

MULTILINGUAL LANDSCAPES THROUGH THE LENS OF TRANSLATION: THE INTERPLAY OF OFFICIAL BILINGUALISM AND TOURISM IN TWO CONSERVATION AREAS IN SLOVENIA

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ABSTRACT

The ubiquitous presence of cross-cultural contact and multilingualism in the globalised world is reflected in a wide range of linguistic landscapes, and linguistic barriers are typically bridged using translation, resulting in multilingual signage. The paper explores the role of translation and the interplay of monolingualism, bilingualism and multilingualism in Slovenia, in the linguistic landscape of two conservation areas, one located in an officially bilingual area and the other located in the non-bilingual settings of the capital city. Analysing signage from the perspective of language use and translation, variation in approaches to bridging cross-cultural gaps is investigated.

Keywords: cross-cultural contact, signage, bilingualism, multilingualism, linguistic landscape, translation studies

PAESAGGI MULTILINGUI ATTRAVERSO LALENTE DELLA TRADUZIONE: L'INTERAZIONE TRA BILINGUISMO UFFICIALE E TURISMO IN DUE AREE PROTETTE DELLA SLOVENIA

SINTESI

L'onnipresenza dei contatti interculturali e del multilinguismo nel mondo globalizzato è riscontrabile in una vasta gamma di paesaggi linguistici; le barriere linguistiche sono tipicamente superate con la traduzione, risultante nella presenza di segnali multilingui. L'articolo esplora il ruolo della traduzione e l'interazione tra monolinguisimo, bilinguismo e multilinguismo in Slovenia, specificamente nel paesaggio linguistico di due aree protette, di cui una si trova in una zona ufficialmente bilingue e l'altra è situata nel contesto non bilingue della capitale. Analizzando la segnaletica dalla prospettiva dell'uso della lingua e della traduzione, si studia la variazione negli approcci al superamento dei divari interculturali.

Parole chiave: contatto interculturale, segnaletica, bilinguismo, multilinguismo, paesaggio linguistico, studi sulla traduzione

INTRODUCTION

The pervasiveness of cross-cultural contact and multilingualism in the globalised world is reflected in the wide range of different types of linguistic landscapes. Within the framework of linguistic landscape studies, different aspects contributing towards multilingualism, including urbanization, immigration flows, official language policy and international tourism, business and politics, etc., have received considerable research attention (cf. Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015; Edelman, 2014; Moriarty, 2014; Vandenbroucke, 2015). Almost inevitably, cross-linguistic barriers are bridged using translation, resulting in multilingual signage, and creating translation spaces, in the sense of Cronin & Simon (2014).

The aim of this paper is to explore the role of translation and the interplay of monolingualism, bilingualism and multilingualism in Slovenia, in the linguistic landscape of two conservation areas recognized for their natural and cultural heritage value and associated with tourism. Specifically, we focus on the signage of *Sečovelje Salina Nature Park*, a nature park situated in the south-west of Slovenia, in an officially bilingual area, with Slovene and Italian as the official languages. To shed light on the specifics of the translation of signs a bilingual setting, the linguistic landscape of *Sečovelje Salina Nature Park* is contrasted with the *University of Ljubljana Botanical Garden*, a cultural, scientific and educational institution situated in the capital of Slovenia. Both locations are sites of natural heritage value, characterized by multilingualism inherent to tourism, but as only *Sečovelje Salina Nature Park* is situated in an officially bilingual area, it seems likely that the approaches to language use and translation differ considerably between the two settings. For the purposes of this study, signage in both settings was documented and analysed in terms of languages use, multilingual writing strategies and translation practices.

In particular, we aim to address the following research questions:

1. How is translation used to adapt the signage to a bilingual setting?
2. What are the characteristics of translation from Slovene into Italian in the linguistic landscape in the officially bilingual area?

The present study focuses on three languages, Slovene, Italian and English, each with a different cultural capital in the sense of Bourdieu (1986). Slovene is a language of approximately 2.4 million speakers (Bitenc & Kenda-Jež, 2015, 31), and a peripheral language in the sense of Heilbron (2000). Italian is a language with approximately 65 million

L1 speakers and 3.1 billion L2 speakers (Wikipedia, 2023) and is a semi-peripheral language (Heilbron, 2000). According to the Ethnologue (2023) webpage, English is a language with approximately 373 million L1 speakers and 1.08 billion L2 speakers, and is the hyper-central language in Heilbron's (2000) model; with its growing global dominance, it is currently the undisputed world lingua franca.

LINGUISTIC LANDSCAPE OF BILINGUAL COMMUNITIES

An important area where the potential of the field of linguistic landscape has long been recognized is bilingual communities, where particular attention has been given to public visibility of minority languages. The term minority language itself is characterized by complexity: as Marten et al. (2012, 5–6) point out, the term can be applied to different types of languages in different situations, with two fundamental types of distinctions. The first is the distinction between autochthonous or 'traditional' minority languages and migrant or 'new' minority languages, and the second distinction is between the so-called 'unique' minority languages (i.e., languages which exist only as minority languages) and 'local-only' minority languages, which are majority languages in another state. It is not surprising that an extensive body of linguistic landscape research has focused on unique autochthonous minority languages (cf. Amos (2017) for Occitan; Blackwood (2015) for France's regional languages; Cenoz & Gorter (2006) for Basque and Frisian; Coupland (2012) for Welsh; Salo (2012) for Sámi, to list just a few), since, as Gorter et al. (2019, 482–483) highlight such studies can enhance the understanding of minority language communities by providing "empirical data on the presence or absence of 'languages' in the public sphere" (Gorter et al., 2019, 482), as well as address issues such as language policies and power relations between languages. However, questions of power-relations, language policies, language-rights and linguistic vitality have also been addressed in studies focusing on local-only minority languages that are not endangered, have a stable status, and do not lack prestige (cf. Marten et al., 2012). In fact, a range of linguistic landscape studies have investigated different types of multilingual communities: see, for instance, Koskinen (2012) for the linguistic landscape of Hervanta, a suburb of Tampere, Leimgruber (2017) for the linguistic landscape of Montreal's St. Catherine Street, and Vandenbroucke (2015) for the linguistic landscape of Brussels.

A specific situation arises in bilingual communities where tourism plays an important role. Tourist settings in themselves are sites of intensive

language contact, in which different approaches to multilingualism are on display, as international languages interact with local majority and minority languages (cf. Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015, 599). Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau (2009, 386) underline the role of the English language in the linguistic landscape of tourist destinations, arguing that as a lingua franca, English “enjoys a privileged position when it comes to addressing a multilingual, heterogeneous readership”. The interplay of the international dimension of tourism and the national and/or local official policies of bilingualism inevitably affects the linguistic landscape of bilingual communities. Several studies have explored the impact of tourism on smaller or peripheral minority language use (cf. Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2009; Kelly-Holmes & Pietikäinen, 2016; Lonardi, 2022; Moriarty, 2014), identifying diverse issues such as minority language promotion, commodification and even endangerment as relevant in different contexts. It seems that in officially bilingual communities with bigger, local-only minority languages a different set of complexities arises with the impact of tourism.

