter ski tourism is highly developed as well as summer tourism, when due to the cool climate, Gressoney is a destination for hikers and holidaymakers.

Alagna Valsesia (Im Land in Walser) is a town of about 700 inhabitants located at the foot of the southern slope of the Monte Rosa massif. According to estimates only about 20% of the residents in Alagna Valsesia have some Walser competence (Angster & Dal Negro, 2015). The village is one of the most important Piedmont ski resorts. In recent years, it has increasingly established itself as the main ski resort in North-East Piedmont in terms of the number of visitors.

Rimella/Remmalju is a small village (about 150 inhabitants) located in a side valley of Valsesia in the province of Vercelli (Piedmont). Tittschu, the local variety of Walser, is still part of the repertoire of about 90% of the residents according to a recent estimate (Angster & Dal Negro, 2015). As in Alagna, Rimella is set in an remote area and mainly attracts hikers and visitors who value the beautiful landscapes and the quiet and fascinating flavour of the location.

2.2.2 Minority communities in Trentino

Luserna/Lusérn is set on the southern side of the Alps in the autonomous province of Trento. About 260 people live in the village. The Cimbrian language, a German dialect brought into the area during the 12th century by Bavarian peasants and woodcutters, is spoken in Luserna by about 60% of the villagers (Schöntag, 2013; Ciccolone, 2014). Consciousness of being part of a minority and the identification of the inhabitants as Cimbrian is, however, pervasive in the community and seems to overcome real proficiency in the language. Tourist flows to Luserna/Lusérn are characterized by the presence of daily hikers or skiers attracted by the breathtaking

Alpine environment. Most of the visitors come from Italy; German and Austrian tourists also visit the place because of their interest in the local language and culture. Palù del Fèrsina/Palai en Bersntol is a village in the Fèrsina Valley (Province of Trento). A Tyrolese German variety named Mòcheno is spoken by more than 90% of the 164 residents. Tourism flows only marginally touched Palù/Palai: daily hikers mostly from the nearby towns or from Trento visit the village mainly in the summer season. A few foreign guests also come from Südtirol and Austria, attracted by the local language and culture.

2.2.3 Minority communities in Friuli Venezia Giulia

Sappada/Plodn is a 1300-people municipality in Friuli Venezia Giulia, on the southern slopes of the Carnic Alps range. The area was inhabited by German-speaking settlers from nearby Pustertal (East Tirol) as early as the 13th century. Sappada/Plodn is a German island: the local language, Plodarisch, is a variety of Pustertal Tyrolean. To the best of our knowledge surveys have never been undertaken to determine how many people are active Podarisch speakers, but numbers may not differ significantly from those in other language islands in nearby Sauris/Zahre. Thanks to the beautiful natural setting and its well-developed ski infrastructure Sappada is a very popular destination both in summer and in winter.

Sauris/Zahre is a municipality of about 400 people located in Friuli Venezia Giulia. It was probably founded in the 13th century by people coming from nearby Carinthia and East Tirol. Because of its geographic isolation Sauris/Zahre has been a German island for centuries. Nowadays a southern Bavarian variety of German dialect ('Saurian', de zahrar sproche in the local language) is spoken by about 60% of the villagers (Costantini in press). The beautiful Alpine landscape as well as local food products and handicrafts make this village a destination for domestic and international tourism (mainly from nearby Austria). Since the 1980s an increasing number of tourists from neighboring German-speaking areas has been coming to Sauris/Zahre because of their interest in the local language (Protto, 2014).

Resia/Resije is a municipality located in a valley in the Julian Alps (Udine). It has a population of just over 900 people living in six villages along the valley, which has been inhabited by Slavic people since the 7th century. The local Slavic language, Resian (rośajanski langač), is attested in four varieties and is considered a transitional variety between Carinthian and Litoralean dialects of Slovenian (Steenwijk, 1992). Reliable data on the active use of Resian are missing, but we can assume comparable numbers to the ones of the other language islands in Friuli Venezia Giulia. As for tourism, Resia Valley is situated within the Julian Pre-Alps Natural Park, which is known for its beautiful landscapes. According to Quaglia (2014), in recent years Resia has become a favorite destination for Slovenian tourists interested in its linguistic distinctiveness.

2.2.4 Minority communities in Sardinia

Alghero/l'Alguer is a city of more than 40,000 inhabitants on the northwest coast of Sardinia. Also known as Barceloneta sarda ('small Sardinian Barcelona'), it is a Catalan-language island: in the 14th century Catalan settlers populated the town after driving out the indigenous populations. Algherese (Alguerés in the local language) is a conservative variety of Catalan. Nowadays it is spoken by about 50% of citizens (Oppo, 2007, pp. 65-74). Alghero is a very famous tourist seaside destination; it is also well known as an archaeological and naturalistic site. Many tourists from Catalonia visit the location attracted by its linguistic peculiarity (Toso, 2009).

Carloforte/U Pàize is a town of 6,000 inhabitants located on the island of San Pietro in the archipelago of Sulcis, in Southwest Sardinia. A local variety of Liguarian dialect called Tabarchino (tabarchìn in the local language) has been spoken there since the 18th century, when Ligurian people who had moved to Tabarca (Tunisia) in the 16th century resettled in the archipelago of Sulcis in Carloforte and the nearby town of Calasetta/Câdasédda. In recent years a lot of initiatives have been undertaken in order to standardize and promote this language, even though it is protected by law only at a regional level (Tabarchino is considered as a dialectal minority, and because of this it is not protected by the national law on minority languages). Nowadays Tabarchino is spoken by more than 85% of Carloforte inhabitants (Oppo, 2007, pp. 65-74). Carloforte is a very famous tourist seaside destination. It is also well known for its traditional cuisine. Over the last few years, many tourists from Liguria have been visiting the town with the specific purpose of speaking or hearing Ligurian overseas (Toso, 2009).

3 Research methodology and results

3.1 Methodology

The materials to analyze have been chosen following the research methodology already adopted in Kelly-Holmes, Pietikäinen and Moriarty (2011), who attempt to replicate how a tourist would find the sites of the location under inquiry, in line with a virtual ethnographic approach (Hine, 2000). As the destinations we have focused on are mainly touched by tourism flows originating in Italy, we queried Google using as keywords the name of the locations and the Italian word *turismo* 'tourism'. The sites resulting on the first page of the search were examined and we selected the sites of regional and local tourist boards and associations excluding booking services or other service websites as more representative of the way an organization which represents a community on the whole resorts to a minority language in tourism promotion. Some 20 webpages were analyzed at first; we then considered other pages within the same websites as well, as a visitor potentially interested in knowing more about a destination may easily do. Table 2 shows lists the websites considered for our investigation.

We focused our inquiry on two aspects related to the use of minority languages on travel websites highlighted in Kelly-Holmes, Pietikäinen and Moriarty (2011): the presence in travel websites of a discussion on the existence of a minority language spoken in a location and the use of the minority code on a tourism website – single words or complete sentences, with particular scope on specific domains of activity, e.g. arts and crafts, food, traditions and traditional festivals, etc. A third feature in the use of minority languages in tourism websites emphasized by Kelly-Holmes, Pietikäinen and Moriarty (2011), that is, the interaction between minority languages and the visuals/images used, was deemed as irrelevant to immediate scrutiny. Finally, we also considered the relevance of a web page where the mention or use of the minority language is made – whether it was the homepage or a secondary page of a website. Almost 70 webpages overall were visited.

Table 2: Websites visited for the present study (March 2021).

Location	Website
Gressoney	www.lovevda.it/it/banca-dati/3/localita/valle-d-aosta/gressoney-saint-jean/392
Alagna Valsesia	www.alagna.it/ www.monterosavalsesia.com/alta_valsesia_paesi/it/it-alagna-valsesia.html www.invalsesia.it/alagna-valsesia/
Rimella	www.monterosavalsesia.com/alta_valsesia_paesi/it/it-rimella.html www.alagna.it/estate/gite-fuori-porta/rimella/
Luserna	www.visittrentino.info/it/trentino/destinazioni/luserna_md_239 www.alpecimbra.it/it/scopri-l-alpe-cimbra/localit%C3%A0/lus%C3%A9rn/68-0.html
Palù del Fèrsina	www.visittrentino.info/it/trentino/destinazioni/palu-del-fersina_md_226 www.valledeimocheni.it
Sappada	www.turismofvg.it/sappada www.sappada.info/ www.sappadadolomiti.com/
Sauris	www.turismofvg.it/sauris www.sauris.org/
Val Resia	www.turismofvg.it/resia www.resianet.org/
Alghero	www.algheroturismo.eu/ www.sardegnaturismo.it/it/luoghi/nord-ovest/alghero
Carloforte	www.carloforteturismo.it www.sardegnaturismo.it/it/luoghi/sud/carloforte

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Mention of minority languages

The first remarkable aspect that comes to the fore is that regional tourism board website pages of minority communities generally mention their linguistic specificity as one of the most defining features. The page of Gressoney-Saint-Jean in the official tourism website for the Aosta Valley region, underlines that the town is rooted in the Walser culture and language as the second piece of information overall. Similar mentions of the minority language can be found on the Luserna and Palù del Fèrsina page in the official tourism website of Trentino:

(1) Luserna è il più piccolo dei comuni dei grandi altipiani trentini, ma è anche uno dei più ricchi di storia e tradizioni, infatti qui si parla ancora il cimbro un'antica lingua tedesca.

[Luserna is the smallest municipality in Trentino uplands, but it is one of the richest in history and traditions, as Cimbrian, an ancient German language, is still spoken here].
(www.visittrentino.info/it/trentino/destinazioni/luserna_md_239)

Palù del Fèrsina is described as the village that "boasts the most interesting and authentic folk traditions" (it. *vanta le più interessanti e autentiche tradizioni popolari*[39]) linked to the Mòcheni people and their language. Similarly, the Friuli Venezia Giulia official tourism website provides as one of the earliest pieces of information the linguistic specificity of Sappada, Sauris and Val Resia (see the following excerpts from the Sappada and Val Resia webpages respectively).

(2) Circondata dalle Dolomiti, Sappada (Plodn nel dialetto locale) è una famosa meta di turismo invernale ed estivo. La sua origine è altomedievale ed è attribuita al Patriarca di Aquileia che avrebbe chiamato in questa zona allora disabitata un gruppo di famiglie dalla Baviera. Ancora oggi, a Sappada si parla infatti un antico dialetto tedesco.
[Surrounded by the Dolomites, Sappada (Plodn in the local dialect) is a famous destination for winter and summer tourism. Its origin is early medieval and is attributed to the Patriarch of Aquileia who would have called a group of families from Bavaria to this then uninhabited area. In fact, an ancient German dialect is still spoken in Sappada today.]
(www.turismofvg.it/sappada)

(3) Resia si trova in una valle magica e appartata, dove vive una comunità di ceppo slavo che conserva tradizioni e una lingua antica, unica nel contesto delle comunità slavofone.
[Resia is located in a magical and secluded valley, where a community of Slavic lineage lives which preserves traditions and an ancient language, unique in the context of the Slavic communities.]
(www.turismofvg.it/resia)

[39] See <www.visittrentino.info/it/trentino/destinazioni/palu-del-fersina_md_226>.

Sardinia's tourist board official website does not explicitly mention minority languages on the pages of Alghero, although linguistic alterity is clearly perceived through the presence of place names (which may however have Catalan or Sardinian origin as far as the visitor may be concerned). Carloforte is instead strongly identified from the very beginning as a Ligurian-speaking community (see excerpt (4), where the local name for the town is not even translated).

(4) U pàize è un enclave ligure in Sardegna: conserva lingua e cultura dei fondatori, le famiglie di pescatori originarie di Pegli, e provenienti dall'isola tunisina di Tabarka (dove risiedevano dal XVI secolo).
[U pàize is a Ligurian enclave in Sardinia: it preserves the language and culture of its founders, the fishing families originally from Pegli, and from the Tunisian island of Tabarka (where they lived since the 16th century).]
(https://www.sardegnaturismo.it/it/luoghi/sud/carloforte)

Quite paradoxically homepages of local tourist boards often make no mention of the linguistic specificity of a community. Neither on the Alagna tourist board website nor on the Sauris or Alghero or Carloforte websites is the existence of a minority language spoken in the village apparent from the homepage. Rather, secondary pages dedicated to the history and traditions of the community include references to the local language: they are in fact very rich in portraying the language and mentioning single words to refer to traditions (see next paragraph). However, a superficial visit to websites of local tourist boards may even leave the guest unaware of the linguistic specificity of the place. One of the two Sappada local websites (www.sappada.info) is exceptional in that the linguistic peculiarity of the town is stated, though only in an "info" box.

3.2.2 Occurrence of single minority language words

The sample of webpages considered here also shows some differences with respect to the use of tokens in a minority language depending on the type of website. The number of minority language words in regional tourist board website pages is generally scanty. The only Walser words in the Gressoney-Saint-Jean page in the Aosta Valley official tourism webside are 'stadel' – the word for the typical Walser building, 'titsch' – the Walser word for the German dialect spoken in Gressoney – and 'Bierfest' 'Beer festival' (which may, however, be a German loanword). The Palù del Fèrsina page in the Trentino official tourism website includes only one Mòcheno expression – 'Graub va Hardimbl' – 'Hardimbl mine', the name of a local mine museum. 'Plodn' – the local dialect name for Sappada – and 'Plodar Vosenòcht' – 'Sappada carnival' – are the only expressions in the presentation page of Sappada in the Friuli Venezia Giulia official tourism website, as 'Zahre' – the local dialect name for Sappada –, 'Rölar' and 'Kheirar' – names of two characters in the traditional carnival celebrations in Sauris – are the only Saurian words in the Sauris page. A handful of expressions occur in the Alghero page of the Sardinia official tourism websites – mainly names of places: 'Escala del Cabirol' (Catalan), 'domus de Janas' (Sardinian), etc. The Carloforte page in the same website also have few Tabarchino words in it, starting with 'U pàize' – the local name for Carloforte.

The homepages of local tourist boards are also rather poor in using the local minority language. Except for very few words there are no traces of the local languages in Alagna, Sappada, Sauris, Alghero (an "info" box advertises the events in the 'Setmana Santa' – 'Holy week') and the Carloforte (an "info" box advertises a music festival called 'Creuza de mä' – 'path to the sea') website homepage. The site www.sappada.info also includes very few words in Plodarisch – an "info" box mentions a typical figure of the Sappada carnival, 'rollate', and the word 'rolln' – 'cowbells'.

Much more abundant are the words in local varieties in secondary pages dedicated to the history, traditions, arts and crafts, traditional costumes, typical products and cuisine, descriptions of traditional buildings and building techniques, folklore tales of some of the localities, as the following excerpts from the local tourist board website of Sauris and Resia show:

(5) Le maschere, suddivise in belle (scheana schembln) e brutte (schentana schembln), indossano, a seconda della tipologia, vecchi indumenti e cappellini con fiori di carta e nastri colorati e hanno sul volto maschere di legno, velette o semplicemente fuliggine (rues). Altre figure del carnevale saurano sono il Rölar ed il Kheirar. […]
[Depending on the type, the masks, divided into beautiful (scheana schembln) and ugly (schentana schembln), wear old garments and hats with paper flowers and coloured ribbons and have wooden masks, veils or simply soot

(rues) on their faces. Other figures of the Sauran carnival are the Rölar and the Kheirar. […]]
(www.sauris.org/tradizioni/)

(6) Il Carnevale inizia, generalmente, negli ultimi giorni, il giovedì grasso (Jojba Grasa) il sabato sera, la domenica (Püstawa nadëja), il lunedì, il martedì (TeVlïki Püst) e il mercoledì delle ceneri (Te din na pëpël). In passato la festività dell'Epifania (Pernahti) dava inizio ai festeggiamenti carnevaleschi.
[Carnival generally begins in the last days on Maundy Thursday (Jojba Grasa) on Saturday evening, Sunday (Püstawa nadëja), Monday, Shrove Tuesday (TeVlïki Püst) and Ash Wednesday (Te din na pëpël). In the past, the feast of the Epiphany (Pernahti) started the carnival celebrations.]
(http://www.resianet.org/site/carnevale/)

4 Discussion

The websites we analyzed appear to display tendencies that seem to depend on the type and function of the websites themselves. Pages within a regional tourism board portal generally feature discussions on the existence of a minority language spoken in a location more than the homepages of community tourism board websites, which host secondary pages to information about the history of the location, its tradition and its language. A search on Google may lead to both these types of pages as first results, but the display – and the perceived significance – of a minority language is uneven in the two types of pages. One may expect that a minority language will be treasured as a tourism promotion asset in websites of the tourist board of a community where the language is spoken; however, quite paradoxically, the samples we have examined show that regional websites expose the existence of a minority language more than local websites do. This may be understood as a response to the conflicting needs we mentioned at the beginning between reaching a national or global audience and authenticating a location. Regional tourism boards, which do not need to place themselves within the national tourism landscape (and perhaps have as their main target informing rather than attracting), can indulge in depicting the specificities of a (small) community, including the language spoken. Small communities need to find their own place in the tourism marketing landscape and attract potential visitors; because of this they may not perceive the local language as a primary ingredient, especially if their tourist offer includes other types of material assets; thus, the authentication function of a minority language may be completely sacrificed if it is not strictly essential to the representation of the tourist destination.

These pressures may also explain the limited use of minority language words we found in the web pages we examined (on the risks of resorting to 'languaging' strategies see Dann, 1996). We underline that in no web pages we analyzed an 'emblematic' usage (Kelly-Holmes, Pietikäinen & Moriarty, 2011) of a minority language was made: no welcome or greeting formulas were detected, no minority language tokens were used in connection with the visuals of the website. Minority language words were mostly used in secondary pages on the traditional (material and immaterial) culture of a community in websites of local communities. This also suggests that the local organizations that own the website may not perceive the local culture as a primary asset in promoting the location. At the same time the presence of words in the local minority language in some pages may be interpreted as a way a community legitimates its distinctive cultural identity; thus, although a minority language does not seem to be discerned as a resource for tourism marketing in itself, it may nonetheless be employed as a way to project a community and its cultural and linguistic specificity into the global stage of the web.

5 Conclusion

In the present paper we have tried to investigate the role of minority languages in websites promoting some destinations in Italy where such languages are spoken. Recent sociolinguistic literature has pointed out that minority languages have increasingly been mobilized as a resource of tourism promotion, as they are perceived to be capable of evoking authenticity overtones. We have tried to investigate whether destinations in Italy where minority languages are spoken appeal to them in their websites to promote themselves. The inquiry on about 70 webpages has shown that regional tourism board webpages of minority communities generally mention their linguistic specificity as one of their most defining features, but that homepages of local tourist boards often make no mention of the existence of a minority language spoken in place; rather, secondary pages dedicated to the history and traditions of the community include references to the local language. Our inquiry has also shown that the presence of minority language tokens is rather poor in the main pages of the considered destinations; secondary pages are instead much richer in minority language words, especially when history, material and immaterial traditions, arts and crafts are described. We have proposed that this peculiar way of hiring minority languages in tourism promotion is motivated by conflicting pressures involving the need of reaffirming the cultural identity symbolized by a minority language and the need of placing a destination on a national or global stage.

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44*ADJECTIVE-NOUN COLLOCATIONS IN TOURIST ADVERTISING BROCHURES ABOUT ISTRIA: A CORPUS-BASED TRANSLATION STUDY

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Abstract The aim of this research is to determine the collocation strength and contrastively analyse adjective-noun collocations in tourist advertising brochures about Istria found on the official web-page of the Croatian Tourist Board assuming that collocations found in the brochures will be stronger, i.e. more typical, and that most collocations in the English language will be direct translation equivalents of the Croatian collocations. The research starts by describing the position and importance of tourism in the overall European and Croatian industry. It then continues with a definition of collocations, their importance for smooth communication, and the description of their different types, highlighting the problems encountered with their proper translation. The empirical part presents the corpus-based methodology applied and offers the analysis results which confirm the tested assumptions. In the end, the study offers suggestions about how to overcome difficulties in the acquisition and use of collocations in the tourism discourse.

Keywords: congruent collocations, non-congruent collocations, corpus-based methodology, tourism, typicality

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1 Introduction

Tourism as an industry has a leading role in the EU economy (EP, 2021). The Republic of Croatia has been a member of the EU for eight years. It is a country whose economy mostly relies on the tourism industry (15% of the total GDP). The Croatian National Tourist Board (HTZ, 2021), as the leading body taking care of the promotion of Croatia on the tourism market, has launched numerous initiatives to attract potential visitors. In the last few years, a "product line" of videos and brochures starting with the phrase *Croatia full of…* has caught the eye and raised the interest of travellers. The registers of the promotional materials tackle numerous areas of discourse such as nature and eco-tourism, history, food and drink, health, business, and narration, each one being marked by specific vocabulary. Numerous research studies have dealt with the linguistic analysis of the language of tourism (Peeters, 2007; Bednarek & Bublitz, 2007; Vučković-Vojnović & Nićin, 2012; Rata, 2012). In an interesting piece of research conducted by Rata in 2012, 232 different English noun phrases designating different types of tourism were analysed with the aim of providing Romanian equivalents for English adjectival tourism terms, thus showing the richness of this register's vocabulary.

Given the importance of tourism for Istria and the Republic of Croatia in general, it is not surprising that great efforts and investments have been made into attracting Croatian citizens to join this sector. Considering that top-rate tourism would hardly be achievable without good knowledge of foreign languages, this research investigates the use of a more difficult linguistic segment which shows one's proficiency in the overall knowledge of a language (Moehkardi, 2002; Nesselhauf, 2003; Košuta, 2012), namely adjective-noun collocations found in the brochures about Istria made available to the public on the web-page of the Croatian National Tourist Board and their translations in the English language brochures published by the same organisation.

2 Theoretical background

2.1 The definition of collocations

Words as lexical units bear a meaning which is inherent to them. Even in cases when words bear more than one meaning, a native speaker, or a proficient speaker of a foreign language, can understand the meaning of a word without too much difficulty. Thus Murphy (2010, p. 22) writes about "native speaker intuition." However, words often combine, they seek for each other, and co-occur. According to Cowie (2001) word combinations can be divided into semantic and pragmatic combinations. Semantic combinations are further divided into collocations and idioms, whereas pragmatic combinations are divided into proverbs and routine formulae (where he also differs them from speech formulae (Ibid.).

According to the Oxford English Dictionary, collocations were first mentioned at the beginning of the 16th century. In Barnbrook, Mason & Krishnamurthy (2013, p. 6) one can find the definition of the verb form *collocate* from 1513 taken from the OED: 1. a. trans. To place side by side or in some relation to each other; to arrange. b. To set in a place. The online Cambridge English Dictionary defines collocations as "the combination of words formed when two or more words are often used together in a way that sounds correct." Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992, p.21, as cited in Moehkardi, 2002) defined collocations as "strings of words that seem to have certain 'mutual expectancy', or a greater-than-chance likelihood that they will co-occur in any text."

Collocations are linguistic units which enable smooth and economical communication (Blažević & Košuta, 2016). They are indicators of communication competence since the ability to use collocations typical for a foreign language is often considered as a high level of knowledge of a language. Having that in mind, and considering the education system which includes teaching foreign language vocabulary as isolated lexical units instead of semantic units (Stojić & Murica, 2010), a higher level of oral or written competence among foreign language learners can hardly be expected, especially when it is known that as less fixed, collocations are often subject to "cross-linguistic influence" (Mustapić & Malenica, 2013, p. 209), or "native language interference" (Marton, 1977, p. 53). The survey conducted by Alharbi (2017) among Saudi Arabian university students and teachers shows that teaching collocations has always been neglected and that teachers themselves do not work on raising collocational awareness. Learners face problems linked to combining two or more words together, and examples such as *feeble tea, laugh broadly, climb a horse* "show a lack of collocational competence in the learner" (Bahns, 1993, p.56). This problem can be observed at the level of production, especially in the field of foreign language acquisition and translation (Marton, 1977; Nesslehauf, 2003).

Collocations are formed by a base (B) and a collocate (C) (e.g. *pretty* (C) *girl* (B); *handsome* (C) *boy* (B); *make* (B) *the bed* (C); *do* (B) *the homework* (C). The base usually remains unchanged, whereas the collocate determines the meaning of the collocation (Košuta, 2012). Differently from idioms, the meaning of collocations can be derived from the meaning of the single units forming it. However, they are often difficult to remember. Various languages have a specific way of combining components, so by contrasting two languages one can determine the differences between them (Blažević & Košuta, 2016), and thus identify the problematic structures which cause difficulties to learners of a language. Their inability to form collocations properly is seen as a lack of accuracy and fluency (Van Der Meer, 1998; Stojić & Murica, 2010; Alharbi, 2017).

2.2 Types of collocations

There are two types of collocations, namely grammatical and lexical (Benson, Benson & Ilson, 1997; Rata, 2012). The difference between them is that grammatical collocations are combinations of a noun, adjective or verb and a particle (preposition, infinitive, or clause). For instance, *depend on, encourage (someone) to do (something), be afraid that (something could happen)*, etc., whereas lexical collocations are composed by two content words (nouns, adjectives, verbs or adverbs in various combinations). According to Stojić and Murica (2010, p.116) the Croatian language has the possibility to form the following types of lexical collocations: verb + noun (*tražiti pravdu*), adjective + noun (*mladi krumpir*), noun + verb (*pas laje*), noun + noun (*prstohvat soli*), adverb + adjective (*smrtno ranjen*) and adverb + verb (*oštro kritizirati*). According to Petrović (2007, as cited in Košuta, 2012) the most common types of collocations in the Croatian language are adjective + noun, verb + noun and adverb + verb. When it comes to the English language, the possible lexical collocation combinations are as follows (Benson, Benson & Ilson, 1997): verb + noun (*write a letter*), adjective + noun (*hard book*), noun + verb (*bees buzz*), adverb + adjective (*deeply* *moved*), verb + adverb (*argue heatedly*) and noun-of-noun (*a pack of dogs*). Corpas Pastor (1995, 1996, as cited by Mendoza Rivera, Mitkov & Corpas Pastor, 2018) identified another type of collocations, namely the verb – preposition – noun combination (*take into consideration, jump to a conclusion*). Since in the general language, as well as in the language for special purposes (LSP) "adjectives, modifying, modulating or elaborating the meaning of nouns, play a relevant role in discourse" (Pierini, 2006, p.94), this study was concentrated on finding collocations and their strength or typicality in a context and on comparatively analysing the adjective-noun collocations in the aforementioned brochures.

In terms of collocations translation, it is important to find out what is the type of congruence among collocations of the source and target language. Numerous authors write about full, partial or zero congruence (a division applied in this study as well), or simply about congruent and non-congruent collocations (Marton, 1977; Bahns, 1993; Nesselhauf, 2003; Mustapić & Malenica, 2013; Blažević & Košuta, 2016; Alharbi, 2017; Hashemi & Eskandari, 2017), defining congruent collocations as those which are formed by identical or near-identical lexemes in L1 and L2, whereas non-congruent collocations contain lexemes which are not direct equivalents in the two analysed languages. According to Mustapić and Malenica (2013), for a collocation to be congruent, it should sound sufficiently natural, in both the source and target language. "Among the lexical problems of language learners, collocational errors are the most frequent, they are the most salient markers of non-nativeness" (Kiss & Horvàth, 2015, p.167). Being afraid of making mistakes, second language learners tend to use collocations which are congruent in L1 and L2. Word combinations containing a more abstract or unfamiliar word usually show partial or zero congruence. The aforementioned studies also show that the influence of L1 on the translation and use of L2 collocations represents the most serious problem, and that students/translators rely on the 'hypothesis of transferability' (Bahns, 1993, p. 61) in their effort to produce correct L2 collocations.

3 Empirical research

3.1 Research aims

Regarding the importance of advertising for the tourist industry, and bearing in mind that adjectives are words describing nouns (and in the touristic sense these would be destinations, services, offers, gastronomy, etc.), the first aim was to examine collocation strength or typicality (the level to which the appearance of a certain word makes another word more probable to be found nearby) of adjective-noun collocations in tourist advertising brochures about Istria which can be found on the official web-page of the Croatian Tourist Board using the Log Dice score and to compare it to the strength of the same collocation in a general language corpus. It was assumed that the Log Dice score for the analysed collocations would be higher in the tourist brochures because of their typicality in the given context. On the other hand, they would be less typical in a general language context. The second aim of this research was to contrastively analyse the aforementioned collocations. The source language was Croatian, and the aim was to determine the translations of the found collocations into the English language, as well as to find out how collocations were translated and thus define them as fully or partially congruent, or not congruent at all. If the adjective is taken as the collocate and the noun it describes as the base, the research assumed that most collocations in the English language would be direct translation equivalents of the Croatian collocations, i.e. they would be fully congruent.

3.2 Methodology

The corpus-based approach in the study of collocations related to the tourism discourse has been a common method in recent times (Gerbig & Shek, 2007; Pierini, 2009; Kiss & Horvàth, 2015; Blažević & Košuta, 2016). As found by these authors, the corpus method is extremely applicable in the study of vocabulary and its subsequent use for various purposes such as language learning and grammar or dictionary compilation. For the purpose of this research, a total of 12 brochures found on the official web-page of the Croatian Tourist Board were downloaded, and then their parts regarding the Istria region were singled out. The research was conducted in a few steps. After the texts of the brochures in both Croatian and English were transformed in text form (cleared of pictures and other metadata called 'noise' (Fletcher, 2004, as cited by Pierini, 2006), they were uploaded to the concordancing tool *Sketch Engine*. A corpus of 24,982 tokens was created. After the corpus was compiled, the most frequently used nouns were extracted from the corpus and their function as the collocation base was analysed. Next, the adjective-noun combinations were also extracted and they represented the collocations to be analysed. Regarding the first aim of this research – the analysis of collocation strength – all the nouns in the Croatian language brochures which were singled out as the collocation base were analysed by the *Word Sketch* tool in *Sketch Engine*. It offers the possibility to analyse the collocation strength using the Log Dice statistic measure which is usually employed to test collocation typicality. The typicality of the found collocations was then compared to their typicality in the hrWaC corpus.

The Croatian corpus was then compared to the English in order to find the translation of the collocations under study. Although this could be seen as a small corpus, when the abundance of adjectives typically used to describe tourist destinations is considered, the findings in it can reflect the situation in the language of tourism in general. In the end, what was considered was the level of congruence between a Croatian collocation and its translation in English.

3.3 Results

3.3.1 The nouns

The first step in the analysis was to find the most frequently used nouns in the Croatian corpus. It produced a total of 1,399 nouns. The list was then cleared of all proper nouns (locations, wine varieties, wine growers, companies and local Istrian words which could not be translated into English) and unadapted loanwords. The list was narrowed down to 1,135 nouns. Only those occurring in the Croatian corpus ten times or more, namely 48 nouns, were considered for analysis. In this part of the analysis it was considered interesting to compare their frequency with the frequency of these nouns in a general language corpus. For this purpose, the hrWaC corpus (available online on the site http://nlp.ffzg.hr/resources/corpora/hrwac/ as well as on *Sketch Engine*) was used as the reference corpus. It consists of 1,397,757,548 tokens extracted from texts taken from the web (the .hr domain) which is a good source of texts belonging to different styles and registers. Table 1 shows these nouns and the frequency of their occurrence in the Croatian language brochures compared to the frequency of their occurrence in the hrWaC corpus.

Table 1: Collocation bases and their frequency in the Croatian language brochures compared to their frequency in the hrWaC corpus

Noun	Croatian language brochures			hrWaC	
	f	%		f	%
Vino	54	0.47		125,499	0.008
Grad	49	0.43		1,131,889	0.08
Obala	38	0.33		109,437	0.007
Ponuda	34	0.3		251,306	0.02
Gradić	34	0.3		22,407	0.001
Stoljeće	29	0.3		217,284	0.01
Tartuf	29	0.25		4,778	0.0003
Poluotok	28	0.24		18,232	0.001
Godina	28	0.24		4,076,110	**0.29**
More	27	0.24		272,473	0.02
Sorta	24	0.21		21,413	0.001
Unutrašnjost	23	0.2		37,549	0.002
Dio	22	0.19		1,267,701	**0.9**
Zemlja	21	0.18		875,667	0.06
Park	21	0.18		118,788	0.008
Ulje	20	0.17		152,259	0.01
Mjesto	20	0.17		1,194,473	0.08
Svijet	19	0.17		882,602	0.06
Regija	17	0.15		125,617	0.008
Staza	17	0.15		124,961	0.008
Priroda	17	0.15		179,837	0.01
Vrh	15	0.13		182,352	0.01
Gastronomija	15	0.13		4,936	0.0003
Šuma	15	0.13		92,734	0.006
Jaje	15	0.13		61,825	0.004
Otok	14	0.12		182,917	0.01
Ljepota	14	0.12		86,669	0.006
Povijest	13	0.11		274,843	0.02
Uvala	13	0.11		22,763	0.002
Posjetitelj	13	0.11		99,021	0.007
Amfiteatar	13	0.11		3,018	0.0002
Zaljev	12	0.1		22,773	0.002
Turizam	12	0.1		118,506	0.008
Odmor	12	0.1		105,931	0.007
Rijeka	12	0.1		20,971	0.001
Blizina	12	0.1		96,166	0.007
Područje	12	0.1		621,201	0.04
Gost	11	0.09		242,769	0.02
Dan	11	0.09		2,151,333	**0.15**
Ruta	11	0.09		17,243	0.001

Noun	Croatian language brochures			hrWaC	
	f	%		f	%
Odredište	11	0.09		22,270	0.001
Vrijeme	11	0.09		1,726,714	**0.12**
Put	10	0.08		1,570,603	**0.11**
Broj	10	0.08		838,099	0.06
Selo	10	0.08		166,839	0.01
Hotel	10	0.08		191,544	0.01
Brežuljak	10	0.08		7,035	0.0005
Kuhinja	10	0.08		3,665	0.0002

Source: Sketch Engine and http://nlp.ffzg.hr/resources/corpora/hrwac/

It has to be emphasized that in the analysis of the hrWaC corpus the words *rijeka* and *kuhinja* caused difficulties linked to their polysemy. The word *rijeka* has two meanings – 'river' and 'name of a Croatian city' – but in finding only the first meaning the problem was easily solved by extracting only those nouns starting with the lower case. The situation with the polysemy of the word *kuhinja* – meaning 'a room in the house,' 'the furniture in such a room,' and 'cuisine' – was harder to solve because there were 76,481 occurrences of the word. To get the most reliable result possible, the collocations with the node *kuhinja* (*građanska, pučka, tradicionalna, domaća, visoka*) were extracted from the Croatian brochures and exactly these collocations were searched for in the hrWaC corpus which gave, as can be seen in the table, the result of 3,665 occurrences or 0.0002% of the corpus (*građanska kuhinja* occurs 20 times, *pučka kuhinja* 2,593 times, *tradicionalna kuhinja* 356 times, *domaća kuhinja* 696 times, whereas the collocation *visoka kuhinja* was not found).

The most frequently occurring noun in the Croatian language brochures was *vino* (*wine*), and it occurred 54 times. However, the collocation base which produced the largest number of collocations, but occurred 34 times in the Croatian corpus, was the noun *ponuda* (*offer*) and it formed a total of 23 collocations. Regarding the fact that proper nouns found in the analysed brochures, and expected to be the most frequent, were omitted from analysis (such as Istria, Croatia, and various other toponyms), words such as *vino, ulje, tartuf, more, poluotok, ponuda,* etc. were expected to be in the frequency list since they are all semantically linked to the Mediterranean and its geographical characteristics.

3.3.2 Collocations typicality

The next step employed the use of the *Word Sketch* tool in *Sketch Engine* by which the most common adjective-noun collocations were extracted for the Croatian language. After checking the obtained collocations in their context (to find whether *Sketch Engine* made some mistakes in their extraction due to syntactic reasons), and omitting those for which the collocate was a proper noun (e.g. *istarski poluotok, francuska kuhinja*), the total number of collocations in the Croatian language was 257. Although some collocations were found in the text as not only binary structures, but multi-word units consisting of more than two elements (for instance, *ekstra djevičansko maslinovo ulje – extra virgin olive oil*), which is usually done to economise the use of vocabulary, for the purpose of this study, they were separated into binary units.

Further, the analysis of collocations comprised an insight into the typicality of their co-occurrence. Namely, the aim was to find the most typical collocator to each collocation base in the Croatian language brochures and compare their strength to the same collocation's strength in a general language corpus, namely the hrWaC (Table 5). The strength of English brochure collocations was not analysed because in this paper they were solely studied as translations of the Croatian collocations. For that purpose, the Log Dice score was used. It is a statistic measure of typicality based on the co-occurrence of the base and the collocate. Log Dice is standardised and fixed at its maximum value of 14 which makes it easy to interpret (the closer the value to 14, the more typical the collocation) and its results can be compared across corpora, irrespective of their size.

Table 2: Strength of the Croatian language brochures collocations compared to their strength in a general language corpus (hrWaC)

Croatian collocation	Brochure Log Dice	hrWaC Log Dice
Desertno vino	**12.0**	**8.0**
Antički grad	**11.2**	**6.0**
Istočna obala	**12.4**	**10.2**
Bogata ponuda	**11.2**	**9.4**
Srednjovjekovni gradić	**12.0**	**8.3**
Prošlo stoljeće	**13.8**	**11.1**
Bijel tartuf	**12.9**	**6.7**
Cijeli poluotok	**12.0**	**3.7**
Cijela godina	**12.1**	**8.7**
Kristalno more	**12.4**	**7.4**

Croatian collocation	Brochure Log Dice	hrWaC Log Dice
Autohtona sorta	**11.5**	**10.7**
Zelena unutrašnjost	**12.5**	**/**
Vršni/donji/razveden/bitan/zapušten/unutarnji/jugoistočni dio	**11.0**	**Vršni /; Donji 9.3; razveden /; bitan 7.2; zapušten /; unutarnji 5.7; jugoistočni 5.9**
Crvena/plodna zemlja	**11.9**	**Plodna 7.0;**
Nacionalni park	**13.6**	**10.6**
Maslinovo ulje	**13.5**	**12.8**
Romantično mjesto	**11.4**	**/**
Vanjski svijet	**13.0**	**8.6**
Uspješna regija	**11.0**	**/**
Biciklistička staza	**12.5**	**11.1**
Netaknuta priroda	**13.3**	**10.6**
Sam vrh	**12.8**	**9.6**
Tradicionalna gastronomija	**11.4**	**4.2**
Glasovita šuma	**11.8**	**/**
Domaće jaje	**12.6**	**4.2**
Obližnji otok	**12.1**	**7.9**
Prirodna ljepota	**13.0**	**10.0**
Bogata povijest	**12.5**	**8.9**
Skrovita uvala	**12.2**	**8.1**
Odvažan posjetitelj	**13.4**	**/**
Očuvan amfiteatar	**11.5**	**6.9**
Zmijolik zaljev	**12.3**	**/**
Obalni turizam	**12.4**	**4.6**
Aktivni odmor	**13.1**	**9.0**
Podzemna rijeka	**14.0**	**6.7**
Neposredna blizina	**14.0**	**13.0**
Nastanjeno/vinorodno područje	**11.2**	**Nastanjeno /; vinorodno 5.4**
Zahtjevan gost	**13.0**	**6.8**
Bistar/vedar dan	**12.7**	**Bistar /; vedar 5.1**
Nautička/biciklistička ruta	**11.8**	**Nautička 4.4 ; biciklistička 9.4**
Idealno odredište	**12.3**	**6.3**
Loše vrijeme	**12.0**	**7.8**
Plovidbeni/dišni put	**12.2**	**Plovidbeni / ; dišni 9.2**
Nemali broj	**12.0**	**7.5**
Slikovito selo	**12.0**	**5.8**
Luksuzan hotel	**12.4**	**10.6**
Visok brežuljak	**11.2**	**2.0**
Građanska kuhinja	**12.0**	**3.5**

Source: Sketch Engine

As expected, the Log Dice scores for the collocations given in Table 5 were lower in the hrWaC corpus than in the Croatian language brochures. This speaks in favour of the typicality of these collocations being higher in the touristic context than in a general language one. The linguistic setting is of crucial importance when it comes to the expectancy (i.e. frequency) of a word, or word combination, occurrence. This was confirmed by Gablasova, Brezina and McEnery (2017, p.167): "…variation in collocational strength due to linguistic setting should also be expected…" The comparison of the Log Dice scores in the two corpora shows that most of the collocations which are typical for the Croatian brochures can be considered typical in the hrWaC corpus as well (although, less typical). However, there is a number of them showing a great discrepancy (*cijeli poluotok, tradicionalna gastronomija, domaće jaje, obalni turizam, nautička ruta, visok brežuljak, građanska kuhinja*), and some which could not be found in a general language corpus like the HrWaC (*zelena unutrašnjost, vršni/razveden/zapušten dio, romantično mjesto, uspješna regija, glasovita šuma, odvažan posjetitelj, zmijolik zaljev, nastanjeno područje, bistar dan, plovidbeni put*). Such collocations can be considered typical and truly typical collocations for the language of tourism found in the Croatian language brochures.

