# LEARNING STRATEGIES AND MATERIALS SELECTION IN THE ENGLISH FOR TOURISM CLASSROOM: A STUDY OF LEARNING STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY LEARNERS IN THE BRITISH CONTEXT, WITH CONSIDERATION OF IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLISHED MATERIALS SELECTION.

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In Memory of Ms. Jau-Feng Hsu, the past head of library at Eastern Junior College of Technology and Commerce, in Taiwan.

#### Abstract

There are two enquiries undertaken in this work which is an investigation of learning strategies employed by students of English for Tourism in the British context, and an evaluation of textbooks already used for teaching this programme in Taiwan and relevant ones published in the United Kingdom. It is hoped that this work will have direct implications for pedagogy and learning processes of the English for Tourism programme in the Taiwanese context.

This thesis is made up of four parts. The first part is Chapter 1 which investigates general broad backgrounds in the Taiwanese context. It also deals with the debate on the improvement of English language teaching in this context. It further discusses how this context relates to this work.

The second part includes Chapters 2, 3, and 4, offering the theoretical framework on which an empirical research and a desk-based study of textbooks are based. Chapter 2 primarily examines the features of English for Tourism by taking account of the general key issues of ESP relevant to needs analysis, content and language, and methodology, and the specific crucial issues in relation to the target situation in the tourism industry, tourism education and training, and cultural content. It further postulates that communicative language teaching and learning strategies are closely relevant to the efficiency of ESP teaching. These are defined and explored in depth in Chapters 3 and 4 respectively.

The third part consists of an empirical research and a desk-based study (Chapters 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9). Chapter 5 discusses research methodology indicating that a qualitative approach has been preferred to a quantitative approach. The empirical research will be based on participant observations (Chapter 6) and semi-structured interviews (Chapter 7). It will be followed by a desk-based study of textbooks (Chapter 9). Chapters 6 and 7 are mainly descriptive. Chapter 8 interprets the major findings of this empirical research, discusses the issues they raise and goes on to suggest improvements to the pedagogy and learning processes in the Taiwanese context. It indicates that social strategies and social interaction both

inside and outside the classroom are the most significant factors for learning processes. It suggests furthermore that a combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches is essential for the effective English for Tourism syllabuses and methodologies in the Taiwanese context. Chapter 9 is a desk-based study of textbooks to evaluate and select appropriate and useful textbook for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

The final part is Chapter 10. This chapter reviews the principal themes in the preceding chapters, and offers principles of approach which guide the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

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#### Introduction

#### **Statement of Intention**

This work aims to contribute to the development of relevant theory and to the teaching and learning of ESP programmes concerned with English for Tourism. An overall theoretical framework is followed by two enquiries. One explores learning strategies, and the other looks into the relevant published textbooks. Findings are then used to make suggestions for a pedagogy and learning processes in the Taiwanese setting.

#### **Research Questions**

The general questions which guide this work are as follows:

1. What can we learn from studying learners' strategies in learning needs in the British context?

2. What should be appropriate materials for teaching and learning English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context?

3. What should be the principles of approach which guide the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context?

#### **Explanations of Terms**

\* ESP (English for Specific Purposes) and GPE (English for General Purposes) are contrasted terms. ESP is designed to meet the specific needs of learners (Strevens 1988; Richards, Platt and Platt 1995; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). It includes English for occupational purposes (e.g. English for Tourism) or English for academic purposes (e.g. English for Economics). It will be argued that the ESP classroom should be supported by a communicative approach. On the other hand, GPE aims to teach general language proficiency (Richards, Platt and Platt 1995). In the past, in practice GPE has often turned into TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason) (Carver 1983) which adopts a nonspecific and noncommunicative approach. However, today, many GPE courses also refer to communicative methodology (Cunningsworth 1995; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998) (see Chapter 2 below).