The status of the Italian Language in Slovenia

The Italian language has the status of a minority language in Slovenia, with parts of the coastal area of the country being officially bilingual. In reference to Marten et al.’s (2012) typology of minority languages outlined above, Italian in Slovenia is an autochthonous minority language, but obviously also a ‘local-only’ minority language which is a majority language in another state. However, Italian is also a language with considerable cultural capital (in the sense of Bourdieu, 1986), with a strong historical influence and literary tradition, and is, according to the Eurostat (2022) webpage, currently one of the five most studied languages in the EU in terms of general education.

The coastal area of Slovenia is historically characterized by a mixed Slovene and Italian population; the Italian language and culture historically played an important role in the area. After the end of World War II, Italy and Yugoslavia (of which Slovenia was a part) officially recognized each other’s minority, and a number of bilateral agreements were signed to ensure that the rights of the official minorities are respected. However, while the implementation of such documents has been slower in Italy (cf. Tremul et al., 2015), the territory in which the Italian minority lives in Slovenia is fully committed to bilingualism. Italian is present not only in signage, at public events,

on the local TV and radio station etc., but also in schools.¹ The bilingual community of this area has been studied from a range of other perspectives, including 20th century history (cf. Orlić, 2015; Ruzicic-Kessler, 2018), hybridity (cf. Baskar, 2020), economy (Novak Lukanovič, 2011), contact linguistics and code switching (cf. Umer Kljun, 2015) and ethnic identity of the minorities (cf. Sedmak, 2009), as well as education, i.e., the teaching of Italian as a first or second language in the coastal area of Slovenia (cf. Sorgo et al., 2022; Zudič Antonič & Cerkvenik, 2019; Zorman, 2021; Cavaion, 2020).

Although so far no studies have focused on the linguistic landscape of the Slovene-Italian bilingual area, there has been research published on the linguistic landscape of neighbouring bilingual areas. These include a study on the linguistic landscape of Rijeka and Pula in Croatian Istria by Bocale (2021), who notes a greater presence of Italian in the signage in Pula, an officially bilingual area, as compared to Rijeka, although the dominant language, Croatian, is clearly prevalent. Tufi’s (2016) study focuses on the linguistic landscape of Trieste, located in a historically “strongly contested territory” with “multilingual and multicultural composition” (Tufi, 2016, 101). Tufi’s (2016) findings show striking differences between the signage in the city centre, where speakers of Italian constitute the majority of the population, and the signage of peripheral towns, where the Slovene language is present not only in top down signs, but also in commercial signage and other settings.

METHODOLOGY

The present study is part of a larger investigation of the role of translation in the linguistic landscapes in Slovenia, and the photographic material used in this analysis forms part of a larger set of linguistic landscape data. The photographic material used in the present study comprises photos of all types of public signage found in *Sečovelje Salina Nature Park* and the *University of Ljubljana Botanical Garden*. Both locations are conservation areas, public spaces and tourist sights, attracting international visitors, where multilingual signage use is expected. Comparisons of linguistic landscapes have been successfully used in various linguistic landscape studies (cf. Cenoz & Gorter, 2006; Edelman, 2014), and our study design allows us to gain insight into the general characteristics of the linguistic landscape of conservation areas in Slovenia as opposed to specific characteristics of officially bilingual conservation areas in Slovenia.

¹ Italian is taught as a second language in Slovene schools, but it is also the language of instruction in Italian minority schools, where Slovene is taught as a second language.

Sečovlje Salina Nature Park (Krajinski park Sečoveljske soline – Parco Naturale delle Saline di Sicciole) is a nature park, i.e., a type of conservation area, in southwestern Slovenia, on the Adriatic coast (KPSS, 2023). The park is a wildlife sanctuary with active salt-works, where traditional salt-making methods are used. The park is located in an officially bilingual zone, where both Slovene and Italian are official languages.

The *University of Ljubljana Botanical Garden* (Botanični vrt Univerze v Ljubljani) is one of the oldest educational institutions in Slovenia which has played an important historical role and is dedicated to conservation of endemic plant species (UBG, 2023). The institution is located in the capital of Slovenia, where Slovene is the only official language.

In terms of access, the two conservation areas share certain similarities: in *Sečovlje Salina Nature Park* there is an entrance fee payable at the gate, although access for recreational purposes (e.g., jogging) is free of charge. In the *University of Ljubljana Botanical Garden*, an entrance fee is only required for the tropical glasshouse, while no entrance fee is paid for the park.

The collection of linguistic landscape data was conducted in between 15 January and 15 March of 2023 during a number of visits to both settings, *Sečovlje Salina Nature Park* (henceforth SNP) and the *University of Ljubljana Botanical Garden* (henceforth UBG). While the signage at both sites contained verbal signs, pictograms and signs with a combination of verbal and pictographic material, only verbal signs and verbal parts of combined signs were considered in the analysis presented here. Simple plant labels (detailing the plant name and biological Latinized name with details of its genus), and price tags were excluded from the analysis. Damaged signs where the inscription was rendered partly or completely illegible (e.g., signs corroded by atmospheric conditions) were also excluded from the analysis, as were transitory texts. Multiple copies of the same sign were not counted separately. Thus, a total of 244 signs (120 in SNP and 124 in UBG) were analysed in the present study.

Backhaus's (2006, 55) broad definition of the sign as "any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame" was used in the present study, taking into account the fact that this can cover very diverse items, ranging from "handwritten stickers to huge commercial billboards" (Backhaus, 2006, 55). The signs were photographed and stored in a database. A particular issue arose in the present study in terms of quantification in those signs, where the same content was displayed on separate signs in different languages. In those cases, such signs were counted as a single sign in the present study to allow a more accurate juxtaposition of monolingual, bilingual and multilingual signage.

The signs were coded in terms of type, function, language(s) displayed, text arrangement and, in the case of multilingual signs, type of multilingualism/translation used. The categories are briefly outlined below.

The signs were classified according to type into two categories, official and commercial. As Leimgruber (2017) points out, linguistic landscape studies rely on different methodologies, although some categories are commonly used in analysis. In developing the coding scheme, the specific character of the present study needed to be taken into account: both locations analysed are conservation areas and tourist sights rather than urban public spaces, which are commonly the focus of linguistic landscape research. In urban landscapes or cityscapes, authorship is an important category in sign classification; see, for instance, Backhaus (2006, 53–54) for a discussion on the distinction between official signs, i.e., those authored by the authority, and nonofficial signs, i.e., those authored by private citizens. For the two locations used in the present study, SNP and UBG, determining the authorship of the signs is less informative, as even commercial signs are often authored by the institution. Therefore, a distinction between two types of signs, official and commercial, is more suitable for the purposes of the present study.