3.3.3 Translation analysis

Concerning the translations of the nouns into English, it could be immediately noticed that one Croatian noun could be translated with more than one English noun which shows the difficulty that learners of English could face in accumulating the vocabulary necessary for more proficient communication. For instance, the Croatian word *grad* was translated as *town* and *city*; *obala* was translated as *coastline, coast, shore,* even *cliff*; *vrh* was translated as *peak* and *summit*; *šuma* became *woodland* and *forest*; *uvala* was translated as *cove* and *bay*; *unutrašnjost* became *hinterland* and *interior*; *mjesto* was a *place, town* and *location*; *staza* was translated as *route, trail*, *path* and *footpath*; *odmor* became a *holiday* and *vacation*; *područje* was translated as *area* and *region*.

All the collocations were marked in the original text and by conducting a comparative analysis, the translations of the previously determined collocations were also found and marked. Omitting those which had not been translated in any way (or whose translation was avoided), there were 260 possible collocations in English. However, when the collocations which were paraphrased or not translated at all are considered, the number of possible solutions in the English brochures rises to 276.

When collocational congruence is considered, most collocations and their translations show full congruence. More precisely, there were 195 collocations which were lexically and semantically congruent (e.g. *tradicionalna kuhinja – traditional cuisine, odabrani broj – chosen number, nautička ruta – nautical route; vedar dan – bright day, zahtjevan gost – demanding guest*). Since the number of obtained fully congruent collocations is large, Table 2 shows the Croatian collocations for the most productive base (*ponuda*) and their translations in English.

Table 3: List of Croatian collocations for the most productive base (*ponuda*) and their translations in English.

Croatian collocation	Translation in English
Bogata ponuda	Copious attractions; abundance of services; extensive facilities; rich (cultural) events; once without translation
Turistička ponuda	***Tourist offer; tourism offer***
Visokokvalitetna ponuda	Luxurious offer
Odlična ponuda	Excellent selection
Gastronomska ponuda	***Gastronomic offer***
Kulturna ponuda	Culture; cultural events
Agroturistička ponuda	Agro offer
Respektabilna ponuda	***Respectable offer***
Rekreacijska ponuda	Recreational facilities
Sveobuhvatna ponuda	***Comprehensive offer***
(Pomno) osmišljena ponuda	***Carefully-designed offer***
Zabavna ponuda	Entertainment programme
Razvijena ponuda	Wide range of services
Raskošna ponuda	***Luxurious offer***
Primjerena ponuda	***Exemplary offer***
Kongresna ponuda	***Congress offer***
Raznolika ponuda	Diverse attractions
Enološka ponuda	Delightful wines
Sportska ponuda	Sports facilities
Raznovrsna ponuda	Varied attractions
Izvrsna ponuda	***Outstanding offer***
Morska ponuda	***Marine offer***
Vrhunska ponuda	Exemplary offer

Source: own

It can be immediately noticed that of the 23 collocations formed with the most productive Croatian base *ponuda*, only 10 were fully congruent. However, the initial analysis showed that for all the Croatian collocations (N=257), there were 195 (75.87%) fully congruent English translations. The conclusion can be derived that the English translation of the Croatian brochures shows a high level of both accuracy and fluency (or collocational competence), and this is confirmed by the high percentage of fully congruent English collocations. The collocations presented in Table 1 which were not pointed out (bolded and italicised) belong to either the partially congruent or non-congruent group of collocations. Why the translators of the said brochures decided not to find fully congruent collocations in English can only be guessed.

Partial congruence was established in 49 cases. It should be further pointed out that the partiality was achieved in two ways: either the base remained the same (equivalent translation) and the collocate changed (*crno vino* was translated as *red wine*, not *black wine* (although it is correctly translated, it can be treated as partially congruent), *vrhunska ponuda – exemplary offer* instead of *top offer, zanimljiva povijest – specific history* instead of *interesting history, zavučen zaljev – indented bay* instead of *tucked-away bay*), or the base changed retaining the same collocate (for instance, *poznat grad – well-known area* instead of *well-known city*, *strma obala – steep cliff* instead of *steep coast/shore*, *kulturna ponuda – cultural events* instead of *cultural offer*, *zelen dio – green countryside* instead of *green part, poznata zemlja – well-known area* instead of *well-known land*).

When it comes to the notion of zero congruence, it was manifested in the brochures in four ways. First, collocations were translated with other collocations which had completely different lexemes used for both the collocate and the base, but in the given context, they retained the original meaning (e.g. *bogata ponuda* was never translated as *rich offer*, but as *copious attractions, abundant services, extensive facilities, wellness opportunities, neotkrivena obala* was translated as *hidden gem*, not as *undiscovered coast, enološka ponuda – delightful wines* instead of *enological offer*). Sometimes only the base could be found while the collocate was missing (*uređena staza – footpath* instead of *landscaped footpath, razvijen grad – city* instead of *developed city, turističko mjesto – town* instead of *tourist town*), sometimes, on the other hand, only the collocate (*vršni dio – top* instead of *top part*). Another interesting feature of the collocation translations which could be regularly found in the analysed brochures is that the Croatian collocations were often not translated with collocations but paraphrased (*maslinarska* *regija, maslinarsko područje, cijeli svijet, davni dan, novo vrijeme*). In the end, there were collocations which were not translated at all (*nekadašnji grad, pejsažni park, osebujan poluotok, plovidbeni put, registriran tartuf*). A similar finding was reached by Marton in 1977. He gave his advanced-level students a Polish text and their task was to translate it into English. The purpose of the test was to "elicit about twenty English conventional syntagms" and the results showed that students constructed grammatically correct expressions, but failed to sound natural. Those students, like the translators in this study, used different production strategies, most commonly avoidance, overgeneralisation and circumlocution.

What follows is the presentation of the translation context in cases when the translation of collocations was either paraphrased or avoided (Table 3 and Table 4).

Table 4: The context in cases when Croatian collocations were paraphrased in English

Collocation in the Croatian language with suggested congruent collocation	Solution in the English language - paraphrasing
Maslinarska regija – olive-growing region	*It is known as an area that produces outstanding olive oil and wine.*
Maslinarsko područje – olive-growing area	*The towns of Buje and Brtonigla are the centres of this famous area known for wines and olive cultivation.*
Cijeli svijet – the whole world	*…from around the world.*
Davni dan – long ago	*…this is why it has long been a popular stop for travellers.*
Novo vrijeme – recent times	*…recently becoming populated…*

Source: own

Table 5: The context in cases when the translation of Croatian collocations was avoided

Collocation in the Croatian language with suggested congruent collocation	Solution in the English language – not translated
Nekadašnji grad – former city	*Find out why Dvigrad simply disappeared from the face of the earth in the 17th century.*
Pejsažni park – landscape park	*Brijuni are renowned for its indented nature and the unspoiled Mediterranean vegetation,…*
Osebujan poluotok – peculiar peninsula	*The island interior features miniature fairytale locations and green hilly scenery…*
Plovidbeni put - fairway	Ø
Registriran tartuf – registered truffle	*The largest white truffle ever found…*

Source: own

It is interesting to notice that *osebujan poluotok* was translated as *island*, while in the case of *plovidbeni put*, the translator omitted the whole sentence. Both mistakes were probably unintentional.

4 Conclusion and further implications

"As a recurring phraseological phenomenon, collocations represent one of the most important aspects of LSP" (Mustapić & Malenica, 2013, p. 207). In terms of typicality, the collocations analysed in this research proved to be more typical in the tourist brochures than in the general language context confirming the thesis that the linguistic context plays a major role in the choice of vocabulary.

In their acquisition it is important to consider the level of congruence between a collocation in the source and target language. As this study shows, the largest number of Croatian to English collocations are fully congruent, and this is typical for all those frequently used. This confirms the understanding that congruent colocations are easier to learn, while special attention should be paid to teaching the non-congruent ones. The brochures analysed in this study were translated by, hopefully, professional translators who had mastered collocations as part of their higher (linguistic) education and this is why more than 75% of the collocations were correctly translated. However, whenever they were not sure about a collocation, and being aware of the possibility to sound unnatural, translators (and this can be reflected in second language learners) used different techniques to translate or even avoid the translation of collocations thus making them fall into the group of non-congruent ones.

Considering the importance of overall communication in all the fields of the tourism industry aiming at satisfied customers, it is obvious that attention should be paid to teaching collocations for better fluency and accuracy. It is necessary to expose second language learners to texts where collocations are used substantially so that the input they receive makes them acquire the foreign language in a more natural way. However, as learning them requires considerable mental effort, they should be consciously learned, memorised and reused in various contexts. Another important thing is to teach collocations as units, not as individual words, thus aiming at the prevention of mistakes occurring due to the influence L1 has on L2. Cross-linguistic comparisons can be a good starting point in the acquisition and proper use of collocations in a foreign language, and translation analyses similar to the present one can be a good basis for the identification of linguistic elements disrupting the natural communication between speakers of two different mother tongues using one of them as a common language.

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Slowenisch-deutsche Online-Speisekarten als Fundgrube für translatorische Fehler und Missverständnisse

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Zusammenfassung Die internationale und mehrsprachige Kommunikation im Tourismus ist eine Herausforderung für jede touristische Destination und erfordert qualifizierte Übersetzer, damit Städte, Hotels, Restaurants oder Gasthäuser ausländischen Touristen bestimmte Informationen verständlich präsentieren können. Das Übersetzen von Speisekarten ist für jeden Übersetzer eine anspruchsvolle Aufgabe, da man die gastronomischen und kulturspezifischen Besonderheiten der Ausgangs- und Zielsprache kennen muss, obwohl man in der Öffentlichkeit meint, dass jeder, der eine Fremdsprache spricht, auch übersetzen kann. Die Autorinnen versuchen anhand von ausgewählten Beispielen slowenisch-deutscher Speisekarten auf die Mängel der Übersetzungsqualität aufmerksam zu machen. Dabei wurden vier Ebenen analysiert: Grammatik, Stilistik, Rechtschreibung und Kulturspezifik. Der empirische Teil der Untersuchung bezieht sich auf ein Korpus von 12 analysierten slowenisch-deutschen Speisekarten und wird theoretisch durch die Skopostheorie von Reiß und Vermeer (1984) untermauert. Die Speisekartenanalyse zeigte, dass die Texte meistens von anonymen und unprofessionellen Übersetzern mit geringen Mutter- und Fremdsprachenkenntnissen und mangelhafter translatorischen Kompetenz übersetzt wurden, was zu Missverständnissen und auch zum Spott bei deutschsprachigen Gästen führen kann.

Schlüsselwörter:
Übersetzen, slowenisch-deutsche Speisekarten, Skopos Theorie, Kultureme, translatorische Kompetenz

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SLOVENE-GERMAN ONLINE MENUS AS A TREASURY FOR TRANSLATORS' MISTAKES AND MISUNDERSTANDINGS

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Abstract International and multilingual communication in tourism is a challenge for every tourist destination and requires qualified translators, so that cities, hotels, restaurants or inns can convey information to foreign tourists in a clear manner. Translating menus is a demanding task for every translator who needs to be familiar with gastronomic and also culture-specific characteristics of the source and target languages, although it is a common belief that anyone who speaks a foreign language can also translate, The authors draw attention to lack of quality of such translations by using selected examples from Slovene and German menus which are analyzed on four different levels: grammar, style, spelling and cultural specifications. The empirical part of the study refers to a corpus of 12 Slovene-German menus and it is theoretically supported by the scopos theory of Reiss and Vermeer (1984). The results of the analysis demonstrated that the texts were mostly translated by anonymous and unprofessional translators with poor knowledge of their mother tongue, foreign languages and insufficient translational competence, which could cause misunderstandings, and confusion among German-speaking guests.

Keywords: translation, Slovene-German menus, Skopos theory, cultureme, translational competence

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1 Einleitung

„Liebe geht durch den Magen", ist ein bekanntes slowenisches, aber auch deutsches Sprichwort, das sich dem Essen und vorzüglichen kulinarischen Spezialitäten als auch Getränken in Verbindung mit Glücksgefühlen und positiven Emotionen widmet. Diese bekannte Redewendung trifft besonders auf den Bereich Tourismus und Gastronomie zu, denn Touristen und Reisende möchten im Urlaub neben Besichtigungen und Erlebnissen auch durch autochthone und inspirierende Speisen verwöhnt und überrascht werden. Deswegen sind entsprechend formulierte und übersetzte Speisekarten von großer Bedeutung, denn sie können Gäste zum Besuch eines Gasthauses oder Restaurants motivieren oder aber davon abhalten. (vgl. Kučiš/Begonja 2020) Deswegen ist die Erstellung einer Speisekarte oder einer Menükarte wesentlich mehr als nur eine Auflistung des Speisenangebots und die Angabe der Preise, denn sie ist die Visitenkarte jedes Gasthauses oder Restaurants. Sie dient den Gästen als Speisenberater, Appetitanreger, manchmal auch als Verführer. Die Qualität der Küche wird durch eine entsprechend übersetzte Speisekarte zusätzlich unterstrichen. Deshalb ist es wichtig, dass man der Gestaltung einer vielsprachigen Speisekarte viel Aufmerksamkeit schenkt, denn die Esskultur jeden Landes ist eine besondere Welt, die eine korrekte und motivierende Übersetzung verlangt. Kein Wunder also, dass Vieles von dem sprachlichen und translatorischen Know-how des Übersetzers abhängt. So trocken die deutsche Sprache zuweilen klingen mag, so poetisch kann sie klingen, wenn es sich um verschiedene Speisen und Getränke handelt. Schon das Blättern in einem deutschsprachigen Koch- oder Rezeptebuch macht es deutlich, wie vielfältig die Sprache in Bezug auf Essen, Trinken und Spezialitäten sein kann.

Slowenien gehört zu den beliebtesten europäischen touristischen Destinationen, da hier jährlich mehr als 70 % aller Übernachtungen von ausländischen Gästen realisiert werden (vgl. STO 2020). Neben italienischen Touristen nehmen unter den fremdsprachigen Gästen auch deutschsprachige Besucher eine bedeutende Stelle ein, da sie in der Struktur der fremdsprachigen Gäste mit ca. 25 % vertreten sind. Die Gastronomie gehört zu den Hauptprodukten des slowenischen Tourismus, die wesentlich zur Verwirklichung der Ziele der slowenischen Tourismusstrategie beiträgt, denn mit erstklassigen und innovativen gastronomischen Erlebnissen möchte man Gäste ansprechen, die autochthone Spezialitäten auf der Speisekarte suchen. Im Jahr 2020 erhielt Slowenien die renommierte Auszeichnung „Nation des

Jahres“ (https://www.foodandtravelitalia.it/awards-2020/) der international anerkannten Fachzeitschrift *Food and Travel Magazine Italia* für ausgezeichnete und besondere Leistungen auf dem Gebiet der Gastronomie und Kulinarik. Diese internationale Anerkennung erhielten die berühmte Küchenchefin und Restaurantbesitzerin Ana Roš und die Winzer Simčič (Senior und Junior) aus der Region Primorska. Damit beweist Slowenien, dass es eine interessante Reisedestination ist, und zwar nicht nur für Naturliebhaber, sondern auch für erstklassige gastronomische Erlebnisse. Die neuesten Untersuchungen der Slowenischen Tourismusorganisation zeigen, dass die meisten slowenischen Gasthäuser von Gaumenliebhabern aus Italien, Österreich und Deutschland besucht werden (vgl. STO 2020).

Obwohl wir Zeugen eines Versuchs der Homogenisierung des touristischen Weltmarktes durch die englische Sprache als Lingua-Franca sind, können die gewünschten Resultate einer Tourismuswerbung erst durch eine sog. Glokalisierung erzielt werden, nach dem Moto: „Think global, act local“. Versteht man die Übersetzung in der Gastronomie als grenzüberschreitende und strategische Kommunikation, dann hat die Translation nicht nur die Funktion, beim Adressaten informative und sachbezogene Vorstellungen zu erzeugen, sondern auch eine bestimmte Stimmung und Reisemotivation hervorzurufen, indem Gedanken, Gefühle, Wissen und Werte übermittelt werden, da jede Kommunikations- bzw. Translationskultur durch eine Etablierung und die Beschaffenheit der Emotionen gekennzeichnet ist. Gutes Essen und erlesene Weine können positive Gedanken und Erinnerungen hervorrufen, die dazu beitragen, dass der Gast immer wieder zurückkehrt.

Beim Übersetzen von Speisekarten und Menükarten sollte der Übersetzer zunächst versuchen zu verstehen, wie das Gericht zubereitet wird, um über eine geeignete Beschreibung nachzudenken und die richtigen Wörter zu finden. Dabei soll man die Perspektive des fremdsprachigen Lesers berücksichtigen.

Auch wenn einige Restaurant- und Gasthausbesitzer die übersetzten Speisekarten nicht als besonders wichtig betrachten, ist eine tadellos übersetzte und verständliche Speisekarte ein Aushängeschild jeder Gaststätte. Außerdem muss man sich vorstellen, wenn dem Gast der Magen knurrt und man sucht nach einem Restaurant im Ausland, dann bevorzugt man ein Gasthaus, in dem man die Speisekarte lesen und verstehen kann, denn heute möchte jeder wissen, was man serviert bekommen wird. Aus diesem Grund ist es wichtig, dass Reisende und Touristen aus anderen Ländern, die eine andere Sprache sprechen, in unserem Falle handelt es sich um deutschsprachige Gäste, die angebotenen Gerichte und Getränke in der Speisekarte lesen und verstehen können.

Laut Lipavic-Oštir (2013) ist es bekannt, dass der Zugang zu einer Kultur und der Kulturaustausch durch Übersetzungen ermöglicht wird. Auch Kaloh Vid behauptet „the more that gets lost in the translation, the better the chances that the readers' interpretative abilities will be limited."[40] (2020: 6) Deswegen wird in der einschlägigen wissenschaftlichen Literatur das Übersetzen als kreatives, kommunikatives, ethisches, professionelles und transkulturelles Handeln definiert, das sich innerhalb unterschiedlicher Translationskulturen realisiert und zur Herstellung eines auf den Rezipienten angepassten und funktionalen Informationsdesigns dient (vgl. Reiß/Veermer 1984). Zwar ist zu betonen, dass die Translation den Kontext des Originaltextes und nicht die Ansichten, Emotionen und Meinungen des Übersetzers widerspiegeln soll, doch fest steht auch, dass die Übersetzer nur das übersetzen können, was sie selbst verstanden, gefühlt oder erlebt und kognitiv verarbeitet haben. Beim Übersetzen von Speisekarten stehen Ausdrucksmöglichkeiten zur Wahl, die vor allem durch eine appellative Dimension charakterisiert sind, was beim Rezipienten zu einer – durch kulturspezifische Lexeme ausgelösten – gefühlsmäßigen Reaktion führt und schließlich in der Bestellung der Speise oder einer Spezialität resultieren soll. Dass die Kreativität in der Gastronomie eine bedeutende Rolle spielt, beweist auch dieser Spruch auf der einzigartig formulierten Speisekarte: „Essen Sie bei uns, sonst verhungern wir beide." Im Beitrag werden die theoretischen Ansätze mit konkreten Beispielen von slowenisch-deutschen Speisekarten untermauert, wobei sprachliche Realisierungsmöglichkeiten und deren Übersetzungsstrategien vorgestellt und analysiert werden.

[40] Je mehr in der Übersetzung verloren geht, desto größer sind die Chancen, dass die interpretativen Fähigkeiten der Leser eingeschränkt werden.

2 Theoretische Einbettung

Zweifellos sind bei der Translation adäquate Sprachkenntnisse erforderlich, sozusagen Grundvoraussetzung, doch nicht minder wichtig ist kulturelles Wissen und der Umgang mit Kulturemen, die für jede Speisekarte charakteristisch sind.

Unter dem Begriff Kulturem (vgl. Oksaar 1988) versteht man eine linguistische Einheit, die in einem geografisch abgegrenzten Gebiet und einer Gesellschaft spezifisch ist. Zu Recht betonen Vermeer und Witte (1990: 137): „Ein Kulturem ist nach unserer Definition also ein Phänomen aus einer Gesellschaft, das von jemandem als relevantes Kulturspezifikum angesehen wird." Auch Koller (2004: 59) hebt die kulturelle Dimension der Translation hervor, indem er behauptet, „Übersetzung ist – in einem weiteren Sinne – immer Kulturarbeit, in einem engeren Sinne Spracharbeit: Arbeit mit der anderen und an der eigenen Kultur, Arbeit mit und an der eigenen Sprache." Reiß und Vermeer (1991: 96) fügen hinzu: „Die Dominante aller Translation ist deren Zweck." Für den Übersetzer bedeutet das, eine angemessene Kommunikations- bzw. Übersetzungsstrategie finden zu müssen. Der Übersetzer kann beispielsweise bemerken, dass eine bestimmte Formulierung von Speisen, Getränken oder einheimischen Spezialitäten aus kulturspezifischen Gründen im Zieltext nicht beibehalten werden kann und eine Adaption oder zusätzliche Erklärung benötigt. (vgl. Kučiš/Begonja 2020)

Demnach ist Translation als komplexer, gesellschaftlich gesteuerter, sozio-kognitiver Entscheidungsprozess und kontinuierlicher interaktiver Prozess zu verstehen, in dem der Translator in seiner Rolle als Kommunikator versucht, seinen Kommunikationspartner dahin zu bringen, die vorgeschlagenen Speisen und Getränke zu akzeptieren, und damit auf seine Konsumgewohnheiten einzuwirken. In unserem Falle soll ein deutschsprachiger Gast ein typisch slowenisches Gericht bestellen und genießen.

Die Interpretation und Translation von Speisekarten und Menükarten erfordert nicht nur eine vorzügliche Kenntnis der Sprache, sondern vielmehr auch eine Vertrautheit mit der materiellen, sozialen und geistigen Kultur, innerhalb derer sie entstanden sind. Doch mitunter ist die translatorische Kompetenz des Translators, d. h. seine sprachliche, außersprachliche und professionelle Kompetenz für die Produktion eines adäquaten Textes nicht ausreichend. Diese Mängel können durch

Hilfsmittel behoben werden, wobei zweisprachige Wörterbücher und ähnliche Nachschlagewerke selten hilfreich sind. Viel nützlicher ist es, Paralleltexte heranzuziehen, anhand derer sich die Eigenschaften des Textes identifizieren und adäquat transferieren lassen. Die Mitteilung einer Speisekarte bleibt normalerweise in Ausgangs- und Zielsprache gleich, da sich ihre Textfunktion nicht ändert. Die Erhaltung der Textfunktion ist aber vor allem kulturspezifisch bedingt. Für den transkulturellen Transfer aus der Ausgangssprache in die Zielsprache muss der Übersetzer wissen, auf welche Textsegmente man welche Übersetzungsmethoden und -techniken anwenden soll, wie z. B. wörtliche Übersetzung, kontextuelle Übersetzung, paraphrasierende Übersetzung, Auslassung bestimmter Elemente etc., um zu einem pragmatischen oder äquivalenten Gleichgewicht zwischen Ausgangs- und Zieltext zu gelangen. Was den Umgang mit und die Translation von Kulturspezifika betrifft, bieten sich dem Übersetzer grundsätzlich drei Möglichkeiten: Beibehaltung des Ausdrucks mit einer zusätzlichen Erklärung in der Fremdsprache, Neutralisierung oder Adaption des Kulturems (vgl. Oksaar 1988). Je nach Methode wird kulturelle Distanz geschaffen oder vermieden. Translatorisches Handeln bedeutet Produktion eines Textes als Informationsangebot in der Zielsprache über einen Text, der als Informationsangebot in der Ausgangssprache vorliegt, unter Berücksichtigung des Rezipienten (vgl. Holz-Mänttäri 1984). Vom Konsumenten des Übersetzungsprodukts geht auch Kußmaul als Anhänger der Skopostheorie aus, für den die übersetzerische Kompetenz durch die Wirkung, die der Translator mit seinem Zieltext beim Adressaten erzielt, gekennzeichnet ist, denn „Funktionalisten schauen auf den zielsprachlichen Empfänger“ (Kußmaul 2007: 63).

Laut Nord (2007) ist Voraussetzung bzw. Ausgangspunkt für eine Übersetzung in der Regel ein konkreter Bedarf an Kommunikation mit Anderssprachigen, der einen Auftraggeber überhaupt dazu bewegt, sich an einen Übersetzer zu wenden. Die Aufgabe des Übersetzers ist es, die gewünschte fremdsprachige und grenzüberschreitende Kommunikation durch eine professionelle Übersetzung zu ermöglichen (vgl. Kučiš 2016). Und an diesem Punkt beginnen meist die Probleme: Eine Speisekarte soll übersetzt werden, was sich als schwierig herausstellt, weil sie kulinarische und gastronomische Begriffe enthält, für die es in der Zielsprache eventuell keine Entsprechung bzw. Äquivalenz gibt. Die Aufgabe des Übersetzers ist es nämlich, „die Mitteilung eines schriftlichen Textes zu verstehen und sie in einer anderen Sprache funktionsgemäß wiederzugeben“ (Stolze 2001), wobei der Übersetzer die jeweilige Entscheidung über die Angemessenheit der Übersetzung selbst trifft und entsprechende Übersetzungsstrategien anwendet. Wie schon anfangs gesagt, ist Translation nicht nur eine linguistische, sondern vor allem eine kulturtransferierende Tätigkeit. Das wird besonders dann sichtbar, wenn Texte übersetzt werden, in denen sich die textsortenspezifischen Konventionen der Ausgangs- und Zielsprache voneinander unterscheiden. Bei der Translation von Speisekarten ist den zielsprachigen Konventionen Rechnung zu tragen, wobei die Textfunktion im Vordergrund steht, denn der übersetzte Text soll in zielsprachigen Situationen als Teil der Zielkultur funktionieren. In der multikulturellen Gesellschaft erweisen sich textsortenspezifische Konventionen meist als Übersetzungsproblem, doch der Übersetzer muss über eine adaptierende oder transferierende Übersetzungsmethode (Koller 2004: 60) verfügen, um die transkulturelle Kommunikation erfolgreich zu realisieren. Eine bedeutende Rolle spielt dabei der Äquivalenzstatus zwischen Ausgangs- und Zielkultur, und damit verbunden, die translatorische Kompetenz des Übersetzers. Hinsichtlich des ausgangssprachigen Textes stellen die Übersetzer mit Hilfe ihrer translatorischen Kompetenz (Rezeptions- und Produktionskompetenz) die textsortentypischen Charakteristika dieses Textes fest und ermitteln dadurch die Textsortenzugehörigkeit und somit die Funktion und die lexikalische Auswahl des Textes.

3 Empirische Untersuchung von slowenisch-deutschen Online-Speisekarten

Mit den MA-Studierenden der Abteilung für Translationswissenschaft wurden im Rahmen eines Seminars slowenisch-deutsche Tourismustexte mit dem Fokus auf Speise- und Menükarten untersucht. Dabei wurden anhand von Interferenz- und Äquivalenzprinzipien Übersetzungsprobleme definiert und verschiedene Übersetzungsverfahren analysiert.

Für diesen Beitrag wurden 12 slowenisch-deutsche Online-Speisekarten von verschiedenen Restaurants und Gasthäusern aus zwei slowenischen Regionen (Podravska und Gorenjska) herangezogen, die auf grammatische, stilistische, kulturspezifische und orthographische Fehler hin untersucht wurden. Auf diese Weise wurde versucht festzustellen, welche Fehlerstruktur in den ausgangssprachigen (Slowenisch) und zielsprachigen (Deutsch) Online-Speisekarten zu finden ist. In der Fehleranalyse werden primär translatorische, linguistischstilistische und kulturspezifische Aspekte mit Berücksichtigung der grammatischen und orthographischen Mängel vorgestellt.

4 Methodologie

Die empirische Untersuchung enthält eine translatorische Analyse deutscher Übersetzungen von Speisekarten aus den Regionen Podravska und Gorenjska. Die analysierten Speisekarten bilden das Online-Untersuchungskorpus, das auf den Websites von slowenischen Gaststätten und Restaurants gefunden wurde. Die Fehleranalyse wurde im Hinblick auf die grammatischen, stilistischen, orthographischen und kulturspezifischen Übersetzungsmängel durchgeführt. Ziel der Untersuchung war es, herauszufinden, ob die bekanntesten slowenischen Gaststätten Wert auf korrekt übersetzte Speisekarten legen. Dabei wurden vier Tabellen erstellt, in denen systematisch Fehler in den oben genannten Kategorien eingetragen wurden. Verschiedene gastronomische Online-Wörterbücher wie beispielsweise Langenscheidts Fachwörterbuch Gastronomie (2009), Duden - https://www.duden.de/rechtschreibung/online und deutschsprachige Paralleltexte bzw. Speisekarten wurden als Unterstützung bei der Untersuchung herangezogen. Neben Grammatik-, Rechtschreib- und stilistischen Fehlern wurde besonders den slowenischen gastronomischen Kulturemen Aufmerksamkeit gewidmet, da die ausgewählten Gasthäuser traditionelle und autochthone Spezialitäten anbieten. Dabei wurden auch Online-Rezepte und Kochbücher konsultiert. Beim Übersetzen kulturspezifischer Speisen wurde meistens das Paraphrasieren und die Umschreibung des Gerichtes als Übersetzungsstrategie angewendet. In den Tabellen wurden Beispiele der einzelnen Fehlerkategorien eingetragen und kommentiert. In der Rubrik Übersetzungsvorschlag versuchten die Autorinnen die kulturspezifischen Speisen dem potenziellen deutschsprachigen Gast so deutlich wie möglich zu erklären. Für die folgende Untersuchung wird kultureller Unterschied als eine traditionelle, geographische, politische, historische, soziale, rechtliche und sprachliche Andersartigkeit zweier Länder, insbesondere Sloweniens und Deutschlands, definiert.

4.1 Grammatische Fehler

Tabelle 1: Grammatische Fehler in den deutschen Übersetzungen von Speisekarten

Original	Übersetzung	Fehlertypologie	Überstezungs-vorschlag
Jajčne jedi (jedi iz jajc)	Speise aus Eirn	wortwörtliche Übersetzung (Kalk), falsch geschriebenes Wort	Eierspeisen
Sobe za goste	/, Zimmers	Auslassung des Wortes: *gosti,* nichtentsprechende Verwendung des Plurals beim Substantiv *Zimmer*	Gästezimmer
Šunka z jajci	Schinken mit Eier	Wortreihenfolge und wörtliche Übersetzung (Kalk)	Eier und Speck
Ražnjiči	Spieße vom Grill »Ražnjiči«	hinzugefügte Wörter: *vom Grill,* Verwendung der Buchstaben „č" und „ž"	Raznjici – gegrillte Fleischspieße
za 2 osebi	2 persone/2 persones	falscher Kasus und Kleinschriebung der Substantive	für zwei Personen
Popečena kranjska klobasa	Grill Krainer wurst	Anreihung der Substantive und Kleinschreibung des Substantivs „wurst"	Gegrillte Krainer Wurst

Die Analyse der grammatischen Fehler zeigte, dass man sowohl in der slowenischen Sprache als auch in der deutschen Übersetzung auf grammatische Mängel stößt, aber nicht in einem größeren Umfang. Nehmen wir als Beispiel das slowenische Original *jajčne jedi*, die man eigentlich nicht in dieser Form gebraucht, da man meistens *jedi iz jajc* in den Speisekarten findet. Bei der Übersetzung wurde das deutsche Wort *Eirn* falsch geschrieben und *Speise* im Singular angegeben, anstatt im Plural *Speisen.* Die Auslassung des Buchstabes –*e* beim Wort *Eiern* könnte man auf die Verwendung des maschinellen Übersetzungsprogramms wie beispielsweise *Google Translate* oder auf eine grammatikalisch problematische Aufzeichnung im Original zurückführen.

Unter den grammatischen Fehlern überwiegt die Verwendung der falschen Deklination, gefolgt von der unpassenden Verwendung des Plurals. Dies kann auf die unzureichenden grammatischen Kenntnisse des Übersetzers zurückzuführen sein, was darauf hinweist, dass die Gaststätte keinen professionellen Übersetzer bei der Übersetzung der Speisekarte engagiert hatte. Die Autorinnen überprüften auch, ob man bei der Übersetzung eventuell mit dem frei verfügbaren *Google Translate* gearbeitet hat. Zusammenfassend kann man feststellen, dass grammatische Fehler im Vergleich zu allen anderen Fehlerkategorien in den slowenischen Speisekarten nicht häufig sind, was auf zahlreiche verfügbare Online-Wörterbücher zurückzuführen ist.

4.2 Rechtschreibfehler

Tabelle 2: Rechtschreibfehler in den übersetzten Speisekarten

Original	Übersetzung	Fehlertypologie	Übersetzungs-vorschlag
Mešani narezek	Gemischte Aufschnite	Plural anstatt Singular „Aufschnitt“	Aufschnitt mit hausgemachten Wurstspezialitäten
Solatni krožnik s puranom	Salatteller mit Truthann	*Der Truthahn* = zoologisch *Die Pute* = gastronomisch	Salatteller mit Putenstreifen
Bograč	Spicy goulash	Großbuchstabe bei Substantiven und falsch geschriebenes Wort (*Gulasch*), hinzugefügtes englisches Wort (*Spicy*)	Bograč – eine dem Gulasch ähnliche Speise zubereitet aus drei verschiedenen Fleischsorten im Kesseltopf
Juha z mesom (govedina v juhi)	Rindsuppe mit Stük Rindfleisch	unpassendes hinzugefügtes und falsch geschriebenes Wort: »*mit Stück*«	Hausgemachte Rindsuppe mit Fleisch
Mošnjiček s krompirjem, kranjsko klobaso in gobicami	Holster mit Kartoffeln, kreiner wurst und Pilzen	Großschreibung der deutschen Substantive *(Wurst)*, falsche Übersetzung des Wortes »*mošnjiček*« → *das Holster* = pištolnica	Kartoffelbeutelchen mit einheimischer Krainer Wurst und Steinpilzen aus den naheliegenden Wäldern

Die Speisekarten sollen vor allem von Rechtschreibfehler frei sein, damit man nicht *Beafsteakscheißen mit Mozarella* anstatt *Beafsteakscheiben* bestellen muss oder anstatt *Kirschwasser* ein *Kirchwasser* (*Weihwasser*) trinken muss. Ein Tippfehler oder Auslassung einer Silbe kann die beste Küche ruinieren. Auch die angeführten Rechtschreibfehler in unserer Tabelle sind als Resultat des Vertippens zu betrachten. Die

Rechtschreibfehler können heute anhand von zahlreichen Online Rechtschreibnachschlagwerken (Duden, Wahrig) schnell behoben werden. Unter den deutschen Rechtschreibfehlern überwiegen in den slowenischen Speisekarten die falsche Verwendung der großen Anfangsbuchstaben bei Substantiven (in der slowenischen Sprache schreibt man Substantive klein) oder auch das Auslassen von Doppelbuchstaben, die man in der slowenischen Sprache nicht kennt. Es handelt sich also um Interferenzfehler.

Um dem Gast das Gericht möglichst schmackhaft zu präsentieren, bedienen sich die Gasthäuser und Restaurants immer häufiger innovativer Wortverbindungen, die ein besonderes gastronomisches Erlebnis und Flair herbeizaubern sollen. Dabei sollte man aber sehr vorsichtig sein, denn einige solche Versuche können leider auch sehr negativ enden, wie beispielsweise die Übersetzung des slowenischen Wortes *mošnjiček*, das ins Deutsche als *Holster* übersetzt wurde, was in slowenischer Sprache etwas ziemlich anderes bedeutet (pištolnica = ein Schutz für die Pistole). Dieses Beispiel enthält nicht nur einen Rechtschreibfehler, sondern auch einen wesentlichen semantischen Fehler, denn man meint einen Beutel mit Kartoffeln und nicht eine Pistole oder Gewehr. Unser Vorschlag lautet im Sinne des konsumorientierten Publikums: *Kartoffelbeutelchen mit einheimischer Krainer Wurst und Steinpilzen aus den naheliegenden Wäldern.*

Ein ähnliches Übersetzungsproblem fand man auch bei der Übersetzung des slowenischen Wortes *puran*, das ins Deutsche als *Truthahn* übersetzt wurde, wobei man in den deutschen Speisekarten von *Putenfleisch* spricht. Deswegen ist unser Vorschlag für die Übersetzung von *Solatni krožnik s puranom = Salatteller mit Putenstreifen,* aber auf keinen Fall mit Truthahn (einem lebenden Tier). Man merkt, dass der Übersetzer nicht die nötige translatorische und vor allem Recherchekompetenz mitbringt, um die richtige Wortwahl zu treffen.

4.3 Stilistische Fehler

Tabelle 3: Stilistische Fehleranalyse

Original	Übersetzung	Fehlertypologie	Übersetzungs-vorschlag
Pršut	Karstschinken	Siehe den Übersetzungsvorschlag	Schinken aus der slowenischen Karst-Region
Obložena kuhana govedina, sotirana zelenjava	Belegtes Rindfleischstück, sottiertes Gemüse	Kalk: *sotiranje* Auslassung des Sprachbestandteiles: *kuhana govedina* falsche Übersetzung: *Rindfleischstücke* = goveji koščki	Belegtes gekochtes Rindfleisch, sautiertes Gemüse
Špageti s tunino omako	Spaghetti mit Thun Sauce	tuna = der Thunfish *Sauce* anstatt des deutschen Äquivalents	Spaghetti mit schmackhafter Thunfischsoße
Gobova juha po domače	Pilzsuppe, hausgemacht	Adjektiv nach dem Substantiv	Hausgemachte Pilzsuppe
Hobotnica s pinjolami in olivami na mladi solati	Krake mit Pinienkernen und Oliven auf jungem Salat	*Krake* = zoologisch *Octopus* = gastro. unpassende Übersetzung von *»mlada solata«*	Octopus mit Pinienkernen und Oliven auf feinem Salat
Kmečki sendvič	Bauernsandwich	stilistisch falsche Übersetzung	Belegtes Brot auf Bauernart
Sir na žaru s popečeno zelenjavo	Käse vom Grill mit überbackene Gemüse	(*überbacken* =gratinirati)	Gegrillter Käse mit leckerem Gemüse
Radič	Rote Chicoree	hinzugefügtes Adjektiv (rot) und stilistische als auch semantisch unpassende Übersetzung	*ital.* Radicchio
Hladni hišni krožnik	Teller des Hauses	Auslassung des Adjektivs *»hladen«*	Kalter Aufschnitt oder Teller nach Art des Hauses
Prekajen goveji jezik s črno redkvijo, *bučnim pestom* in hrenovim namazom	Rinderzunge mit schwarzem Rettich und Meerrettichaufstrich	Auslassung (*bučni pesto*)	Rinderzunge mit schwarzem Rettich, Kürbispesto und Meerrettichaufstrich
Goveja juha z jetrnimi zvitki	Klare Rindsuppe mit Leberrölchen	hinzugefügte Wörter (*klare Suppe*); Leberröllchen (Rechtschreibfehler)	Rindsuppe mit Leberröllchen

Unter den stilistischen Fehlern überwiegen zahlreiche unnötige Auslassungen als auch wörtliche Übersetzungen (Kalkierung), die den Gast nicht dazu motivieren, ein Gericht zu bestellen und zu probieren . Eine Speisekarte soll vor allem eine Geschichte erzählen und eine Atmosphäre schaffen, die uns zusätzlich zum Essen und Trinken motiviert, eine solche mit zahlreichen Adjektiven, wie beispielsweise *lecker, schmackhaft, hausgemacht*, *fein*. Diese Adjektive findet man in deutschsprachigen Speisekarten und sie geben den einzelnen Speisen „das gewisse Etwas".

In der Kategorie der wortwörtlichen Übersetzungen soll zunächst die Übersetzung des Wortes „*sotiranje*" hervorheben werden. Der Übersetzer hat das Wort wortwörtlich abgeschrieben. *Sautieren* ist in der Kulinarik eine besondere Form des Kurzbratens oder Röstens auf Fett in einer Pfanne, die hauptsächlich für fein geschnittenes Fleisch oder gekochtes Gemüse verwendet wird. Diese Art des Kochens ist dem Kochen im chinesischen Wok sehr ähnlich und hat ein genau entsprechendes Äquivalent in der deutschen Sprache (*sautieren*).

