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ACTIVE AND INCLUSIVE TEACHING OF LITERACY AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS FOR ENHANCED EMPLOYMENT AND SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC GROWTH

University of Maribor

Faculty of Tourism

Active and Inclusive Teaching of Literacy and Communication Skills for Enhanced Employment and Sustainable Economic Growth

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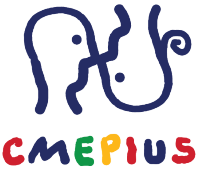

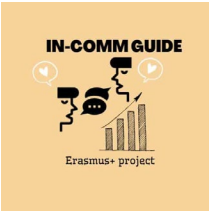

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"Nothing in life is more important than the ability to communicate effectively."

Gerald R. Ford
former United States president

"To effectively communicate, we must realize that we are all different in the way we perceive the world and use this understanding as a guide to our communication with others."

Tony Robbins
author, speaker, coach

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Foreword

Jasna Potočnik Topler
University of Maribor, Faculty of Tourism
Erasmus+ project coordinator

Communication skills are essential elements for business success. What is more, they are fundamental in our personal lives, in academic success and considered to be among the most important competences that employers seek in future professionals. We learn them through practice and experience – by doing. As Aristotle puts it: "For the things we have to learn before we can do them, we learn by doing them."

This monograph represents one of the results of the Erasmus+ project entitled ACTIVE AND INCLUSIVE TEACHING OF LITERACY AND COMMUNICATION SKILLS FOR ENHANCED EMPLOYMENT AND SUSTAINABLE ECONOMIC GROWTH (IN-COMM GUIDE, 2021-1-SI01-KA220-HED-000032006), funded by the European Union and monitored by the Slovenian national agency CMEPIUS – Centre of the Republic of Slovenia for Mobility and European Educational and Training Programmes. Partners of the project are University of Maribor (Slovenia) as the leading partner and coordinator, University of Applied Sciences Zwickau (Germany), University of Pula (Croatia) and University of Udine (Italy). The main goal of this Erasmus+ project was to develop

communication skills curricula for students so that they will become more successful in inclusion in the job market whilst raising awareness about the significance of non-verbal communication and sign languages. The focus was on the communicative approach to learning the English language as lingua franca, which includes non-verbal communication, rhetoric skills, reading, movement and travel writing. We looked especially at travel writing, which is an old method in literature studies, and an innovative method in business communication, tourism, branding and marketing. The 2020 spring, summer, autumn and winter experiences in online teaching have shown that many curricula need re-engineering, re-thinking with new goals, competencies, required knowledge, and methods; especially, since the main objective of higher education institutions is to maintain quality and teach students to analyze, evaluate and create, which are the most important categories of competencies according to Bloom. Thus, one of the possible ways of achieving that is to include more student-oriented methods, and give a more important role to problem-solving, project work, and active learning in curricula – also in intercultural communication, to include social, digital, language and writing skills, which are essential for future business professionals. In the project and in the monograph, attention is given to individuals with hearing impairments, to non-verbal communication and to raising awareness about sign languages and the existence of the Deaf communities. Besides inclusion, another important focus of the project and the monograph, is on students' health, healthy ways of living, movement while learning and taking responsibility for one's own health. Also modern businesses demand responsible employees who enable high quality services, well-communicated products and display professional 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. All these skills are essential for successful business practices and for identity development in EU citizens.

The authors of the monograph (in alphabetical order) Delia Airoldi, Iva Blažević, Clarisse Chicot, Francesco Costantini, Jelena Gugić, Susanne Klein, Mojca Kompara Lukančič, Mateja Kregar Gliha, Charlie Mansfield, Tadej Nered, Alejandro Oviedo, Vita Petek, Jasna Potočnik Topler, Philipp Wassler, Jane Webb and Sophie Wintrich, firmly believe that by creating state-of-the-art curricula, communication skills, which are significant in all areas of our lives - from personal development to progress in business and economic growth (many research support this statement), could be enhanced and consequently, contribute to a higher quality of teaching, learning and

assessment in Higher Education Institutions, improved inclusion of impaired students, and to more successful students, who will become more empathic and successful professionals, contributing to a better and more sustainable economy. The following pages explore and explain our work in 8 chapters entitled *Inclusion of Travel Writing, Movement and Sign Languages into University Curricula: Case Study of Slovenia*, *From Communicative Competence to Intercultural Communicative Competence: A Retrospect*, *Method Guide for the Inclusion of Travel Writing into Communication Skills Curricula*, *The Teaching of Gestural Communication as a Didactic Tool to Address Social Inclusion*, *Method Guide for the Inclusion of Movement into Communication Skills Curricula*, *Communication in Tourism: Tour(ist) guides, Storytelling and the DRAMMA model*, *Communication Competences of a Tourist Guide as Presented in the Films My Life In Ruins and Jungle Cruise* and a special Case Study chapter *Identity Journaling in Travel Research*. The monograph integrates work from a valuable range of authors, fields of study, perspectives, and methodologies and it had been written with the aim of becoming an instructive and useful book for teachers and experts in Higher Education Institutions. The notion that education is not confined to classrooms, but rather flourishes in the corridors of cross-cultural experiences and in celebrating diversity and inclusion, has been reaffirmed by the experiences and research, shared in the monograph. Erasmus projects have, time and again, reminded us that when knowledge is combined and shared, differences celebrated, and challenges embraced, we are propelled towards a brighter, more harmonious and more successful future.

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1 Inclusion of Travel Writing, Movement and Sign Languages into University Curricula: Case Study of Slovenia

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As part of Erasmus+ project: "*Active and inclusive teaching of literacy and communication skills for enhanced employment and sustainable economic growth (IN-COMM GUIDE)*", university curricula of Slovenian study programs were analyzed. For purpose of this paper, curricula at Slovenian public and private universities were analyzed. The research focused on the question of which innovative methods were used for teaching communication skills, and whether travel writing, movement, and sign languages are included. Analysis showed that there were no innovative methods included in the curricula. It was shown that among all the curricula, there is none that has as its subject travel writing. In three curricula in total, the subject of sign language was found and six analyzed curricula were related to movement. Being active was found in curricula of Faculties of Education. We can conclude that curricula on communication skills at Slovenian universities still have room for further development, innovation and improvement. This chapter of the monograph also includes interviews that were conducted with representatives from the Association of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Associations of Slovenia and Association of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing of Podravje, Maribor.

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1.1 Introduction

One of the activities of the Erasmus+ project "Active and inclusive teaching of literacy and communication skills for enhanced employment and sustainable economic growth (IN-COMM GUIDE)" was the analysis of Slovenian university curricula that deal with the development of communication skills. A content analysis of Slovenian study programs at all public and private universities in Slovenia was done in February 2022.

For the purposes of this analysis, the following keywords were used: "communication skills", "business English" and "movement". We were interested in which (if any) innovative methods are used for teaching, and whether travel writing, movement and sign languages are included. Curricula of Slovenian universities are publicly available online.

Firstly, what is curriculum? It can be defined as a plan for achieving learning goals, students' learning experiences, and includes subject matter or learning content (Ornstein & Hunkins, 2018). Li (2007) defines the curriculum as "expected learning outcomes" and as "an autobiography co-constructed by teachers and students."

Curriculum knowledge is knowledge of what should be taught to a particular group of pupils or students to guarantee an equal and comparable education to students attending different schools in a country. Curriculum includes benchmarks, learning goals, but also knowledge of the variation in instructional material available and knowledge of the reasons why you would or would not use particular material in certain circumstances (Ball et al., 2008; Shulman, 1986).

'The knowledge question' concerning what students need to know and learn in schools, is a question for educators everywhere. The question has gained new relevance due to global trends in contemporary curriculum-making, characterized by some scholars as a curriculum turn or a 'new curriculum'. Researchers have criticized the competency orientation for downgrading the role of knowledge in the curriculum (Priestley & Biesta, 2013; Priestley & Sinnema, 2014). Indeed, at the turn of the millennium, some scholars characterized the competency orientation as a curriculum problem (Moore & Young, 2001; Muller, 2000). Muller (2000) pointed to the unclear boundaries between every day and specialized knowledge in

competency-oriented curriculum, calling the competency orientation an anti-epistemological movement. Meanwhile, Wheelahan (2007) argued that the shift from a content-oriented to a competency-oriented curriculum in Australia's vocational education locked the working class out of powerful knowledge.

Modern concepts of educational curricula tend to combine two purposes. One purpose is on the process of individual cognitive development and the other on the process of socialization and how one adjusts to the attributes of society and social environments (McComas & Nouri, 2016). Most curriculum studies do not examine the curriculum ideology due to its invisibility. However, ideology plays a vital role in shaping curriculum at various levels (Yang & Li, 2018). According to Ornstein and Hunkins (2018), the major philosophies underlying educational reforms include idealism, realism, pragmatism, existentialism, and postmodernism.

When reviewing the analysis, several different examples and meanings of curricula were found. Where some countries (e.g., Austria, China, Portugal) specifically prescribe the core contents of the reading curriculum and sometimes even require schools to use textbooks that are explicitly approved by their government (Mullis et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2021), the Dutch government only prescribes attainment targets in the so-called core objectives of the Reference Framework for language and arithmetic. Therefore, educational publishers and schools can freely determine which reading strategies are taught and when (Garbe et al., 2016), and what pedagogical approach is used (Bruggink & Netten, 2017).

All in all, a gap arises between the intended curriculum (i.e., educational objectives) and the attained curriculum (i.e., students' achievements) (Valverde et al., 2002). To some extent, this might be related to the quality of teaching materials. Textbooks form a crucial stepping stone between the intended and attained curriculum, and play a major role in the chain of effective instruction (Penuel et al., 2014) when they are of good quality and chosen appropriately based on goals, age and other relevant criteria. They affect teachers' curriculum enactment and classroom practice (Ball & Cohen, 1996), also with respect to reading instruction (Aaron et al., 2008; Dewitz & Jones, 2013; Harwood, 2017).

1.2 Travel writing

Travel writing is a methodological practice that students, teachers, researchers and others can learn and apply in academic and in business settings. It is gaining popularity and importance among academics, communication experts and researchers (Mansfield & Potočnik Topler, 2023). Mansfield and Potočnik Topler (2023, ix) who extensively write on the subject propose that "the practice of literary travel writing is an inquiry process that can be applied by writer-researchers to spaces where value is being created". In tourism, for example, travel writing is "one of the tools for encouraging active participation, engagement and co-creation of tourism experiences" (Mansfield & Potočnik Topler, 2023, 4). As a genre, travel writing encompasses various texts – from brochures, blogs, travelogues, tour guides etc. Robinson (2004, 303) defined it as "writing about the experience of travel and visits to 'other' places". Furthermore, travel writing is a useful tool in teaching communication skills at the graduate and post-graduate levels. It can be employed in classes teaching English for Specific Purposes, creativity, social media, and digital skills.

1.3 Sign Languages

Despite the legal recognition of sign languages in many countries, many of their Deaf citizens still experience considerable marginalization and inequality through being denied access to sign language for communication (McKee & Manning, 2015) and education (Dotter, Krausneker, Jarmer, & Huber, 2019), and it continues to become less and less common for Deaf children to learn sign language (Snoddon & Underwood, 2017).

There are several ways to integrate sign language into the education curriculum. There are more than 270 signed languages today. They go from languages used in a single village (for example is Ban Khor Sign Language in north-eastern Thailand) to nationally recognized languages such as Brazilian Sign Language (also known as Libras, used in education and government, with 200,000 L1 signers). Signed languages often have both L1 signers (e.g., Deaf children who learned to sign as a first language) and fluent L2 signers (e.g., hearing parents of Deaf children who learned to sign as adults) (Nonaka 2004; Maypilama and Adone, 2013).

1.4 Movement and Healthy Lifestyle

Schools have repeatedly been proposed as environments to promote active, healthy lifestyles (Scheuer & Bailey, 2021). Given the evidence that many children and young people are inactive to the extent that they are compromising their well-being, both today and in future life and that a decline in physical activity (PA) occurs during schooling, this issue has great urgency (Aubert et al., 2018; Farooq et al., 2018). One response to this situation involves including movement within academic content to increase activity and stimulate better cognitive results at university.

1.5 Analysis

As part of the project, an analysis of curricula in Slovenian study programs that deal with the development of communication skills was prepared. A content analysis of Slovenian study programs at all public and private universities in Slovenia was employed in February 2022. Keywords that were used in analysis were: "communication skills", "business English" and "movement". In the analysis we searched also for innovative methods, travel writing, movement and sign languages in the curricula. Curricula were publicly available online (Slovenian legislation).

Interviews with representatives of the *Association of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Associations of Slovenia* and *Association of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing Podravje Maribor*, Mr. Milan Kotnik and Mrs. Aleksandra Rijavec were made. The interviews were made online using MS Teams tools in March 2023 on the topic of inclusion of Deaf and hard of hearing people in the study process at the university. It is important to record the opinion of those who are in daily contacts with and work with the Deaf and hard of hearing.

The goal of the analysis was to answer the following research question.

Research question 1: How innovative methods, travel writing, movement and sign languages are included in curricula?

Table 1: Analysis of the study programs

Faculty	Title of the study program	Communication skills	Innovative methods	Travel writing	Sign language	Active
Faculty of Social Sciences	Communicology - Marketing Communication and Public Relations	5	/	/	/	/
	Marketing communication and public relations	6	/	/	/	/
Faculty of Education	Classroom instruction	4	/	/	/	/
	Social pedagogy	2	/	/	/	/
	Two-subject teacher	2	/	/	/	/
	Special and rehabilitation pedagogy	13	/	/	yes	yes
	Speech therapy and deaf pedagogy	14	/	/	yes	yes
	Preschool education	8	/	/	yes	yes
	Inclusive pedagogy	3	/	/	/	/
	Special and rehabilitation pedagogy	2	/	/	/	/
Faculty of Arts	English studies	13	/	/	/	/
	Slavic studies	Mixed	/	/	/	/

Table 2: Analysis of the study programs of University of Maribor

Faculty	Title of the study program	Subject/s in correlation with communication skills	Innovative methods	Travel writing	Sign language	Active
Faculty of Tourism	Modern tourist practices	6	/	/	/	/
	Tourism: cooperation and development (UN)	5	/	/	/	/
	Tourist Destinations and Adventures (MAG)	3	/	/	/	/
Faculty of Logistics	University study program	1	/	/	/	/
Faculty of Arts	Different languages	mix	/	/	/	/

Table 3: Analysis of the study programs of University of Primorska

Faculty	Title of the study program	Subject/s in correlation with communication skills	Innovative methods	Travel writing	Sign languag e	Active
Turistica	Tourism (UN)	2	/	/	/	/
	Cultural tourism (UN)	1	/		/	/
	Tourist destination management (VS)	3	/	/	/	/
	Management of tourism companies (VS)	3	/	/	/	/
FHS – Faculty of Humanities	Communicat ion and media (un)	5	/	/	/	/

Faculty	Title of the study program	Subject/s in correlation with communication skills	Innovative methods	Travel writing	Sign language	Active
	Intercultural language mediation	5	/	/	/	/
FAMNIT	Biopsychology	1	/	/	/	/
Faculty of Health Sciences	Health care	2	/	/	/	/
Faculty of Education	Pedagogy	8	/	/	/	yes
	Preschool education	6	/	/	/	yes
	Classroom instruction	15	/	/	/	yes
	/Social pedagogy	3	/	/	/	/
	Second level study program Slovene Studies, Department of Literary Studies	2	/	/	/	/
	Second level study program Slovene Studies, Linguistics	6	/	/	/	/

Table 4: Analysis of the study programs of Other Slovenian Universities

University	Faculty	Title of the study program	Subject/s in correlation with communication skills	Innovative methods	Travel writing	Sign language	Active
University of Nova Gorica	Faculty of Environmental Sciences	First-cycle study program Environment	/	/	/		/
	Faculty of Business and Technology	Second-cycle study program Planning and conducting open education	4	/	/	/	/
	Faculty of Humanities	First-cycle study program Slovene Studies	5	/	/	/	/
	Faculty of Viticulture and Enology	Study program Viticulture and Enology I. level	2	/	/	/	/
	Faculty of Postgraduate Studies	Postgraduate study program Cognitive Sciences of Language (third cycle)	2	/	/	/	/
		Postgraduate study program Humanities (third level)	2	/	/	/	/
University of Novo mesto	Faculty of Business and Administrative Studies	Study program - 1st level	1	/	/	/	/
DOBA faculty		Applied psychology	1	Entirely online.	/	/	/

University	Faculty	Title of the study program	Subject/s in correlation with communication skills	Innovative methods	Travel writing	Sign language	Active
Faculty of Media - education of contemporary media creators	Faculty of Media (Ljubljana)	Master's study strategic communication	1	/	/	/	/
College B2		Business secretary	3	/	/	/	/

Table 1, 2, 3 and 4 show the analysis performed. The first column of the table shows University, second column Faculty, then Title of the study program and subject/s in correlation with communication skills. Later on, the table shows if any innovative teaching methods were detected, if travel writing, sign language or being active (movement) are included. At the last column there is a link to the web site of the program. The table only shows study programs where subjects related to communication skills are taught.

The analysis included eight (8) Slovenian public and private universities: University of Ljubljana, University of Maribor, University of Primorska, University of Nova Gorica, University of Novo mesto, the Faculty of Media, DOBA Faculty and College B2. Altogether, forty-two (42) study program were analyzed. The analysis showed that one program is entirely conducted online, that the study is dynamic and that modern technology is used in that program. Among all the curricula, there is none that includes travel writing. In three study programs, the subject of sign language was found. Subjects with sign language are taught at the Faculty of Education at the University of Ljubljana. Subjects/courses related to movement were found in six study programs. Being active is included in programs at the University of Ljubljana and the University of Maribor (in both cases at the faculties of education).

At the University of Ljubljana, subjects regarding communication skills are taught at the Faculty of Social Sciences, Faculty of Arts and Faculty of Education. At the University of Ljubljana many study programs, especially linguistic study programs, include various communication skills. At the University of Maribor, we found communication skills subjects in the Faculty of Tourism and Faculty of Logistics. At the Faculty of Arts of the University of Maribor subjects related to languages teach communication skills as well.

At the University of Primorska communication skills subjects were found at Turistica, Faculty of Humanities, FAMNIT, Faculty of Health Sciences and Faculty of Education. At University of Nova Gorica communication skills subjects are taught at the Faculty of Environmental Sciences, Faculty of Business and Technology, Faculty of Humanities, Faculty of Viticulture and Enology and Faculty of Postgraduate Studies. At the University of Novo Mesto at the Faculty of Business and Administrative Studies. At the Faculty of Media and DOBA faculty, one communication skills subject was found. At the College B2 the analysis detected communication skills teaching in one study program. Among the subjects appear: Foreign language - English or German, Rhetoric and Business communication. Analysis showed that the Faculty of Education has study programs such as Pedagogy and Preschool Education, which are very specific and subjects such as Literacy, Phonetics and Phonology, Linguistics were found.

It can be concluded that in Slovene universities, there are just a few subjects related to movement and sign language, there are no subjects on travel writing at all and no innovative teaching processes can be found (at least not documented in the curricula, but it is believed that often innovation happens in the classroom). Based on this analysis, authors see opportunities for improvements in the future. It needs to be noted that probably more courses related to communications skills, sign languages, movement and travel writing are taught at the universities and within the analyzed programs, but our keyword analysis did not detect them.

Still, based on the analysis, it can be concluded that sign language, movement (being active) and travel writing are important topics that should be more represented in the curricula of universities in Slovenia.

1.6 Inclusion

To reveal the practical aspect of communication inclusion, two representatives of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing societies were interviewed. The interlocutors of the interview were representatives from the Association of Deaf and Hard of Hearing Associations of Slovenia and from the Association of the Deaf and Hard of Hearing of Podravje, Maribor. They revealed that Deaf and hard-of-hearing people do not choose to study at university, only 1% of them are included in university education. They find that there are too many obstacles for studying. The two interviewees report that information from the field is that the faculties cannot provide what students with disabilities need, as universities do not have the resources required. Deaf students need an interpreter, subtitles in the classroom and/or additional help with learning and studying. They also sometimes need additional materials, additional e-classrooms where the lecture with subtitles can be found. An interpreter is needed by the student in all subjects, and one is absolutely necessary at tutorials. Interviewees also reported that study material is improperly written and difficult for someone who uses sign languages, for example. There are 22,000 words or gestures in the Slovenian sign language. The vocabulary of someone studying is significantly larger. 22,000 words is the vocabulary of a 12-year-old person, who is in 6th grade of a primary school. All these are the reasons why many students who enroll in colleges cannot complete the 1st year. The right to use an interpreter in all study segments should be mandatory in the study process, interviewees believe.

1.7 Conclusion

The analysis that included eight Slovenian public and private universities showed that in forty-two study programs only one program is entirely conducted online. There was no curriculum where travel writing would be included. In three study programs of the Faculty of Education of the University of Ljubljana, the subject of sign language was found. Courses related to movement were found in six study programs. There are just a few subjects related to movement and sign language at Slovene universities, but no subjects on travel writing at all. Based on this analysis, there are many opportunities for inclusion of the discussed topics in the future. The consequence of weak knowledge of communication skills and exclusion is that the excluded students' potentials remain unused on the one hand and on the other hand,

economic damage occurs, because companies and society are unable to capitalize on it.

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2 From Communicative Competence to Intercultural Communicative Competence: A Retrospect

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The notion of "Communicative Competence" has often been discussed in view of the challenges that intercultural interactions pose to the notion itself, especially as the notion was originally conceived by abstracting it from multicultural environments. From the 1990s a new idea challenged the notion, which was that any interaction is in some sense an encounter between different cultures and that interaction between speakers coming from different countries is only an extreme condition of this. Thus, the idea of "intercultural communicative competence" has been introduced to complement the idea of communicative competence. The discussion has led to define the concept of "intercultural speaker" as a reference point for a theory of communicative practices in multicultural environments as well as the notion of Intercultural Communicative Competence. The present article presents the debate that starts from the definition of "Communicative Competence" and has brought the field to today's models of "Intercultural Communicative Competence".

Keywords:
communication, intercultural communication, communicative competence, intercultural communicative competence, interactional sociolinguistics

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2.1 Introduction

In the field of studies on communication the notion of "Communicative Competence", originally proposed by Hymes (1972), has often been discussed in view of the challenges that intercultural interactions pose to the notion itself, which is based upon native speaker competence. Starting from the 1990s preeminent in the conceptualization of "communicative competence" was the idea that any interaction is in some sense an encounter between different cultures and that interaction between speakers coming from different countries is in some way only an extreme condition. Thus, the idea of "intercultural communicative competence" has been introduced in the discussion on defining communicative competence, whereby the notion of native speaker has been replaced with that of "intercultural speaker" as a reference point for theorizing of communicative practices (Byram & Zarate, 1994) and the notion of Intercultural Communicative Competence has been proposed (Byram, 1997). In the present article the main points of the debate will be discussed briefly, which starting from the 1960s' definition of "Language Competence" and "Communicative Competence" has brought the field to today's models of "Intercultural Communicative Competence".

2.2 Communication

The term "communication" stems from the Latin word communication, which ultimately derives from communis ('common, shared'); this has the same root as communio ('union, participation'). Communication therefore designates an act of sharing, in which two or more individuals share the same common condition; more precisely it refers to a process through which the participants share information.

The notion of "communication" can be meant in a broad or a narrow sense. In a broad sense communication means any process of transmission of information. In this sense everything can communicate something and is susceptible to being interpreted. In a narrow sense communication means instead a passage of information voluntarily produced by a "sender" in order to transmit information to a "recipient".

Based on the man-machine communication model C.E. Shannon and W. Weaver (Shannon, 1948; Shannon & Weaver, 1948) envisaged communication as a process involving five basic components (see Fig. 1): a source, a transmitter, a channel, a receiver, and a destination. The source of information – "sender" – is usually a person who decides which message to send and how to codify it, using a sequence of letters, sounds, gestures, images, etc. The transmitter translates the message into a signal. The channel is the way through which signals are transmitted, for instance sound waves (as in everyday verbal communication), printed textual material (as in a letter, newspaper), radio waves (as in radio transmission), electrical wires (as in communication through information technology), light, etc. The receiver translates the signal back into a message, which is then interpreted by the destination, the person for whom the message was intended.