The categorization of sign function in the present study is based on Kelly-Holmes & Pietikäinen's (2016) study of the linguistic landscape of a museum of indigenous culture, Siida. In their analysis, Kelly-Holmes & Pietikäinen (2016, 29) identified three separate but overlapping functions of language: management of visitors, narrating the content and being on display as part of the content. In Kelly-Holmes & Pietikäinen's (2016) classification, visitor management signage facilitates access to the museum, as well as directs and manages the visitors; commercial signs are included in this category (cf. Kelly-Holmes & Pietikäinen, 2016, 32), while narration signage narrates and explains the content of the exhibitions. The third function of language covers signage displaying language as part of the exhibit; in those signs the Sámi language itself is present as artefact or the object of the exhibition (Kelly-Holmes & Pietikäinen, 2016, 33). In the present study, the signs were classified into two functional categories, visitor management and narration, as no signs with display function were identified.²

The signs were coded in terms of the languages displayed, the number of languages displayed and text arrangement, i.e., in this case, the order of languages. Multilingual signs were also coded using Reh's (2004) categorization of multilingual writing

² In both locations, there were a few signs with poetic function, but as their number was very small number, it did not seem relevant to introduce a separate category.

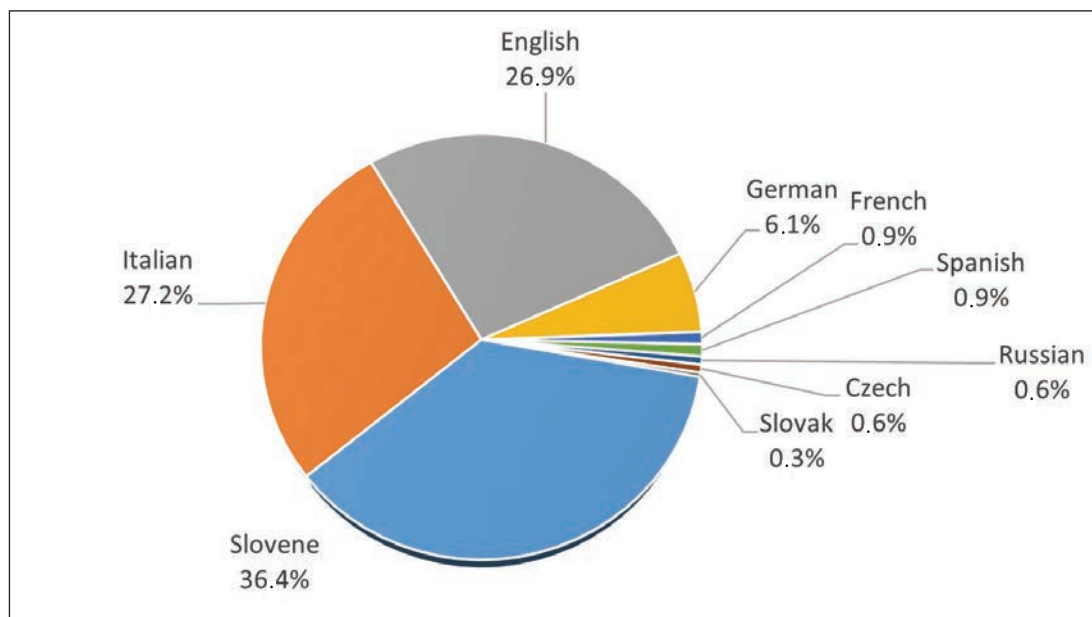


Chart 1: Shares of languages in SNP signs.

strategies. In her analysis of multilingual writing in Lira Municipality, Uganda, Reh (2004) introduces a typology that has been adopted in a number of subsequent studies (cf. Backhaus, 2006; Koskinen, 2012; Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2015; Amos, 2017, to list just a few). Reh (2004) identifies four ways of presenting multilingual information in stationary signage, duplicating, fragmentary, overlapping and complementary. The first three categories cover different types of translation.³ In duplicating multilingual writing the same content is presented in more than one language, in fragmentary multilingual writing full information is provided in one language but only parts are translated into another language or other languages, and in overlapping multilingual writing parts of the different language versions contain the same content, while other parts of the content are only given in one of the versions. Finally, as Koskinen (2012) points out, complementary multilingual writing entails code-switching and does not constitute translation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results are presented and discussed in terms of languages displayed, the impact of the status of the language and the relationship between multilingualism and sign category. The results for the SNP

are compared with those of UBG to gain insight into the specifics relating to a bilingual area.

Languages displayed

The first step of the analysis was the identification of the languages used in both sites. In the linguistic landscape of SNP, ten different languages were identified: Slovene, Italian, English, German, French, Spanish, Russian, Czech, Slovak and Latin (see Chart 1 for the shares of individual languages). Some of the signage also displayed a version of the text in Braille script. In UBG a total of six languages is found in the linguistic landscape: Slovene, English, German, French, Italian and Latin (see Chart 2 for the shares of individual languages).

While Latin words were used in signs at both locations, the function of Latin was clearly different from that of the other languages displayed. The function of signage in conservation areas is also to provide accurate terminology in terms of scientific names of species, which conventionally consist of two Latinized words. The terminological nature of Latin means that its function is very specific and not comparable to the use of other languages. Signs containing Latin words were therefore not considered multilingual because of the use of Latin.

³ Translation direction was not explicitly specified on most of the signs analyzed here. Yet, even in signs where details on translation are not explicitly mentioned (above all in commercial signs and/or visitor management signs), the order of languages, the type of translation strategy used and even the context in which the signs appear make it very obvious that Slovene was the source language for the vast majority of the signs, with a few notable exceptions. A comprehensive analysis of translation direction, however, is beyond the scope of the present study.