Einen erheblichen semantischen Unterschied wird auch in der Übersetzung des slowenischen Wortes *kmečki sendvič* gefunden. Der Übersetzer übersetzte es wortwörtlich und schrieb das Wort sogar zusammen als *Bauernsandwich*. Es handelt sich um einen spezifischen Ausdruck, den man selten in den deutschsprachigen Ländern findet, da es sich meistens um *belegtes Brot* handelt, also um zwei völlig unterschiedliche Gerichte. Bei der Fehleranalyse wurde mehrmals die falsche Übersetzung des slowenischen Wortes *radič* bemerkt, wo das italienische Wort *Radicchio* verwendet wird. Die Übersetzer fügten Adjektive wie *rot* hinzu, was völlig unnötig ist, da der *Radicchio* bereits rotfarbig ist. Stilistisch-semantische Fehler sind in den slowenischen Speisekarten oft zu finden.

4.4 Kulturspezifische Fehler

Tabelle 4: Kulturspezifische Fehleranalyse

Original	Übersetzung	Fehlertypologie	Übersetzungs-vorschlag
Ljubljanski zrezek	Ljubljana Schnitzel	fehlende Deskription und wortwörtliche Übersetzung (Kalk)	Schnitzel nach Ljubljana Art – gefüllt mit Schinken und Käse / Ljubljana-Art Schnitzel
Domač ajdov krap	Heimgemachte Buchweizenkrapfen	nichtentsprechende Wortwahl: der Buchweizenkrapfen = *»ajdove kroglice«*, *das Heim* = dom	Hausgemachte »Krapfen« aus Buchweizen
Sirovi štruklji	Teigrollen mit Quarkfüllung gekochter Quarkstrudel Topfenrolle	falsche und semantisch unpassende Übersetzung *die Teigrolle* = valjar *die Quarkfüllung* = sirni nadev	Mit Quark gefüllte und gekochte oder gebackene Teigtaschen
Prekmurska gibanica	Murlande Gibaniza	unbekannte deutsche Wörter	*Prekmurska gibanica* (Schichtkuchen mit Mohn-, Topfen-, Nuss- und Apfelfüllung)
Ponudba jedi	Das essen	Kleingeschriebenes Substantiv und nicht entprechende Übersetzung	Unser Menüangebot
Krožnik domačih gorenjskih dobrot	Hausgemachter Krainerteller	semantisch unpassende Übersetzung: *Krainer* = kranjski	Teller mit hausgemachten Spezialitäten aus der Region *Gorenjska* (Aufschnitt)

Innerhalb der Sprache manifestiert sich die Kulturspezifik auf ganz unterschiedliche Weisen und führt zu Übersetzungsschwierigkeiten. Stolze (1992: 207) geht davon aus, dass ein Übersetzer auf „kulturelle Inkongruenzen“ in seinen Texten zu reagieren habe. Sie versucht, die kulturellen Unterschiede genauer voneinander abzugrenzen und unterscheidet reale Inkongruenzen, wenn Realia aus einer Kultur in der anderen nicht bekannt sind, formale Inkongruenzen, wenn Texte zwar als solche in der Zielkultur bekannt sind, aber üblicherweise in anderer sprachlicher Gestalt vorliegen. Als dritte Kategorie nennt sie semantische Inkongruenzen und versteht darunter Wörter mit kulturspezifischen Konnotationen, die in der Übersetzung zu unerwünschten Interpretationen führen.

Viele Gäste betrachten, noch bevor sie überhaupt einen gastronomischen Betrieb betreten, die Getränke- und Speiseauswahl auf den Karten. Sind die Speisekarten ansprechend und professionell gestaltet und übersetzt, können sie den Gast zu Speis und Trank „verführen" und somit als wichtiges Verkaufsinstrument dienen. Wenig verführerisch ist es, wenn das Lesen des Angebots schon eine halbe Stunde in Anspruch nimmt oder die Inhalte fehlerhaft und unverständlich sind. Beispielsweise kann eine *Schnupfnudelpfanne (*richtig wäre es *Schupfnudelpfanne)* einem Gast richtig erschrecken, denn man kommt nicht in ein Gasthaus, um sich einen Schnupfen zu holen.

In der heutigen globalen und vernetzten Welt gibt es auch in Slowenien immer mehr Gasthäuser und Restaurants, die ihr Angebot online anbieten und in denen man kulturspezifisch verursachte Übersetzungsfehler finden kann. Zu den bekanntesten slowenischen Speisen gehören *prekmurska gibanica, sirovi štruklji, kranjska klobasa* und *ajdov krap*. Unser Vorschlag geht in die Richtung, dass man das Gericht umschreibt und nicht übersetzt. Manche von den angeführten Speisen haben sich schon in der deutschen Sprache etabliert wie beispielsweise *prekmurska gibanica,* die man oft als *Schichtkuchen mit Mohn-, Topfen-, Nuss- und Apfelfüllung* in den slowenischen Speisekarten finden kann. Auch für den Begriff *sirovi štruklji* findet man im Pons-Online-Wörterbuch die Übersetzung *Mit Quark gefüllte štruklji*, obwohl unserer Meinung nach *mit Quark gefüllte und gekochte oder gebackene Teigtaschen* eine bessere Lösung wäre.
Kultureme sind also spezifische Elemente der Kultur, die eine interessante, aber gleichzeitig schwierige Seite der Speisekartenübersetzung darstellen.

5 Schlußfolgerung

Der vorliegende Beitrag beschäftigt sich mit den Übersetzungen von ausgewählten Speisekarten aus zwei slowenischen Regionen, Podravska und Gorenjska, mit dem Schwerpunkt auf der translatorischen Analyse von slowenisch-deutschen Speisekarten. In dem empirischen Teil wurde untersucht, auf welche Art und Weise die slowenischen Speisekarten ins Deutsche übersetzt wurden, welche sprachlich-translatorischen Mittel dabei benutzt wurden und wo die wesentlichen Fehler liegen. Man kann feststellen, dass die Menü- und Speisekartenübersetzung eine anspruchsvolle Aufgabe ist und vom Übersetzer sowohl umfassende Kenntnisse der einheimischen Gastronomie als auch der Zielkultur verlangt, ganz zu schweigen von den ethischen Standards, die man als Übersetzer mitbringen muss. Darunter versteht man sprachliche Präzision, translatorische Professionalität und entsprechendes Korrekturlesen sowie eine passende Wahl der Übersetzungsstrategien unter Berücksichtigung von folgenden Kriterien: sprachliche Verständlichkeit, translatorische Anpassungsfähigkeit und übersetzerische Sorgfalt. Unverständliche und fehlerhafte Speisekarten rücken den gastronomischen Betrieb in ein fragwürdiges Licht, deswegen bedeutet eine professionelle Übersetzung eine Minimisierung der translatorischen Fehler und Eliminierung von eventuellen Missverständnissen.

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INTRODUCTION OF MOVEMENT INTO CLASSES OF THE ITALIAN LANGUAGE AND AN ANALYSIS OF THE MOST COMMON LINGUISTIC ISSUES

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Abstract The aim of the paper was to address the concept of movement and its introduction into tertiary education in classes of the Italian language during COVID-19 times. In the paper we address the importance of introducing movement in language learning giving an insight to the presence of physical activity in educational curricula where examples of good practice are presented. The paper focuses on the concept of language acquisition with the preparation of video resources and how such concept can benefit movement and avoid sedentarism in tertiary education. The survey was composed of an experiment where students from the Faculty of Tourism, University of Maribor prepared videos in the Italian language as part of their study requirements. In this research 14 three-minute-long videos were analysed in terms of language usage and the most common linguistic issues are presented.

Keywords: movement, Italian, language, tertiary education, video

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1 Introduction

The concept of sedentarism has been widely researched in the recent years from a medical perspective (Fox, 2012, Riccardi, 2005) focusing mainly on its increase (Medina, Tolentino-Mayo, López-Ridaura, & Barquera, 2017) and its impact on health (Cuce Nobre, Zanetta de Lima Domingues, Ruiz da Silva, Basile Colugnati, & de Aguiar Carrazedo Taddei, 2006; González-Gross & Meléndez, 2013; Matusitz & McCormick, 2012) which is even more evident in present times and has an even more negative impact on health as researched in the recent COVID-19 year (Chandrasekaran & Ganesan, 2020; Narici, De Vito, Franchi, Paoli et al., 2020). The present research was prepared in 2020, during the COVID-19 lockdown, when all university classes were transferred from a live situation to online and teachers as well as students were even more exposed to the negative impacts of sedentarism (Luciano, Cenacchi, Vegro, & Pavei, 2020; Narici, De Vito, Franchi, Paoli et al., 2020; Wang, Zhao, & Zhang, 2020). With the switch to online classes in March 2020 due to the COVID-19 pandemic, sedentarism has increased throughout the whole vertical axis of education, but the present paper focuses on tertiary education. A response to sedentarism is the introduction of movement and physical activity into the curricula. Physical activity and a healthy mind or a healthy body and a healthy mind have been linked since ancient times and have represented a vital part of education (Toumpaniari, Loyens, Mavilidi et al., 2015). Exercising has a positive impact on cognitive functioning in children, adults and the older population (Fedewa & Ahn, 2011; Tomporowski et al., 2008) and just a little exercise before a course or job has a positive impact on memory and helps in performing better (Strong et al., 2005). According to some authors body movements facilitate the retrieval of mental lexical items and have a positive impact on a range of relevant educational functions (Goldin Meadow et al., 2001; Hillman et al., 2005; Hostetter, 2011; Hostetter & Alibali, 2008; Sibley & Etnier, 2003). In recent years in the educational curricula physical activity has been integrated within the learning process of both nonlanguage and language subjects, namely within Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), the usage of L2 in teaching nonlanguage subjects (Fazio, Isidori, & Bartoll, 2015; Salvador García & Chiva Bartoll, 2017, 2019; Zindler, 2013).

1.1 Overview of the introduction of movement in language learning

The introduction of movement in its different forms, from gestures to physical education in Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) has been discussed in the past decades (Dale, Van der Es, Tanner, & Timmers, 2010; Graham, Macfadyen, & Richards 2012; Lynott, 2008; Martin, 2008; Merino, 2016; Salvador-García, Chiva-Bartoll, & Capella-Peris, 2019; Vázquez, Xia, Aikawa, & Maes, 2018). In view of that the Total Physical Response Method (TPR) developed by Asher (1969) has been applied for over thirty years and is an approach built around the coordination of speech and action emphasizing language teaching through physical activity. Asher's method views first and second language learning as parallel processes and argues that in second language teaching and learning the naturalistic processes of the first language learning should be used. Among the first attempts in the implementation of physical education in language integrated learning (CLIL) the Coral I Mateu (2012) approach is mentioned. Coral I Mateu (2012) research is based on the programme in use since 2007. Within the programme students are provided with motor, communication, life-long and citizen skills. Physical Education PE in CLIL contributes largely and is fundamental in keeping the internal structure of the tasks and a good balance between motor, language and cognition demand. In addition, the most advantageous activities involve a balanced task that incorporates language and movement without slowing down the pace of the activity. Among the first attempts from the same year Graham, Macfadyen and Richards (2012) presented the survey in which 78 students, 12 to 13 years of age, were involved. Within the survey the authors discussed the relevance of the findings for motivation and a curriculum design joining both subjects and students expressed a stereotypical view of their ability in language learning and physical education. Further research in CLIL and PE followed in 2014 with Coral and Lleixà's (2014) identification of physical education in CLIL teaching strategies that aimed at improving oral communication in primary education pupils. Their study demonstrated how PE and CLIL improve teaching and specific teaching strategies improve oral communication. In their study Toumpaniari, Loyens, Mavilidi et al. (2015) present how physical activity leads to a better cognitive functioning and higher academic achievements, and how it positively effects the learning process. In addition to physical activity the authors also introduced gestures, and in their study, they investigated whether the combination of physical activities and gestures could improve the learning process in a 4-week intervention programme on foreign language vocabulary learning in preschool children.

According to the results learning by embodying words through gestures and physical activities is perceived as the preferred teaching method and leads to higher learning outcomes and represents a great potential in enhancing the learning process of individuals. Vázquez, Xia, Aikawa and Maes (2018) argued that verbal communication is grounded in our body, but conventionally languages are taught without the inclusion of kinesthetics. In their study Vázquez, Xia, Aikawa and Maes (2018) presented a new concept named Words in Motion, a virtual reality language learning system that reinforces associations between word-action pairs by recognising a student's movements and presenting the corresponding name of the performed action in the target language. The sample in their study was comprised of 57 participants. The results showed that virtual kinaesthetic learners have significantly higher retention rates and higher performance than non-kinaesthetic virtual reality learners. Vázquez, Xia, Aikawa and Maes (2018) agree that there is a positive correlation between the times a word-action pair was executed and the times a word was remembered by the subjects, this proves that virtual reality can impact language learning by using kinaesthetic elements. Also, Mavilidi, Okely, Chandler et al. (2015) proved that integrating physical activity into language learning is effective (Asher 1969). The effectiveness was demonstrated in a foreign language vocabulary task in preschool children who learned Italian words within a 4-week teaching programme. The results showed that children in the integrated physical exercise condition achieved the highest learning outcomes. Among the latest research is the one by Salvador-García, Chiva-Bartoll and Capella-Peris (2019) who see physical education (PE) as a subject chosen for applying multilingual initiatives based on CLIL. In their research students from 12 up until 16 years of age were included. At the same time, they argue that we have to be cautious because PE as a subject tends to lose its essence if language learning is too emphasised.

1.2 The presence of physical activity in education curricula

The introduction of physical activity in the curricula is argued by many prominent authors (Mahar et al., 2006; Kibbe et al., 2011; Pontifex et al., 2009; Tomporowski et al., 2008), but mainly in reference to primary and secondary levels of education. Mahar et al. (2006) argued that physical activity could be introduced into the curricula in many ways, and promotes the method called the Energizers - a programme that contains short (10 min) classroom-based physical activities without the need for equipment, but it incorporates grade-appropriate learning materials, and requires little-to-no teacher preparation. The Energizers were implemented to assess its efficiency on elementary children in elementary school physical activity levels during the school day. The results showed that children participating in the Energizers activities were more active and energetic and showed better on-task behaviour than those who did not take part. Kibbe et al. (2011) investigated the effect of the method called TAKE 10! – a classroom-based physical activity programme aiming at integrating movement and learning. Within the programme children are simultaneously involved in physical activity and the improvement of learning objectives in i.e. foreign language. The results showed that children benefit by experiencing higher physical activity levels as well as higher scores in specific subjects, i.e. foreign language. A similar programme called Texas I-CAN! was developed by Bartholomew and Jowers (2011) and aims at developing physically active academic courses to increase physical activity and address educational goals. Donnelly and Lambourne (2011) developed the programme called Physical Activity Across the Curriculum (PAAC) that can also be applied to foreign languages. Within the programme moderate to vigorous physically active academic lessons are promoted. Donnelly and Lambourne (2011) argue that physical activity positively affects academic performance, leads to better academic achievement and represents a healthy habit, which in the present Covid-19 situation promoting sedentariness is understood to have a positive impact as proved by the surveys on primary and secondary levels of education. Such an approach should also be implemented with young adults, namely university students. Kim and Lee (2009) argue that academic performance improves with physical activity, but physical activity tends to decline throughout childhood, with the greatest decline occurring in elementary school. In this perspective, the example of good practice of the introduction of physical education should also be transferred and implemented in tertiary education. At present such concepts have not yet been developed.

1.3 Language acquisition with video production

The introduction of video materials into language teaching and learning dates back to the early 1980s, when it became widely available for non-industrial purposes and a vast quantity of video materials has been specifically developed for use in the foreign language classroom (Nikitina, 2010). The usage of video technology for language teaching and learning spread widely in the 1990s when even more opportunities for using digital technology such as video appeared (Nikitina, 2010; Vanderplank, 2010). Nikitina (2010) argues that video materials represented a static resource and that they were employed mainly in centred round viewing and listening to the video or teaching the target language culture (Gardner, 1994; Moore, 2006). Videos have a great potential as they represent a more dynamic application in a foreign language acquisition when learners are involved in the video production (Nikitina, 2010). The acquisition of language with the aid of video production has been researched recently in different aspects, from using video as a mediational tool in foreign language learning (Goulah, 2008) to using promotional or commercial videos in a foreign language course where university students produced videos in target languages which motivated students with limited opportunities to use their target language (Fukushima, 2002). Dal (2012) states that new digital video technology is integrated into foreign language learning, what is its impact, and how new technologies offer students new learning opportunities. The potential of language learning through video productions was also addressed by Masats, Dooly and Costa (2009). Nikitina (2010) argues that video is not only another technological device to be used in the classroom, but it is also a tool for promoting creativity, meaning making and fostering dialogue among students (Goldfarb, 2002; Loveless, 2002). The activity of video-making in the target language provides an excellent foundation for communicative activities and helps activate the language skills obtained during the language programme (Pearson, 1990). The activity of video-making promotes the usage of language in "real-life" situations (Secules, Herron, & Tomasello, 1992), stimulates students' participation in the learning activities (Phillips, 1982; Yamak, 2008), reduces anxiety especially when speaking in front of an audience (Brooke, 2003), and promotes autonomy and confidence (Charge & Giblin, 1988; Gardner, 1994). Gardner's (1994) study on video made by students is one of the earliest projects on student's-video productions. Within the project, 15 undergraduate students, from the University of Hong Kong, who were learning English, were involved. Gardner's (1994) project reflected constructivist requirements for self-regulated learning and learner autonomy. Nikitina (2010) in her study describes a video-making project implemented by Russian language students at a Malaysian public university. In the study active construction of knowledge, an intensive interaction and cooperation between students, the ability to determine the learning goals, and the authenticity of the learning situation is presented. Nikitina (2010) argues that within her project the students instead of sitting in the classroom and watching a movie in the target language or listening to the conversations or reading the subtitles, developed their own videos in the target language and in this way, they took ownership of their learning by selecting material and generating the language which was meaningful for them.

2 Methodology

2.1 Aim of research

The aim of this paper was twofold. Firstly, the aim was to analyse the videos filmed by the students and to observe the common linguistic issues of the videos accompanying audio description. Secondly, the goal was to address the introduction of movement in the tertiary education curricula in the case of the acquisition of the Italian language in preparing the videos. The aim was not to obtain a detailed insight into this challenging subject matter, but to detect students' points of view on the possible existence of the link between movement (being physically active) and language learning, which would provide a benchmark for further research in this respect. With reference to the latest research focusing on sedentarism and its negative impact on health (Chandrasekaran & Ganesan, 2020; Narici, De Vito, Franchi, Paoli, et al., 2020) as a student assignment in 2020 some students who participated in the survey were given the possibility to prepare a video on site, i.e. they had to film a video in a real-life situation.

The scope of the survey was to verify the following research questions:

RQ1 – Is missed pronunciation of doubled consonants one of the most common linguistic errors made by the participants?

RQ2 – Do lexical errors imply mainly nouns and adjectives?

RQ3 – Does the preparation of videos with on-site filming of the required material promote movement and contribute to a better practical usage of the foreign language (Italian) under consideration?

2.2 Participants

The 14 students participating in the survey were from three study programmes, namely 5 third year students (VS[1]) from the Faculty of Tourism, University of Maribor, 5 third year students (UN[2]) from the Faculty of Tourism, University of Maribor, and 4 second year Master students (MAG[3]) from the Faculty of Tourism, University of Maribor – five men and nine women, dominantly between 21 and 25 years of age.

2.3 Tasks

As part of their student assignment for the course in the Italian language as a foreign language the students were asked to prepare within the course syllabus a power point presentation or a video presentation. Thirty-nine students decided to prepare a power point presentation, but 14 students decided to prepare a video. The students were asked to prepare a short 3-minute-long video within a tourism-oriented topic, namely a short walk through their town or village, the presentation of a castle, nature park, etc. The key factor was that the students were asked to film the videos on site, i.e. they had to walk around a town or a village or they had to walk through a castle, a nature park or wherever they wanted to film. In other words, they had to be physical active while filming their video. Consequently, the aim was to attempt to promote movement, i.e. physical activity. Further, the students were asked to film either themselves or just the panorama and provide an audio description composed of simple sentences. In this perspective the students used mainly the *presente dell' indicativo* (English *present simple tense*) as the verb tense and words related to the topics of sightseeing, towns, weather description, food and beverages, etc. The videos were presented by the students during the online lectures of the Italian language and later analysed by the language teacher.

[1]VS – undergraduate professional study programme
[2]UN – undergadutate study programme
[3]MAG – Master study programme

2.4 Data analyses

For the purpose of this paper, first a lexical analysis of the videos was prepared by the language teacher. The videos were watched and analysed in terms of language characteristics, namely pronunciation, language usage, tenses, articles and prepositions by the language teacher who is a native speaker of the Italian language. The scope of the survey was to verify two research questions which were oriented towards the students' knowledge of Italian as a foreign language. The language level of the students involved in the study ranged from beginner to intermediate. In all three study programme groups the same teacher taught the classes of Italian. The study employed an observational research design where each video was watched, observed and analysed by the language teacher in line with the classification based on the linguistic categories developed by Monami (2013) and Cattana and Nesci (2004). Secondly, the students were asked to answer the following two questions anchored at 1 (not at all) and 3 (very much):

Question 1: V kolikšni meri je priprava videa pripomogla k boljši uporabi jezika v praksi? / To what extent did the preparation of a video contribute to a better practical usage of the language?

Question 2: Menite da priprava videa spodbuja gibanje? / Do you agree that the preparation of a video promotes movement?

The two questions were translated into English for the purpose of this article (they were originally written in Slovene). The distribution plots of answers per subject per question were drawn. The counts for categories on both variables were calculated and presented in the form of histograms. Since the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed the distribution of results on both variables deviated significantly from the normal one, this indicated the use of nonparametric methods in further analysis. Hence, the gamma correlation coefficient between the two variables was calculated. It was a preferable statistic to the other nonparametric correlation coefficients (Spearman rank R, Kendall Tau) because it takes into account a situation in which there are many tied observations.

In spite of the fact that the sample of 14 students is considered to be a small one, as a result, the margin error was increased, the two questions were believed to provide a valuable insight into the students' attitudes towards the association between foreign language learning and movement/physical activity, and as a result into possible future research addressing this subject matter.

3 Results

The classification of Monami (2013) and Cattana and Nesci (2004) was used in the present survey in relation to the linguistic categories as categorized as an analysis criterion used by language teachers (Čufer, 2017). Monami (2013) categorizes the linguistic errors into four categories, namely: 1) phonetic and phonological errors, 2) morphological errors, 3) syntactic errors, and 4) lexical errors.

A more specific classification is provided by Cattana and Nesci (2004) who focus more on the category of errors produced orally:

- pronunciation errors, when a word is pronounced wrongly,
- grammatical errors, are divided into morphological - wrong verb conjugation, wrong formation of plural, wrong formation of feminine gender, etc., and morphosyntactic – wrong noun and article agreement, wrong noun and adjective agreement, wrong tense, etc.,
- syntactic errors, word order, usage of articles and prepositions, etc.,
- lexical errors, wrong usage of words, etc.

3.1 The most common errors in the linguistic categories of the videos

In Table 1 the pronunciation errors are divided into four categories, namely examples with missing double consonants, examples with wrong stress, examples with wrong pronunciation of "*g*" and examples where "*s*" is pronounced instead of "*z*". In Table 1 the type of wrong pronunciation is visible in column 1, the wrongly pronounced examples are visible in column 2, in column 3 the corrected words are provided, in column 4 the number of wrong occurrences is visible.

Table 1: Pronunciation errors

	Wrong words	Corrected words	No. of wrong occurrences
Missing double consonant	cita, bela, castelo, camera da leto, anni, fabriche, capela, galleria, stala	città, bella, castello, camera da letto, anni, fabbriche, cappella, galleria, stalla	125
Wrong stress	antico, secolo, fabbriche, storica, perdere, vedere, cita, fabriche	antico, secolo, fabbriche, storica, perdere, vedere città, fabbriche	110
Wrong pronunciation of "g"	originale, origine, gita	originale, origine, gita	18
Pronunciation of "s" instead of "z"	rosa, casa, vaso, naso	rosa, casa, vaso, naso	25

In Tables 2 and 3 the grammatical errors are presented and divided between the categories of morphological and morphosyntactic errors. Among the morphological errors are wrong verb conjugations/missing verbs, wrong plural formations, wrong formation of feminine gender. In Table 2 the type of morphological error is visible in column 1 in column 2 the wrong Italian sentences are provided in column 3 the corrected Italian sentences are provided.

Table 2: Grammatical errors – morphological

	Wrong sentence	Corrected sentence
Wrong verb conjugation/missing verb	Macedonia house ristorante Macedonia.	Macedonia house è un ristorante macedone.
Wrong verb conjugation	La galleria è diventante il museo nel dumile.	La galleria è diventata il museo nel duemila.
Wrong formation of feminine gender	Purtruppo la caso non è stato ristrutturato.	Purtroppo la casa non è stata ristrutturata.
Wrong formation of plural	Era usato per il grano con l'aiuto di cavallo.	Era usato per il grano con l'aiuto di cavallo.

In Table 3 the morphosyntactic grammatical errors are presented. The morphosyntactic errors are divided into two categories, namely wrong noun and article agreement, and wrong verb/tense structure. In Table 3 the type of morphosyntactic error is visible in column 1 in column 2 the wrong Italian sentences are provided in column 3 the corrected Italian sentences are provided.

Table 3: Grammatical errors – morphosyntactic

	Wrong sentence	Corrected sentence
Wrong noun and article agreement	La scuola dove siamo andati io e anche first lady degli Stati uniti d'America.	La scuola che abbiamo frequentato io e anche la first lady degli stati uniti d'America.
Wrong verb/tense structure	Dove vado a passeggiare ogni girono con il mio cane per rilassarsi.	Dove vado a passeggiare ogni girono con il mio cane per rilassarmi.
Wrong verb/tense structure	Molti credono che l'ufficio comunale e il castello sono stati coleggiati con un tunel.	Molti credono che l'ufficio comunale e il castello erano collegati con un tunnel.

In Table 4 the syntactic errors are presented. The type of syntactic error is visible in column 1 in column 2 the wrong Italian sentences are provided in column 3 the corrected Italian sentences are provided.

Table 4: Syntactic errors

	Wrong sentence	Corrected sentence
Usage of articles and prepositions	In loro possiamo private piatti tradizionali.	Nei ristoranti possiamo provare piatti tradizionali.
Usage of articles and prepositions	Al vicino si trova anche cantina di XX con bellissimi afreschi.	Vicino si trova anche la cantina di XX con bellissimi affreschi.
Usage of articles and prepositions	Alla fine di settimana molti vanno a passeggiare sulle colline.	Nei fine settimana molti vanno a passeggiare sulle colline.

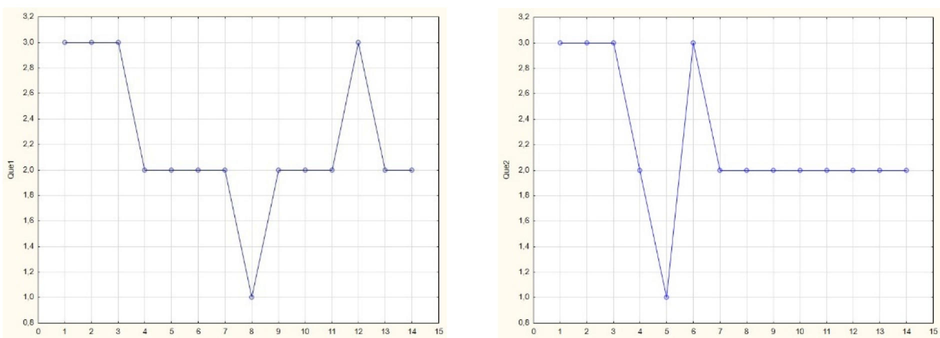
Table 5: Lexical errors

Wrong sentence	Corrected sentence
Vivo con la mia famiglia e duo cani.	Vivo con la mia famiglia e due cani.
L'avento più importante e famoso è il carnaval.	L'evento più importante e famoso è il carnevale.
Si svogleogni anni a februario.	Si svolge ogni anno a febbraio.
Una fuga idilica dalla vita quotidiana nella natura e una fuga malinconica nel passato storicist.	Una fuga idilliaca dalla vita quotidiana nella natura e una fuga malinconica nel passato storico.
renovato, prezinteremo, aristocatica, restorato, esceso, transformato	rinnovato, presenteremo, aristocratica, restaurato, accesso, trasformato

In Table 5 the lexical errors, mainly the wrong usage of words, are presented. In Table 5 the examples are presented as whole sentences of just words, in column 1 the wrong Italian sentences/words are provided in column 2 the corrected Italian sentences/words are provided.

3.2 Video preparation and physical activity/movement

In compliance with the recommendations of Mahar et al. (2006) on the inclusion of physical activity in various curricula, an on-site filming of video material was regarded as a task implying being physically active while doing the task using Italian as the foreign language for the specific purposes class. As shown in Figure 1, the students answered two questions regarding the relationship between making a video and being physically active on the one hand, and any potential motivation to be physically active as well as the possibility that such a video preparation could foster a better practical application of the Italian language on the other hand in the exact same way. To emphasize, not all of the 14 students answered the two questions in the same way (Figure 1) – the final distributions of the answer categories for the two questions were the result of pure coincidence. Interestingly, as many as 10 students answered question no. 1 and questions no. 2 in the same way.



Legend. Que – question

Figure 1: The distribution of answers per subject (1 – 14) per questions (Que 1 & Que2)

Further, nine students thought that the on-site preparation of the video moderately contributed to a better practical usage of the language (Que1) (Figure 1). Also, nine students expressed the opinion that the preparation of videos with on-site filming, i.e. while being physical active moderately promoted movement (Que2).

Interestingly, only one student per question did not consider this way of preparing videos as a factor of promoting movement, i.e. physical activity.

The gamma coefficient designating the correlation between the two variables was 0.871. The correlation of this size speaks in favour of the assumption that the students' opinion strongly indicates the probability of an interrelationship between promoting movement (being physically active) and a better practical usage of the language – in other words, learning a foreign language.

4 Discussion

Within the category examples with missed double-consonant pronunciation (Table 1), in the 14 analysed videos we found 125 examples, mainly nouns and verbs that were not pronounced correctly. In Table 1 among the wrong examples of missed double-consonant pronunciation the following words occurred: "*città*" (English *town*), "*bella*" (English *beautiful*), "*castello*" (English *castle*), "*camera da letto*" (English *bedroom*), "*anni*" (English *years*), "*fabbriche*" (English *factories*), *"cappella"* (English *chapel*), *"galleria"* (English *gallery*), *"stalla"* (English *stable*). In the acquisition of the Italian language pronunciation represents an issue for the learners and as seen from the 125 examples of missed double-consonant pronunciation it is one of the most common linguistic errors made by the participants, the research question RQ1 has been answered positively.

Within the category examples of wrong stress (Table 1), we encountered 110 occurrences, namely examples where the first vowel was stressed instead of the second, "*antico"*, "*antico"* (English *ancient*), "*vedere"*, "*vedere"* (English *to see*), "*cita"*, "*città*" (English *town*), and cases where the second vowel is stressed instead of the first, "*secolo"*, "*secolo"* (English *century*), "*fabbriche"*, "*fabbriche"* (English *factories*), "*storica"*, "*storica"* (English *historical*) and "*perdere"*, "*perdere"* (English *to lose*) and examples where the stress is on the final consonant, namely "*università"* (English *university*) and "*città"* (English *town*). Within the category examples with wrong pronunciation of "*g*" (Table 1), 18 cases occurred. In Italian "*g*" is pronounced as the English "*j*" in *"jeep"* before "*e*" and "*i*", e.g. *giro/jeero* (English *trip*) and as "*g*" as in *"go"* before "*a*", "*o*" and "*u*", e.g. *gara/gahrah* (English *race*). In the following words "*g*" was pronounced wrongly, namely "*originale"* (English *original*), *"origine"* (English *origin*), *"gita"* (English *trip*). Within the category examples of pronunciation of "*s*" instead of "*z*" (Table 1), 25 cases occurred. In Italian when "*s*" is preceded and followed by vowels, it is pronounced as "*z*", namely "*rosa"* (English *rose*), *"casa"* (English *house*), *"naso"* (English *nose*). As seen from the examples in Table 1 where the pronunciation errors are presented from the analysed videos the major issues were present in the pronunciation of the double consonant (125 examples) followed by stress (110 examples).

In Table 2 we encountered two examples of wrong verb conjugation, namely in example 1, "*Macedonia house ristorante Macedonia*", the verb *"essere"* (English *to be*) is missing. The correct sentence is "*Macedonia house è un ristorante macedone*". In the same example we noticed also the wrong usage of the adjective "*Macedonia*" that in Italian is a noun and not an adjective, the correct adjective is "*macedone*" (English *Macedonian*), spelt in lower case letters. In example 2, "*La galleria è diventante il museo nel dumile*" we noticed the wrong conjugation of the verb in *"passato prossimo"* (English *past simple*) *"è diventante"*. The correct form of the verb is *"è diventata"*. Also, in the same example the noun *"duemile"* is wrongly spelled, the correct noun spelling is *"duemila"*. In example 3 "*Purtruppo la caso non è stato ristrutturato*" we noticed the wrong formation of the feminine gender, namely *"la caso"* (English *the house*) should be *"la casa",* the correct sentence is *Purtroppo la casa non è stata ristrutturata.* In the same sentence the word *"purtruppo"* (English *unfortunately*) is also wrongly spelt, the correct spelling is *"purtroppo"*. In example 4, "*Era usato per il grano con l'aiuto di cavallo*" we encountered the wrong formation of the plural, namely, the word *"cavallo"* should be in the plural form *"cavalli"*.

In Table 3, example 1 we encountered a generally well-structured sentence, "*La scuola dove siamo andati io e anche first lady degli stati uniti d'America*". Also, the English term "*first lady*" is well adopted into the Italian language, but the definite article "*la*" is needed. In terms of verb selection, one would rather use the verb "*frequentare*" (English *attend*) instead of "*andare*" (English *to go*) in reference to attending school, but in this perspective the whole sentence structure changes, namely "*La scuola che abbiamo frequentato io e anche la first lady degli stati uniti d'America*". In example 2 "*Dove vado a passeggiare ogni girono con il mio cane per rilassarsi*", we noticed the wrong usage of the verb comprising a personal pronoun "*rilassarsi*" (English *to relax*), implying that the dog is relaxing and not the dog walker. We believe the speaker wanted to say that he is relaxing when walking, in this perspective the correct sentence is "*Dove vado a passeggiare ogni girono con il mio cane per rilassarmi*". In example 3 "*Molti credono che* *l'ufficio comunale e il castello sono stati coleggiati con un tunel*", the verb "*collegare*" (English *to connect*) was wrongly pronounced, namely "*coleggiati*", also the noun "*tunnel*" (English *tunnel*) was wrongly pronounced, the doubled consonant is missing, namely "*tunel*". A change of tenses is also advisable. Instead of using the "*passato prossimo*" (English *past simple*) and the verb form "*sono stati*" (English *were*) the "*imperfetto*" (English *past continuous*) could be used instead, namely "*erano*". The correct sentence is "*Molti credono che l'ufficio comunale e il castello erano collegati con un tunnel*".

In Table 4, example 1 we noticed a lot of inconsistency in the sentence "*In loro possiamo private piatti tradizionali*". The preposition "*in*" (English *in*) does not function correctly, in reference to the omitted word restaurant that should appear with the definite article "i" (English *the*), i.e. "*i ristoranti*" (English *the restaurants*) and in reference to a place where the preposition "*in*" (English *in*) is used in Italian the "*preposizione articolata*" (→ combination of definite article and preposition) should be used. In example 1 "*nei*" should be used instead of "*in*". There are also some other inconsistencies, namely the noun "*ristorante*" (English *restaurant*) is omitted, and the verb is not provided in the correct form "*possiamo provate*" (English *we can you try*). After the modal verb, i.e. "*possiamo*" (English *we can*), a verb in the infinitive follows, i.e. "*provare*" (English *to try*) in our case the correct verbal structure is "*possiamo provare*" (English *we can try*). The correct sentence is "*Nei ristorante possiamo provare piatti tradizionali*". In the corrected sentence we also introduce the indefinite article "un" (English *a*). In example 2, namely "*Al vicino si trova anche cantina di XX con bellissimi afresci*" the "*preposizione articolata*" "*al*" should be omitted, the definite article "*la*" should be placed before the noun "*cantina*" (English *cellar*). The correct sentence is "*Vicino si trova anche la cantina di XX con bellissimi affreschi*". In example 3 "*Alla fine di settimana molti vanno a passeggiare sulle colline*", we noticed the wrong usage of the "*preposizine articolata*", namely "*alla*". The correct form is the combination of "*in*" and "i" forming "*nei*". Also, the noun "fine di *settimana*" should be written without the preposition "*di*", namely "*fine settimana*" (English *weekend*). The correct sentence is "*Nei fine settimana molti vanno a passeggiare sulle colline*".

In Table 5, example 1 we noticed the wrong usage of the word "*due*" (English *two*), i.e. "*Vivo con la mia famiglia e duo cani*" should be corrected as "*Vivo con la mia famiglia e due cani*". In example 2 "*L'avento più importante e famoso è il carnaval*" we noticed the wrong usage of the nouns "*avento*" correctly spelt "*evento*" (English *event*) and "*carnaval*" correctly spelt "*carnevale*" (English *carnival*). The correct sentence is

"*L'evento più importante e famoso è il carnevale*". In example 3, "*Si svogle ogni anni a februario*" we noticed the wrong usage of the nouns "*anni*" (English *years*) and "*februario*" correctly spelt "*febbraio*" (English *February*). The noun "*anni*" should be singular "*anno*" and the noun "*februario*" should be correctly spelt "*febbraio*". The correct sentence is "*Si svogle ogni anno a febbraio*". In example 4 "*Una fuga idilica dalla vita quotidiana nella natura e una fuga malinconica nel passato storicist*" we noticed the wrong usage of the adjectives "*idilica"* (English *idyllic*) and "*storicist"* (English *historic*) correctly spelt "*idilliaca*" and "*storica*". The correct sentence is "*Una fuga idilliaca dalla vita quotidiana nella natura e una fuga malinconica nel passato storico*". In example 5 examples of wrong words are provided, mainly we encountered adjectives that are wrongly spelled, namely "*renovato*" (English *renewed*) should be spelled "*rinnovato*", "*aristocatica*" (English *aristocratic*) should be spelt "*aristocratica*", "*restorato*" (English *restored*) should be spelt "*restaurato*", "*esceso*" (English *accessed*) should be spelt "*accesso*", "*transformato*" (English *transformed*) should be spelt "*trasformato*". Among the lexical errors also the verb in the future tense, "*future semplice*" is wrongly spelt "*prezinteremo*" (English *will present*) that should be spelt "*presenteremo*". In the acquisition of the Italian lexical errors represent an issue for the learners and as seen from the examples in Table 5, nouns and adjectives represent the most common linguistic errors made by the participants, the research question RQ2 was answered in an affirmative way.

As for the attitude of students concerning whether the on-site filming of videos contributed to a better practical usage of Italian as a foreign language, the obtained result was expected. Namely, in a real-life situation in which the students recorded the videos the interference of their mother tongue and Italian as a foreign language was undoubtedly high. Hence, the assessment that the on-site filming of videos predominantly in moderation contributed to a better practical usage of Italian seems to be objective. Further, the same applies to the second question regarding the extent to which in the students' opinion being physically active while recording the video actually promoted movement. Since the methodology applied in this analysis does not allow for a more accurate explanation, it might only be speculated that the obtained result – according to which most students were of the opinion that the preparation of videos promoted movement moderately – could be interpreted in two ways. Firstly, the students' opinion could have been the result of the omnipresent viewpoint in contemporary society that movement, that is, being physically active has become a way of life. In other words, the concept of physical activity has permeated the modern lifestyle so much that the students tried to comply with this ubiquitous conception. Thus, it might be surmised that their attempt was to (un)consciously show that they were familiar with it and tried to adhere to the trends of today's modern lifestyle, of which one trend is associated with movement, i.e. being physically active and learning. Secondly, an assumption might be possible that the students answered the two questions completely objectively, i.e. that they expressed their opinion impartially. Such a notion might be derived from the size of the gamma correlation coefficient between the two variables. Namely, the correlation of 0.871 indicates that promoting movement through the preparation of videos in such a way that the students had to be physically active on the one hand, and a better practical usage of the language (in this case Italian) on the other are highly interrelated. Therefore, a more comprehensive study with an elaborate design is necessary to provide more accurate information in this respect. Ultimately, the third research question has also been affirmatively answered.

