

**GUIDELINES FOR
THE DEVELOPMENT OF
AN ENGLISH LEARNING PROGRAMME FOR
TOURISM WORKERS IN TAIWAN**

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DECLARATION

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SUMMARY

The central question that this research wants to address is whether frontline tourism workers in areas where English is not the first language, experience a need for acquiring proficiency in English so that they can deal with their clientele in a professional and efficient way and thereby enhance the industry in their area as well as their own employability. The lack of English proficiency of frontline workers in the tourism industry has been named as one of the reasons why there is a low influx of international visitors to non-English speaking tourist destinations that should draw more people.

The research suggests that a workforce that is confident in their communication with an international clientele, implying a proficiency in English as the international language of tourism, will not only enhance the life quality and employability of the individual worker, but also the community that is influenced by the event of tourism in its area. Quality service is dependent on people not only making visitors excited about a destination, but also educating and entertaining them in a mutually understood language at all points of contact.

The purpose of this research is to explore, firstly whether there is a perceived need by frontline tourism workers to acquire English, and thereafter to determine the best way of facilitating the acquisition of the language in a way that will benefit the worker, the community and the industry as a whole. Taiwan was selected as a country for this research, because although there is a strong domestic tourism industry, there is a surprisingly low international one coinciding with a very low proficiency in English.

The research strategy was a quantitative data collection as well as a pilot project combined with a literature research. Quantitative data were obtained through a questionnaire that was taken to frontline workers in areas outside Taipei as the sample population to determine the need for English. A pilot study was done with eleven students at the International Trade Institute who had chosen English for Tourism as an elective during their two-year study period

The research concluded that there is indeed a perceived need by the frontline tourism worker for a greater proficiency in English as well as the realisation that this would enhance their tourism business. To facilitate the acquisition of English, certain methodologies as well as a restructuring of the tourism training and education policy and practice in Taiwan have been recommended.

OPSOMMING

Die vraagstuk wat hierdie navorsing aanspreek, is of werkers in die toerismebedryf in 'n area waar Engels nie die eerste taal is nie, 'n behoefte ervaar om hul taalvaardigheid in Engels tot so 'n mate te verbeter dat hulle hul kliënte op 'n professionele wyse kan hanteer en sodoende die toerismebedryf in hul area sowel as hulle eie indiensneembaarheid kan verhoog. Die gebrek aan taalvaardigheid in Engels is genoem as een van die faktore wat die invloed van internasionale toeriste na areas wat wel die potensiaal het om hulle te trek, maar waar Engels nie voldoende bemeester word nie, belemmer.

Hierdie navorsing gaan van die veronderstelling uit dat werkers wat met selfvertroue met hulle besoekers wil kommunikeer, die internasionaal aanvaarde toerismetaal, Engels, moet kan bemeester. Hierdie vaardigheid sal nie net hul eie lewensgehalte verbeter en hul indiensneembaarheid verhoog nie, maar sal ook 'n positiewe invloed hê op die gemeenskap wat deur toerisme geraak word. Kwaliteitsdiens kan net gelewer word as toeriste by alle raakpunte van 'n bestemming in 'n gemeenskaplik-verstaanbare taal entoesiasies bedien, vermaak en ingelig word.

Die doel van hierdie navorsing is om eerstens uit te vind of daar 'n ervaarde behoefte is by die eersteliniewerkers in die toerismebedryf om hul vaardigheid in Engels te verbeter en of hulle besef dat dit 'n positiewe effek op hul werk sal hê; en om dan vas te stel watter fasiliteringsmetode gebruik kan word om hierdie gebrek aan vaardigheid op die mees effektiewe manier aan te spreek sodat die individuele werker, die gemeenskap en die industrie as geheel daarby baat kan vind. Vir die doel van hierdie navorsing is Taiwan as 'n area gekies, omdat alhoewel die binnelandse toerismebedryf daar sterk is, hulle 'n verbasend lae internasionale bedryf het, en omdat die Engelsvaardigheid van die eersteliniewerkers alhier baie laag is.

Die navorsingstrategie wat aangewend is om die doel van hierdie navorsing te bereik, is 'n kwantitatiewe dataversameling sowel as 'n loodsprojek en literatuurstudie. Kwantitatiewe data is versamel deur 'n vraelys na eersteliniewerkers in areas buite Taipei te neem wat sou dien as 'n steekproef om die presiese behoefte vir Engels te probeer vasstel. Die loodsprogram is gedoen met elf studente aan die International Trade Institute in Hsinchu wat "English for Tourism" as 'n vak gekies het as deel van hul tweejaarlanse studie by hierdie instituut.

Die navorsing het vasgestel dat daar inderdaad 'n ervaarde behoefte is by die eerstelinie toerismewerkers om hulle Engelse taalvaardigheid te verbeter en dat hulle besef dat hulle werk en besigheid daarby sal baat. Spesifieke fasiliteringsmetodes om die aanleer van hierdie taalvaardigheid ten beste te laat geskied asook 'n verandering in die opleidingsbeleid en -praktyk van toerismewerkers in Taiwan is aanbeveel.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

CBD	Central business district
CPD	Continuing Professional Development
EAP	English for academic purposes

EDIT	Employee development in tourism
EFL	English as a foreign language
EfT	English for tourism
EOP	English for occupational purposes
ESL	English as a second language
ESP	English for specific purposes
EST	English for Science and Technology
ETQA	Education and Training Quality Assurance
GDP	Gross Domestic product
GE	General English
HE	Higher Education
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ICT	Information and communication technologies
IEP	Immersion English Programme
ITI	International Trade Institute
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conferences, Exhibitions
MNC	Multi-national corporates
MTN	Mobile Telephone Networks
ROI	Return on investment
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
T and T	Travel and tourism
TBL	Task-based learning
THETA	Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority
TPR	Total Physical Response
UK	United Kingdom
USP	Unique selling proposition
VESL	Vocational English as a Second Language Programme

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION, CONTEXTUALISATION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION

As they are living in a society where change is inevitable, unpredictable and complex, most adults in the 21st century will be occupied with learning - formal, non-formal or informal learning. The rate at which knowledge needs to be accumulated and assimilated in our daily lives started increasing in the 20th century and this increase is escalating in the 21st. Knowledge doubles every 73 days and creates what Merriam calls the “Half-life of knowledge” [Merriam 2005]. In the business world, where the new economy has shifted from a production-based to a networked knowledge-based economy - an economy that values knowledge as its highest good [Jongbloed, 2002] – the explosion of knowledge is even more prevalent.

This shift to knowledge centeredness affects both the adult’s work and private life and calls for people who are equipped to handle a changing world. Within a work community that has to initiate and enhance change as well as react to it, individuals should have the desire, the obligation and the opportunity to engage in lifelong learning so that they can stay on the cutting edge and/or make things better in their personal life, their community and their career. The quality of life of individuals as well as whole communities will hinge on whether individuals and communities take up the challenge of learning, realising that every member of society has to adapt or die; get equipped with knowledge and skills or be isolated.

The shift to knowledge centeredness is revolutionising education and training. Because the work environment demands it, workers need to continuously increase their knowledge and improve their skills if they want to survive within the technical scientific-industrial worldview of today. Opportunities to update knowledge and skills that are required to face the challenges of today’s knowledge revolution, need to be consistently created and utilised. Prevocational education is seldom enough to equip the workforce for the job they have to do and learning on the job, or continuous professional education as part of continuous professional development [CPD], has become a valuable way of improving knowledge and skills. One of the ways CPD could happen is at the hand of learning programmes where learning takes place and competence is gained..

In the business world, knowledge is power and the better equipped you are, the bigger the chances of success. The tourism work environment is no exception. According to the World

Tourism Organisation, the tourism industry has developed in leaps and bounds to become the single largest industry in the world [Keyser, 2002]. As a global activity, few human activities are as ubiquitous as tourism, and therefore few have the same potential to influence economies, communities and individuals. Smith [1998] says that, because the tourism industry is continually changing, both students of and those who operate the industry will need to gain new skills and ideas “if they are to meet the coming challenges and take advantage of the opportunities that are emerging.” [Smith,S.L.J. 1989:8].

1.2 BACKGROUND AND CONTEXTUALISATION OF THE STUDY

Tourism exposes and emphasizes the need of humans to communicate - to share knowledge, to create a sense of belonging to the same cosmos; yet, not many industries expose the extent of inequalities between people as tourism does. Tourism involves contact between two groups of people, namely the host and the visitor and because of the interaction between these two groups both change – every tourist has an impact on the destination and the destination impacts on the tourist. Tourists are interested in habits and cultures other than their own, and in their contact with the host community learn more about the culture they visit. The diversity of cultures around the globe secures the survival of the tourism industry, however, for the unique aspects of these cultures to be communicated a mutually understood language is necessary. Human beings are the only living beings who can classify experiences, encode and further communicate them [Ivanovic, 2008]. Being a tourist in itself could become an opportunity to learn more about the destination’s culture, people, history, economy, geography, arts and crafts, that is if the hosts are able to encode their culture to the visitors.

Already during the 18th century, travel was a way to educate young people about art and culture, politics, and relics of European countries. However, these so-called “Grande Tours” were initially exclusively for wealthy British aristocrats [www. wikipedia.org/wiki/Grand_Tour]. Since the mid-19th century, when travel became accessible to the masses, more young people were getting educated on a “Grande Tour”. Today again, travel has become a way of learning, and anthropologists maintain that travel has become a new form of initiation into society [Burns, 2000]. Yet, the tourists do not only learn “in situ”, but also as they prepare for their travels [Keyser, 2002] by watching television programmes, reading brochures and books about the destination.

The consumers in the tourism industry are not the only ones that learn, the suppliers, those supplying services to [the travel industry] and at the destination, also become learners and have to continue being learners. Deliberately facilitating learning in both these situations [equipping the tourist and the host] are different issues although part of the same situation. Learning programmes for the tourists

are, however, not within the scope of this thesis. Although an indispensable part of the tourism industry, neither is the travel division¹ addressed in this thesis.

At the destination, the host community should prepare themselves in the best possible way to deliver quality service for their clientele. Ideally, this would require a needs-based prevocational learning programme, but unfortunately, either not all workers in the industry are able to attend prevocational programmes, or these programmes do not sufficiently prepare the learners. Consequently, a need for Continuing Professional Development [CPD] inevitably emerges. This continuous on-the-job-training should address the many varied needs that the workers face at the touch points before and during the stay of their guests.

The travel and tourism industry [T and T Industry] is part of the travel and tourism economy [T and T Economy], which is a much wider concept. The tourism industry is dependant on the amount of visitors to a destination, whereas the tourism economy is influenced by, but not solely dependant on the number of visitors to the destination. The tourism economy comprises of both the travel and tourism industry and industries that support the former [see Figure 1]. At a destination, it is not only the industry sector, but workers at all touch points [for example workers at the bank, the pharmacy, the bakery] that influence and are influenced by the visitors. A whole community is affected by the event of tourism at a destination and it is important that workers in all parts of the tourism economy are knowledgeable about and prepared to handle the complexities of tourism.

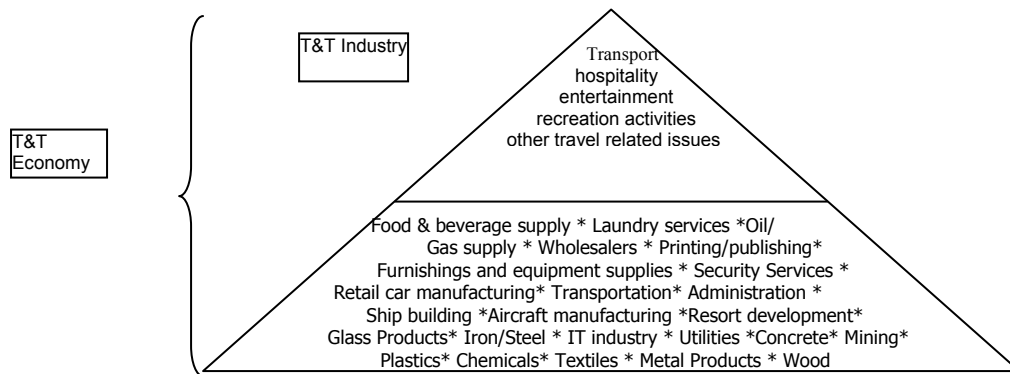


Figure 1. Diagram of the divide between the Travel and Tourism industry [T and T] and the Travel and Tourism economy of a destination

Workers in the industry are those that work in the transport, hospitality, entertainment [for example for business travellers], recreation [for example water sport, whale watching, hiking], or other travel related businesses. Yet, businesses like food and beverage supply, laundry services, oil and gas supply, wholesaling, printing and publishing, furnishing and equipment supplies, security services, ship building, aircraft manufacturing, resort development, manufacturing

¹ Travel is the movement from place to place and is a fundamental feature of tourism [Jafari, 2000]

industries [for example iron and steel, IT industry, textiles, plastics, wood] and utilities are all also affected by the tourism industry [see Figure 1].

Developing service quality has mainly been implemented in the T and T industry because it is here that there is a total dependence on the number of feet that reach a destination. Yet, the destination as a whole can influence the impression the visitor gets of a destination. Therefore, it stands to reason that, as far as possible, the whole community should be equipped to take the responsibility for providing entertainment, excitement and opportunities for educating its visitors. This would imply that service quality has to improve in the whole community, which inevitably includes improving everybody's language usage.

A basic learning programme for the host community has thus to prepare the community to handle the inevitable impact visitors have on a destination, and ideally, should also encourage a culture of lifelong learning within that community. Such a programme should act as a springboard to interest locals in seeking employment in the tourism industry, also help them to make informed decisions about the specific industry section they would like to join. Programmes for further learning that will equip these potential workers with the specialised skills needed to make a success of their careers should flow from this basic learning programme in a community. Whole communities do not only have to be equipped with information and knowledge on a variety of topics, they also need to be able to effectively communicate this when and in the way the individual visitor needs or wants it. In a community where tourists are hosted, both hard and soft skills have to be mastered by as many people as possible, but especially by the tourism worker.

Anthropologists say that the impact tourists have on a destination is not limited to the natural surroundings, but it also affects the culture of the host community [Burns, 2000]. Culture is loosely defined here as "who we are and what we do" [own definition]. Values are affected, behaviour is influenced and workers in the tourism industry need to be equipped to serve the customer by meeting their need for knowledge on the one hand, and on the other to protect what is their own when tourists become too overwhelming. According to Smith [Smith, V.L. 1989], when people of two cultures meet for some time they start borrowing from each other. Although language is amongst the elements of culture that tourists can find attractive at a destination, the visitor is less likely to learn the host's language or adapt to their culture; they rather replicate their own culture in the host culture. This could lead to a loss of the uniqueness of the host culture. These negative effects of what is called "acculturation"² have to be resisted and minimised.

² Acculturation here is seen as involving "different levels of destruction, survival, domination, resistance, modification, and adaptation of native cultures following interethnic contact" [<http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Acculturation.>]

According to Keyser [2002], tourism can affect a range of aspects of a society's culture, amongst others the way in which people communicate. This has a direct relationship to language. The industry, highly fragmented as it is, has one common denominator: communication. The effectively spoken and written word often gives one product the cutting edge over another. Effective language on brochures, on road signage and maps draw and direct the visitor to a destination; in face-to-face contact at all touch points visitors are given rewarding experiences if they can understand the language.

English presently is the "lingua franca" of all business, and especially in the tourism business. Business communication often take place between people none of whom are native English speakers. Non-native English-speakers now outnumber native speakers 3 to 1 and, in a global revolution, hundreds of millions of people are learning English, which is empowering them in commerce and technology [Power, 2005]. The lack of English language competency can therefore severely hamper effective participation in the international tourism industry, not only for individuals, but also for whole communities and countries. Yet, not much research has been done on the importance of multi-lingualism or, at least, bilingualism in the industry.

People travel because they want to know. The host has to supply the knowledge and communicate it effectively to those who want it, as part of good service. The quality and effectiveness of service at a tourism touch point rest on the individuals involved and, therefore, the success of a tourism enterprise often hinges on the kind of worker it employs. Workers will handle their part of the information sharing [mostly the oral part] at all the touch points with the visitors successfully and with confidence if they are adequately equipped. Even at the remotest tourism destination, both visitors and hosts need and want to understand what is being asked of and said to them.

Although not the only way to convey a message, oral statement and aural comprehension are of the utmost importance in information sharing. However, information sharing at or about a destination can also be written, for example in advertisements, correspondence, brochures and road signs. Therefore, workers have to be tooled and retooled [Jongbloed, 2002] continuously to be able to handle all four language skills, that is listening and speaking, reading and writing. Attending a tourism industry specific language-learning programme can attain this.

Because of the high expectations of the industry and the continuous changes in the world around them, the tourism worker would do best to adopt an attitude of lifelong learning in order to survive in the fast-moving, multi-faceted tourism industry. Language-learning is not an overnight miracle, therefore, the acquire better competency are advisable should be continued right through. There are specific pertinent dynamics in and around tourism workers that effect their willingness and ability to learn [see Fig.2]. Many of these dynamics [for example level of proficiency, the typical

characteristics of the community the worker comes from, the ability to handle stress] are factors that affect all workers. When working in the tourism industry there are also dynamics like the proximity and sustainability of the destination, the industry’s complexities and demands, the effect of tourism on the community and the others mentioned in Figure 2. The tourism worker has to make a concerted effort to engage in lifelong learning and has to be supported in this effort.

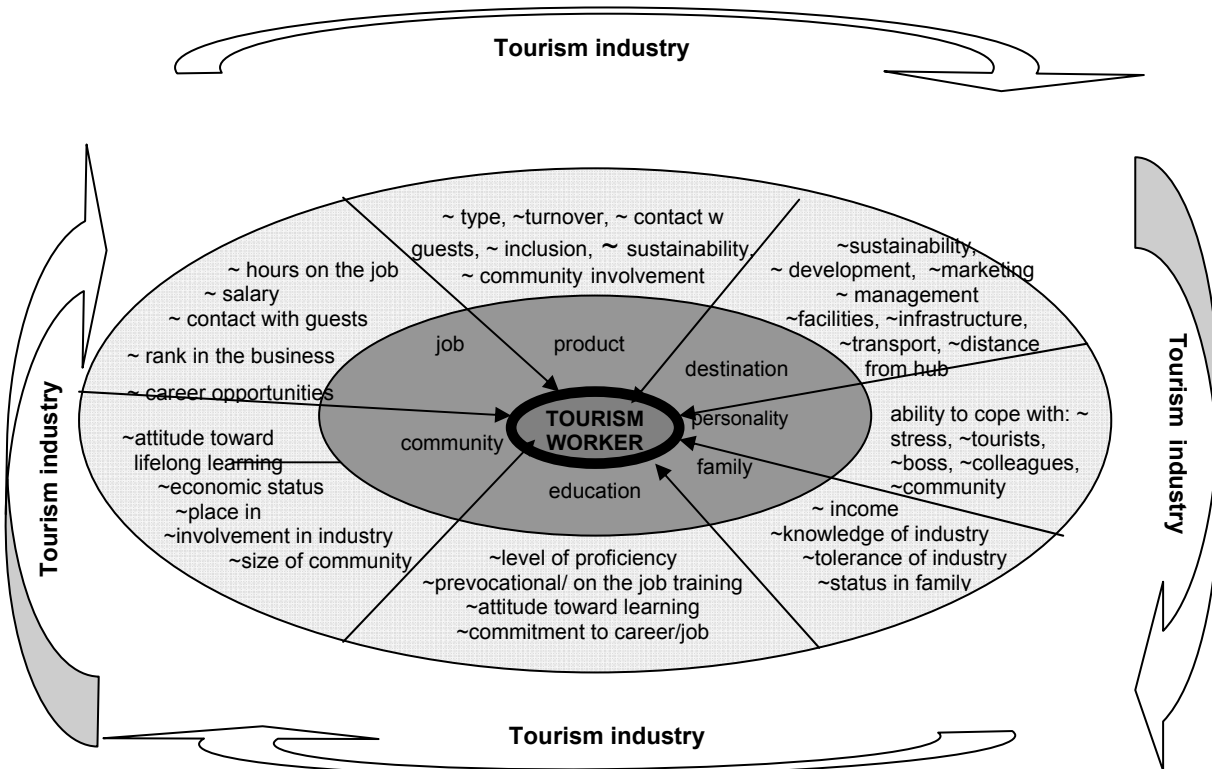


Figure 2. Place of tourism workers in the Industry and the Influences that affect them

The importance of the culture and the community the worker lives in and the effect of these on the learning process are discussed next.

1.2.1 CULTURE, COMMUNITY AND LEARNING

A country’s uniqueness often pivots on its culture. It is often the experience of the uniqueness and the quality of a destination that draws people to visit, revisit and tell others about it. This uniqueness manifesting in its people as culture is ultimately determined by who we are and what we do. The word “culture” is often used as opposite to “nature” and then implies “civilisation”. Yet, tourism has managed to intertwine the two concepts because the industry realises that they are inextricably connected – the natural surroundings at a destination has an influence on who the locals are and what they do [Ivanovic, 2008]. However, at the basis of this uniqueness is the community. Communities are the place where individuals are rooted in who they are; this is

where their perception of their own identity is shaped and where they are allowed to live that identity. The attitude of a community towards growth and change could enhance lifelong learning, motivating the individuals in that community to acquire the needed cutting-edge knowledge and skills. Encouraging a culture of lifelong learning, therefore, should be part of every tourism learning programme that aims to equip people to host visitors.

Twentieth century educationalist Lindemann, and African politician-developer Julius Nyerere [as cited in Smith, 1998] advocated adult education as the way to transform societies. Both argued that certification should not be the reason for becoming a lifelong learner, and both saw educated people as empowered people. Dewey, already in 1916, called adult education “education that enables people to share in a common life ...” [Dewey, 1916 as cited in Smith on <http://www.infed.org/thinkers/et-lind.htm>]. This was also Nyerere’s way of thinking about adult education. He said: “*Societies* become better places through the development of people” [Nyerere, as cited in Smith, 1998 on <http://www.infed.org/thinkers/et-nye.htm>; cursive added]. Freire, perhaps the most influential figure in informal education in the 20th century [Smith, 1997], said that the educational process enhances a sense of community and builds social capital, which in turn encourages justice and prosperity in a society [Freire as cited in Smith, 1997]. Transformed societies thus become better places to develop and keep developing people who willingly become empowered to build social capital and encourage justice and prosperity, which in its turn equips the community to become a viable tourist destination.

Sustainable tourism is based on social justice, economic efficiency and environmental integrity [Keyser, 2002]. This then could be attained if a community is adequately educated to face the challenges that come with tourism. Communities are impacted, but often ill-prepared to handle these challenges. Any tourism developer needs to create products that will both enhance the travel experience for the visitors while being sensitive towards the needs of the host community. The needs and how to address them have to be communicated between the developer and the community in a two-way communication process which can only happen if there is mutual understanding. A community, or at least its leaders, have to be fully informed about the possible positive and negative impacts of tourism and have to be equipped to handle both. This process will be enhanced if all participants speak the same language, both literally and figuratively. The idea of involving whole communities through Community Education programmes for tourism in the first place, and at the same time facilitating English for Occupational Purposes [EOP], is thus founded in the old concept that effective Community Education can enhance the living standard of individuals and communities.

In summary, tourism, community development and learning have a close relationship. The relationship is based on the fact that sustainable tourism development has to take three

components into consideration: the environment, the society and economics. Wherever there is a potential tourist attraction, the surrounding community should be involved in developing, manning and marketing this attraction. Taking ownership of the tourism potential in their community will create employment opportunities for local people, but these locals will have to be equipped with knowledge and skills to meet the demands that will be placed on them. Often, however, the supply of equipped local workers does not meet the demand. A solution to this need for human resources in the tourism industry in general, could be that whole communities adopt a culture of lifelong learning and allow and encourage this to thrive. This needs a tourism workforce that will see the tourism industry as a career in which they will be able to follow a career path. Only then will workers experience the need for learning and be motivated to do something about it. This study assumed that one of their learning needs is language proficiency and endeavoured to prove that by collecting relevant data.

A career in the tourism industry is almost unthinkable without the appropriate communication skills. As English now has become the language most tourists understand, it will be necessary to equip workers to use it effectively. Language-learning is not an overnight miracle, it will take time to acquire the needed skills and learning programmes will have to be designed along very specific guidelines taking the time limitations of the tourism worker into consideration. This thesis focuses on language-learning needs of the tourism worker and attempts to provide guidelines for designing learning programmes that will facilitate appropriate and effective language-learning in the tourism industry.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

In business today, the need to be at least bilingual is growing in proportion to the need to become globally competitive. Nowhere is this more prevalent than in the tourism industry where one product often has a market advantage simply because of the quality of its service, which is in its turn closely linked to understanding and being understood.

Taiwan was used in this study as an example of a country that has the potential to draw many international visitors, yet is not successful in doing so. One of the factors that prevents the tourism industry in Taiwan from drawing significant numbers of international visitors, is the lack of English proficiency in most areas outside Taipei. Not only is the English on maps, brochures and road signs poor, there are also not enough of these to satisfy the needs of an international tourist market. The average tourism worker also does not have adequate oral language skills to serve a demanding clientele. Unique selling propositions [USPs] like the lacquer museum and the papermaking workshop in Puli, the traditional umbrella making workshop and Hakka village in Meinung – all demonstrating age-old Chinese inventions and representing parts of the unique

Taiwanese culture - are inaccessible to non-Chinese speakers because of the language barrier. Cultural tourism, which could be a significant revenue earner especially in the rural areas, is thus not drawing the numbers it could.

Another part of the Taiwanese tourism industry where growth into an international clientele is hampered because of the language barrier, is nature-based tourism³ – more specifically the boat-based whale watching industry. Although nature-based tourism as a sector falls outside the scope of this thesis, mention needs to be made of the boat-based whale watching industry in Taiwan as an example of an perceived need. Boat-based whale watching is a fast growing sector of the global tourism industry and although there always needs to be a fair amount of reflection and quiet observation time during a whale-watching excursion, a guide has to be able to answer some basic questions about the animals and the region where they are found. Chou [2004] mentioned at the 10th Symposium on Cetacean Ecology and Conservation, that Taiwan has an almost exclusively domestic market, but has an untapped potential to draw international visitors. The lack of English proficiency amongst operators was mentioned as contributing to this. The lack of English proficiency effectively rules out all marketing to the international whale watching community, because especially these travellers have high expectations of service providers.

Although most Taiwanese under 35 years of age had English as a subject during their school-going years, very few have a working knowledge of the language because English is a foreign [as opposed to a second] language in Taiwan. Taiwanese do not need to speak English to survive in their country - it is generally not spoken anywhere other than in the classroom. The average Taiwanese in the rural areas seldom hears English and for many it is a dead language that they have little confidence in using to communicate with non-Chinese speakers. Moreover, adult language learners in Taiwan often have false expectations of outcomes of an English language-learning programme; in general, they want to have maximum fluency in an unrealistically short time.

Furthermore, in addition to the globally wide-spread low status that a career in the tourism industry has, there are some specific characteristics that typify the tourism situation in Taiwan. Firstly, as in many other countries in the world, the tourism industry is fragmented. Secondly, because too little money is made too slowly and the return on investment [ROI] is slow, quality suffers. Thirdly, many of the stakeholders are not knowledgeable about what unique selling propositions [USPs] are found in Taiwan and which of these would interest foreign travellers.

³nature-based tourism has as its goal to let visitors experience fauna and flora. It is not the same as eco tourism as the latter includes cultural experiences as well. It encourages an awareness of the environment and greater accessibility to remote regions. [Jaffar, 2000]

Fourthly, Taiwan has a high context culture and some tourism workers find it difficult to handle Westerners' low context⁴ cultures resulting in frequent misunderstandings. There is also a widespread fear of losing face when dealing with cultural differences, which manifests in workers rather turning their backs on a customer than serving them in English.

Yet, the Taiwanese situation, following the economic miracle that took place in this country, urged the government to fervently promote bilingualism [Chinese and English] to its citizens. As was stated in the July 2004 issue of the *Taiwan Journal*, one of the goals in the government's 'Challenge 2008' development plan was to designate English a 'quasi-official language' in Taiwan [Fanchiang, 2004]. This was a positive turn of events for the tourism industry. The tourism role players, both rural and urban will be in a far better position to run a lucrative international industry if they are able to impart their knowledge to visitors in English and will benefit if this plan is implemented.

Learning programmes for the tourism industry have to equip workers to acquire knowledge and skills to operate in the industry. Designing tailor-made language-learning programmes for the tourism industry that will provide in the need for all four language skills [that is reading, writing, listening and speaking], however, poses some challenges. An encompassing framework within which the process of acquiring the needed knowledge and skills as well as language proficiency is possible should be designed. This framework has to be based on relevant needs and wants of a variety of interested parties and contexts as well as on Andragogical principles. Individual programmes also have to be planned and developed within the epistemology of the society for which they are intended. Tourism language programmes do not want to reform, merely provide a tool. This needs to be kept in mind, especially where whole communities have to be educated to enable them to handle tourism activities in their community sustainably.

In conclusion, English language-learning will have to be incorporated in a meaningful way in general tourism learning programmes. This language input will have to be developed specifically for the tourism industry. The language component will have to attempt to meet the needs of the wide variety of cultures and levels of development represented by the tourism workers who want and need to get a working knowledge of English suited to their specific everyday needs. Learning opportunities will have to be facilitated in such a way that adult learners will be enthused and enabled to create their own individual learning pathways, thereby focusing their learning. An EOP programme aimed at just-in-time

⁴ High context and low context cultures are anthropological terms that refer to the way a culture's in-groups relate. People in a high context culture often leave things unsaid and allow the culture to explain. The high context cultures are more common in the East. [http://e.wikipedia.org/wkik/High_context_culture]

learning will have to be supported by a General English [GE] programme for as many workers and levels as possible.

Textbooks are currently available, but not one was found completely suitable to meet the needs of, specifically, the Taiwanese learners in this industry. Facilitators will therefore have to be able to adapt the manuals to meet these specific needs, or better still, design their own programmes. At present, however, there is no firm framework along which programmes like these could be developed.

Thus, this thesis will provide guidelines for the design of an English language-learning programme for the tourism workers in Taiwan. The purpose of the study is outlined in more detail below.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to explore whether tourism workers in Taiwan perceive that there is a need for learning English, the expectations they have about learning English and the kind of action they will take to learn English as a tool for obtaining and more effectively maintaining a job in the international tourism industry. The attitudes of these tourism workers will affect the design of a language-learning programme for the Taiwanese tourism industry.

A pilot programme that was run to test the effectiveness of language input in a tourism programme will be discussed and analysed to provide more data for the final recommendations.

The intention is to use the results of this survey to indicate guidelines for English language-learning programmes for Taiwan and also to point out how these guidelines could be adapted for programmes in the tourism industry in other parts of the world.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION

Tourism is a global industry, which places high demands on its workers especially in the area of communication. The language of communication in this industry is predominantly, but not exclusively, English. Workers in the industry need to communicate in a variety of situations and need to do so effectively since the success of an establishment and destination often hinges on their level of service provision. Confidence in language usage is a key factor to effective communication, which in turn leads to better service provision. However, language learning is not an overnight miracle and needs to happen over longer periods of time. Unfortunately, tourism workers mostly do not have the time to

attend extended CPD programmes. They work when others play. Moreover, prevocational education does not pay enough attention to EOP for the tourism industry. Therefore, tailor-made CPD language-learning programmes are necessary and these will have to meet specific needs.

The question thus arises:

What kind of language-learning programme will effectively equip workers in the tourism industry in Taiwan so that they will be able to host more international visitors?

1.6 NEED FOR RESEARCH

The realities in the tourism industry require continuing professional development of its workers. The industry is labour-intensive and creates ample employment opportunities, but workers are expected to have sophisticated knowledge and skills. In many countries, workers who want to join the industry have the opportunity to attend prevocational programmes, but these are seldom enough to fully equip them for the job they have to do. Added to this, is the fact that prevocational education for the industry is riddled with dichotomies [see p 84 for a detailed discussion]. Moreover, not all workers in the industry are able to attend prevocational programmes, especially not those from rural area destinations.

Because the work environment demands it, tourism role-players need to continuously increase their knowledge and improve their skills if they want to survive within the industry. The challenge is to **consistently** create as well as utilise opportunities to update knowledge and skills if you want to be able to face the challenges of today's general knowledge revolution, which also affects the tourism industry. Therefore, tailor-made, continuing industry-specific education as part of CPD programmes is necessary. Through these, learning on the job becomes an indispensable way of improving knowledge and skills. At the destination, the host community is expected to prepare themselves to host their visitors in the best possible way and this implies that they have to have up to date knowledge and skills in many fields. This learning has to happen daily when your guests are in your care, for example getting relevant information about the visitor's home country.

CPD learning programmes should also address the vital need for language-learning in the tourism industry. Prevocational education does not pay enough attention to EOP for the tourism industry even though there is an obvious need for it. Workers thus enter the industry with a communication deficit. This then will have to be addressed by including a strong language-learning aspect in all CPD programmes in the tourism industry.

However, the stakeholder groups in tourism are neither homogenous nor static and this makes the design of any, but especially a language-learning programme, very complex.

Taking into account all the above-mentioned, it becomes clear that a language-learning programme for the tourism industry will have to be carefully designed and implemented as it needs to address a complex set of needs. To determine the content and structure of such a programme, a country had to be selected where the lack of English competency was hindering the successful drawing of international visitors. Taiwan is such a country where most tourism workers have little competence and thus an equally low confidence in using English in their daily contact with international visitors. The study was done with tourism workers over a wide spectrum to determine what a tourism specific English language-learning programme should include and who would pay for it should implementing it be needed and desired.

The study aimed at designing such a programme, which would ultimately be suitable for international implementation.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

To draw up guidelines for an effective language-learning programme the following questions needed answers:

- What, according to practitioners, would a programme have to include to meet the immediate need to communicate effectively in English?
- How much time do adult learners want to and can they spend attending such a programme?
- How do they want to learn English [method/way]?
- Which language skills do they want to focus on?

Taiwan was selected as a case study because of my engagement with educational realities in that country and the research was shaped by my involvement with educational realities both in Taiwan in general and in the tourism industries of both Taiwan and South Africa. Observation of a number of tourism products and product owners in Taiwan outside Taipei made it clear that the language barrier is one of the main hurdles to overcome in making tourism products outside Taipei user friendly for foreign visitors.

In the first phase, after completing the literature review, the research endeavoured to only identify the perceived need of role players in the Taiwanese tourism industry for improving their English

skills. Because statistical data was required for this part of the research, a quantitative approach was used to obtain the initial data. This approach could provide data about which workers wanted to learn English, where they wanted to learn it, how they wanted to go about it [did they prefer contact sessions, distance learning or a combination of the two?] and how long the programme had to be. Data were collected using questionnaires that were personally taken to more than 140 frontline workers doing a variety of jobs at 10 destinations as well as from a tour operator who works all over Taiwan. Destinations were selected on the grounds of their popularity with foreigners, but also by taking into account the factors that could influence tourism workers' prospects to acquire English competency through language-learning programmes, for example proximity to cities, number and nature of contacts with international visitors and the age of the respondents. This was done to understand the Taiwanese tourism workers' opportunities, willingness and need to acquire English competency for the tourism industry in their country.

To enhance the validity and reliability of the research, both qualitative and quantitative research was done. There was purposive sampling of more than 140 frontline workers outside Taipei from role-players selected from the whole tourism spectrum except the travel industry [that is road, rail, aviation and water transport]. However, some workers on Penghu were surveyed, because their business is letting scooters to visitors and not transport as such.

1.7.1 Data analyses, interpretation and processing

Analysing the initial completed questionnaires indicated specific needs. Deductions from this analysis led to suggesting the type of language-learning programme that will be most effective for the tourism industry in Taiwan.

Quantitative research implies that the data can be understood as a general system of rules or laws. Although popularity of a certain "what?", "how?" and "how long?" in this specific case cannot be seen as an underlying law of language-learning in general, it could indicate an underlying law of preference in the Taiwanese tourism culture.

This thesis used non-probability sampling to obtain data and used mainly open coding as the data was broken down, examined closely and compared to find differences and similarities. The results are presented both as graphs and in summary. Three main methods of data collection, namely quantitative, qualitative and a literature review delivered data that were compared using triangulation to get to the conclusion in order to obtain reliable results from the research. A theory that will be substantiated or questioned by the data will be formed. By and large, the positivist approach was used in this survey.

Research in the form of interviews was found to be almost impossible because of the language barrier. After an interview with a respected role-player in the industry who could communicate in English, it was clear that no real in-depth data could be added to what was already clear through the quantitative data by attempting to interview more people – the lack of language ability would not allow in depth-discussions anyway. Role players' understanding of the need to be at least bilingual in this industry, and their motivation to acquire English, was found to be almost unanimous.

1.8 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS

Although, on the one hand, the event of tourism and the young industry that resulted from that have been deliberated upon from many angles and, on the other hand, the language-learning industry which has spurred much research and many publications, the relationship between the two have not been studied sufficiently. This study does not claim to be extensive, since it is limited to the Taiwanese tourism worker outside Taipei. The purpose is not to generalise, but rather to understand the current need of the frontline worker in this non-English speaking country to learn the globally accepted language of tourism and then, hopefully, to make recommendations of how to meet the need by providing a workable language-learning programme that will enable as many frontline workers as possible to speak English effectively.

1.9 CLARIFICATION OF KEY CONCEPTS IN THIS STUDY

1.9.1 Community tourism

The term 'community' is used in a variety of ways depending on the context. Members of a community are said to share a geographical area, social similarities and/or interests. We can also speak of virtual communities that are not limited to a physical space, but are linked via the worldwide web because they share a sense of relationship to other people with shared values, interests and history.

However, when this study refers to a community, it refers to a group of people within a specific locality, because tourism can only be practiced within a certain physical locale. This locale does not have to be exclusively in a rural setting, because a community can easily be part of an urban population.

Furthermore, this study sees community tourism [which could also be referred to as community-based tourism] as tourism that includes and benefits the people at the place where it happens.

Community tourism is at the heart of what is unique to a country, because community tourism brings the visitor in contact with the specific culture of the destination. It is here that the visitors get to know who people are and what they do – where visitors encounter the culture of their host.

This study realises that the stakeholders in the tourism industry, be it the government, the local businesses, the host community or the visitors, are neither homogenous nor is their situation static. Yet, in this study, community tourism implies that as many local people as possible have been given a fair share of the benefits and profits resulting from tourism as well as a say in deciding how the influx of tourists has to be managed in their area.

1.9.2 Sustainable tourism development

Sustainable tourism development, like development in general, has to stand on three pillars, namely environmental integrity, economic efficiency and societal justice [Keyser, 2002]. This study, therefore, sees development that happens within those parameters as the only development of value.

1.9.3 Learning programmes

Learning programmes are seen by this study as ordered interventions in the life of adults where their needs are being addressed in a unique way according to their own experience. These programmes could vary in length, scope and intensity, but should be based on the characteristic needs of the adult learner.

1.9.4 Tourism frontline worker

This study sees the frontline worker in the tourism industry as the person that regularly comes in contact with the visitors at the destination and who has an influence on the quality of service provided. These workers could include chambermaids, the maitre'd in a hotel, front of house staff, taxi drivers, waitrons and tourist guides.

1.10 OVERVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE USED IN THIS STUDY

Literature that provided information on language-learning, the design of adult learning programmes, different methods to facilitate learning as well as literature on the tourism industry was reviewed. The selection of especially the tourism sources was made not only from the printed media, but also from electronic sources. With tourism being a very young industry on the one hand and, on the other, a very complex industry for researchers to work in, not many works are available and the researcher had to often rely on the worldwide web to get the latest information on trends.

The event of tourism is ubiquitous and it affects a vast group of people in a variety of ways. The industry has thus been studied from the sociological, the anthropological and the economic angle. However, no studies could be found focusing on the linguistic aspect of especially cultural tourism.

Another area where a lack was experienced was in English literature dealing with the tourism industry in Taiwan. No in-depth studies could be found.

The literature review on the language aspect of this study provided enough background to act as a theoretical framework for creating a design for an English learning programme, but it did not provide information on industry specific English language-learning programmes for the tourism industry.

1. 11 CHAPTER BREAKDOWN

Chapter 1 explored the background, contextualisation and problem statement of this research while Chapter 2 reflects on the relevant literature that was studied for it. In Chapter 3, perspectives on the design of language-learning programmes are given and in Chapter 4, the research methodology is described. Chapter 5 gives the presentation, analyses and interpretation of research findings and Chapter 6 provides the final synthesis, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

1.12 CONCLUSION

English is the lingua franca of the tourism industry. Therefore, irrespective of the native language of the host country, tourism stakeholders have to at least have a working knowledge of English if the destination is interested in hosting international tourists and if they want to compete globally. However, language acquisition is never an overnight miracle. Therefore, the urgency in meeting the need of the tourism role-players' English proficiency poses a challenge. Apart from the stated fact that workers in the tourism industry are heterogeneous and mobile, they also do not have enough time to spend on elaborate programmes, yet need to handle language situations over a wide spectrum every day while dealing with international clients. A programme thus will have to provide just-in-time learning as well as support from a General English programme. Only having input without ample time to recycle that input to make it part of their mental lexis – ready for use - will not have maximum benefit for the learners and would complicate the facilitator's task.