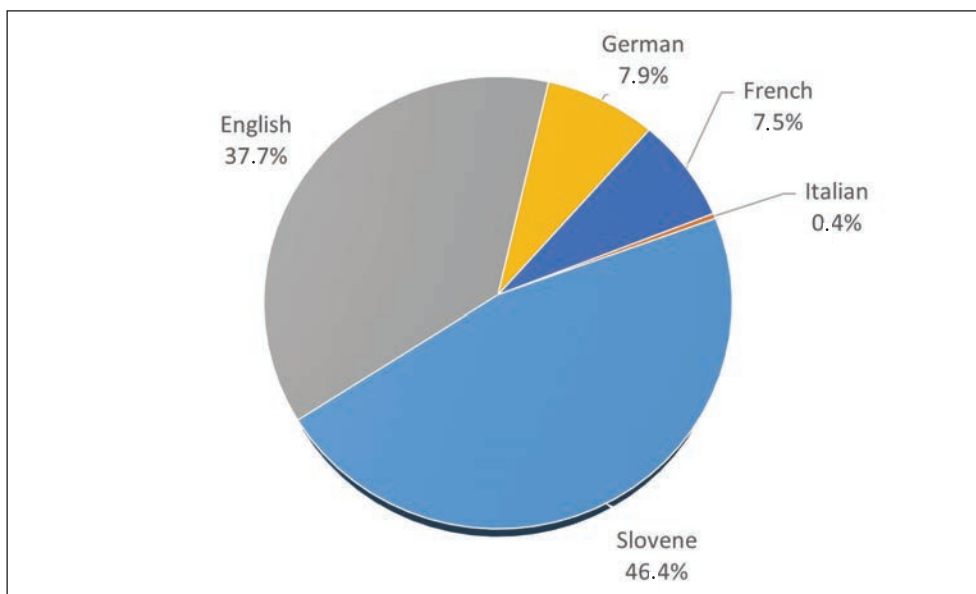


Chart 2: Shares of languages in UBG signs.

Number of languages displayed on signs

Table 1 classifies the signs according to the number of languages displayed on them, presenting the percentage of monolingual, bilingual and trilingual signs, as well as signs with more than three languages in the two locations.

Three languages, Slovene, Italian and English, prevail in the linguistic landscape of SNP. Monolingual signs constitute less than one fifth of all the signage; all but one monolingual signs displayed Slovene only, the only exception was a poster advertising an international convention in English only (the text on the sign is *Life thrives in wetlands. Wetland biodiversity matters, World Wetlands Day, 1 February 2020, Wetlands and biodiversity*, as well as some logos). Bilingual signs, which were relatively infrequent, displayed either Slovene and Italian (8 signs), or Slovene in English (7 signs). All the signs with more than two languages displayed Slovene and 72% of them were trilingual with Slovene, Italian and English. It is particularly noteworthy that all signs with more than three languages displayed Slovene, Italian and English in combination with other languages, most notably German.

Other language combinations were less frequent: 25% of the multilingual signs were Slovene, Italian, English and German, and in two instances respectively Slovene, Italian and English were accompanied by French or Spanish (merely for the names of sites in France and Spain). Two signs contained

numerous languages, one of them eight (Slovene, Italian, English, German, French, Spanish, Russian and Czech) and the other one nine (with Slovak as the ninth language; see Figure 1).

In comparison, the signage in UBG was far less diversified in terms of the number of languages, with a clear dominance of two languages, Slovene and English. All but one⁴ monolingual signs displayed Slovene only, all the bilingual signs displayed Slovene and English, and all the remaining signs also displayed Slovene and English in combination with other languages (German, Italian, French) (see Figure 2).

Order of languages

The order of languages in signage in both locations is not random, but follows a well-established pattern where Slovene is systematically displayed

Table 1: Percentage of monolingual, bilingual, trilingual and multilingual signs.

	SNP	UBG
Monolingual	18%	20%
Bilingual	14%	62%
Trilingual	49%	2%
More than three languages	19%	16%

4 The only exception was a sign containing the logo of a project, with only the English project title, "Life".

first. In SNP, the official status of Italian is consistently reflected in its position on the signs: Italian is virtually always found immediately after Slovene, with English in the third place, and any other languages following. The only exception where English precedes Italian (but follows Slovene) is a sign showing the water level in a canal. In UBG, English almost always follows Slovene. The few exceptions include three signs containing poetry, and a few instances where the Slovene and the English versions are displayed on separate signs.

The order of importance of the languages is sometimes also shown in the way the signs are typeset. In SNP, in the exhibition hall, narrative signs have a Slovene title at the top with larger, more prominent characters, while Italian and English titles are displayed below in smaller font size (Figure 3). The display of rest of the text is the same for all three languages.

The impact of the status of the language

The presence and prominence of Italian in SNP is most likely a direct consequence of official bilingualism and legislation regulating language use in the public space of officially bilingual areas. However, as SNP is also a tourist sight, the impact of tourism on multilingual display should be taken into account as well.

The proximity of Italy to SNP suggests that Italian-speaking tourists would be an important group of international visitors to the nature park, and, in fact, the official data of the Slovene Tourist Board (2023) for 2022 offers strong support for this assumption. Italians are the second most numerous group of international tourists in the municipality of Piran within which SNP is located. However, Italians are also the second most numerous group of international tourists in Slovenia in general, and the third largest group of international visitors in the capital city of Ljubljana in particular, yet it is noteworthy that only a single sign, i.e., a trilingual poster advertising a bilateral Italian-Slovene apicultural project, displays Italian text (in addition to Slovene and English) in UBG. Furthermore, Slovene Tourist Board data shows that in all three categories, the municipality of Piran, the municipality of Ljubljana and Slovenia in general, tourists from German-speaking countries constitute the most numerous group of international tourists, yet the presence of German in both linguistic landscapes is quite limited.

The prominence of English in the linguistic landscapes of both SNP and UBG may seem to be derived entirely from its status as a global lingua franca and its consequent widespread use (cf. Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2009), but the situation is in fact, more complex. In addition to the global



Figure 1: A multilingual sign in SNP.

dominance of English which obviously plays a role in its ubiquitous presence in the signage of both SNP and UBG, it should be noted that the presence of tourists from English-speaking countries should also be considered. Slovene Tourist Board data for 2022 shows that tourists from countries where English is the first language of the majority of the population, such as the UK or the USA, constitute an important group of visitors in Slovenia as well. There is, however, a pronounced difference between the areas where SNP and UBG are situated: tourists from English-speaking countries constitute the sixth largest group of international visitors in