Due to the size of the sample in this analysis, no generalization of results is possible. However, the findings point to the fact that the students are aware of the possible link between movement, i.e. being physically active and learning, thus representing a good starting point for further research. To be able to make well-founded inferences, this subject matter needs to be investigated in more detail.

5 Conclusion

Movement and physical activity are incorporated into language learning, but examples of good practice (Lynott, 2008; Merino, 2016; Salvador García, Chiva Bartoll, & Capella Peris, 2019; Vázquez, Xia, Aikawa, & Maes, 2018) show that such concepts are not present in tertiary education. In this presented paper we addressed young adults, namely students, with reference to the preparation of videos in the Italian language and thereafter analysed their language knowledge. Within the 14 analysed videos we noticed mainly issues related to the wrong pronunciation of words, the absence of doubled consonants and stress, i.e. “città”, “bella”, “castello”, “vedere”, etc., but also issues in the correct usage of prepositions, i.e. “al”, “in” and the inappropriate usage of “preposizioni articolate”, i.e. “nei”. Some issues also occurred in the incorrect usage of adjectives, i.e. “macedone” and nouns, i.e. “febbraio”, “anni”, “carnevale”, etc. and verbs, i.e. “essere”, “rilassarmi”. In the paper the two research questions that addressed pronunciation and lexical errors were answered affirmatively. Namely, in the acquisition of the Italian language pronunciation – more specifically missed double-consonant pronunciation – and lexical errors implying nouns and adjectives are the most common linguistic errors made by the participants.

As for the interrelation between being physically active and learning, although the aim in this analysis was only to discern a possible opinion of students concerning any existing bond between movement and learning, the yielded result showed that such a link appears to exist. The obtained result encourages further scrutiny which needs to be more elaborate and done on a bigger sample, so that it might yield more detailed perceptions in this respect. Evidently, the students' prevailing assessment of the connection between the two concepts supports future investigations. In these future investigations a comprehensive questionnaire might be used to gain more insight into the array of factors connected with movement, i.e. being physically active and learning. Future research might also look into any prospective differences in the students' opinions depending on the study programme. An experimental design implying both an experimental and a control group is also possible with detailed instructions regarding the experiment's protocol. Such analyses might hopefully shed more light on this state-of-the-art subject matter.

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VIRTUAL TOURISM AS PART OF THE RUSSIAN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM

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Abstract This paper suggests that tourist web resources could successfully become part of the L2 class-room with the effect of reinforcing the students' motivation and adding to their knowledge of the places in which the foreign language is spoken. We aim to show that such resources could be particularly useful if combined with a recently developed teaching methodology relying mainly on oral translation being principally based on work with texts. We suggest that a lecture would become far more exciting if presented in the form of a virtual tour. Such an experience offers not only the possibility to enjoy a virtual visit to new places, but also to learn a lot about them, while learning a foreign language at the same time.

Keywords: tourism, teaching methodology, fluency, accuracy, complexity

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1 Introduction

Needless to say, tourism is generally conceived of as a free time activity and is, therefore, associated with leisure. A lot of types of tourism exist, among which there are even forms that are related to business and other non-excursionist enterprises. Even these kinds, however, in one way or another, are regarded as amusing and stimulating activities charged with positive emotions and energy.

The present study, however, will not be concerned with the traditional type of tourism but will dwell upon the so-called "virtual tourism", in which the trip does not involve the physical movement of the body, but is realized through technological devices (cf. Tavakoli & Mura, 2015; Mura, Tavakoli & Sharif, 2017). It will be suggested here that, though not yet being a well-studied phenomenon, virtual tourism, if combined with a currently developed L2 teaching methodology based on oral translation (cf. Laskova, 2016; 2019; to appear), could successfully become part of the L2 classroom (in this case, the Russian language classroom) and could lead to highly profitable results. It is the effect of positive emotional charging that, combined with the large variety of video and text materials available online, could serve as a trigger, raising the student's motivation thus serving as a stimulus for the language learning process.

Virtual tourism as an in-class activity

Recent developments in technology have allowed the elaboration of electronic devices, enabling the recreation of an abstract reality allowing a person to be immersed in it and experience it as if it were real. These are the so-called Virtual-Reality (VR) products which are classified in the literature as non-, semi-, and fully-immersive VR systems (cf. Beck, Rainoldi & Egger, 2019). As noticed by Mura, Tavakoli and Sharif (2017), there is no clear definition on the notion of *virtual tourism,* but rapid technological development continuously imposes a more stable relationship between *virtual tourism* and VR products. This notwithstanding, Mura, Tavakoli and Sharif (2017) propose to maintain a broader definition which allows any form of virtual "travelling", not necessarily related to the use of specific electronic devices.

The present study adopts this proposal, with the aim of proposing that virtual tourism can become part of L2 classroom activities. Of course, we do not exclude at all a possible future application of VR products inside the classroom but for the moment such devices are rather limited in terms of both use and distribution and, furthermore, are not suitable for widespread use.

Virtual tourism, the way we intend it here, i. e. the way it could be applied to L2 teaching, could be conceived of as a type of virtual experience realized by visiting touristic websites (without excluding the reading of other non-web materials) and searching for, listening to and reading materials available online related to a given touristic destination.

In this work we will consider the way touristic information could be applied to the teaching/learning process if combined with a recently elaborated specific teaching technique. The most natural relationship between the two is the fact that, as we will see below, the proposed methodology is mainly based on teaching through texts. The more interesting and stimulating the text material is, the more motivated the learner is and the better the results are.

In the next few sections we present the methodology that is being elaborated and tested as part of an experimental course of Russian at the International Centre for Plurilingualism at the University of Udine.

3 Teaching methodology based on oral translation

In Laskova (2019; to appear) an experiment is carried out showing that by adopting oral translation as the main teaching technique, students can successfully develop fluency and accuracy at a higher level than the students taught according to the traditional method, where oral skills are among the last abilities to exercise and develop. The experiment was conducted at the University of Udine as part of a course of Russian. We summarize below the tested methodology and the results, which will cast light on why tourist web sites and tourist printed material might be suitable for the L2 teaching.

The main purpose of this research was to develop a methodology the main purpose of which is to achieve as a primary objective, the ultimate goal of the learning process, i.e. develop oral competence in the L2, in this case, in Russian. This was done by carrying out memorization work in classroom practice through oral translation. The development of good oral skills within the academic hour, allowed the learning process to remain independent of other factors of a more personal nature (like the amount of time one dedicates to the L2 outside the university, one's personal diligence and willingness to learn at home, etc.). In this respect this methodology can be opposed to the traditional training which starts from theoretical presentations, going through drills and leaves oral practice and memorization at the final stage (and most often the latter is only done at home).

This process appears to save time, leading to considerably better results in a shorter period of time, since the immediate achievement of language competences means the remaining time can be dedicated to other activities (i.e. lexical and grammatical drills and various other work done by the student) and to the consolidation of the knowledge the students already have. In this way the proposed methodology can be viewed as a useful premise for any approach to L2 teaching. Last but not least, the immediate results, i.e. the rapid development of linguistic skills, strongly stimulate learners' motivation serving as an impetus to achieve further goals.

We present below in more detail the experiments conducted at the Centre for Plurilingualism at the University of Udine.

4 Why do we need to search for new didactic methodologies?

The development of this methodology was directly inspired by a well-known fact, namely that fluency is very difficult to achieve in an L2 classroom and often remains an unachieved goal (cf. Gatbonton & Segalowitz, 2005; Rossiter et al., 2010). As Rossiter et al put it "although many communicative language teaching (henceforth CLT) classrooms promote general fluency, they do not provide the repetition necessary to achieve automatic fluency" (Rossiter et al., 2010, p. 585).

On the other hand, if classroom activities are mainly centred around the development of communicative competences, this may lead to an underdevelopment of knowledge of the formal features of a language. Indeed, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has been criticized also for underestimating the role of grammar (see for example Ridge, 1992; Swan, 1985 among others).

An important question is: can we develop a teaching methodology which fosters both fluency and accuracy? To this question another should be added: can such methodology help to achieve more rapid results?

For the purposes of our study an experimental group and several control groups were set up. The participants in the experimental group were all first-year students of Russian who, apart from their regular classes of Russian, also attended an additional course at the International Centre for Plurilingualism. Ten volunteers from the course were selected to participate in the experimental group.

In addition to this there was also a small control group of students who took part in oral test activities, consisting in an interview and two comprehension exercises.

For organizational reasons, at the oral and the written parts of the final test the control group was composed of different students (neither of whom attended the course of Russian and German). Furthermore, the written test, was completed by a different group of 33 students.

Furthermore, just for the purposes of the written part of the final test (checking grammar and lexis), another control group was set up consisting of five students who attended the course of Russian and German. These students were taught grammar in a traditional manner during the grammar training period (during the spring term). They achieved their lexical knowledge, however, during the autumn term through oral translation training. The aim was to compare the results of this control group with the results of the students from the other control groups (i.e. the students who had not attended the course of Russian and German) and, of course, with the results of the students from the experimental group.

5 The experiment

5.1 Participants, materials and time span of the work

5.1.1 The composition of the experimental group

The participants of the experimental group were provided with photocopied materials and audio-files elaborated for the purposes of the experiment. The files were sent by email while the handouts were distributed during the work in the classroom.

The lectures of Russian took place twice a week. The total number of academic hours (lasting 60 minutes) was twenty-five. The lecture duration was ninety minutes. These hours were distributed both throughout the autumn and the spring terms. Thus, during each of the terms the students received approximately twelve and a half hours of Russian training.

During the autumn term the students received training which was not specifically related to the development of grammar competences. In this period grammar was taught more implicitly, the students being given only brief explanations. The spring term training was dedicated to both lexical and specific grammar training.

For the purposes of the experiment the grammar training focused on the teaching of one grammar unit, for example, the singular forms of the dative case.

Since the present experiment checks not only the students' grammatical competences but also their overall proficiency, it takes into consideration also the lexical knowledge obtained throughout the whole year.

During the first half of the period, i.e. the autumn term, the students were provided materials in the form of dialogues and other texts. The aim was to teach the following competences: present oneself and other people, be able to ask and answer questions about one's occupation, one's family, one's free time and hobbies, one's plans for the future.

During the second half of the training period the students were provided with materials aimed at developing the ability to speak of one's past experiences and the ability to use the dative case. During this period grammar was taught explicitly whereby special training was provided, which was centred around the oral translation of texts and short repetitive drills exercising the use of the dative case. The structure of the drills was traditional in nature. The original element was not concerned with the structure of the drills but rather the way the drill work was performed by the students, namely translating the examples orally. In the rest of this subsection we present in more detail the materials that were used during the classes.

Initially the students were provided with a fifty-four-word long text, containing a number of substantives used in the dative case. Following this they were presented with drills which aimed at helping the students learn the dative singular endings of nouns and adjectives, learn the various contexts in which the dative is used and the prepositions the dative is used with, as well as the dative pronouns.

Subsequently the students were provided with another sixty-nine-word long text and with yet another sixty-seven-word long text. The role of these texts was to introduce some particular cases in which the dative is used, which might present particular difficulty to an Italian learner.

The two texts were followed by another session of drill work.

Finally, during the second term, each student worked on texts with an overall length of 190 words and on additional grammatical drills.

5.1.2 The control group of students attending the course of Russian

This control group was set up at the beginning of the summer term. Five of the students attending the course were given traditional training on the same materials described above during the spring term. This was done in order to check, on the one hand, how their results would differ from the ones of the control group students not attending the course, and on the other hand, from the results of the students from the experimental group.

5.2 Training of the participants

During the autumn term all of the students attending the course of Russian received a twelve-and-a-half-hour training session in Russian. During this period the training consisted in working on texts (following the procedure explained below). As regards to grammar, the students were provided with short explanations related to the grammatical categories appearing in the texts, but they did no specific grammar drill work.

During the summer term the participants in the course received another twelve-and-a-half-hour training session which included specific work on grammar. This time, however, two groups were formed – an experimental group and a control group, which received different forms of training.

Since our aim was to check whether oral translation can develop language proficiency, the teaching activities carried out during the experiment were reduced to using only this technique. We explain below in more detail what activities the students of each group were involved in.

5.2.1 Training of the experimental group

As mentioned before the main goal of this experiment was to check to what extent oral translation, if used as a teaching technique, can contribute to the development of fluency, accuracy and complexity, as components of language proficiency. For this reason, the training of the students participating in the experiment has been realized exclusively through this teaching technique. Crucial to its application is the use of personal smart phones (or computers) onto which the students could download the audio files and listen to them while translating.

Here follows an outline of the procedure followed. Each student was sent several audio files via email and was asked to download them on their own telephone (or computer) before coming to the class. Before the beginning of the activities the students were asked to open the file containing the new text in Russian recorded with near-native fluency, to listen to it at least three times and try to understand what it concerned. Each person was allowed to work at their own speed and did not need to wait for or catch up with the others. When someone was ready, they were invited to restart the file and start repeating after the speaker, imitating the speaker's speed and pronunciation, preferably without pausing the recording. Again, everyone was invited to repeat this exercise as many times as they wanted.

After this second exercise the students were presented with the written text and were asked to do the third exercise which consisted in the following steps: everyone was invited to listen once again to each sentence, now reading also the written version. After that the students were provided with short and rapid explanations regarding unknown words, phrases and grammatical units. Then, helping themselves with both the oral and the written versions they were asked to open the file containing the same text in Italian (their mother tongue) and learn to translate the first sentence orally into Russian (while listening to the Italian version), obtaining a sort of simultaneous (or initially consecutive) translation. The aim was to obtain a fluent translation of the sentence without pausing the file and without reading the text in Russian. When a student was ready with the first sentence, they were invited to repeat the same procedure with the second sentence and to put the two sentences together until a fluent translation of both was obtained. The same procedure was repeated with the whole text until the students were able to perform a fluent oral translation of the test without pausing the file and without seeking assistance from the written version in Russian.

During the task, the students were given the instruction to switch from time to time to the audio-file containing the Russian text in order to check their pronunciation and intonation. The time duration needed for each of the texts the students were presented with was about thirty or forty minutes. As soon as a student learned to translate the text, they were invited to perform the oral translation in front of the teacher (the author). If the performance was without errors, the student could proceed with a written exercise but here we will focus only on the presentation of the oral activities rather than the written exercises.

The procedure described above was applied both to the texts and to the grammar drills. The only difference was that the drills were more repetitive and centred around one grammatical unit. Each of the two sessions of drill work lasted for about three academic hours.

5.2.2 Training of the control group formed by students attending the course of Russian

The control group was taught using the same materials but without the use of oral translation. The hours with the control group were more teacher centred classes, compared to those with the experimental group. The texts were initially read by the teacher. Afterwards the learners were encouraged to read them themselves and the unknown words and grammatical units were explained. The students took notes on all of the explanations.

Following from this step the students were encouraged to explain orally what the texts were about thus reproducing parts of them. As a next step, they were encouraged to work in pairs asking questions related to the contents of the text and answering them. In the end each student had to orally reproduce the whole text, helping themselves with the written version. While one student was talking the others were asked to listen and add information in case something was missing. This last exercise was repeated during the following class. Afterwards the group did the same written exercise as the experimental group had done. They had to read a sentence and then try to reproduce it without looking at the original text and repeat the same procedure for the whole text.

The group then worked on the grammar part which was presented in the form of oral drills in which the students had to fill in blank spaces with missing items, translate into Russian or do repetitive drills, taking turns. The control group students were asked to orally repeat the grammar drills at home.

In the following section we explain the way we tested the language skills the students developed during their training.

5.3 Testing of the participants

Since the purpose of this study is to establish whether oral translation training can help to foster language proficiency, we must have a look at how its three components (fluency, accuracy and complexity - CAF) are measured.

It has been suggested that when measuring fluency, one should take into consideration the learner's speech rate, as well as the number, position and the length of the pauses in the learner's production (cf. Tavakoli & Skehan, 2005). Accuracy is tested on the bases of the deviation from the linguistic norms of the target language and is generally measured in terms of the errors learners make (cf. Hammerly, 1991; Wolfe-Quintero et al., 1998). Finally, complexity is generally analysed in terms of its lexical and syntactic dimensions (for a more detailed analysis see Skehan, 2009a; Skehan, 2009b; Ortega, 2003; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Kuiken, Vedder & Gilabert, 2010; Bluté & Housen, 2015). The principal difficulty faced was that the complexity of the speech measured was that of L2 learners at beginner level and, therefore, dealt with a limited quantity of oral text. Nonetheless, the analysis of this component elicits differences between the experimental and the control groups which are entirely consistent with the rest of the results.

In the following subsections we explain in more detail how we measured each of the components of CAF.

5.3.1 Testing fluency

The analysis of the speech rate was carried out on the basis of an interview and on an oral translation exercise.

At the interview each student had to answer questions about themselves, their family, friends or relatives, free time and interests and had to express an opinion on a topic. The questions were chosen so as to be familiar also to the students who took part in the control group who had not attended the course. The answers of the students were recorded and analysed.

The second part of the oral test was an oral translation of a text with which the students were not familiar. It was presented in the form of an audio-file containing a text in Italian (the students' mother tongue), which was new to all of the students but contained lexical and grammatical material that the students from both the experimental and the control group were familiar with from their first year of study. The students were free to pause the recording if they wished. They were allowed to make just one attempt, and each student's first translation was recorded.

The students' speech rate was measured by dividing the total number of the pronounced words by the duration of their speech (in minutes).

The analysis of the length of pauses is represented as a percentage of the whole speech time and is based on the analysis of the interview. The interview analysis is also based on the measurement of the position and the frequency of the pauses.

Two more lexically complex exercises were added in order to check and compare the level of comprehension of the two groups. The first one required the students to indicate the correct paraphrasing of eight sentences, which they heard twice before giving their answer and one further time before submitting the answer sheet. The second consisted in listening to a text and completing a multiple choice test containing nine questions related to its content. The students heard the text twice before giving their answers and one further time before submitting the answer sheet.

5.3.2 Testing accuracy

The second component of language proficiency – accuracy – was tested both in an oral and written forms. The oral analysis was carried out on the basis of the analysis of the interview and of the oral translation exercise. The outcome of the analysis of the interview is presented as a percentage of deviation from the norm, i.e. the percentage of grammatical and lexical errors. The outcome of the analysis of the translation is presented as a percentage of correctly translated text. We applied the length of 81 words to all students. For this reason, some students from the experimental group, who translated the text correctly by using a lower number of words, obtained lower results than they actually deserved. In spite of this "small imprecision", the results maintain the general proportional relationship between the results of the students.

The written test consisted of four exercises, checking the grammatical and lexical knowledge of the students. All exercises testing grammar were elaborated with the aim of testing students' knowledge of the forms and the use of the dative case in particular.

The first exercise (a cloze test) was the easiest one. The students were presented with a text in which twenty items were removed and for each of these three possibilities were offered. The student had to indicate the correct item. Most of the items were related to the use of the dative case, but not all of them (otherwise the exercise would test only the form and not the use of the dative).

The second exercise was quite similar, but the possible answers were presented one after another with a slash and not in a column. It was slightly more difficult than the first exercise, since it tested not only grammar (mainly the dative case) but also some lexical knowledge.

The third exercise was the most difficult one. It consisted in twelve sentences containing errors which the students had to identify (and, if they wanted, to correct).

The fourth exercise checked lexical knowledge, giving the students the opportunity to comprehend and complete a complex text with lexical items suggested to them in a column running alongside the text.

5.3.3 Testing complexity

As mentioned earlier, for the purposes of the current experiment we used each student's interview performance in order to test complexity taking into account the amount and type of material used in order to answer a question. First, we measured the general number of words each one used to respond. Second, the number of words used different from those in the question and third, the number of sentences containing an embedded clause, i.e. more than one verb form (infinitival clauses included).

6 Results and discussion

6.1 Fluency

6.1.1 Oral production and comprehension

Table 1 illustrates the interval between the slowest and the fastest speaker from each of the two groups at the interview – the experimental and the control group.

Table 1: Interview. Speech rate interval

	Experimental group	Control group
Speech rate interval	74,9 – 143,1	29,1 – 54,2

The results from the oral tests show, that the students form the experimental group performed with considerably higher speech rate in comparison to those of the control group. This fact suggests that oral translation trained learners are faster speakers with higher comprehension and production skills.

The analysis of the position, length and frequency of the pauses during the oral performance as well as the results from the comprehension tests exhibit the same relationship between the experimental and the control group, as shown in *Table 2*. The overall percentage of pauses is considerably lower with the experimental group and higher with the control group. The data are again presented through an interval.

Table 2: Interview. Length of pauses

	Experimental group	Control group
Length of pauses	0% – 22,5%	37,7% – 68,7%

Two points are worthy of note from the oral comprehension tests: the experimental group's results are not only higher than those of the control group but are also more homogenous (there are no significant differences from one student to another). This again suggests that oral translation training guarantees considerable uniformity of the results and that the students' competence is not strongly dependent on factors of a personal nature (since in the classroom all students have to do the same amount of work).

The fact that students from both groups tend to make more pauses in mid-clause position is simply illustrative of the fact that they are not native speakers of Russian. The overall length of the pauses, however, does differentiate between the two groups. Of particularly significance is the reduced overall length of pauses of the experimental group in clause initial position, since this is illustrative of better comprehension and increased readiness of the student to respond.

6.1.2 Accuracy

The results from the accuracy tests suggest that, apart from being fluent speakers, oral translation trained students are also considerably more accurate speakers. *Table 3* illustrates the percentage of errors of the students of both groups made at the interview.

Table 3: Interview. Percentage of errors

	Experimental group	Control group
% of Errors	0 – 6,7	6,3 – 23,1

The experimental group's written exercise results are again consistently higher and quite homogenous. An interesting fact is that the control group, formed by students who attended the course, exhibits homogenous and high results on the lexical exercise. This is so because, unlike grammar, lexis had been taught to these students during the autumn term through oral translation training.

6.1.3 Complexity

As regards the complexity component, it should be noted that none of the experimental group students used one-word sentences. They also used a higher number of words in order to respond to a question. Furthermore, in their answers these students used a higher number of words different from those heard in the question, and a higher number of complex sentences, as compared to the students of the control group.

In conclusion, returning to the research questions posed earlier: whether we can develop a teaching methodology which fosters both fluency and accuracy and whether such a methodology can help to achieve more rapid results, we can safely give an affirmative response.

As to the reasons why oral translation training proves to be so efficient, we could mention that it offers a form of training whose most immediate goal is to achieve the ultimate result – the development of good oral, lexical and grammatical competences and good memorization of the material. In this respect it is opposed to the traditional form of training which starts from theoretical representations, going through drills and leaves oral practice and memorization for the end (where most often the latter are only done at home). Crucial to the achievement of this goal is the use of a computer or a smart phone, since the technical device allows each student to do oral (and also written) practice throughout the whole academic hour. Besides, oral translation training is time-saving. It offers the possibility to learn to speak with fewer preliminary theoretical presentations of the material. The student leaves the classroom being already able to speak and having memorized the material. Grammar, writing and further theoretical (lexical and grammatical) studies are done on the basis of pre-existing knowledge of the material (and could also be done by using oral translation). This being so, the acquisition of such skills is carried out on a more conscious level with the effect of consolidating what the learner already knows.

7 Oral translation training and other teaching methods

As was mentioned earlier oral translation training is an excellent premise to communicative classroom activities. It provides the skills necessary for carrying out oral exercises aimed at achieving good communicative competences.

Furthermore, this methodology is heading in the direction suggested by Ellis (2009), regarding the conditions for Task-based language Learning and Teaching (TBLT) proposed by him and should be joined with it in order to become more efficient. The author proposes that the task should be more input-providing. What the present methodology offers to the students is significantly rich in terms of input. However, it also offers a way to memorize this input, so that the students be able to reinforce production.

8 Oral translation methodology and touristic web resources

In this section we would like to dwell upon the issue of how touristic web sites could become useful for the process of L2 teaching through the previously discussed methodology.

As seen in the previous sections, the use of texts is fundamental for the application of the oral translation teaching technique or rather, the oral translation exercises are realized with the help of text materials. The application of texts to L2 teaching is not new, quite the opposite, it is typical of most traditional approaches. Not surprisingly, the issue regarding texts that gains most attention in the literature is the one regarding the way they can be selected on the basis of their properties. The notions used in the literature are text readability and text levelling. The former regards the syntactic and semantic difficulties of the text (cf. Chall, 1958; Gilliland, 1972; Harris & Jacobson, 1979; Klare, 1984; Harris & Sipay, 1985; Manzo & Manzo, 1995; Ruddell, 1999; Fly 2002; Vacca et al., 2003), while the latter takes into consideration properties such as the appropriateness of the content, the role of the illustrations, length, type of language and other factors (cf. Clay, 1991; Gunning, 1998; Fountas & Pinnell, 1999; Weaver, 2000).

As noted in Fly (2002), however, "readability formula makers have long known that formulas have limitations and do not include such important factors as motivation or appropriateness" (p. 289).

Indeed, some authors point out that the readability and the levelling conditions are not exhaustive of the text features relevant to the teaching-learning process. Works in the field of psychology suggest that the interest and the motivation of the learner are among the crucial factors as well. Schiefele (1991) recognizes that motivational psychology has not paid enough attention to the role of interest and carries out an experiment revealing the very close relationship between interest and learning, especially as far as work on texts is concerned.

Later studies confirm how important it is that didactic materials provoke interest in the students (cf. Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala & Cox, 1999; Guthrie & Humenick, 2004; Brozo, 2005; Brozo & Flynt, 2008; Moley, Bandre & George, 2011).

Since tourism, as mentioned at the beginning, is an activity related to exciting, positive experiences, cyber activities related to tourism could successfully become part of the L2 classroom. Thus, amusing and interesting audio and video text materials could prove worthy additions to the L2 lesson/lecture. It is already a well-known fact that Web-based language teaching and learning is recognized as a stimulating, amusing and productive experience (cf. Beauvois, 1994; Felix, 2001; Lee, 2005; Sagarra & Zapata, 2008; Suh, 2002; Ushida, 2005; Wang & Wang, 2010). Adding a touristic flavour or element could additionally increase the motivation in students.

Touristic text materials offer a wide spectrum of possibilities. Of course, many kinds of activities that could be carried out with any other text could be applied to touristic-type texts as well, with the advantage (as already mentioned above) of using interesting and stimulating written and oral texts. One of the advantages of touristic materials is that they may be of various types, given that many different types of tourism exist. Some types of tourism could be seen as more appropriate for the L2 classroom, i.e. those that are related to relaxation, leisure (one of the more modern types of tourism called *literary tourism,* where one finds sites containing information about the places related to the creation of literary works, could be of great value), maybe also health care tourism and, why not, professional tourism too. Any text, however, could be of interest, even ones related to industrial tourism if needs be.

Another advantage of touristic websites is that they are rich in illustrative materials, which offer further possibilities for developing a variety of exercises. Besides, a web-based lecture offers the students the possibility to search for materials themselves and subsequently report the information to the rest of the group. This stimulates individual work and offers the possibility to learn to carry out constructive research on the web.

Another advantage of this type of text is that the Internet provides not only written but also audio and video materials, suitable for developing oral and aural comprehension exercises. If oral translation is applied to a text, any material could be quickly memorized and become the base for any communicative or task-based activity.

In addition to this one could mention that the visiting of a given site related to a literary work or an important author would stimulate the students' interest in literature and further reading.

In our view, a lecture would become far more exciting if presented in the form of a "virtual journey". Such an experience does not require the preparation of luggage and is also entirely without cost. At the same time, it offers not only the possibility to see new places, but also to really learn more about the target culture and customs, while learning a foreign language.

9 Conclusions

This work is an attempt to presents the basic parameters of any future experiment that combines the requirements of achieving rapid results in L2 teaching and the possibilities offered by the stimulating field of tourism. The aim was to suggest a way in which tourist web resources (and other materials) could be used in the L2 classroom in order to reinforce students' motivation and to add to their knowledge of the places in which the foreign language is spoken. We explained that touristic websites would be a precious tool, especially if used together with the teaching technique presented in this work. Since the oral translation methodology is mainly based on the use of texts, the stimulating web resources are an excellent tool to be used both to teach language competences and to stimulate the students' interest in the subject.

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Obmejni turizem kot jezikovni izziv na primeru krajev med Šentiljem in Sv. Duhom na Ostrem vrhu

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Povzetek V prispevku povezujemo področje jezikoslovnega raziskovanja (linguistic landscapes) s turizmom tako, da ugotavljamo jezikovna razmerja v štirih krajih na krajšem delu meje med Slovenijo in Avstrijo (zahodno od Šentilja). V teh krajih je turizem zelo različno razvit, kar ugotavljamo na osnovi dostopnih podatkov, intervjujev in raziskovanja na terenu. Rezultati kažejo na velike razlike med intenzivnostjo in oblikami čezmejnega sodelovanja med obravnavanimi štirimi kraji in na to, da v krajih ne zasledimo konsekventne jezikovne politike, ki bi čezmejno sodelovanje izboljšala in spodbujala. Tako so npr. napisi v krajih v več kot polovici primerov samo slovenski, čeprav je na drugi strani meje izjemno razvit turizem (Južnoštajerska vinska cesta), ki bi ga lahko uspešneje povezali s turistično ponudbo na slovenski strani. To priložnost so posamezni v turizmu zaznali in jo razvijajo, predvsem nekatere vinogradniške kmetije. V pomoč razvoju turizma predlagamo ustanovitev jezikovnih pisarn ali svetovalnic v okviru občin in navajamo njihove možne naloge.

Ključne besede: obmejni turizem, jezikovni stiki, učenje nemščine, linguistic landscapes, jezikovna politika

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Border Tourism as a Language Challenge in the Case of Places Between Šentilj and Sv. Duha na Ostrem vrhu

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Abstract In this paper, we connect the linguistic landscapes with tourism by establishing relations in four places on the border between Slovenia and Austria. Tourism developed to a different extent in these places, which we determine based on data, interviews, and field research. The results show significant differences between the intensity and forms of cross-border cooperation between the four places considered and that there is no consistent language policy in areas that would improve and promote cross-border cooperation. Thus, e.g., inscriptions in places in more than half of the cases are only Slovene, although there is extremely developed tourism on the other side of the border which could be more connected with the tourist offer on the Slovene side. This opportunity has been perceived and developed by individuals in tourism. To help the development of tourism, we propose establishing language offices or counseling centers within municipalities and listing their possible tasks.

Keywords: border tourism, language contacts, German as a foreign language, linguistic landscapes, language policies

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1 Uvod

Evropska unija je z okrog 770 mil. obiskov letno turistična destinacija številka 1 v svetu, kar predstavlja več kot 50 % celotnega svetovnega turizma[1]. To število se je potrojilo od leta 1990 in podvojilo v 21. stoletju. Razlogov je seveda več; od demografskih sprememb (predvsem zaradi finančnih sposobnosti srednjega razreda v azijskih državah), razvoja infrastrukture in poceni letalskih prevozov pa do spreminjanja odnosa do kulture v najširšem smislu ter nenazadnje tudi zaradi razvoja interneta[2]. Tako ugodni podatki za Evropo pomenijo možnosti razvoja v turizmu pravzaprav v vsaki regiji oz. vsakem kraju, kar velja tudi za podeželje in ne samo za velika mesta ali turistična središča z dolgo tradicijo. Turisti prihajajo v Evropo, kako pa jih privabiti v kraje, ki jih sicer ne najdemo med najbolj obiskanimi destinacijami, imajo pa kljub temu marsikaj zanimivega, je kompleksno vprašanje. Kraji se med seboj razlikujejo po zelo različnih parametrih in jih različna področja raziskovanja klasificirajo glede na svoje kriterije. Tako recimo v jezikoslovju govorimo o regijah, ki jih določajo narečja, obenem pa govorimo tudi o socialnih kriterijih. Ko jezike in zvrsti jezikov opazujemo vezano na regionalni aspekt, govorimo tudi o obmejnih regijah in jezikovnih stikih. S stališča turizma predstavljajo obmejne regije izziv posebne vrste, saj je za njihov razvoj nujno dobro sodelovanje preko meje. Prehod preko meje lahko jezikovno predstavlja narečni kontinuum (primer meje med Avstrijo in Nemčijo, kjer se na obeh straneh meje govorijo bavarska narečja istega jezika[3]) ali pa situacija, v kateri s prehodom meje zamenjamo jezikovno skupnost in jezikovno kodo (primer meje Slovenije z Avstrijo tam, kjer na obeh ali eni strani meje praktično ni več manjšine soseda). Vsaka meja ima tudi druge razsežnosti, ne samo jezikovne. Za same jezikovne stike igrajo na meji vlogo tudi topografija prostora, socialne, ekonomske in kulturne razlike, prestiž jezika in kulture idr.

Na naslednjih straneh bomo poskušali s stališča turizma orisati jezikovna razmerja na meji med Slovenijo in Avstrijo, in sicer v manjšem predelu meje med Šentiljem in Sv. Duhom na Ostrem vrhu, torej severno od Maribora na meji v smeri vzhod - zahod. Izhajali bomo iz raziskovalne prakse t. i. *linguistic landscapes*, kar bo določalo

[1] Izhajamo iz situacije pred pandemijo korone in navajamo podatek za 2019, gl. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/tour_occ_arnraw/default/table?lang=en

[2] Prim. poročilo Final conclusion of the Linguistic Landscapes Policy in the Eastern Slovak/Hungarian borderland. (Linglang Interreg projekt 2017-2019). https://lingland.eu/files/ENG_Final%20Linguistic%20Landscape%20Policy.pdf

[3] Pluricentričnosti nemščine oz. treh knjižnih jezikov tukaj ne upoštevamo, saj se v vsakdanji rabi v obmejnem prostoru govorijo narečja.

empirični del prispevka. Dopolnili ga bomo z intervjuji, kar je nujno zaradi situacije, v kateri se trenutno zaradi pandemije nahajamo – zaradi zaprtja lokalov idr. je raziskovanje na terenu (*linguistic landscapes*) omejeno oz. delno celo onemogočeno. Rezultati raziskave nam bodo služili kot gradivo za oblikovanje priporočil za občine in turistične urade v omenjenih krajih, ki bodo ob določeni modifikaciji prenosljivi na druge regije v Sloveniji.

2 Šentilj, Svečina, Gaj nad Mariborom in Sveti Duh na Ostrem vrhu in turizem

Obmejni kraji med Šentiljem in Sv. Duhom na Ostrem vrhu so oddaljeni med seboj samo okrog 25 km zračne linije, vendar pa se med seboj precej razlikujejo.

Zemljevid tega dela obmejnega področja prikazuje Slika 1. Na njej so označeni kraji, o katerih bomo govorili v nadaljevanju in ki jih obravnavamo v empiričnem delu. Na zemljevidu je razvidna tudi bližina Maribora.

Slika 1: Obmejno področje Šentilj – Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu
Vir: https://www.google.com/maps/@46.6177475,15.5167334,12.22z

Med štirimi kraji so naslednje geografske razlike. Šentilj in Svečina ležita na zahodnem robu Slovenskih goric, kar kraja zaznamuje tako geografsko kot tudi kulturno. Gaj nad Mariborom in Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu sodita k vzhodnemu delu hribovja Kozjak, kar spet predstavlja neke druge značilnosti tako geografsko kot kulturno. Podatki o nadmorski višini kažejo, da vsak od navedenih krajev leži višje: Šentilj (292 m), Svečina (388 m), Gaj nad Mariborom (402 m) in Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu (907 m). Medtem ko so Slovenske gorice geografsko opisane kot gričevje, ki ga pogosto povezujemo z vinskim turizmom, je Kozjak sredogorje, ki ga v Mariboru in okolici pogosto povezujemo s pohodništvom in gozdovi. Vinogradništva tukaj praktično ni, ob gozdovih prevladujejo sadovnjaki, polja in travniki.

Statistično sodijo danes ti štirje kraji v Podravsko regijo[4], kar se sicer ujema tudi s starejšo tradicionalno delitvijo na regije – vsi kraji so na Štajerskem. Vendar pa leži Duh na Ostrem vrhu na območju Dravske doline in neposredno pod njim je v Dravski dolini "meja" med Štajersko in Koroško.

Narečno sodijo ti štirje kraji v tri narečne skupine[5]; štajersko, koroško in panonsko. Glede na posamezna narečja je položaj precej zapleten. Šentilj se nahaja na meji med štajersko (kozjaško podnarečje kot del južnopohorskega narečja) in panonsko narečno skupino (slovenskogoriško narečje). Svečina in Gaj nad Mariborom sodita v kozjaško podnarečje kot del južnopohorskega narečja štajerske narečne skupine in na območju Sv. Duha na Ostrem vrhu se govori severnopohorsko-remšniško narečje kot del koroške narečne skupine. To pomeni, da na tem sorazmerno kratkem obmejnem pasu lahko slišimo različna narečja, ob upoštevanju priseljenih prebivalcev iz drugih krajev pa je slika še bolj pisana.

V turizmu predstavlja poslušanje narečja za tiste, ki jezik razumejo, gotovo nekaj atraktivnega, avtohtonega, avtentičnega, domačega, kar običajno narečjem pripisujemo. Da je lahko narečna podoba tudi del turistične ponudbe, dokazuje različno predstavitveno gradivo turističnih destinacij. Narečje pa je lahko tudi v govorni rabi jezika pričakovani element. Ilustrirajmo s primerom.

[4] Gl. https://www.stat.si/obcine/sl/Region/Index/2
[5] Gl. https://fran.si/204/sla-slovenski-lingvisticni-atlas/datoteke/SLA_Karta-narecij.pdf

Vas Svečina leži na južni strani Južnoštajerske vinske ceste (*Südsteirische Weinstraße*), ene turistično najbolje razvitih regij na Štajerskem v Avstriji, kjer se vrstijo vinogradniške kmetije (*Buschenschenke*), penzioni, hoteli, gostilne idr. Potreba po zaposlovanju je tukaj precejšnja in med zaposlenimi najdemo precej čezmejnih dnevnih migrantov iz Slovenije. Med raziskavo razvijanja večjezičnosti te skupine (Lipavic Oštir 2018) je ena od sogovornic, zaposlena kot receptorka v hotelu, povedala, da njen jezikovni repertoar obsega produktivno znanje tako knjižne nemščine kot nemškega štajerskega narečja. Na delovnem mestu se pričakuje, da bo z gosti govorila v narečju, saj je gostom iz celotne Avstrije in Nemčije všeč, če slišijo narečje. Tako z njimi govori v narečju, medtem ko z gosti, ki ne prihajajo iz nemško govorečih držav (Nizozemska, Anglija, ZDA, Rusija itd.) govori knjižno nemščino ali seveda angleščino, odvisno od njihovih jezikovnih kompetenc.

Prisotnost in premišljenost rabe narečja je samo eden od elementov v turistični ponudbi, in to gotovo ne najbolj odločilen. V nadaljevanju sledi kratek pregled turistične dejavnosti po posameznih krajih.

2.1 Šentilj v turizmu

Šentilj ali Šentilj v Slovenskih goricah je naselje in središče občine. V širši Sloveniji je poznan predvsem kot največji mejni prehod z Avstrijo v tem delu Slovenije. Skozi kraj se dnevno pelje veliko turistov, sploh v poletnih mesecih. V ponudbi kraja so kazino, gostilne, turistične kmetije, brod na reki Muri, kolesarske poti, športni center, tematske poti idr. Od junija 2019 je na starem mejnem prehodu z Avstrijo odprto Regionalno turistično središče, ki ne služi samo kot informacijski center za vse, ki potujejo nekam naprej proti jugu, ampak predstavlja tudi priložnost za lokalni turizem[6]. Med leti 2014-2020 je potekal Interreg projekt SI-HR (*Prebujanje*[7]), ki bi naj ob ustanovitvi omenjenega centra med drugim promoviral tudi kulturno dediščino, predvsem t. i. keltsko pot. V povezovanju z bližnjimi kraji, kot so Jarenina, Zgornja Kungota, Plač in drugimi, kjer je izjemno razvito vinogradništvo, je ponudbo regije gotovo mogoče bolje izkoristiti. Na avstrijski strani meje se pri Šentilju (*Spielfeld*) prične omenjena Južnoštajerska vinska cesta in informacije, ki so dostopne na spletu, ne govorijo o tesnejšem povezovanju s ponudbo te vinske ceste. Prav tako ob meji poteka v Avstriji ob reki Muri kolesarska pot[8], ki se na vzhod nadaljuje vse do Gornje

[6] Gl. https://net-tv.si/turizem-v-obcini-sentilj/
[7] Gl. https://www.sentilj.si/objava/181300
[8] Gl. https://murradweg.allesgutleben.at/

Radgone. Poleti je videti kolesarje, ki se preko mejnega prehoda pripeljejo v Šentilj in kolesarjenje nadaljujejo do Maribora, kar je povezava na Dravsko kolesarsko pot[9]. Kolesarska pot ob Muri je izjemno dobro obiskana in ob njej je najti zelo različno turistično ponudbo, kot so vinotoči, postaje z malico in prigrizki (*Jausestationen*) ali pa npr. samopostrežni hladilniki z domačim sokom. K temu sodijo tudi prenočišča, kopališča in drugo. Omenjeni Brod na Muri služi tudi kolesarjem, ki želijo del poti ob Muri prevoziti na južni strani reke, v Sloveniji.