\* English for Tourism, which is a branch of ESP, is designed for trainees and employees to work in all areas of the tourism industry. The features of English for Tourism are examined in Chapter 2 below.

\* Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) is an approach to language learning or language teaching. It is learner-centred rather than teacher-centred. The role of the teacher is to be a facilitator rather than an authority. The learners take responsibility for their own learning and develop learning strategies for reaching the goal of communicative competence rather than only grammatical competence (see Chapter 3 below).

\* 'Learning strategies' help language learners to learn and communicate more effectively when they have communication or learning needs or difficulties. In this work, the term, 'learning strategies' is defined with a broad view which includes not only internal resources within the learners themselves (e.g. mental, physical, affective or social behaviors, actions or plans), but also external resources (e.g. books, teachers, radio, and television) suggested by Wang (1992). Furthermore the whole context, both inside and outside the classroom is also considered (see Chapter 4).

\* 'Students' and 'learners' are used interchangeably in this thesis. In Chapters 6,

7, and 8 below the students or learners were the subjects to be investigated.

\* L1 means the mother tongue, and L2, the second, foreign or target language.

#### The Research Explorations

As already stated earlier, there are two enqiries undertaken in this work. The first portion of the two research explorations investigates how fifteen learners of English for Tourism developed effective learning strategies to help themselves to adjust inside and outside of the English for Tourism communicative classroom in the British context. The learners chosen to be studied through participant observation and semistructured interviews were students at Westminster College in London. This is the only empirical research project undertaken in the whole work. Research methodology for this empirical research will be discussed in Chapter 5.

The second part of the research explorations is a desk-based study of relevant published textbooks. Both the textbooks which have already been used in Taiwan and those which have been published recently in the United Kingdom will be evaluated to decide whether or not they are useful or appropriate for teaching English for Tourism in Taiwan. The desk-based study of textbooks will be undertaken in Chapter 9.

#### **Overview of the Thesis**

This thesis has four main parts. Part I (Chapter 1) starts with the investigation of social, historical, economic, political and educational backgrounds in the Taiwanese context. The need for debate on a communicative approach to English language teaching in a traditional Confucian Chinese setting and education philosophy in order to improve English language teaching is discussed. In addition, how this context relates to this work is considered.

Part II includes three chapters (Chapter 2, 3 and 4). This part provides the theoretical framework on which an empirical research and a desk-based study of textbooks are based. Chapter 2 begins by introducing the historical development of ESP. It mainly explores the features of English for Tourism by taking into account the general key issues of ESP relevant to needs analysis, content and language, and methodology, and the specific essential issues in relation to the target situation in the tourism industry, tourism education and training, and cultural content. Furthermore the communicative approach and learning strategies are posited to be closely relevant to the efficiency of ESP teaching. The aims for teaching English for Tourism are also proposed. Chapter 3 discusses the historical background of a communicative approach. A notional-functional approach is suggested as the basis for an ESP communicative syllabus, modified by taking a task-based approach into

account. The notions of CLT and communicative competence are explored. Moreover, discourse competence and strategic competence are argued to be the most significant and essential components of communicative competence to ensure fluency or effective communication. Chapter 4 outlines a definition with a broad view and features of learning strategies. Then, the research history of good language learning strategies is examined. Furthermore, three stages of second language acquisition are discussed and questioned.

Part III consists of an empirical research (Chapters 5, 6, 7 and 8) and a desk-based study (Chapter 9). In Chapter 5, research methodology indicates that a qualitative approach has been preferred to a quantitative approach for this empirical research. This empirical research will be based on participant observations (Chapter 6) and semi-structured interviews (Chapter 7). Chapters 6 and 7 are mainly descriptive. Chapter 6 concentrates on the description of classroom observations. It describes first of all some parameters of the ESP classroom. One Japanese learner, Keiko, and one Spanish learner, Sara, are the main focus of this empirical study for investigating whether or not learners from varied cultural backgrounds developed learning strategies in different ways and at different rates. Chapter 7 is concerned with the descriptions of interviews. First of all, it provides biographies of Sara and Keiko who progress from almost zero communicative competence to effective communication in English by picking up more appropriate learning strategies. It further illustrates the fifteen interviewees' learning strategies. The chapter focuses mainly on investigating how these learners overcome their difficulties in developing their learning strategies in order to make the transition from grammar-translation learning experiences to the communicative classroom.