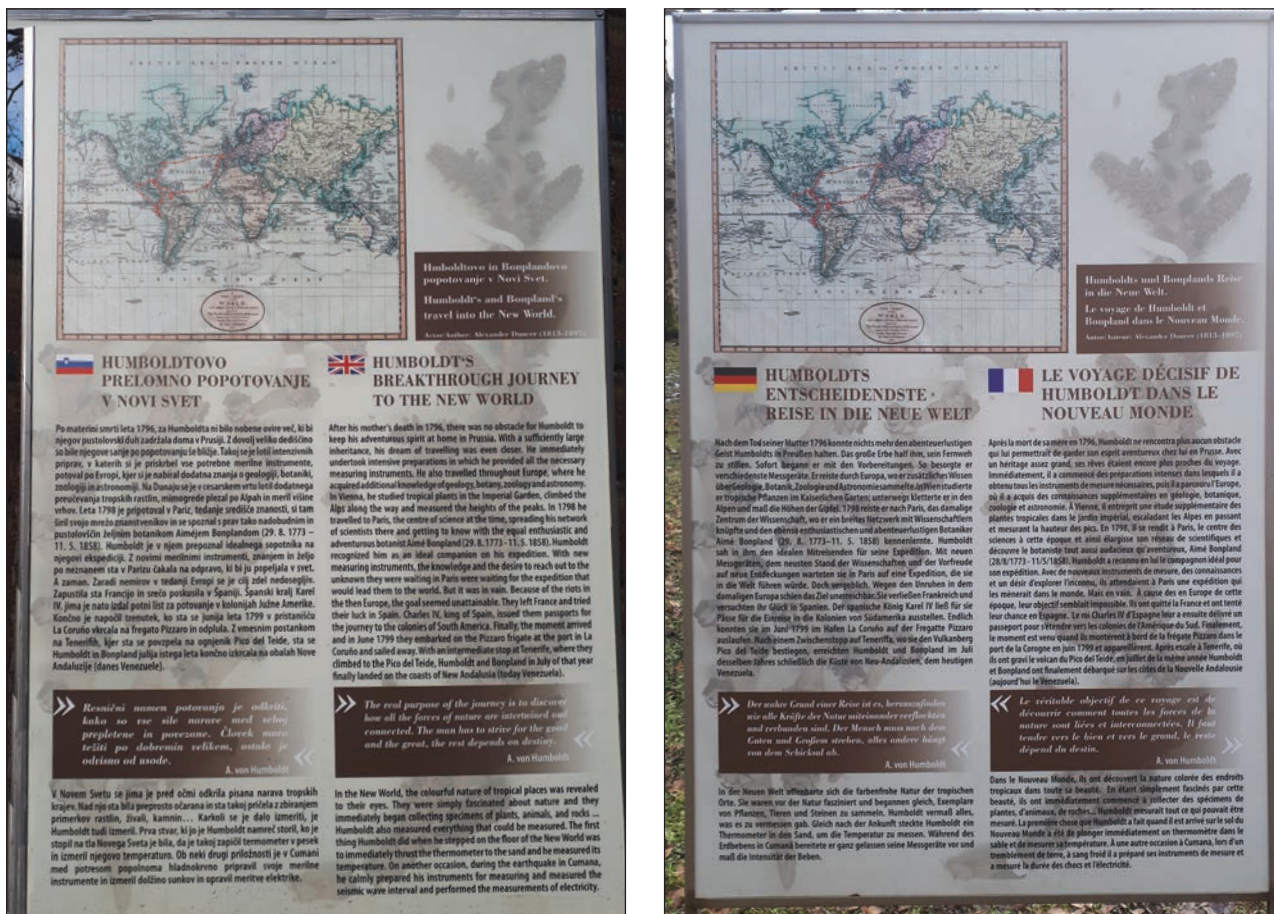


Figure 2: A double-sided sign in UBG with Slovene, English, German and French text.

the municipality of Piran, but they are the second largest group in the municipality of Ljubljana (more numerous than Italian tourists).

Two additional aspects may also play a significant role in the linguistic landscape of SNP and UBG. First, SNP is located in a wider bilingual context and any Italian visitors to the area will have encountered bilingual signage with Italian. Italian tourists visiting the coastal region, including SNP, may therefore have expectations of access to information in Italian. Italian tourists visiting Ljubljana have no such expectations when visiting UBG, as Italian is rarely used in public signage in the capital city.

Second, both SNP and UBG are visited by tourists as well as locals, but access to most of UBG is free of charge, whereas an entrance fee is charged at the gate of SNP, unless the nature of the visit is recreational. Furthermore, UBG is located in the city centre, in close proximity to several schools and residential areas, whereas the location of SNP is somewhat more peripheral and less urban. This means that locals are probably more frequent visitors in UBG than in SNP. As a consequence, some of the signs regulating visitor behaviour are specifically intended for the local community, and tend to be more pragmatic in

nature (see next section). Visits to SNP are more deliberate, since an entrance fee needs to be paid. Even when most local visitors decide to enter the park, they come for the same reasons as tourists.

Multilingualism and sign category

In both locations, all multilingual signs contained translations, as there were no instances of complementary multilingual writing in the sense of Reh's (2004) classification of translations (cf. Koskinen (2012) for comparable findings). With the exception of a few signs, Reh's (2004) duplicating translation strategy was used to consistently display the same content in both languages.

SNP

The officially bilingual status of the areas is reflected at all levels of signage, from the topmost, even symbolic, officially bilingual name of the institution, *Krajinski park Sečoveljske soline – Parco Naturale delle Saline di Siculo*, to the most trivial marginal management signs.

Most official signs in SNP are either bilingual (Slo-

vene and Italian), or, much more frequently, trilingual (Slovene, Italian and English). Monolingual and multilingual (more than three languages) official signs are less frequent. Monolingual official signs include both visitor management signs (for instance, a poster with information on avian influenza) and narration signs (for instance, some of the exhibit labels in the visitor's centre). Official signs with more than three languages are less frequent, although all such signs are official signs. They include both visitor management and narration signs (see Figures 4 and 5).

Official Slovene-Italian bilingualism is present in official visitor management signs containing legal information such as a passage from legislation regulating alcohol consumption displayed in the gift shop next to the wine bottles showcased in wooden boxes, or an official sign with Covid19 regulations. Both of these signs display recycled, pre-existing Slovene text and its Italian translation created in another context, and subsequently displayed in SNP to ensure that the official requirements are met. Such signs are posted in different types of public spaces across the officially bilingual area, whenever applicable.

Trilingual signs with Slovene, Italian and English include both official visitor management signs (for instance, signposts) and narration signs (such as displays, panels, labels and similar), although there are also a few instances of bilingual Slovene and Italian official narration signs (for instance, labels next to 3-D models of the terrain of the park).

In a few official visitor management signs (see Figure 6), different translation approaches are used in the title and the body of the sign. While the body of the sign displays the same information in three or even four languages, the title is only displayed in Slovene and Italian. It seems possible that design issues, such as space constraint or a pre-existing bilingual template subsequently expanded to include additional languages, may have played a role in the final layout of the sign. It is, however, notable, when different approaches to translation and multilingualism are used in different parts of the sign, it is always the Italian language that is displayed along with Slovene, which probably reflects requirements for bilingual signage in the officially bilingual area.