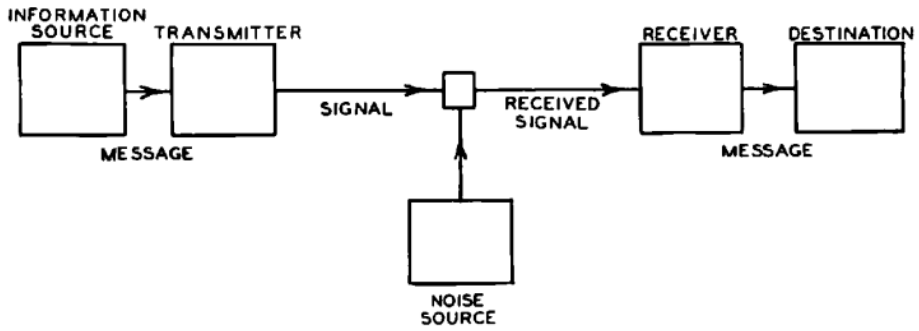

Figure 1: Communication system according to Shannon (1948: 381).
Source: Shannon (1948: 381)

A somewhat similar model is provided by Jakobson (1956 [1985]), who singles out six constitutive factors in verbal communication (see Fig. 2): the message, the addresser (the person who sends the message), the addressee (the person for whom the message is intended), the context or referent, the code, the set of conventional signs at least partially common to the addresser (the "encoder" of the message) and addressee (the "decoder" of the message), the contact, a physical channel between the addresser and the addressee.

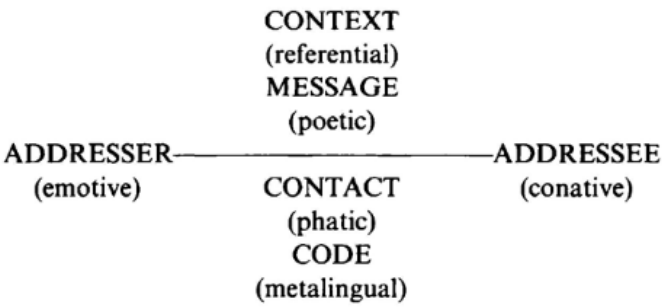

Figure 2: Jakobson's (1954 [1985]: 113) model of verbal communication.
Source:Jakobson's (1954 [1985]: 113)

According to these models, linguistic communication consists of a process of coding and decoding of messages. The success of communication depends exclusively on the shared knowledge of a linguistic code by addresser and addressee and on the presence of an unhindered connection between the two ("noise" is managed).

These models envisage communication as a unidirectional activity; the recipient of the communication is passive, as is testified by terms such as "destination", "addressee" and "receiver"; the context does not affect the communication process.

However, communication is not normally unidirectional: in everyday life most communicative activity is dialogical and it is certainly more pertinent and useful to refer to communication as a reciprocal exchange of information.

The word "dialogue" comes from the Greek, dialégein: dià- is a preposition meaning "through"; légein means "to speak", but also "to bind", "to gather". Dialogue presupposes a relationship effort that passes through acknowledging the other as an interlocutor whose contribution in a communicative activity cooperatively enriches knowledge. Communication as dialogical activity is then an exchange, not a one-way process, as well as a process both sender and receiver are active agents: communication as dialogue implies feedback and renegotiation of roles by the participants in the exchange.

Moreover, the models of communication described above fail to capture that context may affect communication. Imagine for instance that interlocutor A utters "I have no money" replying to a request by interlocutor B to join her for dinner at

a restaurant. The sentence does not express in itself a rejection of the invitation. The mere decoding of the conventional meaning of the statement "I have no money" does not allow interlocutor B to understand the message encoded by interlocutor A. Rather, it is necessary for B to integrate the decoding of the message with an inference, i.e. a reasoning having a starting point the decoding of the message expressed by A and by (trivial) non-linguistic information such as "you have to pay for a dinner in a restaurant", "without money it is not possible to have dinner in a restaurant", etc.

All in all, Shannon-Weaver and Jakobson models are appropriate for describing dynamics such as those that take place in simple communicative processes (for instance the ones established by the road traffic code), or in cases of instrumental communication in view of an objective. As for linguistic communication a model that allows us to account for what are clearly more complex processes is needed. This becomes even more apparent if we consider communicative practices in nowadays complex societies.

In this perspective, modern sociolinguistics studies the linguistic facts and phenomena that have social relevance and the variations in the use of language depending on the social and situational variables. Sociolinguistics considers communication as a way to reproduce, transmit and transform the social meanings around which a linguistic community recognizes itself. Communication is indicative of a social group as defined by the values, traditions, norms, and expectations shared by its members and of the relationships between the interlocutors as defined by hierarchies and social roles. Through communication practices a society and its culture, understood as a set of material and immaterial components that characterize the daily life of a social group, are constituted and redefined.

2.3 Communicative competence

The debate on the definition of an adequate model of verbal communication has gone hand in hand with the discussion about how communicative effectiveness can be defined. "Communicative competence" is a focal notion in this respect.

The concept was first discussed by Hymes (1972) in reaction to Chomsky's (1965) distinction between "competence" and "performance". The first term was intended as the implicit knowledge of language of "an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly" (Chomsky, 1965, 3). So conceived, the notion was opposed to "performance", which refers to the actual use of language. Scholars in the field of sociolinguistics, interactional sociolinguistics and ethnography of communication opposed the idea of "linguistic competence" as introduced by Chomsky, whose theory of competence "posits ideal objects in abstraction from sociocultural features that might enter into their description" (Hymes, 1972, 271). Such a step is legitimate, according to Hymes, but the complexity of language usage goes far beyond the postulate of an ideal speaker-listener in a perfectly monolingual community. In multilingual communities fluent speakers of different varieties "regard their languages, or functional varieties, as not identical in communicative adequacy" (Hymes, 1972, 274). This of course has nothing to do with Chomsky's idea of "competence", but still is a significant aspect of linguistic competence and holds true even for communities where an homogeneous code is used: "the competency of users of language entails abilities and judgments relative to, and interdependent with, sociocultural features" (Hymes, 1972, 277). Thus the fact that a theory of linguistic competence should be able to account for is that "a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate" (Hymes, 1972, 277). The acquisition of this competence, which is labelled "communicative competence" is sociocultural and is part of competence concerning other codes of communicative conduct.

In the 1970s and 1980s many sociolinguistics and scholars in the field of applied linguistics devoted themselves to further develop the concept of communicative competence.

Savignon (1972, 1983) described communicative competence as "the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more interlocutors" (Savignon, 1972, 8). Because of this, communicative competence corresponds in her opinion to language proficiency (for a similar take, see also Taylor, 1988).

Canale and Swain (1980, 1981) provided an outline of the basic ingredients for a theory of communicative competence, which in their view must include three systems of knowledge, namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Grammatical competence is defined in terms of Chomsky's competence, i.e. as a set of grammatical rules mapping expressions to meanings. Sociolinguistic competence includes the rules needed to determine the social meaning and adequacy of utterances, so that language is understood and used appropriately in different sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts ("sociocultural rules"); sociolinguistic competence also includes components such as rules for determining the cohesion and coherence of oral and written texts ("rules of discourse"), which in a later version of the model (Canale, 1983, 1984) are part of a fourth component named "discourse competence". Strategic competence consists of verbal and nonverbal strategies used to manage breakdowns in communication due to performance failures or to insufficient grammatical or sociolinguistic competence.

Table 1: Canale and Swain's Model of Communicative Competence (see also Whyte, 2019, 3).

Communicative Competence		
Grammatical Competence	**Sociolinguistic Competence**	**Strategic Competence**
Knowledge of - lexical items - rules of phonology morphology syntax sentence-grammar semantics	Use of - sociocultural rules - rules of discourse	- verbal and non-verbal - repair of breakdowns

Widdowson (1983) introduced the distinction between competence and capacity. Communicative competence is to be understood in terms of the knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistic conventions. Capacity (or procedural/communicative capacity) is instead conceived as the ability to use knowledge as a way to create meaning in a language, that is, the ability of implementing what Halliday (1978, 39; 1985, xiv) called the "meaning potential".

Van Ek (1986) also proposed a model of "communicative ability". In his model he particularly stressed the social and socio-cultural component of communicative competence. Communicative competence includes six components, which are to be

meant as different aspects of a comprehensive ability: Linguistic competence, i.e. "the ability to produce and interpret meaningful utterances which are formed in accordance with the rules of the language concerned and bear their conventional meaning ... that meaning which native speakers would normally attach to an utterance when used in isolation" (van Ek, 1986, 39); Sociolinguistic competence, involving "the awareness of ways in which the choice of language forms … is determined by such conditions as setting, relationship between communication partners, communicative intention, etc." (ibid., 41); Discourse competence, "The ability to use appropriate strategies in the construction and interpretation of texts" (ibid., 47); Strategic competence, involving the skill of "finding ways of 'getting our meaning across' or 'finding out what somebody means'"; it includes communication strategies such as rephrasing and asking for clarification (ibid., 55); sociocultural competence, which concerns the awareness that "every language is situated in a sociocultural context and implies the use of a particular reference frame which is partly different from that of the foreign language learner" (ibid., 35); finally, social competence, which includes "both the will and the skill to interact with others, involving motivation, attitude, self-confidence, empathy and the ability to handle social situations (ibid., 65).

In the 1990s more complex theories of communicative competence were introduced. Bachman (1990) introduce the model of communicative language ability, which was later revised in Bachman and Palmer (1996). Bachman and Palmer defined "language ability" as the integration of language competence ("language knowledge", Bachman and Palmer, 1996, 67) and strategic competence.

Language competence includes two main components, organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge.

Organizational knowledge consists of abilities needed to manage formal language structures, such as grammatical and textual principles and rules. Grammatical knowledge in its turn includes control over phonology, morphology, syntax, vocabulary, and orthography. Textual knowledge is responsible for comprehension and production of spoken or written texts and includes "knowledge of cohesion" and "knowledge of rhetorical or conversational organization".

Pragmatic knowledge is understood as the set of abilities for creating and interpreting discourse. It includes two components, "functional knowledge" (or "illocutionary knowledge", Bachmann, 1990) and of "sociolinguistic knowledge". The former consists of knowledge of pragmatic norms needed to express acceptable language functions and to interpret the illocutionary force of utterances, enabling a speaker to capture the communicative intentions; it includes four more functions: "ideational", "manipulative", "instrumental", and "imaginative". The latter amounts to knowledge of sociolinguistic norms needed to create appropriate expressions in a given social context.

In Bachman and Palmer's model (1996) language knowledge is complemented by strategic competence, which they define as "a set of metacognitive components, or strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function in language use" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, 70). Strategic competence consists of abilities needed to set one's communicative goal, to assess the desirability of goals and one's own language knowledge, and to plan communicative tasks.

2.4 Intercultural communication

Because of their own physiological characteristics, cultural influences, experiences and relationships that characterize their biography, any individual builds their own particular point of view on the world, which can never exactly correspond to that of someone else. People belonging to the same community normally share a cultural and experiential context, which facilitates mutual understanding, but at the same time there is inevitably a gap between different perspectives (Hannerz, 1992).

We can therefore say, with Singer (1987), that any communication is in a way intercultural, and that each of us functions interculturally whenever we communicate with someone else. Simmel (1908), at the beginning of the last century, recognized that any relationship is characterized by a mixture of closeness and distance, which then in a particular combination produce the relationship with the foreigner.

Modern societies, characterized by the presence of individuals having their background in different cultures, and global scenarios, where people from different cultures are in contact, do not actually introduce a totally new situation to

communication, but rather take to the extreme the question concerning interpersonal communication: the utterance of the other, whether from the same culture or a different one, always has a margin of opacity and always partially escapes our efforts of understanding.

Now, according to the first of Watzlawick, Beavin, Jackson's (1967) "metacommunication axiom", "one cannot, not communicate": even when one refuses to communicate verbally, their body occupies a portion of space and cannot avoid adopting a posture; postures, like any other behavior, necessarily communicate something. So even when one tries to maintain a neutral posture, avoids gesturing and controls facial expressions (all elements of non-verbal communication), they do communicate something: even immobility communicates something (Watzlawick's «postural silence»), for instance unavailability to engage with another, rejection of the situation, discomfort, extraneousness, etc.

The same axiom applies to intercultural communication, too. If communicating cannot been avoided, communicating as a process deeply influenced by a specific culture cannot be avoided. As Hall (1966, 1) puts it, "communication constitutes the core of culture and indeed of life itself". This tenet has a particularly relevant impact in the global world.

The visibility and widespread awareness of the relationship between cultures in today's world, the physical and mediated contiguity between cultures is such that the need of a theory of intercultural communication was raised as early as the 1980s and 1990s (see Kim and Gudykunst, 1988; Roger and Steinfatt, 1999; for a short outline of the emergence of the discipline, see Giaccardi, 2002).

As Giaccardi (2002, 11ff.) points out, intercultural communication can work on two levels. The first level is the exchange of messages in the contexts of daily life. Today opportunities for intercultural contact are increasingly numerous; thus developing tools in order to make the interaction as efficient as possible, avoiding misunderstandings, gaffes and diplomatic incidents is essential. In this respect a theory of intercultural communication should aim to define the existential components of intercultural competence and the abilities needed to effectively communicate in an intercultural setting. At this level a theory of intercultural communication concerns primarily an understanding of how communication

practices and techniques work in an intercultural scenario so that individuals involved in such situations are able to manage communication appropriately and efficiently, developing what has been called "intercultural communicative competence" (Byram, 1997). We will return to this point shortly.

However, intercultural communication cannot be reduced to this level, which is contingent to specific communicative contexts. There is a deeper level that must be taken into consideration, which concerns the cultural assumptions that shape practices, i.e. the frames of reference for communicative action. In this sense, studies in the field of intercultural communication are not only aimed at developing a set of tools and strategies to achieve communicative goals, but also at providing models of intercultural communication and, on the applicative side, tools to develop awareness of one's assumptions about oneself and to rethink the relationship between cultures and the very idea of culture – that is "intercultural competence".

2.5 Intercultural competence

Byram (1997) proposes five factors defining intercultural competence: knowledge of self and other ("savoir"), attitudes relativizing self and valuing the other ("savoir être"), skills concerning interpreting and relating ("savoir comprendre"), skills concerning discovery and/or interaction ("savoir apprendre/faire"), and political education ("savoir s'engager").

By "Knowledge" Byram (1997, 35) meant the set of notions individuals have and bring to an interaction with someone from a different culture concerning their own culture and the interlocutor's culture; moreover it includes "knowledge of the processes of interaction at individual and societal levels" (ibid.).

By "Attitudes" ("savoir être") Byram (1997, 34) meant "attitudes towards people who are perceived as different in respect of the cultural meanings, beliefs and behaviours they exhibit, which are implicit in their interaction with interlocutors from their own social groups or others". Curiosity, openness, readiness to suspend disbelief or judgment of others' meanings and beliefs as well as willingness to suspend belief in one's own meanings are the precondition for successful intercultural interaction.

By "Skills" concerning interpreting and relating ("savoir comprendre") Byram (1997, 37) means an individual's ability to interpret information created in a different cultural setting by resorting to "general frames of knowledge which will allow them to discover the allusions and connotations present in the document". This type of ability is to be distinguished from the skills of discovery and interaction ("savoir apprendre/faire") in that the former do not necessarily involve interaction with an interlocutor, as it may be limited to interpretation of written documents. "Savoir apprendre/faire", on the other hand, may be part of social interaction and "comes into play where the individual has no, or only a partial existing knowledge framework" Byram (1997, 37, 38). More specifically, this ability consists in "building up specific knowledge as well as an understanding of the beliefs, meanings and behaviours" Byram (1997, 38). This amounts to being able to "recognise significant phenomena in a foreign environment and to elicit their meanings and connotations" (ibid.), to manage dysfunctions arising in the course of interaction and to mediate cultural incidents.

Finally "Political Education" ("savoir s'engager") is understood in Byram (1997) as "the ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria perspectives, practices and products in one's own and other cultures and countries (Byram, 1997, 53).

More recent contributions have focused on input and output of the process of gaining intercultural competence and on a more precise definition of the skills involved in the process. Deardorff (2004, 2006 and subsequent works) proposed a dynamic model of intercultural competence (see Fig. 3). Dervin (2010) provides a more fine grained definition on Byram's "savoir faire" (separating the cultural identification process – "savoir faire I" – from attention to discourses and cultural representations within them, including the ability to detect stereotypes and prejudices – "savoir faire II") and introducing an additional component, "savoir réagir/agir", concerning one's ability to manage emotions and behaviors in situations of misunderstanding or disagreeing.

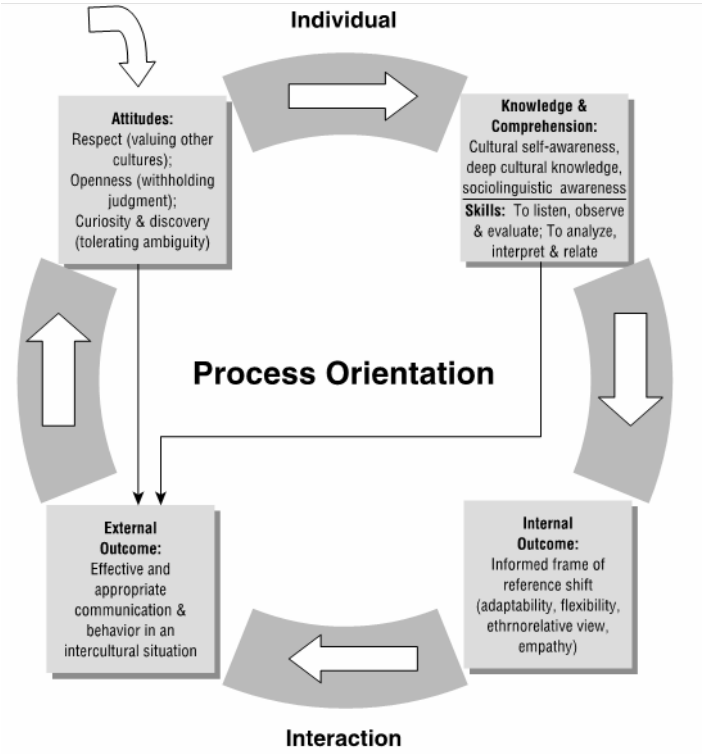

Figure 3: Deardorff's (2004, 2006) Model of Intercultural Competence.
Source: Deardorff

2.6 Intercultural Communicative Competence

If we now turn to the notion of communicative competence and consider it in the perspective of intercultural communication, we notice that essential features of the latter are not easily included in models of communicative competence. Because of this, since the 1990s Communicative competence has begun to be rethought in the perspective of the intercultural scenarios.

Byram (1997) is a seminal work in this respect, as it first highlighted the importance of the language component in defining intercultural communication, separated out intercultural competence from intercultural communicative competence, that is, the communicative competence owned by an intercultural speaker.

Although the model of intercultural competence includes features concerning communicative competence in that skills involving interaction are part of the overall picture, no specificities are made explicit as for the modes of interactions: one may achieve effective intercultural communication through an interpreter, for instance. However, an implicit assumption in framing intercultural communicative competence is that the dominant mode of interaction with individuals having a different culture will be through one's own use of foreign languages, especially in spoken exchange.

In defining Intercultural Communicative Competence, Byram (1997, 48) rephrased van Ek's (1986) dimensions of Communicative Competence in view of his model of intercultural communication and intercultural competence. Thus, while he accepted van Elk's components of social competence, social-cultural competence and strategic competence, he redefined linguistic competence as "the ability to apply knowledge of the rules of a standard version of the language to produce and interpret spoken and written language"; sociolinguistic competence is defined as "the ability to give to the language produced by an interlocutor whether native speaker or not meanings which are taken for granted by the interlocutor or which are negotiated and made explicit with the interlocutor"; discourse competence is understood as "the ability to use, discover and negotiate strategies for the production and interpretation of monologue or dialogue texts which follow the conventions of the culture of an interlocutor or are negotiated as intercultural texts for particular purposes". While retaining van Elk's structuring, these formulations include components of Byram's model of intercultural communication.

Moreover Byram (1997, 12f.) points out that another relevant dimension of intercultural communicative competence concerns the non-verbal component of communication, which was defined in Argyle (1983). Argyle points out that different cultures and the related communicative practices may vary with respect to non-verbal communication and because of this "when people from two different cultures meet, there is infinite scope for misunderstanding and confusion" (Argyle, 1983, 189).

It has to be noticed that this complex set of abilities were accommodated in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR, 2001), where "General competences" includes "Declarative knowledge" (Byram's "Savoir")

relating sociocultural knowledge and intercultural awareness as well as the other "Savoirs" (CEFR, 2001, 102ff.; see also Piccardo et al., 2011, 35, CEFR, 2020, 102).

2.7 Conclusions

As Jackson (2012: 1) points out, "Across the globe, migration, travel, business and international education are facilitating face-to-face intercultural contact", and "as we become increasingly interconnected, the demand for individuals who can communicate effectively and appropriately with people who have a different cultural/linguistic background becomes ever more pressing". Understanding how communication between individual having different cultural background works, and defining which factors it involves, what skills it requires, how to teach them and how to evaluate the teaching progress is of foremost importance in order to promote efficient communication in intercultural settings. In the present work, an attempt has been made to summarize the proposals that have been put forward in recent decades to answer these questions.

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3 METHOD GUIDE FOR THE INCLUSION OF TRAVEL WRITING INTO COMMUNICATION SKILLS CURRICULA

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In the following chapter we outline the preparation of a method guide for the inclusion of travel writing into communication skills curricula. In the introduction we present an overview of travel writing where we also discuss the basic concepts of communication skills. Furter, we expand the theory of readings and examples of good practice in relation to topics of travel writing and link it to the concept of green curricula for a sustainable future. The paper further presents an analysis of communication skills curricula in travel writing from several higher education institutions. The analysis functions as an example of good practice in the preparation of a common methodology for the inclusion of travel writing into communication skills curricula and the preparation of tasks for undergraduate and master level of education; these are also presented in the chapter.

Keywords:
method guide,
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3.1 Introduction

3.1.1 Introduction to travel writing

For centuries travel writing has been a popular genre (Thompson, 2011; Venkovits, 2010/2011) and has provided readers with a variety of stories from foreign lands, unknown traditions, and exotic places (Venkovits, 2010/2011). There have been numerous branches where travel writing has developed as a discipline, for example, anthropology, human geography and history. The academic study of travel writing as a practice is a more recent phenomenon. In the past decades, research has oriented towards the historic concept of travel writing (Phillips, 2016; Kilbride, 2011; Vanek, 2015) to country or religious related concepts (de Pont, 2012; Aziz, 2001) to gender oriented travel writing where we have a variety of works related to women (Kelly, 1993; Hall, 1993; Kelly, 1995; Klironomos, 2008). Travel writing is an escape from everyday reality and a way of becoming acquainted with foreign and faraway lands. For travellers, travel writing is an opportunity to share their own experience from a journey and compare it to the homeland (Venkovits, 2010/2011). As argued by Thomson (2011) every year new travelogues flow from printing presses and prominent travel writers, namely Michael Palin, Bill Bryson and Paul Theroux, regularly feature in the bestseller lists in Europe and America, we ask ourselves what do these texts tell us beside giving us more or less accurate and vivid descriptions, sometimes only raw data or excellent stories. As argued by Thomson (2011) publishers even reissue many old out-of-print travel books and as a result today's travelers can choose from a variety of exotic or adventure readings or simply opt for news related to the wider word or contemporary and historical books. Such readings recount journeys made for different purposes and the authors range from writers to pilgrims, conquistadors, explorers, and backpackers (Thomson, 2011). Venkovits (2010/2011) argues that travel texts provide new information on two levels, namely on one hand offering an insight into past walks of life not available elsewhere, or detailed descriptions of customs, traditions, historical and cultural events. On the other hand, such texts include not only what the traveller sees but also how the culture, the society, previous knowledge and preconception of the visited place shape the journey and the perceptions of the traveller.