A language-learning programme for English in the tourism industry will thus have to be a combination of an EOP programme and a continuing GE programme that will equip adult learners to respond to the challenges of finding and maintaining a job in the tourism industry. The EOP programme will provide the “just-in-time-learning” aspect, which will have to focus on facilitating learning in small portions when, where and for whom the challenge of communicating in English arises. This will have to be under-girded by a GE programme that will provide learning to assist in enlarging the lexis workers have to draw from throughout their career in the industry.

Guidelines to design the right, industry-specific programme have to be set up to make maximum learning for adult learners in the tourism industry possible. A language-learning programme for the tourism industry will have to facilitate language-learning in line with most other adult learning programmes in that it will have to be self-directed learning leading to a culture of lifelong learning and provide a sense of achievement in a short period of time. This thesis assumes that a language-learning programme for the tourism industry should have a large component of distance education to enable the adult learners to practice on their own, but this will have to be verified. The literature study showed that adult education programmes should be borderless in the sense of being easily adaptable to varying needs of these learners. Language-learning programmes that best serve the needs of tourism role players in Taiwan are thus assumed to also have this quality. Ultimately, English acquisition has to become a powerful and relevant tool for the achievement of service excellence in the global tourism industry.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In this chapter, literature will be reviewed under the headings “Adult education and tourism”; “English language-learning”; and “Language programme design”.

After this review, a gap in the current knowledge of the design of tourism-related English language-learning programmes as part of English for Special Purposes [ESL] programmes for tourism will be posed as the research question.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Practitioners and observers alike agree that tourism is a very diversified, dynamic, sophisticated and complex industry, encompassing a wide range of socio-economic and cultural activities and job profiles. The industry inevitably requires sophisticated knowledge from its stakeholders⁵ and Fálquez [1998] emphasises the fact that, since the individual worker is the pivot of any tourism enterprise, managing human talent would include educating them if you want total efficiency [Fálquez, 1998].

In the tourism industry, effective communication is even more important than in many other industries, and therefore it has specific needs as far as communication is concerned. Efficient language usage, as the core element of communication, is vital for this industry. Return visits or referrals are often based on the total communication experience visitors have had at a specific destination. The written word is important on signboards, maps and in brochures, but it is the face to face contact at all touch points at a destination where a visitor’s experience can be influenced by the effectiveness of the verbal communication. In the global tourism industry, this verbal communication happens mostly in English.

Although there are countries that pay attention to learning industry-specific English language in prevocational programmes, it is often the under-educated worker that does not have enough background or knowledge to use English effectively in the workplace. And yet, these are the workers that are the “face” of the destination, who make most face-to-face contact with the visitor. If there is no efficient use of English at these touch points, it is not only detrimental to the visitor

⁵ Stakeholders can be defined as simply any individual or identifiable group who is affected by, or who can affect the achievement of corporate objectives. [Ryan, 2001]

and the establishment, but also hampers the career path of the worker. Yet, few workplaces in the tourism industry provide language-learning programmes for their workers.

Before this lack of English language-learning programmes can be addressed, the need for general education in the tourism industry needs to be touched on.

2.2 ADULT EDUCATION AND TOURISM

In general, adults not only need to be prepared for the job market, they also have to stay professionally updated facing both the ever-escalating rate of technological change and today's societal changes. Adults desire personal enrichment, better jobs, higher incomes and an improvement in their individual standard of living as well as that of the societies they live in.

Two factors that pressurise society to change are the “accelerating speed with which new ideas and knowledge move from conception to application, and then become obsolete” [NIACE, 1993:6] and the globalisation of communication. Merriam [2005] confirms this by using the term “the half life of knowledge” when talking about the speed at which knowledge ages; new knowledge replaces the old every 73 days. These changes cause stress, which makes individuals vulnerable, and, in order to keep abreast of the changes and thus minimizing stress, adults need to learn.

Adult education has to help adults adjust to, as well as be, a catalyst for more change; it therefore cannot only be reactive, but has to be proactive as well in responding to change and in feeding more change [Rachel, 2000]. Adults desire personal enrichment, better jobs, higher incomes and an improvement in their individual standard of living as well as that of the societies they live in. Throughout history, Adult Education, in responding to particular needs, has been instrumental in improving individuals' standard of living and through that, the society they live in. Tourism as a catalyst for change affects not only the individual, but also whole communities and thereby creates a need for learning over a wide front.

2.2.1 General learning need in the tourism industry

There are many agents of change within the tourism industry and even the event of tourism itself, whether at the community or national level, regularly either occurs when there is rapid change or it brings on rapid change [Smith, S.L.J. 1989]. The industry itself is multifaceted and for Keyser [2002] it includes “travel distribution, transport and infrastructure, accommodation and other tourist facilities, food and beverage operations and support-services” [2002:164]. Leiper [1979] concurs that the elements consist “...of all those firms, organizations, and facilities which are intended to serve the specific needs and wants of tourists” [Leiper, 1979 as cited in Smith, S.L.J. 1989:32]. All

of these tourism-focused firms, organisations, facilities, establishments, and activities will benefit if employees are sufficiently equipped with the needed skills and knowledge. Being equipped implies at least having factual knowledge about the world at large, the community [politics, challenges, geography, history, ecology] and area, their culture, the culture of the guests, business practices, and marketing. In their turn, these also change all the time and information has to be updated.

However, tourism does not only affect the individual worker, it happens in a community as a whole, and if a destination as a whole wants to benefit, not only the tourism-focused, but all the above-mentioned sectors [both the public and private sectors] that combine to contribute to the tourism consumer's experience will need to be included in education and training programmes to service the visitor's needs and expectations.

In the tourism industry this has become particularly pertinent when tourism is developed in rural areas. Here, indigenous people's culture and heritage have become a tourist draw card [Ivanovic, 2008] and tourism has become the new revenue earner replacing other, now non-profitable or redundant, industries like fishing and agriculture, contributing to the improvement of living standards for those communities. Many researchers believe the interaction between the host community and the visitor causes social as well as cultural change in societies [Keyser, 2002]. If communities are not equipped to handle the change that tourism can bring about, they will have to stand by and watch as others from the outside make decisions about and profit from what really belongs to them.

Change, tourism and a need for education and training go hand in hand and therefore require the right needs-based learning programmes. The event of tourism itself can be an agent of change, because it affects both the destination and the visitor. In the following section this will be deliberated.

2.2.1.1 Tourism as an agent of change

All tourism endeavours are resource consumers and as such they have an impact both on the traveller and the host. Although not the only agent, tourism can be powerful in changing a community [Keyser, 2002]. It has the ability, according to Keyser [2002], to over-consume resources, which can have negative results on people as well as the environment. Although tourism does not pollute the environment to the same extent as most manufacturing industries, it can impact a community negatively on the social, cultural, environmental and economic levels. Indigenous people, according to Ivanovic [2008], become vulnerable in the face of what they perceive as the "superior" culture of the visitors. Communities will do well if they are educated to

take ownership of and then manage their resources in a meaningful way. Some ways of doing that will be discussed in the following section.

[a] Managing societal change and threats

The impact of the interaction between the host community and the visitor causes social as well as cultural changes in societies [Keyser, 2002] and applying sound management tools and techniques will minimise the negative impact and maximise local benefits. This can only happen if “training and education methods that empower, monitor and evaluate impact” are incorporated [Douglas et al (ed) 2001:19].

Doxey's Irridex⁶ model of community attitudes to tourism is a simplified indication of the complexities of the relationship between the host and traveller [Keyser, 2002]. Keyser claims that morals [specifically related to prostitution, crime and gambling], language, health and economic patterns are impacted by the event of tourism in a community. Taken that Smith [Smith, V.L.1989] already mentioned this in 1989 when she maintained that the crime rate at a destination can grow because inflation is stimulated and that local traditions, morals and local sites can deteriorate because of an increase in tourism numbers, communities will be better off taking ownership and responsibility for managing their resources. This can only be achieved if they are educated about and trained for specific roles in the tourism industry by attending industry specific adult education programmes.

[b] Managing conflict

Another reason for equipping the host community to face the challenges of tourism is that there is a strong possibility of tourism causing both exogenous⁷ and endogenous⁸ conflict. The former is caused by culture shock and cultural arrogance manifesting in the visitor and the latter could happen between different groups within the host community [Keyser, 2002]. If these conflicts are not resolved they can lead to frustrations and loss of external as well as internal goodwill and harmony. The best way to equip people to handle these conflicts is to equip them with knowledge and skills.

Host communities have to be informed [educated] about the benefits and the cost of the industry and they have to understand what tourism is about, why it is important and how they can gainfully take part in the industry [Keyser, 2002].

⁶ Doxey's Irridex is a graphic indication of the rising levels of irritability in a host community resulting from their continued contact with tourists.

⁷ Exogenous conflict is conflict from outside the community

⁸ Endogenous conflict is conflict arising from within the community

[c] Adapting to global trends

Rachel [2000] points to the global trend of people moving from rural to urban areas in search of higher incomes and a better lifestyle. This causes a brain and workforce drain in rural areas as people leave their hometowns for the urban areas. Those that stay behind have to cope, as on the other hand there is an escalating interest of travellers to visit rural areas. Both those that move away and those that stay behind have to adapt to the changes and they can only adapt if they are equipped, which evidently is a significant reason for adult education and learning [Rachel, 2000]. Workers in the tourism industry are no exception. These workers generally are more mobile, change careers more often, and therefore need to upgrade their skills continuously.

Both this move from rural to urban areas and the escalating interest of travellers to visit rural areas cause changes that in turn demand people to adapt. They can only adapt if they are equipped, which evidently is a significant reasons for adult education and learning [Rachel, 2000].

Only if tourism role-players have learned how to face the impact of tourism in their community on their work and private lives will it benefit rather than harm the community. The workplace in general, whether urban or rural, has become the pivotal point of change, demanding and shaping the need for and the form of adult education.

2.2.1.2 General need for learning programmes

Work-related learning programmes have gained global importance, and initial certification as well as the continuous retooling of the workforce has captured the attention of both the public and private sector. The industrial economy has been replaced by a network economy – the so-called new economy - where customers' particular demands lead to custom-made goods and services [Jongbloed, 2002].

Therefore, the business of educating and training stakeholders in any industry, whether this happens in formal institutions or in a non-formal context, has to be run like any business, based on the needs of the customer. In the business of adult education and training, this implies that the needs of adult learners, sponsors, employers and the industry have to be met. Tourism training suppliers have to adapt to the demand of their clientele who want to enter the job market and maintain their position in it by being suitably equipped with knowledge and skills.

The principal, commonly felt need of tourism workers is to be equipped to deliver a world-class service to a demanding international clientele that expects high standards whether they spend their money in an urban or rural destination. Equipping them would mean making tailor-made learning programmes available, but Wander [1998] argues that although there have been

education and training programmes in the individual sectors of the industry [for example hotels, attractions, airlines] they never interconnected or had generic qualities which would have given them portability throughout the industry.

A historic overview of development in higher education for the tourism industry also points out that the current provision might be feeding a market that is not ready for these educated workers [Cooper, Shepherd, and Westlake, 1996]. In the highly mobile tourism workforce, this is not an ideal situation and the need for effective adult education learning programmes as a continuation of prevocational education is growing.

[a] Other areas where tourism education is needed

As mentioned above, tourism education cannot be restricted to only those people directly involved in the tourism industry. It also has to be aimed at, for instance, the worldwide financing community, who are very selective in what they want to fund in the tourism industry - often preferring to only fund 'safe projects' [Cleverdon, 2002]. Between "optimistic, dream-fulfilling entrepreneurs and over pessimistic, hard-nosed bankers" [Cleverdon, 2002:16] the fact that tourism development projects are high on initial capital costs and slow in showing a return on investment obscures the fact that in the long run there is significant return on investment. This often deters entrepreneurs from starting a business in the tourism industry.

Developers often need to be educated as well. Sustainable tourism product development should be done within the parameters of social justice, economic efficiency and ecological integrity, but many tourism product developers are unaware of this and are ill-equipped to apply it. A learning programme aimed at equipping the developers with relevant knowledge about sustainable tourism development will be a bonus to all concerned.

As tourism is a strong agent of economic development in a country and can earn large volumes of foreign exchange, it cannot be the sole responsibility of the private sector. While private entrepreneurs mostly own tourism enterprises, governments have to take a pro-active role in both the generic development and marketing of their country's industry. Tourism needs to slot into the national economic goals, has to have political legitimisation, has to contribute to equity and meet social needs, and because it has to be regulated, government has to implement negative controls. Tourism products also have to contribute effectively toward regional development and social investment. State involvement, therefore, is necessary, mainly [but not exclusively] for these reasons. Although tourism learning programmes for government officials comprise another important sector, designing these does not fall within the scope of this thesis.

Although tourism is a “soft” industry without clear boundaries, not solely concerned with making money, and Inskeep [1997] contests that it rather is a socio-economic activity or sector than an industry, it still needs to be run according to business principles. Given the enormous emphasis on competition and innovation globally, tourism businesses have to face this challenge with an equipped workforce if they want to survive in this cutthroat industry. Business that is now run along the lines of a new economy, the role of women that has changed, computer literacy that is inescapable, and educational thresholds that have been raised – all these make both prevocational preparation and continuing professional development obligatory for individuals and partly also for whole communities.

All the above-mentioned factors should be considered in designing learning programmes for the tourism industry for, because of the size of the industry’s workforce, they influence a large number of people. Yet, because the workers are constantly faced with the challenge to adapt to change on a wide front, the only way they will get equipped to face the challenges is by becoming lifelong learners who will be motivated to take up every opportunity that presents itself to learn, formally, non-formally or informally. If human potential in the tourism industry has to be maximally developed, the acquiring of knowledge is important, but the ability to communicate that knowledge effectively is indubitable. Therefore, one of the most important and urgent areas of learning that the tourism industry has to address is language-learning. This will be discussed under 2.2.3.

2.2.1.3 Workplace

Tourism communities at large need to be educated about tourism, but it is the tourism workplace that has become the pivotal point of change, demanding and shaping the need for and the form of adult education.

It is widely believed that by its very nature the tourism industry can create many jobs and that it will almost certainly grow and maintain its position as the largest industry in the new millennium. Winberg [1998] warns that the workforce needs to continuously adapt to the ever-present change happening on a worldwide front influencing the industry. In Mexico, as an example, unemployment and underemployment causes the population to look to tourism as a job generator and approximately six million workers are employed in direct and indirect jobs - the equivalent of 16% of the economically active population [Marques, 1998]. If the tourism industry then can envision possible new products and develop them, it also has to take up the responsibility to fill the thereby created jobs with an equipped workforce. Marques stresses the importance of training for tourism activities “ insofar as a destination's competitive edge stands to benefit considerably when tourists are treated courteously and efficiently” [Marques,1998:66]. If the tourism sector's training requirements for the wide range of workers are met in an organised learning programme

at national level [Marques, 1998], it might help to meet the challenge of having suitably qualified workers on all levels available. Adult education thus becomes an unavoidable prerequisite.

Because the industry is striving for quality in both products and services, there is a big responsibility on the frontline worker in the tourism industry to provide quality service. Experiencing the highest quality service will let consumers pay a return visit as well as do word of mouth marketing. The more visitors, the more tourism revenue will increase making it easier to provide new and improved job opportunities for the large base of tourism employees [Wander, 1998].

It needs to be kept in mind that, although adult education can empower communities to improve conditions caused by social adversities like HIV/Aids, moral decline and crime that might have been brought on by their contact with tourists, it cannot eliminate them. For adult education to have maximum effect in a community, the need for it has to be experienced first. However, only if this need is coupled with both opportunity and motivation will adult education make a sustainable contribution. Unfortunately, opportunity and motivation are not always present, especially not amongst the urban poor where commitment to education is scant [Rachel, 2000]. Added to this is the fact that very few tourism employees have experienced a satisfying tourism career path as such. These are some of the challenges that need to be faced when designing a learning programme for the tourism industry. Others will be discussed in the next section.

2.2.1.4 Challenges for the design of a tourism industry specific learning programme

Human resource development is of the utmost importance for this industry. Ostensibly, if more is invested in employee development it will result in more job satisfaction for the employee and that will foster commitment towards the organisation [EDIT⁹, 1997]. This could be the solution to the high turnover rates and better work performance in the tourism industry all over the world as well.

Tourism stakeholder groups are neither homogenous nor static and this makes the design of education and training programmes very complex [Douglas et al, 2001]. Added to this is the fact that prevocational education for the industry is riddled with dichotomies [further discussed in Chapter 4] which increases confusion and a lack of an internationally recognised standard [Swarbrooke, J. <http://www.atlas-euro.org>]. The clientele [adult learners] of the learning programme provider in tourism consist of tourist guides, front of house staff, taxi drivers, event organisers, travel agents, housekeeping staff, waitrons, tourism bureau employees, bar tenders,

⁹ EDIT [Employee development in tourism: a comparative study of policies and practices in the hotel industry (UK — 1997)]

tourism developers, researchers and call centre operators to name but a few stakeholders – constituting a varied clientele which is a challenge for language-learning programme designers.

A large percentage of tourism workers could be labelled seasonal and/or blue-collar workers who do not necessarily see the tourism industry as their career and therefore have neither ambition to climb the organisational ladder, nor a loyalty to their place of employment. Compounding the problem is the fact that the managerial group in tourism constitutes considerably less than 10% of the workforce [Cooper et al, 1996] and that these are also often recruited from other industries. A lack of motivation in the frontline worker to improve on the one hand, and a lack of intimate industry and destination knowledge on the side of the managers on the other hand, are thus often prevalent and very few tourism employees have experienced a satisfying tourism career path as such. This situation could be improved by offering learning programmes to both managers and frontline workers that would enable them to work and progress in the tourism industry.

2.2.1.5 Funding tourism learning programmes

Given all these positive spin-offs of educating workers, investment in the development of a good workforce should be substantial, but it does not seem to be the case. Education and training is not often seen as one of the main expenditures to be included in a tourism budget. The fact that this discussion does not fall within the scope of this thesis should not be seen as an indication that it is an unimportant aspect of education and training in this industry.

2.2.2 Globalisation of communication

Furthermore, globalisation, another inescapable reality, has placed enormous emphasis on competition, innovation and worldwide agreements in all sectors of society. Information and communication technologies [ICT] and e-commerce have changed the way people learn, communicate, do business and spend their money and leisure time. This has an extensive influence on the tourism industry and globally exercises new pressure on the workforce. An enterprise has to “be connected” to the worldwide web to prosper and the need for easy and effective communication that now spans the globe, forces employees in the tourism industry to handle the Internet and e-mails effectively and professionally. They have to accommodate the increase in visitors’ use of, for instance, electronic travel booking, and have to master the skills of written communication on a wider front than ever before. Marketing the uniqueness of their destination to the global clients has become a language challenge to host destinations.

According to Smith [1989], challenges inherent to the tourism industry are not only closely related to each other, but also have an effect on education and training programmes. The challenge of staying unique, yet acceptable to visitors of other cultures demands clear verbal decoding of your

culture. Also, aspects like fragmentation and lack of organisation in the industry have to be overcome without forcing tourism businesses and destination attractions to fall into a boring homogeneity [Smith, 1989]. The uniqueness of local culture is a strong draw-card and if destinations are not dissimilar in what they have to offer culturally, they will lose visitors, but this unique culture has to be decoded in a mutually understood language.

2.2.2.1 Culture

The event of tourism has contributed to a cultural uniformity and homogenisation [see pp 30, 81]; however, it has as one of its prerequisites the existence of diverse cultures. If there were no cultures to explore and experience, travellers would not be lured away from their homes [Ivanovic, 2008]. Presenting and decoding their community's culture to strangers places specific demands on individuals and on the community as a whole – it demands on the one hand knowledge of the visitors' culture and on the other a deep understanding of their own. Added to this is the need for an ability to decode in a mutually understood language what the visitor does not understand about the hosts' culture.

Tourism consumers want to be entertained [Keyser, 2002]. Experiencing the distinctive cultural expression of a community in festivals, processions, local food, music and dance, will add entertainment value to a visit. The quality of this entertainment, which can become economic incentives as well as support for maintaining and revitalising various cultural activities in the host community [Keyser, 2002], depends entirely on people and therefore can be highly volatile. To get cultural presentations to a sustainable level of excellence a few typical stumbling blocks have to be faced. One of these is the fragmentation and lack of organisation that prevail in especially this part of the industry. Often one hand at a destination does not know what the other is doing and competition and rivalry are rife. Duplication of events and special features often occurs. If the balance between maintaining a level of authenticity, and giving an experience with a high standard has to be maintained, people have to be tooled and re-tooled to handle the specific demands their involvement in presenting cultural entertainment to strangers places on them. It is therefore important that the entertainers understand the industry; which they can only achieve if there is adequate opportunity for them to learn about it.

Culture has to be interpreted and this needs a good command of the spoken word. If human potential in the demanding tourism industry has to be maximally developed, the acquiring of knowledge is important, but the ability to communicate that knowledge effectively is unquestionable. Therefore, one of the most important areas of learning in the tourism industry is language-learning. "Language and literature are crucial elements of local culture..."[Keyser,

2002:351] and experiencing other cultures is one of the biggest motivators for the modern traveller. This will be discussed in the following section.

2.2.3 Language need in the tourism industry

Language-learning is one of the most important and urgent areas of learning that the tourism industry has to address, as it is the ability to serve clients in the international tourism language that might be the strongest pull factor at a destination. Not only is the spoken word a tool in meeting the needs of tourists at the destination, but the written word is equally important when marketing a destination in brochures, advertisements and billboards. Directing visitors at the hand of road signage, interpretative signage and maps require the written word to be used skilfully.

When people of two different language groups make contact, like they do in the tourism industry, the group with the greater incentive will learn the other group's language, according to Keyser [2002]. The language that is learned is not necessarily that of the group that has more power or status. Globally, English is the language most often used in the tourism industry, because it is the language of the nations that have the highest travel propensity. Keyser further mentions that if a host community learns the language of the people that comprise their main market, they do it for commercial reasons [Keyser, 2002]. Learning to use English effectively thus implies that it would hold commercial benefit for workers at the destination.

Although the acquisition of English for workers in the tourism industry is globally seen as vital, it is not a priority in prevocational training for the industry. Looking at the place language-learning programmes take in prevocational syllabi in general, there is little hope at present that those for the tourism industry will be any different. In general [not exclusive to tourism learning programmes], ESL and EFL programmes are nearly always noncredit, extra-curricular programmes at tertiary institutions. This marginalizes ESL and EFL facilitation in a post school context where accumulating credits toward a specific degree or certificate is the usual academic practice. Non-credit courses generally do not have the same status as serious academic studies [Christison and Stoller, 1997] and are therefore not taken very seriously. Because this is also true of prevocational education for the tourism industry, it often results in workers not having the basic English language skills to serve clients. However, if, as Keyser maintains, about 700 million people travelled the world in 2000 alone [Keyser, 2002] enough workers will have to be equipped to handle international customers efficiently by serving them in English. With the lack of prevocational programmes that focus on language-learning for the industry, on-the-job training becomes almost the sole solution for this dilemma.

Language learning has to be seen as an important and urgent need because it is the ability to serve clients in the international tourism language that might be the strongest pull factor at a destination. Effective use of language is not only strongly connected to best service practice, but also can help to manage the changes that are brought about by tourism. Keyser lists these as being acculturation, diffusion and devolution [Keyser, 2002:357].

Language learning should be offered to as many people involved in the industry as possible on a regular base. The tourism industry often recruits frontline workers from the less-educated group of economically active members of a community who often did not have the opportunity to learn languages other than their native tongue. It is these workers that have most contact with the visitors and comprise the “face” of both the establishment and the destination. If they do not deliver the kind of service the visitors expect, ultimately the whole industry loses. Good service implies good communication and this in turn implies that English should be used effectively at all touch points of a destination. Singapore ostensibly draws as many tourists per annum as Japan, simply because Singaporean tourism workers use English to serve their customers, more so than do their Japanese colleagues. To assist as many tourism workers as possible to acquire a good working knowledge of English at the destination where English is not the lingua franca, will need extensive and effective adult English learning programmes.

Gonzalo and Gee accentuate the importance of languages in the tourism industry by adding the issue of culture:

Language training in the workplace is important for cross-cultural communication, which provides higher levels of guest satisfaction. Languages are also important for the reason that they also promote cross-cultural understanding of guest behaviour, values, needs and desires in the international marketplace [Gonzalo and Gee, 2002:213]

A second or foreign language-learning programme has to take into account that cross-cultural differences demand extra linguistic elements especially because these variables affect the relationship between the visitor and host [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d]. Consequently, adult learners will have to be prepared to on the one hand be able to communicate in a foreign language, and on the other “to be capable of international communication, without having to face the problem of textual and contextual ambiguities” [Dominguez and Rokowski n/d:9].

In summary, the tourism industry has hurdles to overcome in the quest of an educated, equipped workforce. Apart from the fact that global as well as domestic events, trends and changes have a significant influence on tourism, there are other factors that commonly occur and that hamper effective education. There is not only one type of establishment, business or activity that can be termed “tourism” and tourism education is as fragmented and diverse as the industry itself is.

Educators also have to comply with the diversity of stakeholders that originate from a variety of disciplines, ranging from illiterate to highly literate, from permanent professionals to a large contingent of seasonal workers, blue and white collar workers, and include all age groups and both genders. In addition, the industry more than most other industries, has to contend with a typically high staff turnover rates as mobility characterises tourism workers. Although this diversity is beneficial to the industry in many ways, it places huge demands on especially designers of language-learning programmes.

2.3 ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING

An adult learner's readiness to learn is often determined by an experienced need which does not necessarily mean that there is a need for gaining full understanding or that the subject matter needs to be studied in its entirety; their need needs to be met as soon as possible. Functional and communicative use of a target language is therefore needed. The need for global effectiveness in the tourism industry often calls for "just-in-time" language-learning education and training delivered in small portions when, where and for whom the problem or need arises.

Language learning is different from other kinds of learning; language is acquired [as opposed to learned] and its acquisition cannot be measured. It "... involves a small element of factual knowledge, but consists largely of procedural knowledge; it is not about knowing how to, but about being able to." [Lewis, 2001:193]

Moreover, acquisition is non-linear and therefore not easily programme-able. In language-learning programmes there is no guarantee that teaching will cause learning or acquisition. "All we can do is: give exposure, facilitate noticing and understanding and hope for the best. Merely facilitating acquisition, not guaranteeing it" [Du Plessis, 2004]. This poses a challenge to any language-learning programme, but especially in the tourism industry where workers have to produce effective language all the time in a great variety of situations and for a diverse clientele.

To enable adult learners to acquire language, the facilitator's role should be one of enhancing the learner's ability to accurately observe the appropriate parts of the input they meet in the contact sessions, so that they can recycle them in a meaningful way and the language can become part of their mental lexis to be used in a real world situation. In practical terms, this implies that these second or foreign language learners have to hear, read, speak, and write relevant language or so-called lexical chunks, again and again, with the proviso that it is presented in many different forms and certainly not in the behaviourist sense of drilling. The Lexical Approach says "[i]nput is the

language the learner meets which can be turned into intake.” [Lewis 2001:217]. Adult learners need a lot of and varied input to acquire the target language, so that it can be available for spontaneous use.

Facilitators have to keep in mind that the re-cycling has to happen within a milieu of meaningful communication which should rather be termed “meaningful interaction” for fear of confusion with the Communicative Approach’s over-emphasis of output without necessarily providing input. This is in line with the Natural Approach’s “Comprehensible Input Hypothesis”, which says that learners can only acquire a language if they can understand it by connecting it to prior knowledge and known concepts. They maintain that language that is not understood is simply ‘L2 noise’ [Krashen and Terrell, 1983].

Adult learners need to get

The best methods ... those that supply 'comprehensible input' in low anxiety situations, containing messages that students really want to hear ... [Krashen as cited in Schütz, 2002]

The Lexical Approach is seen as a very effective methodology, but it was born out of a long history of language-learning theories. A brief history of these is given below.

2.3.1 Brief history of language-learning theories

Initially, the **Grammar- Translation Method**, which focused more on knowing the subject than the language itself [Richards and Rodgers, 1988] was used. It was easy on the teachers, but no justification or rationale has ever been offered for this language-learning method [Richards and Rodgers, 1988]. The context of foreign language-learning at that stage was that languages were not necessarily learnt to be spoken. According to Orem [Orem, n/d] this method can be traced back to ancient Rome where learners studied the grammar of the target language and translated written communication into their native language.

The grammar translation methodology was followed, in the mid-1940s, by a new language teaching methodology, Fries’s **Audio-Lingual Approach**. This approach focuses on developing speaking and listening skills. It was mostly generated and used as an ESL learning approach in the United States of America where Fries and his colleagues were teaching critical foreign languages to military personnel in the United States during World War II. During this period conversational proficiency in other languages was needed most and learner motivation understandably was very high. In its final analysis, this approach was based on Behaviourism as practiced by Skinner. It was mostly centred on drilling learners in sentence patterns, and according to its disciples, based on the assumption that language learning was not much different from other forms of learning [Orem, n/d]. Although very little pedagogy is evident and the

underlying principle is that of 'practice makes perfect', it still proved to be quite successful. Foreign languages were now learned in response to a real-life need for speakers to communicate in the foreign language [Christison and Stoller, 1997]. This methodology is still prominent throughout the world, because many of today's ESL teachers acquired a second language in an audio-lingual context in the fifties and sixties [Orem, n/d].

The **Cognitive-Code Methodologies**, which were historically the next phase, emphasise *meaningful* situational language learning and language use, the role of motivation and context. Based on Chomsky's theory, which stresses understanding, both the cognitive and the humanistic notions of learning are acknowledged. Learners consciously focus on grammar, but situational dialogues are used and the person's native language is accepted as a tool to analyse the target language [Orem, n/d].

A new concept in language teaching, the **Comprehension Approaches**, was spearheaded by clinical psychologists and emphasised receptive skills (listening comprehension). Asher's "Total Physical Response" where the coordination of speech and action were imperative, was one of the approaches that offered new insights into adult second language learning and changed the material and methodology in many classrooms, leading to the development of a number of communicative approaches. Yet, Asher's theory of learning reminds one of those of the Behaviourists [stimulus-response learning].

The change that these approaches brought about in language teaching since the 1970s, plus the comparatively new branch of linguistics, sociolinguistics, led to the development of a new, interesting period in language teaching [Orem, n/d].

In Britain the "meaningful situation-based language" learning of the Situational Language Teaching [also termed the Oral Approach] was replaced in the 1960-70s by the **Communicative Language Approach**. This approach placed more emphasis on semantics (language use) and less on syntax (language form) [Orem, n/d] – communicative proficiency was their goal. Expressions of this approach were found in Asher's Total Physical Response Approach, Curren's Community Languagelearning, sometimes referred to as an example of a 'humanistic' approach [Richards and Rogers, 1986] and Gattegno's The Silent Way .

Very soon however, Krashen and Terrell's **Natural Approach** challenged this school of thought with their Acquisition/Learning, Monitor, Natural Order, Input, and Effective Filter Hypotheses.

In the late 1970s Terrell, a teacher of Spanish, and Krashen, an applied linguist, started promoting the Natural Approach, which is different from the much earlier *Natural Method* advocated by Gouin

and others. The latter method, known too as the *Direct Method*, believed in learning a language like a child learns a language: without studying its grammar first [Richards and Rodgers, 1988]. Although Krashen and Terrell relate their approach to this method, there are important differences [Richards and Rodgers, 1988]. To Krashen “learning” is exclusively conscious, explicit learning of rules and language “learning” would be at least a senseless activity. Krashen’s term “language acquisition” became the popular term. According to him, language acquisition is “the unconscious intake of language which is then available for spontaneous use” [Lewis 2001:215], thus relating it to the acquisition of a language by a child. He contentiously claimed, “learning and acquisition are in no way related” [Lewis 2001:215]. The acquisition of language does neither require an all-embracing use of conscious grammatical rules nor tedious drill work [Schütz, 2002].

This makes sense if what Lewis maintains, namely that there are two types of knowledge, is true. Lewis’s groundbreaking and much debated “lexical approach” distinguishes between “declarative knowledge” and “procedural knowledge” where “declarative knowledge” is *knowledge that...* and “procedural knowledge” is *knowledge how to*. Declarative knowledge would be knowing about a language and procedural knowledge would be the ability to effectively use the language. This has a profound influence on language teaching and supports what Krashen and Terrell had already pointed out.

According to Lewis [2001], “declarative knowledge” deals with the facts and rules of grammar and the vocabulary of a language – knowledge about the language. It is additive - new facts [discrete bits of knowledge] are merely added to existing knowledge and does not of its own accord become part of the learner’s mental lexis; it is known but not spontaneously available. Although this certainly is a part of language-learning, it is only a small contribution to language acquisition as Krashen would have it.

Through the years experts like Chomsky, Krashen and Lewis have moved the focus of language-learning. Chomsky said that the fundamental characteristics of language, the creativeness and uniqueness of individual sentences could not be explained by standard structural theories of language [Richards and Rogers, 1988]. Lewis took it a step further; his work is based on Krashen’s theory, in that it opposes senseless drilling assuming that it will cause learning, but it is not synonymous with the latter’s “Natural Approach”. Although Lewis also maintains “[t]he Lexical Approach re-emphasises much that was put forward in the original Communicative Approach, most notably the centrality of meaning and activities which are explicitly purposive” [Lewis, 2001:192], he diverts from the foundation on which the Communicative approach is built as he believes there has to be input before the learner can be expected to give verbal output.

Facilitators of especially adult language learning have to keep in mind that the re-cycling has to happen within a milieu of meaningful communication which, Du Plessis [2004] says, should rather be termed “meaningful interaction” for fear of confusing it with the Communicative Approach’s over-emphasis on output without necessarily providing input.

Second language-learning is not a cut and dried process and little is known about the actual way in which it takes place. For example, during the last two decades the concept of language and language learning has expanded so that it now is not merely purely linguistic, but includes the grammatical as well as the interactive aspects of using a second language. According to Yalden [1989], this enlarges the scope of the facilitator and includes enriching the teaching situation to allow for the changes facing the second language learner. Structure-based, teacher-centered programmes now have to allow for more natural language acquisition opportunities. Better still, programmes have to be planned to be fully communicative or functional in nature [Yalden, 1989]. The tourism industry needs programmes that apply this principle if industry-specific language-learning programmes to be effective.

2.3.1.1 Lexical Approach

Lewis’s Lexical Approach needs further discussion in relation to the need for a language learning programme for the tourism industry. He maintains that his distinction between “declarative knowledge” and “procedural knowledge” are not totally separated, but that the ways in which they are acquired are [Lewis, 2001]. The new language bits are integrated into existing knowledge, modify it and after that become available for the spontaneous use that role players for instance in the tourism industry, need. According to Lewis the Lexical Approach as a whole is where “communicative power and successful language are valued above mere accuracy; acquisition, over which the teacher has no direct control, is valued, rather than formal learning” [Lewis, 2001:192]. If communication is what workers in the tourism industry need, if they have little time to acquire the ability to transfer knowledge to their guests, then the lexical approach should be part of the answer.

Another characteristic of the Lexical Approach is that it takes a broad view of lexis¹⁰, which it sees as the foundation of language. Language is acquired not in single words, but in chunks, which are called “lexical chunks” [units of meaning]. However, you don’t acquire this ability by somebody telling you how to do it, you only acquire it by actually doing it yourself. If adult learners of a second or foreign language, therefore, are given the opportunity to recycle language chunks related to their specific field in the tourism industry as often as possible, and if the principle of lifelong learning is firmly established in them and their community, effective language-learning

¹⁰ “The standard view divides language into grammar (structure) and vocabulary (words); the Lexical Approach ...argues that language consists of chunks which, when combined, produce continuous coherent text” [Lewis, 2001:7]

could become a reality. In turn, this would have a positive influence on individuals and whole communities.

2.3.2 Types of English learning programmes

English has changed from simply being another foreign language into a universal form of communication in all walks of life, including commerce, technology and tourism. The relevance of using English as a Second [ESL] or Foreign [EFL] language has thus increased considerably all over the globe. Power [2005] maintains that because non-native English-speakers now outnumber native ones 3 to 1, it is changing the way we communicate. She continues saying that in a global revolution hundreds of millions of people are learning English and that by the end of this decade, 2 billion people will be studying English. She quotes from a recent British Council report that states that about 3 billion people will speak English by that time [Power, 2005]. The relevance of using English as a second [ESL] or foreign [EFL] language has thus increased considerably all over the globe.

Language teaching theories, like theories about facilitating in general, have gone through various stages - especially in terms of dealing with grammar. "Different methodologies reflect the changing goals of language learners, whether they be to gain literacy skills, oral skills, job skills, or academic skills" [Orem, n.d.:492]. The theory-practice balance in adult education is significant for language-learning programmes for the tourism industry. Cervero, [as cited in Peters et al, 1991], sees practice as guided by common sense and experience, and maintains that theory and practice are indivisible as they are part of a single reality. The argument is however, that practice should focus on the biased nature of the development of knowledge and the potential it has for shaping the individual lives of adult learners [Peters, Jarvis, and Associates, 1991]. This will have a profound influence on facilitation methods because different cultures have different views on the development of knowledge and the potential it has to shape lives. It is therefore not easy or even recommendable to dictate one or a specific group of facilitation methods. Appendix D illustrates the different methods that were used in a case study in Taiwan.

The reality, or the practice, or real life situation that the facilitator has to take into account when facilitating a tourism language-learning programme, is that it will have to meet two very important needs of tourism workers in general. The "just-in-time" learning of an English for Occupational Purposes [EOP] programme will have to meet a variety of needs in the diversified jobs that are part of the industry. There is the need of a frontline worker to deal with clients in a taxi, a bus, as a guide, porter or housekeeper; the need of a marketer to address clients at an international trade show; the need of the telephonist to answer questions that might influence a decision to visit a specific destination, to name a few. The facilitator also has to present the programme in such a

way that it will encourage self-directed learning as part of a lifelong learning process. A General English [GE] programme will have to run alongside the EOP programme should language learners want to have more opportunities to recycle language.

Ultimately, however, the focus of and motivation for facilitating the learning of English for non-native speakers should be the same as for any Lifelong Learning programme for the 21ST Century, being “the individual learner and his/her need, the enhancing of quality and equipping to meet competitiveness, enhance employability, master new technologies and the adequacy of resources” [Lifelong Learning World Initiative, 1995]

The tourism business world should recognise and act on the chain relationship between learning, investment and profit – learning, like quality, like tourism, is ultimately everyone’s business. In the tourism industry this translates into being competent especially in relevant English usage. Employers should make quality opportunities available to as many workers as possible if they want to reap the benefits of a staff that is equipped to handle the clients efficiently. However, as in other industries, individuals should achieve and maintain their own employability by joining adult learning programmes that will provide the skills and knowledge needed in their part of the industry.

A balanced and successful language-learning programme for the tourism industry therefore, both in the designing of a programme and in deciding on the facilitation method, has to take into consideration the real needs of the adult learners. The needs of adult learners in the tourism industry, as mentioned above, are diverse.

Through the decades learning English as a second or foreign language has been categorised, and these categories have been given specific titles, some of which are English for Specific Purposes [ESP], English for Academic Purposes [EAP], English for Science and Technology [EST], English for Occupational Purposes [EOP], General English [GE], and Immersion English Programme [IEP]. In looking at the needs of the tourism industry for language-learning programmes, it seems that EOP programmes will initially be needed. This should be supported by a wider GE programme to improve the learners’ lexis. This thesis will specifically focus on English for Occupational Purposes as a subsidiary of English for Special Purposes programmes. In what follows, ESP and EOP will be discussed.

2.3.2.1 English for Specific Purposes

English learning programmes for non-native speakers are influenced by the increasing significance of English competency in the workplace due to the fact that English has become a

necessary tool in obtaining and maintaining a job, getting promoted, and performing effectively in the working world.

Power [2005] and Hewings [n/d] both point out that as a means of communication there is a growing use of English between non-native English speakers, for example between Chinese and Koreans, or Brazilians and Germans, and that this occurrence seems likely to have a major impact on the kinds of ESP programmes that are used.

However, according to Hewings [n/d] there has been a decline in 'general ESP', and a tendency for it to become more specific. The main area of expansion happened in Business English where English usage is specific for every industry [Hewings, n/d].