2.2 Svečina v turizmu

Od štirih krajev, o katerih govorimo, je Svečina kot turistična destinacija gotovo najbolj poznana, predvsem zaradi vinogradništva. Vas Svečina sodi v občino Kungota in leži neposredno na slovenski strani Južnoštajerske vinske ceste, sama meja poteka v nekaj delih na sami cesti ali tako rekoč zraven nje. Turistična ponudba v Svečini obsega predvsem vinogradniške kmetije, od katerih ponujajo nekatere razen vina in hrano tudi prenočišča[10]. Ena od najbolj obiskanih točk je tudi *Srce v vinogradu* (*Herzlstraße*), ki se nahaja tik ob meji na vinogradniški kmetiji Dreisiebner[11]. Svečina je znana tudi po vinogradniških in pohodniških prireditvah, ki potekajo na obeh straneh meje. Ponudba s težavo konkurira ponudbi na avstrijski strani meje, kot je povedala sogovornica iz Svečine, ki je že več desetletij aktivna na področju turizma[12]: *Na avstrijski strani je vinska cesta, ki je med najbolj nobel vinskimi cestami, oni dosegajo visoke cene in tak nivo imajo, da je sodelovanje z njimi težko, ker nočejo, da bi skupaj delali nekaj, kjer mi ne bi dosegali istega nivoja. Tja pridejo gosti z Dunaja, cele Evrope, to ni lokalna vinska cesta.* V samem središču vasi Svečina stoji nekdanji grad, kasneje kmetijska šola, ki ni v uporabi in je trenutno še neizkoriščena možnost za razvoj turizma. Prav tako manjka v vasi vinoteka, ki bi povezovala vse vinogradnike v kraju: *Načrte za vinoteko smo imeli že pred desetletji, pa vinogradniki niso bili za to. Ampak mislim, da danes mlajša generacija razmišlja drugače.* Vas ima dobre možnosti za razvoj kulinaričnega turizma, in to ne samo zaradi vinske ponudbe: *Poleti je ogromno povpraševanje po prenočiščih, tu je ogromno možnosti za razvoj.* Pot do Svečine iz Maribora je deloma urejena kot kolesarska steza, vendar za zdaj samo med krajema Spodnja in Zgornja Kungota: *Nova županja se ukvarja s cestami do posameznih kmetij, to je nekaj,*

[9] Gl. https://dravabike.si/informacije/vse-o-dravski-kolesarski-poti
[10] Gl. http://www.svecina.com/aktualno.aspx
[11] Gl. http://www.svecina.com/vinogradniki/turisticna-kmetija-dreisiebner.aspx
[12] Celoten zapis in posnetek intervjujev s sogovornicama iz Svečine in Sv. Duha na Ostrem vrhu se nahaja v gradivu raziskave.

kar so Avstrijci delali pred 50 leti. Zanimanje za obisk Svečine je veliko: *Gostje z avstrijske strani želijo priti na naše kmetije, ker hvalijo kakovost ponudbe, vina. Na avstrijski strani je vinska cesta polna, to je več kot milijon avtov letno in precej je takih, ki jih zanima tudi slovenska stran vinske ceste.*

2.3 Gaj nad Mariborom v turizmu

Kraj oz. vas sodi v občino Maribor in se je do 1948 imenoval Sv. Križ nad Mariborom. Poznan je predvsem kot izletniška točka za tiste, ki želijo obiskati eno od turističnih kmetij, ali pa kot izhodišče za pohod na Tojzlov vrh ali Žavcarjev vrh[13]. Kraj je videti kot nekakšna speča Trnuljčica, saj razen dveh turističnih kmetij in ene okrepčevalnice ni druge ponudbe, tudi na koči na Tojzlovem vrhu ne. V središču vasi razen cerkve dominira velika zgradba nekdanje osnovne šole (zgrajena 1898), ki se ji poskuša najti neko vsebino, kar pa v glavnem ni preveč uspešno[14]. Vas in okolica ponujata veliko razglednih točk s pogledom proti Mariboru. Na območju Maribora je kraj priljubljen tudi kot destinacija za kolesarjenje. Na kmetijah v vasi in okolici je gotovo veliko možnosti za razvoj turizma. Kraj je zelo blizu meje z Avstrijo in podatkov o sodelovanju s kraji na drugi strani meje ni bilo zaslediti. Na drugi strani meje je tudi tukaj Južnoštajerska vinska cesta (Glanz) in priložnosti za sodelovanje je gotovo možno razviti. Kraj Gaj nad Mariborom sodi v krajevno skupnost Bresternica-Gaj mestne občine Maribor in je edina krajevna skupnost te občine, ki meji neposredno na Avstrijo. Po mnenju krajevne skupnosti bi morali lego krajevne skupnosti bolje izkoristiti, za kar pa je pomembna ureditev infrastrukture. V krajevni skupnosti menijo, da bi nekdo (občina?) moral prepoznati potencial v turizmu na Gaju in oblikovati neko vizijo za razvoj[15]. Ne glede na upravičenost krajevne skupnosti do lastnega stališča pa je potrebno poudariti, da bi bila najbrž dobrodošla pobuda in vizija z ene ali druge strani (krajevna skupnost, občina). Na spletu tudi ni zaslediti podatkov o turističnem proizvodu (ali večih) za območje Gaja nad Mariborom.

[13] Gl. https://www.visitmaribor.si/de/was-unternehmen/sehenswuerdigkeiten/12847-
[14] Gl. npr. načrt občine Maribor za ureditev izobraževalno-kulturnega centra (2011), https://www.maribor.si/dokument.aspx?id=15686
[15] Prim. Primož Hedl v intervjuju, https://maribor24.si/lokalno/skriti-biser-maribora-kjer-so-doloceni-predeli-se-vedno-povsem-nerazviti

2.4 Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu v turizmu

Kraj sodi v občino Selnica ob Dravi in se nahaja tik ob meji z Avstrijo, sredi kraja je tudi mejni prehod. Kraj je poznan predvsem kot destinacija za pohodnike in kolesarje ter kot romarski kraj. Ponudba za turiste je precej skromna; gostilna, turistična kmetija, izletniška kmetija in chalets. Kot ponudba za šole in druge deluje v bližini vasi tudi Center obšolskih dejavnosti Škorpijon (ČŠOD). Sogovornica iz kraja je povedala, da *turizma praktično ni. Čeprav je zgodovina v preteklosti združevala ljudi s slovenske in avstrijske strani, v glavnem Avstrijci obiskujejo romarsko cerkev na Duhu, ki je za moje pojme res fascinantna. Izjema je praznik binkošti, ki ima po mojem res trde korenine, takrat je obisk povečan*. Dodala je še: *V sekakor, Duh je premalo izkoriščen kot turistična destinacija. Pred leti je bilo na Duhu smučišče. Etno muzej selniški plejžuh so morali seliti v ČŠOD. Na Duhu v gostilni Heric je velik dom, dvorana za 100 ljudi (tu bi lahko bile prireditve, sodelovanje s sosednjimi kraji …). Na Duhu je spomenik Đakoviču in Hečimoviču, (ljudje sploh ne vedo, kdo sta bila). Možnost kolesarjenja so - krasne poti (vse po dolinah na obeh straneh meje)* … Na avstrijski strani meje je na pobočjih Kozjaka razvit turizem, blizu meje pa je turistično središče vas Leutschach, ki sodi na področje že večkrat omenjene Južnoštajerske vinske ceste. Tudi tukaj so torej možnosti povezovanja in skupne ponudbe zelo dobre. Primer načrtovanja je lokalna razvojna strategija za občino Selnica ob Dravi iz leta 2008[16], ki govori tudi o turizmu in možnostih razvoja spričo dejstva, da je opaziti samo enodnevne goste iz Avstrije, ki prihajajo na Duh na Ostrem vrhu zaradi romarske cerkve. Med prednostmi SWOT analize je v lokalni strategiji poudarjena lega kraja ob meji z Avstrijo (2008: 51) in med priložnostmi možnost povezovanja na skupnih projektih z avstrijskimi partnerji (2008: 52). Žal pa na spletu dostopni podatki ne govorijo o realizaciji strategije in posledično o razvoju v turizmu – tako npr. v strategiji omenjena gostinska ponudba na Duhu na Ostrem vrhu (turistična kmetija, gostilna) do danes razširjena samo z možnostmi prenočevanja (chalets Toplak).

[16] Gl. http://www.selnica.si/wp-content/uploads/2017/08/STRATEGIJA_LAS_JABOLKO.pdf

2.5 Čezmejno sodelovanje

Kot vidimo, se vsi štirje kraji med seboj precej razlikujejo po razvitosti turizma in aktivnostih. Nedvomno so v vseh štirih primerih možni še nadgradnja obstoječih aktivnosti in ponudbe oz. razvijanje novih. S tesnim sodelovanjem čez mejo se prenašajo nekateri vzorci, kar je predvsem razvidno v Svečini[17]. Spremembe turistične ponudbe v tem kraju so vidne ob prvem obisku kraja; vedno več vinogradniških kmetij razpolaga z vinskimi kletmi in prostori za goste, ki so atraktivni s stališča arhitekture in prostorskega oblikovanja, prav tako sta pridelava grozdja in proizvodnja vina kakovostno na visokem nivoju.

Kar zadeva čezmejno sodelovanje, informacije iz intervjujev in spleta opozarjajo na naslednje.

a/ Organiziranega in sistematičnega sodelovanja ni (Gaj nad Mariborom).

b/ Sodelovanje je sistematično in organizirano samo na določenih segmentih. *Občina zaenkrat še nima v razvojnem načrtu sodelovanja z ustanovami preko meje. Kolikor vem, sodeluje OŠ Selnica ob Dravi s šolo Lučane* (*Leutschach* v Avstriji)*, natančneje Podružnica Sveti Duh. Enkrat letno se obiskujejo in si izmenjajo izkušnje. Mislim, da učiteljice (ki vodijo ta projekt) ne znajo nemško. Vedno poskrbijo, da je z njimi nekdo, ki komunicira nemško/slovensko.* (Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu)

b/ Sodelovanje je organizirano in utečeno, vendar bi bile potrebne modifikacije in nadgradnja. (Svečina)

Čeprav lahko za vse štiri kraje ugotovimo, da obstaja topografski kontinuum na obeh straneh meje, pa o jezikovnem kontinuumu ne moremo govoriti. Geografska in osebna imena na obeh straneh meje pričajo o nekdanjem jezikovno mešanem območju, vendar so dogodki v 20. stoletju začrtali mejo, ki jo je danes potrebno s ciljno jezikovno in šolsko politiko preseči. Če je bil na primer na začetku 20. stoletja dvojezični vsakdanjik nekaj običajnega na obeh straneh meje, danes o njem pričajo samo germanizmi (slov. *furt na furt*) v slovenskih obmejnih narečjih in slovenizmi na avstrijski strani (nem. *Klapotetz*), pa seveda omenjena geografska in osebna imena.

[17] O nekaterih izkoriščenih možnostih sodelovanja gl. npr. posamezne projekte, kot so Flag Ship Products (http://www.si-at.eu/si2/flagship-products/), e-carriage (http://www.si-at.eu/si2/e-carriage-4cbst/).

Nekaj primerov s spletne strani Južnoštajerske vinske ceste v Avstriji:

- geografska imena: nem. *Leutschach* (slov. *Lučane*), nem. *Ratsch*, (slov. *Račane*);
- osebna imena[18]: *Jaunegg, Tscheppe, Sternat, Tertinek, Sraka, Repolusk, Roschitz, Lieleg, Lieschnegg.*
-
- Nekaj primerov na slovenski strani:

- geografska imena: vsi kraji na slovenski strani meje imajo zgodovinska nemška imena[19]: slov. *Svečina* (nem. *Witschein*), slov. *Šentilj* (nem. *St. Egydi*), slov. *Gaj nad Mariborom*, pred 1948 *Sv. Križ nad Mariborom* (nem. *Heiligenkreuz bei Marburg*), slov. *Sveti Duh na Ostrem vrhu* (nem. *Heliger Geist am Osterberg*), slov. *Kamnica* (nem. *Gams*);
- osebna imena (območje Svečine): *Dreisiebner, Gaube, Kren, Leber, Valdhuber, Mukenauer.*

Politični dogodki v 20. stol. so mejo, določeno po I. svetovni vojni, zaznamovali tudi, kar zadeva usvajanje in učenje jezika soseda, pri čemer igra vlogo tudi razmerje med nemščino in slovenščino. Tako se nemščino veliko pogosteje danes učijo učenci in odrasli na slovenski strani meje, kar je razumljivo zaradi funkcionalnih vlog, ki jih ta jezik opravlja v Evropi, in nejezikovne motivacije, predvsem s strani gospodarstva. V obmejnem prostoru (gl. zemljevid zgoraj) v Avstriji, o katerem govorimo, se slovenščina kot predmet na osnovnih in srednjih šolah poučuje v krajih: Arnfels, Leutschach, Ehrenhausen, Langegg, Leibnitz[20], razen tega se poučuje tudi v nekaterih otroških vrtcih (prim. v Ratschu).

V krajih na slovenski strani, o katerih govorimo, je nemščina na vseh osnovnih šolah (Šentilj, Svečina oz. Zgornja Kungota, Kamnica - Gaj nad Mariborom in Selnica ob Dravi oz. Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu) prisotna kot drugi tuji jezik, pri čemer v vseh krajih občine financirajo zgodnje poučevanje nemščine kot fakultativni predmet, kar pomeni pouk že v 1. VIO. Spodnja tabela prikazuje število učencev, ki se nemščino učijo v šolskem letu 2020/2021:

[18] Gl. https://www.suedsteirischeweinstrasse.com/de/Verkosten-Geniessen/Weinerlebnisse/Weingueter-Vinotheken?demiInfraTown=0&page=2
[19] Gl. https://sl.wikipedia.org/wiki/Seznam_nem%C5%A1kih_imen_slovenskih_krajev#S
[20] Prim. https://rm.coe.int/168070c2f3

Tabela 1: Učenje nemščine ob meji

VIO/OŠ	Šentilj	Zgornja Kungota (Svečina)	Kamnica (Gaj nad Mariborom)	Selnica ob Dravi (Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu)
1.-3. r.	80	102	29	26
4.-6. r.	52	10	91	21
7.-9. r.	72	13	25	7

Vir: podatki, pridobljeni s posameznih šol

Kot kažejo podatki, je položaj nemščine na štirih šolah zelo različen, pri čemer je zaskrbljujoče, da zanimanje upade z leti šolanja – številke so v najvišjih razredih z izjemo Šentilja izjemno nizke.

Vsekakor pa lahko sklenemo, da se položaj nemščine izboljšuje glede na situacijo pred desetletji, ko se nemščina ob meji pogosto sploh ni poučevala. Generacija, ki je zdaj v srednjih letih ali malo starejša, se nemščine sploh ni učila, čeprav so živeli ob meji (prim. Lipavic Oštir 2018). Sogovornica iz Svečine: *Šele mlajša generacija, danes med 20 in 30, bolje obvlada nemško. Starejši ne, ker nemščina po vojni dolgo v teh krajih ni bila zaželena. Ima pa danes vsaka kmetija enega ali dva, ki zna tekoče nemško. Z gosti, sploh tistimi, ki prespijo, se je potrebno še kaj pogovarjati in ne samo postreči. Na kmetijah poskrbijo za to, da so jedilni listi prevedeni v nemščino, da znajo kaj povedati o kraju in dati kake napotke. Takoj, ko je aktivno vključena mlajša generacija, je takoj zanimanje za to, da bi na kmetiji znali nemško.*

3 Linguistic landscapes in turizem

V sociolingvistiki dokaj novo raziskovalno področje z imenom *linguistic landscapes* (LL[21]) raziskuje jezik javnih napisov, reklamnih napisov, imen mest, trgovin in javnih oznak na uradnih ustanovah na nekem določenem območju (Landry/Bourhis 1997:25). Pri tem se upoštevajo tako jezikovna politika, večjezična razmerja, diskurz in tudi multimodalnost (Sebba 2012). Zaradi teh osnovnih premis je raziskovanje LL zanimivo kot povezovanje med jezikoslovjem in turizmom, o čemer priča vrsta študij (npr. Kallen 2009, Koschade 2016 o vlogi nacionalnih jezikov kot simbolu avtentičnosti), od katerih spričo dominantne vloge angleščine danes pri raziskovanju LL ni možno prezreti raziskovanja položaja in vlog tega jezika ter tudi drugih jezikov (Marten et al. 2012).

[21] O razvoju gl. npr. Spolsky (2009).

Običajna praksa raziskovanja LL pomeni analize etnolingvistične vitalnosti, v kontekstu turizma pa se nekatere raziskave bolj posvečajo oblikam komuniciranja v situacijah, v katerih jezik primarno služi kot orodje v turizmu na nekem določenem območju (Ruzaitė 2017:198). S tega stališča so raziskave obmejnih področij izjemno zanimive, saj lahko pričakujemo razen pojavljanja jezika okolja tudi jezik soseda, seveda ob predvidenem pojavljanju angleščine kot lingve franke. V kolikor je sama regija večjezična, je situacija še zapletenejša, o čemer pa v našem primeru ne moremo govoriti, saj je obmejna regija uradno enojezično slovenska.

V vsaki situaciji, ko nekdo kot turist potuje v okolje, kjer se njegov jezik ne govori, se le-ta seveda nujno mora soočiti z nekim drugim jezikovnim kodom. Kallen (2009:271ff) ugotavlja, da ima to soočenje dvojni učinek na turista. Jezik predstavlja bistven del izkušnje potovanja v tujino in je znak avtentičnosti, torej ne nujno nekaj neprijetnega. Obenem pa lahko tuji jezik predstavlja izziv in zmanjšuje občutek gotovosti. To dvojnost morajo tisti, ki oblikujejo napise v turističnih krajih, upoštevati.

Na področju LL so glede na cilje tega prispevka primerjalno zanimive raziskave, ki se ukvarjajo z geografsko primerljivimi prostori (Srednja ali Vzhodna Evropa, obmejni kraji, vasi in manjša mesta). Največ primerljivih raziskav najdemo na področju baltskih držav (Marten et al. 2012, Ruzaitė 2017), posamezne pa tudi za Jordanijo (Al-Naimat/Alomoush 2018) in Kitajsko (Lu/Li/Xu 2020). Marten et al. (2012:289) obravnavajo LL v šestih srednje velikih mestih v baltskih državah glede na turizem in vlogo angleščine ter ruščine kot lingve franke. Ruzaitė (2017) primerja LL v več zelo obiskanih litovskih in poljskih turističnih središčih, za katere ugotavlja avtorstvo večjezičnih napisov, določa tipe ustanov, ki uporabljajo večjezične napise, ter analizira, kateri jeziki se pojavljajo. Al-Naimat/Alomoush (2018) obravnavata LL Petre v Jordaniji s stališča semiotike in klasificirata znake, ki jih najdemo v okolju in so tam predvsem zaradi turistov, na trajne, poltrajne in začasne glede na material, ki je uporabljen. Lu/Li/Xu (2020) opazujejo razvijanje večjezičnosti zaradi turizma v eni od vasi na Kitajskem. Omenjene raziskave se poslužujejo različnih metod (intervjuji, vprašalniki, analiza spletnih strani), vsem pa je skupno fotografsko dokumentiranje okolice, pri čemer oblikujejo različno velike korpuse.

Pri raziskovanju LL v štirih obmejnih krajih smo uporabili naslednje metode: fotografsko dokumentiranje, dopolnjeno z dvema intervjujema, delni pregled spletnih strani ter pridobivanje informacij s strani osnovnih šol (e-pošta). Zaradi situacije, v kateri so gostinski lokali zaprti (pandemija korona virusa), je fotografsko dokumentiranje smiselno samo v primeru trajnih in poltrajnih znakov, medtem ko začasnih seveda ni najti. Primer: turistična kmetija ne postavi pred hišo table, na kateri je s kredo zapisan jedilnik.

3.1 Rezultati raziskave

Vsi štirje kraji ležijo na območju, ki je tako kot večina Slovenije uradno deklarirano kot enojezično območje. To pomeni, da najdemo uradne napise izključno v slovenskem jeziku (za razliko od dvojezičnih območij ob meji z Madžarsko in na obali, kjer najdemo napise v slovenskem in madžarskem oz. italijanskem jeziku). Govorimo o krajevnih tablah in o napisih na uradnih ustanovah. Pri pridobivanju podatkov smo izhajali iz v raziskovanju LL pogosto uporabljene definicije napisa: … *any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame* (Backhaus 2006:55, po Ruzaitė 2017:204). Ker želimo LL raziskovati v turizmu, so bili fotografirani izključno napisi, ki so povezani s turizmom, pa naj gre za izletniški turizem (kulinarični ali drugih vrst) ali pa nakupovalni in storitveni turizem, kar velja predvsem za Šentilj. Rezultat fotografiranja je korpus fotografij iz vseh štirih krajev, kot kaže tabela 2:

Tabela 2: Število fotografij po posameznih krajih

Šentilj	Svečina	Gaj nad Mariborom	Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu
67	61	9	12
skupaj: 149			

Skupno število je dovolj veliko za statistični prikaz, sicer pa se število fotografij po posameznih krajih zelo razlikuje; na Sv. Duhu in Gaju ni bilo možno posneti več fotografij, ker turizma skorajda ni. Število fotografij iz Svečine in Šentilja je primerljivo, vendar ne govori o primerljivi razvitosti turizma, ampak o tem, da je v Šentilju najti več napisov, saj je kraj veliko večji, urban in kot središče občine pomeni tudi center okolice.

Za korpus lahko trdimo, da odraža sliko v turizmu v vseh štirih krajih, vendar z omenjeno omejitvijo zaradi pandemije.

Na področju raziskovanja LL v turizmu in tudi sicer pogosto raziskujemo večjezičnost oz. prisotnost več jezikov v nekem okolju skozi napise v javnosti. Ta aspekt smo upoštevali in vse fotografije razdelili v skupine glede na pojavljanje jezikov:

Tabela 3: Pojavljanje jezikov na napisih po posameznih krajih

jezik/kraj	Šentilj	Svečina	Gaj	Sv. Duh	skupaj
SLO	48	36	8	2	94 (63,9 %)
SLO, NEM	2	13	/	7	22 (14,8 %)
SLO, ANG	8	/	1	/	9 (6,1 %)
SLO, NEM, ANG	1	4	/	2	7 (4,8 %)
SLO, drugi jeziki	1	/	/	/	1 (0,7 %)
ni mogoče določiti	7	8	/	1	16 (10,9 %)

V primerih, ko jezika ni mogoče določiti, gre za ime subjekta, kar je v primeru vinogradniških kmetij priimek vinogradnika (*Elšnik, Valdhuber, Jamnik*), ali pa neko fantazijsko ime (*Ducal*, *Pingo*). Oboje se trži kot blagovna znamka.

V vseh krajih in skupno prevladujejo napisi v slovenščini (63,9 %), sledijo jim dvojezični napisi v slovenščini in nemščini (14,8 %), manj je ostalih jezikov. Dvo- ali večjezičnih napisov je skupaj 25,2 %. Več takih napisov je najti v Svečini, kar je posledica položaja Svečine v turizmu – slovenska stran Južnoštajerske vinske ceste (posledično najvišji delež slovensko-nemških napisov od vseh krajev) in skrb za uveljavljanje kot turistična destinacija. Kljub temu pa je tudi v Svečini razmerje med slovenskimi napisi in tistimi, ki vsebujejo tudi tuje jezike, približno 2:1 v prid slovenskim. To kaže na to, da se ne gradi ciljno na pridobivanju gostov iz tujine, ampak predvsem domačih. Ob upoštevanju geografske situacije (napisi samo v slovenščini približno 200 m, 300 m ali celo manj od meje, na drugi strani meje pa vrsta turističnih objektov, kar je tudi posledica zakonodaje, ki ne predvideva dvojezičnih napisov, saj ne gre za uradno večjezični prostor[22]), je odsotnost vlaganja v tuje turiste nerazumljiva. Dandanes je meja odprta in na majhnem pasu vasi Svečina so trije mejni prehodi, sicer pa ljudje mejo med sprehajanjem pogosto prečkajo tudi izven njih. Jezikovno sodelovalno okolje bi se moralo odražati tudi na napisih v Sloveniji. O pomembni povezanosti obeh strani meje pričajo tudi napisi na avstrijski strani, ki vabijo na turistične kmetije na slovenski strani meje, primer prikazuje slika 2. Ti kažejo na to, da gre za iniciativo posameznih vinogradnikov,

[22] Gl. Zakon o javni rabi slovenščine (http://www.pisrs.si/Pis.web/pregledPredpisa?id=ZAKO3924)

povezanega nastopa Svečine na drugi strani meje ni. Opomba: cesta na fotografiji je obenem meja med državama.

Slika 2: Napis na avstrijski strani meje (Svečina)
Vir: lasten.

Fotografije iz korpusa bomo ne glede na jezik(e) zaradi primerljivosti analizirali po parametrih, ki jih v svojih analizah uporabijo Edelman (2010, po njej Ruzaitė 2017) in Al-Naimat/Alomoush (2018). Edelman (2010, po Ruzaitė 2017:204) določa naslednje parametre analize: (a) območje raziskave, (b) državni ali zasebni napis, (c) tip subjekta[23], (d) ime subjekta, (e) področje trgovine, (f) del verige ali samostojna ustanova, (g) število jezikov, ki pa smo ga prikazali že zgoraj. Al-Naimat/Alomoush delita znake glede na material, na katerem so napisani, in po tej delitvi bomo napise

[23] Uporaba ustrezne terminologije v slovenščini predstavlja problem. V raziskovanju LL se uporablja termin ang. *establishment*, nem. *Einrichtung*, ki predstavlja nek poslovni subjekt ali državno ustanovo. Pojem je zelo splošen in pokriva vse vrste poslovnih subjektov od zasebnega do državnega sektorja. V slovenščini smo se odločili uporabiti izraz *subjekt*, saj se pojem ustanova ne nanaša npr. na prodajalno sladoleda.

iz korpusa razdelili po naslednjih parametrih: (A) napis na kovini, (B) napis na lesu in (C) napis na steklu ali papirju.
V tabeli 4 so zbrani podatki analize z upoštevanjem parametrov a-d, dodani so krajši komentarji. Razlaga posameznih kategorij in kratic:

(a) območje raziskave: Duh na Ostrem vrhu, Gaj nad Mariborom, Svečina, Šentilj;
(b) državni ali zasebni napis, pri čemer je kriterij, ali je subjekt v državni ali zasebni lasti;
(c) tip subjekta: čebelarstvo, gostinstvo (različne oblike, od okrepčevalnice do hotela), izletniška (tudi vinogradniška) kmetija, mediji, prenočišče, storitve, trgovina, turistična informacijska tabla;
(d) ime subjekta: fantazijsko ime, geografsko ime, občno ime, priimek, zvrstno ime, imena ni možno določiti

Tabela 3: Analiza napisov po parametrih (Edelman)

<table>
<tr><th>parameter/kraj</th><th>Duh</th><th>Gaj</th><th>Svečina</th><th>Šentilj</th><td rowspan="2">Številke odražajo turizem in urbanost v posameznih krajih.</td></tr>
<tr><td>a/območje</td><td>12</td><td>9</td><td>61</td><td>67</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">b/državni ali zasebni napis</td><td rowspan="3">Različne državne ustanove (občina, turistična zveza) skrbijo za obveščanje turistov v vseh krajih, najbolj je to opazno v Svečini.</td></tr>
<tr><td>državni</td><td>5</td><td>5</td><td>39</td><td>15</td></tr>
<tr><td>zasebni</td><td>7</td><td>4</td><td>22</td><td>52</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">c/tip subjekta</td><td rowspan="9">Številke odražajo tako prisotnost turizma na (vinogradniških) kmetijah kot bistvenem elementu (predvsem v Svečini) turizma v vinorodnem kraju, obenem pa odražajo tudi urbanost (Šentilj) in skromnost ponudbe (Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu in Gaj nad Mariborom).</td></tr>
<tr><td>čebelarstvo</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>/</td><td>/</td></tr>
<tr><td>gostinstvo</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>1</td><td>18</td></tr>
<tr><td>kmetija</td><td>3</td><td>2</td><td>17</td><td>4</td></tr>
<tr><td>mediji</td><td>/</td><td>/</td><td>/</td><td>1</td></tr>
<tr><td>prenočišče</td><td>1</td><td>/</td><td>/</td><td>1</td></tr>
<tr><td>storitve</td><td>/</td><td>/</td><td>2</td><td>16</td></tr>
<tr><td>trgovina</td><td>/</td><td>/</td><td>1</td><td>16</td></tr>
<tr><td>info tabla</td><td>6</td><td>5</td><td>40</td><td>12</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="5">d/ ime subjekta</td><td rowspan="7">Medtem ko na področju turizma na kmetiji prednjači priimek kot identifikacija subjekta (vsi kraji razen Šentilja), so za Šentilj kot majhno urbano središče tipična fantazijska imena oz. izmišljena imena.</td></tr>
<tr><td>fantazijsko ime</td><td>1</td><td>/</td><td>7</td><td>37</td></tr>
<tr><td>geografsko ime</td><td>3</td><td>2</td><td>20</td><td>11</td></tr>
<tr><td>občno ime</td><td>1</td><td>/</td><td>/</td><td>/</td></tr>
<tr><td>priimek</td><td>5</td><td>6</td><td>28</td><td>7</td></tr>
<tr><td>zvrstno ime</td><td>/</td><td>/</td><td>2</td><td>12</td></tr>
<tr><td>nedoločljivo</td><td>2</td><td>1</td><td>4</td><td>/</td></tr>
</table>

Iz podatkov v tabeli izpostavljamo naslednje.

- Napisi kažejo na pomembnost in potencial razvijanja turizma na (vinogradniških) kmetijah, ki svojo blagovno znamko razvijajo predvsem na priimku.
- S strani državnih ustanov je sorazmerno dobro poskrbljeno za obveščanje o turističnih točkah (kmetije, naravne in druge znamenitosti).
- Od vseh krajev samo Šentilj kot urbano središče ponuja možnosti nakupovalnega in storitvenega turizma.
- Kraja Duh in Gaj ostajata neizkoriščeni možnosti za razvoj turizma, kar dokazujejo tudi napisi.
- V veliko primerih je nemogoče po napisih razbrati storitveno dejavnost, predvsem kar zadeva prenočišča. Ime kmetije oz. priimek na tabli nam ne povesta, da so na voljo tudi prenočišča. Pri gostih, ki prihajajo za več dni, to ni ovira, saj potrebujejo samo ime kot identifikacijo. To ilustrirata sliki 3 (a, b), pri čemer najdemo na napisu a) simbolne oznake za ponudbo, medtem ko jih napis b) ne vsebuje.

Slika 3 (a, b): Informacije o ponudbi (Svečina)
Vir: lasten.

Med parametri, ki jih upošteva Edelman (2010), je tudi vprašanje trgovine kot samostojne ustanove ali dela verige. Ker je v našem primeru delež napisov s področja trgovine najti z eno izjemo samo v Šentilju (16), teh parametrov ne bomo upoštevali, ampak si bomo natančneje ogledali napise s področja gostinstva in kmetij. Ti predstavljajo razen info tabel najštevilčnejšo skupino (45 napisov) in glede na posamezne kraje kažejo razvitost turizma na kmetijah v vseh krajih, še najmanj v Šentilju, kjer prevladujejo gostilne in manjši gostinski lokali pa tudi hotel in restavracija. Slika 3a kaže na zelo različna poimenovanja v turizmu na kmetijah v

Svečini, medtem ko najdemo na Gaju nad Mariborom poimenovanji *izletniška kmetija* in *ekološka kmetija*. Na Duhu na Ostrem vrhu najdemo poimenovanje *izletniška kmetija*. Žolnir et al (2008) navajajo tri kategorije v turizmu na kmetiji, aktualne za kraje iz analize[24]: kmetija z nastanitvijo, izletniška kmetija in vinotoč. Kot kaže slika 3a, se pojavljajo še kategorije *vinogradništvo*, *družinska kmetija*, nadpomenka *turistična kmetija* in kombinacije kot *vinogradniško-izletniška kmetija*, *vino in sadje*, *vino in turizem* in *vino in turistična kmetija*. Tudi če stroka in sami kmetovalci jasno razločujejo med ponudbo na posamezni kategoriji, pa je tak nabor poimenovanj za turista kot uporabnika jezikovni in kognitivni izziv. Dekodiranje poimenovanj sicer olajšujejo simboli, pri čemer tudi ti niso vedno razločevalni (*družinska kmetija* ima isti simbol *vinogradništvo*). V smislu lažje dostopnosti informacij na sicer razločno oblikovanih tablah bi veljalo razmisliti o prilagojenih informacijah.

Zbrano gradivo iz vseh štirih krajev bomo analizirali tudi glede na parametre, ki jih postavljata Al-Naimat/Alomoush (2018). Pri raziskavi LL v Petri v Jordaniji delita napise na tri skupine, vendar pa je uporaba teh parametrov v našem primeru omejena zaradi pandemije, saj skorajda ni bilo najti napisov na steklu in papirju. Izjema so napisi *Znižano* in *Čiščenje/80/čiščenje*, ki vabijo na razprodaje v nekaterih trgovinah v Šentilju. Analiza napisov glede na (A) kovino (sem štejemo tudi napise na plastiki) in (B) les je dala naslednje rezultate.

Tabela 4: Analiza napisov po parametrih (Naimat/Alomoush)

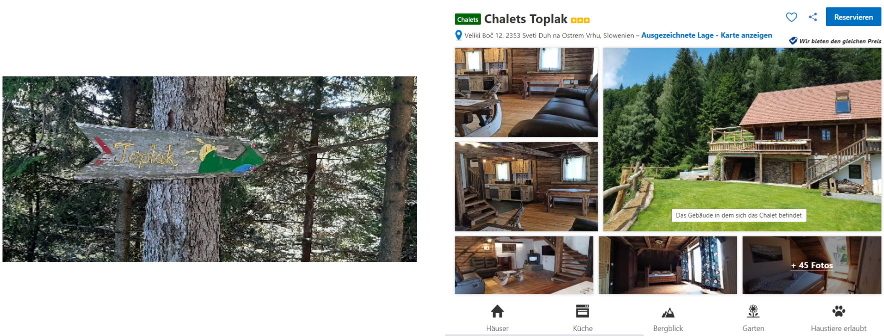
kraj/material	kovina, plastika	les	drugo
Sv. Duh	2	8	2
Gaj	5	4	/
Svečina	43	17	1
Šentilj	56	3	8

V Svečini in Šentilju prevladujejo napisi na kovini, v Šentilju najdemo tudi take na platnu in steklu. Pri napisih na kovini ali plastiki gre predvsem za napise, ki jih postavi občina ali turistična zveza, obenem pa za napise v trgovinah. Glede na material so trajnejši, obenem blagovne znamke ne gradijo z uporabo materiala kot podlage za napis. Drugače je pri napisih na leseni podlagi. Naslednja primera kažeta, kako se uporaba lesene podloge in temu ustrezno oblikovanje napisa vključujeta v koncept blagovne znamke.

[24] Osmice in planšarije niso aktualne za obravnavano območje.

<u>Primer 1</u>: Chalets Toplak, Sv. Duh na Ostrem vrhu

Počitniške hišice sodijo med turistično ponudbo višjega razreda, o čemer pričajo tudi ocene na Booking.com (9,9) in slikovno gradivo s spleta (gl. sliko 4a). Napis, ki nas od glavne ceste pelje do lokacije, je preprost zapis na leseni podlagi, ki s pisavo, barvami in obliko napoveduje bivanje v naravi, povezanost z njo, čisto okolje. Na iste atribute sklepamo po slikovnem gradivu s spleta (4b). Kljub visokim standardom in skrbi za zunanje in notranje oblikovanje je napis (4a) skromnega videza, toda ravno s tem videzom kot sestavnim delom koncepta dosega svoje cilje.



Slika 4 (a, b): Chalet Toplak
Vir: lasten in zajem ekrana s www.booking.com

<u>Primer 2</u>: Vino in turizem Valdhuber, Svečina

Storitve in izdelki s te kmetije sodijo v višji razred na področju turizma na kmetiji v Svečini. Samo poslopje je zanimivo s stališče arhitekture, blagovna znamka je premišljeno izgrajena (oblikovanje imena, spletna stran, oblikovanje vinskih steklenic idr., gl. 5b). Napis, ki nas usmeri h kmetiji (5a), je podobno kot v primeru 1 skromen, zapisan na lesu in nakazuje atribute, ki jih turist išče na podeželju: povezanost z naravo, avtohtonost, pristnost.

Slika 5 (a, b): Valdhuber
Vir: lasten in zajem ekrana s https://www.valdhuber.si/de/uber-uns/

Izbrana primera sta ilustrativna zaradi navideznega kontrasta med skromnostjo napisa in nivojem ponudbe. Vendar gre samo za navidezno skromnost, pri razumevanju celotnega koncepta se pokaže, da je oboje usklajeno, saj pri turistih razvija identične konotacije.

4 Priporočila za občine in turistične urade

Analiza LL je v vseh štirih krajih pokazala, da kraji oz. občine ne oblikujejo ciljne jezikovne politike v turizmu, predvsem kar zadeva jezik soseda. Res je, da se na napisih pogosto pojavljajo priimki ali fantazijska imena kot identifikacija za turista, vendar pa se med njimi pojavljajo pogosto tudi občna imena, ki pa nastopajo v velikem odstotku samo v slovenščini. V krajih ob meji, ki se trudijo razvijati turizem, bi na informacijah, ki jih najdemo v naravi in na spletu, pričakovali konsekventno rabo večjezičnih napisov. Obstoječi večjezični napisi so deloma rezultat truda posameznih občin, predvsem pa posameznikov. Večjezični napisi bi bili še posebej pomembni v treh od obravnavanih krajev: Duhu na Ostrem vrhu, Svečini in Šentilju. Regije na drugi strani meje so namreč izjemno uspešne v turizmu in možnosti za sodelovanje preko meje se lahko uresničujejo samo v odprtosti za rabo več jezikov.

Glede na opisano situacijo se zdi smiselno ne samo pridobivanje skupnih projektnih sredstev, ampak je smiselna tudi konkretna pomoč posameznikom v turizmu s strani občin in turističnih organizacij. K temu gotovo sodijo izobraževanja, kar omenjene občine deloma podpirajo s financiranjem zgodnjega učenja nemščine na osnovnih šolah, ponekod tudi v oblikah vseživljenjskega izobraževanja za odrasle. Razen tega bi bila smiselna konkretna pomoč posameznikom v turizmu v obliki npr. jezikovnih pisarn ali svetovalnic; pri čemer bi prve imele večji obseg aktivnosti kot druge. Take pisarne ali svetovalnice bi lahko opravljale zelo različne naloge: jezikovno pomoč v manjšem obsegu (prevajanje, tolmačenje), svetovanje in informiranje v zvezi z medkulturno komunikacijo, pomoč pri navezovanju stikov preko meje, pomoč pri oblikovanju partnerstev in informiranje o trendih. Poklicni profili, primerni za delo v takšnih pisarnah in svetovalnicah, so diplomirani s področja tujih jezikov in turizma. Pri tem imajo gotovo prednost tisti iz prve skupine, saj današnji študiji jezikov daleč presegajo okvir spoznavanja jezikovnega sistema nekega jezika, ampak so naravnani na kulturo, načine življenja in trende na izbranem jezikovnem območju. Poudariti je potrebno, da bi take jezikovne pisarne ali svetovalnice pomenile stalno jezikovno in medkulturno podporo v nekem obmejnem prostoru, obenem pa bi seveda sledile delu trenutne občinske oblasti, ki je tista, ki postavlja prioritete. Te pa v obmejnem pasu in spričo današnje odprtosti mej v EU ter spričo razvitosti turizma na drugi strani meje v konkretnih primerih, ki smo jih opisali, ne morejo biti nič drugega kot preseganje meja v različnih pomenih te besede.