3.1.2 Introduction to communication skills

After a simple search of the term 'communication skills' in Google scholar, we learn that the term appears in the first place among papers related to medicine, namely in relation to doctor-patient communication (Maguire & Pitceathly, 2002). A similar phenomenon is seen also when adding to the term 'verbal' or 'effective' 'communication skills' (Collins et al. 2011, Fallowfield & Jenkins, 1999). After adding to the term 'students' oral communication skills' the results start to be oriented towards linguistics and improvement strategies (Grace & Gilsdorf, 2004). Raba (2017) argues that speaking represents an essential part of everyone's life, and it is characterised as the second productive language skill and an essential means of communication. According to Raba (2017) we are talking of a channel where people interact, communicate, discuss and share their own thoughts. According to Chaney and Burk (1998) it is commonly known that students face problems in communications, here we mean speaking, in a foreign language, because a foreign language is often considered an obstacle that prevents them from expressing their thoughts properly. Dunbar, Brooks and Kubicka-Miller (2006) argue that for successful communication, students need more than just the formal ability of presenting well and a range of formulaic expressions that they use. Dunbar, Brooks and Kubicka-Miller (2006) argue that communication is a dynamic interactive process where effective transmission of facts, ideas, thoughts, feelings, and values is involved. When we talk about communication we talk about an active and conscious involvement in order to develop required information and understanding to effectively function in a group. Oral communication reflects the role of language and communication in society (Dunbar, Brooks & Kubicka-Miller, 2006). According to Halliday (1978) communication does not consist of only an exchange of words, but it is a sociological encounter where through an exchange of meanings in the process of communication we create, maintain and modify social reality (Halliday, 1978). In addition, mastering appropriate communication skills, namely speaking, needs a great effort and requires also a skilful integration of language aspects, including vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure and pronunciation (Raba, 2017). As argued by Raba (2017) the appropriate teaching of oral communication has not yet been met and the field still needs to be explored. In view of the significant role of speaking Bailey (2005) and Goh (2007) propose methods for enhancing speaking skills that are related to the design of syllabus, tasks, speaking assessment, class materials and teaching principles. Speaking confidence is accomplished through the selection of

appropriate tasks, teaching pedagogies and methods for enhancing speaking skills as argued by Bailey (2005). The authors talk about enhancing speaking skills by syllabus design, teaching principles, types of tasks and materials, and speaking assessment.

3.2 Additional theory and good practice in travel writing

As discussed by numerous authors – travel writing – influences decision making. It is also known that good travel writing does not leave readers untouched, travel writing is defined also as tales of experience and as such tends to be trusted by readers (Woodside & Megehee, 2010; De Ascaniis & Grecco-Morasso, 2011; Séraphin, Gowreensunkar & Ambave, 2016). As argued by Séraphin, Gowreensunkar, Ambave (2016) several factors may explain why people decide to go to or avoid a destination. According to Williams and Zelinsky (1970) those factors are: distance, absence of international connectivity between the generating destination and the receiving destination, factors of attractiveness, cost of the destination, stability and image of the destination in generating areas, culture of the receiving destination, information fed back to people in the generating country from tourists who have made previous visits to the destination country. In line with the last point travel writing plays a crucial role in people's decisions to visit a destination. In this perspective the information provided as feed back determines if an individual will visit a destination. Consequently, we could argue that language and travel writing play an important role in tourism. In this perspective *Special Interest Tourism* (SIT) is the first step to assessing the effectiveness of travel writings as marketing tools (Handayani, Seraphin & Korstanje, 2019). Séraphin (2014) argues that travel writings can be considered as a valid marketing tool but only for a specific type of destination, namely those with a positive image. Travel writing is quite limited and even non-existent for destinations coming out of conflicts and destinations with a negative image (Séraphin, 2014). Séraphin (2014) prepared a content analysis that refers to a systematic attempt to identify the frequency with which certain words or concepts occur within a text and provide evidence for interpretation (Hammond and Wellington, 2020). Three types of existing social networks were analysed: a book review site, a travel site and a blog. Among the possible tools for text analysis is TextSTAT (http://neon.niederlandistik.fu-berlin.de/en/textstat/). This is a simple programme for the analysis of texts that reads plain text files (in different encodings) and HTML files (directly from the internet) and it produces word frequency lists and concordances from these files. In line with (Mansfield, 2020) examples of good

practice on how to produce travel texts can be followed by students to compose clear, accurate, artistically coherent and technically sophisticated written work, which articulates a combination of research and creative ideas. The texts should respond to the affective power of language, using appropriate approaches, terminology and creative strategies. Language should be used in a sophisticated and nuanced fashion, with a heightened awareness of concision, voice, idiom, idiolect, simile, metaphor, analogy, rhythm and media-specific restraints. Reflective strategies to help capture and synthesize personal experiences and other research in an imaginative form should be used.

A well-developed aesthetic sensibility and sense of intellectual inquiry should be applied. Individuals should reflect critically on their own creative writing practice and conduct independent research including that which is practice based.

3.2.1 Green curricula for a sustainable future

The presence of IT technologies and software in our everyday lives and its sustainability and environmental impact have to be considered in the future preparation and development of curricula, especially for the new generations of university students who are keen to learn about and contribute to a more sustainable and green society (Torre et al., 2017). Torre et al. (2017) argue that sustainability is under-represented in curricula and among the reasons for that they mention lack of awareness and teaching materials. Xiong et al. (2013) argue that the inclusion of environmental protection and sustainable development into academic curricula is of crucial importance. In their study Xiong et al. (2013) analyzed the curricula of 267 out of 810 public universities and colleges in China. According to the results 19.47% of the sampled institutions failed in establishing a comprehensive environmental education framework. Xiong et al. (2013) point out that education curricula is "greener" in institutions based on agriculture and forestry, while institutions focusing on sports, art and linguistics are considered less successful in addressing environmental problems. Being aware of the concept of green tourism (Furqan et al., 2010) and the lack of green curricula in linguistics, as stated by Xiong et al. (2013), in our project we designed curricula activities where language acquisition is surrounded by the concept of green and sustainable. Our curricula and all planned activities, namely those where the usage of software is included, as well as activities planned in an out-of-classroom environment, are prepared with the awareness of a

green and sustainable teaching in order to move towards the creation of green universities (Geng et al., 2013). European Union encouraged the development of a European sustainability competence framework (Green Comp) as one of the policy actions set out in the European Green Deal (Bianchi et al., 2022). GreenComp identifies a set of 12 connected sustainability competences to feed into education programmes to help learners develop knowledge, skills and attitudes that promote ways to think, plan and act with empathy, responsibility, and care for our planet and for public health (Bianchi et al., 2022).

3.3 Analysis of existing curricula in the inclusion of travel writing into communication skills curricula

Within the guidelines for the inclusion of travel writing into communication skills curricula we prepared an analysis of the existing curricula available at foreign universities. In order to present the existing curricula in a worldwide frame we exposed the curricula found in some English speaking countries, namely the US, the UK, and Australia. In the following paragraph we present 4 examples of existing curricula, we provide a short description, goals and content.

The Massachusetts Institute of technology (MIT, 2022) offers a course in travel writing. Within the course the focus is on reflecting the point of view, narrative choices, style of individuals and also responding to the pressures of real world by taking into observation narrative texts and also maps, objects, archives, and facts of various kinds. Within the course the materials are organized around three regions, namely North America, Africa and the Atlantic world, the Arctic and Antarctic. The course is oriented towards historic reading that allows the students to know something not only about the experiences and writing strategies of individual travelers, but about the progressive integration of the named regions into global economic, political, and knowledge systems. The course requirements include informal writing and consists of the preparation of a text of 500-700 words that identifies and discusses an object that 1/ relates to the events or places described in one of our texts; 2/ changes our understanding by telling us something the text does not. Within the course group work presentation is required. Within the requirement students are divided into groups, each group is in charge of leading 2 days of discussion, namely they prepare a presentation on the readings and design activities and discussion questions that they think are appropriate.

The University of Adelaide (2022) offers a course in travel writing that is focused on practical introduction to travel writing through history and practice. Within the course students work on ways to begin and develop a sustained and reflective travel writing practice, including revision and editing. Through a workshop students work in order to develop the capacity to revise and self-edit. The course consists of a series of exercises designed to develop aspects of the travel writer's craft and a selection of connected readings from classical and contemporary travel writing in a range of genres, styles and techniques. As course assignment students write a final travel piece.

At the **University of Maine** there is a course in travel writing that is designed for visiting Exchange Students for whom English is not a first language. The course provides an opportunity for students to visit various Maine locations over the semester while also learning the art of travel writing. The class meets once a week for fifty minutes and the trips to Maine locations are offered every other week. Participants do initial research before each trip, followed by note-taking, journaling, and picture taking, and ultimately the writing of an article based on the experience. Within the course participants learn how to write compelling and marketable articles including observation, description, and the development of voice. Participants also develop an awareness of audience and a knowledge of common submission requirements.

At the **University of Cambridge** there is a course in travel writing that explores the definition, history and development of travel writing and examines the differences between travel journalism, travel literature, guidebook writing, blogging, etc. The aim of the course is to introduce participants to the skills required to produce short travel features as published in many newspapers and magazines. The course fosters participants' confidence, and encourages them to start writing travel features based on their own experiences. This course starts by examining the definition of travel writing and also travel journalism, travel literature, guidebook writing and blogging. The course explores the history of the genre. Within the course the participant are encouraged to practice and develop their own travel writing, at the end of the course they are equipped with the skills needed to write a typical short-form travel feature.

3.4 Preparation of common methodology for the preparation of curricula

In line with the analysis of the existing curricula in travel writing, e.g. MIT, University of Adelaide, University of Maine, and University of Cambridge, we focus on the interdisciplinary level of combining all segments of our project. Within the methodology we join the above-mentioned concepts. Within the preparation of materials, we focus on travel writing through history and practice where we work on the historical scope of experiences and writing strategies of individual travellers. We also follow the concept of progressive integration of the regions into global economic, political, and knowledge systems. We apply common revision, editing and the ethics of travel focusing on classical and contemporary travel writing in a range of genres, styles and techniques. We explore the differences between travel journalism, travel literature, guidebook writing and blogging to develop the learner's own travel writing style. Within the methodology we decided to prepare activities in line with the level of proficiency of the language, namely the English language, starting with activities for students at undergraduate and followed by those for postgraduate level.

3.4.1 Example of master level activities

The following activities are examples of how travel writing is used to engage students into classroom activities and to communicate better.

3.4.1.1 Task 1: The compilation of the dictionary of English-Slovene-Croatian-German-Italian tourism collocations

Dictionary compilation has numerous functions from annotating and preserving a language to building new vocabulary and reporting on outdated usage of words and terms. The compilation of a dictionary is an important step in building and developing languages. The present method guide is oriented towards the presentation of the basic concepts of dictionary compilation, from micro and macrostructure of dictionaries and the overall process of compilation of dictionary entries. Within our Erasmus plus project we bring lexicography closer to the students and teachers by involving them in the process of dictionary compilation and editing. The **Dictionary of English-Slovene-Croatian-German-Italian tourism collocations** is a multilingual terminological dictionary for tourism, and it

is compiled by the users involved in the project workshops. In the guidelines specific characteristics of compiling general and terminological dictionaries (Atkins & Rundell, 2008, Fuertes-Olivera & Tarp, 2014) are presented, as well as the extraction of terms from scientific articles and filtration with the Sketch Engine (https://www.sketchengine.eu/) tool and compilation of dictionary articles with Termania (https://www.termania.net/uporabnik/prijava) dictionary mask. The working language of the dictionary compilation is English, and the dictionary entry is written in the English language and provides a definition, an example of usage from the text in English, and translations in four languages, the languages of the project partners. Within the project we are promoting multilingualism and language acquisition especially by including all project languages that are also the mother tongues of the participants.

3.4.1.1.1 Description of the used tools and their functions

Sketch Engine is a tool for managing, building and analysing text corpora. It is available online, upon registration the 30- day free trial is available to the users. The purpose of the tool is to enable users studying languages and language behaviour to search large corpora, currently it offers over 90 languages, search complex and linguistically motivated questions. An important feature of the tool is also the possibility to build our own corpus or upload a large text in order to start a lexical analysis. The tool will be used in our project for the filtration of the text and lexical analysis, namely the extraction of tourism collocations.

Termania is an online freely accessible portal for registered users, designed primarily for searching lexical databases, but offers to the users the possibility to compile their own dictionaries. In Termania a wide variety of freely available dictionaries that differ in type and structure, is concentrated. The platform is available for research and dictionary compilation. It offers basic and advanced research as well as data on each published dictionary, namely number of entries, languages included. Upon free registration several dictionary editing masks (e.g. bilingual, monolingual, multilingual dictionaries) for compiling dictionaries are available to the users. The mask could also be modified according to the needs of the users and the structure of the dictionary article.

3.4.1.1.2 Description of dictionary-making work

The participant will find a scientific article on the topic of tourism. They will upload the document in **Sketch Engine**, filter the text and prepare a lexical analysis. The lexical analysis will be oriented towards tourism collocations. A frequency list will be obtained from the **Sketch Engine** tool. The collocations will be included into **Termania** dictionary mask for dictionary compilation. A dictionary mask for multilingual dictionary article will be used in the compilation process. The users will compile the dictionary articles focusing on collocations. The dictionary article will be composed of headword, explanation, example of usage and translations into Slovene, Croatian, German and Italian.

Comment to the teacher: The compilation of the dictionary is a travel writing activity in which students are given instructions on how to compile dictionary articles. Within the activity the ICT skills are needed and further developer, as well as some pre-compilations work is needed and typically include an overview of the characteristics of terminological dictionaries. The inclusion of movement and nonverbal communication can be taken as pre-writing activities, namely movement – going to different libraries, finding sources; non-verbal communication – the usage of special symbols that replace words in dictionary compilation.

Duration: 90 minutes, INDIVIDUAL, PAIR WORK or GROUP WORK.

3.4.1.2 Task 2: Build a corpus of texts in travel writing

At present dictionaries are more often corpus based (Gizatova, 2016; Škrabal, 2016; De Schryver, Joffe, Joffe, & Hillewaert, 2006) as in such way they give an insight in the present position and characteristics of language, in certain cases the corpus is synchronic or, if taken from the past, diachronic. Corpus usage became an indispensable way of dictionary compilation and is a pre-compilation activity.

3.4.1.2.1 Description of the used tools and their functions

The participants collect different texts related to tourism and travel writing. The collected texts come from different subfields and those collected manually (in such cases also movement is included) are digitised. The corpus of texts is stored in a

word document and uploaded into Sketch Engine. Task 2 is related to task 1 as the corpus functions as source material for the preparation of glossaries, databases and dictionaries. The task could also go further to the inclusion of texts in the language of the project partners (here we think of translated texts) and in this way the preparation of aligned texts is possible.

Comment to the teacher: The compilation of the corpus (monolingual or multilingual) in travel writing texts is a travel writing activity that puts students in the position of preparing the source materials for further lexical analysis or dictionary compilation.
The inclusion of movement and nonverbal communication can be taken as pre-corpus preparation activity, namely movement – collecting real texts manually; non-verbal communication – the usage of special ICT that replace words in corpus compilation.

Duration: 90 minutes, INDIVIDUAL, PAIR WORK or GROUP WORK.

3.4.2 Example of undergraduate level activities

3.4.2.1 Task 1: Preparation of video resources

3.4.2.1.1 Description of work

Students prepare a travel itinerary outside, e.g. in the woods, a hike, a visit to the park, castle or similar. Students prepare video resources focused on movement for different focus groups, namely.

Comment to the teacher: The preparation of video resource is a travel writing activity that puts students in the position of preparing genuine materials that might be shown to their peers for further lexical and content analysis.

The inclusion of movement and nonverbal communication can be seen going to the location and preparing the activities as well as recording; non-verbal communication – the usage of ICT, symbols to explain certain movement exercises.

90 minutes, INDIVIDUAL, PAIR WORK or GROUP WORK.

3.4.2.2 Task 2: Travel writing and non-verbal communication to promote social inclusion of individuals with disabilities

3.4.2.2.1 Description of work

Students prepare a travel itinerary outside without using words, thinking of a castle, an important building etc. students learn how to prepare a non-verbal description of a castle using pictures (e.g., on the case of Pingu).

Figure 1: Pingu images
Source: Pingu, 2023

Students prepare short and concise texts and transfer the text into pictures.

Comment to the teacher: The activity is oriented to non-verbal communication and travel writing. The inclusion of movement is in the preparation of visual materials, e.g., taking photographs, going to the location.

90 minutes, INDIVIDUAL, PAIR WORK or GROUP WORK.

3.4.2.3 Task 2: Using gesture and preparing video

3.4.2.3.1 Description of work

Students do some pre-task work, namely prepare a dialoge, e.g., it could the booking a room or ordering food. Students write the text and with a classmate try to transfer the text into non-verbal communication, using only gesture to communicate. Students record the whole dialogue and in the second part of the video they provide subtitles of the used gestures.

Comment to the teacher: The activity is oriented to non-verbal communication and travel writing. The inclusion of movement is in the preparation of visual materials, e.g., video and the usage of gesture. Students could also go to a specific location.

90 minutes, INDIVIDUAL, PAIR WORK or GROUP WORK.

3.5 Conclusion

With the preparation of tasks developed thanks to the analysis of the curricula from the Massachusetts Institute of technology, the University of Adelaide, the University of Maine, and the University of Cambridge, and also the theoretical overview of the concepts of travel writing and communication skills, we developed the method guide for the inclusion of travel writing into communication skills curricula in an interdisciplinary frame. The analysis of the curricula from the above-mentioned institutions helped us in the preparation of tasks for undergraduate and master level students that are presented in the paper. Tasks are provided with a description of activities, a time frame and include specific fields in an interdisciplinary way. We believe that the development of such interdisciplinary tasks contributes to the preparation of green curricula for a sustainable future and pictures the topic of communication in a sustainable frame.

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4 The Teaching of Gestural Communication as a Didactic Tool to Address Social Inclusion

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This text is an accompanying reading for the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) curriculum produced under the IN-COMM GUIDE project (Erasmus+, 2022–2023). The text is for those teaching courses derived from the curriculum, which aims to enhance communicative skills through methods developed from 1) travel writing, 2) nonverbal communication and 3) movement. A complementary objective of the curriculum is to sensitize students towards inclusion. In this text points 2 and 4 are thematized, initially through a review of the specialized literature on gestures, sign languages and intercultural as well as nonverbal communication. Additionnally, classroom experiences carried out by the authors are described: students performed tasks in the absence of language, that led them to adopt collaborative strategies. In addition, a brief overview of the current situation in the research and teaching activities of the DGS (Deutsche Gebärdensprache) in Germany is presented. In the subsequent reflections, the projection of one's own experience towards the situation experienced daily by people with communication barriers due to sensory disabilities (e.g., deafness) or migratory contexts is made. This projection, critically reflected, provides an interesting starting point for understanding the individual role of each citizen in ensuring social inclusion.

Keywords:
inclusion,
nonverbal communication,
sign language,
didactic tool,
social inclusion

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4.1 Introduction

Human beings, when they find themselves in a situation in which they do not share a common language and there is a need to communicate, instinctively resort to similar strategies to establish communication. The contexts in which such a situation may arise are very diverse, but the response observed in very different contexts is comparable. It occurs, for example, in the case of Deaf children who are not in early contact with a sign language user environment (Horton, 2020; Goicio & Horton, 2023) or of congenitally deafblind children (Bruce, 2005). Similar situations have been observed in environments where Deaf adults who do not share a sign language or an oral language, who need to communicate, begin to negotiate meanings, to consensually establish signs and rules of combination (Zeshan, 2015). As other examples indicate, such as the case of the signed systems of the original inhabitants of Australia (Kendom, 1988), the signs used by Catholic monks (Kendom, 1990 or the sign system used as a lingua franca by the original inhabitants of North America in their intercultural exchanges before the displacement and destruction of their traditional forms of life by European settlers towards the end of the 19th century (Davis, 2010). All these gestural systems emerge as a collective and spontaneous option for overcoming communication barriers in a situation where somehow linguistic or/and cultural barriers are faced. In certain circumstances, when the majority of people who generate such systems are deaf and manage to establish permanent communities over several generations, sign languages emerge, which are a manifestation of the human capacity for language in a modality other than oral-auditory (Meier et al., 2002). The above observations highlight the relevance of gestural activity as a manifestation channel for human communication.

On the other hand, as recent research suggests (cf. Ciao & Chen, 2017; Gullberg, 2010, 2014), the use of gestures plays a fundamental role in second language acquisition, such as in the negotiation of meanings within learning groups and the learning of new vocabulary.

With such evidence in mind, various activities have been developed in the course of the project that aim to favour this approach. We start from the central idea that in the absence of a common language, which is the most basic instance of intercultural encounters, and being urged by the circumstances to establish communication in spite of such lack, people initiate contacts based on the intuitive use of gestures and

other nonverbal communication resources. Once a certain communication is established, the barrier is broken and empathy is established with The Other. This instance/experience can be recreated in the classroom. The activities developed for the curricula have just such a goal. Simply put, this is the beginning of inclusion.

In addition to the presentation of the teaching activities, which are detailed in an accompanying document, theoretical backgrounds follow at this point. In this reading, the information about Deaf communities and their sign languages plays an important role, which, due to their constant confrontation with communicative barriers, have developed sophisticated strategies to overcome them and establish the initial communication mentioned above.

4.2 Theoretical framework

4.2.1 Sign Languages

Sign languages can arise spontaneously as a means of communication among groups of people facing permanent damage to the auditory canal. Sign languages are an alternate manifestation of human language in the visual-gestural modality. They are natural languages that fulfill the same cognitive, social and cultural functions as spoken languages (Meier et al., 2009; Klima & Bellugi, 1979). Recent historical developments have allowed Deaf sign language-using communities to flourish in virtually every country in the world. Deaf communities are considered by a wide academic tradition as minority groups with their own language and culture. They are recognized and protected by both international and local laws (de Meulder et al., 2019).

Because sign languages arise spontaneously in the context of the social exchanges of several generations of Deaf people in a given place and generally under the influence of the spoken and written languages of each region, different sign languages exist in each country and sometimes several sign languages and or signed dialects on the frontiers of the same country (cfr. de Meulder et al., 2019; Mathur & Napoli, 2010 among others).

This could imply a major difficulty for the plan to use sign languages for the development of a common curriculum, since each member country of the project would have to consider the linguistic and cultural specificities of its own deaf community. This would require close cooperation with local Deaf communities, including the hiring of Deaf experts, for which the project does not have the financial resources.

4.2.2 International Sign

International exchanges between groups of Deaf people in Europe and the Mediterranean have been documented since the beginning of the 19th century (Allsop, 1996). In these encounters, the difficulty of communicating using the respective sign languages, which were for the most part unintelligible to each other, became apparent. To overcome this barrier, conventions for a basic vocabulary were agreed upon, which for the most part consisted of selecting lexicon from the different sign languages of those who agreed upon such conventions.

Such systems, which have been reissued several times (cf. Napier & Rosenstock, 2016), have a reduced stable vocabulary and exploit iconic and deictic (e.g. directional/pointing gestures) elements that seem to be common to all sign languages described so far. Among them are the expression of modality and intensification through facial mimicry and movement variations; the use of the hands and the space around the body as a stage to represent actions and dimensions as well as spatial anaphora created through virtually locating entities in space in order to refer to them with the hands or the gaze, etc. (cfr. Napier & Rosenstock, 2016).

International Sign (IS) is frequently used in some formal contexts (like international meetings) as an *ad hoc* means of communication. For more complex interactions, it is customary to use to sign languages of international dissemination, such as American Sign Language (ASL) or British Sign Language (BSL). However, the use of these systems involves the same barriers mentioned above, since they imply the previous complex process of learning them. So far, we do not consider making use of ASL or BSL for our curriculum.

On the other side, some signs/strategies from International Sign could be added to our curriculum in order to reinforce the ability of visual-gestural communication. Therefore, we propose to base our curriculum on gestures and further elements of nonverbal communication (cfr. Argyle, 1988). Both terms will be defined below.