2.3.2.2 English for Occupational Purposes

Employees on the job are required only to establish successful communication in that specific work environment meeting the needs for their specific job and do not know all there is to know about English [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d]. These learners need ultimately only to be capable of establishing successful communication, and do not necessarily have to use language as precisely as a native speaker. This produced a new linguistic branch within the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), namely, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). Here the learners and facilitators focus on what is relevant to their specific situation within the workplace [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d] in the time allotted to the learning encounter.

Experienced facilitators know that what Dudley-Evans and St. John [1998] state about the teaching process of any kind of language for occupational purposes rings true. They say that this teaching process should start with analysing the four traditional language skills [reading, writing, listening and speaking] within an appropriate context - this being the specific set of circumstances in that specific workplace. The main aim of EOP lies in the justification and reinforcement caused by the important role the English language plays in the labour world. Through a needs analysis, carried out within the business itself, one is able to examine the lacks, sometimes involuntarily unresolved, in the current educational system in which the employees were educated.

Nyerere argues that adult education needs to be directed at helping people to help themselves and thus 'integrated with life and inseparable from it' [Nyerere 1978: 29 as cited in Smith, 1998]. Applying this to an English language-learning programme for the tourism industry, it means inspiring adult learners [especially those in the rural areas of a country where English is not the native language] to desire to change, and helping them to see that change is possible. Helping people to make their own decisions, and implementing those decisions for themselves would include a working knowledge of English to use the Internet, write attractive brochures for the

international market, guide visitors, host visitors and a multitude functions at all the touch points between host and visitor at the destination.

2.3.2.3 “Input” and “intake” of language

Language learning, if it has to be useful for the adult learner, has to be a process. Firstly, there has to be input in the form of material or discussions that will develop the language skills of reading and listening and then the input has to become intake.

The designer and facilitator of an EOP programme will have to consider the ways and means by which the material [input] will be presented so that almost immediate results [proof of intake] will be evident. As discussed above, language learning is not an overnight miracle and does not happen like other forms of learning. Lewis sees intake as the key to acquiring skills in a target language [Lewis, 2001] that will make the language that is learned useful for the learner.

Intake is the final product of language learning where the acquired knowledge has been absorbed by the learner and can be put to use in “...such a way that it becomes and remains available for productive use” [Lewis 2001:217] in the learner’s everyday life. This does not happen automatically as it is firstly a process and, secondly, there is no guarantee that input will become intake.

According to Lewis, learners need to first **notice** if they want to acquire and learn [Lewis, 2001] – that is, input [material or discussions] has to be given and learners have to notice the new knowledge. Helping the learners to notice becomes the first and primary task of the facilitator.

After learners have noticed [for example, the use of a language chunk¹¹] the new material [input], they are assisted to recognise it in normal usage [for example, how it is used in conversations between native speakers]. Now they have to recycle that new knowledge [for example, the language chunk] and this might then become intake.

2.3.2.4 Task-Based Learning

Creating the best environment for language acquisition for learners in the tourism industry, the needs of the adult learner in general will have to be addressed in meaningful, content-based language situations, which will enhance a free flow of language. The so-called task-based method [TBL] could provide such a tool. TBL takes into account the need for authentic communication and provides a holistic language experience [Willis, 1996] where the focus is the task, which has to

¹¹ two or more words that are used as a unit to convey a specific meaning – for example “conditions of employment”

reflect real life, and language is used as the instrument to complete it. Learners are free to use the target language in whichever way they want to as long as they focus on the meaning [McKinnon and Rigby, n.d.] This helps to prevent the use of stilted language. Yalden's suggestion that a subject-matter syllabus needs to be designed and implemented where general education with rapid progress in the target language is desired [Yalden, 1989] should lead a designer to look into designing a learning pathway where tourism subject matter is used to set tasks within this context.

2.3.2.5 Writing vs. speaking

The deficiency of most language-learning programmes has been that too much attention has been given to the written word to the detriment of the spoken word. In most target situations in the real world where EOP is relevant – including the uses in the tourism industry – speech predominates.

2.3.2.6 Summary

Large-scale global political and economic changes have caused not only long term and permanent population shifts all over the world in the form of migrant workers and adult immigrants, but also short-term moves through international travel for both business and leisure. Acquiring at least a working knowledge of English becomes a necessity for host communities.

Tourism language-learning programmes need to be effectively and efficiently designed and the right facilitation method has to be used to meet the diverse needs of a variety of workers that on average have little time to learn a lot of language. Yalden says that language teaching methods as well as manuals and the supporting materials that are based on them, “have turned out to be unsatisfactory as *universal* solutions to problems” occurring in the designing of language-learning programmes [Yalden 1989:6]. The need for programmes to be more efficient and to be presented in as interesting a learning environment as possible, becomes more and more definite as we are “working toward proficiency in interactional (as well as transactional) use” [Yalden, 1989:13] of a second or other language.

Considering the different methods, the Lexical Approach has provided the most logical method to facilitate language acquisition and is therefore proposed as the foundational method for facilitating English language-learning programmes in the tourism industry. However, any method needs to be supported by a solidly designed programme. This will be looked into in the next section.

2.4. LANGUAGE PROGRAMME DESIGN

A learning programme is an encompassing framework within an education/training environment, within which a sequence of interventions, actions, or operations are performed to facilitate the process of learning, for example acquiring knowledge or proficiency or both. Programmes [learning opportunities] vary in length and magnitude, give structure to and assist in the process of learning and involve at least one learner and one facilitator [teacher/trainer]. The sequence usually has a beginning and an end, and has to have an inherent logical order. A programme could be part of a lifelong process and could itself be one step in a series of programmes; it could be formal, non-formal or informal. The different types of learning programmes are discussed in Chapter 3 where a distinction is made between curriculum, syllabus and learning pathway.

When designing any learning programme the end result or outcome needs to be kept in mind. EFL programmes have to keep in mind what the learner wants to achieve by obtaining proficiency in English. Through the years, many attempts have been made to define language proficiency and it has become obvious that people need and want to learn a language to communicate in it - to use it and not only to know about it. No longer is it enough to know only sounds, some grammar and some vocabulary that have been decided upon before the programme starts, that is without considering the learners and their specific needs [Yalden, 1989]. As both the adult learners and their needs differ, an outcomes-based programme should reflect that.

2.4.1 Language Proficiency

Yalden [1989] summarises three major schools of thought as far as determining language proficiency is concerned: Chomsky, and Hymes and Halliday who opposed Chomsky's method.

Chomsky made the distinction between linguistic competence and linguistic performance. He saw linguistic theory as mentalistic and therewith flew in the face of the behaviourists before him. His opposition claimed that he did not concern himself with the social aspect of language.

Hymes then widened Chomsky's idea by adding the concept of "communicative competence." He maintained that language users make four kinds of judgments as they speak or write: communication has to be possible, feasible, appropriate and actually performed. He was concerned with language in use and for him language theory had to be integrated with theory of communication and culture [Yalden, 1989].

Halliday, in turn, rejected Chomsky's theories and was only interested in language in its social context, the so-called "context of situation" [Halliday, 1985 as cited on

http://language.la.psu.edu/aplng597a/halliday_intro.html]. He looked at language from the point of meaning and purpose and for him human experience was built on the foundation of language usage. He believed that language functions only operate fully when they are in use, that is, in the act of speech. Later on, his theory was that language has an ideational, an interpersonal and a textual function. This later theory is sometimes referred to as systemic linguistics. He admits to the fact that adult language learning is far more complex than that of children and summarises the huge diversity of function into the abovementioned three functional components [Yalden, 1989].

Both Hymes's and Halliday's theories added the dimension of social context to Chomsky's original theory. But according to Yalden [1989], the communicative competence, as Hymes sees it, "has proved particularly useful to applied linguistics and to language teaching" [Yalden, 1989:18].

2.4.2 Internal and external factors in designing language-learning programmes

As seen above, a language-learning programme happens within a social context and is influenced by its environment. Knox mentions a whole list of societal influences on the design and implementation of learning programmes and maintains that external factors influence the internal factors. External factors are factors like external financing, enterprises and employers, government, the status of adult education, international influences and cultural values. Internal factors would be anticipated benefits, learner participation, and actual outcomes [Knox, 1993]. These factors all play an important part in language-learning programmes for the tourism industry.

2.4.3 Types of language-learning programmes

Yalden points out that the terms "curriculum" and "syllabus" are often used interchangeably in North America [Yalden, 1989] and mentions six types: the functional, the negotiated, the natural, the subject matter, the task-based and the balanced/proportional type. These are organised according to the principle that underlies them. When designing a tailor-made programme for a specific group of learners, Yalden suggests that a setting has to be decided on first. She mentions the following criteria as possible examples:

- ❑ beginner ESP learners need a functional syllabus;
- ❑ sophisticated learners in an ESP context need a negotiated syllabus;
- ❑ learners who want a general education need a Natural Way syllabus;
- ❑ where general education with rapid progress in the target language is desired a Subject-matter syllabus needs to be designed and implemented; and
- ❑ where linguistic resources are limited (that is, in a foreign-language teaching context) a Task-based syllabus is needed [Yalden, 1989].

She emphasises, however, that one should not try to find a perfect single solution. A far more productive route would be to design a suitable programme for every teaching situation [Yalden, 1989].

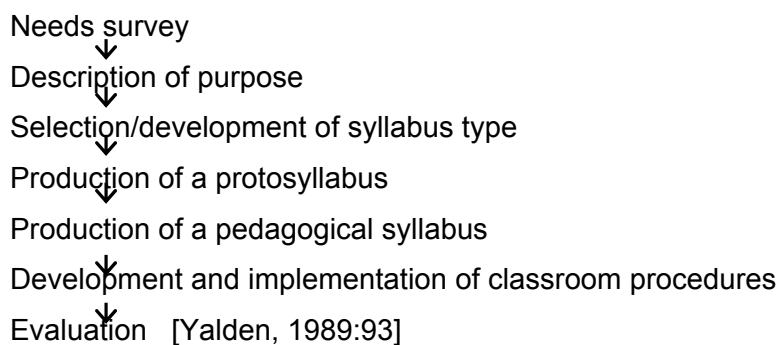
Stern [1984] uses the terms 'curriculum' and 'syllabus' interchangeably and says that the content, structure, parts and organisation of curriculum are concerned with the WHAT? - what a curriculum is or should contain. The WHO? and HOW? of establishing the curriculum processes, encompass the development, implementation, dissemination and evaluation of the curriculum [Stern as cited in Nunan, 1996].

2.4.4 Designing learning programmes

Nunan [1996] emphasises the interrelatedness and interdependence of the various aspects of a learning programme that have to be taken into consideration when planning it. These aspects are the "goals, objectives, content, processes, resources and means of evaluation" [Robertson as cited in Yalden 1989] of every learning experience that is planned for learners in, as well as out of the learning institution and the community. Graves portrays the process of programme design as a system where components are interrelated and maintains that planning for one will influence and contribute to the other component/s, for example, designing assessments will be influenced by objectives and goals and objectives will depend on content [Graves, 2000].

Smith [2000] discusses four elements of curriculum design. He sees it as a body of knowledge that has to be transmitted, an attempt to achieve certain goals in learners [which he calls the product], the curriculum as process and the curriculum as praxis. [Smith 1996, 2000]

Yalden [1989] suggests that a choice be made about the type of curriculum that would suit the learners before the process actually gets to the production of the proto-syllabus. She identifies the following stages in language programme development:



Tyler's work, which gained momentum in the late 1940s, was very influential on later thinking about curriculum theory and practice. He emphasised rationality and relative simplicity and based

his theory on the question of what the purposes of the educational encounter are, which educational experiences can attain these purposes, how these educational experiences can effectively be organized and how to determine whether these purposes are being attained [Tyler as cited in Smith, 1996]. His concern that the objectives of the programme should relate to changes taking place in the learners, points to his behavioural penchant and can be converted into a nicely-ordered procedure¹².

Both Yalden and Tyler's systems of approaching curriculum theory and practice are attractive, because they provide a system and therefore have substantial organising power.

In contrast to this, Jongbloed sees programmes at higher education institutions as having to become progressively borderless, meaning that one learning situation leads to another [Jongbloed, 2002].

Yalden looks at the above-mentioned approaches to design as a continuum of collaboration between facilitator and linguist. She argues that the functional-notional syllabus relies most on collaboration between them and the task-based one least. "It seems that the more emphasis is placed on communicative tasks, the less will be on the linearity of the relationship of linguist to teacher." [Yalden, 1989:67]. The functional-notional syllabus is dependant on the resources the linguists provide and the environments they construct. In the communicative approach the linguist is almost an onlooker on the relationship between the facilitator and learner.

2.4.5 English for Occupational Purposes programmes

Ellis and Johnson [Ellis and Johnson as cited on Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d] contend that, when keeping in mind the purpose of teaching EOP, the use of authentic material is essential. Facilitating learning in any ESP programme has to focus on preparing the adult learners for the world of work. Therefore, the most useful material is that which is created by the workplace itself, because it is specifically designed for its workers, and for their potential customers.

By the same token, a balanced and successful EOP syllabus is one that pays more attention to oral and aural skills, because spoken language far outweighs written language in the world of work. There has always been an abyss between the goals of the academic and the professional world as far as language programmes for non-native speakers are concerned and the difference becomes more evident if adult learners have to be prepared in an EOP programme to be competent in the occupational field. Despite the fact that traditional language classrooms do not particularly lend themselves to it, facilitators have to strive to simulate situations that are similar to

¹² Tyler's' procedure: 1. diagnosis of need, 2. formulation of objectives, 3. selection of content, 4. organisation of content, 5. selection of learning experiences, 6. organization of learning experiences, 7. determination of what to evaluate and of the ways and means of doing it (Tyler as cited in Smith, 1996).

the real world taking linguistic elements directly from the real world context of the adult learners [for example, in the tourism industry meeting and greeting new arrivals in the lobby of a hotel in appropriate English]. It is after all here where fluent and flexible communication happens [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d] and the skilled facilitator will facilitate the opportunity for the learners to notice, recognise and recycle relevant language in the workplace.

2.4.6 Linguistic audit

In order to arrive at this balanced and successful programme, Pilbeam [1979 as cited in Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d] devised a system whereby a company can identify the strong and weak points of their employees' communication process when using a foreign language in a specific situation. He coined the phrase 'linguistic audit', which means that there will be a model that accurately identifies "the communicative competence of the professional when working, in the English language, on the project he/she has been assigned to" [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d: 4]. The ultimate aim would be that "the company will be able to develop those cognitive skills that need further and more efficient expertise." [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d: 4]. In this way, linguistic problems will be solved both in the long run and on a short-term basis and have the possible outcome of effectively improving staff performance [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d].

In the 'linguistic audit', a needs analysis within the work place is firstly designed and then intended objectives are proposed. This is followed by specifying present and possible future language problems of individual employees, by identifying the company's main elements and resources and then analysing the real use employees make of English. Individual communicative skills are then analysed and developed to improve the future communicative competence of the staff. Lastly, after results are analysed, impartial recommendations are given to the staff in order to improve their consequent performance levels. It hereby becomes possible for the company to improve quality through effective language usage.

Such a linguistic audit could serve as the perfect base to design a tailor-made language-learning programme for a specific tourism enterprise. However, language efficiency at a destination does not only depend on workers that are directly employed in the tourism industry. They have to be backed by a competent community that know the benefits and challenges of their local tourism industry.

2.5 EDUCATING THE COMMUNITY ABOUT AND FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

According to Bushell, the stakeholders in the tourism industry can be divided broadly into four groups: government authorities, the local business community, the local community and the visitor [1998 as cited in Douglas et al, 2001]. All of these have a role to play, and all are affected

by the changes that affect the industry. Based on what has been argued before in this chapter, Bushell's groups imply that learning programmes for all these stakeholders should be available. Yet, it is when realising the importance of effective communication by all stakeholders in the industry that our attention turns to the local community. The tourism industry will become more and more reliant on people and facilities that were previously not considered to be a part of the industry as important ingredients for success [Wander, 1998] when the popularity of a destination starts growing.

Communities as a whole are involved in hosting visitors. Even if there seems to be more visitor-tolerance for an English deficiency in non-tourism related members of the host community, community members that display a competency in communicating effectively with a visitor would be a priceless asset. Every aspect of the tourism industry at a destination could derive benefit from a destination-wide language-learning programme.

Wander [1998] mentions a training programme that was developed for and by the Nashville Convention and Visitors Bureau which reflects a paradigm shift, amongst others, in the area of education and training. In the implementation of this programme, promotional activities were expanded to include cab drivers, the police, and other role-players [Wander, 1998]. The mentioned implementation could be seen as a form of integration where tourism businesses link either vertically or horizontally with similar or different businesses to outlive their competition [Keyser, 2002]. The paradigm shift in education and training should happen because of the identified need for all tourism role players [seasonal, volunteer and permanent] to promote all resources at their destination. Wander [1998] suggests that, as a solution to the fragmentation in the industry, destination-wide programmes should be implemented, which would "...mean that all tourism industry components in a destination will be promoting the whole of the industry in the destination" [Wander, 1998:165]. If this general promotion can be accomplished, the whole industry will gain in significance and offer even greater opportunities for employment as well as "a greater appreciation of the tourism industry by all segments of a community" [Wander, 1998:165]. The latter would consequently help to create a stronger feeling of ownership of the tourism industry in a host community, which in turn would add impetus to the tourism industry as a career option and a stronger commitment to becoming a lifelong learner.

There is a need to minimise the often-mentioned negative social and environmental impacts of tourism on a community, while maximising the economic and social benefits. This can only be done through sound and appropriate management strategies, tools, and techniques as mentioned before in [a]

Taking advantage of, as well as maintaining, a beneficial position in tourism is not as easy as it seems. In this regard two issues need to be mentioned: Doxey's Irridex and the fact that all too often profit leaks out of the community.

Doxey's Irridex indicates the complexities of the relationship between the host and traveller [Keyser, 2002]. Many of the irritations, annoyances and antagonism can be minimised if staff at all the contact points at a destination can effectively communicate [for example, about local grievances, world politics], inform [for example, of cultural faux pas, traditions, dangers], and listen to the visitors. Satisfactory communication between the two groups will increase the quality of the person-to-person activities that make or break a destination. The hosts will be able to explain for example custom and language differences, thereby helping to lessen frustration and confusion [culture shock]. Cultural arrogance¹³ could be curbed if visitors could get a clear explanation from the host of, for instance, moral codes and traditions. If these potential conflict situations that could hinder communication are left unresolved, the frustration and disappointments may deteriorate rather than contribute to local goodwill [Keyser, 2002]. Conversely, having no language to communicate with the visitors might cause local people to experience a feeling of powerlessness, because they feel inferior. This feeling of powerlessness will decrease the benefits for the locals of taking ownership of the tourism industry in their own community.

Furthermore, although the money that comes into a community has a "multiplier effect", profits often leak out of the destination. The reason mostly is that foreign investors siphon the profit back to the source of capital [Smith, V.L. 1989] and understandably so. This is often because they find locals not sufficiently equipped to work in their enterprise and find it easier to employ their own [non-local] workers. The inability to communicate effectively restrains local participation in international tourist attractions.

In employing non-local workers, another problem is created. Workers that come from the outside do not have the same knowledge [for example, historical, geographical and gastronomic information that is commonly known by the locals], skills [for example, the local language or dialect, swimming/diving safely] or passion as the locals and this might influence their level of service [Wander, 1998]. To educate the non-locals in what makes the destination what it is, would force the managers to educate them and thus spend money anyway. This expenditure on training programmes could be better applied by equipping locals with the necessary skills, including especially language skills, to work in the establishment. In so doing, the development would comply with one of the pillars of sustainable development, namely social justice.

¹³ following your own cultural rules and disregarding the host community's

The effects of tourism on the host community have been mentioned before. However, the negative influences are not restricted to the host community. In discussing the social impacts of tourism, Keyser uses the example of prostitution. In Nairobi 90% of the prostitutes are HIV positive and tourists who use their services might go home with more than they can cope with [Keyser, 2002]. Effective communication between the visitor and the host might be one way in which this situation could be avoided.

It needs to be mentioned that this thesis does not in any way want to imply that local languages at a destination are inferior or have no place in a host community, quite the contrary. Sustainability in tourist destination development is strongly propagated and social justice is seen as one of the essential aspects thereof. With language being one of the crucial elements of local culture [Keyser, 2002], locals would do wrong to give up their local language in exchange for English, as this would fly in the face of social justice. It is therefore strongly recommended that emphasising a pride in their own culture would precede any foreign language-learning programme and that the acquisition of English should be seen only as a tool for personal improvement and thus enable tourism workers to maintain an ever-improving quality of service in the tourism industry. The ability to use English will be beneficial to the individual practitioner and through that for the host community as a whole.

Furthermore, solving moral, language, health and economic problems should not be seen as forcing a boring homogeneity on tourism businesses and attractions [Smith, V.L. 1989]. Destinations have to retain their uniqueness. This also could be accomplished by creating a sense of pride in what is a community's own - influencing individuals to see the value of their culture, amongst others, their language.

Fortunately, according to Keyser [2002], there is some evidence that local languages and dialects are gaining their rightful place as tourist attractions. There are conscious attempts to preserve and strengthen the peculiarity of a language in the face of the influx of tourists, as this is part of the cultural identity of the host community.

In enabling adult learners then to use English as a tool in creating and maintaining a competitive edge in the global tourism industry, a few questions emerge: will an ESP or EOP programme suffice to equip workers, or should it be supplemented by a GE [General English] programme? The other persistent question is the time issue. Will people involved in the tourism industry, either directly or indirectly, have the time to get suitably equipped to handle their tourism job? These questions are addressed in later chapters of this thesis.

2.6 CONCLUSION

In conclusion, it is clear that, because of the specific demands of the tourism industry as well as being part of a world of change, both students of and those who operate in the industry directly or indirectly will need to constantly gain new skills and knowledge. It is not only the people that work in the frontline that need education and training urgently and definitely, there are others who will also benefit from well-coordinated national tourism learning programmes. Whole communities will have to get educated.

Shaw and Williams [1995] mention the limited research that has been done on the societal changes of a destination community, amongst which the impact of language [Shaw and Williams, 1995]. This thesis argues that a workforce as well as decision makers who are comfortable in dealing with clients in English will be in a better position to stem negative influences on their community and will be able to promote and present their destination better. Designing and implementing effective English language-learning programmes as part of tourism destination management strategy, would benefit a destination and its people in more than one way.

After the critical engagement with and synthesis of the literature, a need for specific guidelines for designing a language-learning programme for the tourism industry still remains. This thesis will attempt to meet the need and the literature will provide a theoretical framework against which such guidelines could be developed.

CHAPTER 3

PERSPECTIVES ON THE DESIGN OF LANGUAGE-LEARNING PROGRAMMES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Designing learning programmes for adults has become part of the solution for the dilemma adults all over the globe find themselves in – a dilemma caused by the state of constant change. Frustration and stress levels increase as the mind, body, spirit, and psyche experience turmoil and overload; as values of the past based on eternal truths are eroded; as the knowledge base rapidly expands and inventions multiply. The resulting nihilism, causing anxiety and despair, motivates individuals to strive for something better; they seek out opportunities to improve themselves and their world, because they do not only want to survive, but rather to experience quality in living [Schreuder, 2004]. To experience this, they need knowledge, skills or an informed change of attitude and this in turn can only be obtained if they are willing to learn. Although learning does not happen exclusively by attending learning programmes, attending them is one of the principal ways in which people learn.

One of the functions of a learning programme is to facilitate the process of learning through acquiring knowledge or proficiency or both, thereby closing the gap between what is known and what needs to be known, or at least reducing it effectively. Yet, the “half life of knowledge” [Merriam, 2005] and multiplication of inventions cast doubt in the learner about the relevance of knowledge, and when and how this knowledge input has to happen in order to provide maximum learning. The question of which learning programme will help them attain their goal of living their full potential often arises.

Most adult educators agree that, if a programme is designed and implemented with the seed for lifelong learning in it, the harvest will be a lifelong learning society where individuals are living their full potential in harmony with each other and the environment as well as striving for continual personal improvement. However, the design of effective programmes – programmes that will produce the mentioned harvest - depends on the knowledge the programme designer has of the target situation and the learner needs.

This chapter will first discuss general principles of adult learning programme design introducing the difference between curriculum, syllabus, learning programme and learning pathway, then discuss the general criteria for programme design and how they would meet the typical needs of adult learners. The focus of the thesis is on the criteria for the design of an English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in countries where English is not the native tongue of tourism workers. This

necessitates looking specifically into the need for English programmes that will suit the industry, the learner and the specific situation at the destination, which will be done in the last part of this chapter. The application of these principles in designing an English language-learning programme for the tourism industry will be discussed extensively in chapter 6.

Before the industry specific needs and challenges can be addressed, different aspects of learning programme design need to be looked at.

3.2 DIFFERENT ASPECTS OF ADULT LEARNING PROGRAMME DESIGN

Learning programmes respond to many needs and are designed within the context of many and changing worldviews, cultures and institutions. Therefore, they vary in length, magnitude and formality; they could be part of a lifelong process or themselves be one step in a series of programmes; they could be formal, non-formal or informal.

In the following section the difference between a curriculum, syllabus and learning pathway will be discussed in the light of adult learning needs.

3.2.1 Difference between curriculum, syllabus and learning pathway

When comparing the different types of learning programmes, the differences between formal, non-formal and informal learning programmes should firstly be taken into consideration. These differences are graphically demonstrated in Table 1.

A **formal programme** [within conventional requirements] would include academic programmes at a university or other tertiary educational institution run in a set way for the expressed purpose of a formal qualification [a degree or diploma]. It is produced for the masses with a clearly defined scope and it therefore is predictable, homogeneous and has very little consideration for individual needs of learners. Its content is determined by academic requirements fixed and controlled by the institution; it is theory orientated, resulting in a formal qualification and is presented by academic teachers.

This thesis defines **non-formal programmes** as those that are not part of a specific pre-set curriculum, and rather are separate entities often planned to meet a specific public need, for example, voters education, HIV/Aids awareness, whale awareness, business writing skills or language-learning programmes. Here learners do not necessarily get a formal, recognised qualification at completion. It could also be a modularised programme that can be one unit in a learner's learning pathway.

Learning programme

Formal
non formal
informal

Formal	non formal	informal
a specific curriculum	not part of a specific pre-set curriculum	not part of specific pre-set curriculum
pre-set order	separate entities	
planned to meet generic needs	planned to meet a specific need	often spontaneous, for example informal chat groups
predictable	for example learning pathway	unpredictable
homogeneous	heterogeneous [a variety of learner needs]	depends on individual/group learning needs
determined by needs of the institution	unpredictable [depends on individual needs]	
scope clearly defied	determined by the specific needs of an individual	often meets immediate needs
meets academic needs	borderless [one learning situation leads to another]	
no consideration for learners' personal situation	earner-learner focused [meets career needs]	
mass-produced	customised [look at needs of learner, community, industry, job]	
fixed course	convenient [learners have responsibilities and restrictions – time, place]	Informal in length, place and time
integrated whole	Modularised	no specific form
theory orientated	application orientated	
academic teachers	practitioner- facilitators	
	disaggregating functions	
results in formal qualifications		

Figure 3. Overview of three types of learning programmes and where a learning pathway fits in [own design]

Because it is determined by the specific needs of an individual, it is heterogeneous, unpredictable, and borderless [one learning situation leads to another]. As there is a strong earner-learner focus it is application-orientated, customized and looks at needs of adult learners, communities, industries, and jobs. Because it is modularised and has disaggregating functions, non- formal programmes are more convenient as far as time and place are concerned for adult learners who mostly have responsibilities and restrictions. Learning is often facilitated by practitioners.

Informal programmes are defined as those programmes that are unofficial, or loose, or not officially authorised or controlled. They could be those programmes that involve chat groups, discussions, cell groups, parental input or mentoring and tutoring.

Public conferences, seminars, colloquiums, symposiums, camps, teambuilding activities, workshops, tour itineraries and other recreational or adventure experiences could also be termed programmes where learning takes place albeit often in an indirect way.

3.2.1.1 Curriculum

A curriculum is a formal learning programme. It is regarded by Carl as the “systematic and effective planning action” [Carl, A.E. 2002 :42] that includes many components; “the set of courses and their contents offered by an institution such as a school or university“ [www.wikipedia.org]. Kerr defines curriculum as “all the learning, which is planned and guided “ which takes place in groups or individually., inside or outside the school” [Kelly 1983:10 as cited on Smith, 2000]. A curriculum implies set, fixed, planned and guided learning opportunities to which learners have to adapt.

There were early voices for a “needs-based curriculum” amongst others, from Lindemann and Freire who both had informal education in mind. In this thesis a “needs-based curriculum” is seen as a contradiction in terms. In agreement with Smith, this thesis argues that the notion of curriculum provides a central dividing line between formal and informal education [Smith, 2000]. Jeffs and Smith maintain “approaches to the curriculum which focus on objectives and detailed programmes appear to be incompatible with informal education” [Jeffs and Smith, 1990:15 as cited in Smith, 2000]. This effectively shows that both Lindemann and Freire do not refer to formal education, but rather have informal education in mind even though they use the term “curriculum”.

What further proves that Lindemann could not have had a curriculum, as this thesis sees it, in mind, is that he was concerned with cultivating individual freedom and that adult education according to him had to be a social effort – reacting to changes in a specific society and stirring them up. It could be elevated to the level of an adventurous experiment [Stewart as cited by Smith, 2004]. Measured against what is seen as the fixed course of a curriculum to which learners have to adapt, this will not be possible – the adventure will be lost.

Freire, a widely read and quoted Brazilian adult educationalist who is seen as a prophet of progressive educational practice, used everyday situations and turned them into pedagogical situations. During his informal education process, content is created as you go along – facilitators need to look for 'teachable moments', and a set programme of content and practice is therefore incompatible to it. Although Freire’s work thus was termed a “needs-based *curriculum*”, it is rather typical of non-formal learning programmes.

What has been termed “curriculum” in the past is not consistent with what the term means today.

Although scholars and practitioners use the terms “curriculum” and “syllabus” interchangeably, a distinction between the two needs to be made. In this thesis, ‘curriculum’ is seen as the broader outline that intends to give direction to the planned formal learning experience, implying a

predefined set of concerns and activities; and 'syllabus' as the implementation part of a learning programme [the curriculum], describing material, tasks and evaluation.

3.2.1.2 Syllabus

The phases of designing a learning programme entail planning, implementation and evaluation of the material. Yalden prefers the distinction between curriculum and syllabus proposed by Robertson who defines syllabus as "a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum..." [Yalden, 1989:29]. The syllabus is thus the implementation part, a sub component of the learning programme.

A syllabus can be either content-focused [that is, product oriented], or process-oriented. Method, which will be discussed below, is the process of facilitation through which outcomes will be achieved.

Designing a syllabus would entail a learner analysis, task analysis and an understanding of learning goals. The starting point of syllabus design, for example in language-learning, could be the learner, the language or the function that the language has to perform for the learner [Nunan, 1996].

3.2.1.3 A learning pathway

Adult learning cannot be separated from life. According to Jongbloed [2002], our informationally networked economy, based on the business concept of meeting customer needs, dictates that education provision will also have to be tailor-made to enable and encourage a culture of lifelong learning, because customer needs develop and change. This implies that a learning programme will have to adapt and demonstrate a differentiation strategy with wider choices that is more convenient [for example, place and time], more relevant to client needs [content] and has an increased focus on the learning of general needs [for example, leadership, creative thinking] if it wants to take preference and increase competitiveness in the market. This would be impossible in a formal programme [curriculum] where the learner has to adapt to predetermined input. To prepare adult learners for the real life challenges, Jongbloed suggests Doughney's concept of a **learning pathway** as a solution.

A learning pathway is proposed as the answer to programmes for adult education. One of the main motivations is that a learning pathway involves the learner in the process of programme design from the beginning and not, as previously done, where customers' [learners'] needs were only added to the product at the end of the production process.

However, because designing a programme depends on individual needs, it makes the programme unpredictable and heterogeneous. Programme goals, for instance, might change when the learners give input in the process. This contrasts strongly with a curriculum that is set and fixed and to which a learner has to adapt. When people [learners, facilitators, sponsors, designers] are involved each with their own needs and set of circumstances, no programme design or facilitation situation can be quantified, codified, or faked. It has to be organic, and thus will be both satisfying and frustrating along with being dynamic and through that transforming those that are involved in it [Graves, 2000].

The key features of an educational programme that will be based on the needs of the learner as well as the specific situation [instead of only on what the provider can provide] will be “borderlessness, learner-learner focus, convenience, customisation, modularization, application orientation” [Jongbloed, 2002:426]. Also, facilitators will have to be practitioners, the quality will have to be assured and functions will have to be disaggregated [Jongbloed, 2002].

Effective programmes will fill the gap between the adult learners’ present state of being or knowing and their desired state being or knowing. The desired state, which is difficult to measure, will be a transformed person in mind, spirit or body or all. This will vary from individual to individual as the desire in adults to learn is directly related to the amount of stress created by changes in their personal environment.

Furthermore, when adults seek learning opportunities on their own, the programmes they attend will, as far as they are concerned, have direct relevance to the events that triggered their seeking [Zemke, 1984]. Helping adult learners to construct their individual learning pathway, rather than sending them on a formal programme, would be the most effective way of assisting somebody to stay competitive in the face of mass individualisation. It would also be an incentive for developing a pattern of lifelong learning. This thesis, therefore, sees a learning pathway as the most effective way to assist adult learners in the tourism industry to master relevant-to-their-situation English.

In summary, whatever the form they take, if learning programmes want to be effective, they will have to be conduits for a transformation in the learner - a transformation that brings the learner closer to a desired state of knowledge, skills competency, altered values and appropriate attitudes, improving critical understanding and being.

3.2.2 General criteria for designing and executing learning programmes

In today’s complex society with sophisticated needs that vary from learner to learner, a flexible, non-formal learning programme that will help the learner to become a lifelong learner is what is

needed. In designing such a learning programme, the developer/designer will have to take into account how people understand and give meaning to their experiences when encountering the dynamics of change that occur in everyday life. This will help in avoiding subscribing to a rigid view of programme development.

Learning programmes need to be based on models describing phenomena encountered in education situations in general [Heylighen, 2000], but certainly also on what is relevant to the needs and wants of a variety of interested parties in the specific situation they are addressing: adult learners, sponsors and facilitators. A programme is designed for a specific group of people, in a specific setting, for a specific amount of time. Graves calls this the context in which a programme is facilitated [Graves, 2000]. Because the programme has to adapt to the context it will run in, the more information the developer has of the people, time, physical setting, teaching resources, and nature of the programme and institution, the easier it will be to make decisions about what to include in the programme and how to facilitate learning.

The designer of adult learning programmes has to have knowledge of:

- the adult learners' needs;
- relevant education models;
- the industry for which the programme is to be run, and its specific needs;
- the subject matter;
- the nature [for example, duration] of the programme;
- the institution; and
- real life - the needs of the society the programme has to run in.

It takes time to design and develop any learning programme as there are many determining internal and external factors that influence the planning process. The vocabulary of education today includes words such as 'partnership', 'participation', 'lifelong', 'connecting', and 'transition' which points to some of the criteria for designing learning programmes, that is, learner involvement, continuous process, borderlessness and transformative role. If a programme has to meet the criteria mentioned above, the teaching-learning process that is part of a learning pathway will have to answer the wh-questions: who, what, why, when, how, and where? This will be discussed below.

3.2.2.1 Learners the programme is designed for

According to adult learning theorist Jack Mezirow, adults can experience "disorienting dilemmas", which bring them to a point of wanting to learn [Mezirow, J. 1991]. Learning programmes are designed with a specific target audience in mind and have to create learning opportunities for

them – learning opportunities that are effective for and accepted by their beneficiaries. In this thesis the beneficiaries are seen as both the adult learner and the society, be it the community at large or the work community that the adult is part of, for example, the specific target audience of this thesis is the adult worker in the tourism industry in Taiwan who wants to learn English as a foreign/other language.

The adult is a three dimensional [body, soul and spirit] being with life experience. Knowing as much as possible about the specific characteristics and needs of the adult learners who will attend the planned programme is a determining factor that will make it easier to focus the material and provide the support system needed [Rowntree, 1999]. Learner needs include the specific learning styles and preferences of the adult learners. Developers should thus attempt to get answers to as many questions as possible before finalising the outline of a programme. They need to know the number of attendees, their ages [oldest, youngest, average], the gender breakdown, education level [highest, lowest, average], professions and experience, as well as which culture(s) predominates, and which other language(s) is spoken. Also, the adult learners' purpose(s) for attending the programme, whether attendance is mandatory or compulsory and which learning style preferences occur [for example, task-based learning, group work, or portfolio compilation] [Graves, 2000].

Furthermore, employers, sponsors and the community should also be seen as stakeholders and their needs must be considered [Graves, 2000].

[a] Needs of adult learners determining programme design

For the adult learner, Andragogical principles have to form the basis of adult education programmes. The principles of Andragogy differ from those of traditional Pedagogy, essentially, in the type of learner they serve, the way facilitators or mentors relate to them and the knowledge, skills, values or attitudes adults want to learn. Knowles, the “father of Andragogy”, identified adult learner characteristics as:

- being *autonomous* and *self-directed* ;
 - having accumulated *life experiences* and *knowledge*;
 - being *goal-oriented* ;
 - being *relevancy-oriented* ;
 - being *practical*, focusing on the aspects of a contact session most useful to them in their work; and
 - needing to be shown *respect*;
- [Zemke, 1984 <http://honolulu.hawaii.edu/intranet/co>Mezirow, J. (1978). Perspective Transformation. ADULT EDUCATION, 100-110.

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A brief explanation of how the characteristics of an adult learner will influence programme design follows.

Because adults are **autonomous and self-directed**, the diversity of ways in which adult learners chart their life course has to be kept in mind. Adults could be described as those individuals who have attempted to take hold of their own destiny and therefore are in charge of what they want and need to learn. A rigid curriculum will not be helpful in confirming and promoting adulthood. A learning programme should nurture and advance independence, maturity, responsibility, reflecting skills and self-directedness.

Adult learners are by no means a homogeneous group because of their accumulated **life-experience and knowledge** and this self-evident fact can serve as both a rich source for and an obstacle to learning. It can be a rich source for learning, because adult learners' response to changes in their own work, recreational, family and community lives can teach others how to or how not to respond. On the other hand, according to the Constructivist¹⁴ perspective, experience is a filter for observing, experiencing and evaluating events, and it plays a crucial, although sometimes obstructing, role in learning.

Designing a programme in which learner experience is given its proper place should include placing adult learners in situations that simulate reality, which will lead to higher-level learning. Examples of higher level learning include problem solving, decision-making, critical and creative thinking and would imply the use of active forms of learning where the learner learns to solve problems by solving actual problems, and learns to think critically by thinking critically [Fink, 1999]. In a language-learning group consisting of managers of a newly merged multinational

¹⁴ Piaget said that mental categories are not innate but are constructed during childhood development in response to interactions with our environment [Rohmann, 1999]

company, for example, having an actual meeting in English about staff morale makes learning “Language for Meetings” easier, because it is relevant to their situation.

Being **goal and relevancy-oriented**, there is a general tendency in adult learners to prefer programmes with a single concept and a single-theory, that will enable them to apply the concepts to the problems they are experiencing [Zemke, 1984]. Progress is based on experiencing a growing ability to deal with real problems and concrete situations in all facets of a person’s everyday life. The cognitive structural tradition represented by Piaget, maintains that learners develop cognitively in an invariant sequence of stages: they make sense, understand, and then construct the knowledge of their world. Programmes that have and state a clear goal based on the needs of the adult learners will be steering in the right direction.

Adults are **practical**, focusing on the aspects of a learning experience that are most useful to them in their work, recreation or relationships. Sponsors and developers should agree on what adult learners would need for effective mastery in specific situations. This would include consulting the linguistic audit that was previously mentioned [2.4.6]. Zemke [1984] maintains that the primary motivation for adult learners to begin a learning project is that they need to be able to immediately apply their new knowledge. They need a straightforward “how-to” content orientation [Zemke, 1984] in the programme.

For adults, experience is linked to their identity and because of that devaluing or ignoring this will cause feelings of rejection. Their **need to be shown respect** has to be kept in mind in every facilitation situation. This becomes pertinent in an English for Occupational Purposes programme for the tourism industry – an industry where the adult learners’ culture plays a very important part. If the English language is presented as a [better] replacement of the learner’s own, it could lead to resistance, a feeling of inferiority - thus breaking down self-esteem - and leading to negative acculturation. Adults do not necessarily want to learn for the sake of learning. According to Zemke [1984], a secondary motive for adults to get involved in a learning experience is to increase or maintain their sense of self-esteem and pleasure [Zemke, 1984].