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HISTORICAL NAMES IN SLOVENIAN TOURISM TEXTS

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Abstract Local language variants of personal names are commonly acknowledged for a few categories of people (e.g., popes and royalty), but such variation is also frequent for other historical figures. Translators of all text types, including tourism texts, must grapple with such names. Indeed, tourism texts eagerly cite figures associated with a locale's history to help bring its character alive. This article comments on Slovenian practice in this matter and presents principles that can be used as guidelines for translators dealing with such name variants. This is followed by an examination of several examples of such names appearing in English tourism texts or related material about Slovenia, commenting on whether the solutions chosen by the translators are appropriate. It concludes by reiterating the need to consider a variety of factors when handling names of historical persons in translation in general, emphasizing the need for a principled approach to the problem.

Keywords: names, tourism, Slovenian, translation, variation

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1 Introduction

Variation in certain types of personal names is common, especially regarding translated texts. For example, it is a common convention that names of royalty are translated from one language to another—or "naturalized," "morphologically adapted," or "substituted," as this is sometimes termed (Dente & Soncini, 2008, p. 39). By way of illustration, King George III (1738–1820) is not only known as the near-similar *Georg* in German and Norwegian, but the essentially unrecognizable *Jiří* in Czech, *Jurij* in Slovenian, *Seoirse* in Gaelic, and *Yrjö* in Finnish. Similarly, the names of popes (like the saints whose names they often share) are also commonly translated from language to language (Mortimer, 2019, p. xxxix; Newmark, 1988, p. 214). For example, Pope John Paul II bore translated names as varied as Croatian *Ivan Pavao*, French *Jean-Paul*, Italian *Giovanni Paolo*, and Slovenian *Janez Pavel*, among others. Nonetheless, there is no hard-and-fast rule that every such name must or will be translated (Newmark, 1988, p. 214), and patterns of translating (or not) may also change over time. As one case in point, there is some degree of uncertainty in Slovenian whether the (presumed) next king of the United Kingdom will be referred to as *kralj Charles* or *kralj Karel* (Crnkovič, 2013), even though the names of his mother and grandfather (*Elizabeta II.* 'Elizabeth II' and *Jurij VI.* 'George VI') are universally and unquestioningly Slovenianized.

Translation of the names of less eminent personalities is more limited, at least in contemporary times, although it was frequent in pre-modern times. A good example is the mathematician Copernicus (1473–1543), whose given name still appears as *Nicolaus*, *Mikołaj*, *Niccolò*, and more, depending on the language of the text discussing him. The practice of translating names remained relatively common even in the nineteenth century. To highlight two cases from the annals of beekeeping, the Czech František Hruška (1819–1888) became known as Francesco De Hruschka after settling in Italy, and the German Friedrich-August Hannemann (1819–1912) modified his name to Frederico Augusto Hannemann upon his relocation to Brazil (Bokal & Gregori, 2008, p. 254; Oberacker, 1968, p. 335). Any researcher dealing with these men must search for them under both name variants, and any translator rendering their names in an English text must make a principled decision on how to refer to them.

Of course, among non-notable people that move between cultures, translation or adaptation of names remains commonplace. Like millions of others, my own twentieth-century ancestors changed their given names from *Frančišek* and *Karl* to *Frank* and *Charles* after immigrating to the United States, and I recall how a recent Serbian immigrant that I knew in the United States wisely chose to go by *Bob* rather than his given name, *Božo*—which would inevitably raise thoughts of Bozo the Clown. This variability is well known to genealogists, who in combing through church records and other documents are accustomed to the fact that the *James* they are looking for may be listed as a *Jakob*, *Giacomo*, *Jacques*, and so on. Fortunately, there are various resources available (e.g., Keber, 2008) to offer guidance.[1]

Unfortunately, when multiple name forms are available, the deliberate choice of one name form over another may be resented, and it may even be misused as a propaganda tool in the worst cases. This is a potential danger in choosing in an English text between, say, Russian versus Ukrainian forms (e.g., the writer *Nikolai Gogol* vs. *Mykola Hohol*, 1809–1852), Polish versus German (e.g., the painter *Franciszek Ksawery Lampi* vs. *Franz Xaver Lampi*, 1782–1852), or Romanian versus Hungarian (e.g., the musician *Ion Căian* vs. *János Kájoni*, 1629–1687). If a translator chooses the ethnically "wrong" name form, this may lead to accusations of discrimination, bias, or cultural appropriation.

In light of the above considerations, tourism texts occupy a special and delicate position. On the one hand, they must be accessible to their target audience, meaning that the information presented—including personal names—should not be intimidating or daunting to the reader by being unnecessarily foreign. At the same time, the nature of a tourism text is to promote the culture, history, and other features of a place, which would incline a translator to favor name forms that seem harmonious: that is, German name forms for tourist destinations in Germany, Italian forms for Italy, and Slovenian forms for Slovenia. However, outweighing both of these concerns should be a commitment to authenticity and accuracy in choosing which name form to use in a translation.

[1]Only names of non-fictional persons are considered here. The translation of the names of fictional characters in literature or films is more of a marketing decision, which may be based simply on what is deemed to appeal to readers (e.g., Slovenian *Racman Jaka* for Donald Duck, which invokes the general assonance found in names of cartoon characters), preservation of semantic roots (e.g., Hermann Hesse's *Narcis in Zlatoust* 'Narziß und Goldmund'), simple orthographic modification (e.g., Roald Dahl's *Čarli in tovarna čokolade* 'Charlie and the Chocolate Factory'), or other factors.

2 Background: Slovenian practice

The importance of names for asserting ethnic identity in Slovenia is illustrated by the following (oddly parallel) examples:

> Cemeteries were not even spared from Nazi fury. The Slovenian epitaphs chiselled on the tombstones were removed. Those buried beneath did not mourn the desecration of their names; their living relatives did when they were forced to change their family names into German! (Kozina, 1980, p. 21)

> By 1933 in the Province of Trieste alone 150,000 orders to "reduce surnames to their Italian forms" had been issued—in Istria 56,000. Things reached the point where Slovene names were even removed from gravestones in cemeteries. (Stranj, 1992, p. 78)

Without questioning the veracity of these assertions (cemetery inscriptions are a topic worth separate investigation), the sentiment expressed is clear: the linguistic form of personal names is of great importance for ethnic identity and, in whatever context these names appear, they thereby also mark the claim to ethnic affiliation of the place or time they are associated with.

From this perspective, it is perhaps ironic—or, indeed, fitting—that Slovenian historiographic practice has favored the Slovenianization of names of historical personalities associated with the territory of what is now Slovenia, regardless of their own ethnic identity (inasmuch as ethnic identity was even relevant during their lifetimes). Essentially, the names that many of these people used for themselves have often been chiseled from the pages of history and replaced by Slovenianized name forms in reference works. However, before focusing on individual examples, some general observations on Slovenian practice are needed.

From today's perspective, a translator has the impression that there are sometimes parallel competing forms of names (e.g., Slovenian vs. German), that these names are well established and reasonably fixed, and that he or she simply needs to make an informed choice between them. In fact, many Slovenian historical names of personalities were only recently established and have undergone multiple reworkings as times have changed.

The example of the Baroque preacher and writer Tobia Lionelli (1647–1714) is a good case in point. He adopted the monastic name *Ioannes Baptiſta à Santa Cruce* (i.e., 'John Baptist of Sveti Križ', as the town is now known), also using this Latin name for himself on the cover of his Slovenian-language publication as well as the name *Ioannes* for Saint John in the running text (Ioannes, 1691). It was not until nearly two centuries later, in the late nineteenth century, that Slovenianized names for him started to appear—from the nationalist perspective, as a historical figure in Slovenian ethnic territory, he also needed a Slovenian name to match that territory. He appeared under a host of successive Slovenian names, including *Janez Kerstnik od Svetega Križa* (Marn, 1883, p. 44), *Ivan Krstnik od sv. Križa* (Žvab, 1883), *Ivan Krstnik od Križa* (Rutar, 1893, p. 128), *Ivan Krstnik Svetokriški* (Finšger, 1904, p. 27), *Janez Svetokriški* (Rebol, 1907, p. 323), *Ivan Svetokriški* (Steska, 1908, p. 37), and *Janez Krstnik Svetokriški* (Kotar, 1916). The 1907 variant, *Janez Svetokriški*, has become canonical in Slovenian and now appears in reference works. However, instead of being viewed as a reasonable way to refer to the man in Slovenian (and also a neologism), it became a convenient fiction that his name actually was *Janez Svetokriški* (which is also orthographically impossible; see below), and that he should be presented as such in English as well, resulting in tourism promotion texts like the following:

(1) . . . *the Capuchin monastery, in which preacher Janez Svetokriški lived* . . . (Vipavski)

(2) . . . *Janez Svetokriški, a famous Catholic preacher, known for* . . . (Žakelj, 2020)

Religious names, like saints' names, generally move freely between languages. A well-known example is Francis of Assisi (1181/82–1226), born Giovanni di Pietro di Bernardone and known in Slovenian as *Frančišek Asiški*, and a name with Slovenian resonance is Hemma of Gurk (980–1045; Sln. *Ema Krška*). In both cases, the structure of the Slovenianized names parallels that of *Janez Svetokriški*—which would reasonably and by analogy be *John of Sveti Križ* in English.

Monastic or other religious names lacking a surname are perhaps a special issue; in the case of more ordinary mortals, Slovenian seems to have settled on a relatively formulaic pattern of Slovenianizing names of historical figures that had no attested Slovenian name. That is, the surname is (usually) preserved in its original form, but the given name is Slovenianized, sometimes radically altering its appearance and producing jarring results. Thus, the diplomat and historian Sigismund von Herberstein (1486–1566) is rendered as (the orthographically impossible) *Žiga* Herberstein, the priest Johann Ludwig Schönleben (1618–1681) becomes *Janez Ludvik* Schönleben, and the beekeeper Georg Jonke (1777–1864) becomes *Jurij* Jonke. In the past it was also not infrequent for surnames to be Slovenianized—for example, the philosopher Matthias Qualle (1470–1518) as *Matija Hvale* or the judge Georg Wertasch von Scharffenegk (c. 1590–1669) as *Jurij Vertaš* (also orthographically impossible)—but this practice now seems to have been abandoned.[2]

Inauthentic or anachronistic spellings aside, even in the recent past genuine variation in names was frequent. People's names often appear in different forms depending on the language of the venue they appeared in. For example, Franc Kavšek (a.k.a. Franz Kauschegg, 1820–1906), who served as the mayor of Spodnja Šiška from 1891 to 1900, spelled his name in both Slovenian and German forms as the occasion warranted (Šuštar, 1996, pp. 42, 136, 368). Some individuals also intentionally changed their names as their ethnic consciousness developed: the German–Czech Friedrich Emmanuel Tiersch (1832–1884), who founded the Sokol gymnastics association, changed his name to *Bedřich* and then *Miroslav Tyrš* (Šimek, 2010), and the renowned Croatian linguist Ljudevit Gaj (1809–1872) lived the first part of his life as the ethnic German Ludwig Gay (Flerè, 1916, p. 192). Others, moved by ethnic enthusiasm, would change "western-sounding" names like *Andrej*, *Franc*, *Jurij*, *Karel*, and *Štefan* to fanciful Slavic equivalents (e.g., *Hravoslav*, *Prostoslav*, *Oroslav*, *Dragotin*, and *Krunoslav*)—and sometimes back again, or not. This authentic variation obviously presents challenges to translators of texts in any genre, including tourism, when choosing the best name form. Consequently, some guiding principles are offered in the next section.

[2] I am not condemning or deprecating the Slovenian practice of Slovenianizing historical names in Slovenian; it is simply an established and apparently ongoing practice in Slovenian historiography. As already indicated, the problem arises when the Slovenianized name is then exported through translation to other languages as the name that the historical figure actually bore (or ought to have borne). Slovenians are similarly fully entitled to refer to Klagenfurt (Austria) and Udine (Italy) as *Celovec* and *Videm* in Slovenian, but these names cannot then be exported into other languages as the "authentic" names that should be used for these places.

3 Principles

Based on my own professional experience as a translator that has dealt with historical names, not only in tourism texts but also in a variety of other contexts, there are several principles that can be applied when choosing between competing variants of names. The primary principle is historiographic practice in the target language, but other factors that might be considered, in no particular order, are the person's autonym, contemporary name, burial name, and orthographic authenticity.

The usual name form found in historiographic practice in the target language is the one that is most likely to resonate with visitors speaking that language. For example, the inventor Johann Puch (1862–1914) had Slovenian origins, but at an early age he established himself professionally in Austria, where he led the remainder of his life and career (Stanonik & Brenk, 2008, pp. 914–915). Although he is overwhelmingly known as *Johann Puch* in English,[3] Slovenian tourism material often refers to him as *Janez Puh* in English:

(3) . . . *memorial room of the world-famous inventor Janez Puh* . . . (Puh)

An autonym is the name used by a person to refer to himself or herself. This is generally the same as the person's preferred name, about which much has been written in recent decades, especially in educational and healthcare contexts; for example, "Calling a person by his or her preferred name shows respect" (Lutner & Vogelsang) or "Using the person's preferred name conveys respect" (Whaley & Wonh, 1991, p. 196). The same is true for people that are no longer living: if an individual was, say, a *Johann* all his life, it would be peculiar to rechristen him *Janez* (or *Giovanni*, *Jean*, etc.) in an English text—and compelling reasons would also be needed to refer to him as *John*. Although one cannot ask the deceased how they wish their names to be spelled, their own practice during their lives bears substantial

[3] Establishing usual historiographic or target-language practice can follow various routes. One method is to rely on reliable sources published in the target culture; in the case of Johann Puch, say, *The Encyclopedia of the Motorcycle* (Henshaw, 2008) or *The World Guide to Automobile Manufacturers* (Laban et al., 1987, p. 395). Another option is to examine frequency (again, ensuring that the focus is on target-culture authored material), such as comparisons in Google Books or even judicious Google searches. In the case at hand, a number comparison in English-language newspapers is revealing, where a search yields twenty-one relevant hits for *Johann Puch* and zero hits for *Janez Puh* (Newspapers.com). In many cases, a combination of these methods can help a translator decide on the usual name form for an individual in the target culture. Although certainly informative, the name forms used in various language versions of Wikipedia can also be misleading because an article about a more obscure figure may have very few contributors, or even only one—and oftentimes those contributors are not native speakers of the language (or native to its culture) that they are writing for. The same caveat would obviously apply to a print source authored by someone that is not a member of the target culture/language, and even more so if it is a translated source.

weight. The case should be clear for the Czech–Slovenian composer Anton Foerster (1837–1926), who consistently spelled his own surname with an *oe* in his publications in Slovenian, Czech, German, and Latin, and whose handwritten name on his manuscripts is also spelled *oe*. Nonetheless, one finds his name spelled *Förster* in both Slovenian and English material (and publishers sometimes also used this spelling even in Foerster's lifetime); for example:

(4) *1926 je umrl slovenski skladatelj češkega rodu Anton Förster* 'The Slovenian composer of Czech descent Anton Förster died in 1926' (17. junij)

(5) . . . *Czechs activity in Slovenian regions (Anton Förster* . . . (Czech)

Closely allied to the idea of an autonym—taken from material written by the person himself—would be the contemporary name used by others to refer to a person; that is, name forms and spellings gleaned from newspaper accounts and other material during that person's lifetime. Such resources are often useful in establishing the proper name form for less prominent individuals, and many examples can be offered for misspelled streets in Ljubljana. For example, *Bratovševa ploščad* 'Bratovž Square' is named after Franc Bratovž (1920–1965), *Eipprova ulica* 'Eypper Street' is named after Ernest Eypper (1914–1942), *Ferberjeva ulica* 'Ferbar Street' is named after Jože Ferbar (1903–1943), and so on. Although these people were not prominent enough to leave behind a published legacy, mundane material such as police reports, school enrollment records, and so on make it clear what the authentic forms of their names were.

Yet another consideration is the name that an individual is buried under (assuming that the grave marker still exists). It can be presumed that the individual (and his or her family) made a deliberate and informed decision about how to record the identity of the deceased for posterity at his or her final resting place. A case in point is the architect Wilhelm Treo (1845–1926), who is buried in Žale Cemetery in Ljubljana. Even though he died after the establishment of Yugoslavia (during a time when many chose to Slovenianize their names), his grave clearly reads *Wilhelm Treo*, presumably reflecting his last wishes (or his family's sentiment). Nonetheless, some English material translated from Slovenian persists in rechristening him *Viljem*:

(6) *It was built by the Ljubljana construction firm of Viljem Treo* . . . (Chancery)

(7) *. . . elaborated by construction engineer Viljem Treo . . .* (Moder, 1993, p. 59)

Finally, orthographic authenticity—hinted at in the discussion above of Tobia Lionelli (Sln. *Janez Svetokriški*)—may also be considered. Because the Gaj alphabet—the orthography used for Slovenian today—was not adopted until the 1840s, any earlier names using that system are anachronisms. This does not mean that they are automatically invalid choices (an individual can certainly be historicized or best known by an anachronistic name),[4] but it serves as a caution that such a name also cannot be justified as a person's "original" name. One should therefore at least pause to consider the appropriateness of material such as the following:

(8) *Janez Žiga Valentin Popovič, . . . was born on February 9, 1705 . . .* (Janez)

(9) *. . . the natural historian and linguist Janez Popovič . . .* (Herrity, 2016, p. 6)

Johann Siegmund Valentin Popowitsch (1705–1774), although born near Celje, published only in German, and he made his career in what are now Germany and Austria—and he certainly lived before such spellings of his name were possible.

As a footnote, mention should be made of abbreviated name forms. Aside from idiosyncratic exceptions like *E. T. A. Hoffmann* or *W. E. B. Du Bois*, English very rarely refers to individuals in running text by their first initials and surname. From my personal experience, this was a common practice in Soviet historiography; for example, Russian texts will refer to *Дж. Вашингтон* 'G. Washington' or *А. Линкольн* 'A. Lincoln' (e.g., Skok, 2001, p. 65)—which is stylistically bizarre from a modern English perspective—and the same practice is encountered in other eastern European languages such as Czech (e.g., Barták, 2006, p. 494). Further research on this naming pattern would be interesting and welcome. Despite its markedly un-English style, this naming pattern is also occasionally encountered in some English translations of Slovenian tourism-oriented literature:

(10) *Monument to the poet F. Prešeren* (Some, 2012, p. 19)

(11) *Its monumental layout is the work of the architect J. Plečnik.* (Mesarović, 1964, p. 56)

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[4] Indeed, it would now seem jarring to refer to the beekeepers Valentin Černe (1731–1798) and Anton Janša (1734–1773) as *Zherne* as *Jansha* even though these are historically authentic spellings of their names, and they both died before the inventor of the Gaj alphabet (with its *Č* and *š*) was even born.

Such forms should almost always be avoided, and either full names (*France Prešeren*, *Jože Plečnik*) or simply surnames used.

4 Case examples

A few case examples of historical names that appear in tourism literature and related material serve to illustrate application of the principles outlined above. The names of a tribal figure, a noble family, a religious figure, a Renaissance man, an academic, a businessman, a scientist, and a musician are presented below. In all of these selected examples, for one reason or another, the Slovenianized name proves to be a less optimal choice for the historical personality.

4.1 A tribal figure: *Cheitmar* versus *Hotimir*

Prince Cheitmar (died AD 769) was the nephew of Prince Boruth; together with his cousin Cacatius, he was sent to Herrenchiemsee Abbey in Bavaria as a hostage (i.e., a security pledge) when Boruth accepted Bavarian overlordship in return for an alliance to protect Carantania from Avar incursions. Cheitmar became ruler of Carantania upon the death of Cacatius in 751 (Štih, 1990; Luthar, 2008, p. 88–89). The name *Cheitmar* has been Slovenianized as *Hotimir* (modeled on *hoteti* 'to want' + *mir* 'peace'). Accordingly, in material written (or translated) by Slovenians, one may find examples such as the following, discussing the Bled region:

(12) *Were Ratimir and Hotimir two of the first settlers* . . . (Pleterski, 2013, p. 60)

However, the etymology of the name is disputed; it is not at all certain that the name has the meaning 'wants peace', and the medieval transcriptions are consistent in transcribing the name with the suffix *-mar*, not *-mir* (Kos, 1902, p. 266; Ramovš, 1927, p. 9; Müller, 1891, pp. 305ff.). Etymological speculations aside, however (and the fact that we can neither ascertain how Cheitmar preferred his name spelled nor find his grave), historiographic practice resolves the matter. A survey of published historical sources at Google Books (also taking into account authorship by Slovenians or not) convincingly indicates that in English practice the name form *Cheitmar* is dominant.

4.2 A noble family: *Auersperg* versus *Turjak*

The Counts of Auersperg were one of the most important noble families in Carniola. The family is believed to have originated in Swabia or Bavaria, and to have acquired its Carniolan holdings in the eleventh century (Otorepec, 1987). The names of most noble families in Slovenia also acquired Slovenian equivalents, which were sometimes similar to the original forms (e.g., *Ortenburžani* 'Counts of Ortenburg') or strikingly different (e.g., *Vovbržani* 'Counts of Heunburg'). In the case at hand, the Counts of Auersperg are known in Slovenian as the *Turjačani*, modeled on *Turjak* (also a place name)—a coinage created by substituting the first part of the German name, *Auer* 'aurochs', with the Slovenian equivalent *tur* 'aurochs' (Snoj, 2009, p. 442). Consequently, in material written (or translated) by Slovenians, one may find examples such as the following from a text based on a travel guide and promoting the village of Rašica:

(13) . . . *the Counts of Turjak had iron works and furnaces* . . . (Year, 2008)

In this case, various Google Books Ngram Viewer (hereinafter Ngram) searches (e.g., *of Auersperg, of Turjak*) or Google Books searches (e.g., *"Counts of Auersperg"* vs. *"Counts of Turjak"*) clearly show that *Auersperg* is the dominant designation in English.

4.3 A religious figure: *Johann Gregor Thalnitscher* versus *Janez Gregor Dolničar*

The historian and lawyer Johann Gregor Thalnitscher von Thalberg (1655–1719) was born in Ljubljana, where he served as a notary and judge. He also studied finds from Roman Emona, and he helped attract artists from abroad to participate in building the Ljubljana cathedral (Petrovich, 1963, p. 456; Smolik & Cevc, 1988). The best-known engraving of him, created by Elias Baeck (1679–1747) in 1700, is labeled (in Latin) *Ioannes Gregori, Thalnitscher de Thalperg*, and another, held by the Austrian National Library, is labeled (in German) *Joh. Greg. Thalnitscher von Thalberg*. Moreover, in his own work *Cathedralis Basilicae Labacensis Historia* (History of the Ljubljana Cathedral, 1701–1719) his name appears (in the Latin ablative) as *Ioanne Gregorio Thalnitschero*.[5] Had Thalnitscher been a modern Slovenian, his name would have been

[5] In his 1714 *Epitome chronologica*, Thalnitscher's name appears without a surname (in the Latin ablative) as *Joanne Gregorio à Thalberg*. There was also some contemporary variation in the spelling of his surname. For example, in Book

spelled as in the following example, from a text encouraging tourists to explore Roman heritage in Ljubljana:

(14) . . . *historian and true patriot Janez Gregor Dolničar* . . . (Županek, 2016, p. 35)

Of course, this Gaj alphabet spelling was not possible until well over a century after his death. Considering this anachronism, Thalnitscher's own spelling of his name, the regular appearance of the spelling *Thalnitscher* in English works, and a statement by a historian that it is the more common English spelling (Petrovich, 1963, p. 456), it is reasonable to refer to him as *Thalnitscher* rather than *Dolničar* in English.

4.4 A Renaissance man: *Sigmund Zois* versus *Žiga Zois*

Sigmund Zois (1747–1819) was a Carniolan nobleman and patron of the arts. He helped financially support many Slovenian intellectuals, who became known as the Zois circle (Stanonik & Brenk, 2008, pp. 1333–1334). Interestingly, not only his given name is Slovenianized (as in example 15), but until recently his surname was also Slovenianized from *Zois* to *Cojs* (example 16; see comments in Section 2):

(15) . . . *having been home to Baron Žiga Zois (1747-1819)* . . . (Zois)

(16) . . . *the Slovene patriot and patron of the arts Ziga Cojs.* (Letters, 1980)

In this case, the spelling *Cojs* (or its variant *Cojz*) is no longer a real consideration because even the Slovenians have repudiated it.[6] Instead, the real question is between the Slovenianized form *Žiga* and the historical *Sigmund* (or its variant *Sigismund*). The name *Žiga* is clearly an anachronism (its earliest appearance seems to be from the 1850s; Koledarčik, 1852, p. 22), and it also uses the Gaj spelling, which predated him.[7] In favor of (the more frequent variant) *Sigmund* is not only its commonality,

15 of Valvasor's *Die Ehre deß Hertzogthums Crain* (The Glory of the Duchy of Carniola) his name appears (in the German accusative) as *Johann Gregor Dolnitschern von Thalberg* (Valvasor, 1689, p. 554).

[6] An official decision on street names from 1991 states "Cojzova cesta . . . Zaradi napačnega napisa osebnega imena pri imenovanju se cesti popravi ime v izvorno obliko = *Zoisova cesta*" ('Cojz Street . . . Due to incorrect spelling of a personal name when it was named, the name of the street is corrected to the original form of the name = Zois Street'; Odlok, 1991, p. 842). Similarly, the surname of Johann Weikhard von Valvasor was also sometimes Slovenianized as *Valvazor*.

[7] There are a few Bohorič spellings using the name form *Shiga Zois* (e.g., in a 1794 text by Valentin Vodnik; 1919, p. 22). However, these are overwhelmingly outnumbered by *Sigmund* and *Sigismund* (at ratios of roughly 1:19 and 1:16 based on a survey of Google Books).

but also its contemporary usage. For example, the name *Sigmund Zois* is used in the catalogue of his library from the 1780s (Katalog, 1780–1782) and in a biography published the year after his death (Richter, 1820). Moreover, the name *Sigmund Zois* also appears on his grave marker, which fortunately has been preserved.[8] All of these factors combined provide a good rationale to refer to him as *Sigmund Zois*.

4.5 An academic: *Franz Miklosich* versus *Franc Miklošič*

Franz Miklosich (1813–1891), born in Radomerščak, was a preeminent nineteenth-century linguist. He served as the court librarian in Vienna and an imperial censor, and he was the chancellor of the University of Vienna from 1853 to 1854. He left behind an enormous body of works on Slavic and other languages (Jakopin, 1993). His name is usually spelled in the Slovenian form *Franc Miklošič* in Slovenian texts, and this spelling also generally appears in translated tourism texts; for example, a website promoting the Ormož region:

(17) . . . *visit the birth house of Franc Miklošič* . . . (Touch)

Although Miklosich did use the spelling *Miklošič* in his rare Slovenian-language publications (e.g., Miklošič, 1858), he consistently used the spelling *Miklosich* when publishing in German and Latin, and he also signed his own name *Miklosich*.[9] Miklosich's grave in Vienna also uses the spelling *Miklosich*—and so his autonym, usual contemporary name, and burial name all confirm this spelling. Even though he had a Slovenian origin, remained fluent in Slovenian, and lived most of his life after Slovenian had adopted the Gaj alphabet, he did not choose to apply that spelling to his own name. Added to this can be the weight of English historiography: in addition to recent high-profile scholarship, *Encyclopædia Britannica* refers to him as *Franz von Miklosich* (Bagchi, 2016), and on Ngram the spelling *Franz Miklosich* (or *Franz von Miklosich*) has always strongly dominated in English publications. Considering all of these factors, it would be difficult to justify referring to him as *Miklošič* in an English text.

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[8] Image available at: https://www.dlib.si/stream/URN:NBN:SI:IMG-I4FJC1EK/f678b336-bdfd-44b4-b037-90689cb6a867/IMAGE.

[9] A note signed by Miklosich is available at https://pictures.abebooks.com/inventory/md/md9094933259.jpg.

4.6 A businessman: *Peter Kosler* versus *Peter Kozler*

Peter Kosler (1824–1879) was an ethnic German, born in the village of Kotschen (now Koče) in the Gottschee German enclave in southeastern Slovenia. He founded the Kosler Brewery in 1864 and is remembered for producing the first map of Slovenian ethnic territory in 1848—which was confiscated and only appeared later (Orožen Adamič & Granda, 1991). His map, published in Slovenian, also spells his surname *Kozler* in the Slovenian manner,[10] and this is how his name generally appears in English material produced in Slovenia, such as the following from a tourism site dedicated to the Kočevje area:

(18) . . . *politician and cartographer Peter Kozler was born* . . . (Birthplace)

Kosler appears to have shifted freely between the (German) spelling of his surname *Kosler* and (Slovenian) *Kozler*, corresponding to the situation even regardless of the language context. For example, a Slovenian logo for his brewery uses the German spelling of his surname as a company name: *Pivo iz pivovarne J. Kosler & Co.* . . . 'Beer from the J. Kosler & Co. Brewery . . .' (Logotip). This was also true of the press covering him. When Kosler died, the German-language newspaper *Laibacher Tagblatt* referred to him as *der Guts- und Brauerei-Mitbesitzer Herr Peter Kosler* (Sterbefall, 1879), and the Slovenian-language newspaper *Slovenec* referred to him as *Gospod Peter Kozler, grajščak in pivovarnar* (Domače, 1879)—both 'Mr. Peter Kosler/Kozler, estate owner and brewer'. Given this apparent equanimity in both his autonym and contemporary usage, one could invoke his ethnic German origins to justify *Kosler*—yet he was clearly a Slovenian patriot as well. Both spellings of his surname are clearly legitimate, and perhaps the deciding factor in this case is his burial name. His family grave marker in Ljubljana reads *Familie Kosler* 'the Kosler family', and his name, *Peter Kosler*, is inscribed on it along with those of his parents and siblings, all also spelled *Kosler*.

[10] The 1852 edition of Kosler's map spells the surname with a backward *z*, but this appears to be the result of negligence on the part of the engraver, Anton Knorr, rather than a clever compromise between *s* and *z* because another *z* and *ž* on the map are also backward, and this error was corrected in later versions.

4.7 A scientist: *Josef Stefan* versus *Jožef Stefan*

The physicist Josef Stefan (1835–1893) was born in St. Peter (now part of Klagenfurt, Austria), studied mathematics and physics in Vienna, and then taught physics at the University of Vienna. He developed the Stefan–Boltzmann Law in physics, and there are also various other concepts named after him, as well as the Jožef Stefan Institute in Ljubljana (Strnad & Sitar, 1998). The institute uses the Slovenian spelling of his given name, *Jožef*, and this spelling is also frequently found in English material produced in Slovenia:[11]

(19) *Jožef Stefan (1835--1893) was one of the most distinguished physicists* . . . (Physicist)

Stefan's publications generally appear under the name *J. Stefan*, which does not shed any light on the issue. Stefan is buried in Vienna's Central Cemetery, but his grave marker there is not preserved (Fotoeins). However, various other evidence indicates that *Josef* is the preferred form of his given name in English. An Ngram search of the name variants only (*Josef Stefan*, *Jožef Stefan*, *Jozef Stefan*) appears to show variable and changing usage patterns. However, closer inspection shows that most of the latter hits refer to the Slovenian institute named after him, and when *physicist* is added before the name only one remaining string yields Ngram results: *physicist Josef Stefan*. A search on Google Books with the English qualifier "physicist" also shows a clear preference for *Josef Stefan*, and standard English reference works such as *Encyclopædia Britannica* also refer to him as *Josef Stefan* (Josef, 2021).

4.8 A musician: *Jacob Handl* versus *Jacobus Gallus* versus *Jakob Petelin Gallus*

The composer Jacob Handl (1550–1591) is believed to have been born in Ribnica. He relocated to (what is now) Austria around 1565 and then traveled throughout Austria and the Czech lands; he worked in Olomouc until 1585, and then in Prague until his death (Cvetko, 1989). He is also known by the variant surnames *Hähnel* and *Handelius*, as well as the Latin name *Jacobus Gallus*—and in Slovenian as *Jakob Petelin* (Skei, 1980). It is by this name (often in combination with *Gallus*) that he frequently

[11] Stefan's surname was also hyper-Slovenianized to *Štefan* in the past (the street named after him in Ljubljana is called *Štefanova ulica*), but, like *Cojs* and *Valvazor* mentioned above (Section 4.4 and footnote 6), this respelling now appears to be repudiated. His given name also sometimes appears hyper-Slovenianized as *Josip Štefan* in early sources (Spomenik, 1895).

appears in Slovenian texts and their translations, as in the example below from a "travel destination offers catalogue" promoting Lower Carniola:

(20) *. . . the composer Jakob Petelin Gallus . . .* (Rodež 8)

The names *Gallus* and *Handl* (and its variants) semantically match because both Latin *gallus* and (Austrian) German *Hendl* mean 'chicken'.[12] However, the Slovenian equivalent *Petelin* 'rooster' appears to be purely speculative, and it was apparently first suggested by the Croatian historian Ivan Kukuljević Sakcinski in 1858:

(21) *Gallus Jakov . . . Njemci su ga poslie nazvali Händl i Hänel, a kod svoje kuće zvao se je valjda Petelin ali Petelinček . . .*
'Jakov Gallus . . . The Germans later called him *Händl* and *Hänel*, and at home he was probably called *Petelin* or *Petelinček* . . .' (Kukuljević Sakcinski, 1858, p. 95)

A Slovenian article published the same year (Malavašič, 1858) ran with this suggestion, changing Croatian *Jakov* to Slovenian *Jakob*, and it concluded that the hypothetical (and unattested) *Petelin* must have been his original surname. This may or may not be true, and it will probably never be known. Kukuljević Sakcinski does, however, offer a period attestation of the musician as *Jac. Händl*, and he also mentions a woodcut produced after his death, with the Latin caption *In Tumulum Jacobi Händelii Carnioli* . . . 'At the grave of Jacobus Händelius of Carniola . . .' (1858, pp. 95–96), confirming at least that he was known as *Händl* (or similar) to his contemporaries. All of this aside, English historiographic practice indicates that *Jakob Petelin* is not an appropriate name in an English text. Ngram results show both *Jacobus Gallus* and *Jacob Handl* (in about equal usage) to be massively favored over the Slovenian form of the name. Authoritative sources such as *The New Grove Dictionary of Music & Musicians* (Skei, 1980) and *Encyclopædia Britannica* (Jacob, 2021) favor the German form *Jacob Handl*, whereas other equally reliable sources, including the Slovenian musicologist Dragotin Cvetko (e.g., Cvetko & Pokorn, 1985; Cvetko, 1989), favor the Latin form *Jacobus Gallus*.

[12] The name *Gallus* may actually be a bilingual witticism; if *Hendl* (or *Händl*, etc.) is in fact the original surname, like similar surnames (*Friedl*, *Mändl*, *Reindl*, etc.) its origin may simply be a diminutive of a (clipped) predecessor's name: *(Jo)hann*—like *(Gott)fried*, *Man(fred)*, *Rein(hart)*, etc. (Schiffmann, 1922, p. 133)—in this case, with the usual epenthetic *d*, and thus the equivalent of *Johnson*, *Janežič*, etc.

5 Conclusion

Whether it is tourism or any other text genre, good translators are obligated to make well-informed choices rather than simply copy-pasting names from a source language into a target language. This is obviously true of place names (e.g., the *Dunaj* and *Rim* in a Slovenian text cannot be used for *Vienna* and *Rome* in an English text), and it applies equally to the names of persons. It is necessary to meet the norms of the target language, which in some cases will be rather self-evident, but in others will not be immediately apparent. In any case, a translation is not a place to "right great wrongs" if the translator feels that a historical person's ethnic identity, as reflected in a name, should be modified in order to present him or her as a "true Slovenian" (or "true German," "true Italian," etc.). A good translation is not a battleground between languages or cultures. As Clifford E. Landers observes, "If a translator allows ideology to color anything he or she translates, the profession suffers" (2001, p. 86).

Some names are irrevocably historicized in a form that is objectively less authentic. A good example is the Protestant reformer Primož Trubar (1508–1586), who used the name form *Primus Truber* throughout his life (Voglar, 2008)—and, obviously, the Gaj spelling *Primož* postdates him by over three centuries. Nonetheless, based on Ngram data, he appears to be known almost exclusively as *Primož Trubar* in English since the 1990s (although *Primus Truber* dominated until the mid-1960s). Other figures, regardless of their stature in Slovenian society, are so marginal in English historiography that Slovenian sources effectively define English practice. Such a case is the grammarian Adam Bohorič (1520–1598): if anyone's name should be spelled in the Bohorič orthography that predated the Gaj alphabet, it ought to be Bohorič—but *Bohorič* he is by convention, not *Bohorizh*. In both cases, a translator would be hard pressed to justify not using the modern Slovenian forms of these names in an English text.

There is also no shortage of ambiguous cases, like that of Peter Kosler discussed in Section 4.6. A similar example from the same time period is the cartographer Heinrich (or Henrik) Freyer (1802–1866), who appears to have been equally comfortable with his given name in its German or Slovenian form. In actual practice, a translator generally makes reasonable compromises, citing an individual as, say, the piano maker *Andrej Bitenc (a.k.a. Andreas Wittenz)* (1802–1874), the gardener *Václav Hejnic (or Wenzel Heinitz)* (1864–1929), or the linguist *Anton Janežič/Janeschitz* (1828–

1869). This is not only honest practice but also useful because readers may wish to pursue further research in (non-English) sources that use additional name forms. However, the overuse of such doublets can become stylistically awkward outside of a scholarly context, such as in a tourism text.

It should also be noted that the presumed "permanence" of many name forms is illusive, in both English (the case of *Primož Trubar* above) and Slovenian (as *Zois* became *Cojs*/*Cojz* and then reverted to *Zois*; see Section 4.4.). A prominent case in point is the Russian composer Peter Ilyich Tchaikovsky (1840–1893), who—judging from Ngram results, was overwhelming known by that name in English until 2007, and since then has overwhelmingly been known as *Pyotr Ilyich Tchaikovsky*.

At the global level, English has sometimes been accused of being an "imperialist" language, dominating other languages with its vocabulary and norms. At the local level, Slovenians have also felt coerced by neighboring languages influencing Slovenian, especially German and Italian (Šabec, 2012, p. 305). However, as Drago Jančar observed, Slovenians have also been guilty of practicing *jezikovni imperializem* 'linguistic imperialism' (when they had the opportunity)—exerting pressure on languages ranging from Serbian, Albanian, and Bulgarian to Ojibwe (2009, p. 124). Forcing name forms used in one language into another, without regard for its norms or the individuals involved, is also a type of linguistic imperialism. Regardless of whether this involves large languages or small ones, it is a trap that all conscientious translators should avoid.

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TEACHING WRITING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FOR TOURISM BY EMPLOYING TRAVEL WRITING

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Abstract This chapter examines teaching writing skills in English for Tourism by employing travel writing, which is not only a tool for teaching linguistic skills, but also encourages students to develop research interests and storytelling techniques. When travel writing was introduced to undergraduate and MA students during the English lessons the role of languages in Tourism, Tourism Discourse and Literary Tourism was also discussed with them. As part of the English assignment, students were asked to produce their own travel writing texts, which were discussed, reviewed by their teacher, re-written and – in the case of Master students – at the final stage, also published as an example of a teaching and learning experiment. Thus, this chapter presents travel writing as a successful method of developing travel writing skills inside the English for Specific Purposes classes.

Keywords: ESP, language, tourism, writing skills, travel writing

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1 Introduction

In recent years Tourism Study Programmes have seen a lot of changes, and the number of programmes teaching for the Tourism sector increased (Choi, Ruetzler & Wang, 2019); consequently, the number of graduates holding Tourism degrees has also risen (Hsu, 2014). Since the economic contribution of tourism is significant and the Tourism industry creates many jobs, this is not surprising (UNWTO). If in the past requirements for different posts in Tourism were loosely defined or, in some cases, not important at all, nowadays, candidates are required to have a lot of knowledge, various skills and competencies, which are expected to be developed during the study years as parts of the Tourism curricula. Experts in Tourism education agree that, in Tourism curricula, there should be a balance between professional knowledge and vocational skills (Tribe, 2002; Jamal, 2004; Hsu, 2014). Communication skills are definitely among the outstanding ones in tourism. It is expected that employees in the Tourism sector are able to communicate – in speaking and writing - in several foreign languages, especially in English, which still holds the status of Lingua Franca (Rogerson-Revell, 2007, Potočnik Topler, 2014). In addition to that, "foreign languages are becoming the intellectual tool for the development of intercultural competence, in the sense of declarative knowledge and communication skills" (Balič 2009, 1). This is of the utmost importance in Tourism, which is always a cultural experience (Bryce, MacLaren & O'Gorman, 2013), and language is an inseparable part of it therefore, tourism is also a linguistic experience. This is one of the reasons why mastering English in writing is one of the most important goals in English for Tourism. One way of achieving this goal by employing travel writing is discussed in this Chapter.