4.2.3 Nonverbal communication

Here we understand "gestures" as the bodily activity (movements and/or postures of any part of the body) that appear in the course of a communicative act (cfr. McNeill, 1992). Gestures are an essential part of human communication. The gestures accompanying speech coincide with the meaning of what is said but are not entirely redundant. This means that gestures can constitute an autonomous source of information in discourse (Kita & Özürek, 2003). Most gestures are produced automatically and unconsciously, while others are produced intentionally. In each case, gestures are associated with certain meanings, the interpretation of which is also determined by cultural codes (Goldin-Meadow, 2003).

Gestures constitute the bulk of the NVC inventory. However, some elements of the NVC are not gestural. Among them we highlight the proxemics (Hall & Hall, 1990) and the symbolism of scenic elements such as space design and costume among others (Argyle, 1988).

Gestures play a key role in second language acquisition and learning. In this regard, aspects such as the following may be mentioned:

- Gestures are used by L2-learners to compensate for difficulties due to deficient or incomplete L2-acquisition (Goldin-Meadow, 2003);
- Comprehension of gestures produced by speakers can reinforce the L2 learner's understanding of the linguistic input (Gullberg, 2006).
- L2-learners tend to produce more gestures in L2 than in their own L1 (Gullberg, 2010, 2006).
- L2 vocabulary learning appears to be enhanced by the simultaneous production/reception of spoken word and gesture production, due to the activation of multiple brain areas. (Kelly et al., 2010).

4.3 Curricula Analysis

4.3.1 Sign Language and Gestures at German Universities

German Sign Language of the Deaf, DGS, is the subject of teaching and research in at least 9 academic centers (see Figure 1 below).

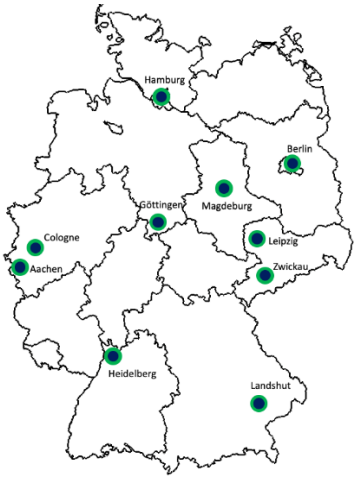

Figure 1: Academic centres where DGS is taught and researched
Source: own.

The first of these, the University of Hamburg, was a pioneer in the field, when it created a DGS research line in the late 1980s (Eichmann et al., 2012). Since then, it has emerged as the best known international reference in the field, through projects such as the DGS linguistic corpus (Hanke, 2016), the monographic collection Signum, and the specialized journal Das Zeichen. The DGS curricula at the University of Hamburg are oriented towards the teaching of DGS as a second language and second modality (Oviedo et al., 2020). In Berlin, since 1995, the Humboldt University has offered undergraduate and master's studies in which DGS interpreters as well as teachers of deaf children are trained. In the last ten years, the teacher training program has adopted an emphasis on a bilingual educational approach, which has generated important research on the acquisition of DGS as L1. Humboldt University additionally offers a Bachelor of Arts in Deaf Studies, which trains students in the basics of German Deaf culture and sign language, the only program of its kind in the country.

The third, fourth and fifth DGS teaching, and study programs are the DGS interpreter training programs at the Universities of Applied Sciences of Magdeburg (1998), Zwickau (2000) and Landshut (2017). Rather than on theoretical reflection, these programs place special emphasis on praxis and problem solving in interpreting. Such an emphasis is typical of Universities of Applied Sciences in the German educational model. In the case of the first two, the Magdeburg master's degree in interpreting (EUMASLI, an international European master's degree focusing on the use of international sign language and English) and the new BeQuiS master's degree in Zwickau, a pioneering part-time program for the development of advanced sign language skills conceived as blended learning, stand out. Special mention is deserved here for the University of Cologne, which has pioneered the development of curricula for teaching DGS both as L2 (for teachers) and L1 (for deaf children) (Urbann et al., 2020; Oviedo et al., 2018). University of Cologne also offers, since 2017, a new interpreting program in DGS in which relevant theoretical research on the relationship between gestures and sign languages is conducted. Finally, since 2021, a new DGS interpreting program at Heidelberg Pedagogical University has been added to the above list.

In addition to the programs described above, there are three other academic institutions that, although they do not offer undergraduate degrees, have made important contributions to research and developed projects that have an impact on the community. These are the North Rhine-Westphalia Technical University of Aachen, University of Göttingen and the Max Planck Institute in Leipzig.

4.3.2 Sign Language curriculum in university institutions

Regarding the curriculum followed for teaching DGS, most of the academic institutions mentioned above mainly offer DGS courses as L2/M2 to hearing adults, native users of German. The courses offered cover proficiency levels from CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages) A1 to C1, include content from the culture of the country's Deaf community and are offered in a full-time, face-to-face format. There are some e-learning materials to learn DGS (Beecken et al., 2002; Schulmeister et al., 2004). However, at least until early in the Covid-19 pandemic, discussion of blended learning models for this language was relatively scarce (cf. Barbeito Rey-Geißler, & Geißler, 2018). Since the beginning of the pandemic, programs have progressively incorporated elements of distance

education. An evaluation of this experience and its impact on future developments in the teaching of DGS in academic settings has not yet been published.

The teaching of elements of nonverbal communication is an ordinary part of sign language as L2 teaching programs (Oviedo et al., 2020; Fries & Geißler, 2012). The positive influence of bodily stimuli at the time of learning on the learning itself has been the subject of research. Thus, for example, there is evidence of how dance can promote the learning of mathematical concepts in schoolchildren (Redman, 2016) or spatial perception in preschool children (Temple et al., 2020). The use of movement and/or nonverbal communication as didactic tools in teaching sign languages as L2 has been successfully tested in several DGS courses in programs run by the first author of this text. Through courses taught by a drama pedagogue and a dance pedagogue, students at the beginning level practiced relaxation techniques, stage presence, facial and body expression. Both the students themselves and the DGS teachers repeatedly expressed their conviction about the positive effects of this practice on the DGS courses. These experiences have not yet been the subject of empirical research.

The teaching of International Sign is regularly included as a subsidiary offering in most of the university programs mentioned in chapter 3.1. These are elective courses, which offer the theoretical and practical fundamentals of IS. Outside of these courses, private IS training offerings at the advanced level appear with some frequency.

4.3.3 Sign Language at German non-university institutions

The work described in the previous section has had a strong positive impact on the German Deaf community, which thus receives academic support in its development of a social discourse in defence of its rights. The DGS has thus received official recognition (BRD, 2009, 2002), from which important compensations such as access to professional interpreting (Oviedo et al., 2022) and employment assistance derive. Another consequence of the aforementioned legal support is the creation of a wide and stable offer of non-university courses of DGS as L2. Most of these are private, offered by small companies mostly managed by Deaf people. At the same time, there is also an offer of basic courses of DGS as L2 in the network of the adult education centers (*Volkshochschulen*) throughout the country.

4.3.4 National and international projects on non-verbal communication

Higher education programmes tend to focus on sign language research and education in the fields of linguistics or interpreting. Only very few institutions exist where non-verbal communication is the field of interest. In Germany, the North Rhine-Westphalia Technical University of Aachen (RWTH Aachen) has a unique centre of sign language and gesture research and education, SignGes – Center for Sign Language and Gesture. Apart from different sign language courses, their research aim regarding gestures is to develop empirical methods for multimodal communication and interaction research.

The Radboud University in the Netherlands also includes a centre for research on multimodal language and cognition. Additionally, to spoken and written language, the centre concentrates on forms of language expression through multiple modalities, including gestures.

4.4 Our practical experiences in the didactical use of NVC

In the first semester of 2022, we conducted various practical studies to underpin our theoretical considerations. First, we conducted a self-test within our team to get a start on conceptualising possible module content. The first idea for an exercise was to present short content in the form of a fable non-verbally or to communicate it to another person. For this, all non-verbal means of communication such as gestures, facial expressions, use of the own body and also possibilities of proxemics were allowed. The idea behind this type of exercise was to sensitise students to the benefits of non-verbal communication in communication situations and that people already naturally have many non-verbal resources at their disposal. The test was conducted with a team member who has no sign language skills in order to simulate the later perspective of the students who also do not know sign language.

The test showed that it was possible to convey the content of the fable to a large extent. It could be concluded that the importance of non-verbal communication could be conveyed to the students in this way. The statements of the presenting team member also showed that this exercise can also be used to simulate uncertain, ambiguous situations in which non-verbal means were recognised as a means of coping and overcoming it. Finally, the preliminary assumption could be confirmed

that it is possible to activate the repertoire of natural non-verbal resources via this form of exercise and to make it impressively visible in its abundance. In the evaluation, however, it was found that the format of a fable does not seem optimal. In order to achieve sustainable learning effects, the students should be confronted with situations that have a relation to their reality and correspond to their everyday life.

As a next step, we decided to invite an expert to help us with more practical ideas to raise students' awareness of non-verbal communication. In May 2022, Claudio Ocando led a workshop attended by our team, other members of the IN-COMM team via Zoom, and Deaf and hearing members of our faculty. Claudio Ocando is a sign language interpreter from Venezuela who works in Germany with Deaf refugees from Ukraine. The aim of the workshop was to get further impulses on non-verbal communication strategies for the IN-COMM module and to evaluate them again through self-experience and feedback from heterogeneous workshop participants.

The workshop included several activities focusing on non-verbal communication between people without a common verbal language. They emphasised facial expressions, gestures as well as the use of space and surrounding objects. This was followed by a feedback session and further discussion to share experiences and develop our ideas on how to link the workshop experiences to the next steps in developing the contents for the IN-COMM project. Particularly insightful were the comments on experiencing simulated as well as actual communication barriers within the event. A wide range of emotions and struggles were evoked in all participants, which once again made it clear that ambiguity tolerance as a concept would necessarily have to be included in theoretical and practical considerations of the module. Ambiguity tolerance refers to the ability and willingness to "acknowledge and endure ambiguity and uncertainty" (Häcker/Stapf, 2004, 33). This means that despite not being able to classify the communicative behaviour of another person or not understanding an (intercultural) situation, the person concerned still remains capable of acting and working. Ambiguity tolerance as a basic attitude helps to productively, purposefully endure uncertainties and ambiguities in human interaction (Reis, 1997). Both, the experiment and the workshop showed that non-verbal communication resources helped the participants to remain capable of action and to avoid communication breakdowns.

4.5 Conclusion

We have offered a series of short readings here to provide theoretical support for the developed activities and to reduce possible fears of contact with the subject among teachers. In this reading, the information about the Deaf communities and their sign languages plays a major role, which, due to their constant confrontation with communicative barriers, have developed sophisticated strategies to overcome them and establish the initial communication mentioned above. Although it was not the aim of this material to provide training in the use of such strategies, we consider it important to refer to them as a valuable didactic resource that teachers responsible for the courses can deepen through the visit to local sign language courses and contacts with their community of users.

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5 METHOD GUIDE FOR THE INCLUSION OF MOVEMENT INTO COMMUNICATION SKILLS CURRICULA

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movement,
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subject teachers,
PE teachers

Movement, understood as any form of physical activity, is indivisible from health. There are numerous ways of how to introduce movement into the teaching of other subjects since PE classes alone are insufficent to maintain health. Moreover, movement enhances knowledge acquisition and communication which leads to better academic results. Subject teachers other than PE teachers find it difficult to introduce movement into their teaching, so it is very important to provide teaching resources and training on the inclusion of movement into lessons. The following guide offers five shorter tasks which can be used at any point of the lesson in order to engage students, make them move and reinforce the knowledge of the topic being learned. The tasks are adequate for any type of learner, from complete beginners to those highly proficient in a certain area.

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5.1 Introduction

In the Oxford Learners' Dictionary movement has three definitions:

1. an act of moving the body or part of the body
2. an act of moving from one place to another or of moving something from one place to another
3. a group of people who share the same ideas or aims

For the purpose of this chapter the first two definitions will be applied.

As widely known, movement is an inseparable part of health. Professionals in the field put strong efforts in making people aware of the fact that in order to improve the quality of life and health, it is important to develop the habit of moving. The World Health Organisation has launched recommendations about physical activity for children of different ages. The WHO advises that one- to two-year-olds should spend at least 180 minutes doing various physical activities of any intensity (from moderate to highly vigorous) during the day. Children aged 3 to 4 should spend at least 180 minutes of different physical activities of any intensity, but during the day 60 minutes should be spent doing moderate to high-intensity exercises (WHO, 2019). Children and young people aged 5 to 17 should accumulate at least 60 minutes of moderate to vigorous physical activity during the day, mostly aerobic, while at least three times a week the activities should be of high intensity (WHO, 2010). It comes as no surprise that the "movement" for the introduction of movement into everyday life has reached such wide frontiers. As a compulsory part in a child's life, school at all levels of education has become the optimal place for acquainting students with the importance of movement and for teaching them how to engage in physical activities to promote their health and well-being.

Since the subject of Physical Education is not sufficient to follow the WHO guidelines mentioned above, it has become very popular to introduce movement into other subjects' teaching as a way of enhancing achievement and exploring distance from traditional teaching methods. The introduction of movement into other subjects' teaching is not a complicated process. Given the fact that subject teachers are not PE teachers, the notion of movement is simplified to the level that any form of movement in a usually sedentary class is considered physical activity.

5.2 About the correlation between communication skills and movement

Dittman (2009) defines body language and provides insight into the extent to which we use body movement to communicate, and to what extent non-verbal communication can be a source of information about people. He explains that with verbal communication things tend to be easy since there is a general, common agreement about what words mean (i.e. language is codified), whereas non-verbal communication can be problematic in the sense that not everyone is able to interpret body movements in the same way. If movement is taken as a form of communication (non-verbal communication), effective forms of movement, i.e. non-verbal communication, lead to better confidence in all subject areas, and conversely, poor non-verbal communication leads to weaker academic results (Houser & Frymier, 2009, according to Dobrescu & Stănică Lupu, 2015). Numerous studies have been written about this topic. In their attempt to summarize what had been done in this area Howie and Pate (2012) conducted a review of the available literature and found out that the majority of scientific studies showed positive effects on physical activity constructs related to academic achievement. Moreover, with the increasing focus on academic achievement, physical activity significantly decreased in the US. The higher the orientation toward academic achievement, the lower the physical activity level. The same method was applied by Castelli et al. (2014), but their work was primarily oriented toward local policies in a school environment, culture and climate and their effect on learning. The evidence they collected suggests that healthy children learn better. Another article which tried to review the existing research studies about the influence of physical activity on academic behaviour (paying attention, concentrating and performing on-task behaviours) was written by Sullivan et al. (2017). After reviewing 218 articles and narrowing the number down to nine of them about physical activity and academic behaviour, the authors found out that most of the physical activities' interventions had positive effects on academic behaviour. It was surprising that even 5-minute physical activity enhances academic performance, but it was suggested that at least 10 to 30 minutes of regular physical activity would be needed to achieve good results. Moreover, the research points to the importance of school staff awareness of the importance of physical activity and the benefits that it can bring. Another area extremely interesting to scientists and educators is the effect of physical activity on cognitive and brain functions, regardless of the insecure findings about the consistency and scale of its effect. Erickson et al. (2019) conducted an umbrella study in which they researched

whether physical activity interventions improved cognitive and brain outcomes in a person's life, but also among persons who experienced some kind of cognitive disfunction. Another aim was to understand if greater amounts of physical activity could reduce the risk of developing cognitive impairment and dementia later in life. Their research resulted in evidence that moderate to vigorous physical activity improved cognition and reduced the risk of developing cognitive impairment (e.g. Alzheimer's disease), as well as that these improvements can be obtained during one's whole life.

The topic of physical activity integration into cognitive tasks has been analysed taking into consideration all age groups. Mavilidi et al. (2015) studied the learning effects of enacting vocabulary and thus learning it physically compared to learning vocabulary in a traditional manner; as anticipated "children in the integrated physical exercise condition achieved the highest learning outcomes." (ibid., 413). A similar study was conducted by Toumpaniari et al. (2015). These authors wanted to prove that physical activities and gestures could improve preschool children's language learning. The study is focused on the combination of classroom-based enactment gestures and physical activities used to make learning easier. Authors wanted to examine whether preschool children learning a foreign language vocabulary by embodying words through task-relevant enactment gestures and physical activities would be seen as being instructed in the preferred teaching method and reach higher learning outcomes than students learning in a traditional way without gestures and physical activities. The sample of participants consisted of 67 kindergarten 4-year-old students (30 boys and 37 girls) and the total duration of the experiment was four weeks. After conducting their experiment with three groups of children (namely, those who learned words through physical activity and gesturing, those who learned only through gesturing, and those who learned in a traditional way not involving movement), they concluded that the group who studied employing both gestures and physical activity achieved better results than the other two groups. By combining physical activity with task-relevant gestures, learners can benefit from both the cognitive and the physiological gains. Children prefer being active and making gestures in the classroom, and there is a possibility of them being more enthusiastic about the new active teaching methods. The authors concluded that physical activity can lead to better learning results and the positive effects of physical activity can become more pronounced when physical activities are embodied.

Most research on the topic of physical activity and movement and their correlation to academic success and communication was conducted among school children. Kwak et al. (2014) investigated the relationship between light-, moderate- and vigorous-intensity levels of physical activity and academic success with primary (9 to 10-year-olds) and secondary school (15 to 16-year-olds) children. This study was designed to examine personal, environmental and lifestyle influences on the risk for future cardiovascular diseases. A total of 1,137 pupils were randomly selected proportional to the sizes of the respective schools. Complete data on physical activity do not differ with regard to sex, sum of skinfolds, or mother's education from the sample from which they originate. Academic achievement was assessed through the schools and individual written marks were reported for 17 school subjects. Physical activity was measured by an accelerometer which participants wore 4 days in a row (excluding periods of bathing or other water activities). Cardiovascular fitness was measured with a bicycle ergometer and heart rate was measured with a Polar heart rate monitor. Differences between boys and girls were analysed using Student t tests or Chi-squared tests. The relations between the intensity levels of physical activity and academic achievement was analysed using linear regression analyses. The results of this research suggest that only vigorous physical activity has a significant correlation with academic achievement, and only among girls. Authors suggests that in girls, there is an association between more time spent in vigorous physical activity and higher grades.

This was confirmed by Coe et al. (2006) who concluded that there needs to be a level of physical activity intensity which would produce beneficial effects, and that this level is reached only by vigorous physical activity. This study was conducted to determine the effect of physical education class enrolment and total physical activity on academic achievement in middle school children in one academic year. Participants were 214 sixth-grade students from a single public school in western Michigan (USA) and all participants were randomly assigned to one of four teams by administrators. Each team consisted of one teacher from each of the core classes (mathematics, science, English, and world studies). The ensured anthropometric characteristics were height, weight and BMI (calculated), while habitual physical activity was estimated using the 3-d physical activity recall (3DPAR), a variation of the previous day physical activity recall. Academic achievement was based on individual grades for each student in the core classes (mathematics, science, English and world studies) and a standardized test score. The System for Observing Fitness

Instruction Time (SOFIT) was used to provide descriptive information regarding the quantity of physical activity performed during physical education class, teacher behaviour and also the type of activity generally performed during the class. The obtained results showed that the only significant difference between groups was in their BMI. Following on this, the reason why there were studies which did not find a correlation between physical activity and academic achievement could be in the lack of distinction made between intensity levels. Another important point, reached by Pruitt and Morini (2021), is that language abilities are not equally developed by all types of physical activity. They taught new words to 6 to 12-year-olds. They conducted activities accompanied by aerobic and anaerobic exercises and compared it to traditional vocabulary learning. The results of their study confirmed that only aerobic exercises improved the ability of word acquisition, whereas anaerobic exercises did not prove to be more efficient than traditional vocabulary acquisition methods. De Greeff et al. (2018) came to a similar conclusion when they studied the effect physical activity had on executive functions, attention and academic performance in preadolescent children. They examined four executive functions (inhibition, working memory, cognitive flexibility and planning), three subdomains of attention (selective, divided and sustained), and three academic areas (mathematics, spelling and reading). They tested these domains with regard to study designs (acute or longitudinal physical activity programmes), type of physical activity (aerobic or cognitively engaging) and duration of intervention. All these were tested separately and the results confirmed that acute physical activity has a positive impact on attention, whereas longitudinal physical activity programmes have a positive impact on executive functions, attention and academic performance. Certain authors also discuss the influence of physiological factors (brain-derived neurotrophic factor and blood flow to the cortex) and psychological factors (self-esteem) and their positive association with physical activity. On the other hand, the research conducted by Shoval (2010) proved that any type of bodily movement can support academic achievement. She studied cooperative learning in geometry classes among second- and third-grade pupils, but focused on its non-verbal aspect. In learning about angles, children had to employ mindful movement, i.e. use their body in order to learn. She also concluded that "the more the learners used learning activities with movement, the higher their academic achievements "(ibid., 462). Following on this study, Shoval and Shurluf (2011) continued analysing tasks which involved movement activities during cooperative learning and wanted to find out what type of students would benefit more from such activities. They divided students into

three groups – active, social and passive – and concluded that students who were physically active during learning, even if considered lower achievers, obtained better results than the socially active ones. As expected, passive students achieved the lowest results. The authors concluded that cooperative learning based only on verbal activity can be problematic, especially with primary students.

Another study was conducted among 10 to 12-year-olds by Sari and Karagün (2020). They examined the effect leisure time sports activities organised by the municipalities on internet addiction, optimism and communication skills. The three variables were measured before 12-week exercising was organised. After this period, the results proved that the symptoms of internet addiction decreased and optimism and communication skills improved so the authors advocated the introduction of leisure time sports activities into schools and the promotion of exercising and doing sports among children. Troudeau and Shephard (2008) reviewed the relationship between academic performance and concentration, memory and classroom behaviour, and participation in school-based physical activities, including physical education (PE), free school physical activity (PA) and school sports. By conducting cross-sectional observations, they found out that there was a positive association between academic performance and PA, but PE does not seem to show such an association. Data from quasi-experimental point to a positive relationship between PA and intellectual performance. Although the benefits brought by physical activity are numerous, there has always been the concern that to give more time to physical activity at the expense of cognitive academic activities hinders academic achievement and therefore, the time given to physical education in schools is, in fact, reduced (UNESCO, 2015). However, as advocated by Trudeau and Shepherd (2008), with competent providers, PA can be added to the school curriculum in any subject with no risk of hindering student academic achievement. On the other hand, forcing "academic" or "curricular" subjects at the expense of physical education programmes does not improve grades in these subjects and may jeopardize health. Álvarez-Bueno et al. (2017) concluded that physical education improves classroom behaviours and benefits several aspects of academic achievement, especially mathematics-related skills, reading, and composite scores in youth. Their meta-analysis included healthy children and adolescents in their developmental age. The interventions made aimed at making physical activity stronger. Types of movement they wanted to check were regular physical education taught in schools, physical activity included in teaching other subjects (e.g., active breaks or teaching subjects

with physically active tasks), extracurricular physical activities. Their meta-analysis shows that physical activity programmes bring benefits for mathematics-related skills, reading and composite scores, as well as for classroom behaviour, both in the form of regular, curricular physical education and physical activities introduced in one part of other subject teaching. Finally, the authors state that curricular exercise in the form of physical education is the most effective intervention for the improvement of academic performance and classroom behaviour. Children's and adolescents' healthy habits tend to persist through life. The schools are an ideal setting for promoting healthy behaviours and the promotion of PA is an effective tool for improving children's physical and mental health and also enhancing academic achievement. Another article dealing with the topic of physical education and children's academic achievement was written by Nur (2015). He discussed the disregard physical education encountered in Muslim schools and advocated holistic education where Physical Education should serve as a medium in which social and emotional behaviours leading to better communication within a society would be developed. It is a learning environment in which children interact with others, not only peers, but teachers as well. His study also supports other research findings stating that physical activity enhances academic achievement. Similar findings were reached by Dobrescu and Stănică Lupu (2015). They conducted an observational study in which one of the main conclusions was that "the identification of the subjects' perception regarding the importance of non-verbal communication can influence the result of the pre-university educational process and, implicitly, can lead to better performance in physical education activity." (ibid., 548). Authors analysed nonverbal communication in the physical education lesson instructional process. The study consisted in a sociological approach through an inquiry conducted on a middle school group of 150 pupils. The questionnaire comprised 13 items with prefigured and open answers to facilitate the research in pre-university education. The authors concluded that the identification of nonverbal communication structure imposes codes, models and aims. Most respondents perceived body language and the messages transmitted this way as facilitating the dialogue between the teacher and the pupil. The teachers and the pupils must know and use the types of non-verbal communication, according to the goals of the lessons. In the physical education lesson, body movement is seen as an expression of energy and information through posture and movement. The identification of the subjects' perception regarding the importance of non-verbal communication can influence

the result of the pre-university educational process and can lead to better performance in physical education activity.