Whatever their motive for learning, both the designer and the facilitator have to be sensitive to the adult learners’ motives and accept the learners by showing respect for their individuality. Programmes have to demonstrate that differing viewpoints from people in different life stages and with different sets of values are accepted [Zemke, 1984]. Accommodating their individual needs and viewpoints as far as possible in designing a programme can accomplish this. Using a variety of facilitation methods in the contact sessions to suit individual learning styles could also serve this purpose.

Other factors that have to be kept in mind when developing a needs-based adult learning programme are:

- fluid¹⁵ and crystallised¹⁶ intelligence, which psychologists see as important because it relates to the study of aging and influences the design of adult learner programmes;
- different from the flexibility in youth, adulthood brings with it commitment and responsibility which often has an influence on attendance and funding and should be an opportunity for collectively making decisions on, for example, time and venue for contact sessions and assessments;
- adulthood brings with it also personal structural change manifesting in growth in wisdom, expertise, relativistic thinking, problem finding and dialectic thinking [Tennant, n/d] which effective programmes should utilise;
- learning in adult education programmes happens multi-dimensionally and multi-directionally and space should be made for adding dimensions and changing direction if and as the needs become clear;
- new ideas need to be integrated with existing knowledge if the new knowledge has to be useful. Practitioner-facilitators would therefore be apt; and
- although programmes should preferably be task-orientated, they should also have a component of fun. Appropriate icebreakers and breaks [be it coffee/tea breaks, smoke breaks, human nature breaks] should be part of every programme.

An effective programme will have to accommodate a learner's adult attributes, preferences and psychological needs by making them a partner in the learning process from the very beginning and maintaining their active participation throughout. The programme has to connect with, confirm and promote adulthood by fostering independence, responsibility, reflecting skills and self-directedness. It has to have within it the seed to create a desire and motivation for the adult learner to become a lifelong learner and aid in the process of transition to get to the desired state of being or knowing.

3.2.2.2 What a learning programme should contain

Primarily, a programme should create learning opportunities that have within them the seed to create a desire and motivation for the adult learner to become a lifelong learner while equipping them to deal with their present need. The knowledge, skills and attitudes that are presented in the programme should be appropriate and applicable and should fundamentally bear evidence of a

¹⁵ Fluid intelligence is tied to biology. It is defined as our "on-the-spot reasoning ability, a skill not basically dependant on our experience." (Belsky, 1990, p. 125) Belsky (1990) indicates this type of intelligence is active when the central nervous system (CNS) is at its physiological peak.

¹⁶ Crystallised intelligence can be defined as "the extent to which a person has absorbed the content of culture."(Belsky, 1990, p. 125) It is the store of knowledge or information that a given society has accumulated over time.

sound foundation for adult learners' future lives and careers – programmes should have an earner-learner focus.

Based on the knowledge the developer gathered during the needs analysis, adequate provision has to be made for the application of the learning to have relevance to the needs and wants of the specific adult learners. Material, sequence and interfaces will have to be customised, including the latest development in the subject field, and meeting the contemporary needs of society. Added to that, the programme should have a relevant application orientation that differentiates between the individual needs of the adult learners and the situation. If they want to assure that the programmes differentiate, designers will have to address issues like making adequate provision for different levels of complexity, various interests, and career suitability.

In a broader sense, a clear distinction has to be made between pre-vocational and continuous professional education, as this will also determine the programme design. Pre-vocational education should, according to Hawkins [2002], ensure a broad base of communication abilities in learners, and continuing professional development should focus less on managerial training and more on functional skills training [Hawkins, 2002]. If there is a focus on the latter, it will enhance skills and knowledge in a broader base of people.

The content of a learning programme, therefore, will have to be determined by the expressed needs of the attendees. However, individuals do not experience life challenges in exactly the same way; they focus on themselves and how they can improve themselves in order to supply in the demands of their own lives and jobs. Therefore, learning opportunities will have to be so flexible that they will meet the needs of a variety of adult learners in a variety of situations. The actual facilitation of the learning experience, based on the guidelines of the programme, should fine-tune the content [input], as this is where individual adult learners' needs and wants will be dealt with.

[a] Method

Adult education is multi-dimensional and multi-directional, not slave to the subject tradition, and therefore, allows facilitators to experiment with method and develop their personal style and preference of facilitating. However, facilitation methods have always been influenced by the epistemology of the society in which they are presented and this influences both the design and facilitation of a programme – the context [specific people, specific setting, specific length of time] of the programme is both the resource and constraint that guide the decisions about facilitation methods [Graves, 2000].

As long as their method complements the content and context of the programme as a whole, paying more attention to method than to content will help facilitators to generate “a difference of quality in the use of intelligence” [Lindeman as cited in Smith, 1997]. The method facilitators use will thus largely depend both on their own personalities and the context of the programme in which they operate.

The chosen method should, free from coercion, help all learners to establish a cooperative learning climate in which they learn to trust themselves and their co-learners as sources of learning. By identifying quality 'teachable moments' that engage the learners in dialogue [Freire as cited on Smith, <http://www.infed.org/thinkers/et-freir.htm>] opportunities for interaction will be provided. These opportunities, where adult learners could be challenged and questioned, will stimulate and assist them to critically reflect on existing knowledge examining the assumptions that underlie their beliefs, feelings and actions that might obstruct meaningful learning [Mezirow as cited on Dover, <http://adulthood.about.com/cs/learningtheory/a/mezirow.htm>].

If, in addition, the method also unambiguously shows that adult educators see themselves as both facilitator and co-learner, exploring their learners' existing knowledge, views, beliefs and expectations, reflecting on their own and adapting these where needed, it will bolster the cooperative learning climate.

Freire maintains that, although learners' experience has to be acknowledged, the meanings they attach to their experience have to be subjected to critical scrutiny [Freire as cited on Smith, <http://www.infed.org/thinkers/et-freir.htm>]. Then, if learning new knowledge has to be relevant, it should be linked to adult learners' current experiences at work, home or in the community, bearing in mind that if the new knowledge conflicts sharply, or has little "conceptual overlap" [Zemke, 1984] with known truths, it will force the learner to re-evaluate old knowledge, slowing down the integration of the new knowledge.

Ultimately, gaining new knowledge should lead to informed action, which will make a difference in the world. However, both facilitator and learner should identify and analyse implications of this new knowledge so that learning can lead to a better competence for the learner to handle life - to meaningful personal or professional transformation, which will then make a difference in the world.

Whichever method facilitators choose to use will be under girded if designers develop the learning programme in such a way as to accommodate Fink's “Five Principles of Good Course Design” [1999]. If these principles are adhered to, facilitators will be able to:

1. challenge learners to higher-level learning, for example, problem solving, decision making, critical and creative thinking;
2. use active forms of learning, for example, learning to solve problems by solving problems, learning to think critically by thinking critically;
3. give frequent and immediate feedback to learners on the quality of their learning;
4. use a structured sequence of different learning activities; the variety of forms of facilitation (for example, lectures, discussions, small groups, writing) needs to be structured in a sequence; and
5. have a fair [objective, reliable, based on learning, flexible, and communicated in writing] system for assessing and grading students, which reflects learners' learning [Fink, 1999].

The constructivists see the impact of the facilitator on learning as helping to discover, learn, solve problems, participate and self-direct. This in itself will have an influence on the methodology the facilitator will apply.

At the onset of a programme, structures, procedures and ground rules (contracting) should be named explicitly, discussed, and the process should be negotiated between the facilitator and learners. Discussing the rationale for participation and interaction shows your respect for gained experience and knowledge.

The content of adult learning programmes needs to be effective, reliable and viable and should meet the needs of our times. It needs to be designed in such a way that the facilitator can use a personal facilitation style that fits within the content and context of the programme and considers the social milieu assisting these learners to understand and cope with the complexities of the changing world they live in so that they can fulfil their potential and make a difference in their world.

3.2.2.3 Reasons for designing learning programmes

Learning is for everyone. In their desire to close, or at least reduce, the gap between the present state of being or knowing and the desired state thereof, people seek out learning opportunities. To reach the desired future state, transformation needs to take place, but this process needs input. There is a vast pool of knowledge that the learner can tap from and it often seems like an uncontrollable barrage that hits from all sides. This can confuse the seeker. Therefore, if knowledge¹⁷ or skills have to be effectively gained, input needs to be managed. Programmes that

¹⁷ The Online dictionary, BlueRider, sees **knowledge** as being "the psychological result of perception and learning and reasoning" [BlueRider, (1994-10-19)] and the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary as "the information, understanding and skills that you gain through education or experience" [Hornby, 2000].

will meet individual needs have to be designed for the most effective input and will thereby serve the purpose of an effective conduit for learning and acquisition.

As an example, a creative learning pathway designed by the University of Glamorgan for an industrial community resulted in drastic changes. As a result of this learning pathway, the community has moved from being the typical, poorly educated industrial community to being associated with technology, information services, tourism and small business development. Full- and part-time female employment has increased dramatically in this previously male dominated employment situation, along with impressive participation in lifelong learning programmes [Saunders, Brake, Griffiths and Thornton, 2004], thus demonstrating the effectiveness of a properly designed learning programme.

In the workplace, employees need to adapt to constant change, so in their reaction to change or as they initiate change, employers and opinion formers resort to learning programmes to equip their employees. Employees attend these programmes on either a voluntarily or mandatory basis knowing that, if they want to survive the changes, they have to be transformed by learning.

Since both the internal and external factors of every programme differ, designers have to adapt to every context - even those programmes that have an identical content, but are facilitated in different contexts - to suit the individual situation. Programmes vary situationally, but not principally. For example, an e-learning "Telephoning Skills" programme for foreign language speakers will differ content-wise vastly from creating a whale tourism awareness programme in the communities along the coast of South Africa. And the latter will again be different when it is implemented along the coast of Taiwan. Community tourism development education in PDI¹⁸ communities in South Africa and "Business Writing Skills" for engineers in the Hsinchu Science and Technology Park in Taiwan have not much in common either situationally or content-wise, but principally all of the above-mentioned programmes equip the beneficiaries to handle real life situations and needs.

Another reason for designing programmes, is that they can be a conduit for helping adults to make informed decisions and bring about those changes that will improve themselves and their world. Therefore, effective programmes should include opportunities where adult learners learn how to reflect critically and productively even when learning a skill¹⁹. A shift of consciousness can

¹⁸ Previously Disenfranchised Individuals

¹⁹ According to the Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, a **skill** is "the ability to do something well" [Hornby, 2000]. Skills are acquired mostly by training, and could either be indefinitely improvable [for example, language skills] or the learner will have mastered them at the end of the programme [for example, being able to vote]. Some skills are complex, others are easy to acquire - proving that designing programmes for skills training depends, as all programmes, on the client base as well as on the context in which the programmes will run. Life skills and job specific skills training programmes will vary even within their fields. Life skills could include programmes for immigrants, voter

be caused that could be permanent and dramatic [Transformative Learning Centre, <http://tortoise.oise.utoronto.ca>]. Besides, Dover quotes Mezirow as saying that when learners become more reflective and critical, they become "more open to the perspectives of others... more accepting of new ideas" [Dover, <http://adulted.about.com/cs/learningtheory/a/mezirow.htm>]. However, these transformative programmes have to be designed with integrity. This will be discussed in "Principled Planning" [a] below.

Adult learners determine much of what they want to learn, but definitions of lifelong learning make it clear that in this continuous process of lifelong learning the learner should be supported. This support – the learning programme - should act like scaffolding; the "stronger" the learner gets, the more obsolete the structure should become. The main reason for the structure is to, ideally, always lead to lifelong learning.

The challenge is then to develop a learning pathway that, in policy and strategy, offers the broadest possible access to knowledge for all learners.

This thesis will attempt to design guidelines for constructing a language learning pathway that will develop an understanding and analysis of English for an industry where workers do not have the time to focus on learning English. Suitable facilitation methods will also be discussed.

3.2.2.4 Designing learning programmes

Programme design, according to Graves [2000], is a process of reflecting and responding. The designer has to understand the options, make choices and take responsibility for the choices. Because there are issues that influence the design of a programme, questions like these below need to be asked:

- What is the purpose of the programme?
- What type of programme does it need to be?
- Is the programme mandatory, or does it have open enrolment?
- How does it relate to current or previous programmes?
- Is there a prescribed curriculum?
- Is assessment required or not? [Graves, 2000:16]

Graves [2000] maintains you have to formulate the programme in terms of your situation in order to be able to decide where to begin designing it - you examine, frame, and try to address the challenges of the programme. As you do so, you will have to rely on your understanding of the context in which the programme has to function, both culturally and institutionally.

education and driving instruction. Occupational training programmes could include preparatory training, on the job training, training for multi-skilling, or training of new skills.

Programme planning always happens within a specific milieu [Lebensraum], and this poses constraints to both the planning and implementing of programmes. Sork and Caffarella [1989] see the analysis of both the context in which they happen and the client system of the programme as the first step in planning a successful programme. The particular strategies for the execution of a programme will depend on the educational paradigms or metaphors as well as the proficiencies and/or penchant of facilitators, on the one hand, and the results of the market research of the needs of intended beneficiaries on the other.

Oftentimes a change in belief and value system is the aim for the learning programme. However, individuals are part of a community/society with a specific epistemology and programmes have to be planned and developed taking cognisance of this. Knowing what the specific epistemology is and understanding it will help the programme developer to know whether concepts or ideas in the programme will align or conflict with the learner's existing ideas. The belief system of the designer is crucial in this process [Graves, 2000] and its importance will be discussed further below.

[a] Principled planning

Because of the aforementioned transforming effect efficient programmes have on the lives of the adult who has joined the programme, the principled planning of a programme is crucial. Learners' transformation ultimately must serve to improve both them and the world around them. Both the developer's and the facilitator's ethical approach will be fundamental to these outcomes of the programme. Caffarella maintains that educators have to not only care for people and the environment in which they are, they also have to strive for a "balance between democratic ideals and social justice." [Caffarella <http://www.education.cornell.edu>]. Zeichner and Liston [1996 as cited in Graves, 2000] say that being ethical developers implies being aware of and questioning the assumptions and values they bring to the facilitation session and being attentive to the institutional and cultural contexts in which the programme runs [Graves, 2000]. This requires the facilitator to be able to reflect and be willing to respond if there are changes to be made. "Assumptions and values... are a crucial influence on the way you understand the challenges" [Graves, 2000:16] that any programme has.

[b] Needs-driven

The design of a programme has to be needs-driven. Sork and Caffarella [1989] see this as the second step in their six-point plan for delivering a programme. Authors agree that the felt, expressed, and prescribed individual needs of the adult learners should play a pivotal role in determining the design of the content of a programme. Complying with the demand of designing a truly needs-based adult education programme, however, provides a challenge.

Firstly, the target audience is varied, which obliges the developer to consider the adult learners' different lifestyles and experiences, different levels of knowledge, and cultural and presuppositional differences – all determining factors in the design and implementation of a learning pathway. Researching and analysing the learners' as well as the community's needs include their goals, objectives, content, processes, resources and also the means of evaluation of all the learning experiences [Robertson, 1971 as cited in Yalden, 1989]. Adult learners' needs should indeed determine the fine-tuning of all sectors of a programme.

Secondly, it has to be kept in mind that there is very little clarity as to what a need really is and some unanswered questions prevail. If we look at a need as being the gap between an existing state of being or knowing and a desired state thereof, we come up against the measurability of the present situation on the one hand, and the immeasurability of the desired state on the other. There are no set tools to measure what is not. How then do we determine a need? Sork and Caffarella [1989] contest that value judgments “are an integral part of the needs assessment process.” [Sork and Cafarella, 1989:237]. Whose values among all the role players do we take into consideration when planning a learning programme? This question needs best be answered by reaching negotiated agreements between all the role-players in a specific programme.

Thirdly then, because no programme should be slave to learners' needs in using them as the exclusive directive, the values, assumptions, needs, experience and expertise developers, sponsors and facilitators bring to the facilitation process should also be considered and equally accommodated. The challenge is to design the programme in such a way that a two-way communication process will, in a milieu of openness and willingness, result in all parties in the learning process negotiating to find the most effective way of adapting to one another's needs so that learning can happen with as little conflict as possible.

[c] Effect of power relations

Developers have to play the people game. According to Wilson and Cervero [1996], it is a political game that requires a particular way of seeing what and who really matter in their reality if developers want to be able to serve the needs of the situation [the context in which and for which the learning has to take place] as well as the client base. Democratic rights have a place in the planning of Adult Education, but the developer has to prevent the dominant power relationships to reign supreme when determining which needs the programme will address. Wilson and Cervero plead that developers should challenge and change the power relationships by negotiating the issue of representation in planning a programme in a non-authoritative way. For this, Wilson and Cervero claim, developers have to be aware of the political and ethical consequences of those

whose interests they serve - they have to see the “political dimensions of planning” and “learn to read situations in terms of power relations and interests”. [Wilson and Cervero,1996:91]

[d] Purposes of learning programmes

Not only should the needs-based framework of a programme consider the overall purpose of the programme as well as the relevance of the classroom work to the real-world needs, but it should also consider the learning purpose/s of the adult learners and their preferred learning style.

Yet, despite the individual learning purposes of the adult learners, programmes have to ultimately aim at equipping them to master a set of techniques and procedures that will enhance self-directed learning which will lead to a personal culture of lifelong learning. In turn, this should lead towards a critical awareness in the learners - a capacity to identify and challenge the assumptions that govern their lives and, as many educators have advocated, to reaffirm personal freedom, choice, and the validity of subjective experience.

[e] Mandatory or voluntary attendance of learning programmes

In designing programmes for adult learners there also has to be clarity about whether an intended programme will be mandatory or voluntary, as this will affect the learner’s motivation. Zemke [1984] states that adults generally are willing to get involved in a learning experience before, after, or even during the actual life change event. If they are convinced that the change is happening or will happen, they will be motivated to engage in any learning that may look as if it will help them to cope with the change [Zemke, 1984 <http://honolulu.hawaii.edu>].

[f] Phases of learning programmes

Most programmes go through certain phases. According to most developers, these normally are: the design phase – which includes developing programme objectives, the dissemination phase, implementation phase which formulates the instructional and administrative [where? and when?] plan, and ultimately the evaluation phase. [Sork and Cafarella, 1989].

[g] Planning committees for the design of learning programmes

The scope of the programme will determine the extent of the planning and whether this has to be done by a committee or an individual, as the level of detail in the planning increases with the decrease in size of the programme being planned. Also, the larger the programme, the more people should be involved in the planning. A national plan for tourism education will not be as detailed as the plan individual facilitators will design for their learners. Consulting with a planning committee as well as an action committee is not uncommon to developers. They can jointly

decide on the issues and ideas of the programme, such as the scope, depth and quality of the material, sequence and the interfaces [Munson, 1989].

The planning committee, as well as the advisory committee, of any programme has to get and set clear parameters. The availability of resources has to be taken into account including people [their skills, knowledge and availability], finances, venues, and material.

The cost of learning programmes should be carefully calculated. This can be looked at from two angles. On the one hand, there is the cost of doing nothing about the needs of adults who want and need to learn. Communities and industries will be the poorer if no learning programmes are offered. On the other hand, there is the cost of implementing a learning programme. This cost will have to be covered by one, any or a combination of the following: employers, learners and/or the government.

[h] Model for planning a learning programme

In the case of the MTN Whale Route, a community tourism development product that was run in the Western Cape province of South Africa, which wanted to create a learning programme for an awareness raising campaign, a planning committee was elected to plan the process. The flowchart below [Figure 3] shows the planning process when it was launched in 1998.

After the action plan was tabled, the implementation phase started - policy became action.

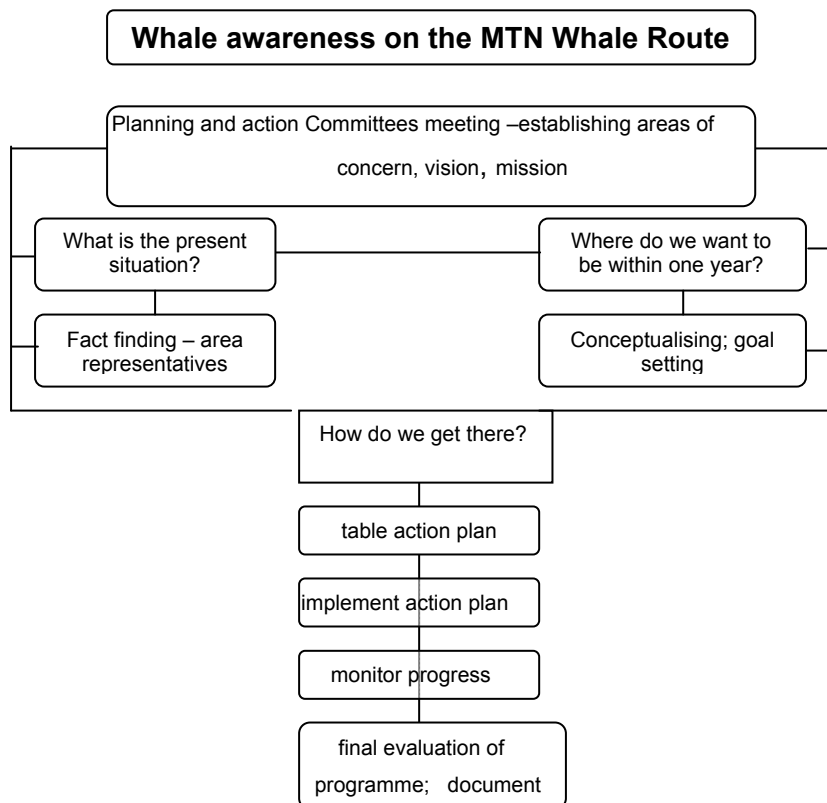


Figure 4 Systematic planning: The plan for education and training along the MTN Whale Route 1997-2000.

Formulating the learning programme can be done systematically or cyclically or in a combination of the two, depending on the programme, the learners, and the situation.

This thesis argues that the implementation phase best happens in a cyclic pattern where monitoring and evaluation are constantly part of the programme as illustrated in the figure below. [Figure 4]

In the course of the above project, a few principles became clear. A strong infrastructure needs to be in place if a planned programme has to succeed in meeting the needs of all role players. The awareness programme was the beginning of an overall whale tourism programme. The latter had to be borderless in that it had to attempt to accommodate individual adult learners' needs to be able to mix and match learning programmes to reach their specific goal be it to become a tourist guide, a receptionist or a worker in an establishment that mainly hosts whale tourists.

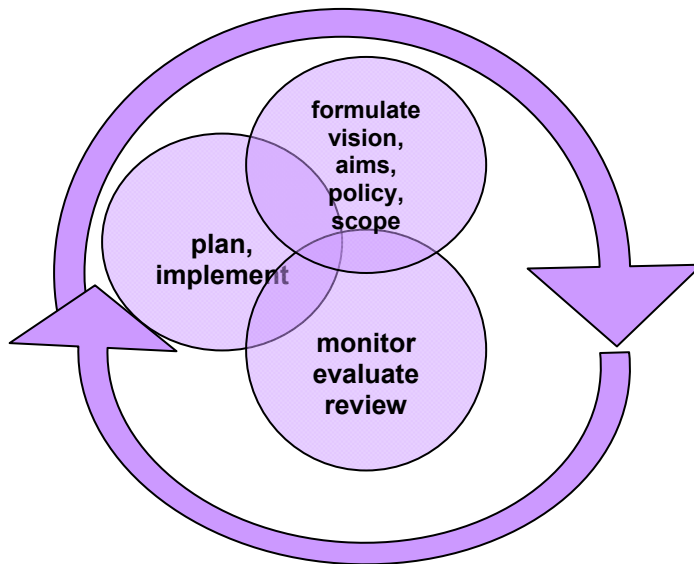


Figure 5. Implementation phase of the programme planned for education and training along the MTN Whale Route 1997-2000. (framework adapted from International Conference on Islamic Education - Islam, Y. [2000])

To meet this need, a programme with a modular structure where learning units are broken down into smaller modules with clear entrance and exit points is preferable.

Although non-formal programmes like these are characterised by their disaggregating function, designing a learning pathway has to begin with and continually maintain a holistic approach towards both the learning process and the learner.

3.2.2.5. Timing of the programme [When?]

Another important element the developer has to consider, is the timing of the programme. When would be the best time for the programme to be implemented - the season, the month, the time of day?

The tourism industry poses a few industry specific challenges, like the seasonality of the industry, which gives rise to questions like:

- would it be better to facilitate learning programmes before, during or after a busy season?
- would it be best to let a programme span across months or should it be done within a shorter period of time?

Or the type of work the learners do, which gives rise to questions like:

- do the learners work in shifts?
- are weekends good for attending a programme?

Richards and Sandy maintain, for instance, that languages have to be studied in the early afternoon, because that is the best time of day, according to them, to learn something you want to remember for a long time [Richards and Sandy,1998] Acquiring a language involves learning words, phrases and expressions that you want to remember for a long time and it would therefore be a good time to arrange contact sessions for language learning to fall within this timeslot.

Graves adds questions like: how many hours are allocated to the programme in total? Over what span of time? How often will the group meet? For how long each time? What day of the week, what time of day? Where does it fit into the schedule of the adult learners? What are the learners' timelines? [Graves, 2000]

3.2.2.6. Where the programme will run [Where?]

Self-directed learning is one of the ways adult education is often equated to, but this does not imply isolation from facilitators or co-learners. "Studies of self-directed learning indicate that self-directed projects involve an average of 10 other people as resources, guides, encouragers and the like." [Zemke, 1984: 2] Zemke further alludes to the fact that lectures ,short seminars, and one-on-one, face-to-face contact with an expert are rated high as learning opportunities. This leads to the need to consider the physical surroundings where programmes will be run for maximum benefit.

All of your best planning efforts can be wasted if you forget about the physical surroundings of your contact session [Underwood, 1996]. Your learners' comfort at all times should have the highest priority.

The selection of a venue for the programme depends on a variety of aspects and needs to be given appropriate attention. The format of the programme [for example, in-house, non-formal, informal], the mix and number of the participants [for example, ethnicity, gender, age], the

purpose of the programme, the length of the interaction, the kind of interaction you anticipate, and the availability of resources are amongst the issues that have to be considered.

The following also need to be considered:

- seating arrangements in the venue. Decide on the arrangement of as well as the kind of chair to be used beforehand. There are a variety of proven arrangements - for example, conference, classroom, U-shaped, T- shaped. The type of chair will be determined by the venue. The most important criterion is that everybody needs to be able to make eye contact with at least the facilitator, at all times;
- accessibility: easy access to the venue for physically impaired adult learners, availability of public transport to the venue and parking facilities near the venue have to be considered;
- availability of restrooms;
- time of day that the programme will run;
- size, lighting in and temperature of the room;
- means of preventing or minimising noise interference, which can be external, internal or speaker oriented;
- enough, appropriate and clear audio visual aids; and
- reliability of administrative support.

[Association of Corporate Counsel <http://www.acca.com/LDI/resources/effective.php>; Canning, 2004, Du Plessis, 2001; Rowan, 2003; Underwood, 1996]

3.2.2.7 In summary

A programme has to be part of a bigger whole with the ultimate goal of creating a learning society. What is being learned will have lasting value only if it relates to the life world of the adult learners – if they will be able to relate it to a personal or professional reality. Those problems which motivated the learner in the first place to attend the programme, should be addressed. Communication should be stimulated and lifelong learning encouraged.

Overall, the programme has to be characterised by respect, negotiation, dialogue, and cooperation between the learners, sponsors, developer/s and facilitator/s.

An effective learning programme will have to be borderless, have a modular structure and disaggregating function; it will have to be application orientated, learner-learner focused, relevant and will have to differentiate; it will have to run at the right time and for the right length of time. The learners' comfort has to be taken into account at all times regarding the physical venue.

3.3 DESIGNING ENGLISH LANGUAGE-LEARNING PROGRAMMES FOR THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

This section portrays the characteristics of the tourism industry, the implications of these on learning programmes and need for language-learning in the tourism industry in Table 1 below.

Table 1: The characteristics of the tourism industry, the implications of these on learning programmes and need for language-learning in the tourism industry [own design based on existing knowledge of researcher]

Characteristics of the tourism industry	Implications	Need for language-learning
is fragmented	poses a challenges to reach a uniform standard in education and training because of lack of coordination	international communication will be easier if there is a mutually understood language. In that way comparative studies could lead to uniform standard
is multi faceted and complex	makes designing a basic learning programme impossible, yet there are core elements that have to be mastered by most workers	language is a core element
is sophisticated and expects a sophisticated knowledge and a variety of tiptop skills from its stakeholders	learning programmes will have to address issues that will lead to a culture of lifelong learning and will equip learners with relevant knowledge and skills	language will equip workers to use the worldwide web and other sources if information more effectively so that lifelong learning is possible
is termed as a soft industry – Inskip calls it a socio-economic activity [Inskip, 1997]	might have an influence on the funding of learning programmes	the need for language learning cannot be ignored and a decision should be made whether it should be included in a general tourism training programme or presented as a separate module
is competitive	as a global industry it needs to regularly offer learning programmes to all stakeholders if it wants to stay on the cutting edge of service delivery	this makes English language-learning compulsory as a product's market lead will often be determined by the quality of its service, for which English proficiency is indisputable

is closely linked to the service industry	its workers have to have the same skills that workers in that industry have	needed skills include English language-learning especially for frontline workers
is labour intensive and employs a large and varied workforce that is neither homogenous nor static and often the same person will belong to more than one stakeholder group; has a high staff mobility, odd working hours and a varying levels of competency of workers; the workforce often does not have the time, money or motivation to get involved in further education, but are ready “to engage in training which leads to tangible (not token) employment.” [Saunders et al, 2004:29]	the design of generic education and training programmes becomes very complex [Douglas et al (ed), 2001]. Stakeholders can never be fully prepared for all eventualities and frontline workers often have to learn on the job, which results in just in time learning	as mobility within the industry is a given, workers will benefit if they are competent in English so that they will be able to work internationally and across segments of the industry. Language competency improves their employability
is seasonal, causing long periods of low or unemployment	it has an influence on the funding of programmes as well as motivation of adult learners	if workers have an English language competency, they will be able to seek other employment during the off or low seasons
is a multidisciplinary industry with many industries and disciplines contributing to and benefiting from it	recognised prior learning [RPL] assessments should be available as many workers might have acquired the knowledge and skills that are needed already. RPL saves cost and time and opens up new career paths for workers	language competency is needed in many industries, but the tourism industry needs workers that have more than just a superficial language competency
creates multiple situations – every tourist is different and has different needs as every destination is different and has different needs and attributes	This clearly asks for a broad educational base and has a significant influence on the learning programmes	language-learning programmes have to be on two levels, namely EOP as well as GE. Workers have to realise that they will have to engage in a lifelong learning programme if they want to derive maximum benefit from being bilingual

<p>is reliant on events outside the industry – events like the Olympic Games give the host country’s tourism industry a mammoth injection and leaves lasting benefits</p>	<p>host communities’ benefits are not only financial, but also social, for instance, China will be left with a higher English competency after the 2008 Olympics. However, events like 9-11 in the USA have a devastating effect on tourism</p>	<p>tourism stakeholders have to continually be updated about the never-ending changes that happen both in and out of the industry. Learning programmes can create opportunities to get up to date knowledge and skills - workers have to learn how to communicate their opinion and how to understand others’ in a mutually understood language</p>
<p>struggles to keep the balance between pre-vocational qualifications and on the job training – the frontline worker pool is often drawn from the lesser-educated</p>	<p>workers needs to get on the job training to reach the required level of competence to enter and progress in the industry. However, globally there is a scarcity of jobs for people who have tourism qualifications</p>	<p>language competency enhances employability</p>
<p>has a problem with leakage in most areas of especially, but not exclusively, rural destinations. Employers’ excuse for not employing locals is often that locals are not educated enough about the tourism industry</p>	<p>money leaks out of the host destination by outsiders benefiting from the attributes of the destination [for example, a large city-based adventure tourism company that operates in a rural area and only employs people from the city]. If the product wants to compete with other products, employers have to spend money on training and education, but the fact that both locals and “imported” workers have to be educated and trained is often overlooked. Locals will have to gain skills and knowledge of the industry and imported workers will have to gain knowledge about the area and its people. Which group will have to be educated will have a significant influence on the design of a learning programme</p>	<p>the need for the local workforce to be able to communicate effectively, is a very real necessity. It might take longer to equip them as language-learning is not an overnight miracle, but the rewards are longer lasting for both the employer and employee</p>

has many benefits for a host destination – not only monetary, but also social and environmental benefits	this will only be effective if whole communities are educated to make informed decisions about the industry in their area	this will only be true if members of the host communities are employed and employability hinges on language competency
has to be developed sustainably	the three pillars of sustainable development, namely environmental integrity, societal justice and economic efficiency will be addressed. If not introduced, developed and maintained correctly tourism could be dangerous for the host community. Developers, local governments, employers and employees alike will have to understand sustainable development and maintenance of a destination by learning about sustainability	implementing the social justice principle implies equipping the host community with relevant skills so that they can become employable. This includes helping them to acquire language skills
is a young industry which poses challenges to the educators	there is no benchmark and changes will happen fast and often	the exact influence of language competency on the success of a local destination has to be researched
has many one-man bands and small operators [Cooper et al, 1996]	who cannot easily afford to go or send their employees on quality learning programmes	language learning should be made available for all by way of government support
has a unique inherent structure, diversity and nature [Cooper et al, 1996] .	does not lend itself to the development of learning programmes	language-learning programmes have to be tailor-made for the industry as well as the specific group of learners

There thus seems to be a big and varied need for learning programmes tailor-made for the tourism industry in general. A solution will have to be sought to equip adult learners effectively to operate in the industry.

3.3.1 Effect of language learning on the tourism industry

Few human activities have such vast potential as does tourism for exposing on a personal level the considerable inequalities that exist between people, particularly between people of different countries and different races. English is the dominant language of travellers and of the industry

as a whole and this could create the illusion that if you speak English you are superior to the person who does not. This in turn could lead to a myriad of social problems. Members of the poorer communities who see the affluent tourist visiting them for instance in a South African township slum, could assume that English is a skill only rich people can have and build up a resistance to the language instead of seeing the possibility of acquiring the same skill that might open new doors for them. This might lead to a low self-esteem and will do little to aid community pride and a healthy community pride might help to curb crime – a global deterrent for tourism.

The fact that the tourism industry needs effective and efficient use of spoken and written language is an obvious, yet much neglected one. Competency in both English and computer skills is as high on the list of must-haves in this industry as in all others, but without English competency adequate computer competency might also remain a dream as 80% of the information that is available in the world is electronically stored and it is in English [Power, 2005]. To get a market share, a tourism establishment in a country where English is a foreign language [for instance in Taiwan] or where frontline workers are not English native speakers [for instance in South Africa], has to realise that its workers have to be competent in at least two languages – one of them being English.

3.3.1.1 Importance of English competence for the tourism worker

In line with the rest of the world's industries, tourism joins the global transformation in which English is the lingua franca for commerce, technology and, increasingly, for overall empowerment of people [Power, 2005]. Being able to speak and listen to English in a way that two-way communication will be effective, are of crucial importance in an industry where the use of English is globally a determinant of marketability and, alongside computer skills and mass migration, is the engine that turbo boosts globalisation [Power, 2005]. Speaking English is as important in obtaining a job in this industry as it is in keeping the job [Dominguez and Rokowski, n/d http://www.esp-world.info/Articles_2].

The British Council estimates that by 2015 about three billion people – almost half the world —will speak English [Power, 2005] and when they travel, they will expect to be able to communicate with people at the destinations who will be able to understand English as well. Being a tourist often creates vulnerability in the traveller and effective communication with the host helps to counteract this feeling.

That most travellers originate from countries where English is spoken was already evident on a 1982 World Tourism Organisation map which reflects the global distribution of leisure time travellers in that year. It shows that 399 million tourism consumers originate from predominantly

English speaking countries. The rest count for 126 million and of these a big percentage is also English speaking. The exact number is difficult to ascertain as Australia and New Zealand are included in “Eastern Asia and Pacific” [which constitute 92 million of the latter figure], the whole of Africa [incl. South Africa, Uganda, Botswana, Nigeria, Ghana, Swaziland and Tanzania] accounts for 30 million, and India and Bangladesh are included in the 49 million of “Southern Asia” [cited in Shaw and Williams, 1995]. In all of the latter countries English is either a first or a second language, spoken by a significant portion of the population [<http://www.aneki.com/english.html>]. These numbers make it clear that most international leisure time travellers speak English and want to understand written and spoken English when they travel. Business and MICE²⁰ tourists have even higher demands on English competency on the way to and at their travel destinations. Expenditure of visitors in these two categories is known to be twice and more per day than that of leisure tourists [Smith, 1989; Law 1992 as cited in Shaw and Williams, 1995]. Satisfied visitors in this market will thus have outstanding benefits for the destination.

English proficiency has to be evident at all travel and destination contact points, but in looking just at the hotel industry, the following areas can be mentioned as examples:

- front of house staff [they have to face and deal with the visitor];
- reservations [they have to rely on telephone and email to communicate];
- room management [they have to deliver messages, give advice];
- telecommunications [they have to handle calls, sometimes even teleconferences];
- safety and security [they have to make safety measurements and procedures clear];
- energy management [they have to communicate the hotel’s policy on energy management];and
- back office [they have for instance deal with purchasing and management reports].

Apart from the normal face-to face encounters that constitute most tourism experiences at all contact points at and on the way to the destination, the industry uses faxes, e-mails, the Internet and Intranet, which are necessary communication conduits. Using them effectively and skilfully will help to stay on the cutting edge of a technologically and culturally advanced industry.

Littlejohn and Watson [2004] maintain that, alongside soft skills like Information Technology skills, team working, problem solving, numeracy and motivational skills, communication and literacy skills should be prioritised in higher education programmes for tourism workers. They go as far as

²⁰ Meetings, Incentives, Conferences and Exhibitions

saying that programmes “should consider the inclusion of foreign languages as a compulsory element of the curriculum” [2004:410]. To encourage language competency, learners could be given the opportunity to embark on internships in tourism businesses abroad [Littlejohn and Watson, 2004].

Without English competency, not only will individuals find it hard to get and maintain a job in the tourism industry, as the visitors will demand to be understood and to understand and be informed, but also will they find that an inability to handle the many technological challenges that face the practitioner in an already challenging work environment, puts them at a disadvantage.

3.3.1.2 Urban vs. rural tourism in the pursuit of language competency in the tourism industry

The attractiveness of cities as destinations depends on successfully creating an invitingly positive image, because one world city is rather similar to any other. Drawing more visitors requires a creative marketing campaign, which mostly depends on key slogans in advertisements that are sent into the mainly English speaking tourist world. The marketing success of Glasgow’s slogan, “Glasgow’s miles better”, proves that clever, creative use of the language can draw visitors to a city that previously was the Cinderella of Scotland’s tourism destinations. Australia’s Aus \$ 180 million “So where the bloody hell are you?” campaign, in contrast, derived negative comments from many English travellers who labelled it “crude”. The television advertisement was banned in more than one country and edited in others. So, instead of winning visitors as intended, they lost visitors from Germany, Japan and the UK – the market they targeted with the campaign

[www.wikipedia.org/wiki/so_where_the_bloody_hell_are_you]. Appropriate language usage and sensitivity to cultures are major elements of marketing in tourism.

Urban areas compete vigorously for a slice of the MICE industry, which is very competitive worldwide. This, and business tourism in general, can give a boost to any central business district [CBD] as the income from visitors in these two categories are known to be twice as high as the income leisure tourists bring. [Smith, 1989; Law 1992 as cited in Shaw and Williams, 1995:222]. It is a safe assumption to make that language efficiency in the urban tourism areas would be a determining factor for a multi-national corporate [MNC] to take its business to a specific city. The exact extent of this being a determining factor will have to be researched.

The ideal in any tourism human resource development project would be a private-public business partnership to fund learning programmes for the staff. In the CBD of cities private establishments and venues that target mostly international visitors often employ high and medium level managers who do not have a tourism background. In the smaller businesses managers often have worked

their way up in the industry. Management thus often does not see the need for training frontline staff [Cooper et al, 1996] and are reluctant to fund learning programmes. Funding learning programmes is expensive and language-learning programmes are prioritised by very few. Staff members at these establishments are thus often imported from elsewhere. This minimises the positive effect of tourism on the local community.

The challenges for rural tourism destinations are different, but manifold. The human resources in rural areas from which tourism workers can be recruited might be described as educationally disaffected. English is often a foreign [as opposed to a second] language and opportunities to acquire competency in English are mostly non-existent.

All over the world, long-term visits are more profitable than day visits and rural areas could benefit from this. Rural destinations are seen as idylls in the untamed wilderness or as just vast expanses of land where you can get back to your roots [Beeton, 1999 as cited in Douglas et al, 2001]. But, the rural tourism industry has to face the fact that locales are easily substituted and competition is fierce. If a destination does not have the benefit of language efficiency they might lose their cutting edge and consequently customers.