2 Language as the Core of Tourism Business

In Tourism, communication and discourse are crucial concepts, significant for the positioning of people, companies, products, attractions and destinations. In this respect, writing skills in the English language are essential. Namely, in the construction of the tourism discourse, and in the branding of products and destinations, linguistic choices are viewed as vital. What is more, the language of Tourism is not only considered a specialised discourse, but also a means of making profits (Potočnik Topler, 2018). Language in Tourism, especially the language of promotional texts, motivates and attracts tourists to buy products, services, or visit certain destinations, and, consequently, makes profits. Also Thurlow & Jaworski (2011, 287-288) defined Tourism as a "communicative business" and "a language market". In fact, the authors (2011, 289) opined that "language and languages sit at the very heart of the tourist experience, its representation and its realization, its enculturation and its enactment". Thus, language as the carrier of communication, ideas, and connotations, has a significant role in the Tourism industry and in the branding of particular tourism destinations. It is, in fact, the most important tool for getting the messages across. Also, efficient promotion can occur only through the efficient use of tourism discourse, which addresses the needs of potential tourists by the right combinations of words and other linguistic choices. Therefore, it is significant that the experts in the field of Tourism, especially in the field of Tourism Promotion and Branding, are capable of utilising language as a fundamental tool in the Tourism industry. In this respect, teaching English for Tourism, and, to be more precise, teaching writing for tourism, is essential.

3 English for Specific Purposes

English for Specific Purposes is defined as "the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language, where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domain" (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013, 2). It is "a field of practice and scholarly inquiry" (Liu&Hu, 2021, 113), which aims to meet the specific needs of learners of English (Tsao, 2011). Thus, in the development of English for Specific Purposes, teaching has played an important role (Liu&Hu, 2021). Many factors contributed to the development of ESP, among them 1) A growing demand for English courses for specific purposes after the Second World War, 2) A turn in linguistics from language features to language use in specific environments and situations, and 3) Developments in educational psychology underscoring learners` interests and needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, Liu & Hu, 2021). Especially in the 1990s and later, many linguists turned their attention to the areas of specialised languages and contributed to the development of ESP (Irimiea, 2018).

Also, Huthinson and Waters (1987) believed that learning based on purposes and intentions is the right approach to teaching and learning English. Liu and Hu (2021) argue that ESP has moved its focus from register, words and structures to purposes, contexts and interactions. Among scholars who contributed significantly to the development of ESP are Johns (2013), Upton (2012), Hyland and Shaw (2016), Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), to mention only a few.

Zahedpihseh et al. (2017) argued that, recently, ESP has been influenced by the development of communication technologies, which is, consequently, also seen in the methods used in the English language teaching. In recent years, the Internet has become a fundamental and rich source of available data for potential tourists on the one hand, and linguistic research, offering research materials that are original, authentic, up-to-date and topical – also suitable for teaching English - on the other. Among uses of English for Specific Purposes Tourism is definitely one of the most widespread, and English as a Lingua Franca contributes a lot to the tourist context (Wilson, 2018). Especially in non-English speaking countries such as Slovenia, for the Tourism industry professionals, English proficiency is of great importance "for the ethos of a globalised industry" (Hsu, 2014, 50).

Social media and the Internet have an impact on tourism (Narangajavana et al., 2017, 60), and have become the everyday habit of communication (Luo & Zhong, 2015) and search for information. In recent years, they have influenced the tourism industry significantly, "word of mouth has been transformed into word of mouse" (Dann & Parrinello 2007, 12 in Francesconi 2014, 32), and scholars have explored and discussed the migration of the contemporary tourism communication to the web in many of their research works. All this has also influenced teaching English for Tourism. Despite many changes, which have also affected teaching English for Specific Purposes, teachers in this specific area still have the following five major roles:

1 Teacher or language consultant,
2 Course designer and materials provider,
3 Researcher – not just gathering material, but also understanding the nature of the material of the ESP specialism,
4 Collaborator – working with subject teachers and subject teaching,
5 Evaluator –evaluating the materials and the course design constantly, as well as setting assessment tests and achievement tests (Harding, 2007, 7).

4 Teaching Writing Skills in English for Tourism

When it comes to teaching English for Tourism at the university levels, the communicative approach to learning English is very successful. One of the essential skills for future tourism professionals is communicating in written form. One of the challenges that teachers of English for Tourism face, is teaching writing skills, which are often poorly developed among students, despite the fact that it is agreed that "useful written communication is crucial in the workforce" (O'Halloran, Deale, 2004, 62). Tourists, customers and visitors demand high quality and well-communicated services, professionally communicated products and communication skills, which include not only proper language skills in the mother tongue and in foreign languages, especially in English, but also awareness of cultural place specifics, heritage, literature, history, language specifics, food, terroir, and climate. All these skills are crucial for successful tourism practices, branding and positioning of destinations, attractions, companies and products - for communicating with clients on the one hand, and for presenting products, attractions and developing destination image on the other.

Teaching and learning writing skills is complex, often challenging (Kennedy, 2015), and, thus, writing is very often perceived as a "difficult skill" (Kavaliauskiene, 2010, 21), which requires a lot of time to master (Graham, 2018). Writing is undoubtedly challenging to teach, and always related closely to the reading skill, but various strategies for developing writing skills have been developed, and they help teachers and students in acquiring the English language successfully in writing. Many researchers have written extensively on the subject of acquiring writing skills (Shanahan, 2006; Olinghouse et al., 2015; Bazerman et al., 2017; Graham, 2018). According to Graham (2019, 288), "effective writing instruction involves (a) Writing frequently for real and different purposes; (b) Supporting students as they write; (c) Teaching the needed writing skills, knowledge, and processes; (4) Creating a supportive and motivating writing environment; and (5) Connecting writing, reading, and learning".

5 Travel Writing

At the Faculty of Tourism of the University of Maribor, travel writing was employed for developing communication skills with an emphasis on writing. To students, travel writing was introduced in the academic year 2019/2020, and the first students' assignments were analysed and developed further (re-written, or improved by observing the teacher's comments) during the first wave of the Covid-19 pandemic.

The pandemic was an additional encouraging factor in employing travel writing as a teaching method for further development of writing skills (and encouraging non-sedentary lifestyle). Namely, during the pandemic, the need for more developed communication skills, especially writing skills, occurred, since the lack of communication skills became even more evident during online teaching (students were asked more often to write some short texts than before). Thus – based on a quick analysis of students' writing skills, an immediate reaction was essential, since – as already mentioned - communicating and writing skills are the core of the Tourism business. If they are developed and enhanced successfully during the undergraduate and postgraduate Tourism studies, this is beneficial not only for the students of Tourism, but in the long run, also for the development of products, services and destinations. Consequently, travel writing, which is a very diverse genre with a long history that has a lot in common with storytelling (another important concept for Tourism students), was introduced to students.

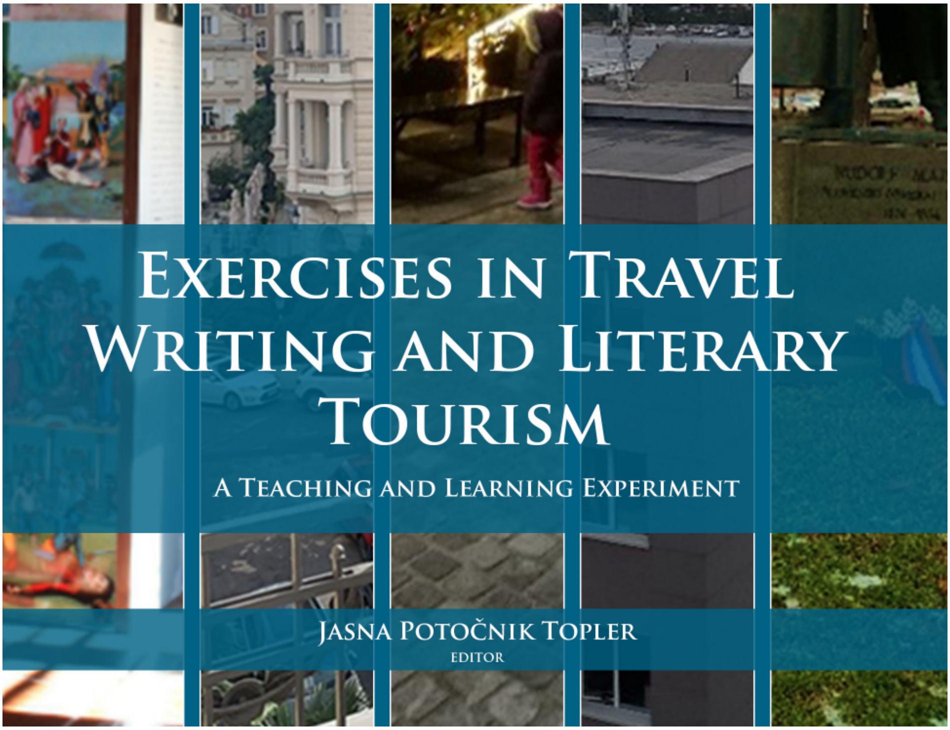

Figure 1: Cover of the e-book Exercises in Travel Writing and Literary Tourism.
Source: https://press.um.si/index.php/ump/catalog/book/506

What exactly is travel writing? A longer elaboration would be needed to answer this question properly, but for the purposes of this Chapter, a simplified definition by Robinson (2004, 303), who defined travel writing as "writing about the experience of travel and visits to 'other' places", will be adopted. When employing travel writing in the classroom as a method for encouraging and teaching writing skills, the focus was, obviously, on the writing. Students were acquainted with various narration techniques for tourism (i. e. first-person narration, sensory details, languaging, inclusion of small talks with the locals, humour, etc.), and one of the goals was also encouraging students' creativity (along with further development of functional, information, and Internet literacy). Travel writing is often discussed as a subtype of Literary Tourism (Busby & Klug, 2001, Gentile & Brown, 2015). Alú and Hill (2018, 1) claim that, in travel writing texts, "views and gazes express a narrative space from which both narrator and reader scrutinise, judge and categorise the varied cultures and societies they explore". Travel writing can also be associated with the so-called

Slow Tourism or, as Mingazova (2019) puts it, slow travel writing, which is linked to using a slower means of transport, meeting the locals, learning the basics of (foreign) local languages. As far as linguistic choices are concerned, travel writings display a wide selection of structural, lexical and grammatical choices and writing techniques that are never neutral, but are always trying to persuade, influence, attract, direct, or seduce potential tourists to become actual tourists arriving at the destination and buying products and services. The analysis of travel writing texts by Potočnik Topler (2018) confirmed that, by using carefully selected adjectives (keywords), destinations can be represented according to tourists' expectations as beautiful, magical, romantic, lyrical, adventurous, fun, wild, exotic, unspoiled, etc. Depending on what the author of the text tries to achieve, various registers (register of health, register of food and drink, register of nostalgia, eco-tourism, etc.) and Dann's (1996, 101- 134) tourism categories (Dann, 1996, named them as three Rs - Romanticism, Regression, Rebirth, three Hs - Happiness, Hedonism, Helio-centrism, three Fs - Fun, Fantasy, Fairy Tales, and three Ss - Sea, Sex, Socialization, may be employed. By using keywords efficiently (adjectives, adjective-noun collocations, verbs, etc.) that are appealing to tourists, readers really become tourists.

There are many methods available for developing writing skills, but travel writing is a good choice for many reasons. Besides those already mentioned, in the described case at the Faculty of Tourism, travel writing seemed as an appropriate technique and one of the genres most suitable for the students, because Tourism students like travelling or researching the tourism offer – even during staycations (other forms of travelling were impossible during the pandemic). Secondly, it should be pointed out that travel writing can be employed to facilitate many skills, among them (new) media skills and digital technology, which are among the most desirable contemporary skills in newly employed tourism professionals. By employing the digital, new media, new technology, and combining writing with digital platforms, various written texts may contribute successfully to the distinctiveness of tourism products, services and destinations. Yes, travel writing skills can be a valuable addition to tourism graduates' competencies, and, thus, teaching of this genre should be planned carefully (Jiménez, 2001) with specific objectives in mind, and in accordance with the overall Tourism curriculum (professional, Bachelor or Master level).

Due to the travelling component, travel writing is appealing to students, who noticed that travelling has many aspects and meanings, and is, among other things, as Monga (1996) points out, a metaphor for life. In the process of learning and researching during English lessons in various groups of English for Tourism, it turned out that travel writing is not only a tool for branding attractions, products, places and destinations (Mansfield 2017), but also, which students emphasised as significant, a tool for self-exploration (some students mentioned the therapeutic effects of writing) and identity development.

Table of Contents

Figure 2: Table of Contents of the e-book Exercises in Travel Writing and Literary Tourism.
Source: own.

6 Teaching and Learning about Travel Writing

Teaching English for Tourism has some specifics – as teaching English for other Specific Purposes. Pascual (2019), for example, argues that blogs enable innovative ESP methodologies, and travel writing is by all means innovative, since it goes beyond "How I spent my vacations" texts.

That is how travel writing found its way into the English language classrooms at the Faculty of Tourism. At the beginning it was employed for one of the elective tasks, initially in the frame of the MA subject English in Tourism 1, later, also in undergraduate English for Tourism courses. When the task was introduced to students, they were introduced with the basics of Tourism Discourse and Literary Tourism, and, additionally, some examples of travel writing were read (and watched); the book by Charles Mansfield (2019) on travel writing was recommended to them, along with Mansfield's travel writing methods. After this introductory part, which is very important, further instructions on travel writing were given to students, who were offered three possibilities to write, encouraging their own creativity: 1 Practise literary travel writing; 2 Complete a place branding mini-research on the town or area of study, or 3 Students' innovative third possibility if they feel limited by the first two offered options. To students the elective assignment was presented as creative, significant and requiring a responsible approach. That is why it was fundamental to introduce the task to them with a well-planned theoretical intro to travel writing, discourse theories and storytelling, which enabled better understanding of the process and equipped the students with the necessary knowledge, which enabled the self-confidence to take up their own travel writing texts. Despite the fact that in travel writing texts creativity is significant, it is, on the other hand, very important that travel writing maintains credibility by observing some of the requirements, such as: Obtaining reliable information, supporting evidence of what is stated in the text and statements by relevant people (i. e. interviews with the locals). When describing a trip or a walk, Dann's (1996, 68) four sociological models of language usage for (promotional) texts in tourism may be employed: 1) The language of authentication (promotes the experience of the traveller as authentic, genuine, pure, opposing it to the banality of everyday life); 2) The language of differentiation (highlights the contrast between holiday and normal life); 3) The language of recreation (emphasises the recreational and hedonistic side of Tourism); and 4) The language of appropriation (tries to adopt an attitude of control and domination of what is unknown). In addition, travel writing texts need to be structured carefully, informative within limited space, they should display a careful selection of writing techniques (see Mansfield's Methods for Travel Writers, 2019) structural, lexical and grammatical choices. According to Cappelli (2007, 94), the typical itinerary, which may also be a part of the travel writing texts, contains the following sections:

– "- An easily understood title;
– An indication of the geographical location;
– Directions on how to reach this place;
– A mention of the climate;
– A description of any scenic beauty;
– A mention of any archaeological, historical or artistic features;
– Cuisine,
– Accommodation options;
– Sports and entertainment facilities;
– Attractive illustrations;
– Shopping hints;
– Special events;
– Addresses, etc. for obtaining further information".

Another verbal technique mentioned by Dann (1996) - and very often used in travel writing - is languaging – inserting foreign words in a text to make it more authentic or aimed at a certain niche of tourists. Cappelli (2007) also mentions common collocations, the role of humour and various registers (i. e. nostalgia, health, food and drink, and Eco-tourism,), while Potočnik Topler (2018) points out the irreplaceable role of adjectives. Humour was elaborated on extensively by Pearce (2009), who argued that humour has a vital role in tourism promotional texts and in tourism in general. That humour attracts tourists to destinations was confirmed by Carden (2005), and what is more, humour is an important pulling factor that can lead to better and more enjoyable tourist experiences (Pabel & Pearce, 2019; Pabel & Pearce, 2015; Pearce & Pabel, 2015).

Despite the fact that the focus of the task in the frame of English for Tourism was on the structure, words and narration techniques, it was mentioned during the introductory lessons that images (photos, sketches, maps, receipts, promotional materials, etc.) make travel texts more realistic and authentic. Since the travel writing task was introduced to students at the Faculty of Tourism for the first time, it was given a special name – it was called *Travel Writing -A Teaching and Learning Experiment* because, in fact, the teacher and students experimented with travel writing for the first time and no one really knew what to expect. This teaching and learning experiment was comprised of teaching in the classroom, research work in libraries and at home, field work, a lot of discussion, participation and evaluation, reviews, motivation to be curious, creative and innovative. Besides the very basic theory of Tourism Discourse, the students were acquainted with the methods of travel writing. One of the essential requirements when preparing for field work (in the process of travel writing), is thorough research. By thorough, research in archives and libraries is meant, and, in addition to that, studying maps, interviewing experts, reading literary texts, reviews. In the frame of English for Tourism, there was not enough time for a thorough research (time was a significant limitation).

In the frame of the task, students studied the genre of travel writing, compared styles of different travel writing texts, discussed the effectiveness of different travel writing texts, did individual research, did some walking or travelling, composed their own texts, re-wrote their own texts after receiving the teacher's corrections, and comments by the teacher and/or the students in the group.

The goals of the task were manifold:

- To improve writing skills in English;
- To understand travel writing texts and their role in the media,
- To convey personal experiences eloquently,
- To improve observation skills,
- To create inspiring (also out of the box) texts,
- To recognise and structure a good story, and engage readers,
- To evoke a sense of place,
- To communicate with the Travel industry and get published.

Figure 3: Students working on their travel writing ideas.
Source: own.

7 Analysis of Students' travel writing texts

This travel writing experiment in the frame of the English for Tourism courses turned out to be challenging, but rewarding – this could be said for all the groups involved in the assignments. Students evaluated learning English writing through travel writing as more meaningful, and they pointed out an additional value of broadening their horizons by learning not only about Travel Writing, but also about Tourism Discourse and Literary Tourism. Students were required to do their own research on travel writing, google scientific and professional literature related to the the topic, visit libraries and archives if possible, do some field research, read, and acquire new vocabulary along with the writing and research skills.

In general, the best travel writing texts were written by Master students, whose knowledge of English reaches the highest levels. So, the 2020 Spring learning experiment was concluded by publication of Master students' texts in a book titled Exercises in Travel Writing and Literary Tourism: A Teaching and Learning Experiment, which comprises the texts written by 9 students, which represent valuable reading resources, teaching and learning materials and potential social media contents` ideas. Not all students' texts did involve travel writing or did not follow the instructions, but such writing was allowed, because it was significant not to hinder the creativity of students. Students themselves reported that travelling shaped their travel writing, and that travel writing shaped their travels, as they were travelling with the travel writing text and its goals in minds, which contributed to the improved structure of students' travels, walks and texts.

To sum up, it can be concluded that travel writing proved to be a very encouraging and motivational method in the English for Tourism classroom.

Besides the already mentioned benefits of the travel writing inclusion into the English for Tourism classroom, some additional benefits are the following:

- Learning travel writing techniques,
- Learning English by doing,
- Differentiating between objective and subjective writing,
- Differentiating between information and entertainment in travel writing extracts,
- -Demonstrating evaluation and critical thinking,
- Recognising the cultural and historical importance of travel writing,
- Working individually and in the group,
- Communicating orally in group discussions and in written form in the Travel Writing assignment,
- Developing a creative project and publishing a booklet as a result.

The inclusion of travel writing into the English for Tourism lessons turned out to be beneficial, because travel writing can be used for a variety of purposes. On the one hand, travel writing is a branding tool, and on the other hand, it is a tool for shaping students' writing, language knowledge and identity. In the classroom, travel writing is significant in encouraging curiosity, research, creativity, innovation, reflection and the overall self-development.

Based on the positive experiences, one of the Tourism curricula objectives is also to offer a special Travel Writing module to MA students of Tourism, which would enable students enough time to study and experience the characteristics and benefits of travel writing. The expected impact of the developed Travel Writing module is the actual promotion and usage of a developed travel writing know-how by students as future professionals in Tourism and teachers. Another significant issue when it comes to travel writing texts is how to evaluate them. The following draft evaluation criteria have been established so far in the frame of the Travel Writing project (together with Mansfield):

1. The ability to identify an interesting and definable place(s).
2. The ability to develop a creative response in relation to the place(s), which involves emotional and ethical awareness.
3. The ability to develop a critical attitude towards the place(s), which pushes and tests existing boundaries
4. The ability to add critical reflections and readings (books, newspapers, signs, poems …)
5. Style of writing, including register and grammar
6. Degree to which the place-writing vignettes communicate successfully with an audience (s).
7. Development of work from an initial concept to final resolution.
8. Originality of the final presentation.
9. Encouraging students to publish.

8 Innovation

Including travel writing assignments into English for Tourism classrooms, developing travel writing assignments and modules in travel writing is innovative, in the sense that it provides innovative approaches and methods for teaching and learning writing and other communication skills in Tourism at Higher Education Institutions. Another important aspect of including travel writing into teaching and learning English for Tourism, is that travel writing enables interdisciplinary learning and researching, since it connects many scientific fields from Destination Management, Geography, Ethnology, Informatics, to Literature and Languages and many other fields. Also, travel writing enables research freedom and encourages active life and creativity, which, consequently, leads to self-development. After the texts of the described teaching and learning experiment were published – the students had a satisfying feeling of achievement.

9 Conclusion

In the classroom, Travel Writing is significant for developing communication skills, especially writing and reading skills, and for encouraging research, curiosity, innovation, creativity, reflection and the overall self-development. During the 2020 pandemic and lockdowns travel writing was employed successfully as long as at least some walks were allowed. The 2020 experiences in online teaching at the Faculty of Tourism have shown that many Tourism curricula need re-thinking, with new goals, competencies, required knowledge and methods; especially, since the main objective of Tourism Higher Education Institutions is to improve quality, and teach students to create, evaluate and analyse, which are the most important abilities according to Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, 1956; Adams, 2015). Thus, Travel Writing as a teaching and learning method, could be placed into many modules, from English for Tourism and other Specific Purposes to Destination Development and Tourism Marketing, etc. The described case of employing travel writing in English for Tourism confirmed that travel writing is a broad concept. Therefore, it needs to be emphasised that, whenever we discuss travel writing, we discuss not only a creative teaching and learning method, but discourse and its many functions - also discourse as a marketing tool, and as a means with a huge impact on Tourism, encouraging tourists from around the world to consume specific products, services and destinations mentioned in travel writing texts.

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AN INSIGHT INTO ATTITUDES OF SLOVENIAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS OF TOURISM DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC TOWARDS THE ONLINE LEARNING OF LANGUAGE FOR SPECIAL PURPOSES

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Abstract The chapter presents the results of an online survey conducted among the university students of tourism regarding their attitudes towards the methods of teaching and learning of language for special purposes (LSP) during the COVID-19 pandemic. Three research hypotheses were put forward: Attitudes of tourism students regarding the teaching methods of their online LSP course differ statistically based on their age (RH1), and their gender (RH2), and RH3: There are statistically significant differences in attitudes towards foreign language learning of tourism students regarding their affiliation. Based on results of linear regression and t-test some statistically signifnicant differences were reported among female and male respondents with regard to teaching methods for students with special needs and with regard to the way teachers used online tools to manage the lerning process. Further, statistically significant differences were found among attitudes of two slovenian tourism faculties with regard to six items related to LSP.

Keywords: attitudes, COVID-19 pandemic, language for special purpose, online teaching and learning, university students of tourism

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1 Introduction

Services play a crucial role in meeting human needs of consumers of a post-industrial society. Tourism, one of the most battered industries during the Covid-19 pandemic, plays a significant role in the service sector. In the services sector such as tourism, the service is provided mostly via interpersonal interactions, which makes front line employees the first and only representatives of the business to make that important first contact (Hartline, Maxham & McKee, 2000). In order to ensure the quality of service there must be a common language between suppliers of a service and demanders of a service, hence a common language is the prerequisite to face-to-face communications. Speaking in the tourist's language is of vital importance especially when there is a problem (Cocoa & Turner, 1997). Foreign language (henceforth FL) competencies and skills play a crucial role in the tourism management sector and are a basis for comprehensible communication. Foreign language competencies and skills are at this point of great importance and play a key role for tourism sector employees (Sindik & Božinović, 2013). Establishing effective communication with the world travellers has proven to be a wise strategy for the creation of distinct advantages in the competitive business on a global scale. The English language has become the lingua franca in international communication and a prerequisite for those who work in the tourism industry. Beside the good command of target language in the tourism sector, employees should also learn the basic social skills of the English language (Alison, 2016). Many universities employ English language for their regular tourism courses. Besides English, other European and non-European languages are taught as well, such as German, Italian, French, Chinese, and Spanish, to name the most frequent. How well a FL is learnt depends on many factors. Firstly, motivation plays a significant role in language learning since Smit and Dalton (2000) claim that there are two types of motivation named as extrinsic and intrinsic ones; extrinsic motivation is stable over time and leads an individual to self-determination, and the intrinsic motivation arouse awareness for learners in terms of external benefits such as better pay, get along in a foreign country and the like. It is therefore impossible for the tourism employees, who cannot have a good dialog with the guests and cannot understand the language they speak, to provide good service to their customers (Akgöz & Gürsoy, 2014). Parallel to its role in the tourism sector, the English language has been accepted as the international business mediating language, and thus companies, which select English as their official language due to the importance of establishing effective communications, are on the rise (Charles, 2007). As far as the tourism sector is concerned, it is impossible for students with poor skills and language proficiency for the chosen profession in the tourism sector, who do not make the effort to succeed, to retain their position in tourism. Good FL competencies are one of the most important qualifications required in the tourism sector (Davras & Bulgan, 2012; Miškulin Čubrić, 1997, 2000). In sum, English mediated classes, and that goes for all other FL guided classes, may guide learners to acquire the target language more accurately and faster (Krashen, 1995) since the instructors don't deal with teaching language proficiency, instead they generally focus on the content of the class. It is therefore clear that the main purpose regarding the English mediated classes in the department of Tourism is to gain awareness of the target course via English language. The internationalization of education, globalization, and the employability of graduates (Vinke, 1995; Vinke, Snippe, & Jochems, 1998; Vogt & Oliver, 1998) have all contributed greatly to the rise of the English mediated classrooms in foreign language departments of Tourism faculties.

With the introduction of computers, computer-assisted language learning and the growing use of internet, the learning opportunities seem to be limitless. Since the area of research of computer-assisted online FL learning is relatively recent, various terms have been used referring to the issue of online learning and there seems to be little agreement on the terminology used (Gluchmanova, 2015; Moore, Dickson-Deane & Galyen, 2011). Terms such as distance learning, distance education, online instruction, online training, e-learning, asynchronous vs. synchronous learning as well as web-based education are some of the more popular terms recently used in instructional and technological contexts (ibid.). All of the aforementioned terms are sometimes covered by "e-learning", "online learning" or "distance learning", all of which are basically interchangeably used in the current study and indicate any learning activity which is provided with the help of technology. The terms online learning and distance learning have been chosen to be the most appropriate by the authors of the paper and will consequently appear most frequently in the underlying study.

2 Background of the research

2.1 Students' attitudes towards the English language

Attitude is defined as a set of beliefs, which are developed in a society over a period. Attitude in language learning can affect students' participation in learning a language (Abdullah, 2014). Gardner (1985) introduces two types of attitudes: "attitudes towards learning the language, and attitudes towards the other-language community" (p. 39). He further defines attitude as "an evaluative reaction to some referent or object, inferred on the basis of the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent" (pp. 91-93). According to social psychologists, attitudes include three components: "a cognitive component, an affective component, and a behavioural component" (Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 2009, p. 662). In order to estimate the magnitude of attitude and motivation on language learning, most of the researchers build upon a tripartite model, suggesting attitude can be divided into three major components: cognitive, affective and behavioural (Liaw, 2002; Wenden, 1998). The cognitive component involves beliefs or perceptions about the objects or situations related to the attitude. The affective component expresses the feelings that arise about the cognitive element and the appraisal (good or bad) of these feelings. Finally, the evaluation of the affect is translated into a behavioural component that gives utterance to the attitude and certain attitudes tend to prompt learners to adopt particular learning behaviours (Vandewaetere & Desmet, 2009). Attitudes to language learning and teaching have already attracted the attention of scholars in the 1960s (cf. James, 1969; Rivers, 1965; Jakobovits, 1970). These authors have addressed the question of attitudes at a time of great social change, with social changes occurring overnight, students protesting in the eastern part of Europe and unrest in the western part of the old continent. There were similar breaks with the past in the theory of language teaching, which focused more on the individual needs of students. Obviously, changes had to be made to meet the newly identified needs, which Jakobovits (1970) described as a "more liberal" approach to language teaching. Such an approach placed the student at the centre of the teaching and learning process. Similarly, the roles of teachers have changed, in particular, the notion of a teacher best qualified to make decisions about introducing innovations into the teaching process has taken shape. Such a teacher should be able to choose from a wide range of teaching and learning materials and select those that would make the most of the learning experience. In addition to subject didactic methodological skills, a foreign language teacher should also have acquired specific skills in the field of psychology, and attitudes are an important aspect of psychology. Attitudes play "a central role in the socio-psychological model for explaining and predicting human behaviour" (Nastran Ule, 2000, p. 115). Attitudes guide our actions in the world and vice versa, which in turn influences the formation of our patterns of action or behaviour (ibid.). Krech, Crutchfield & Ballachey (1962, in Nastran Ule, 2000, p. 116) claim that attitudes are actually "permanent systems of positive or negative evaluations, feelings and activities that interact with various social situations and objects, and are therefore important for our research. On the other hand, (Nastran Ule, 2000) also claims that attitudes are "socially acquired and not innate, so that it is possible to change them in the course of life" (ibid. p. 121).

Considering the nature of attitudes in general and their formation (Nastran Ule, 1997; Ule, 2000) the author deemed there might be some changes in the onset of university students' attitudes towards FL learning, since the entire process of FL teaching and learning moved to online due to the outburst of the COVID-19 pandemic.

2.2 An overview of teaching approaches and methods

Considering the fact that one of the more important variables in the research are LSP teachers' teaching methods and approaches we deemed appropriate briefly presenting the ones included in the research. In history of language teaching, different-sounding terms are often interchangeable, they can even be written in different ways, hence there might be minor discrepancies in the style of the writing for the teaching methods and approaches in question.

2.2.1 Audiolingual method

Richards & Rodgers (2014) suggest that the approach is based on "the Coleman Report from 1929 recommending a reading-based approach for language teaching in American schools and colleges (p. 58)". This approach emphasized teaching the comprehension of the text. Students need not necessarily understand everything they said but could lead a conversation. This method caused students to learn up to 10 hours a day, six days a week (p. 59). This type of methodology derived from the intensity of contact with the target language. It was basically an intensive, oral-based approach of foreign language learning. In short, this approach became dominant in the United States during the 1940s, 19505, and 1960s; it takes much from the direct approach but adds features from structural linguistics and behavioural psychology. According to this method lessons begin with dialogs, teachers should use mimicry and memorization, based on the assumption that language is habit formation. Grammatical structures are sequenced and rules are taught inductively; skills are sequenced. This method postpones listening, speaking-reading, and writing. From the very beginning, the pronunciation is stressed. Vocabulary is severely limited in the initial stages of the language learning. Great effort is made to prevent learner errors. Language is often manipulated without regard to meaning or context. The teacher must be proficient only in the structures, vocabulary, and the like, since her/his teaching activities and materials are carefully controlled (cf. Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 3).

2.2.2 Grammar translation method

According to Celce-Murcia (1991, p. 3) this method is an extension of the approach used to teach classical languages to the teaching of modern languages. The instruction is given in the native language of the students. During the teaching process there is little use of the target language, because the focus is on grammatical parsing, i.e., the form and inflection of words. The emphasis is on the early reading of difficult classical texts. A typical exercise in course of a typical lesson is to translate sentences from the target language into the mother tongue. The result of this approach is usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication. The student only needs to understand the grammar rules and for that reason, the language teacher's proficiency does not have to meet the highest standards.

2.2.3 The CLIL approach

According to Korosidou & Griva (2014, pp. 240-242) Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach has been practiced for the last two decades with proven positive effects on the language skills of second/foreign language (L2/FL) learners (Korosidou & Griva, 2013; Lasagabaster, 2008; Zydatiss, 2007). The CLIL approach mainly focuses on language, content and learning skills (Mehisto, Marsh & Frigols, 2008), and can yield successful outcomes when applied both at early language teaching and adult language learning (Eurydice Report, 2006). Korosidou & Griva reported that Coyle (2006) designed the 4C'sFramework with the purpose of creating individual CLIL materials (Content- Cognition- Communication- Culture), offering a theoretical and methodological foundation for planning and implementing CLIL, as well as designing CLIL materials (Coyle, 1999, 2006 in Meyer, 2010). The CLIL approach includes inquiry-based learning activities, where students develop their higher order thinking skills in a curricular context, using context specific language, and being evaluated by demonstrating their knowledge of language and content. The CLIL approach aims at overcoming the limitations created by the traditional curriculum, where each content/subject area is taught separately. The experts in the field sustain that it actually succeeds in integrating various contents/subject areas with learning the target language (Coyle, 2006; Mehisto et al., 2008).

2.2.4 Task-based approach

According to Sánchez (2004, p. 3) "the emergence of the TBA is connected to what became known as the 'Bangalore Project' (Prabhu, 1987) initiated in 1979 and completed in 1984." The term 'task' was often used to refer to the special kind of activities carried on in the classroom. Such activities are characterised among other features, by the emphasis put on the meaning and the importance assigned to the process of doing things (how) vs. the prevailing role given to content in the teaching practice of that decade. The author also claimed that communicative competence was to develop in the course of meaning-focused activity. One should also bear in mind that grammatical competence was to be built through internal self-regulating processes and for that, it would help to convey meaning in favourable conditions. The most important responsibility of the language teachers was to create the right conditions for the learners to be able to engage in meaningful situations. Any prior regulation of what had to be learnt according to a predefined formal o grammatical syllabus was to be excluded.

2.2.5 Communicative approach

According to Celce-Murcia (1991, p. 6) the communicative approach grew out of the work of anthropological linguists (e.g., Hymes, 1972) and Firthian linguists (e.g., Halliday, 1973), who view language first and foremost as a system for communication. It is assumed that the goal of language teaching is learner ability to communicate in the target language. The content of a language course is supposed to include semantic notions and social functions, not just linguistic structures. During the communicative lesson students would regularly work in groups or pairs to transfer (and, if necessary, negotiate) meaning in situations where one person has information which the other(s) lack. Hence, students would often engage in role-play or dramatization to adjust their use of the target language to different social contexts. Classroom materials and activities are supposed to be as authentic as possible to reflect real-life situations and demands. Language skills are integrated from the very beginning, meaning that a given activity may involve reading, speaking, listening, and perhaps writing, provided that the learners are educated and literate. The teacher's role in communicative approach is primarily to facilitate communication and only secondarily to correct errors. It is assumed that the language teachers are able to use the target language fluently and appropriately.

2.2.6 Cross-curricular approach

According to Beckmann (2009, p. 14) "cross-curricular teaching is a specific form of instruction." The term cross-curricular implies the existence of clearly defined subjects, disciplines. All pupils know about the existence of such subjects from their own experience (ibid.). Also, the term cross-curricular implies the possibility that we go beyond a subject, i.e. that we cross disciplinary boundaries and in the process we touch on something else. Beckmann also claimed (p. 15) that cross-curricular teaching means the extension to other subjects or the integration of these into one's own subject." Hence, successful work requires a proficient co-operation with other subjects. An individual teacher can only achieve this through some proficiency in multiple subjects. This can only occur through co-operation with specialists, such as teachers in the relevant subjects. The forms of co-operation can vary. It may simply be restricted to subject related co-operation, enriching the individual subjects involved mutually; it may, however, also mean joint planning of the content, the objectives and methods, the examples or courses of instruction; and can also be expressed in joint project work.

2.2.7 Language shower

According to Miettinen (2013) the concept's aim is, as claimed by Nikula & Marsh (1997, p. 24) "to familiarize pupils with a foreign language and its use." A more recent definition by Mehisto et al. (2008, p. 13) asserts that the objective is to make pupils "aware of the existence of different languages" and to "develop a positive attitude towards language learning". They also say that language showers are a way of helping pupils to be better prepared for studying languages. The amount of time used to meet these goals varies, but is generally very limited. It can be, for instance, one lesson or less in a week (Nikula & Marsh, 1997, p. 24) or from 30 to 60 minutes per day (Mehisto et al., 2008, p. 13). In other words, language showers are not to be seen as actual language teaching, but instead as a means of raising interest towards the language, and providing pupils with positive experiences as language users (Nikula & Marsh, 1997, p. 25).

Interestingly, both Nikula & Marsh (1997) and Mehisto et al. (2008) position language showers in the framework of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), even though the objective is not to teach any specific non-language content to the pupils (Nikula & Marsh, 1997, p. 25). Mehisto et al. (2008, pp. 12–13) place language showers at the beginning of a CLIL continuum ranging from short-term, low-intensity exposure to a foreign language to high-intensity, long-term language programmes such as immersion.

2.2.8 Multiple intelligences approach

According to Derakhshan & Faribi (2015) there is a positive relationship between multiple intelligences and learning English. For the first time, it was Gardner (1983) who proposed Multiple Intelligence Theory (MIT) and challenged the too narrowly defined intelligence with his proposal of basic human intelligence types (linguistic, mathematical, musical, spatial, bodily-kinesthetic interpersonal and intrapersonal). At the beginning, there were seven types of intelligences and by his further research, Gardner proposed the eighth intelligence, "naturalistic intelligence", which has been added to the list and now there is the possibility of the ninth intelligence "emotional intelligence" (Armstrong, 2008).

Derakhshan & Faribi (2015, p. 66) reported the following: the integration of MI (Multiple Intelligences) into language teaching: a foreign language teacher educators are responsible for creating curricula for the programs that provide prospective English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers with a foundation for what they should know as professional language teachers. Much of what we include in TEFL (Teaching Engish as a Foreign Language) programmes is based on academic tradition. EFL teachers are expected to know about methods, testing, theory, teaching grammar, reading, speaking, listening, and so forth. Most teacher education programmes include courses in all of these subject areas. Teacher education programs are also expected to keep current by introducing teachers to the newest and most creative ideas in second language pedagogy. When new concepts and ideas are embraced by the profession, teacher education programs are challenged with integrating them into existing programs (Christison, 1998). Basically, the authors claimed that in the second or foreign language classrooms, it is possible to motivate learners by different activities relating to the different intelligences (p. 70).

2.3 The impact of COVID-19 pandemic on FL distance learning and teaching

The World Health Organization (henceforth WHO) declared COVID-19 as a global public health emergency of international concern on 30th January 2020 as well as a pandemic on March 11 2020 (Cucinotta & Vanelli, 2020). Consequently, as of March 13, 61 countries in Africa, Asia, Europe, the Middle East, North America, and South

America have announced or implemented school and university closures and most of universities have enforced localized closures (UNESCO, 2020). The outbreak of the pandemic has had, like many other aspects of everyday life, a serious impact on students, teachers, and educational organizations around the globe (Mailizar, Almanthari, Maulina, & Bruce, 2020). The COVID-19 pandemic has caused schools, colleges, and universities across the globe to shut down so that students could follow social distancing measures (Toquero, 2020). The move from an environment of conventional pre-pandemic education to distance and virtual learning could of course not happen overnight. This rapid transformation has encountered various obstacles and challenges on the way (Crawford et al., 2020). With no quick end of the pandemic in sight, educational institutions across the globe decided to use the already available technical resources to create online learning materials for students of all academic fields (Kaur, 2020). The outbreak of Covid-19 compelled academics and practitioners alike to reconsider the traditional way of in-presence teaching and learning. Consequently, they started considering distance online learning as a feasible option to fill the classroom void for duration of school closure, thus reducing the risk of infection for students before conventional activities could resume (Kaur, 2020). Hundreds of educational institutions provide for online courses, yet some problems exist. Firstly, from a macro point of view, not enough evidence has been established regarding the effects and efficacy of online education (McPherson & Bacow, 2015). Secondly, the capacity to successfully teach digitally is likely to differ based on the wide range of learning goals that guide our instructional and educational priorities (Liguori & Winkler, 2020). Thirdly, the distribution of learning tools such as computers or tablets are uneven in the population, and what is more, due to the closure of universities many students had to return home. Being reintroduced to a new form of family life, where there may have been other siblings who learnt online and in some cases parents, too, worked from Home Office, has not favoured positive learning outcomes. Fourthly, not all households are provided with broadband internet, hence many families had to resort to creative measures such as wireless internet, which has its limitations of range, the reason for which many families were cramped together in one room, because everybody either worked from home or learnt online. Consequently, lack of access to fast, affordable and reliable internet connection hindered the process of distance learning especially for those who are living in underprivileged or rural as well as marginalized communities of low-income families. And lastly, distance learning can be effective in digitally advanced countries (Basilaia & Kvavadze, 2020). Nevertheless, students who access the internet via smartphones were often unable to take advantage of distance learning because a significant amount of online content is not accessible via smartphones, for example not all Zoom features, a platform widely used in Slovenia for distance learning as of March 2020, are accessible to tablet or smartphone users.