In Australia, Dwyer et al. (2001) conducted research among 10 and 14-year olds to find out about the link between academic performance and physical activity and fitness in children. They picked all schools which had more than 200 enrolled students and from each age group they chose 10 boys and 10 girls. The reference for the academic ability for each subject was given by a representative, usually the headmaster. Indoor measurement included height and body mass, the standing jump for muscular power, sit-ups and push-ups for muscular force and endurance, sit and reach for joint mobility, dynamometry for muscular force and power, skin folds, and lung function. Outdoor tests included the 50-meter sprint for muscular power and 1.6-kilometer run for cardiorespiratory endurance. They used a Monarch cycle ergometer to measure physical work capacity, and in the end, students aged 9 or over had to fill in a questionnaire about their involvement in exercise and sport. After conducting their complex research, the authors concluded that scholastic ability and physical activity had a low correlation implying that physical activity and fitness modestly contribute to academic performance. The correlations were similar for male and female students.

An interesting study was conducted by Nopembri et al. (2017). They investigated how children's communication and social awareness skills could be developed through physical education and sports programmes, but the target group they conducted their study on were children from volcano disaster areas. The authors developed a psychosocial-based P.E. and sports programme which led to an increase in communication and social awareness skills among those children. A research conducted by Trost in 2007 in the USA as part of the Active Living Research (a national programme of the Robert Wood Johanson Foundation) also confirmed the aforementioned findings, namely, that physical activity leads to improved grades, and that physically active children tend to have better academic achievement.

Since concern about children's health due to the sedentary way of life and physical inactivity remains a leading topic among scientists, Ahamed et al. (2007) also conducted research among primary school students (aged 9 to 10). Even if aware of the importance of physical activity for health, school policies are unable to do much to increase the level of physical activity in schools due to the constant pressure posed

on education system participants to achieve better academic results. The authors (ibid.) conducted a randomized control trial in a multi-ethnic group of students in British Columbia using the AS! BC model in experimental (intervention) schools. However, their results showed that although intervention schools dedicated approximately 10 minutes more physical activity on a daily basis, the academic performance between them and students from the control group did not differ significantly. Regarding gender, academic performance results for boys and girls were similar at the beginning and after the intervention period.

Research was also conducted in tertiary education. Tozoğlu and Bayraktar (2014) did research among male and female students – teacher candidates. After gathering their personal data, the authors employed the Communication Skills Inventory developed by Ersan and Balci in 1998. Their results show that there is a significant difference in communication skills when gender, conditions of doing sports and the type of sport they engaged in was analysed. However, no difference was detected regarding age and level of education. They concluded that during their university study students should engage in sports activities as they develop communication skills. Kompara Lukančič and Omrčen (2021) conducted a research on the introduction of movement among university students learning the Italian language and analysed its influence on the language acquisition process. Students were asked to give their opinion about the possible link between movement and language learning through the preparation of on-site video materials. In 2015 Aydin assessed the communication skills of students studying in physical education and sports schools at universities in Turkey. The instrument used to gather information for this study comprised the demographic information of participants and Communication Skills Assessment Scale (CSAS) composed of 25 items. The study results indicate that participants had a high level of communication skills, and that the results were statistically significantly different regarding university department and age. Fitzpatrick and Pope (2005) conducted a research about the New Zealand Health and Physical Education Curriculum investigating how Maori and Pasifika students viewed their physical education experience. The results turned out to be positive – P.E. gave them opportunities to practice care for others, taught them how to employ interpersonal skills and gain self-confidence in out-of-school situations. However, it was difficult for them to integrate the things they had learnt in their homes and wider lives due to the complexity of their lives and the cultural background in which they had to function. Given the importance of physical activity for children, it is expected

that students who intend to pursue a teaching career should develop an understanding of physical activity. Students – prospective teachers are expected to be able to include movement into their teaching, and following this Kalma et al. (2022) conducted a research with the aim to develop a teacher training module for movement integration and to design its implementation into the physical activity programme. This study provides a detailed description of the design and development process of a teacher training model to support teachers' readiness and skills to integrate more MI (movement integration) methods into academic subjects. MI is defined as the inclusion of physical activity of any intensity level into academic lessons. To support the use of MI methods by teachers, such training for qualified teachers should become readily available for continuing professional development. These results can be used to develop targeted interventions aimed at promoting teachers' education of MI and a more physically active school culture.

Since previous studies (e.g. Goh et al., 2017; Bartholomew & Jowers, 2011; McCullen et al., 2016) have proven that teachers dislike this approach and find it difficult to integrate movement into their daily teaching, authors such as Martin and Murtagh (2017) found out that providing teaching resources and offering training on the inclusion of movement into lessons increased the teachers' interest for this teaching approach. Therefore, Kalma et al. (2022) made available online a whole range of resources (examples of methods, teacher toolbox materials, movement integration timetable poster and the "idea board" for individual feedback at the end of the seminars) which could facilitate movement integration in everyday teaching.

Dina and Dina (2014) analysed the direct communication in PE classes. The main research methods included bibliographic study and observation, which formed the basis for the documentation necessary to understand the process of communication in association with the area of PE. The identification of forms of direct communication involved in Physical Education classes has led to the clarification of specific forms that are acquired in each of the parts of a class. Knowledge of specific forms of communication leads to the optimization of the communication process in the lesson and, in this context, to an increase in its quality and effectiveness. A lesson's efficiency is the result of the accurate identification of deficiencies in the communication process, so that factors generating a negative impact that can be remedied in a timely manner.

The results of the study Communication skills of a teacher and its role in the development of the students' academic success written by Khan et al. (2017) indicates that the majority of the students were of the opinion that they could learn well from those teachers who had good communication skills or who adopted good communication skills working both inside and outside the institution. Good communication skills strengthen the relationship among the students and teachers by improving the level of understanding among teacher and students. Effective teaching not only depends upon the knowledge base of the teacher, but it is also related to the method and style of teacher communication skills.

Kurkova and Scheetz (2016) wrote their study with the purpose to determine what communication and instructional techniques including coaching strategies were being implemented by coaches and physical education (PE) teachers working in residential or day schools for the deaf throughout the U. S. The results suggest that targeted and adapted communication strategies in PE and physical activities play an important role for individuals who are D/HH.

Regarding articles where the sample of examinees consisted of persons with disabilities, they mostly studied persons with autism and their communication skills. In an article written by Akamoglu et al. (2019) the authors suggest a few communication teaching strategies and describe the promotion of communication skills among children with disabilities where they can practice them during motor activities. They conclude that having a communication target in physical activities would probably result in new receptive and expressive skills for disabled children. Ostrosky et al. (2018) studied how children's literature could be used to support physical activity and readiness skills in preschool children with autism. Noticing the lack of movement in children's everyday lives, they argue that activities not primarily linked to movement should be used to enhance movement and consequently develop cognitive skills. They advocate the use of books in general, but especially interactive movement books, offer recommendations about the criteria which should be met in choosing them, give suggestions about the titles to choose, and give advice to both educators and parents on how to use them effectively.

Preja (2013) discussed the role of communication among athletes stating that their attitudes can be inferred from their posture and facial expression (which she defined as non-verbal communication). Among her findings, one is important for the

present research, and that is that good communication may lead to better performance of sports persons. She also concluded that communication is not an inborn skill and that it must be learned and practiced in order for a person to become better in it.

This introductory discussion shows that the number of research studies on the influence of movement on academic achievement in all school subjects and areas of study, and for all age groups, is very high. However, it is never enough to emphasize the importance of any form of movement for the physical and mental condition of a person so attention should be paid to promoting regular physical activity.

5.3 Analysis of existing curricula for the inclusion of movement into communication skills

The analysis of the inclusion of movement into communication skills curricula included ten (10) Croatian public and private universities: University of Zagreb, University of Rijeka, University of Split, Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, University of Zadar, Juraj Dobrila University of Pula, University of Dubrovnik, University of Slavonski Brod, University North and Vern University. All study programs were analysed considering relevant key words. The subjects which include movement and communication skills in foreign languages are mandatory in almost all study programs in Croatia – all study programs have PE (kinesiological culture) in their first and second year and a mandatory foreign language (any) in their first year. Movement as an additional subject can be found in acting studies. They are not primarily oriented to movement, but use movement as a form of expression and communication.

5.4 Methodology

In the common methodology aiming at the inclusion of travel writing, movement and nonverbal communication into teaching literacy and communication skills, movement is seen as a facilitator to teaching the other activities, namely travel writing and nonverbal communication (sign language). Since movement is not a primarily cognitive activity, but is focused on improving a person's motor skills and overall psycho-physical condition, it is important to emphasize that the activities which will be presented cannot be divided to suit the undergraduate and graduate level of study.

The following activities can be used at any level, but the content taught through them has to be adapted to match the teaching aims for the two levels. These activities are:

ACTIVITY 1 – "BUILD THE WHOLE PICTURE"

1. The teacher takes different pictures (the number of pictures determines the number of student teams).
2. The teacher cuts the pictures into four pieces and mixes all the pieces together.
3. Then he/she puts four random pieces in one envelope so that each student team gets an envelope with four pieces in it.
4. Each team has to put their picture together so they have to walk toward the other teams and ask for the missing piece, but they also have to negotiate by trading the piece they want with a piece the other team needs.
5. If a team wants a piece, but does not have a piece for the team which has the piece they want, they cannot carry on the trade but have to go to another team and see if they can trade a piece there.
6. The winner is the first team to form their whole picture.
7. Follow up: the teacher asks students questions about the strategies they employed to get the piece they needed and which sentences they used.
8. This activity can be used in all subjects which include pictures. For instance, in Science teaching (pictures of animals, plants, or other organisms), Art, languages (to revise vocabulary and negotiation expressions), mother tongue (to revise characters of books students have read, or parts of a story).

ACTIVITY 2 – "LISTEN, RUN AND DRAW"

1. Divide the students in a few groups.
2. Each group chooses a member who will be the "instructor."
3. The instructor gets instructions on a piece of paper describing a picture.
4. The instructor reads the instructions to the other members of his/her group who have to draw according to the instructions.
5. Members of the group take turns to draw (each instruction for one member), but the paper which they have to draw on is a few meters from them, so they have to run to it in turns, draw, and then run back to their group before the next member runs and draws according to the next instruction.

6. This task is assessed in two ways: first, according to the group who finished their picture first, and second, according to the accuracy of the picture (number of correctly drawn instructions).
7. This activity can be used in all subjects which include pictures. For instance, in Science teaching (pictures of animals, plants, or other organisms), Art, languages (to revise vocabulary), Mathematics (to revise 2D geometric shapes).

ACTIVITY 3 – "THE CAPTAINS AND THE MARINES"

This activity can be used in all subjects since it can revolve around any teaching material.

1. Divide students into as many groups as there are tasks – all groups get the same tasks.
2. Groups start to work on their task.
3. The first group to finish the task correctly becomes "the captain" and they have to give a physical activity assignment to the groups who did not finish their task as fast ("the marines"). For instance, the assignment can be to do jumping jacks for one minute, or to run around the classroom for two minutes, or to do 20 squats, etc.

ACTIVITY 4 – "THE WHITEBOARD SPIKE"

This activity is ideal as a true/false or correct/incorrect activity and can be used in all subjects.

1. The teacher writes true/false (correct/incorrect) on the left and right top side of the board.
2. Students are divided into two groups and they form a line.
3. They are instructed to pay attention to the statements the teacher is going to give and to try to remember them because they will need them in the end.
4. When the teacher gives a statement, the first student in the line has to run to the board and jump in order to touch (spike) the right answer – true if they agree with the teacher's statement, false if they do not.
5. This student goes to the back of the line while the following student who is now first in the line has to do the same with the teacher's next statement.

6. The winner is the group who has more correct spikes. (of course, there has to be a person who will write down the score).
7. In the end, to promote communication, the winner group takes a few minutes and tries to remember all the teacher's statement which they then repeat to the group who lost.

ACTIVITY 5 – "BROKEN PIECES"

1. Again, students are divided into groups.
2. Each group gets a text about a paragraph belonging to a topic (for instance Geography – one group gets a paragraph about African countries, one about climate, industry, agriculture, tourism, culture, etc.).
3. The groups have 5 minutes to study and discuss their topics.
4. Then, for instance, the "countries member" moves to the next group and in 5 minutes has to teach the other members everything he/she knows about the topic, then the "climate members" go each to one group and teach them about their topic.
5. This moving goes on until all groups are formed by members who know something about different topics.
6. In the end, each group writes on a piece of paper all they know about the topic (Africa, in this case).
7. The winning group are the ones who included the most details in their text.

Movement can also be used outside the classroom in order to reinforce memory. An example of such an activity can be as follows:

Take a walk along the main street in your town. Pay attention to the buildings you are passing by – are they public/state institutions, private companies, cultural/historical monuments, or religious institutions/monuments. When you find yourself in front of such institutions, do the following movements:

- Public/state institutions – turn around (360°)
- Private companies – do three half-squats
- Cultural/historical monuments – do three Jumping Jacks
- Religious institutions/monuments – do a forward bend

When you get back to the classroom, make a list of the buildings you remember seeing.

After the memorization part is complete, students can proceed with the writing task (travel writing), or with the description of the street they visited but without using words (non-verbal communication).

5.5 Conclusion

Considering the chapter devoted to the theoretical framework, i.e. to the literature dedicated to the research on the correlation between movement and communication skills, but also academic achievement in general, this monograph chapter offers examples of activities which engage students in physical activities. At the same time they do not represent a threatening challenge to teachers, not all of them physical education professionals, who will introduce them in their classes. The huge amount of scientific knowledge gained in this area supports the need of physical activity introduction in teaching other subject areas which will in the end contribute to better health and quality of life. In the frame of this project, the offered activities will lead to better retention of learned materials without the need of rote learning, to better communication skills inside and outside the classroom, and consequently to the improvement of work productivity in the students' present and future businesses.

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6 COMMUNICATION IN TOURISM: TOUR(IST) GUIDES, STORYTELLING AND THE DRAMMA MODEL

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This chapter discusses the significance of communication in business growth, particularly in the context of the tourism industry and in the profession of a tour(ist) guide as tour(ist) guides are seen as key figures in tourist communication, often referred to as "spokespersons," "educators," and "entertainers." They play a significant role in conveying correct information while incorporating engaging stories and facts to enhance the tourist experience. The chapter touches the topic of storytelling that has become increasingly important in tourism as it can bridge the gap between the present, past, and future, evoking strong emotions of tourists. In addition to that, the text discusses the DRAMMA model (that emphasizes the importance of detachment recovery, autonomy, mastery, meaning, and affiliation in leisure experience) and its influence on vacation-time happiness.

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6.1 Introduction

Communication has an impact on business growth (Verma et al., 2022). In fact, it has a central role in various business processes (Anantamula, 2015), and communication skills have been recognized as the crucial factors in all modern businesses (Wang et al., 2009; Plant & Slippers, 2015; Lim et al., 2016). Employers and companies are no longer interested in professionals who possess only specific skills and lack soft skills (Binsaeed et al., 2016). Thus, effective communication is a prerequisite of any business, and the foundation of the businesses in the service industry, especially in the area of tourism (Cuic Tankovic et al., 2022). In this chapter the profession of a tour(ist) guide will be highlighted as this profession is one of the more exposed professions in tourist communication. Tour(ist) guides provide information for tourists or visitors and they are responsible for conveying not only correct and relevant information, but also engaging facts and stories regarding the tour (Potočnik Topler, 2017; Potočnik Topler et al., 2017; Nuryadina & Luthfi, 2022).

6.2 Tour-ist guides *

Tour-ist guides are important actors in presenting attractions and destinations, thus, in their profession the communicative aspect is of the utmost importance (the knowledge of foreign languages, mastering of the trendy popular global discourse, the knowledge of their mother tongue and other communication skills) (Potočnik Topler et al., 2017).

Tour guides are referred to by other terms in literature. These include tourist guide, step on guides, city guides, interpreters, escorts, tour escorts and in some cases tour leaders and tour managers (Prakash & Chowdhary, 2010).

They are also often referred to as "health and safety inspectors," "spokespersons", "educators," "public speakers" and "entertainers". Tour-ist guides usually have a university degree and certification in the profession (however, this varies in different countries, sometimes high school education suffices), but they usually have more cultural capital and carry more responsibility than the average visitor.

Professions, providing tourism services, have agreed on common terms, used to describe facilities and services they offer. The standards for Tourism services-Travel agencies and tour operators terminology were prepared by tourism stakeholders and are included in the standard EN 13809:2003. The tourism professionals need to buy the standard in order to get the whole content. However, the web page of Professional Federation - FEG (European Federation of Tourist Guides Associations) offers some definitions. In the section 2.3.5 a tourist guide is described as "a person, who guides visitors in the language of their choice and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area, which person normally possesses an area - specific qualification usually issued and/or recognised by the appropriate authority" (FEG).

Thus, further on, in this chapter the term tourist guide or guide will be used (according to the standards of the profession).

What does a tourist guide do?

The job of a tourist guide is to engage the audience and move things along, and it is essential to recognise and engage people with acting skills in this field. They are familiar companions for tourists exploring a new area, providing them with multiple opportunities to gain new experiences and valuable insights. Recent research has focused on the subtleties of performances and scripts for tourist guides. Storytelling is anathema to many guides, but tourists feel more comfortable on guided tours and have a more positive experience. Researchers such as Wearing & Wearing (1996) and Richards (2006) have shown that tourists should be viewed as more than passive observers of their locations. They should be considered active, creative agents (Mossberg, 2007).

Tourist Guides are professional representatives of the destination

Governments at all levels have realised the importance of tourism as an intervention for achieving socio-economic-political goals (Prakash & Chowdhary, 2010). According to definition of a tourist guide profession mentioned in the EU standard EN 13809:2003, a tourist guide usually possesses the licence from the destination they represent, if the profession is regulated. The licence approves, the guide has passed a certain educational process (Lovrentjev, 2015), a training course organised

by a local authority or by a professional association as well as a test at the end of the training.

Regardless of the destination they represent, tourist guides need to follow the Code of Guiding Practice accepted by their professional International Federations (or European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations or World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations). For this chapter the most important are the first two codes: "The content the tourist guides represent needs to provide an objective understanding of the place visited, free from prejudice or propaganda. As well as ensuring that as far as possible, what is presented as fact is accurate, and that a clear distinction is made between fact and stories, legends, traditions, or opinions. (WFTGA).

Tourist guides are professionals and during the conducting the services they must be aware that they do not work on their own behalf, but are representing the destination (Lovrentjev, 2015). No matter in which direction they are going to develop the interpretation, both of the two above mentioned codes need to be followed.

Depending on the issuer of the licence, tourist guides need to, as a continuous professional development (regularly – in certain periods of time), improve their knowledge and skills. As tourism evolves and as tourists themselves become more demanding and experienced, there is a corresponding increase in tourist sophistication and in tourists who expect their guide to fulfil their various tour needs (Al-Okaily, 2021). The expectations of the customers as tourists change on a daily basis and tourist guides need to improve their ways of interpretation.

Interpretation

As per the definition of tourist guides profession stated in EU norms mentioned earlier in the chapter, the tourist guide's main task is to interpret the destination's heritage to the visitors. Tourist guides communicate the significance, values and stories of natural and cultural heritage to the visitors of the destination. The tourist guide interpretation is particularly important in the interpretation of cultural heritage: interpreting sites, objects, landscapes or traditions in a way that engages and educates the visitors, who became more receptive. The goal of a tourist guide's interpretation

is to enhance visitor's deeper understanding, appreciation and connection with the heritage of place visited. Tourist guides use various techniques such as storytelling, visual aids or interactive presentations to make a destination's experiences informative, meaningful, memorable and attractive (Ababneh, 2017) for visitors. Visitors with the help of this effective interpretation develop a sense of stewardship towards shared cultural and natural heritage and develop a stronger loyalty to the destination (Kuo et al., 2015).

Visitors and guides while interacting on site are involved in the so called co-creative process. While viewpoints and historical facts and truths are exchanged they enrich the experiences of the visitors and the stories of the guides (Ngo, 2015).

Tourist guides' interpretation should also aim to stimulate tourists' emotional thoughts, help them to find a meaning in the heritage site in connection to their own heritage and cultural identity, as well as to experience a personal meaning for human life through the comparison between the past and the present world (Io, 2012).

Ultimately, a successfully delivered interpretation helps to promote conservation of the sites (Reisinger & Steiner, 2006). Interpretive guided tours are an appropriate tool for influencing the visitor's attitudes and behaviours and hence achieving the goals of sustainable tourism (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013). The interpretation by a tourist guide needs to be in balance (Reisinger & Steiner, 2014). In addition to the guide's professional interpretation content, a sense of humour is essential. Tsai in his research noticed, that particularly older tourist guides need to improve their humour skills (Tsai, Wang, & Tseng, 2015).

Defining the guide as an interpreter

The tourism industry has seen an increase in demand for tours tailored to the interests, needs and preferences of the tour group members and tours that encourage active participation and provide interesting visual material. Sharing stories with others is something people do regularly, and guided walks can identify sites for the discovery of narrative motifs or narrated forms of knowledge in any environment (Ingold & Vergunst, 2008).

Guides should use contextual and ecological exercises to develop and communicate new perspectives to their visitors (Arnould et al., 1998). Being fluent in more than one language is an advantage in tourism, as tour-ist guides rely heavily on interpreters to impart knowledge to the tourists they guide (Cohen, 1985; Pond, 1993).

Studies on this topic are contradictory, but scholars use metaphors to describe tourist guides. They are called "professional communicators" by Scollon & Scollon (1995) due to the importance of communication in this field. Visitors can learn more about local culture, history and achievements by hearing exciting stories about these topics (Hansen & Mossberg, 2017). Weiler & Walker (2014) argue that guides must bridge the gap between textual and oral communication to provide the best possible service to their clients. In individual and small group tours, the tour guide spends much time face-to-face with each visitor, and interaction is essential for the success of both verbal and non-verbal communication. Destination competitive marketing is an efficient way to find unique, culturally relevant stories about specific places (Mossberg & Johansen, 2006). Companies often use actual and imaginary characters and events to tell their stories, leading to memorable events for visitors (Mossberg & Johansen, 2006; Mossberg, 2008). A few examples of popular storytelling destinations are Astrid Lindgren's World in Sweden, Norway's Maihaugen, Cardamom Town, Finland's Santa Clause Village, Moominworld, Denmark's European Mediaeval Festival and Tordenskjold Days (Olsson et al., 2016). Narratives can be used to organise and engage the different stakeholders of a destination and effectively communicate the essential values of the destination to visitors. Guidebook mediation is crucial to developing visitor experiences, as it helps the visitor move forward by picking out and explaining cultural idiosyncrasies that might otherwise go unnoticed or be misunderstood (Ooi, 2002). Visitors may want to feel that they have an intellectual or emotional stake in shaping the guided experience, so it is not the role of tour operators to leave these groups on their own but to help them find areas where they feel safe and can participate in the meaningful transformation of public space (Prebensen & Foss, 2011). As Beedie (2003) mentions, he uses a theatrical metaphor in which he considers tourists as actors and tourist guides as set, crew and scenery. These holidaymakers have the power to influence their trips and often do so (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Richards & Wilson, 2006). According to Binkhorst & Den Dekker (2009), guiding should go beyond choreography and allow tourists to share their ideas and feel that they have some influence on the experience (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009).