The situation in SNP is quite distinct when it comes to commercial signs in the gift shop and at the café. Commercial signs are either monolingual (Slovene) or bilingual, but the majority of bilingual signs are Slovene and English, with only two signs containing Slovene and Italian. It thus seems that the commercial signs are intended above all for an international audience rather than the local Italian-speaking minority. The implementation of official bilingualism in commercial establishments, seems to be somewhat less rigorous than in institutional settings. On the other hand, Slovene and English commercial signs include a diverse range of signs, for instance, instructions on a coin elongation machine (penny-press) or the inscription on a bicycle frame. Of the two commercial

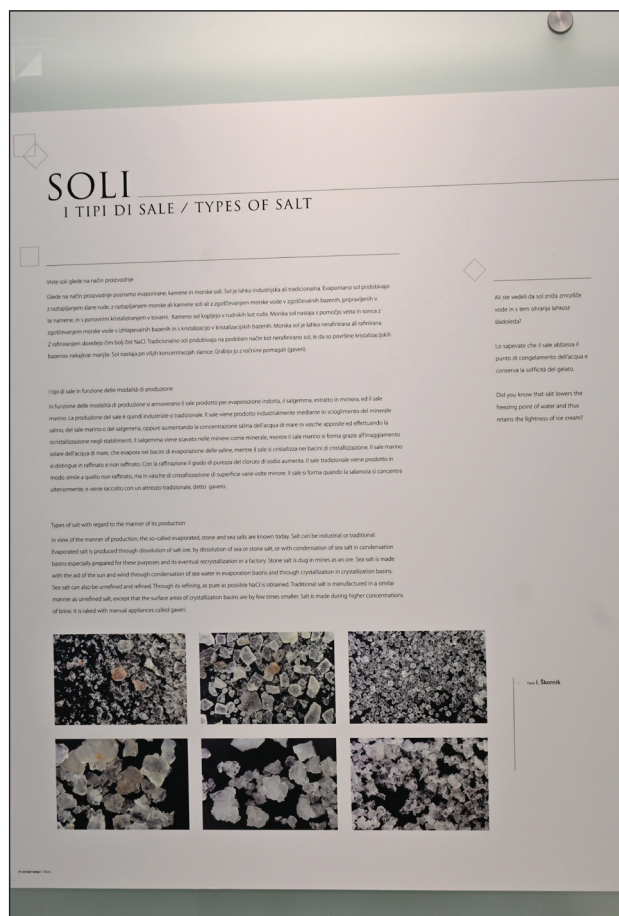


Figure 3: A narrative sign with text in three languages.

signs with an Italian translation, one is a rather detailed commercial description of the beneficial effects of brine water, while the other is text on a van belonging to a local rowing club with headquarters in SNP. While the latter clearly targets the local bilingual population, as it is highly unlikely that tourists would enrol in a local sports club, it is much less clear why the brine water description is translated (only) into Italian, as all other commercial signs in the same location are Slovene and English.

UBG

The vast majority of the signs, regardless of their type and function, in UBG are bilingual, displaying Slovene and English text. This includes most official signs, both those with visitor management function and those with narration function, as well as most commercial signs in the gift shop and the visitors' centre.

Monolingual Slovene signs are relatively infrequent, but also quite diverse. Official narration signs included a set of similar Slovene-only signs providing brief descriptions of seasonal flowering plants (for instance, the snow drop), which are probably stored away at



Figure 4: A visitor management sign with text in four languages.

the end of the season (Figure 7). While most official visitor management signs were bilingual, there were a few Slovene-only signs, for instance a sign prohibiting cycling along the garden footpaths. It seems possible that while effort was invested into regulating the visit of both Slovene and international visitors through bilingual signage, a difference between the type of behaviour that might be associated with more permanent

residence (signs regulating cycling which obviously entails access to a bicycle) and general behaviour (no littering) can be observed. Only a few commercial signs (for instance, a sign specifying that a plant is not for sale) were monolingual.

All signs but one with more than two languages were official signs with narration function, most of which were part of the same exhibition (see Figure 2).



Figure 5: A narration sign with text in four languages.

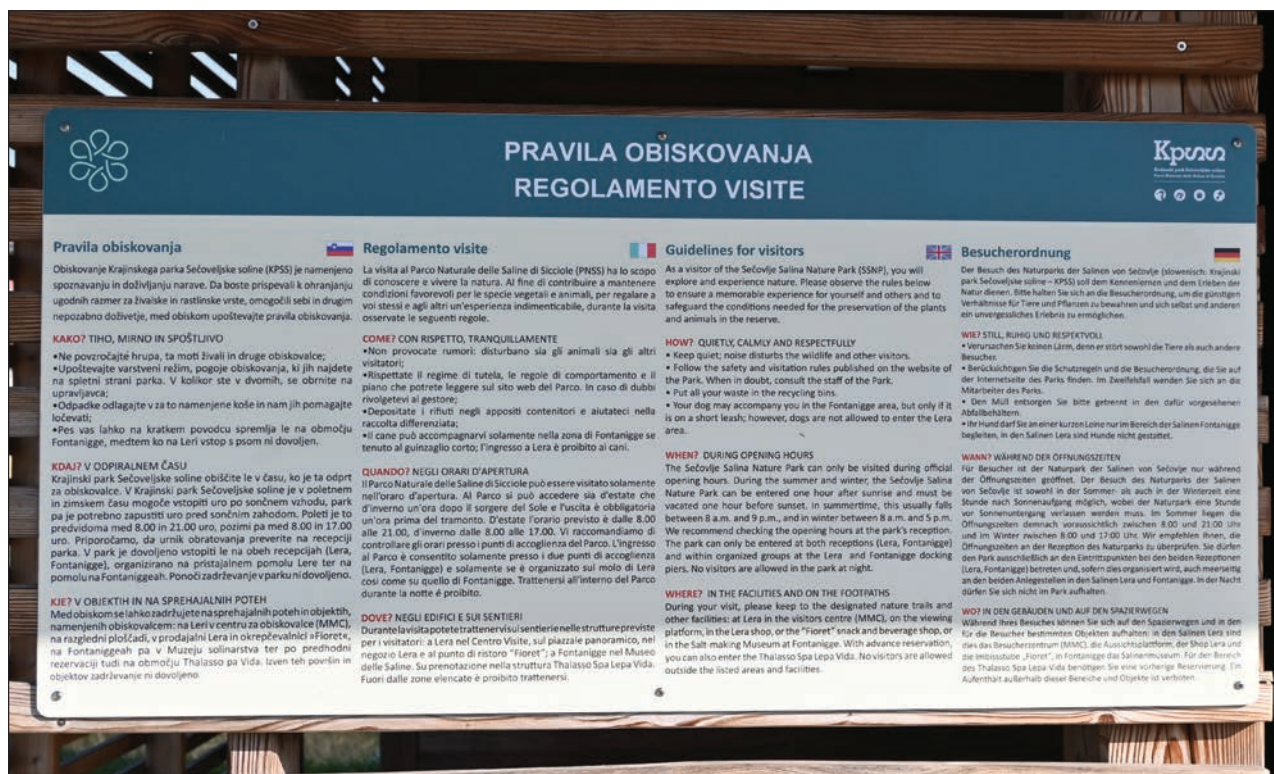


Figure 6: An official sign with text in Slovene, Italian, English and German.