Road transport is often the way to get to far-off areas. Those who drive themselves into the unknown territory will have to have effective road signage to point the way and those who make use of a driver, will have to be assured that they will be able to communicate effectively. Maps that can be read and road signage that will be understood are necessities on these ventures. According to Shaw and Williams [1995] there is a strong social filter that allows visitors to the rural areas. Frequently visitors tend to be young professionals. Globally, this category of traveller is characterised by high expectations of service. As large blocks of time are spent at one destination when visiting rural areas, living with an inability to communicate could become an irritation factor.

Gonzalo and Gee stress the importance of languages in the tourism industry by saying:

Language training in the workplace is important for cross-cultural communication which provides higher levels of guest satisfaction. Languages are also important for the reason that they also [sic] promote cross-cultural understanding of guest behaviour, values, needs and desires in the international marketplace [2002:213].

If the need for language efficiency is noticed and funds for language-learning programmes are part of the budget, the learners are encouraged to attend these and rewarded for doing so, the industry, establishment, individual, and community at large will benefit.

3.3.1.3 Advantages of English learning programmes in the tourism industry

Acquiring a language improves the quality of life as well as the employability of the learner. The Third World inevitably has to join the new global order [Burns, 2000] and with it come a multitude of instances where language has to be used effectively if participation and negotiation have to be fair. English competence enhances individual confidence and if enough individuals in a community are given and make use of the opportunity to acquire it, it leads to the upliftment of the whole community. This in turn could help to foster community pride and could lead to minimising many social ills, for instance under and unemployment, crime and child prostitution.

Tourism has many spin-offs and other industries benefit from a healthy tourism industry. Although not dependant on it, many industries are influenced by the amount of visitors at a destination [see p. 13] . The better the tourism industry worker serves the visitor, the better the chances of return and recommended visits and the higher the income for a destination.

A case study in curriculum design, reported on by Saunders et al [2004], discusses a creative curriculum design that was used in a community education programme of the University of Glamorgan in Wales to attract learners from disadvantaged backgrounds. This experiment in curriculum engineering was based on the popularity of science fiction within that culture and resulted in, amongst other, a positive response to lifelong learning [Saunders et al, 2004] as it sparked off studies in other fields.

Nothing prevents the tourism industry from being a similar catalyst for lifelong learning. Using the needs of the tourism industry to improve general English proficiency in a community is well defensible as a tool to improve the lives and employability of as many community members as possible. The well-know slogan of the tourism industry “Tourism is everybody’s business” is applicable. Smith [Smith, V.L., 1989] mentions that linguistic acculturation where the host is far more likely to learn the language of the visitor than the other way round, could benefit the hosts as “the cadre of bilingual individuals in a tourist-oriented community or country is usually rewarded” [Smith, V.L., 1989:266].

An example of prosperity that can come via language competency in the tourism industry is found in the example Smith [Smith, V.L.,1989] uses. In Tana Toraja a tourist guide, because of him being fully bilingual, made enough money as a guide to pay his way through tertiary education and in the end qualifyi as an engineer. A sibling, for the same reason, earned enough to pay for his education, then decided to launch on a career in tourism. He obtained a PhD at the Sorbonne and “expects to join the Indonesian Ministry of Tourism and help develop tourism in the area.” [Smith,V.L. 1989:7].

There are many advantages in tourism frontline workers being bilingual; advantages for the individual, the product that employs the individual, the community, the destination and the industry as a whole. However, as mentioned before, designing and executing language-learning programmes for this industry has specific challenges.

3.3.2 Challenges of language learning in general

Language acquisition is a lifelong learning process in which nobody can ever reach the stage of “I-know-it-all”. Language evolves and grows as all languages are works in progress [Power, 2005].

Language learning is not an overnight miracle as it takes time to acquire a language. As language learning is different to other forms of learning, in that it is acquired and not learned, there is no hard and fast rule that can be applied to facilitating learning of a language. Individuals acquire language in different ways and exit a programme with varied levels of skills mastery.

Moreover, to acquire English as a foreign language is different from acquiring it as a second language, because assimilation is difficult. The difference lies mainly in the level of exposure to the English language. In countries where no English is heard in the day-to-day activities of the language learner, it will be only in the contact sessions that the learner is exposed to the language. It will thus take a special effort on the side of the learner to become competent.

However, human beings assimilate language from their surroundings and use it as needed. Tourism frontline workers often pick up language chunks from being around guests, which could count in their favour [see p 80] and their language ability could advance as they have more and regular contact with the guests. This creates a false sense of competency that has to be addressed by offering the right language-learning programmes.

Investing in the education of your workers in general is costly, which makes employers unenthusiastic to support them and formal language-learning programmes evoke even less enthusiasm.

Considering the time, effort and cost which are typical challenges of language-learning programmes in general and adding to that the tourism industry’s typical characteristics, might seem to create insurmountable challenges. Yet, the influence of the tourism frontline worker on the visitor is undisputed both before and during the actual visit. It would be ideal to have a workforce where everyone is bilingual with English as one of the languages, but the

implementation of a suitable English language-learning programme challenges designers, facilitators, workers and employers alike. The following section will attempt to address this.

3.3.3 Typical challenges of designing a language-learning programme for the tourism industry

English language teaching programmes for the tourism industry will continue to evolve, creating more diversity in overall programme design and facilitation methods. Three reasons for this can be mentioned:

- changes in learner needs in every culture;
- changes in requirements of the different sectors of the industry; and
- typical changes in the language-learning field.

Every culture sees changes in learner needs and different cultures have different language needs. The difference between countries where English is a foreign language and countries where English is a second language, because it is used in the media and in everyday life, will have an influence on programme design as well as on the ease with which adult learners will be able to make use of a programme. The need to enrol for an English language-learning programme for tourism workers living in Beijing today is quite different to what Chinese tourism workers needed in the past. Their need, however similar, is different from the need tourism workers in South Africa have in preparation for the 2010 Soccer World Cup that will be hosted in their country. For example, programmes will have to be geared towards EFL in the case of China, but ESL for South Africa. However, there is also both a learning culture and aptitude difference in these learners.

It is possible that currently learner entry-level proficiency will be higher in South Africa than it has been in the past as more and more people get exposure to the language in school and are in direct contact with the language afterwards where they are expected to use oral and written English daily. In both cases, because it deals with the tourism industry, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) facilitation is likely to be more appropriate. The question arises whether an EOP programme will suffice, or whether such a programme that will meet the needs of the specific sector and occasion it is intended for, will have to be supplemented by a GE programme. The learning culture, aptitude, time, and entry level of the learners will determine this.

Whether or not the tourism workers have had pre-vocational education will also be an influential factor on programme design.

According to Swarbrooke, pre-vocational tourism education is dichotomous and this decreases effective international recognition of diplomas and causes confusion [Swarbrooke, <http://www.atlas-euro.org>]. It also has an influence on designing generic English language-learning programmes, as there is no international standardised exit level available.

Swarbrooke illustrates the dichotomies as follows:

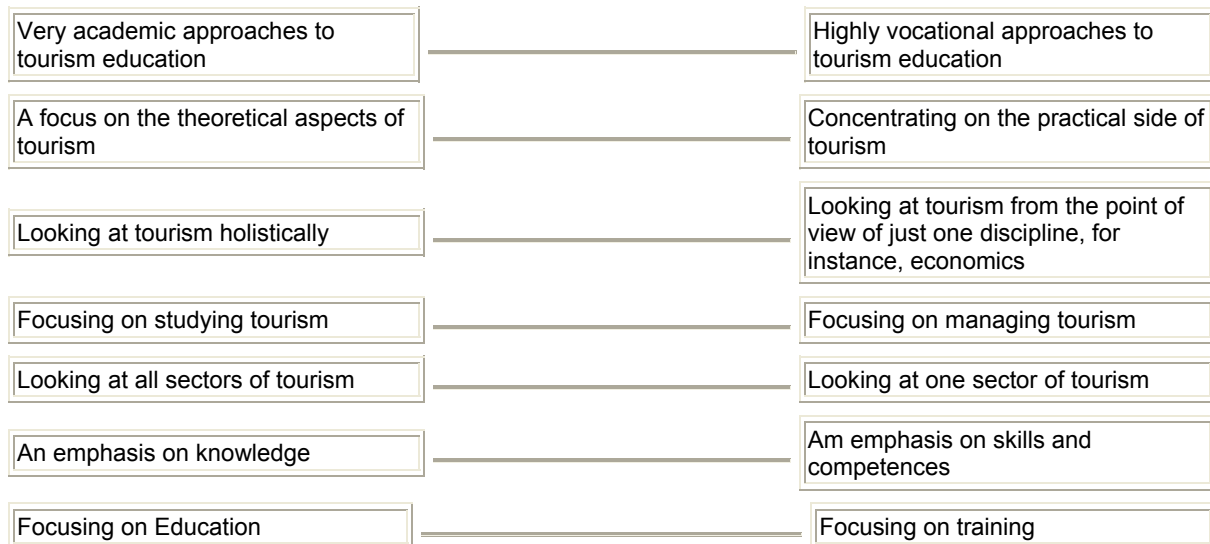


Figure 6: Dichotomies in tourism education [Swarbrooke, <http://www.atlas-euro.org>]

Littlejohn and Watson indicate that it is critically important that vocational/sector needs and academic requirements are balanced. Therefore, HE and industry should regard them as equally important and the only way in which high value, successful tourism can be produced [Littlejohn and Watson, 2004].

The learning programmes that are skills and competency based do not necessarily see language learning as a priority in pre-vocational training for the industry and practitioners are not effectively prepared. Unfortunately, the tourism industry like many other industries, see acquiring language skills only as a supplement of a core programme that is based on subject matter [Christison and Stoller, 1997]. ESL and EFL programmes, in general, are nearly always noncredit, extra curricular programmes at tertiary institutions, which marginalizes ESL and EFL facilitation in a context where accumulating credits toward a specific degree or certificate is the usual academic practice [Christison and Stoller 1997]. This then often results in workers not having the basic English language skills to serve clients in the global predominantly English-speaking tourism industry.

According to Nunan [1996] it is possible to distinguish between a broad and a narrow approach to language syllabus design. He points out that, because there always is a common language core, General English [GE] should not fall by the wayside. He sees GE as an ongoing learning process [broad] and ESP as a more specific training situation [narrow] where learners have to be drilled in

mastering language relevant to their field. This approach would be suitable for the tourism industry provided that it is combined with the Lexical Approach to language-learning [Nunan, 1996].

The final objective of language-learning programmes for the tourism industry is not the acquisition of a body of knowledge, but the mastery of a particular set of language skills: the English skills required for success in the tourism industry. This needs to be addressed by making employers aware of the need and the benefits that arise from a language-competent workforce on the one hand and, on the other, employees need to be encouraged to attend language-learning programmes and rewarded for doing so.

If it is expected that the employers should provide opportunities, the employees be willing and motivated to make use of the opportunities then developers and facilitators have to be taking cognisance of the challenges that face these participants in the language-learning programme.

Matters like methodology, materials and achievement assessment will have to be reconsidered as employers, the industry and governments now determine the kind of proficiency they want their workers to have. Ownership of the tourism industry is a matter of public-private co-ownership because of the complexity of the industry, and all role-players will have to be included in decision making. The industry demands a high level of sophisticated knowledge and skills from its workers, but individuals often fall short of reaching this. New and creative ways of designing a flexible, appropriate programme will have to be found and implemented.

Christison and Stoller [1997] have looked at the student variables that affect programme change and tabled the programme options as shown in Table 1 below. Based on Table 2, the following table [Table 3] could be a valuable tool for designing language-learning programmes for the tourism industry.

Generally, Power [2005] says, both the English language and its teaching inevitably are becoming more complex. Along with this, some of the typical characteristics of the tourism industry are hurdles to offering effective language-learning programmes. As mentioned, the seasonality of tourism, the varying levels of competency of workers, tourism being a fragmented, multidisciplinary, soft industry where multiple situations have to be addressed are some of the major challenges for involving adult learners in language-learning. Added to this is the fact that language takes time to acquire and finding regular time slots for these learners to attend contact

Table 2: Student characteristics and programme options [Christison and Stoller, 1997]

Student Characteristics				
Student Background		Student Objectives		Desired Emphasis
Academic experience		Academic: general (EAP) and specific (ESP)		Computer literacy
Competencies		Business: general and specific		Conversation
Language abilities		Social		Grammar
Personal goals		Survival		Listening
		Vocational		Pronunciation
		Adjunct		Reading
		Sheltered		Study skills
				Writing
Programme Options				
Programme of Study	Pedagogy	Schedule	Classroom Management	Classroom Formats
Full time	Audiolingual	Hours per day	Team teaching	Listening laboratory
Part time	Functional	Hours per week	Self-instruction	Computer laboratory
Intensive	Notional	Weeks per term	Cooperative learning	Reading laboratory
Open entry	Situational		Single-teacher managed classroom	Writing centre
Set entry	Task based			Teacher-managed classroom
Voluntary	Content based			Self-access learning centre
Compulsory	Communicative			
	Eclectic			
	ESP			
	VESL			
	TPR			
	Natural Approach			
	Immersion			
	Silent Way			

Table 3: Student characteristics and programme options that could be a useful tool for designing a language-learning programme for tourism

Student Characteristics				
Student Background		Student Objectives		Desired Emphasis
Academic experience		ESP: EFL or ESL		Computer literacy
Competencies		Business: general and specific		Conversation
Language abilities		Social		Listening
Personal goals		Vocational		Pronunciation
		Adjunct / Optional extra		Reading
				Writing
Programme Options				
Programme of Study	Pedagogy	Schedule	Classroom Management	Classroom Formats
Part time	Audiolingual	Hours per day	Team teaching	Listening laboratory
Voluntary	Functional	Hours per week	Self-instruction	Computer laboratory
Compulsory	Notional	Weeks per programme	Cooperative learning	Reading laboratory
Intensive	Situational		Single-teacher managed classroom	Writing centre
Open entry	Task based			Teacher-managed classroom
Set entry	Content based			Self-access learning centre
	Communicative			
	Eclectic			
	ESP			
	VESL ²¹			
	TPR ²²			
	Natural Approach			
	Immersion			
	Silent Way			
	Lexical Approach			

²¹ Vocational English as a Second Language Programme

²² Total Physical Response

sessions, is difficult. There are no examples of best practice yet, there are too few trainers, the cost is high and employers have to deal with a fluid workforce that has to be trained and trained again. Added to this is that most areas have a leakage problem of both money and human resources filtering out of a destination.

It will therefore have to be a tailor-made programme with enough flexibility to adapt it to every locale that will serve the needs of the tourism industry.

3.4 CONCLUSION AND SUMMARY

Designing a needs-based language-learning programme for the tourism industry provides more than the average challenges.

Successful English language-learning programmes improve cultural competence, add more and appropriate knowledge and develop skills; thereby add to community self-awareness, self-esteem and pride. This in turn, could help to reduce crime rates. However, the exact contribution English learning programmes make towards equipping adult learners to be and stay employed in this industry needs to be tracked in order to determine which are the effective and relevant English language-learning pathways for workers in the industry.

In summary, effective language-learning programmes for adult workers in the tourism industry that will meet current personal as well as occupational needs of individuals will have to be needs-driven, coherently communicated between all interested parties, and will have to plant the seed for lifelong learning. All learning programmes can create opportunities for learners to be transformed and will have to be designed with integrity. The programme design has to be done with the following elements in mind: the specific view of knowledge and learning of the group, proven adult learning principles, the duration of, motivation for and placing of the programme. Appropriate learning pathways have to be designed and marketed in more imaginative ways so that they will appeal to people who would not otherwise give learning a second glance.

A workforce that is at least bilingual with English as one of the languages will benefit the tourism industry on all levels. Despite the challenges, a determined effort should be made to design and implement formal English language-learning programmes at tourism destinations that will benefit individuals as well as communities as a whole.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, research methodology and paradigms in general are deliberated. The two methods of collecting the data in a pilot English language-learning programme for the tourism industry as well as in a survey that was done between August 2005 and March 2006 are integrated in this deliberation.

4.1.1 Scientific research in the social sciences

It is generally agreed that scientific research can be done in a variety of ways, but that all methods have common denominators, such as that it is, or attempts to be, a “planned, cautious, systematic and reliable” [Blaxter, Hughes and Tight, 1996:5] collection of knowledge that will deepen understanding. Kerlinger [1986:10 as cited in De Vos, 2002:45] defines it as a “systematic, controlled, empirical and critical investigation of natural phenomena, guided by theory and hypotheses about the presumed relations among such phenomena”. The general opinion is that research in the social sciences will be more qualitative as opposed to the natural sciences where quantitative research will be more frequent.

In qualitative research the researcher looks at actions and representations of actions of human beings and through the research wants to give as clear and thorough an account as possible of these, in order to gain a better understanding of the world we live in. The qualities, characteristics or assets of the phenomena are observed and analysed and the knowledge gained, hopefully, will also contribute to an improved society [Henning, 2004].

The principle aim of this thesis is to determine guidelines for constructing a suitable, needs-based English language-learning programme for the tourism industry. Being a study in human interaction in a specific milieu, namely the tourism industry, this research thus falls within the social sciences. Although the subject matter is fluid and difficult to measure precisely, the data analysis attempts to find a pattern in and reason for the participants’ response. In a survey questionnaire the setting of the respondents [the kind of tourism business they are active in], their opinions [how do they think English competency will influence their business] and actions [for example what they intend doing about the improvement of English competency in their business] were addressed. This information will assist in determining the significance of a tailor-made English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in Taiwan.

A pilot programme, “English for the tourism industry”, was conducted with 11 participants who responded to a pre-, mid- and post-programme questionnaire. These data will be presented in Chapter 5.

4.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

All scientific research is done within a certain paradigm. In this context, a paradigm is defined as a set of accepted beliefs, values and techniques within the scientific community. These complex and constantly shifting boundaries that can be thought of as a lens through which we view the world, act as a guide to the researcher to address and explain the problem the research aims to address [Daniels, 2003; Lynch, 2005]. There are different paradigms such as the positivist, postpositivist, postmodernist, phenomenologist, ethnographer, feminist and hermeneutics paradigms, but Lynch [2005] makes a distinction between approaches based on the physical sciences, which he calls the ‘positivist’ paradigm, and other paradigms, for example constructivism, interpretivism, critical theory, and phenomenology, which he refers to as the ‘interpretivist’ paradigm [<http://www.iltaonline.com/newsletter/01-2005may/latdialog-lynch.htm>], that are not based on the physical sciences. A thorough analysis of the different paradigms falls outside the scope of this study; therefore, the description below of the major paradigms gives only a brief history, specific view of knowledge, methodology and key words of each paradigm.

4.2.1 Positivism

The term positivism, was coined in the 19th century by Saint-Simon [Rohmann, 1999] and led to a concept that saw a pure scientific approach as the only valid path to bring about a higher stage of human advancement. It rejected metaphysics and conducted most research through experiments where conditions could be directly manipulated and observed [Henning, 2004].

The Positivist approach has since been deemed inappropriate as a research approach to social sciences. There are a number of reasons for this. Positivists have a single idea of truth and reality and use the natural sciences, where patterns and laws, causes and effects govern, to attest this belief. One of the main objections to a positivist approach being appropriate for research in the social sciences, is that Positivists, in applying their model of research for the natural science to investigations of the social world [Denscombe, 2001:239], argue that the object of the social sciences, the human being, will not be an obstacle to getting reliable scientific research results. They also assume that universal causal laws, patterns and regularities [Denscombe, 2001:239] that occur in the natural world, are acquiescent to the social world. Another objection is that natural science researchers maintain that only those phenomena that

can be observed by the senses and can be measured, are valid contributors to knowledge, thereby negating the value of observation and experience [De Vos, 2002].

Positivist research predominantly uses the quantitative methodology and the verbs “test” and “predict” often occur in the research.

4.2.2 Interpretivism

Interpretivism can be traced back to the Germans Weber and Dilthey, whose approach was “Erklären und Verstehen”²³ [De Vos, 2002]. In a quest to find answers, Interpretivists aimed at understanding and interpreting lives of people through having conversations with subjects. Evolving from the initial generic descriptive studies, where the researcher had to be distanced from what was researched, the role of the researcher “as co-creator of meaning” [Henning, 2004:19] became progressively more important. In this paradigm the researcher realises that observation is imperfect, truth can only be known in part and research should rather disprove than prove. The fundamental principle is uncertainty [Henning, 2004]. De Vos [2002] claims Interpretivism is related to Hermeneutics – a theory of meaning – that is largely found in the humanities. Lynch [2005] classified constructivism, critical theory, and phenomenology under the interpretivist paradigm.

Human intent, philosophies, “values and reasons, meaning-making and self-understanding” [Henning, 2004] construct knowledge for the Interpretivist and this evolves as, over time, people realise what the content and meaning of competing constructions are and then construct new ones or change the existing ones. Because knowledge is diffuse and disseminated, interpretive research is done on various levels, in different places and at different entities in order to understand a phenomenon.

The methodology mostly associated with Interpretivism is the discursive qualitative approach. Words like “understand” and “construct” are key words in this methodology.

4.2.3 Critical theory

Since its origin in Germany in the early 20th century, practitioners of the critical theory emphasise social transformation. They challenge existing beliefs about social, gender, political, cultural, ethnic, and economic arrangements and promote critical consciousness in a radical attempt to deconstruct a world of oppression and social inequalities. Nowadays the critical theory has adopted a more positive approach in that it wants to lead and empower people, especially the

²³ explain and understand

oppressed, to reconstruct their world by emphasising equity in the balance of power [Henning, 2004]. Lynch [2005] classifies the critical theory under Interpretivism.

Critical theory research focuses mainly on lived experiences and the social structures in which these experiences are gathered; it does not separate values and ideological inscriptions from facts [Henning, 2004].

The methodology mostly associated with the critical theory, is participatory action research where the researcher and the researched are co-responsible for the process. Words like “participation”, “collaboration”, “change” and “improve” are key words in this methodology.

The above-mentioned positions have significant impact on research, both on conducting the enquiry and on interpreting data. Interpretivism sees relationships [for example the situation of researching learners’ acquisition and use of language] not only as fluid with no universal laws governing them, but also as complex. The research cannot be done independent or external of the social world - directions of influence are reciprocal and shifting rather than unidirectional and fixed [Lynch, 2005]. Positivism would give desired objective data about the sample that was chosen. Methodologically, thus, a mix of positivism and interpretivism would be most appropriate for the phenomenon this study is addressing; both language-learning and the tourism industry are complex. The research was done within the social world, the researcher was involved in the research, but the study attempted to objectively collect and interpret the data. The bulk of the information was gathered with a survey using a questionnaire; the process of gathering and interpreting the information was qualitative

4.3 METHODOLOGY

There are factors that influence the method the researcher will use to collect and analyse data. One of them is the purpose of a specific research, others are the presupposition and the ontological position of the researcher. Henning [2004] maintains that the epistemology [philosophy] and methodology [practise] of the researcher are intimately related. When the investigator is the prime data gatherer and interpreter this will be relevant in influencing the data.

There are two methodological approaches, namely ‘quantitative’ and ‘qualitative’ and they are not mutually exclusive in the social sciences. Basically differing in their commitment to assumptions about the social world and the appropriate way to collect and interpret data, the terms relate more to the different ways of treating data than to the collecting of it [Denscombe, 2001]. Denscombe

[2001] further states that the dividing line between them is not clear, and assumptions are frequently shared.

With the available time, resources and access for this study, the intention was that both quantitative [surveys, literature review] and qualitative [interviews] data would be collected from role players in all regions in Taiwan. The latter was abandoned when the reality of the language barrier became clear while conducting the first [and only] interview. After this interview with the most bilingual Taiwanese candidate, it was clear that only superficial data would be collected in this way because of a lack of in-depth discussion abilities caused by the language barrier. Data were already available from the quantitative sources [survey, literature review], the pilot programme [ITI learners] as well as from attending a seminar where education and training in the tourism industry [whale watching conference] was addressed and discussed, albeit briefly.

4.3.1 Quantitative research

Quantitative research primarily has to do with numbers as the unit of analysis [Denscombe, 2001]. Here phenomena are measured and transformed into numbers which are then reflected statistically. It is a powerful proof, but depends entirely on numerical data input.

4.3.2 Qualitative research

Qualitative research aims to get an in-depth view of a phenomenon using detailed information gathered over as wide an area as possible and in as many forms as possible. It transforms information from interviews, observations and reports into data reflected in written words and relies on a detailed description of observed events or people. This is known as “thick description”²⁴ which is necessary to portray the complexity of a situation as well as give enough information to the reader to form a knowledgeable opinion based on sufficient information from the researcher.

Qualitative research assumes that the researcher is involved in an interactive process with the researched, that research is done in a natural setting, that the context is seen holistically and that there is not one specific method to acquire information. For the purpose of this study, although the bulk of the information was gathered using a questionnaire, the process of gathering and interpreting the information was qualitative.

²⁴ A term first used by philosopher Gilbert Ryle that “gives an account of the phenomenon (a) that is coherent and that (b) gives more than facts and empirical content, but that also (c) interprets the information in the light of other empirical information in the same study, as well as from the basis of a theoretical framework that locates the study” Henning, 2004]

4.4 SURVEY RESEARCH

Hutton [as cited in Blaxter et al, 2000] describes a survey as:

..... the method of collecting information by asking a set of preformulated questions in a predetermined sequence in a structured questionnaire to a sample of individuals drawn so as to be representative of a defined population [Blaxter et al, 2000:70]

Questionnaires and interviews are the most commonly used instruments to conduct survey research. Surveys have to be unbiased, and can be descriptive, analytical or prospective [Blaxter et al, 2000].

A pilot programme is done to give researchers background knowledge to enable them to orientate themselves about the subject they intend researching. It forms an integral part of the research and if done properly, can increase the precision of the study.

4.4.1 Pilot

Piloting is trying out your planned research techniques and methods before you launch your research to see if they succeed and, if not, to amend them [Blaxter et al, 2000].

As altogether four questionnaires were used in this study it will be useful to give a brief generic description of questionnaires as research tools.

4.4.2 Questionnaire

Questionnaires are mainly quantitative measuring instruments that purpose to discover things, and they consist of a number of written, direct questions that the respondent has to answer. Questions should be straightforward to receive the answers you need and should be written to assure that all respondents get the same questions.

Questions can be open or closed with the former allowing the respondent a free answer [responses to “how?”, “why?”, or “what?” questions or questions requiring a comment] and the latter requiring a monosyllabic [“yes” or “no”] or a one-word response to “where?”, “when?” or “who?” questions. Questions can also be set in a way that the respondent has a multiple choice of answers to choose from [Likert scale ratings].

According to De Vos [2002] there are five types of questionnaires, namely mailed questionnaires, telephonic questionnaires, personal questionnaires, questionnaires delivered by hand and group-administered questionnaires. In a personal questionnaire respondents are responsible for

answering the questions themselves, but the researcher is at hand to assist the respondents should they have any questions. This study used mainly the personal questionnaire.

Although there are no general golden rules to adhere to, questionnaires should avoid using ambiguous, vague or double-barrelled questions, topics that are sensitive or threatening or too long a list of questions. Pre-testing should be done, the order of the questions should make sense, there should be enough options for responses [for instance adding an "Other" option to the possible responses], the layout should be clear and neat, and leading or negatively phrased questions should be avoided [Denscombe, 2001; Mouton, 2001].

Questionnaires are generally used when the researcher needs large numbers of respondents and standardised responses. The social climate should lend itself to open and honest responses and the respondents should be able to read and understand the questions. The gathered information could be factual or reflect an opinion [Denscombe, 2001].

The advantages of using a questionnaire are that it is affordable, has a wide coverage, can be coded and eliminates the personal effect of the researcher on the respondent. Disadvantages are a possible poor or incomplete response, limited freedom in the answers and the fact that the researcher cannot verify the truth of the responses [Denscombe, 2001].

This study intended to use three main methods of data collection, quantitative, qualitative and a literature review and to use triangulation to get to a conclusion. In the light of the abovementioned challenge qualitative data was not sufficiently collected. A short introduction to triangulation will however be given.

4.4.3 Triangulation

In the past, Triangulation was used mainly by sailors to determine their exact position. As a methodology in research it could be described as the application of a combination of different research methodologies to get closer to a reliable result of the research. Different types of triangulation exist with the most common one being triangulation of measures [De Vos, 2002]. Other types are triangulation used by observers, triangulation of theory, and triangulation of method. In the latter, qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data are mixed [De Vos (ed.), 2002:342] and it was this type of triangulation that was selected for this research.

Triangulation gives researchers more confidence by lending support to the analysis as it may lead to a synthesis of theories and allow data to be substantiated or questioned. It also helps to

uncover any deviant dimension of a phenomenon, enhancing the validity of the data because it is more comprehensive – it produces more data [Denscombe, 2001].

This research method was intended for this thesis because it lends itself to getting insights from more than one perspective about the topic of language-learning in the tourism industry. As, on the one hand, the tourism industry is complex and, on the other, language-learning does not follow hard and fast rules and is not causal, it was seen as advantageous to use triangulation in order to get a more “rounded and complete” [Denscombe, 2001] understanding of the language-learning needs of practitioners in the tourism industry in Taiwan. This however was not possible in the light of the abovementioned language barrier.

4.5 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection for this study was planned to have four phases: a literature study, interviews, personal questionnaires used in a survey and a pilot project. For reasons mentioned above, only one interview was conducted. Data were collected in only three ways: a literature study, personal questionnaires used in a survey and a pilot project. The latter two will be discussed below.

4.5.1 Questionnaire

This study used mainly the personal questionnaire as described above. It was developed around questions that arose from the researcher’s practical experience of community tourism development in South Africa, facilitating English in Taiwan and from the literature study. It was taken to the target group and answered in the presence of the researcher [or in one case, the representative of the researcher]. The questionnaire was translated into Chinese and a Chinese-speaking assistant accompanied the researcher to the majority of the destinations.

No time limit was given to the respondents to complete the questionnaire, and they were invited to ask for assistance should they not understand the questions. There was thus a personal involvement from the side of the researcher albeit via a Chinese-speaking assistant.

The questionnaire contained both open and closed questions. A copy of the questionnaire is attached in Appendix A.

4.5.1.1 Pilot

An opportunity to facilitate a language-learning programme for the tourism industry presented itself at the International Trade Institute, in Hsinchu, Taiwan. A group of 11 adult learners attended

the programme that provided 40 contact hours. Additional time was negotiated participants to create an opportunity to plan and conduct tours as part of their assessment. This was deemed necessary as it provided an opportunity for implementation, self- evaluation and teamwork.

A pre-programme introduction session with the participants was followed by pre-, mid- and post-pilot programme questionnaires consisting of both closed and open questions. These were used to find out about the expectations of the participants, design the content of the programme accordingly and ultimately to determine the effect of the intervention on the English language proficiency of the participants.

The pre-programme questionnaire was completed on the first day of the term [see Appendix G] to determine the participants' learning needs and preferences as well as their level of knowledge of the tourism industry and Taiwan. Then the participants completed a mid-programme questionnaire to get feedback on their experience of the process up to that stage and to make needed amendments to the programme if and where needed. Appendix H reflects the result of this survey. Lastly, a post-programme survey was done which is included in Appendix I. It contains the questionnaire and its results.

4.5.1.2 Survey

The research was done at the hand of a face-to-face questionnaire that was taken to a sample of tourism workers in the selected target group [tourism frontline workers outside Taipei] in Taiwan. The researcher accompanied all the excursions except one [Penghu], and was mostly accompanied by a Chinese speaker. In the Chinese culture a sanctioned document carries weight, therefore, to endorse the questionnaire, a letter in Chinese from a reputable Taiwanese research organisation [the Taiwan Cetacean Society who work alongside the Tourism Department] accompanied the questionnaire as well as a letter in English from the University of Stellenbosch.

To enhance the trustworthiness of the study, the questionnaire was divided into sections and translated into Chinese. The sections comprised a biographic section, a section on the type of business the respondent is involved in and the relevance of language in their specific business. Because of the lack of language competency on both sides [researcher and respondent], there could be no pre-planning in the selection of respondents. Routes and destinations were planned, but the survey was done making decisions of who would be possible respondents at the destination. The obvious role players, like workers at guest houses and eateries, were selected. This helped to ensure that a representative sample was used, as the questionnaire was then

completed in face-to-face encounters with people in the target areas. The target areas were selected using their popularity as tourist destinations for foreigners as a criterion.

4.5.2 Target group

The target group of this study was the frontline worker in the tourism industry [outside Taipei] in Taiwan. A group representing these workers was thus selected as the sample. Added to this was the group from ITI that attended the English for Tourism programme as part of their eight term post-graduate study. Both these groups are discussed in more detail below.

4.5.2.1 Pilot

The specific group of adult learners [from now on called “participants”] for the pilot programme had the following background: Twenty-four adult learners at the International Trade Institute [ITI] who were in term six of an eight-term post graduate programme, had a choice between two elective subjects. Eleven of them chose “English for Tourism” [EfT]. Learners at this institute are immersed in English for two years and are generally at the Intermediate level of English proficiency. Although they come from varying academic backgrounds, they all have completed a tertiary education. The age variant is minimal and does not have a big influence on their level of experience. What is significant however is that they bring with them a large volume of travel experience. A complete summary of their profile is included in Appendix E.

The tourism industry was “terra incognita” to the participants. Adult education should always be a “collaborative, transactional encounter in which objectives, methods, and evaluation should be negotiated by all concerned” [Brookfield, 1989:126]. The participants were involved from the beginning by being asked to make known their needs and wants and incorporating these in the learning programme as far as possible. The participants also needed to know that they would be held co-responsible for the learning process. To inform them about their role, the proposed content and the demands the programme would make on their private time, a meeting was held a month before the programme started. During the programme, the participants were also repeatedly requested to reflect on the learning process and invited to give input.

Compared to other programmes at the ITI this programme, because of the amount of time needed to cover and understand the learning material required to cover basic concepts of the tourism industry, required a large amount of notional hours outside the contact sessions. A verbal agreement was reached whereby the participants declared that they understood their increased commitment to co-responsibility in the quest for learning and saw this programme as a part of their growth in becoming lifelong learners.

This was then followed up by the mentioned three questionnaires.

4.5.2.2 Survey

Tourism role-players in eight Taiwanese cities outside Taipei as well as on Penghu Island and Green Island were used as the target population. A well-known tour operator, who focuses on tours for young people, was classified as “other”, because although he operates from Taipei, he worked all over the rest of Taiwan. Employees at a variety of businesses were asked to complete questionnaires.

The ages of respondents varied between 20 and 65 years old. This is an important factor as there is a definite divide between the age groups in Taiwan. People of the “younger generation” [35 and younger] would have mostly learned English for at least five years at school. The Taiwan economic miracle happened before, or partly during, their lifetime and they are the offspring of the people who made Taiwan an economic world entity. Their parents often have gone or go to great lengths to have their children educated and English proficiency ranks very high on the list of skills they need.

4.5.3 Sampling

As getting information from all possible people that have the attributes a researcher is interested in studying is practically impossible; using a sample of the target group is a feasible way of gaining the specific information. Sampling means getting information from any portion of a population or universe as representative of that population or universe, keeping in mind that the sample is only *seemingly* representing the whole. The term “universe” here means all people who have the attributes the researcher is interested in [for example, all frontline workers in the tourism industry in the non-English speaking world] and “population” limits the number of people to an area [for example, the frontline worker in the tourism industry outside Taipei]. When making use of a sample, researchers make a selection of people [or things, or events] that they deem as representing a larger group of people that has the attributes they want to gain knowledge about [De Vos, 2002].

The sample size impacts the statistical test – it can either become too sensitive or be insensitive. The general opinion given in literature according to De Vos [2002], is that the larger the population, the smaller percentage of that population the sample needs to be.

There are two kinds of sampling, namely probability [based on randomisation²⁵] and non-probability sampling. As this study used non-probability sampling, more specifically, “purposive sampling” a explanation of the latter will be given.

Purposive sampling relies on the discretion of the researcher in that the sample contains elements that are most “characteristic, representative or typical of the attributes of the population” [Singleton, et al. 1988:153 as cited in De Vos, 2002].

4.5.3.1 Pilot

The pilot programme was run with the mentioned group of learners at ITI and included all the participants of the group that was to be used to collect data. They were the first ever group to do this programme and there was thus no true sampling, because they did not represent the attributes of a specific tourism population.

4.5.3.2 Survey

The questionnaire was taken to eight Taiwanese cities outside Taipei as well as to Penghu and Green Island and to a tour operator who works all over Taiwan and more than 140 frontline workers were approached. Responses were noted from 122 respondents. The remaining 18 refused to complete the questionnaire for different reasons, assumed to be, for instance, fear that they would be reported as avoiding tax, fear of English, lack of knowledge of the subject matter. However, as the exact determinant of what caused the refusals falls outside the scope of this study, mere speculations were made. In Sanyi, where most refusals occurred, one respondent said that they were inundated with student questionnaires and that it kept them from doing their work. This was the destination where a Chinese speaking American accompanied the researcher and where a hostile attitude towards the research team was experienced. The mentioned statement could have been an attempt to save face and therefore is not necessarily true.

Employees at a variety of businesses were asked to complete questionnaires. These included catering services, accommodation establishments, tourism bureaux, businesses that provide tourist activities [for instance, diving, whale watching], museums, transport [excluding taxis, airlines and public transport, but including automobile and motorcycle rental firms], educational institutions linked with tourism [for instance, marine interpretative centres], gift and curio shops, government organisations [for instance, the East Coast Scenic Route - a larger destination area], community products, aboriginal villages, a theme park, crafters, local specialities, tourist guiding businesses and others. The theme park was selected fully realising that theme parks normally are created for international entertainment as opposed to being an authentic representation of local

²⁵ “...that method of drawing a sample of a population so that all possible samples of fixed size n have the same probability of being selected” [De Vos, 2002:202]

culture. However, this specific theme park has dedicated a large portion to aboriginal culture and made it accessible to non-Chinese speaking foreigners in the form of multi-language signage and was thus meeting the criteria of this study.

As mentioned above, it was important to ascertain the age of respondents, as their need for English programmes would be influenced by their age. The ages of respondents varied between 20 and 65 years.

Worldwide, there is a tendency that females make up most of the frontline workforce in the tourism industry. This was also the case when visiting the selected destinations for this study. However, it was attempted to collect data from a more balanced group and this was easier than was expected.

It was imperative to get as many facts as possible about the businesses the respondents were involved in. It was assumed that in the more traditional businesses in the rural areas that cater mainly for the domestic market, workers would be less competent in English. Questions were thus posed about the types of businesses the respondents were involved in, the average income of the businesses, the length of time the business existed, how long the respondent has been involved in the business and the reason/s for starting the business. It was hoped to see a relationship between recognising the need for English competency and meeting the need by learning English. The Taiwanese do not deem the tourism industry one of the prestigious industries to get involved in and those that are intellectually gifted would not consider the tourism industry as a career option. The level of English competency as well as the desire to become and stay lifelong learners would be influenced by this phenomenon. Added to this, is the fact that there is a limited knowledge of career possibilities in the tourism industry - travel agents are often seen as the only career option in the tourism industry.

The Taiwanese government aims to get ten million visitors by the year 2010. In informal discussions with tour operators, it became clear that there is controversy about whether the aim is only the China market or whether the government also have the international market in mind. If the former is the case, no English competency in frontline workers is needed. However, Taiwan at the time placed many restrictions on allocating visas to visitors from China because of the political tension between the two countries²⁶. It is therefore doubtful that they will reach their target by 2010 by only focusing on the China market. A question was posed to find out if non-Chinese speaking international visitors are part of the reason the respondents would like to learn to speak English and would therefore be motivated to do so. According to visitor bureau statistics that

²⁶ In a recent landmark meeting between the Chinese and Taiwanese leaders boosting tourism ties was discussed [Cape Times, 14 April, 2008: 2]

reflect foreign arrivals in Taiwan, English, Japanese, Chinese, French, German, and Spanish are most frequently spoken by visitors to Taiwan and respondents were asked to indicate which of these their specific visitors mostly used and what the percentage of English was.

The following section contained two questions that would reflect the relationship between the tourism industry and English. By focusing on the English competency in their own business first, and then asking them to reflect on the international need for this language, it was attempted to bridge the two worlds of Taiwan and 'the-rest-of-the-world'.

The first question in the business section was: "What is the English competency in your business?" followed by a question targeting their perceived need for English competency in the tourism industry in general. It also needed to be determined if they understood the need in their own businesses. Their staff's improved competency, whether that would improve their business and what action they would take would indicate the willingness of the establishment to implement an English learning programme to the benefit of their business.