Defining the guide as a storyteller

The ability to make things come alive through narratives is essential for a tourist guide. However, Weiler and Black (2015) claim that examining the tourist guide's position as performer, storyteller, and narrator is conceptually similar to interpretation. Fine & Spear (1985) considered tours as plays and sought to understand better the process by which guides create and deliver their performances. Tourist guides are in high demand but must be dedicated to finding work in this field. They must engage with consumers successfully, tell stories, and translate into different languages (Scott et al., 2010). Guidebooks and unofficial photos are essential for understanding a destination's image, as they influence visitors' impressions more than official images (Selby et al., 2004). Marketing via the internet is expanding rapidly and has a global reach, and to meet the growing need for stories, interpreters are needed. New York tourist guides can present the city's history in a way that reads like a novel or plays out like a film while learning something simultaneously. Arnould et al. (1998) report that the TORE (THEME, ORGANISED, RELEVANT, ENJOYABLE) method was used to design the walk script.

Visitors can benefit from a deeper understanding of their surroundings, local history and ecology through the interpretations and stories of an expert guide (Beck & Cable, 2011). Bruner (1986) and others disagree that a compelling story must be based on actual events. However, Bruner (1986) argues that a well-told story can take the melancholy out of a boring cultural practice and turn it into something more interesting. Bruner also argues that the concept of self is a linguistically and socially created fiction that reflects the person in question and the world in which they find themselves. Language is essential for human beings to form mental representations of themselves (Bruner, 1986). Autobiographies tend to follow predictable story arcs, but the ability to rewrite one's past in the face of tragedy is more important. Guided walks have the potential for a story, and critical locations are often marked on the tourist map. Johnston (1990) argued that stories of places give them meaning. Tourists are more likely to return to a place if they can hear the same stories from generation to generation. Stories from literature, films and the written word can be used in a sales presentation to leave a better impression than historical facts (Reijnders, 2011). Storytelling can also be used to market experiences, as tourist

guides use words to transform the reality of an ordinary house or street into the dramatic reality of a famous monument (Chronis, 2012, 445; Fine & Spear, 1985).

The Role of Autoethnographical Writing in the Profession of a Tourist guide

Autoethnography is a research method and practice in which the researcher actively engages with their life experience through observation, recording, diary keeping and reflection. It is a relatively new method of ethnographic study that has been dramatically advanced by pioneers such as Carolyn Ellis and Art Bochner (Edwards, 2021). It can be very helpful for tourist guides when preparing content for their tours. Early studies in ethnography sometimes relied on subjective impressions of the environment, and these early outliers are congruent with contemporary autoethnographic techniques (Reed-Danahay, 2002). Autoethnography research is conducted to better understand culture and interpersonal relationships in many settings, such as communities, organizations and families (Schmid, 2019; Lahman, 2021). It focuses on personal experiences of loss, for example, through grief and workplace bullying (Pheko, 2018). The best way to communicate a narrative is to have a system in place before the story can be told, as we have little power over time and place. 'There is nothing we can do to change history around us, no matter how much it may affect us' (Douglas & Carless, 2013, 84). Autoethnography is a form of self-reflection that can be done through intervention techniques, grammatical norms, and academic research (Jackson & McKinney, 2021). 'Scholars today have the power to resist oppression, discrimination, and loneliness because they all share a common ground' (Diversi & Moreira, 2017, 41). 'Sharing narratives about one's culture has a purpose beyond academic research. Autoethnography is a form of qualitative enquiry that uses the researcher's cultural upbringing as a starting point. It emphasizes first-person narratives and familiarity with one's social behaviour (Pankowska, 2022). Sparkes (2020) argues that there are two types of representations of social science in film: scientific and realistic, and similar methods can be used to convey a human feeling. A well-known author is a unifying factor in many different genres of writing. Like arts-based research, performance-based research can create an experience for the target audience. According to Barone & Eisner (2012, 20), 'artists and arts-based researchers are the only ones who can focus on social problems through their innovative work'. Autoethnography requires story development, narrative representation, and complex connections between everyday life and creative practice (Douglas & Carless, 2013). It is most effective when the

stories are exciting and thought-provoking, and researchers using trauma research methods may find it difficult to recall specific events (Anderson & Glass-Coffin, 2013). Ellis & Bochner (2000) argue that autoethnography involves many levels of consciousness that connect the individual and the whole.

Erickson (1986) suggests there are different methods of communication. Autoethnographers use an idiosyncratic style of sense-making to engage their audience in contemplative dialogue (Humphreys, 2005), and Rosen (1991, p. 2) states that 'ethnographers study others to learn about themselves'. Autoethnographers believe this technique allows writers to look inside themselves and engage their audience in contemplative dialogue through their writing or performance. At the same time, Heidegger (1962) argued that we must participate in a process that has already begun. Autoethnographic research focuses on first-person narratives and anecdotes and is used by academics to describe and evaluate their encounters with different cultural ideas, behaviours and perceptions. This article uses this method, with an auto-ethnographic contribution by the researcher.

Bochner (2000, 270) argues that the 'search for meaning gives life its creative and poetic elements, which show themselves in self-expressions'. Existential stories are more appropriate than academic tomes and autoethnographic data can be collected through diaries or interviews (Bochner, 2000). Reliving the past can help bring to light past experiences, possessions, places, actions and feelings (Chang, 2008). The past can be traced back through memorabilia such as photographs, documents and old newspapers (Chang, 2008). Stewart (2021) argues that autoethnographic memories often focus on what suddenly disappears or changes. Some people may be unable to process memories due to pain, while others try to regain stability. An intuitive method can be used against imagined states of consciousness (Stewart, 2021). Autoethnography is a process, strategy, or way of thinking researchers use to record and explain their findings. Narratives and stories focus on the backstory and experiences of the protagonists and are often the most effective way to convey the author's feelings and thoughts. Narrating an experience or event is often the only way for the audience to understand what the narrator is going through (Murphy-Hollies & Bortolotti, 2021). The narrator's ability to see, reflect and interpret, as well as their perspective and character, play a role in how faithfully the narrative reflects reality. Sharing life experiences helps people understand their place in the world and present an idealized version of themselves to society. Adams et al., (2013) emphasize

that a researcher's story must be public, fact-based, conditioned, and reflexive (Adams et al., 2013). Autoethnography is an effective method for academic studies, as it considers the socio-cultural context in which the research is conducted and integrates the individuality and experiences of the researcher into the research process (Ellis et al., 2011; Wall, 2008). It focuses on how researchers interact with each other rather than on research outcomes (Pelias, 2003; Ellis, 2004). Ellis (2004) recognized in early 1991 that autoethnography allowed us to include our perspectives and experiences in research and convey meaning to others. It is a self-knowledge method involving observation and analysis of one's life. Researchers need to be good storytellers, and autoethnography can help the human mind, but there are no specific guidelines for writing an autoethnographic paper (Wolcott, 1994; Ellis, 2004).

Nevertheless, autoethnography has become an essential tool in qualitative research, with researchers forming partnerships with people they observe, think about or interview. Recent studies look at expanding author-academic collaborations by developing innovative techniques and seeking other non-academic collaborators (Adams et al., 2013). Autoethnography is a fascinating new way for authors and scholars to record the complexity of their lives, and Adams et al. (2013) argue that it should be used to tell the future story (Anderson & Glass-Coffin, 2013; Douglas & Carless 2013; Dutta & Basu, 2013).

Using the DRAMMA model to analyse visitors' emotions within tourism experiences.

Describing the DRAMMA factors

Tourist well-being is a crucial factor in consumer satisfaction with tourism products and services and is an essential theme in promotional materials to attract visitors (Vada et al., 2020; Hwang & Lee, 2019; Sirgy et al., 2007; Nikjoo et al., 2021). Studies on visitor experience and satisfaction have increased, with psychological needs for autonomy, competence and belonging linked to eudaimonic and hedonic forms of well-being (Ryan & Martela, 2016; Vada et al., 2020). Hedonism is pursuing happiness, pleasure, relaxation, escape, and conditioning to experience personal development, well-being, and longevity (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Aristippus of Cyrene used philosophical principles to explore the idea of hedonism as the greatest

happiness in life (Bradburn, 1969; Watson et al., 1988; Waterman, 2008; Diener et al., 2010; Packer & Gill, 2017; Voigt, 2017). Hedonism involves the pursuit of happiness, pleasure, relaxation, escape, and conditioning (Voight, 2017). Eudaemonia is an act of self-expression that considers the ideals of human flourishing and the subjectively good cognitive and emotional states that result from it (Waterman, 2011; Laing & Frost, 2017). To achieve eudaemonia, one must make the most of their abilities and virtues and balance their abilities and actions (Waterman, 2011; Voight, 2017).

Huta & Waterman (2014) embraced four main eudaemonic viewpoints.

1) development (self-actualization and personal goals).
2) significance (purpose of life).
3) superiority (increasing expectations for one's behaviour).
4) Originality (connection with our inner selves).

The DRAMMA model's psychological underpinnings, such as Detachment Recovery, are essential for understanding how it affects leisure-time happiness (Newman et al., 2014). Recovery experiences aid and decrease stress, contributing to psychological wellness. Stress is detrimental to well-being due to its negative effects on mood, physical health, and energy levels (Khadirnavar et al., 2020; Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). The DRAMMA model includes a second psychological factor, autonomy, which refers to an individual's freedom to engage in a particular leisure activity (Newman et al., 2014). Higher levels of positive affect and lower levels of negative emotions are observed in those who report high levels of autonomy (Burton et al., 2019; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Finally, mastery is a concept that describes the extent to which a recreational activity pushes a person's boundaries and allows them to grow as a player (Newman et al., 2014). The DRAMMA model includes the concept of "meaning", which is the process by which a person acquires something of significance or value in life during leisure time (Gould et al., 2008). This can help foster positive feelings, solid self-esteem, meaningful relationships, and new educational opportunities (Bailey & Fernando, 2012; Iwasaki, 2007; Iwasaki, 2008; Newman et al., 2014). The final DRAMMA paradigm emphasizes the importance of affiliation, which is the ability to form social relationships through leisure experiences. However, increased work intensity and social acceleration can also threaten workers' health and well-being (Holland et al., 2018; Leversen et al., 2012;

Ulferts et al., 2013). Workers' mental and physical fatigue can increase due to longer working hours and work-related stress, leading to longer recovery times, depression, and even heart attacks and strokes (Theorell et al., 2015; Van Veldhoven & Broersen, 2003). To reduce work stress, leisure time and subjective experiences are essential, such as after work, weekends, and holidays (Bennett et al., 2016; Kono & Wada, 2017; Sonnentag et al., 2008). Psychological needs are important for workers' optimal performance, as they are better able to cope with the ups and downs of the workplace and may find their job less stressful as they grow (Deci et al., 2001; Van den Broeck et al., 2016; Van Hoof & Geurts, 2014). Moreover, people's emotional needs are met during leisure time, allowing them to replenish and restore physical and mental energy. A recent diary study found that satisfaction with home skills can compensate for a lack of satisfaction at work (Newman et al., 2014; Sirgy et al., 2007; Van Hoof & Geurts, 2014; Hewett et al., 2017). The DRAMMA model is the first concept to directly link leisure to satisfying psychological needs, demonstrating that employees can perform better when their needs are met. Psychological needs are essential for the choice and pursuit of leisure activities, and the DRAMMA model is the first concept to link leisure to the satisfaction of psychological needs directly (Porter et al., 2010; Vogel et al., 2016; Newman et al., 2014). Newman et al., (2014) found that leisure time spent satisfying psychological needs such as detachment, relaxation, autonomy, mastery, meaning and belonging is associated with higher levels of well-being. Detachment from work means being able to divert one's thoughts from worries. Relaxation is a state of psychological and physiological calm, accompanied by low activation and pleasant effect (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007). Recovery studies have found that relaxation is a distinct concept that contributes to optimal functioning. Tired workers can recover passively by distancing themselves from work and trying to relax and return their minds and body to homeostasis (Bennett et al., 2016, 2018; Ten Brummelhuis & Trougakos, 2014). Autonomy is central to leisure, while mastery is a sense of mastery and task proficiency. Searching for meaning and feeling a strong emotional connection to others are related experiences (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Steger et al., 2009). Touch and imagination are essential for DRAMMA experiences, and paid time off can positively impact employee health, happiness and job satisfaction (Kühnel et al., 2012; Chen et al., 2013). De Bloom et al., (2014) have extended the work of Frederickson (2003) and argue that employees' creativity increases during leave due to the focus on positive experiences. Positive influences increase people's ability to focus, take initiative and think creatively, reinforcing feelings of belonging, mastery, significance and being

part of a group (Fredrickson, 2001, 2003). The following pages provide additional theoretical and empirical data supporting the broad relationship between DRAMMA experiences and creativity. DRAMMA experiences strongly relate to creativity, as self-determination is essential for self-realization. Amabile et al., (1996) argue that individual responsibility is key to creating an inspiring environment. Independent support has been linked to increased creativity, with internal reinforcement manifested in coping activities when one acts independently (Greenberg, 1992; McLachlan & Hagger, 2010). Events and environments that favour autonomy increase creativity, according to Deci & Ryan (1987). Holidays are an excellent opportunity for individuals to try new things and test their limits, as they feel more comfortable and independent. This feeling of mastery is achieved when ability and challenge are optimally matched, leading to a sense of accomplishment (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Noy, 2004). Pride in one's achievements can boost self-esteem, while genuine leisure can lead to self-actualization (Binnewies et al., 2010). Stebbins (2017) and Yao (1991) argue that self-enrichment, self-renewal, and an accurate conception of oneself are essential for the creative process. High levels of creative endeavour have been linked to increased identity and self-esteem, and the ability to receive and interpret information in unusual ways is enhanced by mastery experiences (Goldsmith & Matherly, 1988; Yeh et al., 2012). Studies with people from different cultures suggest that the adaptability of the mind is enhanced when one is forced to deal with an unexpected situation (Ritter et al., 2016). For this reason, we believe it is important for people to learn to face new situations while on holiday, as we believe this promotes creativity. Travelling is a great way to expand a person's knowledge of the world and its history and think more about oneself through activities such as meditation and rest. It can also improve the lives of those around (Stebbins, 2005; Newman et al., 2014). According to Spreitzer et al., (2005), creativity requires the ability to develop and learn and can be increased by evoking strong good feelings. Attachment is the desire for and receipt of affection (Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Newman et al. (2014) argue that people's happiness is enhanced by a sense of belonging to a community (Braja-ganec et al., 2011). Studies have shown that a good mood favours creative action (Amabile, 1996), and travel and creative projects are a good way to connect with someone in the long term (Lehto et al., 2009). Group travel can stimulate creativity, while positive psychology suggests that time to rest and relax is essential for a healthy life (Diener & Biswas-Diener, 2008). DRAMMA analysis of walkers' emotions and moods supports the theory that leisure improves subjective well-being (Newman et al., 2013). Research shows that

Subjective Well-Being [SWB] is not only achieved by engaging in various leisure activities, from socializing with friends and family to participating in sports and games (Menec & Chipperfield, 1997; Yarnal et al., 2008). It also includes media such as television, movies, music and even travel to new and exciting destinations (Yarnal et al., 2008; Mitas, 2010). Distraction can lead to work-related stress and fatigue due to high demands on workers' minds and bodies (Newman et al., 2013). According to both Newman et al., (2014) and Schaufeli et al., (2008), working hours can harm subjective well-being, so it is important to recover and give the body time to regenerate (Etzion et al., 1998; Meijman et al., 1998). Mental health may not improve during time off from work, but it is always important to use stimulating methods to switch off mentally and physically from work (Sonnentag & Fritz, 2007; Cropley & Milward Purvis, 2003). Self-determination theory (SDT) emphasizes the importance of DRAMMA characteristics, such as motivation and visible freedom, for the link between SWB and leisure. According to (Kuykendall et al., 2015) and (Ryan & Deci, 2000), people with control over their lives can keep a clear head and block out negative emotions. Combined with other basic psychological needs such as self-esteem, opportunities for growth and development, and a sense of security, autonomy emerges as a core human need (Sheldon et al., 2001). Self-reflection and a sense of personal identity often emerge during leisure time, especially when that time is spent helping others, as in youth work.

Participating in meaningful pursuits can enhance one's well-being, and relaxation requires a positive mindset (Iwasaki, 2007). Satisfaction with life's experiences is essential for emotional flourishing (Porter, 2009; Fredrickson (2001). Poets, philosophers and travellers valued leisure before Henry David Thoreau connected it to happiness. Aristotle ranked leisure higher than work due to its relief from stress and the happiness it brings (Aristotle, 1998). The widespread consensus that satisfying one's sense of fun helps promote subjective well-being (SWB) has contributed to the rapid increase in travel, even in a weak economy (Newman et al., 2014). Unfortunately, the DRAMMA paradigm has been largely ignored by researchers outside of psychology, sociology and nursing. An article by Newman et al., (2014) and another by Laing & Frost (2017) refer to the DRAMMA model in their discussions of women's travel and self-transformation in Italy. However, there is a lack of research on the DRAMMA model and its impact on tourists' emotional well-being during a package holiday, but it is vital that tourist guides are familiar with the model.

6.4 Conclusion

The profession of a tour guide includes a range of different techniques and methods to provide guidance, information and assistance during their services and tours. It is worth emphasising that the specific communication methods used by tourist guides may vary depending on the audience, the location, type of tour, group size, language requirements, and available resources. In this chapter, attention was focussed on interpretation, storytelling and the DRAMMA model as parts of effective communication for tourist guides to ensure that tourists have a meaningful and enjoyable experience during their tours.

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7 COMMUNICATION COMPETENCES OF A TOURIST GUIDE AS PRESENTED IN THE FILMS *MY LIFE IN RUINS AND JUNGLE CRUISE*

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Tourist guides play a vital role in tourism by forming one of the most important professions in the tourism industry. This chapter presents the tasks and competences of the guides as shown in the selected films My Life in Ruins and Jungle Cruise and highlights the communication competences that they must have to meet the demands and expectations of tourists. For this purpose, we analyzed the selected characters' communication competences through content analysis and presented our findings. However, since the assessment of the development of communication competences should not only rely on fictional characters, we also conducted semi-structured interviews with professional tourist guides, which gave us a broader and more realistic picture of the expected communication competences.

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7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we present the research prepared by Tadej Nered as part of his diploma thesis under the mentorship of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Jasna Potočnik Topler, where we analyzed the profession of tourist guides focused on their representation (the main focus is put on their communication competences) in two films - *My Life in Ruins* (2009) and *Jungle Cruise* (2021).

Why the profession of tourist guide? Because their work is vital in being the first contact of the traveler with the destination. As a result, it mostly depends on guides whether the visitors will feel welcome, how they will experience the destination and the trip, whether the entire experience will remain in their fond memory, and whether they will ever return to the destination in the future (Association of Tourist Guides of Slovenia - Združenje turističnih vodnikov Slovenije (ZTVS), n.d.). Although their main task seems simple at first glance, guides hide a lot of knowledge, abilities, skills, and personality behind the scenes. One of the many is communication, with which they fulfill their duties to tourists who have volunteered their hard-earned money to escape from everyday life. As a result, tourists have certain expectations, and the guide should ensure that a group of people enjoy their vacation.

According to the definition drawn up in 2003 by the World Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (WFTGA, 2022), a tourist guide guides visitors in a chosen language and interprets an area's cultural and natural heritage. This person usually has qualifications for a specific location, usually issued and recognized by the relevant authority. Tourist guides are ambassadors of the country and thus play an essential role in creating unforgettable experiences for tourists, mainly because of their direct connection with them (Jahwari, Sirakaya-Turk & Altintas, 2016). Guides are promoters of the country or destination and important interpreters of its natural, cultural, and UNESCO heritage at home and abroad (ZTVS, n.d.). Le Nguyen (2015) also adds that tourist guides are the first employees in the tourism industry, who play an essential role in attracting tourists to a destination, and that the tour guide service is the main component of the tourism services offered by such companies. The author also notes that providing quality services to tourists by guides is necessary for business success and the destination's image.

Based on what has been written, the reputation and the success of a tourist destination or tourism depend on the quality of the services of tourist guides, their knowledge, professionalism, ingenuity, practicality, and skills. In addition, current research shows that tourist guides contribute their share to the destination's image, marketing, and branding. To carry out their essential work, professional tourist guides must have, among many other qualities, effective communication skills, which they must constantly improve due to their daily contact with tourists from different cultural, ethnic, social, religious and other backgrounds. Globalization and the shortening of distances through transportation and information technology developments are increasing the frequency of face-to-face interaction. Still, people from different cultures can only interact successfully in today's world if they maintain polished and sharpened communication skills. These tourist guide competences can increase tourist satisfaction and destination loyalty (Jahwari et al., 2016).

7.2 Research questions and methods used

Within the research, we established the following research questions:

- How necessary is knowledge of speech culture and mastery of rhetoric and interpretation for a tourist guide?
- What non-verbal communication skills distinguish an excellent tourist guide?
- How are the characters of the tourist guide in the films *My Life in Ruins* and *Jungle Cruise* presented from the point of view of communication?
- Regarding communication skills, which character makes a better tourist guide and consequently a better base for future tourist guides, and why?

Qualitative research methods have been used in both theoretical and empirical parts, answering questions about experience, meaning, and perspective that cannot usually be counted, measured, or expressed numerically. Qualitative research methods include (Hammarberg, Kirkman and de Lacey, 2016):

- Focus groups on investigating beliefs, attitudes, and concepts of normative behaviour,

- semi-structured interviews to find in-depth information on the selected topic or with key informants to obtain basic information or an institutional perspective,
- in-depth interviews to understand the situation, experiences, or events from a personal point of view, and
- content analysis to become familiar with extended or private knowledge.

Qualitative researchers defend the integrity of their work in different ways – the evaluation criteria are (Hammarberg et al., 2016):

- reliability – the method of implementation, procedural decisions, and details of data acquisition and management must be consistent with the purpose of the research;
- credibility – research results must be recognizable to people who share similar experiences;
- applicability – research findings can be integrated into contexts outside the study situation and must be relevant and valuable in experience;
- consistency – given the same data, other researchers would find similar patterns and get similar results.

In the research, we used the methods of description, content analysis, and semi-structured interviews. The latter is characterized by open-ended questions and a topic list in which broader areas of interest and sometimes sub-questions are defined. Predetermined topics can be derived from the literature, prior research, or primary data collection methods. The list of issues is usually adjusted and refined early in the data collection process as the interviewer becomes familiar with the area. In different interviews, the emphasis on different sets of questions or individual questions can differ (Busetto, Wick and Gumbinger, 2020). We interviewed six professional tourist guides from diverse backgrounds and various Slovenian agencies, as this number is perfect for quickly determining the communication skills that professional guides possess in the time allotted for the interviews. The findings thus show the communication skills that tourist guides have developed in practice, what skills they should have according to the literature review in the theoretical part, and how realistically the skills are presented in the selected films. Namely, for a qualitative evaluation of the communication skills of fictional film characters, it makes sense to

include a view from practice obtained by the interviews. With this, the interviews allowed a comparison between theory and practice.

After completing the film content analysis, we used the evaluation method to assess which character has better-developed communication skills, and based on general assumptions, formed a certain conclusion (Dictionary, 2021) and deductively concluded what kind of example the two film characters represent to existing tourist guides who would like to improve their guiding, and to newcomers to the world of tourist guiding.

7.3 Competences and communication of a tourist guide

The competences that guides must master to perform their work are related to different work areas. The most frequently exposed competences in the articles are knowledge of the field, empathy, charisma and authenticity, adaptability, resourcefulness, punctuality, and organization. Effective communication is the most repeated skill, often divided in more detail and defined individually.