The only multilingual commercial sign was a trilingual label in Slovene, English and German.

Translation strategies

While a systematic overview of translation strategies is beyond the scope of the present study, two issues arising in translation nevertheless need to be mentioned. The first is adaptation to space constraints. Although duplicating (i.e., translating the content in its entirety, see Reh (2004, 8–10 for a more detailed description) was by far the most common translation approach, fragmentary translation (cf. Reh, 2004, 10) was occasionally used. It seems, however, that this occurred mainly because of space constraints, as passages in any of the languages, including Slovene, were sometimes shortened and parts of the information were omitted or dealt with more briefly.

The second issue concerns shifts involving expressions of authorial identity in translation. Authorial identity is a complex issue as it involves a number of variables which may result in shifts in translation. These include systemic cross-linguistic variation, different rhetorical preferences, as well as translation-related phenomena, such as explicitation, interference, standardization, simplification, etc. The impact of these variables on authorial presence in translation has been explored in detail in our previous work (cf. Pahor, Smodiš & Pisanski Peterlin (2021) for an

investigation of overt authorial presence and the passive voice in Slovene, English and in Slovene-English translation, and Pisanski Peterlin & Mikolič Južnič (2018) for a detailed examination of subject pronoun use in Slovene, Italian and English and in translation into Slovene). Due to the limited number of shifts in authorial identity in the translated signage analysed here, a comprehensive analysis of this phenomenon is beyond the scope of the present study; nevertheless, it should be outlined as it may be of interest in potential future research.

In some of the Slovene text displayed on the signs, the first person plural is used to refer to the institution as the author of the sign or the people of Slovenia in the generic sense. It is not surprising that such first person plural expression of authorial identity referring to the institution or the local population, are often (although not always) replaced in translation by an explicit reference to Slovenia, the institution or some sort of an impersonal expression. Thus for instance, the Slovene expression *naš endemit* [our endemic species] changes into *Slovenian endemic species* in the English part of a sign from UBG.

The example below illustrates how both of these issues are reflected in different translation strategies used in the Italian and English translation of a narration sign in SNP. The Slovene text on the sign in question is provided below with the English gloss in square brackets:

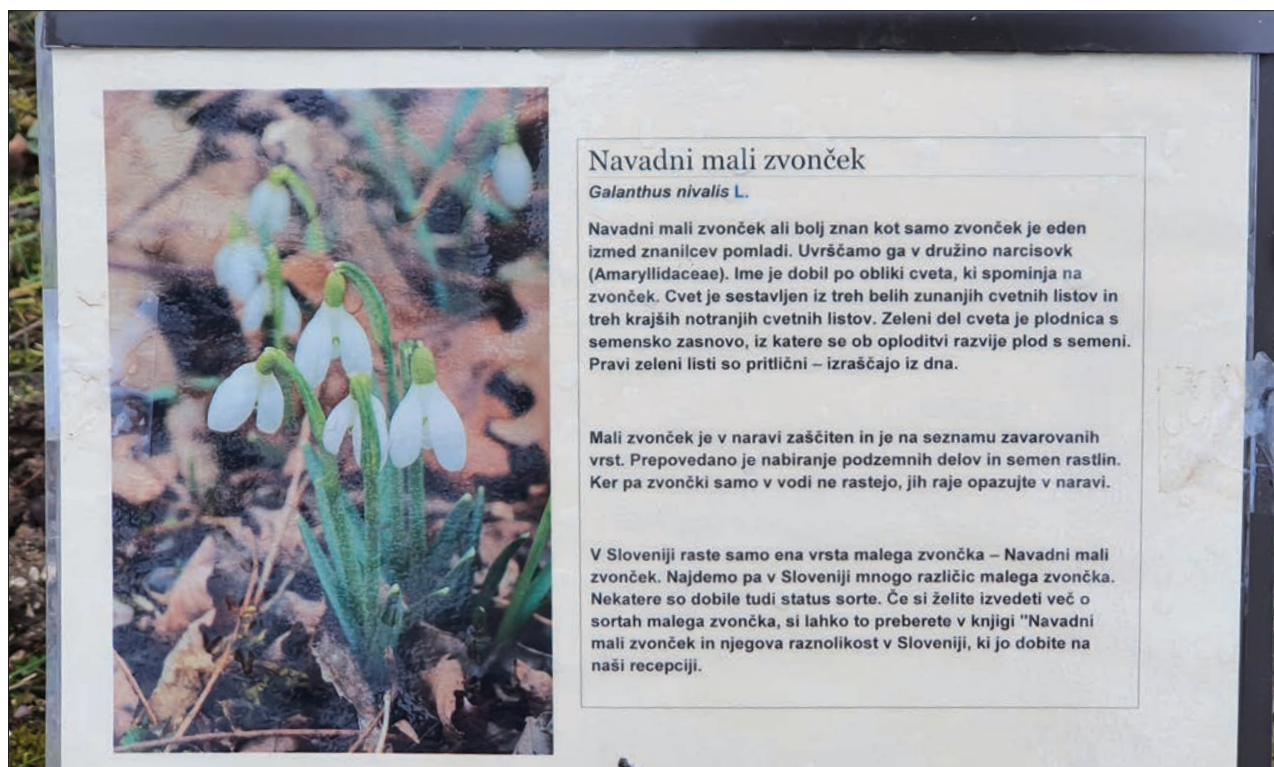


Figure 7: Slovene description of the snow drop.

SLOVENE: Nekdanje delavnice ob upravni stavbi KPSS na Leri **smo preuredili** v center za obiskovalce. V večjem prostoru je urejena dvorana za projekcijo filmov. Na voljo je 90 sedežev. Dvorana je primerna tudi za predavanja in predstavitve. **[We have converted** former workshops next to the administration building of KPSS into a visitors' centre. The larger hall houses a cinema. There are 90 seats available. The hall is also suitable for lectures and presentations.]

The first person plural in Slovene refers to the institution as the collective author of the text, giving it a personal note. In the Italian translation of the passage the duplicating approach is used, with all the parts of the information from the Slovene original expressed in translation. Moreover, the first person plural is retained in the Italian translation, possibly highlighting the bilingual character of the institution.