The design of language-learning programmes for the Taiwanese tourism industry will be based on the responses to the questions in the survey. The personal need or desire of the tourism worker to improve their English, which English language-learning skills they wanted to improve [reading, writing, listening or speaking], how they would you like to improve these and how much time they can spend on language training per week, will assist in deciding what kind of programme needs to be designed for and implemented in Taiwan. Although this would not necessarily have universal relevance, it is relevant for Taiwan and could be an indicative pattern for other high context cultures.

Because of the cost employees have to incur when launching on a language-learning programme, it was imperative to find out how the respondents viewed the financial side. The last section would indicate their willingness to pay for English language-learning programmes.

4.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is used to order and structure collected data by analysing them. Questionnaires have to be analysed to reduce and interpret the content so that conclusions can be drawn and verified [Daniels, 2003; De Vos, 2002] and a theory generated from the data.

The strength of an inquiry lies in collecting data using a variety of methods when collecting data [triangulation], as well as using a variety of methods in analysing data [Henning, 2004].

4.6.1 Basic level analysis

Data is firstly summarised and put into a text from which further work can be done. This data can be coded to fit into pre-determined categories, which can be adapted if needed as more data become available. This is often used when analysing interviews [Henning, 2004].

4.6.2 Interpretation of content

As data reveals patterns and tendencies, the analysis moves onto a higher level. The data is repackaged by looking for data that is related and then forming new categories. At this level it is important to identify gaps and emphasis in the data [Henning, 2004].

Theories are built from data and this happens on the next level. On this level the coded data is reduced for easier analysis of trends and cross control of the preliminary findings is done. Main themes are also analysed and eventually brought to a synthesis. Data is then used to substantiate a theoretical framework [Henning, 2004].

This thesis used mainly open coding as the data was broken down, examined closely and compared to find differences and similarities.

4.6.3 Descriptive statistics

The results of the questionnaires used in the pilot programme with the eleven students at ITI are discussed in paragraph form.

The results of the survey conducted with the tourism frontline workers are represented both as graphs and in summary. Each question is dealt with individually and each town's data indicated.

4.6.4 Triangulation

Three main methods of data collection, namely quantitative, qualitative and a literature review delivered data that are compared. Triangulation is used in order to get to a conclusion and attempt to get closer to a reliable result of the research and form a theory, hoping that it will lead to a synthesis of theories and allow data to be substantiated or questioned.

In this study triangulation was not used as only findings from the literature review [for instance the fact that language-learning is not an overnight process, but takes time to acquire] were compared with the responses from the frontline workers in the tourism industry in Taiwan and the outcome of the pilot programme where EFT [English for Tourism] was implemented in a tourism learning programme.

In this way, assumptions were confirmed and led to the forming of a theory about the length of time and type of input needed to get best results from an English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in Taiwan. This is deliberated upon in Chapter 6.

4.7 CONCLUSION

A questionnaire proved to have been the right choice for the survey of frontline workers in the tourism industry of Taiwan. However, there were more communication limitations than were expected because of the language barrier. Although the questionnaire in this case was translated into Chinese, a Chinese-speaking assistant who accompanied the researcher to all except two of the destinations had to clarify many queries from the respondents. Added to this was the fact that knowledge of the tourism industry was very limited and a lot of explaining was necessary. This not only slowed down the process considerably, resulting in fewer respondents being reached, but also proved to be more expensive than expected.

The research thus did not show to full advantage the benefits of using a questionnaire, namely affordability, wide coverage, codeability and eliminating the personal effect of the researcher on the respondent. However, the disadvantages of poor or incomplete response was avoided and the truth of the responses could in most cases be verified.

In the largest part of the survey the positivist approach was adopted. The justification for this is that initially statistics of perceived needs as well as envisioned solutions of role-players had to be gathered. However, as the Positivist approach does not take into consideration how people make meaning of their lives and that culture influences interpretation [Henning, 2004] this could not be the only paradigm.

It also needs to be determined how and when role players would want to acquire competency. This is regarded as an important guideline to determine the kind of programme that will have to be designed. The rationale for using the quantitative paradigm therefore, was to get clarity by asking forthright, simple questions.

This study used non-probability sampling, more specifically, “purposive sampling” which relies on the discretion of the researcher to choose a sample that contains elements most typical or representative of the population [Singleton et al. 1988 as cited in De Vos, 2002]. Taiwan, as an example of a tourism workforce that is not proficient in English, represents the non-English speaking tourism world and is a good example to study. There are typical elements in Taiwan’s

rural area of frontline workers having no confidence to deal with foreigners because of the language barrier.

Although Taiwan shares the lack of English competency with some Western countries, it remains part of Asia with the corresponding differences in culture.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, research findings are presented, analysed and interpreted. The data in a pilot English language-learning programme for the tourism industry as well as the results of a questionnaire survey that was done between August 2005 and March 2006 are used. The responses of pre-, mid- and post-programme questionnaires of the mentioned pilot programme are summarised and the results of the survey presented as graphs and tables as well as in summary. In the latter, each question is dealt with individually.

The collected data or “raw empirical” [Henning, 2004] material will be summarised to make meaning of the phenomenon.

The principle aim of this thesis was to design a suitable, needs-based English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in Taiwan. Tourism workers in Taipei, the capital city of Taiwan, seem to deal effectively with non-Chinese speaking visitors. However, many of Taiwan’s unique cultural attractions, that can be labelled Unique Selling Points [USP], are in the rural areas. As this study wanted to determine what the language-learning challenges facing host communities that offer mainly cultural tourism products are, it was necessary to collect quantitative data from areas outside Taipei in order to get information that will assist in determining the needs of these role-players.

Data on how tourism role-players themselves see the need for English as a communication medium in their business was necessary. It also needed to be determined, if they would need to do so, how they would want to acquire English competency. This is deemed an important guideline in determining the kind of programme that has to be designed for workers at [especially] the cultural tourism destinations of a country. The rationale for using the quantitative paradigm was to get clarity by asking straightforward questions.

5.2 RESULTS FROM THE PROGRAMME [PILOT STUDY] ENGLISH FOR TOURISM

As explained in Chapter four, a group of 11 students at ITI [from now on called “participants”] selected English for Tourism [EFT] as an elective programme. These participants were in term six

of an eight-term programme in International Trade and Business English at the semi-government International Trade Institute [ITI] in Hsinchu, Taiwan.

Firstly, a pre-programme interview session was held to get more background knowledge about the participants. This was followed, secondly, by a questionnaire to get a more in-depth picture of the methodology that would best suit these learners' needs. Thirdly, a mid-term questionnaire was completed by the participants and, lastly, a post-programme assessment of the learning that had taken place ended the programme. These are discussed in more detail below.

5.2.1 Pre-programme interviews

As the Asian culture in general places a high premium on relationships, and a programme's success often depends on how learners experience the facilitator, the main purpose of the interviews was to build relationships. However, it was also to serve as a way to collect data to form a demographic profile of the participants, their interests, and their reason for joining the programme so that this could be a directive for the best use of the limited time that was available for the programme.

The interviewer met the participants in individual meetings. All of them came to ITI as post-graduates and their university majors included International Trade [three], English [two], History, Business administration, Financial management, Speech communication, Sociology and Radio and Television. Eight of them had had jobs before coming on the two-year programme at ITI.

Their fields of interest covered a wide area and included travel [five], tourism [two], outdoor activities or sport [seven], and languages [one]. It was clear that there was no real need for them to learn English for the sake of the language, but much rather to learn it for occupational reasons.

Their travel experience was wide. Amongst them they had visited eight Western and one Eastern European country, three Middle Eastern countries, the USA and Canada, 10 South Eastern countries, islands on the Pacific rim and in the Mediterranean, and three countries in the southern hemisphere. They had thus experienced what it is to be a tourist. Yet, travel was not the reason why they chose to attend the EFT programme as an elective. According to the responses, their reasons were more personal and patriotic.

Most interviewees chose to attend the programme because they had no confidence to speak English to foreigners. Two had previous tourism background / interest and two had relatives in the industry. Other reasons included the possibility of the industry earning foreign revenue for Taiwan, the fact that Taiwan with its many natural assets has potential as a destination, marketing Taiwan is a challenge and wanting to travel in Taiwan.

From the comments on the post- programme questionnaire, it seemed that having had this interview was a first step in making the learners receptive to allowing change in their lives and perceptions. If they had not trusted the facilitator, they would not have been able to freely share their opinion, as it is not an Asian trait to honestly comment on their experience or give their opinion.

5.2.2 Pre-programme questionnaire about tourism

The 11 participants in the EfT programme were asked to complete a pre-programme questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of four sections [Personal, Tourism, Taiwan and "Facts"]. The purpose of the questionnaire was to do a survey of the participants' learning preferences and level of knowledge of the industry and of Taiwan.

Although the respondents were nearing the end of a two-year English immersion programme, where they heard, spoke, read and wrote business-related English for two years, the responses often indicated a lack of understanding of the questions. No assistance in either use of the language or knowledge of the tourism industry was given during the completion of the questionnaire.

5.2.2.1. Personal

The first question [how they prefer to learn] was one of a few questions that had a selection of answers to choose from. They could select as many preferences as they wanted to. The complete questionnaire is attached as Appendix F. The majority of learners preferred to learn by doing research. Class discussions and listening to a lecture / instruction was the preference of five and only one listed "Role Play" in the category "Other".

The second question was an open question: "What are your personal goals for the programme?" The majority said that they wanted to know how to promote Taiwan to foreigners in better English. The following were some of the other responses: learn some tourism language [one], to know what foreigners want to know [one] and to clearly and precisely describe a destination [two].

The question "What are your favourite instruction methods?" had three responses to each of the following: "lecture from teacher" and "discussions". Two said "complete given tasks" and two said "research".

Most [five] respondents preferred to work individually, followed by small groups [four]. Nobody selected "larger groups".

Three respondents saw the “teacher’s” role as giving direction or guidance and two each thought it should be to advise, someone to share knowledge and fun with or someone who should help raise students’ interest. The following were also mentioned: instructor, coach, evaluator, leader, and provider.

To the question: “What do you think the learner’s role is?” the responses were as follows: four thought it should be active, four said it should be to “participate and learn”, two saw it as “understanding more about our country and trying to introduce Taiwan to foreigners and tourists”. Some respondents mentioned: “meet my personal goals”, be “positive”, “unique”, “hard-working”, “complete assignments”, “give feedback”, “learn things automatically”, “ find out solutions by oneself” and “researcher” – indicating that the question was not completely understood.

Eight respondents indicated that they would like to be assessed, but three responded to this question with “No”. To the question “How would you like to be assessed?” four chose “individual portfolio”, two selected “participation - students are responsible for their own learning” and two chose “assignments”. Other options were “research performance”, “as a tour guide”, “individual/private”, “group portfolio” and “group assessment”.

The next question, “How do you feel about your country?” had to serve as a bridging question to the section that would follow. There were eleven different responses [responses unedited]. Most of the participants knew that it is a “booming”, “highly competitive industry” that can substantially add to the GDP of a country but is “influenced by economic cycle”. There were also indications that they see the industry as having a great impact on the world and that it can serve as an educational tool. It was encouraging that the data also indicate that culture can be seen as a draw card of a destination in responses like:

- To give visitors a chance to experience the different cultures, foods and life styles of a place.
- People get some time from their usual schedules, travel to places different from their live, have fun, experience exotic foods and drinks, observe different cultures, scenery....

The respondents saw tourist-related resources that attract people from all over the world as accommodation, restaurants, cafeteria, transport [airways, bus, car], museum, park, amusement parks, forests, photo shops, “visiting spots”, travel agencies indicating that the respondents were aware of the complexity of the industry. The following comment about the facilities indicates that there is a realisation that despite the diversity tourism depends on a uniform standard of service: “Each item should match together for foreigners to know the country and enjoy themselves”. This

was further strengthened by the comment that the diversity would entice visitors “to come visiting again and again.”

In summary, the participants’ desire to promote Taiwan to foreigners in better English was evident. They wanted to learn some “tourism language” to clearly and precisely describe their local products.

The responses indicated that their favourite input methods [from the facilitator] are still “teacher”-centred: lecturing and giving direction, but responses to a later question indicate that they also realise that adult learners have an active role to play in the learning process. However, responses to the latter question indicated that not everybody completely understood the question. No respondent selected to work in larger groups.

Participants indicated that they would like to be assessed mainly on individual portfolios, their participation and assignments.

The respondents viewed their country as having both positive and negative attributes. Their positive comments were mainly on the climate and landscape and the negative comments were about the lack of effective marketing of Taiwan as a tourist destination.

The next section was intended to assess their knowledge of the tourism industry before they have any input.

5.2.2.2. Tourism

This section served two purposes, namely to determine the knowledge of the participants about the industry and to assess their ability to express themselves about the industry in English.

Firstly, they were asked to list all they know about the tourism industry in general. The responses [unedited] can be summarised as follows:

Most respondents knew that tourism is a “booming”, “highly competitive” industry that can benefit a country’s economy, but is “influenced by economic cycle”. They realise that tourism “can have great impact on the world” and that with the right emphasis and when “each item ... match[es] together for foreigners ...” it can encourage visitors “to come visiting again and again”.

They saw the elements of tourism as being “accommodation, restaurants, cafeteria, transport [airways, bus, car], museum, park, amusement park, forests, photo shops, visiting spots, travel agency”.

Some responses were encouraging as they pointed out the cultural aspect of tourism in words like “to experience the different cultures, foods and life styles” and “experience exotic foods and drinks, observe different cultures”.

In the next session a statement was made, followed by a question: “Although academic background will be given during the programme, the focus will be on the practitioners in the tourism industry. Who do you think they are?” The responses indicated varied levels of understanding of both the language and the industry. There were only four responses that showed that they understood the question. The other responses showed that there was little or no understanding – responses like

- Enough knowledge to answer questions; digest the information and being able to output.
- The skills that can attract tourists’ attention; tourism English, presentation and promotion skills.
- Conversation used in touring.
- Try to promote Taiwan.
- No idea.

As the programme was not a programme for the improvement of General English, but focused on English for the tourism industry in Taiwan, the following question was posed to encourage critical thinking about the industry. “According to you, what is the greatest need in the tourism industry in Taiwan? Mention as many issues as you can”. Again, the responses in some cases indicated not only a lack of knowledge and understanding of the industry, but also an inability to express opinions adequately in English. The other responses listed specialist training; how to access tourist information in different languages; to have enough educated and trained tourism directors who can help foreigners to understand our cultures more easily; professional tour guides; clear signs; English edition instruction for foreigners; professional tour guide for foreigners; bilingual tour guides.

It is thus clear that the respondents had a little knowledge of the tourism industry and that they knew some areas that needed to improve in their local industry, but that their ability to understand and to express themselves in English was still very limited

The next section had to determine what the learners’ level of knowledge about tourism in Taiwan was.

5.2.2.3 Tourism in Taiwan

The responses to the question: “What is Taiwan’s main market for foreign tourist visits?” showed that the question was misunderstood. The “market” that was implied here was the market of prospective visitors to Taiwan. However, all the responses indicated that they saw “market” as the products at the destination. Three respondents mentioned the flagship attraction Taroko Gorge and Hualien, three the night-markets, two the National Palace Museum, two specific mountains, two the culture and - not surprisingly - two mentioned food. Sun-Moon Lake, the East and North of Taiwan, old buildings [temples], aboriginal cultures and big cities such as Taipei and Kaohsiung were also mentioned.

To the question “What do you think visitors should experience in Taiwan?” the responses indicated that the cultural attractions [for example religion, night or traditional markets, the National Palace Museum] were seen as most important [mentioned 13 times], nature was mentioned by nine respondents and outdoor activities by three.

Most respondents had no idea about either the size of the tourism industry in Taiwan, or the revenue it creates.

To the question “Which area/s [for instance, geographic/social] in Taiwan would you like to develop? And why?” two had no comment, five wanted to develop the scenery and four wanted to develop Eastern Taiwan. Other suggestions included developing specific cultures [Taiwanese, Hakka, aboriginal], Southern Taiwan, creating more jobs to stop urbanisation and addressing the lack of promotion. Nobody motivated their suggestion/s.

The lack of promotion was again mentioned by two of the respondents to the next question, “What do you think is the biggest need in the tourism industry in Taiwan?” Two respondents saw a well-organised tourism structure and bilingual tour guides as the biggest needs. English instruction, service quality, environment protection and uniformity of translation²⁷ were some of the other needs that were listed.

Almost a third of the respondents saw the beautiful scenery as the main draw card for visitors to Taiwan. Different aspects of the culture [food, temples, and the unique Chinese culture] were also mentioned. The fact that Taiwan is a tiny island with “huge economic power”, that it has natural beauty and is well located, were also mentioned.

It is clear that Taiwan was seen as an island with an, as yet, unrealised tourism potential.

²⁷ Because of the two transliteration systems that are used in Taiwan a lot of confusion is created when names of places and towns are spelled in different ways in English. Some town names are spelled in up to three different ways.

The aim of the programme was to use learners' existing knowledge about Taiwan to develop their language skills. If many more workers could be competent in English, it would open up the lesser-known yet abundantly present cultural rarities in the country. To reach this goal an EOP language programme for the tourism industry would be needed, not only in Taiwan, but also in local tourism industries across the world where English is not the first language for the workers. The questionnaire made it clear that there was to be a lot of knowledge input before that factual knowledge could be used as a base for learning English. A combination of factual and language input was thus seen as a solution. Using language with contextual meaning and in explicitly purposive activities would help adult learners not to focus on knowing how to use English, but on being able to use it when they needed to. The Lexical Approach, as Lewis sees it, seems to be the method to use in an EOP programme [Lewis, 2001].

As tourism workers do not only have to know how to say something, but also what needs to be said, the following section was included to determine the learners' level of factual knowledge about Taiwan.

5.2.2.4 General Facts about Taiwan

Three responses had "no comment" and the rest only guessed with reasonable accuracy the size of Taiwan. Nobody knew how many counties the island is divided into and only four could give an indication of where Taiwan is situated. It seems that they did not have the language ability to accurately and simply describe the location of Taiwan.

Decidedly more respondents knew what the oldest city was and what kind of government Taiwan had. In both cases, seven respondents had the correct answer. However, there were three "no response"-s to the first and two "no response"-s to the second question.

The higher accuracy with which the next two questions were answered can be ascribed to the fact that the respondents were double major students with one of the majors being International Trade. Six respondents knew the size of the population in Taiwan and there was a 100% correct response to who the main trade partners of Taiwan were.

The respondents were asked to each mention five USP's [Unique Selling Proposition] of Taiwan. A variety of natural attractions were mentioned 17 times and cultural attractions in different forms, 25 times. These responses as well as those to two previous questions confirmed the assumption that this thesis holds that the cultural aspect of a destination is a major draw card. It needs to be pointed out that these learners were seasoned travellers themselves and knew what attracted them, and therefore other tourists, to a destination.

Responses to the following section were varied. This information was intended to assist in structuring the language programme content more specifically. The respondents were asked to mention three topics about the history of Taiwan that they think would be interesting to tourists. The reasoning was that with the limited time for the programme the language content should focus on attractions the respondents saw as attractive to visit and would therefore be visited by foreigners. If the respondents had appropriate language to give visitors information about these, the programme would meet their needs.

The different reasons for the colonisation of Taiwan were mentioned most [nine times]. Other topics that were mentioned included: How the Portuguese discovered Taiwan, historical architecture [for instance, temples], aboriginal history [three respondents], why we are different from China, the economic miracle, another face of Taiwan, Dragon Taiwan and Chinese herbs. The last question was intended to assist the facilitator in handling the sensitive political situation between Taiwan and China. It was phrased "What would you tell tourists about Taiwan's relationship with China?" The responses were as follows:

- I would tell the truth [modified one]
- Complex situation
- Unstable. Politically separate but economically dependant.
- Although Taiwan is not an independent country right now, it isn't under control of China.
- Nerves balance.
- Tight business relationship, different political roles.
- The same roots.
- We are frienemy [friend, enemy]
- Political relation complicated as we rely on them economically
- Becoming closer and closer – it's not as dangerous as people think.
- Democracy vs. socialism [comparison]; politics; economics.

In the above summary, it is clear that the responses gave valuable information that could be used to plan an effective learning programme as it gave clarity about what kind of tourism input was needed as well as where some of the language challenges were.

As this was the first time that a programme like this was attempted, careful monitoring of its effectiveness and relevance to the needs of the students was necessary. Therefore, a mid-programme assessment in the form of a questionnaire was done.

5.2.3 Mid-programme assessment

A mid-programme assessment was completed by the 11 respondents in the eighth week of the 12-week programme and intended to measure whether the programme was in line with what the objectives were. At the time of the assessment [see Appendix G] six of the respondents had done their practical tours during which they had opportunities to guide English-speaking tourists. The respondents had twenty-five options to select from on the questionnaire and, in summary, the responses were the following:

- ~ all respondents were challenged to learn more about their culture and found that learning had taken place;
- ~ no respondents wanted less input or found the programme evoking anger;
- ~ ten respondents said the programme opened their eyes to what is unique in Taiwan;
- ~ ten respondents said they learned relevant English for the tourism industry;
- ~ eight respondents claimed the programme taught them to think;
- ~ eight respondents said the programme made sense; and
- ~ only six said that it helped them to gain confidence in speaking English to foreigners

Based on the responses the following changes were made for the remainder of the programme:

- more opportunities to speak informally in class on impromptu topics were created;
- a research assignment on tourism development, including conservation, was given;
- case studies about tourism development and discussions about these were introduced;
- the respondents attended a tourism trade show; and
- more exercises for listening were developed and recorded.

Post-programme questionnaire

This post- programme questionnaire [Appendix H] was part of the final assessment, which also included the practical tours. The questionnaire focused on two aspects: respondents reflecting on their own learning and on using the newly gained knowledge [both language and factual] and skills. They were guided with questions to reflect on their learning, expected to do a written assignment and to correct the language usage in existing brochures.

The written assignment was:

You have an uncle who lives in a rural aboriginal community not far from one of Taiwan's best USPs. He has spoken to you about his dream of prosperity for his community through tourism. It has become clear to you that his community doesn't know what the tourism industry is all about. You have to write a short letter to him telling him that you can see that there is potential in that community, but that you are aware of some of the pitfalls of the tourism industry.

What follows is taken from a list of opinions you and your classmates had about tourism in Taiwan. Not all of the statements are true or even relevant. Select those that you think would support your case and use them as arguments to either persuade or dissuade your uncle to pursue the tourism dream for his community.

The questionnaire was divided into four sections: Comments on the programme, assessment of their knowledge of the tourism industry, Taiwan and their English competency.

The first section [The Programme] comprised of five questions and the responses were the following:

- the respondents reached more than their initial goals;
- they had a deeper understanding of what the term sustainable [responsible] tourism means;
- all respondents stated that learning took place; and
- ten respondents stated that their thinking had changed. The one [who said her thinking did not change] commented: “My thinking didn’t change (I am a self-willed person), but I knew²⁸ different points of views.”

Some comments to the question “What did you learn other than facts?” were:

- Behind all of the facts, it is people that make every destination unique.
- I know myself better from this class.
- I am very glad to find out that there are many Taiwanese making an effort to conserve traditional things.
- Not only the local residents but also the travellers have to take responsibility of the environment.
- I am often eager to learn “western things” and forget the beauty of my country. This class reminds me to take a closer look at this island, my home. In the past, I usually held negative criticism about Taiwan, such as dirty environment, short-sighted people. After I had a chance to organise a tour, I realized that Taiwan is full of special natural/ cultural resources. It is a land I should be proud of.
- After meeting those hard-working Taiwanese, I decided to keep touch with them, translate brochures for them----something I can do to contribute to this land I live in.
- The shock was about tourism ethics. I had never thought it was inappropriate to sell/ buy antiques to/ from a foreigner until Joleen pointed it out. I really learned a lesson that it is everyone’s responsibility to conserve our cultural heritage.

²⁸ read as “got to know”

- Originally I think travel is as simple as carrying the backpack and prepare some money, then I can go anywhere I want to visit. Tourism really taught me to think it as an ecological way to view our environment and what and how we act will do the least harm to our surroundings.
- What I used to take it for granted is not as trivial as before. All the things in Taiwan are precious and unique. Tourism has taught me take serious attitude toward what we have here.
- Communicate with customers
- Adapt into situation
- The programme makes me understand and research for depth information about Taiwan culture, history, and facts.

The fact that the above statements do not say much about their language acquisition highlights two important issues. Firstly, the programme succeeded in nurturing a newfound pride in what is their own. This is encouraging, because learning a Western language, especially English, could entice adult learners to think that their own language and culture are inferior. It is therefore of paramount importance that attendees of this kind of programme will see that English is not better [just different] than their own language and that acquiring it should be seen as a tool to use in their careers and not as replacing or superceding their own. This pride in their own culture could help them to have a healthy attitude towards learning a new language and prevent negative acculturation.

The tourism industry cannot have hosts who are not proud of and knowledgeable about their own culture and country, it would defeat the purpose of tourist guides and other frontline staff. The fact that the programme kindled a passion for their country and culture in most cases should therefore be seen as the first and very important step in having the right attitude towards the acquisition of EfT. The latter is a lifelong learning process.

Secondly, learning a language seldom is done for the sake of learning it. It is acquired in a specific context, in this case the tourism industry. The fact that frontline workers in the general survey that followed the pilot programme also saw the need for English competency and were eager to do something about it because they wanted to increase the success of their businesses proves that an English for tourism programme should have an EOP slant.

5.2.4.1 Analysis and interpretation of the data collected in the pilot programme

The adult learners on the pilot programme made significant progress in understanding the global tourism industry, but it is especially in discovering Taiwan as a multi-faceted tourist destination,

determining the suitability of attractions for the international tourism market and developing a critical mindset towards the Taiwanese situation, that progress was made. An ability and willingness to identify ways to influence a paradigm shift in the country regarding tourism was developed in ten of the learners.

Definite progress was made in higher-level learning, but the language success was limited. Although the respondents were of the opinion that they had learned “tourism language”, and the language they acquired was indeed acceptable, it was not yet of a high enough standard to interpret the intricacies of the Taiwanese culture in English to a tourist. Cultural experiences have to be interpreted and this requires subject specific lexis. It was in this area that there was a lack of English competency. The fact that, at the end of the given 48 hours contact time, the learners on this programme were not yet capable to meet the challenge of engaging freely in small talk, or give information that they had not prepared beforehand to guests while guiding the tours, proves that tourism needs more than just the average EOP programme. The industry has exceptionally demanding communication situations.

However, the fact that the respondents were able to express themselves about the deeper level [other than facts] of learning they experienced on the programme as well as record the changes that occurred in themselves in a language that was clear [albeit not perfect] proves that language was acquired almost inconspicuously. This is in line with Krashen’s theory that the intake of language should be unconscious and that learners will have that language available for spontaneous use [Lewis 2001].

This specific group took responsibility for the learning in an exemplary way, set goals and then acted to achieve these [Barr and Tagg, 1995], but at times it seemed that the factual research they had to do was overwhelming and the language demands too high to be met in the short time allocated for the programme. This was the main deterrent to their effective acquisition of EfT.

It was clear from the results of the pre-programme questionnaire [Appendix F] that the respondents were more at home with the Instruction paradigm, so they needed to be led into a learning paradigm that would leave them with a desire to become lifelong learners instead of being spoon-fed to think in a specific, prescribed way. The tourism industry as such, and language learning for the industry specifically, needs an attitude of lifelong learning and this mostly depends on the adult learners themselves.

A factor that is often overlooked in language-learning programmes is the cultural sensitivities involved in foreign language facilitation. This was evident in three ways during this pilot

programme. Firstly, although care was taken to be sensitive to differences in cultural perceptions of selfhood when conducting the assessment, it was clear that criticising the tours in any way would be difficult for the respondents to handle. Secondly, although the respondents identified and reported some flagrant violations of sustainable tourism practice in the products that were visited, addressing these was stilted as the ingrained deep respect for elders hampered the respondents from addressing them with the right people who were mostly older than them.

Thirdly, using the experiential learning method by expecting the respondents to design and conduct a tour for foreigners was a shock to the respondents, which was only eased when they were granted their request to do this task in groups. This was also experienced in the South African context where students have been tasked with the same assignment. The fear in the Taiwanese respondents could possibly be ascribed to the fact that Taiwanese mostly make use of packaged tours when traveling and that innovative thinking has not been part of the way they think about travel. Moreover, although not many listed group work as a preferred learning method in the pre-programme questionnaire, prior experience has shown that in this high context culture, belonging to and working within a group rates very high and individual work is not preferred.

A by-product of the programme was encountering a number of products that needed input in any or all of three ways: spoken English language proficiency, English translations of the brochures [if there were brochures at all] as well as knowledge of sustainable tourism practice. This displayed need proved to the respondents that there was a vast need for English in the Taiwanese tourism industry. As a result of this, three of them have offered their services as volunteer translators and community tourism developers at tourism products that were “discovered” during the preparations for the tours, proving that an enthusiasm was kindled in the respondents which will benefit not only the individuals, but also communities and the Taiwanese tourism industry in general.

In conclusion, the degree to which the respondents took up responsibility for a lifelong learning process that was stimulated by the EfT programme as well as the level of proficiency, are illustrated in this e-mail extract from a respondent to a guest on behalf of her group after the first tour [quoted verbatim]:

We have received some feedback from you. Indeed, it is you that make this tour a success. We three have learned a lot from this experience; moreover, we believe the learning will last endlessly. If you have additional questions, opinions, or comments on this tour, please tell us. We would be delighted to discuss the matter with you or find out the relevant information for you.[Liao, 1997]

Practitioners in the tourism industry will not necessarily have long periods to allocate to language-learning, and the time frame of this pilot was therefore not unrealistic. Further recommendations

about designing suitable English language-learning programmes will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Some answers to the questions that were asked at the beginning of this study were hoped for by conducting a survey using the following questionnaire. The findings of the survey are discussed below.

5.3 RESULTS FROM A QUESTIONNAIRE SURVEY COMPLETED WITHIN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY IN TAIWAN

It is very difficult to estimate the total number of tourism workers in any local industry as the workforce is varied and not necessarily registered. Taiwan is no exception. It was thus impossible to ascertain how many tourism workers there are in Taiwan. A sample was selected intuitively at the destinations.

To make it easier for the respondents, the questionnaire was divided into sections and translated into Chinese. The sections of the questionnaire comprised a biographic section, a section on the business they were involved in and the relevance of the English language in their business.

5.3.1 Sample population

More than 140 frontline workers in the tourism industry, workers who deal with the visitors face to face on a daily base, were selected and approached as a sample in Taiwan and were presented with a questionnaire, which was personally taken to them. Taiwanese cities outside Taipei as well as from Penghu Island and Green Island and a tour operator who works in Taiwan were selected. The target areas were selected based on their popularity as tourist destinations for foreigners.

Responses were noted from 122 respondents who completed the questionnaire. This represents 85% of the sample population. The majority [54.9%] of the respondents were female.

The questionnaire was personally taken to the sample population to ensure that a representative sample was used. Employees at a variety of businesses were asked to complete the questionnaire. Most responses came from Nantou [20.5%], Hualien [18.9%] and Green Island [16.4%] all three very popular tourist destinations.

The age distribution of respondents varied between 20 and 65 years with the majority [34.4%] between 26-35 years. This is an important indication as there is a definite divide between the age groups in Taiwan as far as English competency is concerned. People of the “younger generation”

[35 and younger] mostly would have learned English for at least five years at school. The Taiwan economic miracle happened before or partly during their lifetime as they are the offspring of the people who initiated and established Taiwan's economic success. Their parents were the hard-working generation who led the transition from an agriculture-driven economy to the high technology economy of today. The previous generation - the parents of the 26-35 year olds - go to great lengths to have their children well-educated, which includes English proficiency.

The data indicated that Nantou county's respondents were older [in the 36-45 years bracket] than in the other areas and respondents in Taichung were predominantly younger. This could be ascribed to the fact that the tourism enterprises in Nantou had existed for longer and had been in the family longer, compared to the relatively "young" industry in Taichung. It could also indicate the trend that younger people move to the larger cities, like Taichung, and leave the "older" people behind to run the business. Nantou is home to many of Taiwan's most interesting tourist attractions.

The results are reported in tables and graphs where appropriate and otherwise are summarised.

5.3.1.1 General statements about the survey

Generally, the researcher experienced goodwill at all the destinations. However, in one case [Sanyi – a very well known wood carving centre and a big tourist attraction favoured for many decades by foreigners] there was open unfriendliness towards the two Western females that presented the questionnaire. One possible explanation for this [given by one of the positive respondents] was that many people bring questionnaires to be completed and people in Sanyi do not want to spend time on it. That explanation might not be feasible, because in the high context Taiwanese culture people seem generally very kind and look for opportunities to relate. Another possible explanation that was given, is that respondents do not trust the questionnaire for fear that it might be tax related. Yet Sanyi respondents had a lower than average [22%] "no response" to the survey question dealing in particular with the business's income.

The most feasible explanation is that there were two Westerners and no Chinese in the team that went to Sanyi. The explanation is based on the fact that the same reluctance and refusal [although to a far lesser degree] to fill out the questionnaire was found on Green Island – the only other place where no Chinese speaker was part of the team that took the questionnaire to the tourism workers at the destination. Here it often happened that more than one person in the business was called to help fill out the questionnaire. It is therefore assumed that workers are either afraid of losing face by being exposed about their lack of English competency or that they

have a distrust of foreigners. Despite enquiries in this regard, there was no confirmation of either assumption.

5.3.1.2 Types of tourism businesses the respondents are involved in

The types of businesses the respondents were involved in varied [see table 1] and included catering services, accommodation establishments, tourism bureaux, businesses that provide tourist activities [for instance diving, whale watching], museums, transport [excluding taxis, airlines and public transport, but including automobile and motorcycle rental firms], educational institutions linked with tourism [for instance marine interpretative centres²⁹], gift and curio shops, government organisations [for instance the East Coast Scenic Route - a larger destination area], community products, aboriginal villages, a theme park, crafters, local specialities, tourist guiding businesses and others.

Table 4: Types of businesses the respondents are involved in

	catering	accommodation	activities	Tourism bureau	museum	transport	education	Gifts/curios	government	Community product	aboriginal	Theme park	crafter	Local speciality	guide	other	Number of respondents
Nantou	6	3	2	0	3	0	1	2	0	1	1	1	2	0	0	0	25
Hualien	4	4	0	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	6	1	2	23
Green Island	3	5	3	1	1	0	1	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	20
Beipu	4	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	8
Taichung	3	3	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	10
Yingee	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10
Sanyi	3	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	9
Sanchia	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Penghu	3	3	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	11
Kaoshiung	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4
Other	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total amount of respondents																	122

Although there were a high percentage [25.4%] of people who did not respond to the question, the data indicated that most [44.3%] businesses in the survey had an average annual income of less than 30 000NT [app. US\$ 940]. Almost 15 percent were earning between 30 000 – 50 000NT /annum [app. US\$ 940 - US\$ 1 566] and 8.2% earned above 100 000NT[app. US\$ 3133]. Most people who belonged to the lowest income group were from Green Island and Penghu. As the respondents on these two islands mainly worked in accommodation and catering establishments, it could indicate that these important facets of the local industry are least profitable. [See Fig 6]. Most of the businesses [36%] were established businesses that had been in existence for more than ten years. Twenty three per cent of the sample group had existed between four and six years.

²⁹ centres where information about marine life and coastal geography is displayed and given to visitors

The data indicate that Nantou had most of the more established businesses [see Fig 7]. This could be ascribed to the fact that Nantou county has many favourite holiday destinations.

The length of respondents' involvement in the business varied, with most [28.7%] of them having been involved in the current business for up to one year only. Green Island, a typical adventure

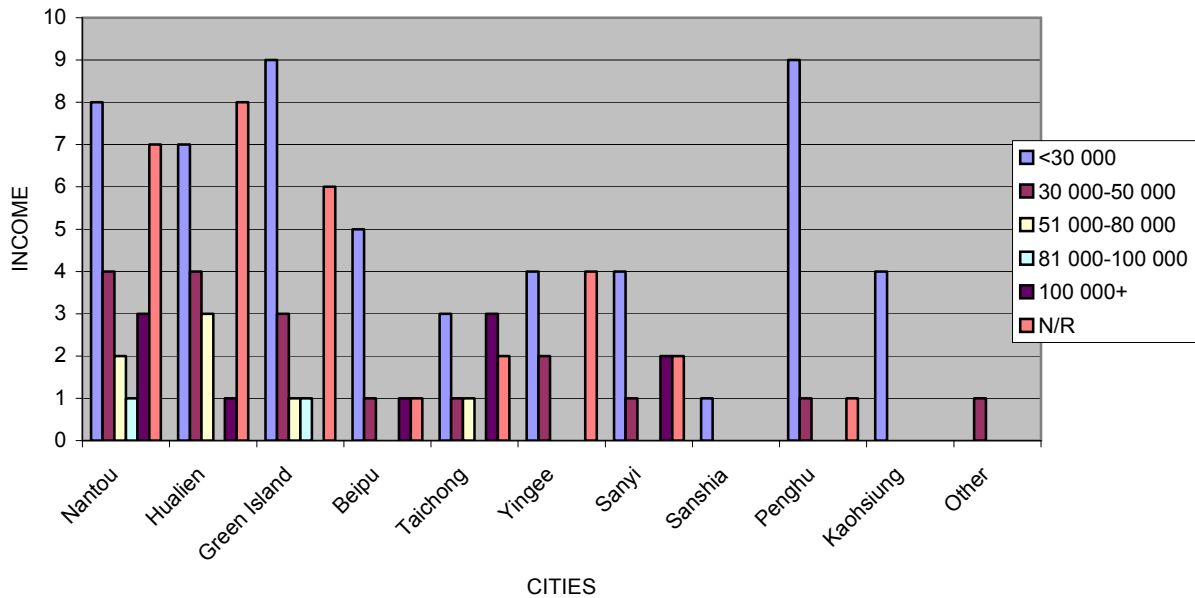


Figure 7. Average income of businesses the respondents were involved in

tourist destination, had the highest [22.9%] number of employees who had only worked in their current jobs for a year. The typical employee at adventure destinations all over the world is younger [in their early twenties]. Hualien, which is an East Coast city with many water sport and marine activities [rafting, whale watching], was second with 20%. Most of Nantou county's workers [36%] had been involved in their business for more than 10 years and Nantou also had the highest number of people, compared to the rest, who had been established in their current business [42.9%] for more than 10 years. Nantou has an established tourism industry.

The respondents were asked about their reasons for starting the business. They could choose from the following possibilities: family business, saw the need, for no specific reason, or other reasons. It was hoped to see a relationship between seeing the need and preparing for the need by learning English. It was also assumed that in the more traditional [family] businesses there would be fewer competencies in English. Almost half [42.6%] of the respondents said they saw a need in the local industry for their business, 28.7% were in a family business and 18.8% had other reasons for

starting the business. Nantou respondents had the highest percentage of

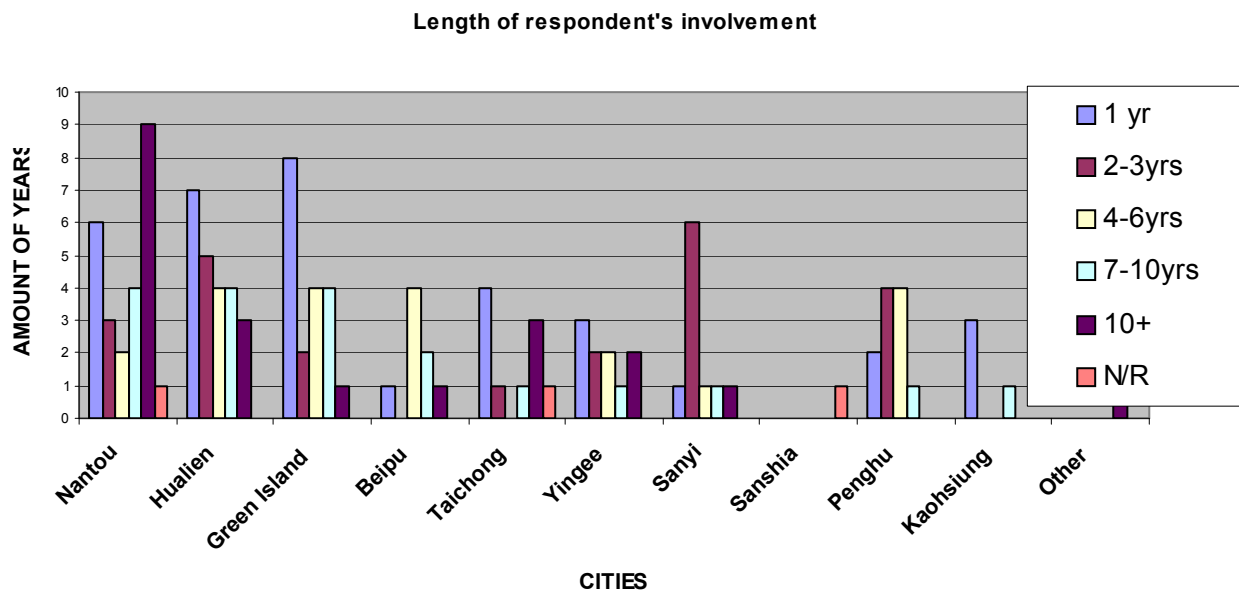


Figure 8. The length of existence of the businesses the respondents were involved in

family businesses, but in Hualien, Taichong, Penghu and Green Island businesses were started more often because people saw the need. The reason for this was most probably that the latter destinations were young/new tourist destinations compared to the “old” Nantou.