In its simplest form, the concept of communication can be described as the transfer of meaning from one person to another or many people, and it can be shown as a simple triangle consisting of a sender, a message in a particular context, and a receiver (Suardhana, Nitiasih & Putra, 2013). Various models have been developed to analyze the communication process. Still, one of the most famous models is the Shannon-Weaver model of communication, which Warren Weaver and Claude Shannon developed in 1948. They developed communication model theory to describe communication between sender and receiver. The model, divided into six smaller elements, applies to almost all types of communication (Dickinson, 2022):

- sender – the person who has the information to be transmitted,
- encoder – a person or device that converts a message into a signal that can be transmitted from the sender to the recipient,
- channel – a medium that transmits information from the source to the receiver,
- noise - disturbances that occur during the transmission of a message from the sender to the receiver,

- decoder – receiving point where the signal is converted into a message that can be deciphered,
- receiver – the endpoint of the communication process.

The original Shannon-Weaver model was complemented by Norbert Wiener, who added feedback as the seventh element - the receiver's response to the sender. With this, he responded to criticism of the model that it is one-way communication. This addition to the model changed the communication process from linear to cyclical (Dickinson, 2022).

Communication is divided into verbal and nonverbal, with oral being defined as communicating with words and limited to language (Suardhana et al., 2013). However, Bansal (n.d.) describes non-verbal communication as communication we transmit without speaking or words. Tourist guides actively use both forms of communication in their work, where communication skills refer to the ability to explain roles and relationships, such as tourist attractions, historical backgrounds, or stories. These skills aim to educate tourists and entertain and promote awareness of the conservation and value of the attractions. More importantly, the tourist guide uses techniques to grab the tourists' attention even before revealing the critical information they want to show. As the guides are - as already mentioned - ambassadors of the destination, they must be well educated and able to tell the story accurately, and it is even better that they express it in a way that arouses satisfaction in the tourists. Communication skills, therefore, should be taken seriously (Chanwanakul, 2021).

7.4 The Role of Interpretation

One of the communication competences is interpretation, which often appears in tourist guiding. In tourism, interpretation can be described as an educational activity that aims to reveal the meanings and relationships of the places tourists visit to what they see and do. Although the profession of a tourist guide seems relatively new, this is not entirely true, as tourist guiding dates back to the time of ancient Greece and ancient Rome, where there were specialists called "interpreters". These were people who, for a fee, interpreted the history of certain cities and areas to small groups of people or individuals who were passing through (Potočnik Topler et al. 2017).

Brito and Carvalho (2022) note that the quality of interpretation distinguishes tourist guides. Indeed, in their 2012 study, tourists who travel with a guide claimed that although these professionals have many different, critical, and complementary roles, interpretation of the trip's content is undoubtedly the most vital skill. From the late 1970s to now, there have been many changes in tourism regarding the motivation and experience of tourists, and in this context, guides must constantly adapt to new trends. Today, a much broader, deeper, and more complex knowledge of heritage interpretation is required to meet the needs of the highly informed 21st-century tourist. They also name another group of tourist guides – interpretive guides – which they define as guides who provoke people's curiosity and interest by connecting the attraction with the participants' knowledge, experience, background, and values.

When satisfying needs during leisure time, the DRAMMA model should be mentioned, which includes six psychological needs that connect leisure time with better well-being (Kujanpää et al., 2021):

- detachment – mental disconnection from work-related thoughts and tasks;
- relaxation – psychobiological unwinding in combination with low activation and strong positive influence;
- autonomy – the feeling of control over life, actions, and choices is an essential component of free time;
- mastery – experiencing expertise and skill in tasks that a person deals with in their free time;
- meaning – a sense of purpose and meaning in life and activities;
- affiliation – the feeling of close emotional connection with people.

In the DRAMMA model, meaningful experiences during leisure time are essential to linking leisure time to subjective well-being. Travel is undoubtedly one of the most common ways of spending free time, and quality experiences substantially impact people's satisfaction. A high-quality experience is ensured, among other things, by a high-quality interpretation.

Weiler and Ham (2022) note that the tourist experience should create an intellectual, emotional, and even spiritual connection between people and places, with interpretation being the key to establishing this connection. These authors also argue

that a guide can and should play a key role in facilitating clients' understanding and appreciation of natural and cultural phenomena. They also prove that the application of the principles of interpretation, which the guide must use as a way of meeting the needs and expectations of all group members, is an essential element of tourist management, and they define five of them:

- Interpretation is not teaching in the academic sense.
- Interpretation must be pleasant for visitors.
- The interpretation must be relevant to the visitors.
- Interpretation should be well organized so that visitors can easily follow them.
- Interpretation must have a motive, not just a theme.

Another definition of the interpretation effect was written in his work by El-Menshawy (2016), who summarized the words of Cohen from 1985, who defined the interpretation effect with the term "intercultural mediation" and explained it as the translation of foreign and unknown elements of the host culture into a cultural idiom, which is close to the guest. Prakash and Chowdhary (2010) express practical interpretation as "the ability to explain by creating mental images," for which the guide, as the main speaker needs good speaking skills.

Speaking skills are also called rhetorical skills. Rhetoric, also called classical rhetoric, originates from ancient Greece and has been preserved in this form until today, at least in Western civilization. Although rhetoric is often mistakenly equated with good speaking, it is the art of persuasion at its core. Although oratory existed in that space long before that – it was then a public performance with a speech on a particular occasion, the purpose of which was to convince the audience in one way or another. Rhetoric as an independent skill began to appear in the 5th century BC when an intellectual movement called sophistry appeared, whose representatives significantly influenced the development of rhetorical theory and practice and thus provided the basis for Aristotle, who is considered the founder of rhetorical theory. His work is a systematic division and definition of rhetorical skill within the framework of some new categories, which are still felt today (Žmavc, n.d.).

The fruits of his work are, among other things, the canons of classical rhetoric, i.e., the primary operations of speech formation – how to find material for speech (inventio), how to arrange it meaningfully (dispositio), which words to choose for them (elocutio), how to remember the material successfully (memoria), and how to present it as convincingly as possible (actio). By defining rhetoric as the art of persuasion, Aristotle also introduced the division of two fundamental methods of influence to get one's points of view accepted by listeners. These are external and internal means of persuasion; the difference concerns speaking skills. External means of persuasion exist independently of rhetoric; the speaker supports or justifies his arguments with them. The speaker creates internal means of persuasion each time anew for a given rhetorical situation. They are further divided into three types - ethos (depending on the character of the speaker or his reputation and credibility with the audience), pathos (those that evoke certain moods in listeners), and logos (based on proof) (Žagar et al., 2018).

However, for tourist guides to successfully convey their material to listeners, they must master the currently popular global discourse, which means having a well-developed speech culture, since speech is the essential act of any trip (Potočnik Topler, 2017). Regardless of the language in which the guide leads the group, her or his linguistic competence must include the use of appropriate vocabulary, correct grammar, clear pronunciation of sentences, intonation, respect for punctuation, and use of proper language level with tourists (Chanwanakul, 2021).

For this reason, we chose the film *My Life in Ruins* to analyze the portrayal of a tourist guide's profession and communication competences. The film stars Georgia (played by Nia Vardalos), a Greek-American teacher who travels to Greece to teach classical Greek history at a local college. But she was fired due to budget cuts and is forced to work as a tourist guide, making her feel like she has hit rock bottom. Later, her boss Maria tells her she has received negative feedback from tourists who say she is boring. On the other hand, Georgia describes tourists as incompetent, as they seem more interested in souvenirs than in learning about history and culture. But along the way, seasoned traveler Irv helps her understand why she cannot connect with the group and shows her how to be more attractive to people and have fun in her work. As a result, Georgia finds her *kefi* (a Greek word that means spirit, passion, or joy in translation - to find your *kefi*, at least for whatever you do, you need to know

your job well, constantly struggle, adapt, and above all to enjoy it and never give up) which makes tourists start to enjoy the trip under her leadership.

The protagonist of *Jungle Cruise*, Frank Wolff (played by Dwayne Johnson), who offers cruises on the Amazon River and the Amazon jungle in Brazil, seemingly has no problem with monotony. Indeed, he embellishes his voyages with false theatrical dangers and (unfortunately for the passengers) banal puns, making him a better example of a tourist guide at first glance.

While Georgia presents a bad example of a tour guide at the beginning of the film - one who does not do her job with heart and extreme zeal and is dull as a result - she changes entirely throughout the film and ends up being a guide who makes trips exciting and fun. On the other hand, there is Frank, who shows clearly at the beginning of the film what kind of guide he is and maintains this leadership style throughout. In each film, the character of the tourist guide is presented in a slightly different light, but on the other hand, they have certain similarities. This prompted us to think about how realistically the profession of a tourist guide is presented in the film compared to what it should be like in real life, especially in terms of communication. Therefore, we will examine which character is a better starting point for establishing how to train future tourist guides or determine what they can learn from the portrayal of characters.

Jamet (2017) notes that Eurostat statistics say that Europeans most often traveled for a maximum of three nights in 2015 and that a resident of the European Union made 2.3 trips in the same year. The most frequent travelers are members of Generation X, who travel three to four times a year, excluding business trips (Gaytravel, n.d.). In general, Europeans travel more than Americans, and there are many reasons for this, one of them being that residents of European Union countries have four weeks of paid vacation per year. In comparison, other countries may have two to three weeks (Discover Hervey Bay, n.d.). Although many would certainly like to travel much more than they currently do, this is often only possible for several reasons. Throughout the year, people would like to spend about 30-45 days traveling, starting with two trips of the mentioned length, and should also include some shorter (three- to four-day) trips in their life (Brumelis, 2023), in a total of which we exclude business trips.

On average, people do not travel so much. However, a study by the LG company, published by the New York Post, reported that the average individual spends more than 78,000 hours in a lifetime in front of the television. During this time, a person watches an average of 3,639 films and 31,507 episodes (Salo, 2019). This number of hours is even more relevant if it is converted into a percentage based on the life expectancy of the average Slovenian, which is approximately 80 years. The calculation results show that people spend a good tenth of their lives watching movies and series on television, which makes a little less than two and a half hours of viewing content daily. However, this number was slightly higher in the last three years, when the world came to a standstill due to the covid-19 epidemic, and many people were forced to stay at home. So, we can say with a clear conscience that watching video content occupies a specific part of every individual's day or that people are exposed to it daily. At the same time, professional tourist guides only a few times a year, if at all, and the statistics also confirm this.

Ramsay (2018), an online blogger, wondered in one of his blogs why watching movies and series is so attractive to people or why it is more attractive than doing housework, cooking, and hanging out with friends. He concluded that people watch movies to feel and escape reality. Movies take us to another time, place, or situation that we may never be able to experience. The emotions we feel when watching a film keep us returning for more (Ramsay, 2018).

Gabriel (2021), a professor of psychology at the College of the University of Chicago, offers a possible answer as he argues that the cinema is a space dedicated to collective behaviors that are unique compared to everyday life and, therefore, sacred. These sacred spaces are separated from the mundane and profane, where powerful, transformative events occur for individuals as part of the community. Different rules apply in these spaces and bring different ways of relating to society, ancestors, time, and fundamental concepts of meaning and significance. He calls the film a human act of mythical proportions.

Watching movies is not only a hobby or entertainment that we can enjoy when we have a free moment from life's obligations, but it can also be beneficial for a person's mental health. Some positive effects of watching movies are mood improvement, relaxation, stress reduction, and motivation. Films can stimulate social and cultural reflection, and they can also improve interpersonal relationships. In this case, the

person is most influenced by the film's educational function, in which the viewer treats the film as something inspiring. Watching movies is also sometimes used as part of psychotherapy, where we are exposed to a character who may be going through a similar emotional experience but can encourage us to look at our situation from a different perspective and thus offer new ways of dealing with it (Johnson, 2022). Javier (2021) adds to this empathy, which occurs when the viewer feels that the character in the film is the same or very similar to her or him, whether it is the portrayal of the character or something in their personality.

These findings are reflected in today's world when due to global distribution and affordability, many Westerners have access to platforms such as Netflix, Amazon, Apple TV, or simply the Internet, where pirated video content can be found. As a result, movies affect the viewers' perception of the real world. There is also an identification with the performing character or several of them. This happens for many reasons, which are studied in more detail in the theoretical part of the article.

7.5 Findings from an analysis of the communication competences of the character Georgia from *My Life in Ruins*

Because of this last thought, we chose the film *My Life in Ruins* to analyze the communication competences of tourist guides, which can very clearly be divided into two parts. The first part is from the beginning of the film to the emotional breakdown, which is a kind of peak of the film because then Georgia experiences her transformation from a history teacher who lives for history but does not know precisely how to share this passion with people, to a tourist guide who can do precisely that. Being a teacher of history, full of knowledge, is essential. Still, as we found out based on professional sources, more is needed since this represents only one part of the entire performance or set of tasks that a tourist guide must perform. At this point, Georgia only (unsuccessfully) establishes an intellectual relationship between her group and the destinations visited, neglecting the emotional one. After an emotional outburst over her group member Irv, Georgia must try to improve her relationship with him, realizing that she can only do this by becoming a better tourist guide. From then on, with the help of Irv and Poupi, she begins to experience her rebirth, and the curve turns upwards. She establishes an emotional and spiritual relationship which is much more acceptable for the group members. As a result, by the end of the film (somewhat clichéd, but still), she becomes the guide that every

tourist wants - fun, engaging, and able to bring out the best in tourists and find something for everyone. This is also clearly shown at the end of the film, when the group's opinions about Georgia altogether shock Maria, who, given her previous experiences and thoughts (which were mediocre in turn), cannot believe that she got such high-flying marks. Only after the group members assure her that they wrote the reviews does Maria realize that Georgia is now the guide she must keep on her team.

Tourist guiding is a rhetorical situation; therefore, knowledge of internal persuasive skills is necessary, which is crucial during management. The emergence or lack of individual skills can also be observed in the film, which is set in the rhetorical situation under discussion. In the film's first part, Georgia only establishes an intellectual relationship between people and the destination; that is, it relies too much on *logos* based on logical proof. However, she is unsuccessful, as the group members need to share her passion for historical facts. Georgia's *ethos* is established as a history teacher (who acts as if she will have the group write a test at the end of the trip) rather than a tourist guide. Because of this, people do not listen to her and are not enjoying their journey. Later in the film, Georgia transitions from being a history teacher to establishing her *ethos* as a tourist guide. From what has been written, it can be concluded that she never had problems establishing an *ethos* and, thus, her credibility. However, in the film's first part, the *ethos* needed to be corrected, which could be seen through her relationship with the tourists. She completely neglected emotional connection and, thus, *pathos* - the only emotion she evoked was boredom. Later, she also included feelings in her program, which the listeners better accepted, so her group started to enjoy the trip.

Even if the stereotypical characters of tourists in the film are shown to be excessively bad, this is mostly not true in real life – people want to spend their vacation relaxing and having fun while at the same time getting to know something new that they cannot do in their home environment. Therefore, it is unlikely that a tourist guide would be given such a group in real life. Still, the movie (more specifically, the second part) is an excellent example of dealing with such a group and bringing out the best in them. Georgia became a successful guide for this specific group only when she put her philosophy (tell all the historical facts, visit only the historical sites, and deliberately leave out everything else) second and the guests' wishes first. She understood that guests came to Greece to admire the history and culture and, even

more than that, to have fun. In the first part, she treated them as typical representatives of stereotypical types of people. She did not allow them any other option, but later she understood that people are more than that and have their desires and needs to fulfill. It was only when she allowed people to introduce themselves to her and allowed herself to get to know them better that she recognized their desires and adapted to them. It was a turning point when she understood her mission as a tourist guide and why she had not been interesting to her tourists until now. And when people also saw that Georgia now listened to them, they began to behave differently towards her. With this, she attracted better qualities from them, and as a result, the trip became unforgettable for all participants. From this, Georgia learned that every tourist has their own story. As a result, every trip is at least a little different from the previous one - people have other wants and needs, and only a guide who has empathy for this and can adapt to the audience will succeed.

7.6 Findings from an analysis of the communication competences of the character Frank from *Jungle Cruise*

In the film *Jungle Cruise* Frank's job as a tourist guide is not in the foreground and plays a secondary role. In any case, Frank's first scene in the film is an example of him cruising down the river, which shows us what kind of person Frank is and indicates what we can expect from him later in the film. Over the course of the film, the viewers get to know him even better, and we realize that Frank is a unique character. Still, he has well-developed communication competences, especially "technical" ones - we are referring to his speaking technique and interpretation of the material and somewhat less to the content that would probably be perceived differently in real life.

At first glance, Frank seems very convincing as a person - he is confident, well-versed, and very experienced (which he conveys well even without words), which makes him better than others who would try to deliver the same message but would be less sure of themselves, which would significantly affect their non-verbal communication. By seeming to put his passengers in danger and with specific lines, he could come across as rude or indifferent and a bit childish due to the use of banal puns. However, with his smile and friendly tone at the end of each tour, he makes an impression that softens the still vivid memory of the dangers the tourists have experienced. From this, we can conclude that the content of his cruises (false

theatrical perils, banal puns that are so bad that they are almost comical, and lines that could be described as rude or stilted - especially when viewed through the prism of time and space, since the film takes place in 1916 Brazil, when society is highly stratified, with Frank belonging to the lower class and his passengers to the upper class, which could lead to dire consequences for him) is accepted as it is only because of his performance and convincing delivery of the message. Indeed, Frank is a master of effective verbal communication and clear non-verbal communication, as well as incredible interpretation, with which he can create a spectacle from banal everyday or objectively unconvincing things (an excellent example of this is the "back side of the water", which he describes as the eighth wonder of the world, but before that, he builds up the tension as if he is going to show people something unique but only a tiny stream of water appears, which people do not think is anything special, but they are still under the influence).

Considering the film's time frame and social characteristics, the same situation would not be accepted as positive today. But it is also true that Frank highly influences the case with his confident and convincing performance, and everything ends well for him. But it should be remembered that Frank is a fictional movie character in a family movie, primarily intended to entertain the audience. It would be interesting to see how Frank's groups would perceive him were he a real guide - probably some better than others (depending on the characteristics of the group members), but certainly different from the situation observed in the movie.

7.7 Interviews with tourist guides

However, since we cannot rely only on fictional characters when analyzing communication competences, we also conducted six semi-structured interviews with six professional tourist guides (three men and three women, aged between 25 and 60 years old, with experience from two to 35 years) from various Slovenian agencies and organizations. It should be emphasized that the guides are freelancers who work for different clients. According to their education, the interviewees had bachelor's or master's degrees in various fields, but interestingly not in the tourism profession. They all have a Slovenian tour guide license, and most can speak English, German, and Italian. The interviews lasted 20–30 minutes and were analyzed by content analysis, specifically by coding keywords.

The answers to the questions were very similar to the competences we highlighted based on the literature review – communication, intimate knowledge of the destination, organization, punctuality, professionalism, ability to adapt, and others were highlighted in the guide's main attributes. When we asked them about communication competences and skills, they collectively mentioned correct pronunciation of words, reasonable speed, and intonation, calmness, body posture, facial expressions, gesticulations, and interpretation of content. As the most critical task of the tourist guide, a responsible approach to work was highlighted, which combines all of the above, and all of this is in some way communication with the guests – from neatness, punctuality, and friendliness (appearance in front of the guest and first impression) to the presentation of the material.

Considering that the interviews took place in a private environment and not during the tour itself, we also asked our interviewees about their favorite trip, their first tours as tourist guides, and their favorite contents (while at the same time observing their interpretation skills). We found that most interviewees had enough material, which testifies to rich cosmopolitan experiences and, ultimately, a good memory, which we discovered is also an essential part of preparing the tourist guide's material. When listening to the interviewees' stories, we often felt like journeying with them. Although we did not observe them while leading their groups, we could travel the world, at least in our minds, by focusing on their communication skills and stories.

In general, tourist guides with more experience stressed the same communication skills and competences that we presented based on the literature review as necessary for the guests' satisfaction and, consequently, the guide's success. Professional tour guides highlighted communication as the essential skill as strongly as it was presented in the literature. Still, they talked the most about communication, even before asking specifically. This testifies to the fact that the interviewed guides are aware of the importance of communication in the performance of their work and strive to constantly improve their knowledge and skills (also by current trends and speech culture) so that they can adapt to their guests and try to provide the best possible experience for them. It is essential to feel that the guide lives for travel and that she or he does their job with heart, enthusiasm, and abilities.

Although it was not an immediate plan, we used the interviews with expert tourist guides not only to talk about but to observe their communication competences and skills. Through observation and participation in live interviews, we assessed that all the interviewed guides have well-developed communication skills and competences according to the guidelines we obtained from the literature review. However, it should be emphasized once again that all guides have many years of experience in tourism.

7.8 Conclusion

Based on the analysis, it can be concluded that Georgie and Frank, the two protagonists from the films, are examples of good tourist guides and possess communication skills that are desirable in most cases. After conducting interviews with professional tourist guides, we can also positively conclude that the protagonists from the films are presented relatively realistically. Both characters find themselves in certain situations and have traits that might not be as accepted in real life as they were in the movies. However, overall, both characters represent an excellent example of a tour guide to follow.

The fact is that nowhere in the literature can one find exact guidelines that would dictate being the perfect tourist guide in terms of receiving precise instructions for specific actions. Instead, guides are often only exposed to policies to which each individual attributes their meaning and acts according to their conscience, experience, and knowledge, which is a result of the heterogeneity of humankind. In reality, specific approaches that work with one group may be less successful with another or may have the exact opposite effect. Therefore, it is the task of guides to get to know each group as well as possible and adapt to it based on the characteristics of its members. This ability indeed comes with experience; from this point of view, the disadvantage is that there is nowhere to get exact instructions. However, guides must be well-versed in theory, have a sense of recognizing requirements, and, above all, learn quickly to avoid repeating the same mistakes. If embarrassments and complications arise due to inadequate management, they must be resourceful enough to turn such situations to their advantage or mitigate them somewhat.

For this reason, we pointed out that there needs to be more emphasis on theoretical work and more practical experience in the education process. Although it is impossible to prepare for all situations where guides may find themselves, it is essential to start preparing candidates as quickly as possible for potential complications, which can be solved more smoothly later due to the experience gained. The profession of a tourist guide is very personal and individually oriented in that not a single guide is precisely the same as another. Everyone brings to their work themselves, their personality and their way of solving problems, as well as thinking and behaving, which is the added value that the quality of the services provided distinguishes guides and thus their likeability, and consequently also their success.

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8 Case study: Identity Journaling in Travel Research

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This chapter explores the development of identity through the practice of literary travel writing in a learning environment. It gives the background and details of the development of blended learning materials that emerged from an ERASMUS+ mobility programme between Slovenia and the United Kingdom. Travel stories that came from learners on the course are reproduced and an analysis is provided to engage readers and visitors with this very particular approach to recording or journaling memories and travel experiences.

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8.1 Introduction

During lockdown, the magazine, *Travel Writers Online* (ISSN 2753-7803) ran a summer school to allow experimentation with the delivery of blended teaching and learning. The aim was inclusive communication and acquisition of communication skills in tourism, specifically the skills to find narrative in the learners' own experiences of place and travel. To improve inclusivity in an online environment, only free software tools and the free platform from Google, called Google Drive were used for the online journaling, the lessons and sharing of students' own writing. Since YouTube is free to use by freelance workers, the teaching videos were uploaded here for a wider group of learners (YouTube, 2023).

Over the period of the course the new travel writers worked on set pieces from the teacher, then grew to develop a whole story of their own. Two of the stories are presented here. They both originally appeared on the magazine pages of *Travel Writers Online*, ISSN 2753-7803.

8.2 The Writer's own Imaginary as a Point of Departure

The summer school began by exploring the theoretical work of Jean-Paul Sartre, using his concept of the Imaginary, where the imaginary is a noun, rather than an adjective as it is normally used in UK English (Lennon, 2015). The learning aim was to help learners to realise that their own store of narrative knowledge is rich and valid when creating new cultural artefacts, which, in this example is, literary non-fiction testimony. This is an inclusive approach since it does not demand initial high levels of personal cultural capital (Edgerton & Roberts, 2014) of the type normally acquired through an arts or humanities degree at university.