ITALIAN: **Stiamo ristrutturando** un caseggiato un tempo falegnameria e officina, che si trova presso la sede amministrativa del KPSS, per farne un centro per i visitatori. Un'ampia sala è stata predisposta per la proiezione di film. È dotata di 90 posti a sedere ed è adatta anche per le conferenze. **[We are renovating** a former carpentry and workshop building, which is located next to

the administrative headquarters of KPSS, to make a visitors' centre. A large hall has been prepared for the screening of films. It has 90 seats and is also suitable for conferences.]

In the English translation, a completely different approach is used. The English version is noticeably shorter, constituting an example of a fragmentary translation. Moreover, the first person plural conveying authorial identity has been omitted all together.

ENGLISH: A projection hall with 90 seats, also suitable for presentations and lectures, has been opened in one of the building's larger rooms.

While it is impossible to determine the reasons for such different translation approaches, it seems conceivable that they reflect the different purposes of the Italian and English versions: whereas the Italian translation caters primarily to the local Italian minority, the English translation is intended for an international audience.

If we take into consideration the points raised in this section, a range of different factors, including the official status of the languages at the two locations, the most frequent groups of international visitors and even the accessibility of the two locations, plays an important role in shaping the final version of the text displayed. It seems fairly clear that in SNP Italian is

used very consistently mainly due to the officially bilingual status of Italian in the area, but the fact that Italian translations also address Italian-speaking tourists strengthens its position in SNP signs. In comparison, Italian is almost completely absent from the signage in UBG, although Italian tourists are among the most frequent visitors to the city: with the exception of an international exhibition, where four languages are used in total, communication in UBG with foreign language speaking visitors relies almost exclusively on English (cf. Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2009). Finally, a preliminary analysis of the translation strategies used on the signs in SNP and UBG shows that the different status of the languages (Italian and English in particular) is reflected also on the type of strategy used and in the way authorial presence is dealt with.

CONCLUSION

The aim of the paper was to address the role of translation and multilingualism in the linguistic landscape of two conservation areas in Slovenia, focusing on the potential impact of official bilingualism. Comparing linguistic landscape data from two comparable locations, one in an officially bilingual area and the other in a non-bilingual area, allowed us to gain some insight into the impact of official bilingualism. Our findings confirm that official bilingualism does in fact play a prominent role in the linguistic landscape of SNP, with extensive use of Italian in official signage, while commercial signage at SNP is very similar to that in UBG, with Slovene and English displayed in bilingual signs. The signage of UBG, not located in an officially bilingual area, exhibits a strong dominance of Slovene and English.

The first research question guiding the study was how translation was used to adapt the signage to a bilingual setting. The initial observation that there were no instances of multilingual writing in the linguistic landscapes of both SNP and UBG means that translation was used in all the signs containing more than one language. However, two specific characteristics of translations into Italian can be observed in SNP. The first is that some of the official visitor management signs with legal information in Slovene and Italian recycle pre-existing texts and translations that are used wherever applicable in public spaces in the of-

ficially bilingual area. The second is that an orientation towards a local target audience of the Italian language minority can be found in some of the signs, most notably, on the ad for a local rowing club. However, in the case of most of the signs displaying Italian, it may be argued that they are intended for two audiences, the local Italian language minority and tourists from Italy, even though international tourists are generally most commonly addressed through English at both locations. In fact, with Italian being a local-only minority language, it may even be that its prominent presence is also linked to its prestige, as it facilitates access to information for an important group of tourists.

The second research question examined the characteristics of translation from Slovene into Italian in the linguistic landscape in the officially bilingual area. As a starting point, an overview of the signs reveals a strong reliance on duplicating translation strategy (Reh 2004), where the same content is displayed in different languages in both SNP and UBG linguistic landscapes. However, a set of official visitor management signs constitutes a notable exception, as the official status of Italian is highlighted through their design, where only Slovene and Italian appear in the title, while additional languages are displayed in the body of the sign.

In considering the findings two limitations of the present study need to be taken into account. The first is the limited size of the corpus: a small, carefully collected corpus of signage means that while the results are representative of the two settings studied here, they should be interpreted with some consideration and cannot be generalized. The second limitation concerns the fact that the signage found at both locations is specific to conservation areas which means that it is not always possible to draw direct parallels with previous research into the linguistic landscapes of urban areas, tourist destinations or bilingual communities.

Finally, the findings of the present study raise several interesting directions for future research. Further studies combining linguistic landscape data with research into the process of creating the signage would yield more specific information on the reasons for multilingualism and translation approaches used the signage. Similarly, surveys collecting the opinions of the visitors would help shed light on the reception of the signage displayed.

VEČJEZIČNA KRAJINA SKOZI PERSPEKTIVO PREVODA: SOVPLIVANJE URADNE DVOJEZIČNOSTI IN TURIZMA NA DVEH ZAVAROVANIH OBMOČJIH V SLOVENIJI

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POVZETEK

Medkulturni stiki s seboj prinašajo večjezičnost, in ta je dandanes, v času izrazite globalizacije, prisotna v vseh vrstah jezikovnih krajin. Študije jezikovnih krajin zelo različnih delov sveta kažejo, da se stik med jeziki udejanja zlasti s prevajanjem, na podlagi katerega nastanejo večjezični znaki. V prispevku je razčlenjeno prepletanje enojezičnosti, dvojezičnosti in večjezičnosti v slovenskem prostoru, in sicer v jezikovni krajini dveh zavarovanih območij, od katerih se eno, *Krajinski park Sečoveljske soline – Parco Naturale delle Saline di Siccirole*, nahaja na uradnem slovensko-italijansko dvojezičnem ozemlju, drugo, *Botanični vrt Univerze v Ljubljani*, pa ne. Obe zavarovani območji sta prostora stika več kultur, saj ju obiskujejo tako domači kot tuji turisti. Zavarovano območje predstavlja specifično jezikovno krajino, v kateri se prepletajo različne funkcije, od varstva narave in ekosistemov, do ohranjanja kulturne dediščine, izobraževanja in turizma. Zasnova študije s primerjavo jezikovnih krajin dveh primerljivih lokacij, od katerih je ena uradno dvojezična, druga pa ne, daje vpogled v specifično uradno dvojezične jezikovne krajine. Analiza znakov obeh zavarovanih območij pokaže, kako in kdaj se na znakih odraža uradna dvojezičnost, kateri jeziki se pojavljajo na znakih in kako večjezični znaki nagovarjajo tujejezične turiste. Posebna pozornost je namenjena vprašanju prevodnih strategij, ki so uporabljene v prevodih besedila na znakih, pri čemer se osredotočava zlasti na vprašanje prevodov v italijanščino in jih primerjava z drugimi prevodi.

Ključne besede: medkulturni stik, znaki, dvojezičnost, večjezičnost, jezikovna krajina, prevodoslovje

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