In a closed [Yes/No] question the respondents had to indicate whether foreign clients made use of their business. The Taiwanese government aims to get 10 million visitors by the year 2010 and there is controversy about whether they are targeting only the China market or whether they also have the international market in mind. If the former is the case, no English competency is needed. However, at the time Taiwan placed restrictions on allocating visas to visitors from China because of the political tension between the two countries. It is therefore doubtful that they will reach their visitor target by only focusing on the China market. The question was therefore posed to find out if foreign visitors are part of the reason the workers would like to learn to speak English and would therefore be motivated to do so. More than half [62.3%] of the respondents responded with a “yes”, and 16.4% had no response, the rest [21.3%] said that foreign visitors do not make use of their business. The result of Sanyi is difficult to understand. Having visited the town 13 times over time, the researcher is convinced that there is a large number of foreigners who visit the attractions [curios, museum, catering establishments] mentioned. Yet more [44%] respondents said that no foreign visitors came to their businesses than those [33.3%] who said that they do receive business from foreign visitors.

The following question, “What language do the clients speak?” gave respondents a choice between English, Japanese, Chinese, French, German, Spanish or other languages. They had to indicate all the languages their clients speak and the result was: Chinese [86.9%], English

[59.8%], Japanese [45.1%], French [6.6%], German [6.6%], other languages [6.6%], and Spanish [4.1%].

The percentages of foreign visitors as given by the Taiwan Tourism Bureau support these statistics. During the period of January to April 2006 the international visitor numbers indicated an average of 33% Japanese speakers. The non-Chinese-speaking visitors who had to rely on English as a medium showed an average of 48.5%. These visitors were from the U.S.A. [11.4%], Southeast Asia [18.5%], Australia and New Zealand [1.9%], Europe [Germany and the U.K] [6.62%], Korea [6%], and other nationalities [4.1%]. Overseas Chinese speakers accounted for 18.6%. [<http://admin.taiwan.net.tw/english/>]

When asked “What percentage of your clients speak English?” respondents had to indicate All [8.2%], Most [16.4%], Some [33.6%], Hardly any [38.5%] None [2.5%]. There was a .8% no response. Penghu and Kaohsiung are the only destinations where establishments indicated that all their clients speak English. This can be explained by the fact that in Penghu most respondents were from the car or motorcycle rental companies and these mostly have a foreign clientele. Kaohsiung is a port city and the second largest in Taiwan, therefore, a high percentage of English speakers can be expected.

The following section contains questions that reflect the relationship between the tourism industry and English.

5.3.1.3 English in tourism business

To answer the question: “What is the English competency in your business?” respondents could indicate the degree of English competency in their business by marking it “Very good” [0%], “Good” [2.5%], “Satisfactory” [13.1%], “Needs improvement” [30.6%], “Poor” [39.3%] or “Very poor” [11.5%]. [See Fig. 8].

The perceived need for English competency in the tourism industry was clearly indicated by the following question: “Do you think English competency is needed in the tourism industry?” almost all [96.7%] responded positively and only 2.5% negatively [Sanyi, Sanshia and Beipu]. One respondent [from Sanyi] did not answer the question. See Figure 9. Beipu and Sanyi have a high Hakka population that are involved in the tourism industry. There is an emphasis on ethnic tourism in Taiwan with the Hakka group leading this very strongly. This could have had an influence on the responses.

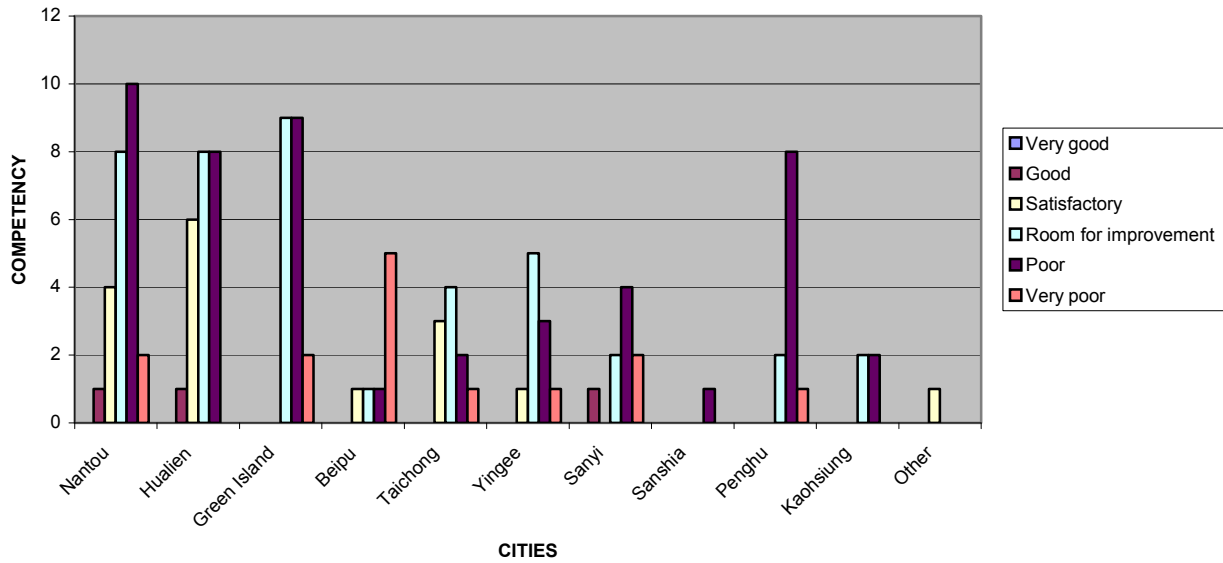


Figure 9. English competency in the business

5.3.1.4 Needs of the tourism worker

In the next section the survey focused on the personal needs of the tourism worker. To the question “Do you want to improve your English?” the response was “Yes” in most [91.7%] cases. All respondents in Hualien, Sanshia, Penghu, Kaohsiung and Other indicated that they want to improve their English. Only 7.4% said they did not want to improve their English. Three respondents did not answer this question.

Respondents were given a choice of answers to the question “Which part of your English do you want to improve?” by listing the four language-learning skills [reading, writing, listening and speaking]. The response was: Reading [12.3%], Writing [9.8%], Listening [46.7%] and Speaking [59%]. The respondents could select as many skills as they thought were needed. The result clearly indicated that the biggest need was to be able to speak English. Yet, in most language programmes the writing skill gets emphasised most.

The next two questions are significant for the design of English language-learning programmes for the tourism industry: “How would you like to improve your English?” and “How much time can you spend on language training per week?” The responses could give guidelines to the design of the kind of programme that needs to be designed and implemented in Taiwan. Although this is not indicative of a universal truth, it is relevant for Taiwan and could give direction in designing such programmes for other high context cultures. Respondents were asked to select all those that they thought were ways to learn English. The results showed a predominant need to attend group classes [39.3%]. The other results were private tutoring [17.2%], distance training [12.3%],

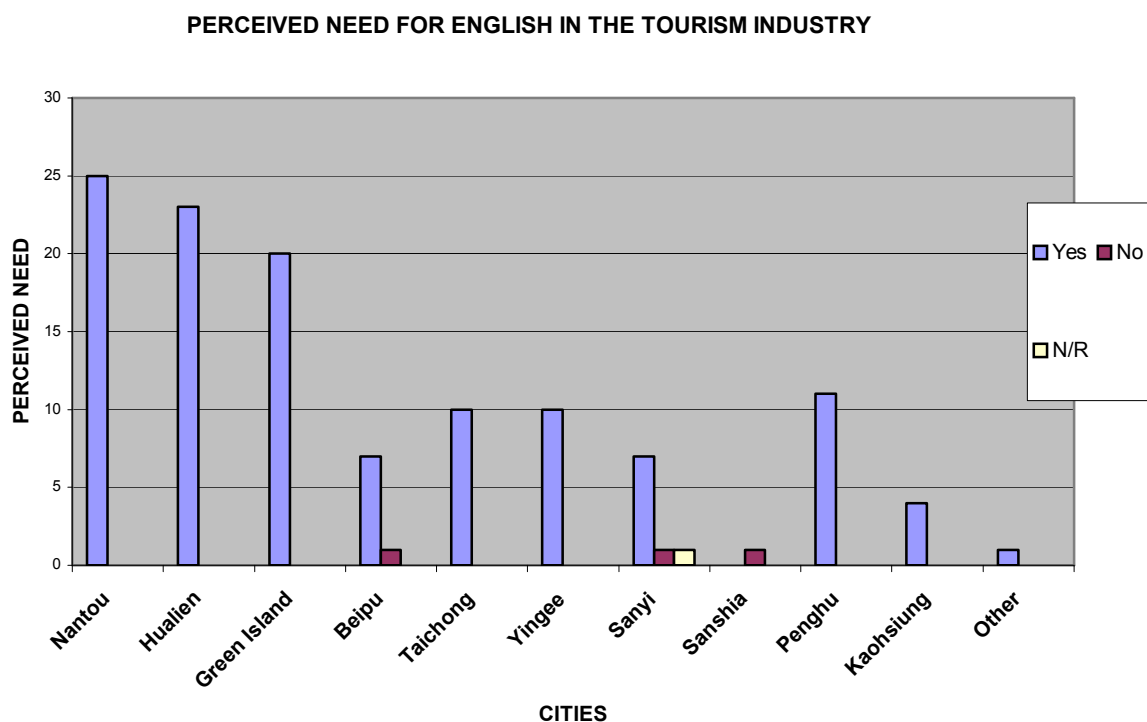


Figure 10. The perceived need for English competency in the tourism industry

language school [19.7%], other [4.9%] and No reply [14.8%]. The response was directly in line with the general experience in Taiwan’s adult education sector. Adult learners were reluctant to move away from the learning paradigm they were used to. They were traditionally taught without taking their personal needs into consideration and as part of a group, hence the familiar group classes, language school and private tutoring preferences. There is no obvious explanation for the high percentage of no responses especially with the exceptional high percentage in Taichung. It could be that respondents did not previously think about having an option. The obvious preference for group classes occurred in the destinations that are not exposed to many foreign teachers. During the visit to Nantou the respondents repeatedly mentioned that that area needed a language school. The two islands [Green and Penghu] also had a high preference for group classes.

The responses to the question “How much time can you spend on language training per week?” were: Minimum two hours [71.3%], Up to six hours [13.9%], >6 hours [2.5%] and No reply [12.3%]. [See Figure 10]. The response indicated that the respondents were not aware of the fact that language learning is different to other kinds of learning and competency cannot be acquired in the same way as learning to do Mathematics for instance. The results also indicate that the three destinations mentioned before, Nantou, Penghu and Green Island [where people are not necessarily exposed to

modern ways of learning English], have unrealistic expectations of time spent in acquiring the language.

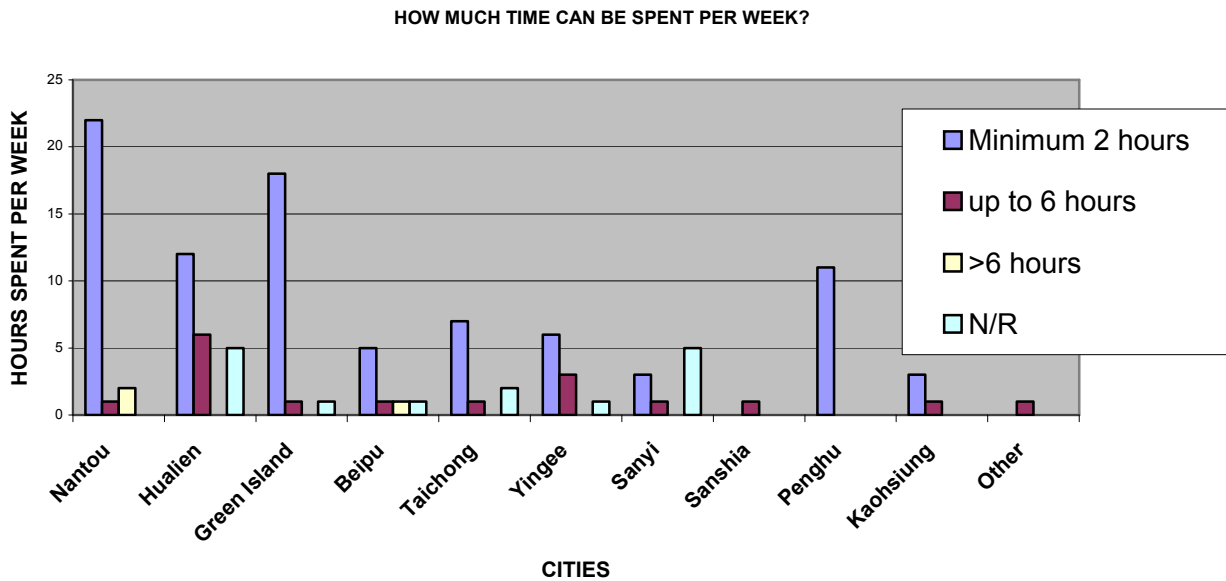


Figure 11. Amount of time per week that could be spent on language training

5.3.1.5 Own business as related to English competence

The emphasis in this set of questions is on their own business as related to English competency.

To the question “Do you think your own English competency will improve your business?” most [89.3 %] responded positively. Only one respondent did not answer this question. It is interesting to note that Beipu, Kaohsiung and “Other” [the tour operator] had no negative responses, thus being of the conviction that they have to set the example.

Respondents had a choice of responses to the question: “Is your staff competent in English?”. Most [53.3%] respondents said that some of their staff are competent, 3.3% said that all their staff are competent, 6.6% said most are and 32.8% said that no staff member is competent. A small percentage [4.1%] did not reply. Beipu, Penghu and Other’s responses indicated a higher percentage of “None” than “Some” responses [See Fig 11]. Comparing Beipu’s response to the previous question, could indicate that it is either a one man/woman business or that nobody in the business speaks English. This uncertainty in interpreting the data could have been avoided by adding a question to the questionnaire asking the number of workers in the business.

To the question: “Would your business improve if your staff were competent in English?” 91% responded positively and 3.3% did not respond. Kaohsiung, “Other” and Beipu had 100% “yes”

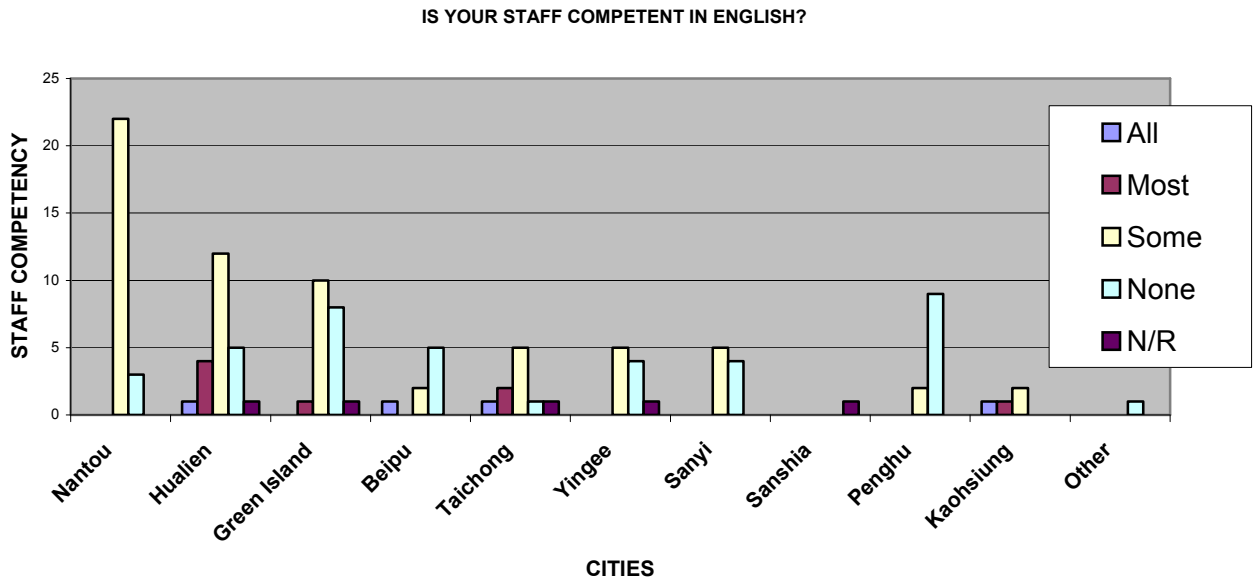


Figure 12. English competency of staff

responses and Hualien, Taichung and Yingge had no negative responses, however there were some who did not respond to this question at these destinations.

Responses to a very important question, “What action would you take to improve the English competency in your business?” indicated the willingness of the business to implement an English learning programme to the benefit of the business. Respondents could choose as many forms of action as they thought relevant from the following: [the results are indicated in brackets]

- Enrol myself for a programme [26.2%]
- Encourage employees to enrol [42.6%]
- Present an in-house programme for all employees [23%]
- Present an in-house programme for some employees [16.4%]
- Teach them myself [4.1%]
- Go to a language school [9%]
- Nothing [16.4%]
- Other [5.7%]

The last section of the questionnaire indicates the willingness of the business to pay for English language-learning programmes.

5.3.1.6 Funding Language-Learning Programmes

To the question:” Who should pay?” most [49.2%] respondents indicated that it should be a combined effort between the business and employees. Only 2.5% said that the Government

should pay and 18.9% think their business should be solely responsible. A small percentage [11.5%] will hold the employees fully responsible, and the same percentage [11.5%] want a public/private partnership. Only 6.6% looked at another solution. Hualien [61%], Green Island [55%] and Nantou [48%] had a very high occurrence of “business and employees” responses compared to their responses to the other options.

A last question was included that was similar to, but more direct than the previous one to make sure that the financial responsibility was seen as important. The high [13.1%] “no response” to this question could indicate that the question was superfluous or not understood. Almost half [47.5%] of the respondents said their own business would pay for an English programme and 39.3% said they would not.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The aim of this quantitative research was to determine guidelines based on the needs and wants of tourism practitioners for the design of an English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in Taiwan as representing other local industries where English is either a second or foreign language for the frontline workers in the industry. No such guidelines could be found in the literature that was surveyed.

The findings suggest that frontline workers in the tourism industry are aware of the fact that they have to establish successful communication in English with their clients if they want their tourism business to prosper. This is not unique to the surveyed situation as it is a phenomenon in most industries and employees in general. This need has produced a new linguistic branch within the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), namely, English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) [Dominguez and Edwards Rokowski n/d]. Learners on an English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) programme need ultimately only to be capable of establishing successful communication, and do not necessarily have to be using language as precisely as a native speaker does [Dominguez and Edwards Rokowski n/d]. This was proven by the pilot study where there was effective communication at the end of it when the tours were conducted, albeit not with perfect language usage.

The results furthermore suggest that the preferred way of learning for the respondents in the industry leans towards the conventional group classes, although the respondents of the pilot study [who were used to the Western way of working after having been immersed in the programme for almost two years by then] preferred working alone to working in groups; that the biggest need is for spoken English and not as most language-learning programmes assume for grammar; and

that there is an unrealistic expectation of the time that needs to be spent on acquiring a second or foreign language.

The fact that the programme presented in the pilot study was more focused on factual input of the tourism industry and not language-learning on its own, yet provided the learners with adequate sector specific language to guide a tour, proves Krashen's theory that language acquisition is "the unconscious intake of language which is then available for spontaneous use" [Lewis 2001:215]. This could be useful when having to decide whether language should be integrated into a tourism curriculum or presented as a separate module when designing a language-learning programme for tourism.

Language learning is different from other kinds of learning, language is "acquired" [as opposed to learned] and its acquisition cannot be measured. There is a small element of factual knowledge that has to be mastered, but language learning mainly consists of procedural knowledge; "it is not about knowing how to, but about being able to" [Lewis, 2001:193].

When using the Lexical Approach in language-learning, contextual meaning and explicitly purposive activities should provide the needed input that would lead to effective verbal output by the learners [Lewis, 2001]. Expecting language learners to give impromptu output without preceding it with systematic input, as the Conversationalists would want it, would not give the needed results as input will not necessarily become intake. In the pilot study, the Lexical Approach was used to broaden lexis within the context of the tourism industry and thus provide an opportunity for the adult learners to acquire procedural knowledge [knowledge how to], which gave the learners the ability to effectively use industry specific language. Hence the comment that they were satisfied that they had learned "tourism language".

Language for occupational purposes should start at analysing the need for the four traditional language skills [reading, writing, listening and speaking] within an appropriate context - this being the specific set of circumstances in the workplace [Dudley-Evans and St. John,1998]. The main aim of EOP lies in the justification and reinforcement regarding the important role played by the English language in the labour world. Through this needs analysis, carried out within the tourism industry itself, it was possible to examine the deficiencies, mostly involuntarily unresolved, in the Taiwanese tourism industry.

5.5 SUMMARY

In this chapter the findings of the research have been analysed and presented followed by a discussion of the findings. The questionnaires used in a pilot study and the survey questionnaire

were presented and analysed according to categories and themes. Common themes were the need for industry specific English and the lack of competency in Taiwan among role-players in the local industry.

The following chapter provides a final conclusion and recommendations of the research based on the analysed data.

CHAPTER 6

SYNTHESIS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary focus of this study was to collect data that will provide guidelines for designing a suitable, needs-based English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in Taiwan. Taiwan was selected for this study as an example of a country where the lack of English competency was hindering a successful international tourism industry. The findings of this study aspire to also be directives for the design of language-learning programmes for other tourist destinations where English is a foreign or second language. The purpose was furthermore to gain an understanding of the English language needs and wants of the frontline worker in this ubiquitous industry. In this final chapter, a synthesis of the findings is made, conclusions are arrived at and recommendations for the way forward are suggested.

6.2 SYNTHESIS

To recapitulate the key debates, elements and findings emanating from the different chapters of this study, it is necessary to briefly consider the following components:

6.2.1 The need for language-learning in the tourism industry

The shift to knowledge centeredness that is revolutionising education and training has an effect on the tourism industry. Because this industry potentially affects economies, communities and individuals it needs to stay on the cutting edge more so than most other industries if it wants to make a positive contribution to individuals' lives and to the economy of a country. This implies that learning opportunities for whole communities that are involved in and affected by the tourism industry should be available.

Tourism, which has become the single largest industry in the world, exposes and emphasizes the need of humans to communicate when the host and the visitor meet. This creates, amongst many other challenges for the workers, the challenge of effective language usage.

This study attempted to collect data to answer the following questions:

- What, according to practitioners, would a programme have to include in order to meet the immediate need to communicate effectively in English?

- How much time do adult learners want to and can they spend attending such a programme?
- How do they want to learn English [method/way]?
- Which language skills do they want to focus on?

6.2.2 The literature review

The literature review provided enough background to act as a theoretical framework for creating a design for an English learning programme. Literature that provided information on language learning, the design of adult learning programmes, different methods to facilitate learning as well as literature on the tourism industry was reviewed.

Although the literature study provided information about the tourism industry in general, it did not provide information on industry specific English language-learning programmes.

The specific conclusions the literature study led to are discussed under “Conclusions”.

6.2.3 Designing an English language-learning programme

When designing an English language-learning programme the specific target audience has to be kept in mind and it has to create effective learning opportunities for all beneficiaries. This study considers the individual tourism worker as well as the community that hosts tourists as the beneficiaries of English language-learning programmes for tourism.

6.2.4 Research methodology

In the chapter on research methodology the different research methods and methods of data analysis were discussed. This study used triangulation by comparing data from the literature review, the survey and the pilot programme for EfT. A system of open coding was used to categorise data collected in a mix of quantitative and qualitative data collection.

6.2.5 Presentation, analysis and interpretation of research findings

In chapter 5, the findings of the research were analysed and presented followed by a discussion of the findings. Data were presented that would assist in determining guidelines for the design of an English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in Taiwan based on the needs and wants of tourism practitioners.

Common themes were: the need for industry specific English for frontline workers in the tourism industry and the lack of English competency in Taiwanese tourism role-players.

This study examined the deficiencies, mostly involuntarily unresolved, in the Taiwanese tourism industry as far as language competency is concerned.

6.2.6 Summary of the situation in Taiwan

It is very difficult to estimate the total number of tourism workers in Taiwan. This is true of other parts of the world too. The two ways of collecting data to determine the need for competency in English in the local tourism industry were a pilot programme with post-graduate students who chose to attend the EfT programme and a survey that included 122 frontline workers in the industry employed in a variety of tourism businesses. The sample was selected intuitively from workers at eight destinations and a tour operator who works all over Taiwan. The sample group was presented with a questionnaire that was translated into Chinese.

It was assumed that presenting the questionnaire to the sample group in Chinese would adequately cross the language barrier, but communication remained very difficult for the researcher. As a result of the fact that communication at the first destination proved almost impossible, a Taiwanese assistant accompanied the researcher to the remaining destinations. Frequently this assistant had to help respondents to complete the questionnaire because some of the [especially] older respondents are only semi-literate in written Chinese and others were unsure of the terminology used. At one destination a Western female who could speak Chinese assisted with the survey, but the response was not satisfactory as there was open unfriendliness from the side of the respondents.

Although there was an assumption that the age of respondents will influence their English competency, the findings rejected that assumption.

6.2.7 Benefits of English language competency in the international tourism industry

The only way that individuals can learn to initiate and control changes in their work environment is if they are educated, because education concerns change and choice [Christou, 1999].

If English language-learning programmes are successful, they improve competence in the individual as well as in a community. People who are able to use English to broaden their knowledge base and have developed tourism related language skills will add to community self-awareness, self-esteem and community pride. This, in turn, could help to reduce crime rates because people who respect themselves will respect others.

A possible solution of including industry related English in even the initial awareness programmes for a community, is deliberated upon in 6.4.1.2. One of the benefits of such a programme, for

example, is that not only would such a general tourism-with-language programme be a form of integration where tourism businesses could link either vertically or horizontally with similar or different businesses and thus counteract the fragmentation in the industry, but it would also open up career paths for individual tourism role players [seasonal, volunteer and permanent] in the industry.

Another reason for introducing the tourism industry to and equipping a whole community with both industry knowledge and relevant language skills is that, in this way, the community as a whole will be equipped to promote all resources of their destination and this would create an appreciation of and a pride in what is their own. Consequently, there will be a stronger feeling of ownership of the tourism industry in a host community. This, in turn, could lead to the right attitude towards learning English, namely learning to use it as a tool to further their career and steer away from negative acculturation.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS

In the tourism industry, products have to be developed regularly to please the ever-changing needs of a diverse clientele. One need that stands out is the need to communicate in a mutually understood language. English is the language that most travellers use and competency in this language would enhance the confidence of the workers to deliver excellent service and thereby also enhance the product and the industry in general. The tourism industry in Taiwan proved to have a lack of English proficiency in especially the rural areas.

The need for a suitable, needs-based English language-learning programme for the tourism industry in Taiwan is thus indisputable. Yet there are challenges in designing such a programme. These do not stem only from the challenges learning programme designers generally face, but become almost overwhelming because of the very nature of the tourism industry. This study that was carried out within the tourism industry of Taiwan itself examined the involuntarily unresolved language deficiencies in that industry. The conclusion is that only if English language-learning programmes were designed specifically for the tourism industry would they maximally benefit individuals, communities and the country as a whole on more than one level and in more than one way. Language learners in Taiwan need to be informed about the fact that they cannot hope to spend less than two hours per week if they want to be competent in English. This is true not only in the tourism but also in other industries.

Both the fact that the questionnaire that was used in the survey had to be translated into Chinese and the open unfriendliness from the side of the respondents at the destination where a Western

female who could speak Chinese assisted with the survey prove that there is a need to improve English competency in the tourism industry in Taiwan. The most feasible explanation for the afore-mentioned uncharacteristic unfriendliness was that either the cultural difference caused a distrust of foreigners or respondents were afraid of losing face by exposing their lack of English competency. None of these experiences or possible explanations bode well for a growth in international tourist numbers for Taiwan. The lack of English competency that occurred all over Taiwan restrains communication with non-Chinese speaking visitors to Taiwan.

This affects not only the visitor who is deprived of interesting facts about the cultural assets of Taiwan, but also the workers who cannot confidently educate, entertain and excite visitors. This ultimately has a negative effect on the whole tourism industry in Taiwan, because many of the unique cultural attributes remain closed to non-Chinese speakers and thus cannot earn foreign currency.

Opportunities to update required knowledge and skills needed for the tourism industry ideally should be presented to whole communities as part of continuous professional development. This could include language-learning programmes, either integrated in the factual material that is presented or as separate modules. However, more in depth research is needed to find whether language learning that includes general tourism education and training modules would be more effective than presenting it in separate modules and sessions.

The conclusions the literature study led to were, firstly, that instead of formal curricula and prescriptive syllabi, individual learning pathways are preferred for tourism frontline workers who launch into an industry specific English language-learning programme. Secondly, the Lexical Approach to language-learning emerged as a possible best facilitation method to enable tourism workers to use effective language in the many diverse situations they have to handle in their daily work. Lastly, it was concluded that the complexities and specific needs of the tourism industry demanded that industry specific English language-learning programmes should be designed to assist frontline workers to obtain and maintain employment in the tourism industry. However, such an EOP programme should be supported by a GE programme to provide a firmer foundation, and this in turn should lead to a lifelong learning process.

The conclusion derived at with the pilot study was that communication on a superficial level does not need perfect language usage. Yet, when the deeper elements of culture have to be shared more sophisticated language and higher confidence levels are important. That kind of proficiency, according to Lewis, has to happen through the learner unconsciously taking in language, which is then available for spontaneous use [see page 32].

The data collected in the survey showed that the age of workers was not the determining factor in English competency, but rather the destination at which they worked. Respondents on Green Island, which is off the main island, for example, all [100%] saw their competency as insufficient. It might be that here even the younger generation [55% are under 35] did not have opportunities to acquire usable English during their years at school. Many respondents on Green Island and also on Penghu work in accommodation and catering establishments. In this kind of establishment frontline workers inevitably have to be able to communicate well with non-Chinese speaking visitors in English both pre and during the visit. It is thus of utmost importance that these employees are helped to improve their English speaking skills so that there can be direct benefit by drawing more international visitors to them.

The survey showed that it is the “younger” tourism destinations - Hualien, Taichung, Penghu and Green Island – that mostly started their businesses because they saw the need for it. However, the assumption that products at these destinations would take into consideration that the perceived need implies an equipped workforce, was proven wrong. No establishment was making English language-learning programmes available for their workers.

More than half [62.3%] of the respondents in the survey said that foreigners make use of their businesses and that most of them speak English. These findings were supported by statistics from the Taiwan Tourism Bureau. Encouragingly, almost all [96.7%] respondents indicated that they think English competency is needed in the tourism industry and most [89.3 %] that their own English competency will improve their businesses. A high percentage [91%] indicated that their business would improve if their staff were competent English speakers.

Most [91.7%] tourism workers indicated that they personally wanted to improve their English and mostly their speaking and listening skills, but the survey results show that there is an unrealistic expectation of the time that needs to be spent on acquiring another language. In the more remote areas, the unrealistic expectations of time spent in acquiring the language is most prevalent. Language competency however, cannot be acquired in a short time.

Although respondents in the survey predominantly wanted to learn English by attending the conventional group classes, [which is directly in line with experience in Taiwan’s adult education sector where learners are reluctant to move away from the learning paradigm they are used to, namely lecturing to a group] the pilot study proved that the Lexical Approach as a facilitation method had good results. It gave these learners the ability to effectively [albeit not perfectly] use industry specific language almost immediately and gave them a tool to continue learning.

Because perfect language usage is not needed to communicate successfully on a superficial level, most EOP programmes need ultimately only equip students to be capable of using language that will establish simple communication successfully. This might be enough for most other industries, but the tourism industry needs more. When the deeper elements of culture have to be shared with a visitor, the workers in the host community need a more sophisticated use of the language. This study done in Taiwan could be a model for other industries where English is either a second or foreign language for the frontline workers in the tourism industry.

A language-learning programme in general has to be based on principles of adult education, effective language-learning facilitation methods and has to fit into the work life of the frontline tourism worker; it will have to have the characteristics mentioned on p 54. Moreover, the content needs to be effective, reliable and viable and should meet the needs of our times. Yet above all, the language-learning programme has to have within it the seed of creating a desire and motivation for the adult learner to become a lifelong learner.

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The recommendations that follow are categorised under theory, practice and policy and lastly will include a section on further research that needs to be conducted.

6.4.1 Designing an English language-learning programme for Taiwan

It is recommended that general principles for designing adult learning programmes are made applicable to English language-learning programmes for the tourism industry. This is addressed below.

6.4.1.1 Designing learning programmes should meet the needs of the adult learner

There is not one perfect single solution to language programme design. It is therefore recommended that a suitable programme for every teaching situation be designed because that will be more productive [see p 39]. Programmes happen within a certain context, which are determined by the type of learner, the type of material, the timing of and the length of the programme [see p 65]. It is therefore recommended that the programme designer knows as much as possible about the context so that the programme can be adapted in order to be effective.

In general, adult learning programmes have to be flexible, enticing, borderless, earner-learner focused and not too complex or run for too long if they want to be effective. It is recommended that adult learners are made partners in the learning process from the onset and that their active

participation is maintained throughout. In this way learners' adult attributes, preferences and psychological needs are accommodated and it will confirm and promote adulthood, because in a learner-centred programme independence is fostered, responsibility and reflecting skills enhanced and learners are helped to become self-directed in their process of transition to get to their desired state of being or knowing. Conversely, it is recommended that programmes are based on and developed along negotiated agreements between all the role-players in a specific programme and not be slave to learners' needs by using them as the exclusive directive.

Learning programmes have thus to adapt to individual and industry needs, but this is impossible in a formal programme [curriculum] where the learner has to adapt to predetermined input. Given the abovementioned criteria for successful learner-centred programmes, it is recommended that learners who have to be prepared for real life challenges have to be given the opportunity to develop their own learning pathways and be assisted in doing so.

As language learning never reaches the point of complete competence, assessing the competence of the adult second language learner is not simple. This will be addressed in 6.4.1.5

6.4.1.2 Meeting the need for English competency in the tourism industry

Both the benefits of and need for English competency in the tourism industry are undisputed and that not only for the individual worker in the industry, but also for the whole community [see 6.2.7].

As the popularity of a destination grows, the local tourism industry will become more and more reliant on people and facilities that were previously not considered to be a part of the industry. It is thus recommended that communities that are involved in hosting visitors should as a whole be involved in learning. Community members who display a competency to communicate effectively with a visitor are priceless assets to the whole destination.

Successful communication also depends on the host community giving the right information to visitors. It is thus recommended that community tourism education should follow a specific plan. First, an awareness programme should be presented to the entire community taking into consideration the various levels of knowledge and skills of community members. Second, a general tourism education programme should follow and learners should include taxi drivers, the police, bank clerks, para-medics, customs officials and all community members that have face-to-face contact with the visitors. The recommendation is also that even this general tourism education programme should in its implementation include a focused English language-learning element as every aspect of the tourism industry at a destination could derive benefit from a destination-wide English language competence.

Third, the abovementioned two steps should precede sector specific programmes that result in a specific qualification. Here it is recommended that these learning programmes aimed at students who want specific tourism jobs should have not only a strong EOP component added to the tourism content, but also the beginnings of a GE programme that should outlast the tourism training.

Adequate provision for the application of the learning to have relevance to the needs and wants of the specific adult learners has to be made. Therefore, it is strongly recommended that for every situation a language audit of all four language skills is done. This is deliberated upon below. Material, sequence and interfaces should have a relevant application orientation that differentiates between the individual needs of the learners and the situation and meet the contemporary needs of society.

As tourism workers tend to assimilate language from their surroundings and use it as needed it could both count in their favour [see p 82] and create a false sense of competency that has to be addressed by offering GE language-learning programmes that would be more beneficial and are thus recommended. This will be further discussed below.

6.4.1.3 Using a combination of English for Occupational Purposes and General English

In line with Nunan's view that there is a broad and a narrow approach to language programme design [see p 80] it is recommended that, in addition to the EOP programme, a General English [GE] programme should be offered. Language-learning is a lifelong learning process; consequently, GE should give the opportunity for an ongoing learning process [broad]. EOP as a more specific training situation [narrow] should provide an opportunity where even adult learners have to be drilled in mastering language relevant to their specific field

6.4.1.4 Using the Lexical Approach as a methodology

This thesis recommends that the Lexical Approach be used as an effective methodology for learning tourism-related English for the following reasons:

The Lexical Approach does not expect learners to give meaningful verbal output before a lot of and varied input was given to them. This input should be contextually meaningful and activities should have a precise purpose [see pp 28 and 36]. In this way the probability of input becoming intake is bigger and the target language can become available for spontaneous use sooner. In the tourism industry practitioners need procedural knowledge - that is, the ability to use the language effectively - as fast as possible, for this reason as well, the Lexical Approach is recommended.

The Lexical Approach sees lexis as the foundation of language and that language is acquired in “lexical chunks” [units of meaning]. Language acquired in this way to a large extent requires students to be actively involved in building their language proficiency, to “do it themselves”. Therefore, adult learners of a second or foreign language have to be given the opportunity to recycle language chunks as often as possible. In an EFT programme, it is thus recommended that tourism sector [area, product and job] specific chunks would be used to build lexis.

The Lexical Approach does not value accuracy as high as it does communicative power and successful language. It also values acquisition above formal learning [Lewis, 2001]. Workers in the tourism industry need to communicate effectively in the little time they have with guests in order to entertain, excite and educate them. This necessitates acquiring the right language as fast as possible if they do not want to lose guests. The Lexical Approach thus is the most logical method to facilitate language acquisition and is therefore proposed as the foundational method for facilitating English language-learning programmes in the tourism industry.

6.4.1.5 Assessing competence

As the context of adult learning is important it is recommended that the competence of the adult second language learner is assessed based on the pre-determined outcomes of the programme. These outcomes would have to be in line with the needs of the specific workplace of the learner/s. Therefore, competence will have to ultimately be assessed in the workplace. However, during the programme continuous assessment will have to be implemented.

All of the assessments should be done in a transparent way, involving the adult learner from the onset of the programme. Adequate feedback should regularly be given.

6.4.2 Designing a needs-based learning pathway for frontline workers in the tourism industry in Taiwan

It is recommended that a language programme is designed along certain directives and these are discussed below. The first and most important step should be to do a language audit that will lead to a needs analysis of all four language skills of the prospective attendees of the programme.

6.4.2.1 Doing a needs analysis by way of a linguistic audit

In order to arrive at a balanced and effective language-learning programme it is recommended that a company first uses Pilbeam’s linguistic audit to identify the strong and weak points of their employees’ language ability when using a foreign language in a specific situation [see p 42]. The results of this audit will indicate which cognitive skills need to be developed to solve linguistic problems and thereby attain more efficient expertise. These results, indicating the needs of the labour force, have to be analysed to form the basis of a learner-centred learning programme.

In a linguistic audit [see p 42], learning objectives are negotiated and formalised when the needs analysis within the workplace is completed. This is followed by specifying present and possible future language problems of individual employees, by identifying the company's main elements and resources and then analysing the real use employees make of English. Individual communicative skills are then assessed and, after the results are analysed, impartial recommendations are given to the staff in order to improve their performance levels. The company can thus create the opportunity to improve quality service through their employees' effective language usage.

However, language efficiency at a destination does not only depend on workers that are directly employed in the tourism industry. They have to be backed by a competent community that know the benefits and challenges of their local tourism industry and understand why they have to get appropriately equipped. It is thus recommended that cooperation from all enterprises in a community will be sought and that a language audit of as many members of a community as possible be done.

6.4.2.2 Negotiating the context with all role players

It is recommended that learning programmes be designed in such a way that there is room before, during and after the programme for two-way communication between all relevant role-players. The most effective way of adapting to one another's values, assumptions, needs, experience and expertise will have to be found and negotiations will have to be conducted in a non-authoritative way.

6.4.2.3 Formulating the vision, aims, policy and scope

Not only should the context be negotiated, but it is recommended that the vision, aims, policy and scope of the programme will also be negotiated before it is formulated. The expected outcomes should be finalised only after this is done. However, this should not be seen as ruling out flexibility of the learning programme as it rather provides the facilitator with a formal document to take to the learners at the first contact session. It is recommended that the adult learners are given an opportunity to discuss their views on this document and, if consensus is reached amongst the learners and facilitator about changes regarding the aims and scope, these should be adapted. The vision and policy should mostly be left intact as the company itself determines these.