As the learners began to make notes, or more formally, to commence their journaling, they were introduced to the process of close reading of very small excerpts of modernist literary travel writing and testimony. Two key pieces were explored in detail. They were from Simone de Beauvoir's travel memoir, *The Prime of Life*, published in originally in French in 1960 (Beauvoir, 1994), and Walter Benjamin's published travelogue-style vignette of Marseille from 1928 (Benjamin, 2009). European authors were chosen whose work can easily be found in German, French and in English translation so that the lessons could be adapted more easily

by other European teachers and learners. Later, too, an example of literary travel writing from W G Sebald was discovered and added to the resources for the learners (Sebald, 2016). The travel literature of W G Sebald is widely translated into European languages, and it is hoped that this will facilitate the adoption of our pedagogy across Europe.

8.3 Platform Technology for Remote Blended Learning through Dialogue

Technical instruction was required to ensure that the group of learners could find and navigate their way through the Apps needed to write and share on the Google Drive platform. Web 2.0 technologies mean that users with a free login account can easily type their work directly into online pages that are accessible in real-time with their peers, their teacher and, if required, stakeholders in the travel industry. Although Google Docs is classed technically as an asynchronous technology, the response time during editing and journaling is so fast that learners enjoy the effect of writing in the same document at the same time as others in the class. Lessons and writing workshops could therefore be planned with Google Meet or with YouTube Go Live and run simultaneously within a shared single Google Doc to explore texts and students' writing in an immediate way. Additionally, problem-jostles, using only the live Google Docs App were run at planned times to develop writing and communication skills. In 2022, Google also made its Google Chat App free to users who did not have a paid-for Google Space account. This additional application has extended the platform to offer a more complete environment for learner dialogue, and allows learners to work with tourism industry professionals in museums and businesses.

8.4 Literary Terms

Once the learners had set down their initial recollections from their imaginaries about a place they knew well it was time for the teacher to introduce some of the ways literary language creates affect in readers. From work with a colleague through the ERAMSUS+ teacher mobility scheme, we had perfected a pedagogical approach to using past tenses with learners in tourism communications to enrich and problematise their initial present-tense field-notes. This was applied in this teaching and the trainee travel writers found that they could create narrative as they recounted

their testimony of travelling to a place or exploring a destination on foot. As a research finding, we discovered that tourism experiences are held as a type of narrative knowledge by visitors and can be elicited by asking in a dialogue learning environment for the activities to be recounted. It seems elementary but we were astonished by the richness and detail of the qualitative information stored when a holidaymaking visit is experienced, then recounted to an interested listener or responsive reader group.

Finally, two very specific literary techniques were taught; these are drawn from theories of space in text and literary geography and often occur in published travel literature. These are the novelist's use of concision in a deictic structure, and interpellation by the story. These are quite complex, but as the course progressed the learners were enthusiastic to take on-board new methods for making their writing both more affecting, and to be more precise in how they communicated their own personal experiences of place.

Regular dialogue, mainly through posing questions, created a demand in the learner for new methods to bring out more knowledge from their writing. This increased their readiness to engage with literary methods they had not previously recognised in novels or poetry. Dialogue, initiated by the teacher, then, after training in good questioning by the peer group is well-documented as a productive approach to learning (Nesari, 2015); applying dialogue learning across a digital platform does extend the approach into the sphere of written communication. One of the present authors undertook an academic literature review on journaling and dialogue, more as research tools rather than for teaching but uncovered a rich published literature on applications of Bakhtin's theory for teachers of rhetoric and narrative writing. This quotation from Bialostovsky demonstrates the valuable link between Bakhtin's dialogism and the teaching of writing composition:

'In academic writing it is conventional to revise oral presentations for publication by suppressing those figures of thought through which speakers register the presence of their auditors and the remarks of participating colleagues. Such revision deletes the signs of what Mikhail Bakhtin calls the dialogizing background of the utterance to generalize the contexts of its reception and universalize the appearance of its claims. It is also conventional to cover up the signs of such revision, presenting the argument as unified and the self that underwrites it as of one mind about it. Such

silent revision enhances the appearance of authoritativeness and hides the possibility that the author did or could think otherwise. These conventions of published authority are part of what we teach in teaching academic writing, and my failure to abide by them in this chapter anticipates my questioning of that pedagogy. I foreground the occasions and the revisions of this piece, then, as part of my attempt to redialogize the practice and teaching of academic writing.' (Bialostovsky 2016, loc 3297 eBook)

8.5 The Book from the Course

A pocket textbook which works through the course was initially produced as an eBook; then, in 2023 a new paperback edition containing all the written material and using QR codes to link to online resources was made available. Details are given in the references section at the end of this chapter (Mansfield, 2020). This chapter turns now to the presentation of the two literary travel stories which were developed through the dialogic approach and from journaling during the summer school for travel writers online. Note, in the first travel story, two types of French included as heteroglossia (Bialostosky, 2016), both of which are part of the narrator's spoken language range along with contemporary British English.

8.6 Retour au pays natal by Clarisse Chicot Feindouno

I woke up excited. I had hardly slept because I was thinking about the journey ahead. I had packed everything carefully two days before so I wouldn't forget a thing. I had travelled to France a week ago to avoid rushing and panicking.

The day arrived quickly, I was impatient and worried. What were things like after 11 years? Probably different now, with new buildings everywhere. I would soon find out. We made our way to the airport. People's driving skills left much to be desired. I watched the buildings as we drove by and all of the advertisement panels. 'Souriez, filmez, partagez' with SFR, the new Xiaomi 10, 5G phone for just 1 euro, hmmm, interesting.

I suddenly remembered, I forgot to check if my Sky network would work once I got there! We pulled into the airport, and I registered the luggage. I sat in this restaurant for my last coffee. I said goodbye to my husband. The kids said their goodbyes to

their dad. I heard the announcement: 'Good afternoon passengers, this is the pre-boarding announcement for flight TX541 to Pointe-à-Pitre. We are now inviting passengers with young children to begin boarding at this time, gate 10. Please have your boarding pass and identification ready. Thank you'.

I made a move and walked toward gate 10. We boarded the plane. I sat in the middle, and I had a boy on each side. They slept throughout the journey. They were used to travelling now. The flight lasted eight hours then I heard the pilot speaking in the PA: 'Mesdames et Messieurs, nous allons bientôt atterrir, veuillez remettre vos ceintures jusqu'à ce que l'avion s'arrête'.

Finally, we landed. We got out of the plane and went through the immigration control. As the officer looked at all of our IDs, he asked me: 'I need proof that these children are yours. I suddenly remembered, I used my maiden name on the boarding pass and the boys had their dad's name. I showed him my passport which had both my maiden and spouse name. I thought to myself, thank God, I went to London to renew my passport. He was satisfied and made a joke: How can you make the difference between P and M? They look exactly the same!! Double trouble you have there!! I smiled and left the airport impatiently with the boys. At last, we were outside, breathing the Caribbean air. Guadeloupe, here I come, I shouted quietly. I looked at my phone, and the network had changed from sky to orange.

I found a cab, so the kids and I made our way. Nobody knew we were here; it was a surprise. As I sat in the cab, things were indeed different. The hospital was no longer there. I asked the driver: 'What happened to the hospital? oops exkisez mwen, kay pasé lopital la? I forgot I had to speak creole or French now. He answered in creole: 'I pran difé!!' (it burned down, he replied).

The driver started a political conversation, complaining of the inadmissible state of what is left of the hospital, the water shortage in some of the cities but his voice quickly became distant as I looked at the state of my beautiful island through the car's window. Buildings were in a dilapidated state, and I barely recognised the area. I wondered if Port-Louis had changed as much. I am sure it had after so many years. We made it. We were in the Nord Grande-Terre. Some of the cities were the same. More buildings were erected. The boys woke up: ' Mum, we are hungry!' I suddenly realised we had not eaten since we left the airport. We stopped and I bought KFC

for the kids, as for me I ate a nice 'agoulou', a delicacy I missed eating. The saltiness of the omelette was enrobed with the seasoning of the salad mixed with the sweet, thick and huge burger bread. It was delicious.

We finally arrived in my city. It had changed, for the better. Now, there was a high school, and they had turned the old sugar cane factory into a tourism site. We were at my house and as I got out of the car, I saw the look on my dad's face. He cried. Mum wasn't there. I paid and thanked the driver. I woke the boys up and got them out of the cab and they went through the gate. They found a football; I rolled my eyes. I was tired but there was no time to rest as I hurried to go to the beach.
I left the boys with dad who also took care of my luggage, and I went to the beach. As I walked toward the beach, I felt the sun on my skin and the white tuff and the distorted gravels underneath my bare feet. The beach was two minutes away, so I enjoyed the closeness of nature under my feet. I picked up seven gravels to play this game called pichine. My mum taught me, and I was going to challenge her on my return.

I saw a lady selling pistachios and coconut sorbet and I wanted to buy some when I got back. I walked past the swimming school, and I remembered my kayak lessons when I was 11. Not a great experience. I fell in the sea as I lost control of the kayak and my teacher shouted at me: 'Get back in the kayak or swim to the shore!' I was petrified and chose the latter. I finally arrived on the beach. I put my towel on the sand, and I sat down in front of the open ocean. The view was fantastic, but it was time for me to go swimming. As I entered the deep green sea, the wind blew past me. It gave me a little chill. I stood still for a couple of seconds as the waves brought the water up to my knees. It was cold, so I dived in to not feel the temperature. La Plage du Souffleur: 'How I missed you!'

8.7 Déjà-vu by Philipp Wassler

The hike up to the castle was familiar. I used to call it a déjà vu because I had done it innumerable times since one of my university classmates brought me here almost 20 years ago. The entrance to the theatre area was rather unassuming - a narrow little alleyway squeezed in between yellow and brown stone buildings, facing one of the busiest roads in Verona. Like a little door to another planet I thought. Or better, like a little door to the past. My past and Verona's past. Or the other way around.

I smiled as I entered the alley, remembering the many visitors I brought all the way up to the castle. How many times we had to stop with the Asians, taking pictures of the bright pink orchids growing from the old, cracked stone walls. Apparently the occasional foreigner found its way here also without me, I thought, as I passed sweaty-looking and rather heavily breathing visitors of Northern European appearance on the first set of stone steps, winding narrowly along the buildings. Here we go, I mumbled to myself - the climb begins, old man! There is something fascinating about walking up a long set of stairs, I thought, as I passed the first stone blocks and column fragments which once belonged to the majestic Roman theatre built on the hillside leading up to the castle.

People don't like to show their weaknesses. I smiled, as I saw the first group of exhausted tourists resting about one fourth up the way. Of course, not resting - they were pretending to take pictures of what once was probably a lion sculpture. Or an eagle, maybe? It did have a pointy nose or snout, I thought. I looked forward to reaching the little gallery halfway up. Another good excuse to slow down the journey. I always liked to read the graffiti on its damp, musty walls. My favourite was "I hate people and people hate me: but I hate them more". I smiled as I passed by this masterpiece of modern satire. I had always wondered who wrote this. Maybe someone with a good sense of humour. Or a serial killer. Either way, the first drops of sweat paid off as slowly I reached a good elevation on the winding stairs. To my right, the stone ranks of the theatre emerged through a sea of sun beaten blocks and pillars, while the afternoon sky turned into the first shades of bright orange. "Under the skies of an Italian summer", I thought to myself smiling. Those were the lyrics to the title track for the 1990 Football World Cup in Italy, which I fondly remembered watching with my father. This and my heavy breathing about three quarters up the stairs were a testimony that time was passing faster than I thought. The roar of the traffic seemed further away now and the chit-chat of the crowd on the massive plateau a lot closer. Hope at last.

About 5 minutes later, I sat on the terrace of Castel San Pietro, a renaissance hillfort on top of a 2000-year-old Roman theatre complex in Verona, Italy. The sunset was painting the city in shades of orange and red. I was assuming it has done so for millennia – it certainly has for decades, as this has been my retreat of choice for at least 15 years. The evening breeze was pleasant, and one could hear the city traffic faintly, like a whisper in the distance. I thought that even traffic can be beautiful if it

fits the scenery. It felt like time was standing still, looking at the roman stones which had stood the test of time. In my rollercoaster-life, this place remained strangely unchanged. As I sat here, I remembered the countless times I had watched the sunset in the city before, with people who have come and gone sitting with me. Maybe I missed some of them, maybe I just missed the person I used to be when sitting with them. But then again, the certainty that these stones will be here long after I am gone and that I was just a piece in the millennial puzzle of this city gave me a strange comfort. As I smiled, I realized that thousands must have found it before me in the very same spot.

8.8 Building Networks and Trust

Integrating literary travel writing of this genre into the tourism management and development process was the next step in the research that had grown out of the ERASMUS+ teaching mobility between the University of Plymouth and the University of Maribor (Dr Natalie Semley & Dr Charles Mansfield, UoP; Dr Jasna Potočnik Topler, UM). Stories written in first-person narrative form, as the two examples above, provide an opportunity to establish and build trust with museums, city councils, cafés, restaurants and tourist attractions on the route taken by the visiting travel writer or student writer. By establishing a dialogue with these stakeholders, the writer can more readily research and engage in experiences when out in the field. In spring 2023, a project to explore this in the Slovenian town of Brežice was completed.

The key stakeholder that engaged with the project was the local museum, based in the castle of Brežice, The Posavje Museum. Initially, two important cultural artefacts were identified by the travel writers researching the museum's collections; this approach is taken from the travel writers' textbook:

> ' […] information about an observed object's histories, functions, its roles in our lives, is crucial; it is tour guides and travel writers who provide that significant information. Consequently, much is dependent upon how the presentations of objects and attractions are recounted by writers, reviewers or guides. In fact, the travel writer's information plays a central role in the perception of a townscape or museum artefact' (Mansfield & Potočnik Topler, 2023, 41).

The first focus was on a painting by a local Slovenian artist, Miroslav Kugler, of hay-drying racks and a crop of buckwheat in flower. The museum promoted this painting as part of a special interpretation display, and for the writers a connection could be made between the crop of buckwheat and local food, in the form of štruklji; these are rolled pieces of buckwheat dough, filled with cheese and potatoes and baked in a sauce. Thus, a travel writer could be fairly confident that these two objects could be found and enjoyed during a walk around the town.

The choice of an additional museum artefact was allowed to emerge during the fieldwork. It was a bronze-age vessel called a situla. Here below, the travel writer includes the discovery in a blog post. Publishing blog posts in English during the visit, continues to build that trust with the museum, whose intended audience are Anglophone visitors from the US and UK. For the readers of the travel blog the continued use of the first-person narrative communicates the identity of the travel writer. The readers begin to see the interests of the writer and they can share the writer's knowledge through the narrative of the experiences rather than consulting a reference book or guidebook. The reading of narrative creates a rhythm between emotion, or personal reaction and new, often specialist information but the movement of the writer's visit provides a constant impetus to continue. Aristotle's notion of plot is that the text should set up the question of why. This why can be answered by the writer, or, as in detective fiction, postponed until the dénouement. The second paragraph of the example blog post below, shows how the travel writer provides reasons why the visit to the museum is structured in a certain way. This will provide plot for the readers. They will begin to trust that the text contains reasons or explanations.

8.9 Fieldwork in Brežice, Slovenia (Blog Post)

Our first day of fieldwork was Monday 15th May 2023. We made a walk into town along Old Justice Street, Ulica stare pravde, and made a stop at the water tower, Vodovodni stolp Brežice. The weather was brightening all the time after a couple of rainy days.

I made my first visit to The Posavje Museum in Brežice just before 5 o'clock on Tuesday 16th May 2023. That was my reconnaissance visit aiming to look in almost every room for first impressions and to see if any artefact would stay in my memory

for later detailed investigation. I also had in mind the painting from the museum's web list, of the hay-drying racks and buckwheat in flower by Miroslav Kugler because we had discussed that on the dialogue platform before my visit to the university tourism faculty. Alas, I could not find Kugler's painting but I wanted to keep moving rather than make a focussed study at this initial stage.

On Wednesday 17th May 2023 at 11h43 I was writing in the Kava Jazz Pub at 2 Trg Izgnancev, working on an elliptical tabletop, sipping a Hausbrandt coffee in a branded cup. I made this Step 2 Journaling entry sitting at this writing plateau, 'The buildings on this west side of the Road of the First Fighters are only 10 to 15 metres in depth. Then behind them, on the western edge of Brežice, the ground drops away again, leaving the whole street as a combe ridge. Placing a settlement near the top of a combe suggests a Celtic origin for the site of the town, and the location of Brežice is on the south eastern extent of the early Iron Age period of proto-Celtic culture, from around 450 BCE. Vessels decorated with narrative scenes emerged in this era, for example, the Slovenian Vače Situla vessel, made of bronze, 23.8cm high and holding about 2 litres of liquid. Horses and people are depicted in bas relief on this Celtic artefact'.

8.10 Riverbank or Slope

That something happened to the land level just behind the main street was apparent when I explored the alley called Holyjeva steza or Holly's path. I speculated that the town's name, Brežice might mean ridge or combe. I asked Jasna via text message, a rapid reply 'It means breg - riverbank, slope'.

A connection had been made from my memory of the museum visit of the day before, when I had noticed, but not spent much time with, the Etruscan situla held in the museum along with the fibulae fastening pins, which served as buttons on Celtic clothing before buttonholes were invented. A Taurisci Celtic site from between 250 BCE and 150 BCE was discovered in 1948 when the huge veterinary clinic was built in Brežice. This helps position, at least the cemetery of the tribe, on today's town layout, but not perhaps their Iron Age dwellings.

I walked from my hotel, the Pr'Šefu at Prešernova cesta 17 along to the animal clinic and the lie of the land became clear on foot. The ground here drops away and levels towards the river Sava, well south of the town's combe ridge. End of blogpost.

8.11 Note on Space and Topography

The other complex writing structure to look for in the preceding blog post uses the concept of plot, too. The postponed explanation of the geomorphology of the town creates a tension from the elaborate opening sentence, which begins just beneath the side-heading in the post: Riverbank or Slope, it begins: 'That something happened to the land level […].' It is a literary or complex sentence that slows down the easy reading of the piece, and it leaves the readers without a clear explanation. No immediate reason is given. Perhaps, sufficient information accumulates by the end of the blog post, but for the literary travel writer one aim is to leave clues that are solved in a more satisfying way by the visitors in the tourism space. By naming specific streets, and publicly accessible buildings the writer provides a route and locations where the experiences of discovery can be realised by the readers when they are there on location in the holiday destination.

The literary travel writer shares their own embodied experiences at precise locations to enact the physicality of the layout of the land, as in this example from Tim Hannigan's travel book on Cornwall:

'The water was shallow here, glittering over stone, but what I was contemplating seemed horribly transgressive. I stood there for a long while, wondering whether I needed to take my boots off, then went for it without doing so: four or five mincing steps, a handhold on an exposed root, a brief and muddy scramble and I was over the border. There was no abrupt change of atmosphere. No one challenged my trespass. Crossing over was not as hard as I might have thought.' (Hannigan, 2023. Unpaginated eBook).

The narrator in this scene above, takes the readers through the literary process of catacosmesis in his emotions from the 'horribly transgressive' to the resolved calmness of 'not as hard as I might have thought'. Framing this same scene of movement is a further complex reference to borders, and in another literary process Hannigan mixes hints of other border crossings from other writers and times with

this simple scramble across a shallow stream. We explore more of this literariness in the Methodology section below.

8.12 The Methodology

It was on a research mobility with the University of Nantes that Mansfield first began to formulate a specific methodology that would communicate tourism space to a wider audience than the usual academic peers (Mansfield, 2015). Then through the mobility link to the University of Maribor, we progressed towards a process methodology that yields knowledge in a narrative form to communicate the tourism experience and the literary space of destinations. This is fully explained in the book, *Travel Writing for Tourism* (Mansfield & Potočnik Topler, 2023).

An experienced and skilled travel writer, like Tim Hannigan, collects notes in the field and also works to develop ideas and texts at later points in a writing project. In our process methodology we wanted to formalise that for new writers who are learning to, and deciding whether to, build a career in travel publishing and communications. We therefore opened up the process into a series of steps (Mansfield & Potočnik Topler, 2023, Table 5.7, 96). This relieves the learning writer of trying to complete finished, polished and complex textual artefacts at a single point in the field. We call the final step, 'Step 3 Back in Lab', so that the novice writer has time to consider their emotions from their field notes and experiment with ways of communicating them to their readers. This allows exploration of literary techniques to increase the repertoire of the student-writer.

In this lab stage, the students are in dialogue with their peers, with their lecturers and with people who may be in their story and with whom they have built trust. The novice writers will have published some blog posts during the fieldwork step of their projects, Step 2, and they will be able to read these back and elicit comments on these from others to give them a better comprehension of how readers understood those small, published fragments. Often this leads to recalling and recounting emotions felt during encounters in the field. For example, the blog post describing the Bronze Age vessel lacks any of the intense feelings it engendered in the longer viewing. This could be remedied in a lab session by asking more of the sensibilities of the writer through dialogue with a writer's editor. If the resulting small story were

skilfully composed, it would offer readers a catalyst for their own connection with the ancient artefact.

Finally, our current research at the time of writing is on heteroglossia. How can we add other voices to our literary travel writing? It is a natural progression for our process methodology, which we call Dialogue Journaling, since dialogism and heteroglossia are combined in the theoretical work of Mikhail Bakhtin, whose concepts inform literary writing today (Bialostosky, 2016).

8.13 Conclusion

This work responds to the growing number of travel writers and bloggers who have joined the tourism industry as well as holidaymakers who gain satisfaction when they contribute their own writing as customer reviews on social media channels and platforms. Our aim is to help contributors to explore and develop their own identities through a widening and deepening of their sensibilities. A continuous process of literary understanding is one route to develop and attune to these sensibilities as it increases the range and expressiveness of one's own writing. In a time of experience co-creation, the creation of literary artefacts in the form of travel stories is another way of making souvenirs of your own travel and being part of place-making.

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Active and Inclusive Teaching of Literacy and Communication Skills for Enhanced Employment and Sustainable Economic Growth

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The monograph presents a part of the research work within the project "*Active and Inclusive Teaching of Literacy and Communication Skills for Enhanced Employment and Sustainable Economic Growth (In-Comm Guide)*," and underscores the significance of communication skills for both business success and personal development. These skills are deemed essential not only in academic achievements but also in the professional realm, with employers actively seeking them in prospective candidates. The monograph emerges as a product of the Erasmus+ initiative – the project was supported by the European Union and overseen by the Slovenian national agency CMEPIUS. Encompassing a consortium of institutions including the University of Maribor, University of Applied Sciences Zwickau, University of Pula, and University of Udine, the project aimed to develop communication skills curricula. This focus sought to bolster students' readiness for the job market while emphasizing non-verbal communication, sign languages, and linguistic proficiency, particularly in English. Within the monograph, the emphasis on innovative teaching methodologies, intercultural communication, and students' well-being converge. Moreover, attention is directed toward individuals with hearing impairments and the significance of non-verbal communication.

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"The present monography is an original work meant for professional and nonprofessionals. The potential readers are all the people interested in tourism, communication skills in Slovenia, Croatia, Germany, Italy and wider. The originality of the approach and analysis of the thematic in the monography talks about Identity, Journaling, the DRAMMA model, Storytelling, Inclusion of Movement into Communication Skills Curricula, Social Inclusion, Gestural Communication, Communication Skills and Travel Writing from a pedagogical, sociological, kinesiological, touristic and communicational point of view. "

Prof. Dr. **Andrea Debeljuh**, University of Pula

"The monograph offers a fresh perspective on current English curricula, it introduces a modern outlook on English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and it suggests innovative approaches to incorporate movement and travel into the syllabi of higher education institutions."

Prof. Dr. **Andreea Nechifor**, Transilvania University of Brașov

University of Maribor

Faculty of Tourism

"This scientific monograph is a good base for curriculums for the Bachelor and Master's level of education, which may lead to the suggested innovative teaching approaches while creatively incorporating other relevant methods that proved effective. It can be adapted to different fields of study programmes, while at the same time the practical tasks may be based on modern study settings, such as students' engagement in their own learning. In this sense, the wanted goal is carried through, and that is to create flexible modules for enhancing students' communication skills and raising awareness about the inclusion of students with specific needs, especially including those who prefer to communicate through sign languages. More widely, the monograph includes the skills necessary for a successful business practice and for the development of EU citizens' identity.

Prof. Dr. **Mirjana Radetić-Paić**, University of Pula