The sudden transfer from in-presence learning and teaching to distance learning became an issue of organizational agility (Wu, 2020), all elementary and secondary schools as well as academic organisations in Slovenia consequently focused on the transfer of the pedagogical process to the digital world while not primarily focusing on online teaching and delivery methods as well as content. There was also a general perception of underpreparedness among teachers in Slovenia at all levels and many felt undertrained for distance teaching. Besides, there was a feeling of unpreparedness and insufficient access and availability of the internet and the lack of latest technology on the students' side as well, which, along with organizational unresponsiveness undermined students' capacity to participate in digital learning (Zhong, 2020). Moreover, absence of proper interaction with instructors is another major concern associated with distance teaching and learning. Additionally, issues arising from content of the online course would normally be discussed with the relevant course instructor by e-mail or on one of the online platforms such as Zoom, Skype, Microsoft Teams and the like, which requires response time (Zhong, 2020). It is highly unlikely for students to be truly interested in virtual classes, which is especially true for younger students who are tactile learners. Another major issue of distance learning is the absence of conventional classroom socialization. Students namely only communicate with their peers digitally and never actually see them in person, and thus the real-time sharing of ideas, knowledge and information is heavily obstacled and partially missing from the digital learning world (Britt, 2006).

Consequently, some recent research studies have aimed at exploring the challenges on one hand and opportunities on the other associated with e-learning during pandemics (Mailizar et al., 2020). The authors of the study suggested that students' voices are important on this issue; hence, the future research should investigate students' opinions regarding online learning to examine the challenges faced by students.

Based on the premises outlined above, the research objective focused on the attitudes of university students of tourism in the Republic of Slovenia towards the online FL learning. The following part of the chapter deals with the research methodology. Our study aimed to explore the differences in attitudes towards the online teaching methods of LSP during the Covid-19 pandemic lockdown with regard to the respondents' age and affiliation (Faculty of Tourism at Brežice vs Faculty of Tourism Studies-Turistica at Protorož); hence, the following research hypotheses were explored:

2.4 Research hypotheses

According to the literature review and the purposes of the study the following research hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1. The used method of learning influences the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning. Scholars from the 60s (cf. James, 1969; Rivers, 1965; Jakobovits, 1970 and others) started addressing the importance of attitudes of students towards learning methods at a time of great social change. A similar situation occured in 2019 and 2020, with the spreading of the pandemic, causing schools to be closed. Their adaptation to the situation had to be quick. It is important to measure how the used method of learning can influence the perception of students about the usefulness of the tools.

Hypothesis 2. The faculty of the study influences the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning. English mediated classes may guide learners to acquire the target language more accurately and faster (Krashen, 1995) since the instructors don't deal with teaching language proficiency, instead they generally focus on the content of the class. Since students at different faculties have different teachers, it is important to measure if the teacher itself could be the cause of the differences in perceptions among students of different faculties of tourism in Slovenia.

Hypothesis 3. The gender of respondents influences the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning. The gender plays an important role in shaping attitudes and perception (Stevens Aubrey & Harrison, 2004).

3 Research method

3.1 Research design

A quantitative research paradigm has been applied in this study, which employed a survey design in order to measure the university students' attitudes regarding online teaching and learning of languages for special purposes during the ongoing Covid-19 pandemic. The paradigm consists of a descriptive and causal-non-experimental method of empirical pedagogical research. Our research has focused on the study of a pedagogical topic (in the case of the chapter Attitudes of Slovenian university students of tourism during the COVID-19 pandemic towards the online learning of foreign languages for special purposes); therefore, the appropriate research method is descriptive. Sagadin (1991, p. 29) described this method as an investigation of the pedagogical field. To elicit data for the study, the students have responded to a 17-item online questionnaire, of which 5 variables were nominal, 11 ordinal, and 1 proportional.

3.2 Data collection, target population and research sample

The online survey was drawn by Associate Professor Eva Podovšovnik Axelsson, PhD, from the Faculty of Tourism Studies-Turistica in 2020. Great importance was given to the anonymity and confidentiality of the research, hence no personal data such as date and place of birth, name or last name was elicited. It was remodelled and published by the co-author Tilen Smajla, PhD, on 22 February 2021 and made available on the online service provider Arnes. Due to contact restrictions and in line with the Covid-19 pandemic regulations the survey was distributed exclusively online in order to avoid crowded lecture rooms and the potential spread of the Sars-Cov-2 virus. University teachers of foreign language who teach a LSP in various faculties in Slovenia were encouraged to motivate their students to click on the survey and finish it. Consequently, this led to 693 clicks on the survey, 465 partially finished surveys, and 328 completed surveys.

Table 1 shows the distribution among the six public and private Slovenian universities comprised in the survey as well a the sample of respondents

Table 1: Sample of university students who participated in the survey

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">University</th><th colspan="2">sample of respondents</th><th colspan="2">f %</th></tr>
<tr><td>University of Ljubljana</td><td>public</td><td colspan="2">222</td><td colspan="2">48</td></tr>
<tr><td>University of Maribor</td><td>public</td><td colspan="2">162</td><td colspan="2">38</td></tr>
<tr><td>University of Primorska</td><td>public</td><td colspan="2">82</td><td colspan="2">18</td></tr>
<tr><td>University of Nova Gorica</td><td>public</td><td colspan="2">1</td><td colspan="2">0</td></tr>
<tr><td>University of Novo mesto</td><td>private</td><td colspan="2">1</td><td colspan="2">0</td></tr>
<tr><td>Nova univerza</td><td>private</td><td colspan="2">0</td><td colspan="2">0</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Total</td><td colspan="2">468</td><td colspan="2">100</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Clicks on the survey</td><td colspan="2">693</td><td colspan="2">100</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Click on the introduction section</td><td colspan="2">501</td><td colspan="2">72</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Started the survey</td><td colspan="2">480</td><td colspan="2">69</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Partially completed survey</td><td colspan="2">465</td><td colspan="2">67</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Fully completed the survey</td><td colspan="2">328</td><td colspan="2">47</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="3">Gender the respondents of the entire online survey</td><td colspan="2">M</td><td colspan="2">F</td></tr>
<tr><td>f</td><td>f %</td><td>f</td><td>f %</td></tr>
<tr><td>161</td><td>38.16</td><td>261</td><td>61.84</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Gender of students of tourism studies</td><td colspan="2">f</td><td colspan="2">f %</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">M</td><td colspan="2">55</td><td colspan="2">39</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">F</td><td colspan="2">80</td><td colspan="2">56.7</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">missing</td><td colspan="2">6</td><td colspan="2">4.3</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="3">Affiliation of university students of tourism</td><td colspan="2">Faculty of Tourism Brežice</td><td colspan="2">Faculty of Tourism Studies Portorož</td></tr>
<tr><td>f</td><td>f %</td><td>f</td><td>f %</td></tr>
<tr><td>66</td><td>46.8</td><td>75</td><td>53.2</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Total</td><td colspan="2">141</td><td colspan="2">100</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Age of students of tourism studies</td><td colspan="2">M</td><td colspan="2">SD</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2" rowspan="3"></td><td colspan="2">25.66</td><td colspan="2">6.813</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Min</td><td colspan="2">Max</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">19</td><td colspan="2">55</td></tr>
</table>

The results shown are as follows: percentages and numbers vary because not all participants who clicked on the survey continued it and completed it in its entirety. 693 students have clicked on the survey. Some participants continued by clicking on the introduction section, but did not continue (501 partecipants or 72 %), 480 or 69 % of the participants actually started the survey, 465 or 67 % of the participants partly completed the survey, and finally, 328 or 47 % of the participants fully finished the survey. Table 1 also reveals that the 48 % of the sample consists of respondents enrolled in the University of Ljubljana, which is not a surprising fact, since the University of Ljubljana is the largest and the oldest (established in 1919) public university in Slovenia. The University of Maribor was established in 1975, making it the second largest and second oldest public university in Slovenia, contributing 38

% of the respondents. The third oldest and largest public university in Slovenia is the University of Primorska, established in 2003 and contributing 18 % of the respondents. The remaining universities listed in Table 1 (Univerza v Novi Gorici, Nova Univerza, Univerza v Novem mestu) have all been established later, in case of the UN NG the official opening dates to 2006, whereas Nova Univerza dates to 2017, the same goes for Univerza v Novem mestu. As far as the gender distribution is concerned, 261 female students and 161 male students participated in the online survey.

The sample used for the purposes of this study consists of 141 tourism students from two Slovenian faculties of tourism, namely, the Faculty of Tourism at Brežice, member of the University of Maribor (66 respondents), and Faculty of Tourism Studies - Turistica at Portorož, member of the University of Primorska (75 respondents), who successfully completed the online survey in the period between 22 February 2021 until 29 March 2021 and whose average age was 25,6 with the standard deviation of 6.813. Table 1 also shows that the majority of respondents (80 or 56.7 %) were female students, whereas 55 respondents or 39 % of the sample represented the male students, 4.3 % have chosen not to respond. Table 1 ultimately shows that there were slightly less respondents from the Faculty of Tourism at Brežice or 46.8 % of the sample, whereas the bulk of the sample from Faculty of Tourism Studies-Turistica at Portorož represented 53.2 % of the studied sample. Six students or 4.3 % of the sample have chosen not to reveal their gender.

3.3 Research instrument

Research instruments are tools, which researchers select and use in carrying out their activities to collect data, in order to make it systematic and easy. In this study, researchers used an online questionnaire as a research instrument. It is made out of 17 items, five of which are nominal variables, 11 are ordinal, and one is relational variable. The research instrument used to measure the attitudes of university students was a questionnaire, which was originally designed by assoc. prof. Eva Podovšovnik, PhD, in the Slovenian language, and remodelled by Tilen Smajla, PhD, for the purposes of the underlying study. The online questionnaire contained both closed-ended and open-ended questions as well as a relational scale. The closed-ended questions required students to answer by assigning a Likert-type (Arnold, McCroskey & Prichard, 1967) scale quantifier (from 1-10), whereas the open-ended questions referred to the students' opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of language learning online during the Covid-19 pandemic.

3.4 Data analysis

The data were statistically analysed using descriptive statistics (frequency distributions, mean values and standard deviation of mean). The data was processed using SPSS IBM Statistical Package version 26. The frequency distribution of the variables and their parameters were examined, and skewness and kurtosis coefficient were determined, in order to test for the normality of the distribution. In order to reduce the number of variables for the perception of the usefulness of the tools for distance education, the factor analysis was used. Research hypotheses were tested using linear regression and the t-test. Results are presented in the follow up.

First, the descriptive statistics of the used methods for language teaching are presented (see Table 2). Students were asked if during distance learning different methods were used by their language teachers. Each teaching method or approach was breafly explained in the questionnaire. The parcipants could choose more than one teaching method or approach. The answers were measured on a dychotomous scale (0 – not selected, 1 – selected). In Table 2 the number and percentage of »yes« answers is presented – thus, meaning the number and percentage of respondents that experienced language learning using a particular method during distance learning.

Table 2: Distribution of the used methods for language teaching

Method/approach	f	f%
Audio-lingual method	48	39.0
Grammar translation method	49	39.8
CLIL approach	76	61.8
Task-based approach	29	23.6
Communicative approach	88	71.5
Cross-curricular approach	54	43.9
Language shower	57	46.3
Multiple intelligences approach	9	7.3

As it can be seen from Table 2, the majority of respondents who fully completed the survey or 71.5 % answered that the communicative approach was used for language teaching during their course. The next methods follows: CLIL approach (61.8 %), the language shower (46.3 %), the cross-currilar approach (43.9 %), the grammar translation method (39.8 %), the audio-lingual method (39 %), the task-based approach (23.6 %) and the multiple intelligences approach (7.3 %). Since the last approach was not common, we decided to exclude it from further statistical analysis.

In the following (see Table 3), respondents were asked to evaluate their perception of the usefulness of learning tools used for language teaching during distance learning. The usefulness of learning tools was adapted to the study developed by the Italian Society of Special Pedagogy (www. https://s-sipes.it/). They were asked to use a 10-point Likert-type scale (1 meaning completely disagree, 10 meaning completely agree).

Table 3: Distribution of the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
LSP online teaching tools can be adapted to any particular form, regardless of the typology and number of students.	8.08	1.711	-1.107	1.261
LSP online teaching tools' users are provided with help in case they run into trouble.	7.26	2.125	-0.795	-0.060
LSP online teaching tools enable users to access different communication channels (audio, video, text).	7.37	2.255	-0.691	-0.463
LSP online teaching tools enable a flexible use of their functions (the possibility of multiple tasking, access to different functions based on diversification).	6.86	2.218	-0.201	-0.797
In my opinion all users can make use of LSP online teaching tools.	5.23	2.948	0.107	-1.402
In my opinion LSP teaching tools are accessible to students with special needs.	3.92	2.816	0.673	-0.997
Even when offline, LSP online teaching tools retain their functionality as well as content.	5.32	2.272	0.006	-0.376
LSP online teaching tools have the capability of integrating learners by using synchronous and asynchronous communication.	5.91	1.915	-0.319	0.099
LSP online teaching tools are used by university professors to check upon their students' attendance.	7.95	2.478	-1.160	0.202
Most university professors seem familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	7.52	2.067	-0.878	0.134

	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Most university professors seem to have basic knowledge of LSP online teaching tools.	6.48	2.448	-0.450	-1.024
By using LSP online teaching tools university professors are able to actively control the learning process.	7.86	2.100	-1.240	0.924
Online teaching of LSP has modifed my attitude towards my university professor.	5.61	2.777	-0.014	-1.459
The choice of LSP online teaching methods and approaches has had a significant impact on my learning outcome.	5.38	2.767	-.081	-1.324
I am familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	6.31	2.497	-.195	-1.044
I have basic technical/digital competencies with regard to dealing with LSP online teaching tools.	6.17	2.560	.036	-1.192

It can be concluded from Table 3 that respondents on average agree with almost all the statements ($5.23 < M < 8.08$). The only exception is the perception of the the tools designed for LSP on distance are not accessible to students with special needs ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 1.82$). On average, respondents mostly agree that the tools for LSP on distance can adapt easily to any form and specific LSP ($M = 8.08$, $SD = 1.71$), that teachers can use LSP in distance learning to check the attendance rate of students ($M = 7.95$, $SD = 2.48$), that teachers can benefit for active management of the learning process, while using LSP in distance education ($M = 7.86$, $SD = 2.1$), that most of the teachers show domesticity while using LSP in distance education ($M = 7.52$, $SD = 2.07$), that tools designed for LSP distance learning allow teachers to use different communication channels ($M = 7.37$, $SD = 2.26$), and that users can use help while using LSP in distance learning ($M = 7.26$, $SD = 2.13$). Respondents, on average, also agree that tools designed for LSP in distance learning allow flexibility ($M = 6.86$, $SD = 2.22$), that most of the teachers possess the basic skills to use the tools designed for LSP in distance learning ($M = 6.48$, $SD = 2.45$), that respondent know how to use the tools designed for LSP in distance learning ($M = 6.31$, $SD = 2.5$), that they possess the necessary technical skills to use LSP in distance learning ($M = 6.17$, $SD = 2.56$), and that while using LSP in distance learning users can use synchronous and assynchronous forms of communication ($M = 5.91$, $SD = 1.92$). On average, respondents tend to neither agree neither disagree that the use of LSP in distance learning has changed their attitude towards teachers ($M = 5.61$, $SD = 2.78$), that learning techniques used by teachers in distance learning have developped respondents' knowledge ($M = 5.38$, $SD = 2.77$), that teachers can use

LSP in distance learning also offline (M = 5.32, SD = 2.27), and that all users can use the tools designed for LSP in distance education (M = 5.23, SD = 2.95).

Regarding the distribution of the variables, we can see (from Table 3) that all the included statements show a distribution close to a normal one ($-1.24 < \text{skewness} < 0.11$; $-1.46 < \text{kurtosis} < 1.26$). Thus, we can retain all the mentioned items of the perception of the tools designed for LSP on distance for further statistical analysis.

In the next step, the reliability of the research instrument was tested. Sixteen variables were included, the reliability of which is, based on Ferligoj et al. (1995), very good, since the value of the Cronbach alpha coefficient is $\alpha = 0.8$.

Internal validity was tested using the Pearson's correlational coefficients (see Appendix 1). Results show that most of the Pearson's correlational coefficients are statistically significant at the 0.05 level, showing internal validity of the research instrument. The exceptions are in the case of the agreement with statements that the tools designed for LSP in distance education can be adapted to any form and specific of LSP learning, that most of the teachers show a level of domesticity with the tools designed for LSP distance learning, that most of the teachers show basic skills for the usage of LSP in distance learning, that distance learning has changed respondent's attitude towards teachers, and that the used methods in LSP distance learning helped develop respondent's knowledge. In the mentioned cases, the items present a partial significant correlation with other items.

4 Results and discussion

To test the formulated research hypotheses t-test analysis was used, for each item separately.

First, the results of the influence of different learning techniques on the perception of the usefulness of the tools for distance education was measured. Results are presented in Appendix 2. Statistically significant values at the 0.05 level are highlighted in the table. In the following, results are presented, according to the used learning technique.

There can be seen some statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level among respondents that stated that their teachers used audio-lingual method for language learning and those who answered their teachers did not use this method. Respondents that answered their teachers used the audio-lingual method for language teaching agreed more than students that reported their teachers did not use the audio-lingual method during lectures that:

- the LSP for distance learning is accessible for all,
- the LSP for distance learning is accessible for students with special needs,
- they are familiar with the use of LSP for distance learning and
- they have the basic technical skills for the use of LSP for distance learning.

There can be seen some statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level among respondents that stated that their teachers used grammar translation method for language learning and those who answered their teachers did not use this technique. Respondents that answered their teachers used the grammar translation method for language teaching agreed less than students that reported their teachers did not use the grammar translation method during lectures that LSP for distance learning can be adapted to any form of education. Respondents that answered their teachers used the grammar translation method for language teaching agreed more than students that reported their teachers did not use the grammar translation method during lectures that:

- LSP for distance learning enables users to access different communication channels,
- all users can use LSP for distance learning,
- most teachers have basic knowledge on how to use LSP in distance learning and
- they are familiar with the use of LSP for distance learning.

There can be seen some statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level among respondents that stated that their teachers used the CLIL approach for language learning and those who answered their teachers did not use this approach. Respondents that answered their teachers used the CLIL for language teaching agreed more than students that reported their teachers did not use the CLIL approach during lectures that LSP for distance learning can be adapted to any form of education. Respondents that answered their teachers used the CLIL approach for language teaching agreed less than students that reported their teachers did not use CLIL during lectures that:

- LSP for distance learning enables users to access different communication channels,
- LSP for distance learning enables a flexible use of the tools,
- all users can use LSP for distance learning,
- LSP for distance learning is accessible for students with special needs,
- LSP for distance learning can be used offline,
- LSP for distance learning enables the use of synchronous and assynchronous communication,
- LSP for distance learning can be used to check students' attendance,
- teachers have basic knowledge on how to use LSP for distance learning,
- using LSP for distance learning had an impact on their knowledge,
- they are familiar with the use of the LSP for distance learning and
- they possess the basic technical skills to use LSP for distance learning.

There can be seen some statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level among respondents that stated that their teachers used the task-based approach for language learning and those who answered their teachers did not use this approach. Respondents that answered their teachers used the task-based approach for language teaching agreed less than students that reported their teachers did not use the task-based approach during lectures that LSP for distance learning can be used by anyone.

There can be seen some statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level among respondents that stated that their teachers used communicative approach for language learning and those who answered their teachers did not use this approach. Respondents that answered their teachers used the communicative approach for language teaching agreed more than students that reported their teachers did not use the communicative approach during lectures that they possess the basic technical skills for LSP in distance learning.

There can be seen some statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level among respondents that stated that their teachers used cross-curricular approach for language learning and those who answered their teachers did not use this approach. Respondents that answered their teachers used the cross-curricular approach for language teaching agreed more than students that reported their teachers did not use the cross-curricular approach during lectures that LSP for distance learning can be adapted to any form of education. Respondents that answered their teachers used the cross-curricular approach for language teaching agreed less than students that reported their teachers did not use the cross-curricular approach during lectures that:

- LSP for distance learning enables users to access different communication channels,
- LSP for distance learning enables a flexible use of the tools,
- LSP for distance learning is appropriate for all users,
- LSP for distance learning is accessible to students with special needs,
- they are familiar with the use of LSP for distance learning and
- they possess the basic technical skills to use LSP for distance learning.

There were no statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level among respondents that stated that their teachers used the language shower for language learning. Thus, the research hypothesis can be partially confirmed.

Results for the variable gender are presented in Appendix 3. Statistically significant values at the 0.05 level are highlighted in the table. Based on results shown in Appendix 3 there are statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level in the perception of the tools designed for LSP on distance by the gender of respondents. Females respondents agree more (M = 4.53) than male respondents (M = 3.2) that tools designed for LSP distance learning are accessible for students with special needs. Male respondents agree more (M = 8.48) than female respondents (M = 7.36) that tools designed for LSP distance learning allow teachers to actively manage the learning process. Thus, the research hypothesis can be partially confirmed.

Results of the t-test with regard to the students' affiliation (Faculty of Tourism at Brežice vs Faculty of Tourism Studies –Turistica at Portorož) are presented in Appendix 4. Statistically significant values at the 0.05 level are highlighted in the table. From Appendix 4 we can observe that there are statistically significant differences at the 0.05 level in the perception of the tools designed for LSP on distance with regard to the students' affiliation. Respondents from the University of Maribor agree more than respondents of the University of Primorska that the tools designed for LSP in distance learning:

- allow the use of different communication channels,
- are useful for all users,
- it can be used offline,
- teachers can use it to check the attendance of students,
- they know how to use it and
- they possess the basic technical skills in order to be able ot use the tools.

Thus, the research hypothesis can be partially confirmed.

5 Conclusions

The Covid-19 pandemic has been quite a challenge for all stakeholders in school systems on the globals scale. Since all educational facilities were forced to suspend their in-presence teaching and learning due to Covid-19 restriction measures on the one hand, and find a suitable and appropriate way to continue the educational process on the other hand, many students of all levels were grounded at home. At first glance online teaching and learning appeared easy and one-measure-fits–all, soon proved to be quite an obstacle for many students, because not all were equipped to take up online classes. No one has believed that the pandemic would tako so long to play out, which led to an underpreparedness of students and internet providers alike. LSP teachers' digital competences were also put to a strict test, since they needed to deliver on their curruculum, inspite of all the circumstances.

Our research has highlighted some important issues and differences among the sets of university students of two tourism faculties in Slovenia, which were faced with a strenuous effort to transfer the entire teaching and learning online. It was an endeavour in itself, since neither the internet providers, nor students, not even language teachers were fully prepared. Whether or not a LSP teacher was digitally literate became one of the main issues during the 2020 Spring lockdown in Slovenia, and what is more, whether or not her/his teaching approaches or methods were used and adapted to the new situation of online teaching was the next important factor. Constant and quality access to internet services as well as well-developed digital competencies were suddenly highly valued qualities and not always present. To cope with this challenge, the European Union has thought in advance and conducted a survey in 27 European countries with the aim to highlight the actual use of internet in schools, the percentage of digitally competent teachers and access to internet. The overall outcome of the 2006 research is according to Božič (2018, pp. 41-45) a rather low level of digital preparedness of elementary school teachers and medium coverage of schools with a sufficiently stabil intenet connection. Also, as Basantes-Andrade et al. would put it (2020), higher education institutions needed to make the effort and take up the challenge of training and updating knowledge for their educators, so that they can develop the necessary digital competence and thus motivate their students to strive for better learning outcomes. Digital competences have marked a relevant bulk of research line in the previous years and at different levels and in different contexts (Caena & Redeker, 2019; Maderick et al., 2016; Moreno & Delgado, 2013; Nykes, 2018; Spante et al., 2018), keeping in mind that the digital competence is a set of techno-pedagogical and communicative skills to function effectively in the new educational contexts generated by technology. At the same time LSP teachers needed to reflect on their teaching approaches and methods in order to make them online-friendly and still cater for the students' needs. That was precisely the reason our research was undertaken in the first place.

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Appendix 1. Pearson's correlational coefficient of the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning

Perception of the usefulness of the tool

	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T6	T7	T8	T9	T10	T11	T12	T13	T14	T15	T16
T1	1	.519**	.078	-.151	-.207*	-.089	-.056	.090	.081	.170	.054	.194	-.047	-.029	-.197	-.061
T2	.519**	1	.442**	-.080	.015	.125	.098	.259**	.228*	.230*	.197*	.201*	.041	.167	.188	.200*
T3	.078	.442**	1	.314**	.398**	.370**	.192	.221*	.117	-.058	.272**	.086	.145	.173	.476**	.498**
T4	-.151	-.080	.314**	1	.494**	.358**	.322**	.332**	.076	-.108	.184	.227*	.241*	.076	.337**	.282**
T5	-.207*	.015	.398**	.494**	1	.635**	.242*	.338**	.144	-.189	.474**	.047	.184	.161	.464**	.454**
T6	-.089	.125	.370**	.358**	.635**	1	.377**	.387**	.082	-.107	.422**	.089	.138	.147	.412**	.420**
T7	-.056	.098	.192	.322**	.242*	.377**	1	.610**	.199*	.146	.159	.326**	.091	.073	.482**	.477**
T8	.090	.259**	.221*	.332**	.338**	.387**	.610**	1	.315**	.152	.057	.222*	.081	.146	.400**	.384**
T9	.081	.228*	.117	.076	.144	.082	.199*	.315**	1	.461**	-.173	.461**	.035	.085	.254*	.256**
T10	.170	.230*	-.058	-.108	-.189	-.107	.146	.152	.461**	1	-.046	.210*	-.020	.104	-.066	-.063
T11	.054	.197*	.272**	.184	.474**	.422**	.159	.057	-.173	-.046	1	-.013	.007	.095	.172	.257**
T12	.194	.201*	.086	.227*	.047	.089	.326**	.222*	.461**	.210*	-.013	1	.014	-.124	.320**	.267**
T13	-.047	.041	.145	.241*	.184	.138	.091	.081	.035	-.020	.007	.014	1	.366**	.033	.088
T14	-.029	.167	.173	.076	.161	.147	.073	.146	.085	.104	.095	-.124	.366**	1	.246*	.246*
T15	97	98	100	97	95	99	97	98	99	99	100	94	97	98	100	99
T16	-.061	.200*	.498**	.282**	.454**	.420**	.477**	.384**	.256**	-.063	.257**	.267**	.088	.246*	.801**	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Appendix 2. t-test for the influence of the learning techniques on the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning

Statement	Audio-lingual method	Grammar translation method	CLIL approach	Task-based approach	Communicative approach	Cross-curricular approach	Language shower
T1	t = 1.550, sig = 0.533	**t = -2.239, sig = 0.024**	**t = -3.543, sig = 0.001**	t = -0.264, sig = 0.793	t = -0.411, sig = 0.682	**t = -1.986, sig = 0.050**	t = 0.342, sig = 0.733
T2	t = 0.795, sig = 0.429	t = -1.454, sig = 0.149	t = -0.671, sig = 0.504	t = -0.620, sig = 0.537	t = -1.306, sig = 0.194	t = 0.169, sig = 0.866	t = 0.418, sig = 0.677
T3	t = -1.355, sig = 0.178	**t = -2.994, sig = 0.003**	**t = 3.016, sig = 0.003**	t = 0.777, sig = 0.439	t = -0.285, sig = 0.776	**t = 2.975, sig = 0.004**	t = 0.238, sig = 0.812
T4	t = -0.613, sig = 0.541	t = -0.685, sig = 0.495	**t = 3.777, sig = 0.001**	t = -1.730, sig = 0.089	t = 1.719, sig = 0.089	**t = 2.426, sig = 0.017**	t = -1.299, sig = 0.197
T5	**t = -2.572, sig = 0.012**	**t = -3.193, sig = 0.002**	**t = 4.881, sig = 0.001**	**t = 2.792, sig = 0.007**	t = -0.850, sig = 0.398	**t = 4.478, sig = 0.001**	t = 0.028, sig = 0.978
T6	**t = -3.290, sig = 0.001**	t = -1.086, sig = 0.280	**t = 5.733, sig = 0.001**	t = 1.000, sig = 0.322	t = -1.733, sig = 0.086	**t = 4.669, sig = 0.001**	t = 0.853, sig = 0.395
T7	t = -1.336, sig = 0.185	t = 0.375, sig = 0.709	**t = 4.184, sig = 0.001**	t = 0.210, sig = 0.834	t = -0.708, sig = 0.480	t = 1.635, sig = 0.105	t = -0.042, sig = 0.967
T8	t = -0.917, sig = 0.361	t = 0.024, sig = 0.981	**t = 2.002, sig = 0.048**	t = -0.641, sig = 0.523	t = 0.083, sig = 0.934	t = 1.541, sig = 0.126	t = 0.520, sig = 0.604
T9	t = -0.549, sig = 0.584	t = 0.012, sig = 0.991	**t = 2.194, sig = 0.030**	t = -0.290, sig = 0.772	t = -1.007, sig = 0.316	t = 0.892, sig = 0.374	t = -1.521, sig = 0.131
T10	t = 0.167, sig = 0.868	t = 1.670, sig = 0.098	t = -0.709, sig = 0.480	t = -1.480, sig = 0.142	t = -1.204, sig = 0.231	t = -1.691, sig = 0.094	t = -0.512, sig = 0.610
T11	t = -0.967, sig = 0.336	**t = -2.978, sig = 0.004**	**t = 2.575, sig = 0.013**	t = 1.447, sig = 0.151	t = -0.639, sig = 0.524	t = 1.396, sig = 0.166	t = 0.761, sig = 0.448
T12	t = -1.296, sig = 0.198	t = 0.749, sig = 0.456	t = 1.968, sig = 0.052	t = -1.777, sig = 0.081	t = -0.270, sig = 0.788	t = 0.430, sig = 0.668	t = -0.116, sig = 0.908

Statement	Audio-lingual method	Grammar translation method	CLIL approach	Task-based approach	Communicative approach	Cross-curricular approach	Language shower
T13	t = 1.014, sig = 0.313	t = -0.039, sig = 0.969	t = 0.679, sig = 0.499	t = -1.376, sig = 0.172	t = -0.609, sig = 0.544	t = 1.680, sig = 0.096	t = -0.102, sig = 0.856
T14	t = 0.140, sig = 0.889	t = -1.689, sig = 0.094	**t = 2.242, sig = 0.028**	t = -0.981, sig = 0.329	t = -1.498, sig = 0.137	t = 1.605, sig = 0.112	t = 0.886, sig = 0.378
T15	**t = -2.627, sig = 0.010**	**t = -1.980, sig = 0.050**	**t = 6.718, sig = 0.001**	t = -0.146, sig = 0.885	t = -0.753, sig = 0.453	**t = 3.548, sig = 0.001**	t = 0.729, sig = 0.468
T16	**t = -3.370, sig = 0.001**	t = -1.814, sig = 0.073	**t = 6.424, sig = 0.001**	t = 0.819, sig = 0.414	**t = -2.222, sig = 0.028**	**t = 4.771, sig = 0.001**	t = 0.449, sig = 0.654

Appendix 3. t-test for the influence of the gender of respondents on the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning

Statement	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
LSP online teaching tools can be adapted to any particular form, regardless of the typology and number of students. LSP online teaching tools' users are provided with help in case they run into trouble.	M	8.22	1.988	0.744 (p = 0.458)
	F	7.97	1.463	
LSP online teaching tools enable users to access different communication channels (audio, video, text). LSP online teaching tools enable a flexible use of their functions (the possibility of multiple tasking, access to different functions based on diversification).	M	7.45	2.310	0.837 (p = 0.405)
	F	7.10	1.962	
In my opinion all users can make use of LSP online teaching tools. In my opinion LSP teaching tools are accessible to students with special needs.	M	7.04	2.249	-1.4 (p = 0.165)
	F	7.64	2.242	
Even when offline, LSP online teaching tools retain their functionality as well as content. LSP online teaching tools have the capability of integrating learners by using synchronous and asynchronous communication.	M	6.63	2.140	-0.982 (p = 0.328)
	F	7.05	2.284	
LSP online teaching tools are used by university professors to check upon their students' attendance. Most university professors seem familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	M	4.77	3.115	-1.482 (p = 0.142)
	F	5.63	2.767	
Most university professors seem to have basic knowledge of LSP online teaching tools. By using LSP online teaching tools university professors are able to actively control the learning process.	M	3.20	2.499	**-2.547 (p = 0.012)**
	F	4.53	2.945	
Online teaching of LSP has modifed my attitude towards my university professor. The choice of LSP online teaching methods and approaches has had a significant impact on my learning outcome.	M	5.19	2.233	-0.535 (p = 0.594)
	F	5.43	2.318	
I am familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	M	5.88	1.996	-0.149 (p = 0.882)
	F	5.93	1.862	

Statement	Gender	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
LSP online teaching tools can be adapted to any particular form, regardless of the typology and number of students. LSP online teaching tools' users are provided with help in case they run into trouble.	M	8.39	2.326	-1.673 (p = .,097)
	F	7.59	2.560	
LSP online teaching tools enable users to access different communication channels (audio, video, text). LSP online teaching tools enable a flexible use of their functions (the possibility of multiple tasking, access to different functions based on diversification).	M	7.72	2.223	0.94 (p = 0.349)
	F	7.34	1.924	
In my opinion all users can make use of LSP online teaching tools. In my opinion LSP teaching tools are accessible to students with special needs.	M	6.32	2.503	-0.615 (p = 0.540)
	F	6.61	2.414	
Even when offline, LSP online teaching tools retain their functionality as well as content. LSP online teaching tools have the capability of integrating learners by using synchronous and asynchronous communication.	M	8.48	1.849	**2.755 (p = 0.007)**
	F	7.36	2.172	
LSP online teaching tools are used by university professors to check upon their students' attendance. Most university professors seem familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	M	5.63	3.043	0.045 (p = 0.964)
	F	5.60	2.550	
Most university professors seem to have basic knowledge of LSP online teaching tools. By using LSP online teaching tools university professors are able to actively control the learning process.	M	5.36	2.848	-0.081 (p = 0.936)
	F	5.40	2.718	
Online teaching of LSP has modifed my attitude towards my university professor. The choice of LSP online teaching methods and approaches has had a significant impact on my learning outcome.	M	6.41	2.455	0.379 (p = 0.705)
	F	6.22	2.553	
I am familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	M	5.88	2.782	-1.082 (p = 0.282)

Appendix 4. t-test for the influence of the faculty of respondents on the perception of the usefulness of the tools used for digital learning

Statement	Faculty / University	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
LSP online teaching tools can be adapted to any particular form, regardless of the typology and number of students. LSP online teaching tools' users are provided with help in case they run into trouble.	Primorska	8.36	1.447	1.87 (p = 0.650)
	Maribor	7.72	1.951	
LSP online teaching tools enable users to access different communication channels (audio, video, text). LSP online teaching tools enable a flexible use of their functions (the possibility of multiple tasking, access to different functions based on diversification).	Primorska	6.92	2.149	-1.921 (p = 0.057)
	Maribor	7.70	2.031	
In my opinion all users can make use of LSP online teaching tools. In my opinion LSP teaching tools are accessible to students with special needs.	Primorska	6.68	2.231	**-3.9 (p = 0.001)**
	Maribor	8.28	1.964	
Even when offline, LSP online teaching tools retain their functionality as well as content. LSP online teaching tools have the capability of integrating learners by using synchronous and asynchronous communication.	Primorska	6.51	2.292	-1.85 (p = 0.067)
	Maribor	7.31	2.054	
LSP online teaching tools are used by university professors to check upon their students' attendance. Most university professors seem familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	Primorska	4.54	2.841	**-2.723 (p = 0.008)**
	Maribor	6.09	2.882	
Most university professors seem to have basic knowledge of LSP online teaching tools. By using LSP online teaching tools university professors are able to actively control the learning process.	Primorska	3.48	2.790	-1.877 (p = 0.063)
	Maribor	4.49	2.773	
Online teaching of LSP has modifed my attitude towards my university professor. The choice of LSP online teaching methods and approaches has had a significant impact on my learning outcome.	Primorska	4.88	1.858	**-2.212 (p = 0.030)**
	Maribor	5.89	2.627	
I am familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	Primorska	5.72	1.678	-1.162 (p = 0.248)
	Maribor	6.15	2.180	

Statement	Faculty / University	Mean	Std. Deviation	t
LSP online teaching tools can be adapted to any particular form, regardless of the typology and number of students. LSP online teaching tools' users are provided with help in case they run into trouble.	Primorska	7.55	2.690	**-2.081 (p = 0.040)**
	Maribor	8.50	2.063	
LSP online teaching tools enable users to access different communication channels (audio, video, text). LSP online teaching tools enable a flexible use of their functions (the possibility of multiple tasking, access to different functions based on diversification).	Primorska	7.44	1.939	-0.483 (p = 0.630)
	Maribor	7.63	2.245	
In my opinion all users can make use of LSP online teaching tools. In my opinion LSP teaching tools are accessible to students with special needs.	Primorska	6.39	2.279	-0.439 (p = 0.662)
	Maribor	6.60	2.676	
Even when offline, LSP online teaching tools retain their functionality as well as content. LSP online teaching tools have the capability of integrating learners by using synchronous and asynchronous communication.	Primorska	7.67	2.055	-0.985 (p = 0.327)
	Maribor	8.09	2.155	
LSP online teaching tools are used by university professors to check upon their students' attendance. Most university professors seem familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	Primorska	5.11	2.826	-2.094 (p = 0.039)
	Maribor	6.24	2.609	
Most university professors seem to have basic knowledge of LSP online teaching tools. By using LSP online teaching tools university professors are able to actively control the learning process.	Primorska	5.00	2.972	-1.713 (p = 0.090)
	Maribor	5.89	2.406	
Online teaching of LSP has modifed my attitude towards my university professor. The choice of LSP online teaching methods and approaches has had a significant impact on my learning outcome.	Primorska	5.63	2.277	**-3.24 (p = 0.020)**
	Maribor	7.18	2.518	
I am familiar with the use of LSP online teaching tools.	Primorska	5,66	2,265	**-2.353 (p = 0.021)**

JEZIK IN TURIZEM, LANGUAGE AND TOURISM, SPRACHE UND TOURISMUS

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Abstract In the monograph ten scientific chapters oriented towards language for tourism that span from language learning and teaching, to lexicography, minority languages, and selected linguistic concepts are presented. Among them is the analyses of the features of the Slovene LSP Dictionary of Tourism, the question of minority communities and their tourism websites, the collocation strength and contrastive analyses of adjective-noun collocations, the concept of movement in tertiary education, the analyses of Slovene –German translations of chosen online menus, the tourist web resources as part of the L2 classroom, the connection of linguistic landscapes with tourism, writing skills in English for Tourism, local language variants of personal names, and teaching and learning language for special purposes during the COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords:
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promotion,
LSP,
teaching,
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JEZIK IN TURIZEM, LANGUAGE AND TOURISM, SPRACHE UND TOURISMUS

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Povzetek V monografiji je predstavljenih deset znanstvenih poglavij, usmerjenih v turistični jezik, ki zajemajo od učenja in poučevanja jezika do leksikografije, manjšinskih jezikov in izbranih jezikovnih konceptov. Med njimi so predstavljene značilnosti slovenskega turističnega slovarja, vprašanje manjšinskih skupnosti in njihovih turističnih spletnih strani, moč kolokacij in kontrastivna analiza pridevniško-samostalniških kolokacij, pojem gibanja v terciarnem izobraževanju, analize slovensko-nemških prevodov izbranih spletnih menijev, turistični spletni viri v okviru učilnice tujega jezika, povezava jezikovnega raziskovanja s turizmom, pisne sposobnosti v angleščini za potrebe turizma, lokalne jezikovne različice osebnih imen ter poučevanje in učenje jezika za posebne namene med pandemijo COVID-19.

Ključne besede: turizem, promocija, jezik stroke, poučevanje, prevajanje, slovaropisje

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