6.4.2.4 Planning a learning programme

A learning programme is influenced by internal and external factors and is always implemented within a specific milieu, which causes constraints for the planner. When planning a learning programme, it has to be kept in mind that the various aspects of the learning programme are

interrelated and interdependent, for instance, planning assessments is influenced by objectives and goals by content.

The scope of the programme will determine whether the programme will have to be done by a committee or an individual. In both cases the level of detail in the planning increases with the decrease in size of the programme being planned, but in both cases clear parameters have to be set. It is therefore recommended that a national English for Tourism [EFT] programme be planned by a committee, but that within this framework individual planners who are acquainted with the milieu are responsible for planning programmes for tourism enterprises.

Efficient programmes have a transforming effect on the lives of the adults who join the programme; therefore, principled planning of a programme whether at national or local level, is crucial. It is thus recommended that both the planner's and the facilitator's ethical approach, which is fundamental to delivering a programme that will be beneficial to the adult learners and through them to society as a whole, will be verified to complement the ethics of the context of the programme.

It is further recommended that other factors like the availability of resources, people [their skills, knowledge and availability], venues, and material as well as the cost need to be taken into account when planning. At all times, what is most conducive to learning has to be the deciding factor.

The recommendation is thus that planners and facilitators are reputable educationalists that preferably are known by and know the people they are designing the programme for.

6.4.2.5 Selecting content [syllabus] of the learning programme

A syllabus can be either content-focused [product oriented], or process-oriented. This section will deal with the content-focused syllabus where the most useful material/content is that which is created by the workplace itself.

It is recommended that the content of a learning programme is based on its context with the learner being the main determiner. Adult learners need a straightforward "how-to" content [see p 56] - content that meets the needs of our times. The different types of programmes, be it formal, non-formal or informal, will also determine the content.

A balanced and successful EOP language-learning programme is one that pays most attention to oral and aural skills. It is recommended that all EFT learning programmes create oral and aural learning situations that are meaningful, content-based and enhance a free flow of language.

It is therefore recommended that programmes be designed in such a way that the facilitator can use a personal facilitation style that will fit in with the content and context of the programme. The skilled language facilitator will use every opportunity in the workplace for the adult learners to notice, recognise and recycle relevant language so that they can develop workplace related lexis. It is further recommended that the measuring instruments that are used will allow the developer to assure that all these criteria are met and reviewed.

6.4.2.6 Needs and abilities of both learners and facilitator/s as the basis for selecting a facilitation method

Although it is recommended that the Lexical Approach be used as the foundational approach for language-learning in the tourism industry, it does not suggest that it is the only facilitation method for this type of programme. Facilitation methods vary because they should be based on the needs of the adult learners and are influenced by the culture within which they are presented.

Method needs to complement content and context, but also depends largely on the personal preference of the facilitator. If the method fails to create a cooperative climate there is no guarantee that learning will take place. The best facilitation methods are those where the input is understandable without creating undue stress and where content is what students want to hear and therefore will learn from.

It is recommended that facilitators strive to simulate real world situations that are similar to the work life of the learners taking linguistic elements directly from the real world context of the adult learners [for instance, in the tourism industry meeting and greeting new arrivals in the lobby of a hotel in appropriate English] and helping the learners to notice, recognise and recycle relevant language.

6.4.2.7 Determining the amount, length and content of contact sessions

When planning a language-learning programme, the available time of the attendees has to be kept in mind. The length of a contact session will depend on the work schedule of the attendees. A large percentage of tourism workers could be labelled seasonal and/or blue-collar workers who do not necessarily see the tourism industry as their career and, therefore, have neither ambition to climb the organisational ladder, nor a loyalty to their place of employment. As the initial type of English language-learning programme is recommended to be an EOP programme that will have a strong element of just-in-time learning, it is recommended that small segments of material be presented at a time and that the sessions should be short and happen more frequently rather than presenting long drawn-out contact sessions once a week. If handled correctly, the shorter periods

of time will create a sense of achievement in the adult learners as they will master small chunks of language that can be used immediately. However, further research should be done to determine whether language-learning has to be included in general tourism education and training modules or whether it will have to be done in separate modules and sessions. This thesis recommends the former as the more feasible for the following reasons:

- language is best learned in context;
- language input has to be done in such a way that intake is almost unconscious so that it can provide language that is ready for spontaneous use; and
- a programme that is designed to include all four language skills will save time and money, which will make it more attractive for the employers.

It is recommended that all facets of the learning programme are monitored and evaluated regularly. The whole process has to be reviewed in a structured manner and adapted if and where needed. Assessment/s can be done if the role-players require them.

6.4.2.8 Planning a learning pathway with individual learners

A lack of motivation in the frontline worker to improve, on the one hand, and a lack of intimate industry and destination knowledge on the side of the managers [who are often “imported”], on the other hand, is prevalent in the tourism industry and very few tourism employees have experienced a satisfying tourism career path. To improve this situation it is recommended that learning programmes that will form part of a career path be offered to both managers and frontline workers. These programmes should include factual knowledge about the world at large, their own community and area, their culture, the culture of the guests, business knowledge, and marketing skills and these have to be integrated with skills that will help the worker to be sufficiently equipped for the industry.

As adults bring with them a large amount of experience and prior knowledge, have different expectations, personalities and circumstances yet have to fit into the frame of what the tourism industry demands, they ultimately will have to have the same fundamental and core competencies. How they are acquired, however, will depend on the learner and the availability of learning opportunities. Therefore, plotting an individual learning pathway for every individual worker with outcomes that are aligned with what the industry needs and the employer can offer is recommended as the most effective way of handling the situation. It will make the learners co-responsible for their own learning and get the best results.

To enable the industry to operate in an ordered and monitored way as far as the education and training of its workforce is concerned, a national policy that regulates the equipping of the tourism workforce is recommended. This is discussed below.

6.4.3 Recommendations for forming a policy

It is recommended that language learning should be included in general tourism education and training modules for reasons mentioned above. Although tourism is taught at university level in Taiwan, it could not be determined whether industry specific English language-learning programmes form part of the learning programmes, due to the language barrier.

Having worked in the South African tourism development sector in South Africa, the way it was handled in that local industry could serve as a benchmark for what is recommended for Taiwan.

6.4.3.1 The South African tourism education and training situation

The situation in South Africa, where the researcher has done extensive tourism development work in non-English-speaking communities, differs. South Africa has realised the need for continuing adult education programmes if the tourism industry wants to transform. Varying levels of skills as well as national certificate programmes have been designed, implemented and quality assured by the SAQA³⁰ and ETQA³¹. Regular monitoring of service providers' delivery is done.

Enquiries into the South African situation have shown, however, that there are no specific national unit standards for EOP that are registered with SAQA. Although attention is paid to the issue of communication in the core unit standards competence for which is required for national certificate programmes, that for instance THETA³² offers, industry specific language as such is not addressed adequately. There is no guidance given to service providers to address this issue in any depth with their learners.

Quality assurance has become a major issue in education in all industry sectors worldwide and it is recommended that the Taiwan tourism authorities apply national quality assurance in the education of their frontline workers. A plan of action should be drawn up and implemented to remedy the existing situation.

6.4.3.2 A plan of action

It is recommended that the tourism industry in Taiwan firstly look at designing industry specific national unit standards for equipping workers with English language skills. These should then be

³⁰ South African Qualifications Authority

³¹ Education and Training Quality Assurance

³² Tourism, Hospitality and Sport Education and Training Authority

included in and made compulsory for all tourism qualifications that are offered in the country. The unit standards could link with other sectors' education and training unit standards, but should be industry specific.

It is further recommended that policy should require service providers at HE as well as CPD level to do needs analyses based on a language audit of every learner group and design their programme accordingly. There should thus be no tolerance for one-size-fits-all English language-learning programmes. Special attention should be given to workers in the rural areas where many of the cultural gems of their country are hidden.

6.5 FURTHER RESEARCH

Although there is a proven need for English language programmes that will equip attendees to get and stay employed in the tourism industry, the most effective ways to advance workers' careers in the industry need to be determined. Further research will have to fall into the following categories:

- the exact type of English language-learning programme for a specific culture;
- the timing of and time allocated for such a programme;
- the financing of the learning programme; and
- the impact of English proficiency on the local tourism industry .

6.5.1 Type of programme

As recommended above, language-learning should be included in general tourism education and training modules for the reasons mentioned, but a pilot study where the two options [offering it as an integrated part of a tourism programme or as a separate entity] are compared, is recommended.

Even if the recommended path is followed, more research will have to be done to determine whether EOP will suffice to equip frontline workers effectively, how long this could be the only programme offered, at what stage [if needed] GE should be introduced and how long the latter should be continued.

The research for this thesis was done in Taiwan assuming that as a country it could represent other countries where English is a foreign or second language, but although Taiwan shares the lack of English competency with some Western countries, it remains part of Asia with the corresponding difference in culture. Further research should therefore be done to determine how

the needs in Taiwan and the Western countries would differ before a final benchmark for programme design can be set based on the findings in this study.

6.5.2 Time allocated for a language-learning programme

There are practical issues that could be solved by doing more research on the subject of not only timing of the intervention, but also the time allocated for the learning programme as practitioners in the tourism industry will not necessarily have long periods to allocate to language-learning.

Firstly, more pilot programmes should be run with different facilitation methods to make more data available. This will assist in determining which is the most effective way to facilitate subject relevant language acquisition for the tourism industry within a short period of time, so that there would be immediate results for the worker.

Secondly, keeping track and following up on the workers that attended a learning programme needs to be implemented. It is known that acquiring another language does improve the quality of life as well as the employability of the worker, but other questions arise, namely:

- What exactly has been the effect of the acquired language on workers' career path after having attended an English language-learning programme?
- How far can a programme be customised and how much does it have to differentiate?

Thirdly, the matter of affordability of language-learning programmes should be addressed.

6.5.3 Financing of the learning programme

Another question that needs to be addressed is how long employers would be reasonably responsible for language training for their employees and how much should be left to the individual worker to become a lifelong learner? The high mobility of tourism workers will influence the resolve of employers to fund language-learning programmes.

6.5.4 Impact of English proficiency on the local tourism industry

Tourism is a labour intensive industry where individual workers have a profound influence on the success of the establishment they work for. The individual workers can make or break the destination by the quality of service they provide. The quality of service at individual establishments or attractions in turn determines the appeal of the destination as a whole for travelers. The strength of any country's attractiveness thus largely depends on how well individual workers handle the visitors. This unequivocally includes their ability to use a mutually understood language effectively.

However, the exact impact of English proficiency of tourism workers on their immediate work surroundings has to be determined. It will be necessary to conduct research on the social, economic and environmental impact of a destination where the workforce did not initially have English proficiency, but has acquired it.

6.6 IN CONCLUSION

If many more tourism workers could be competent in English, it would open up the lesser-known yet abundantly present cultural rarities in Taiwan. To reach this goal, an EOP language programme for the tourism industry would be needed, not only in Taiwan, but also in local tourism industries across the world where English is not the first language of the workers.

This study made it clear that language-learning should not be done out of context and that, in the case of Taiwan, there would have to be a lot of knowledge input before factual knowledge could be used as a base to learn English.

A combination of industry specific factual and sector specific language input is thus seen as a solution. Using language with contextual meaning and in explicitly purposive activities would help the adult learners not to focus on knowing how to use English, but on being able to use it correctly when they need to use it. The Lexical Approach as Lewis sees it, is seen as the method to use in an EOP programme for tourism workers to acquire English as a second or foreign language in countries where English is not the first language at the destination and assessment of competency should be based on pre-determined outcomes and implemented primarily in the workplace.

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APPENDICES

A. QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION QUESTIONNAIRE

A. BIOGRAPHIC DETAIL

1. GENDER male female
2. AGE 20-25 25-35 36-45 46-55 56-65 over 65
3. CITY/TOWN

B. BUSINESS DETAIL

1. TYPE OF BUSINESS
2. INCOME p.a. less than \$US30 000 \$US30 000 -50 000 \$US51 000 - 80 000 \$US8 000 -100 000 more than \$US100 000
3. HOW LONG DOES THIS BUSINESS EXIST?
 1 year 2-3 years 4-6 years 7-10 years more than 10 years
4. HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN INVOLVED IN IT?
 1 year 2-3 years 4-6 years 7-10 years more than 10 years
5. REASON/S FOR STARTING THE BUSINESS
 family business saw the need no specific reason other [please specify]
6. DO FOREIGN CLIENTS MAKE USE OF YOUR BUSINESS? yes no
7. WHAT LANGUAGE/S DO YOUR CLIENTS SPEAK? [mark all appropriate ones]
 English Japanese Chinese French German Spanish other
8. WHAT PERCENTAGE OF THEM SPEAKS ENGLISH?
 all of them most some hardly any nobody
9. WHAT IS YOUR ENGLISH COMPETENCY FOR BUSINESS?
 very good good satisfactory room for improvement poor very poor
10. DO YOU THINK ENGLISH COMPETENCY IS NEEDED IN THE TOURISM INDUSTRY?
 yes no

C. ENGLISH COMPETENCY

1. DO YOU WANT TO IMPROVE YOUR ENGLISH? no
2. WHAT PART OF IT? reading writing listening speaking
3. HOW WOULD YOU LIKE TO DO IT?

private tutoring	group classes	distance learning
language school	other [please specify]	
4. HOW MUCH TIME CAN YOU SPEND ON LANGUAGE-LEARNING PER WEEK?

min. 2 hours	up to 6 hours	more than 6 hours
--------------	---------------	-------------------
5. DO YOU THINK YOUR OWN ENGLISH COMPETENCY WILL IMPROVE YOUR BUSINESS? yes no
6. IS YOUR STAFF COMPETENT IN ENGLISH?

yes all of them	yes, most of them	yes, some of them	no
-----------------	-------------------	-------------------	----
7. DO YOU THINK YOUR STAFF'S ENGLISH COMPETENCY WILL IMPROVE YOUR BUSINESS? yes no
8. WHAT ARE YOU GOING TO DO ABOUT ENGLISH COMPETENCY IN YOUR BUSINESS?
[mark as many as you find true]

set an example and enrol for a programme myself	encourage all employees to enrol for an English programme	offer in-house training for all employees	offer in-house training for only relevant employees
teach employees myself	send relevant employees to a language school	nothing	other [please specify]
9. WHO DO YOU THINK SHOULD PAY FOR BUSINESS ENGLISH COURSES?

my business	my employees	government	my business and employees	private-public partnership
other [please specify]				
10. WOULD YOUR BUSINESS PAY FOR AN ENGLISH COURSE? yes no

B. CHINESE TRANSLATION OF QUANTITATIVE DATA COLLECTION QUESTIONNAIRE

數量資料收集問券

產品所有人

A. 基本資料

1. 性別 男 女
2. 年齡 20-25 25-35 36-45 46-55 56-65 超過 65
3. 所在城市

B. 公司資料

1. 企業(公司)型態
2. 年收入 少於美金 30 000元 美金30 000 -50 000元 美金51 000 - 80 000元 美金81 000 -100 000元 超過美金 100 000元
3. 請問此企業設立多久?
 1年 2-3 年 4-6 年 7-10 年 超過10年
4. 您在此企業服務的時間?
 1年 2-3 年 4-6 年 7-10 年 超過10年
5. 此企業設立的原因為何 家族企業 市場需求 無特殊原因 其他[請詳述]
6. 是否有國外客戶運用貴公司資源? 是 否
7. 請問您的客戶使用何種語言? [可複選]
 英文 日文 中文 法文 德文 西班牙文 其他
8. 您的客戶中，使用英文的比例為何? 全部 大部分 一些 很少 無
9. 您商用英文能力為何?
 極優 優 可接受 有進步空間 差 極差
10. 您認為旅遊業是否需要英文能力? 是 否

C. 英文能力

1. 您是否想要提升英文能力? 是 否
2. 您想提升哪一部分? 閱讀 寫作 聽力 口說
3. 您希望透過何種方式? 私人家教 團體課程 遠距教學
 語言學校
4. 您每週能花在語言學習的時數為多少?
 至少2小時 至多6小時 多於6小時
5. 您認為您個人的英文能力能夠幫助企業發展嗎? 是 否
6. 您的員工具備英文能力嗎?
 是, 全部具備 是, 大部分具備 是, 一些具備 否
7. 您認為員工的英文能力能夠幫助企業發展嗎? 是 否
8. 對於增進貴公司的英文能力, 您將有何作法? [可複選]
- | | | | |
|---|---|---------------------------------------|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 以身作則, 自己先參加一個英文學習的課程 | <input type="checkbox"/> 鼓勵所有員工參加英文學習課程 | <input type="checkbox"/> 提供所有員工企業內部訓練 | <input type="checkbox"/> 提供相關的員工企業內部訓練 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 自己教導員工 | <input type="checkbox"/> 送相關員工至語言學校學習 | <input type="checkbox"/> 無 | <input type="text" value="其他 [請詳述]"/> |
9. 您人為企業中的英文課程費用應由誰支付?
 公司 員工 政府 公司與員工共同支付 私人政府合作模式
10. 貴公司是否願意支付英文課程費用? 是 否

C. PROGRAMME PLAN FOR EFT AT INTERNATIONAL TRADE INSTITUTE, TAIWAN

Although academic background will be given, the focus will be on the practitioners in the industry: what do they say, how, when and to whom?

DESIRED OUTCOMES

T completion of the programme the learner should

- ~ have a broad view of what attracts visitors to famous global sites;
- ~ have gained an understanding of the global tourism industry
- ~ know Taiwan as a multi-faceted tourist destination and decide which aspects will be suitable for the international tourism market;
- ~ have developed a critical mindset towards the situation in Taiwan regarding pollution, sustainability, and the customary expectations and behaviours of domestic tourists;
- ~ be able to identify ways to influence a paradigm shift in the country regarding tourism, and
- ~ be equipped to interpret to English speaking tourist those USP's³³ of Taiwan they have selected.

TOPIC	CONTENT	OUTCOMES	METHOD	MATERIAL	LEARNER ACTION	NOTIONAL HOURS
General Tourism	a) the global industry: statistics, trends, definitions; b) getting to know the world: c) tourism specific language chunks and collocations	a) to gain knowledge and an understanding of the global tourism industry; b) to start recognising typical tourism language chunks; c) to recycle these chunks in the oral report	a) Lecture w discussion b) SDL ³⁴ c) report-back sessions d) point out typical lexical chunks [noticing]	a) Notes b) slides of "The Famous Sites of the World" c) initial list of tourism industry specific language chunks and collocations	a) attending lectures, self-study b) research and oral reports c) add lexical chunks and collocations	6 hrs 10 hrs
Taiwan in the global tourism market – getting to know your country.	a) Unique selling propositions: cultural, natural; b) Language chunks specific to USPs in Taiwan	a) to get to know Taiwan as a multi-faceted island and decide which aspects will be suitable for the international tourism market; b) to develop a critical	a) Lecture w discussion b) class discussions c) TBL ³⁵ d) EL ³⁶ e) SDL f) PPP ³⁷	a) Promotional CD of Taiwan; b) brochures and travel guides; c) Internet d) discussion e) tour f)) initial list of	a) do research b) draw up routes and itineraries; c) add lexical chunks and collocations; d) recycle these chunks in the itineraries	8 hrs

³³ Unique Selling Proposition

³⁴ Self-directed learning [SDL].

³⁵ Task-based learning [TBL]

³⁶ Experiential [EL]

³⁷ Presentation, Practice, Production [PPP]

		mindset towards the situation in Taiwan regarding pollution, sustainability, the Taiwanese way of thinking about tourism; c) to enhance pride in their own;		Taiwan tourism industry specific language chunks and collocations		
Tourism planning	a) Guidelines for drawing up a product development plan b) How to market a product	a) understand sustainable tourism development; c) acquire useful language; d) develop a critical mind about language usage	a) class discussions b) EL c) TBL d) SDL	a) existing brochures b) products c) initial list of development and marketing specific language chunks and collocations	a) draw up a sustainable development plan; b) draw up a marketing plan; c) draw up group itineraries; d) design a personal brochures e) recycle language chunks and collocations	10 hrs
International tourism trade shows	a) Existing international tourism trade shows; b) useful language at trade shows	a) get equipped to represent Taiwan at international tourism trade shows	a) class discussion; b) EL c) PPP	a) list of existing international tourism trade shows; b) brochures c) initial list of trade show specific language chunks and collocations	a) visit a trade show; b) do a survey at the tradeshow	8 hrs
Guiding tourists - situated cognition	a) Guiding specific communication skills b) Guiding specific language chunks and collocations; c) Client service	a) to be equipped with knowledge and skills [esp. language skills] to interpret to English speaking tourist those USP's of Taiwan they have selected	a) SDL d)EL e)PPP	a) maps; b) initial list of guiding specific language chunks and collocations	a) compile individual itineraries; b) gather and recycle lexical chunks; c) co-guide a tour	10 hrs

Telephoning	Handle enquiries and bookings	a) to be equipped to handle English speaking tourist on the phone	a) EL	initial list of telephoning specific language chunks and collocations	a) recycle language chunks in pair work	2hrs
Finances	a) Budgets in the tourism industry; b) writing proposals for funding c) financial language chunks and collocations in the tourism industry	a) to be equipped to handle day to day financial budgets in tourist industry; b) to be equipped to handle long-term financial planning in the tourism industry	a) class discussion; b) SDL	a) Manual; b) initial list of finance specific language chunks and collocations	a)) recycle language chunks in a basic financial plan	8hrs
Influencing your community to become a lifelong learning society in the tourism industry	a) Sustainable tourism development	~ to identify ways to influence a paradigm shift in the country regarding tourism	a) SDL b) EL	a) Manual	a) attending lectures, b) discovering people and products by doing a survey in a rural area of Taiwan	12hrs

D. SELECTING APPROPRIATE METHODS AND TECHNIQUES FOR THE EFT PROGRAMME AT ITI

	lecture w discussio n	videos/ audio cassettes	class discussion	transl ation	PP P	TB L	EL	SDL	small group discussion	case studies	role play	report-back sessions	worksheets /surveys
knowledge+ understanding in context of programme	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
cognitive skills [planning + doing research, synthesise, formulate]	✓			✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
practical and professional skills		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
values + ethics	✓		✓	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓
language acquisition	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓

APPENDIX E

SUMMARY OF STUDENT PROFILE OF THOSE WHO ENROLLED FOR THE EFT PROGRAMME

[EVIDENCE GATHERED FROM QUESTIONNAIRE AND QUALITATIVE INTERVIEWS]

<u>Gender:</u>	2 males; 9 females
<u>Ages:</u>	born between 1974 - 1983
<u>Marital status:</u>	1 married
<u>Educational background:</u>	post-graduate
	degree majors: International trade [3] History Business administration Financial management Speech communication English [2] Sociology Radio and TV
<u>Work experience:</u>	8 have worked before joining the two year programme
<u>Fields of interest:</u>	travel 5 tourism 2 languages outdoor activities/sport 7 recreational activities [movies ; reading] 6 automobiles photography the arts [practicing, attending] 4 voluntary service advertising/marketing shopping 2
<u>Travel experience:</u>	countries visited: UK [3] France [3], Germany [4], Switzerland [2], Holland, Italy [2], Spain, Austria [3], Cyprus, USA [5], Canada [3], Guam, Hong Kong [4], Macao [2], Singapore [3], Malaysia [2], Thailand [8], China [5], Cambodia, Japan [8], Australia [4], South Africa [3], Indonesia [3], Korea, New Zealand, Jordan, Egypt, Israel, Turkey
<u>Family background:</u>	except in one case both parents alive and most families intact; 0-4 siblings
<u>Religious background:</u>	None [7], Buddhism [2], no specific [2]

Reason for choosing EfT: Taiwan has potential as a tourist destination
previous Tourism background / interest [2]
no confidence to speak to foreigners [4]
relatives in the industry [2]
wants to travel in Taiwan
can earn foreign exchange for Taiwan
marketing Taiwan is a challenge
natural assets of Taiwan
the subject as the better of the two options
the lecturer

APPENDIX F

SUMMARY OF QUESTIONNAIRE TO DETERMINE LEARNERS' NEEDS AND WANTS AS WELL AS THEIR LEVEL OF KNOWLEDGE OF THE TOURISM INDUSTRY

1. PERSONAL

How do you prefer to learn?

Completing given tasks?	4
portfolio compilation	3
class discussions	5
research	8
listening to a lecture/instruction	5
other.....	ROLE PLAY 1

What are your personal goals for the programme?

know how to promote Taiwan in English/to foreigners	5
learn basic knowledge about global tourism	2
to describe clearly and precisely a spot/a scenery/a city and so on	2
What should I know/get before I go travelling or when in a certain spot/city/country	
learn some tourism language	
hope to help make some improvements in Taiwan tourism	
to look into the history and information of Taiwan	3
to know the world more and know where I can travel to	
to know what foreigners want to know	
organize a trip	

What are your favourite instruction methods?

surf the net	
go to the library or bookstores	
lecture from teacher	3
watch films	
interaction	
discussion	3
complete given tasks	2
research	2
step by step	

Do you prefer to work individually, in pairs, in small groups or in larger groups?

individually	5
in pairs	3
small groups	4
larger groups	0
no preference	2

What do you think the "teacher's" role is?

assist	
give direction/guide	3
instructor	
experience provider	
coach	
adviser	2

leader	
evaluator	
prepare material	
help raise students' interest	2
share knowledge and fun with	2

What do you think the learner's role is?

meet my personal goals	
active	4
positive,	
unique,	
hard-working	
find what they are interested in	
complete assignments	
participate and learn	4
gave feedback	
understanding more about our country/try to introduce Taiwan to foreigners and tourists	2
learn things automatically	
researcher	
presenter	
activity organizer	
find out solutions by oneself	

Would you like to be assessed?

yes	8
no	3

How would you like to be assessed?

participation – Ss are responsible for their own learning	2
research performance	
as a tour guide	
individual portfolio	4
individual/private	
group portfolio	
group assessment	
assignments	2

How do you feel about your country?

small, humid, tense, sometimes uncomfortable
 very beautiful, worth visiting, getting better and better
 people are friendly
 it's an energetic country, full of hope, I love it
 good to see
 I dislike to pollution here, but am proud pf the food and friendly people here
 people are extremely friendly. We have world-class landscape but people are not environment-conscious enough
 it's beautiful pace, but not famous enough around the world
 [Taiwan or China?] Living in Taiwan really has lots of convenience
 a small beautiful island with plenty of splendid treasures to discover
 need to pour efforts in Tourism, our government should notice the importance of promoting Taiwan's tourism

2. TOURISM

Write down all you know about the Tourism industry in general.

- A country can make lots of profits if it put emphasis on its tourism; can have great impact on the world
- It is an industry combining any tourist-related resource to attract people from all over the world to come and visit.
- Furthermore,
 - visitors not only get to know the place better but spend money on it and would like to come visiting again and again.
- In Taiwan we get used to have a whole package [including accommodation, meals and flights]. Tourists don't have to research
 - in advance, because everything should have arranged by the agent.
- To give visitors a chance to experience the different cultures, foods and life styles of a place.
- People get some time from their usual schedules, travel to places different from their live, have fun, experience exotic foods and drinks, observe different cultures, scenery...
- Tourism industry contains hotels, transportation, restaurants and facilities. Each item should match together for foreigners to know the country and enjoy themselves.
- Accommodation, restaurants, cafeteria, transport [airways, bus, car], museum, park, amusement park, forests, photo shops, visiting spots, travel agency.
- Attract people to visit the country. To earn money by natural resources.
- Introduce a place to people; accommodation, transportation.
- Highly competitive industry, hard to tell the difference, influenced by economic cycle.
- A booming industry

Although academic background will be given during the programme, the focus will be on the practitioners in the Tourism industry. Who do you think they are?

- Enough knowledge to answer questions; digest the information and being able to output.
- The skills that can attract tourists' attention; tourism English, presentation and promotion skills.
- Conversation used in touring.
- Travel agency, hotel, restaurant.
- Try to promote Taiwan.
- Travel agencies.
- Guides, travel agencies, flight companies, local transportation worker, local introducers.
- People who are familiar with their cultures and like to share with others.
- People who hope to promote the industry, maybe they are the driving force.
- No idea.
- No response

According to you what is the greatest need in the Tourism industry in Taiwan? Mention as many issues as you can

- Specialist training; internationalised; transport problem should be improved.
- Nowadays we can combine Taiwan's scenery and movie/TV soap opera together to promote the beauty/spirit of Taiwan;
- How to access tourist information of different languages.
- Light meal, night-market, mountain-climbing, shopping, sight-seeing along the east coastline, drafting, fishing, National Palace Museum
- To have enough educated and trained tourism directors who can help foreigners to understand our cultures more easily.
- Respect for the natural environment, correct introduction in English, introduction in depth.
- Convenient facilities.
- Convenient public transport, clear instructions and signs for tourists, all levels of accommodation, more promotions.
- Professional tour guides, convenient transportation, reasonable price, clear signs.
- English edition instruction for foreigners, the Convenience of traffic, promotion activity.
- Not foreigner-friendly, language barriers, poor transportation except for Taipei; no professional tour guide for foreigners.
- Bilingual tour guides; public transportation; tourist information center.

3. TAIWAN

What is Taiwan's main market for foreign tourist visits?

- Taroko – Hualien – TaiDong/natural landscape 3
- National Palace Museum 2
- mountains: Jade, Yang-Ming, A-li 2
- Features Sun-Moon lake
- night-market 3
- culture: combination of East and West 2
- East of Taiwan
- North of Taiwan
- old buildings [temples]
- aboriginal cultures
- food 2
- big cities such as Taipei, Kaohsiung

What do you think visitors should experience in Taiwan?

- the beauty of nature/scenery/mountains 7
- cultural things 3
- religions
- convenience of living
- night-market/traditional market 4

food	
marine activities	
outdoor activities/mountain hiking/hiking/beaches	2
National Palace Museum	2
snacks	
West coast	
off-shore islands	

How big do you think the Tourism industry is in Taiwan?

visitors?

no comment	5
no idea	2
100 000 - 200 000	2
2 million	
very small	

revenue?

no comment	5
4 000 000 – 10 000 000 NT	2
very small	
no idea	2
20 billion NT	

Which area/s [geographic/social etc.] in Taiwan would you like to develop? Why?

no comment	2
I-lan	
Southern Taiwan	2
Eastern Taiwan	4
lack of promotion	
create more jobs stop urbanisation	
geographic area	
specific cultures [Taiwanese, Hakka, aboriginal]	2
scenery	5
lifestyle	

What so you think is the biggest need on the Tourism industry in Taiwan?

a well-organised tourism structure	2
Bilingual tour guides	2
marketing	2
English instruction	
convenient transportation	
related facilities	
environment protection	
service quality	
development of foundations	
for foreigners: translation –uniformity of translation	
no comment	1

What kind of tourism would you say is the main draw card for visitors to Taiwan?

no comment	1
different cultural things	2
beautiful scenery	3
coastline	1
small but beautiful island	1
convenient traffic and good location	1
tiny island with huge economic power	1
food	2
temples	1
mountains	1
people	1
cities	1
unique Chinese culture	1

4. FACTS

How big is Taiwan?

no comment	3
36 000 sq km	6
36 500 sq km	2
396 000sq km	1

How many counties are there?

no comment	4
21	2
18	2

26	1
19	1
35	1
Where is it situated	
no comment	2
Pacific Asia	1
East Asia	1
western part of Pacific	1
in the centre of the island chain along Asia's east coast	1
120E 23.5N	1
In the middle of the way from Russia to Australia	1
Southeast Asia	1
Southeast of China with Taiwan Strait in between	1
North East hemisphere	1
What is the oldest city in the country?	
no comment	3
Tainan	7
Keelung	1
What kind of government does Taiwan have?	
no comment	2
president	1
democracy	7
two main parties	1
How many people live here?	
no comment	2
22 m	1
more than 230m	1
23m	5
290 thousand	1
2,300 000	
Who are Taiwan's main trade partners?	
Japan	11
America	11
Mainland China	10
Mention 5 USP's [Unique Selling Propositions] of Taiwan.	
aboriginal culture	3
National Palace Museum	3
mountains/ rocks	6
specific natural spots	4
specific manmade spots	2
sunrise/sunset	2
natural beauty	3
food	5
lifestyles [24hrs convenience stores/KTV]	2
whale watching	1
people	2
convenient traffic	1
hot springs	1
traditional architecture	1
sub-tropical	1
harbour	1
cities/shopping	3
culture – Chinese opera	2
accommodation	1
night market	1
traditional events	1
Mention three topics about the history of Taiwan that you would think interesting to tourists.	
Why Mr Jiang relocated to Taiwan	
How Portuguese discovered Taiwan	
another face of Taiwan	
Dragon Taiwan	
stories of historical Taiwan/Tainan	2
historical architecture	2
temples	
Chinese herbs	
war evidence in King Men	
people travelled from China to Taiwan	3
certain events	2
aboriginal history	2
Japanese occupation	2

different colonisers
why called Taiwan/Formosa
Why are we different from China?
hot spring
off-shore islands
culture – Hakka
economic miracle

3

What would you tell tourists about Taiwan's relationship with China?

I would tell the truth [modified one]
Complex situation
Unstable. Politically separate but economically dependant.
Although Taiwan is not an independent country right now, it isn't under control of China.
Nerves balance.
Tight business relationship, different political roles.
The same roots.
We are frienemy[friend,enemy]
Political relation complicated ad we rely on them economically
Becoming closer and closer – it's not as dangerous as people think.
Democracy vs socialism [comparison]; politics; economics.

APPENDIX G. EFT AT INTERNATIONAL TRADE INSTITUTE, HSINCHU, TAIWAN – LEARNERS’ MID PROGRAMME ASSESSMENT

Please indicate by ticking as many of the following statements as you deem necessary, your thoughts about the programme:

The programme up to now

- makes sense
- has met my needs
- has taught me to think
- has opened my eyes to what is unique in Taiwan
- needs more listening exercises
- has challenged me to learn more about my own culture
- has taught me to do relevant research
- has taught me nothing
- has taught me relevant English for the Tourism industry
- bored me
- has taught me more about how foreigners think and what they need
- needs more presentation opportunities
- has challenged me to look at myself
- has challenged me to reflect
- needs less input
- has taught me about the global Tourism industry
- has taught me basic principles of conservation
- made me angry
- has taught me to plan an effective tour
- needs more speaking opportunities
- has given me enough opportunity to practice introducing sites to people
- has taught me about responsible tourism practice
- has taught me to see my own culture in a different light
- has helped me to gain confidence speaking English to foreigners
- anything else.....

H. EFT AT INTERNATIONAL TRADE INSTITUTE, HSINCHU, TAIWAN – SECOND QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS

NAME:

DATE:

Previously a survey was done in which you made some of the following statements. There has now been an intervention in the form of the English for Tourism course. How would you respond to the following now?

Please mark the appropriate block/s.

THE COURSE:

1. The following were the goals you had for the course. Which ones did you meet?

- know how to promote Taiwan in English/to foreigners
- learn basic knowledge about global tourism
- to clearly and precisely describe a spot/a scenery/a city
- what should I know/get before I go traveling
- learn some tourism language
- hope to help make some improvements in Taiwan's tourism industry
- to look into the history and information of Taiwan
- to know the world better and know where I can travel to
- to know what foreigners want to know
- organise a trip

2. Did you learn something from the course?

- Yes
- No

3. Did the course change your thinking in some areas?

- Yes
- No

4. What did you learn other than facts?

5. In what way did the course change your thinking?

TOURISM:

You said previously this is what you know about the Tourism industry in general. Now mark the two statements you agree with most.

- A country can make lots of profits if it put emphasis on its tourism; can have great impact on the world
- It is an industry combining any tourist-related resource to attract people from all over the world to come and visit. Furthermore, visitors not only get to know the place better but spend money in it and would like to come visiting again and again.
- In Taiwan we get used to have a whole package [including accommodation, meals and flights]. Tourists don't have to research in advance, because everything should have arranged by the agent.
- To give visitors a chance to experience the different cultures, foods and life styles of a place.
- People get some time from their usual schedules, travel to places different from where they live, have fun, experience exotic foods and drinks, observe different cultures, scenery...
- Tourism industry contains hotels, transportation, restaurants and facilities. Each item should match for foreigners to get to know the country and enjoy themselves.
- Accommodation, restaurants, cafeteria, transport [airways, bus, car], museum, park, amusement park, forests, photo shops, visiting spots, travel agency.
- Attract people to visit the country. To earn money by natural resources.
- Introduce a place to people; accommodation, transportation.
- Highly competitive industry, hard to tell the difference, influenced by economic cycle.
- A booming industry.

Mark the two you agree with least.

- A country can make lots of profits if it put emphasis on its tourism; can have great impact on the world
- It is an industry combining any tourist-related resource to attract people from all over the world to come and visit. Furthermore, visitors not only get to know the place better but spend money in it and would like to come visiting again and again.
- In Taiwan we get used to have a whole package [including accommodation, meals and flights]. Tourists don't have to research in advance, because everything should have arranged by the agent.
- To give visitors a chance to experience the different cultures, foods and life styles of a place.
- People get some time from their usual schedules, travel to places different from where they live, have fun, experience exotic foods and drinks, observe different cultures, scenery...
- Tourism industry contains hotels, transportation, restaurants and facilities. Each item should match for foreigners to get to know the country and enjoy themselves.
- Accommodation, restaurants, cafeteria, transport [airways, bus, car], museum, park, amusement park, forests, photo shops, visiting spots, travel agency.
- Attract people to visit the country. To earn money by natural resources.
- Introduce a place to people; accommodation, transportation.
- Highly competitive industry, hard to tell the difference, influenced by economic cycle.
- A booming industry.

TAIWAN:

You have an uncle who lives in a rural aboriginal community not far from one of Taiwan's best USPs. He has spoken to you about his dream of prosperity for his community through tourism. It has become clear to you that his community doesn't know what the Tourism industry is all about. You have to write a short letter to him telling him that you can see that there is potential in that community, but that you are aware of some of the pitfalls of the Tourism industry.

What follows is taken from a list of opinions you and your classmates had about Tourism in Taiwan. Not all of the statements are true or even relevant. Select those that you think would support your case and use them as arguments to either persuade or dissuade your uncle to pursue the tourism dream for his community.

“ Taiwan has potential as a tourist destination and the industry can earn foreign exchange for Taiwan. As a small beautiful island with plenty of splendid treasures to discover, Taiwan has many natural assets and certainly is worth visiting. It is an energetic country, full of hope and we are getting better and better at handling the demands of the industry.

Yet there are some challenges. It's beautiful place, but not famous enough around the world, so marketing Taiwan is a challenge.

We have a world-class landscape but people are not environment-conscious enough.

I dislike the pollution here, but am proud of the food and friendly people here – indeed people are extremely friendly.

We need to sell our aboriginal cultures, our unique food and festivals. We have a heritage to talk about.

A recent survey about the needs of the tourism industry in Taiwan has yielded the following results: The biggest need [73%] was seen as improving the standard of English in an effort to remove the language barrier on signboards, brochures and in the service industry. A well-organised tourism structure and the improvement of public transport were mentioned by 55% of the participants. Bilingual professional tour guides and more marketing as well as more creative marketing efforts were seen as needed by 46%. 18% mentioned cultivating environmental respect and protection. English instruction and specialist training, internationalisation, improving the service quality and convenient facilities [for example all levels of accommodation], and reasonable prices were also mentioned.”

ENGLISH:

Please correct the following parts of existing brochures: (some need no correction)

1. Matsu Festival has been started since the period of the Emperor Sian-fong (1851-1861 A.D.) in Cing dynasty. It is held once per three years. This festival in Taiwan is the biggest festival.
2. The dragon boat races has been started since the period of the Emperor Cian-long (1736-1795 A.D.) in Cing dynasty. It is the biggest festival in summer.
3. From May the weather of Tainan is going to become summer. It is the hottest weather in July and August. There is very little difference in temperature between day and night. The annual average temperature is 23 C. the rainy season is from May to October.
4. In the early years of Chiayi's development many temples were built here to honor Mazu, Goddess of the Sea, who was the primary protective deity for the immigrants crossing the stormy Taiwan Straits. Experts have determined that the Mazu image worshipped here is from the late Ming dynasty, and is thus more than three centuries old.
5. The scale of the festival has been steadily enlarged in recent years, with interesting new events and eco-tourism activities, and it has attracted growing numbers of tourists.
6. The first stop upon arriving Lugang must be the Tainhou Temple (Mazu Temple) that is always full of incense from pious believers. This temple holds the statue of Mazu, which was crafted under the orders of Kangxi during the Qing Dynasty and was shipped all the way to Taiwan. The temple also holds poetry, wall painting, and exquisite temple architecture from Yongzhen.