Chapter 8 discusses the major findings of this empirical research and four key issues raised from these findings, and endeavours to develop the implications for English for Tourism teaching and learning in the Taiwanese context. It furthermore suggests a combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches to promote the effectiveness of teaching and learning this area in the Taiwanese context. In addition, the overall key points drawn from this empirical research and

the combination model will be considered for the accompanying desk-based study of textbooks in Chapter 9. In this chapter, some criteria will be drawn up to enquire into what is the appropriate textbook for teaching English for Tourism. Textbooks already used for teaching this programme in the Taiwanese context and those relevant ones published in the United Kingdom will be reviewed.

The final part is Chapter 10. This chapter draws together the theories and data from preceding chapters and offers the implications for pedagogy and principles of approach for the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. It also makes recommendations for further research.

#### **Chapter 1**

# English Language Teaching in the Chinese Context, Focusing on Taiwan (Republic of China)

#### **1.1 Introduction**

Chinese learning for morality and Western learning for utility. (A Chinese saying; see Law 1994: 15)

In this work, it is issues about language teaching related to tourism in contemporary Taiwan that are of the central interest. The tourism industry has become one of the most important aspects in the Taiwanese government's economic development policy. Since 1976 the annual number of tourists from abroad has increased to more than one million (in Su 1993, author's translation). Thus employees working in the tourism industry are expected to be able to communicate with speakers of English effectively. Against this background, it is indispensable to equip students of English for Tourism to be capable of handling effective communication in L2. To help students to attain the goal of communicative competence, it seems reasonable to postulate that the programmes of English for Tourism should adopt a communicative approach.

Nonetheless, a traditional Chinese classroom is rooted in Confucian philosophy. Even in modern Chinese society, teaching and learning are still influenced by Confucianism (Huang 1994). Many limitations in the traditional learning and teaching methods have been pointed out by many authors cited below. However, today Taiwan has been transformed from an agricultural society to an industrial and commercial one, and from a self-sustaining economy to one which depends on international trade. That is, present-day Chinese society is different from that of Confucius. Although Confucianism maintains social harmony, strengthens morality, and regulates kinships, it does not serve the needs of modern society in a more direct and practical way. Therefore this traditional educational system has been questioned, challenged and debated, because of its neglect of practical knowledge and skills (Ting 1987; Shen 1990; Law 1994). However, Chinese students who have been used to traditional Confucian education may not take easily to a communicative approach (Rao 1996). The interest in this work is to try to find alternatives to the Confucian philosophy and the difficulties in using a communicative approach in the Confucian system of education in Taiwan.

Here it is necessary to state that the People's Republic of China (PRC or China) and the Republic of China (ROC or Taiwan) have different official political ideologies and value systems. The PRC accepts the communism of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and opposes the capitalism of the United States. The ROC, on the contrary, supports capitalism and combats communism. Nevertheless, both of them have common historical roots in Confucianism (Law 1994). Therefore literature related to the traditional English language teaching and learning in China grounded in Confucianism is relevant to Taiwan, and vice versa. In this chapter, the term 'Chinese students' can mean students in Taiwan and in China.

In this chapter, firstly, social, historical, economic, political and educational backgrounds in Taiwan will be presented. Secondly, the debate on the improvement of English language teaching will be discussed. Finally, how the current background in Taiwan relates to this work will be considered.

# **1.2 Social, Historical, Economic, Political and Educational Backgrounds in** the Taiwanese Context

In 1895 Taiwan was ceded to Japan as a result of the Sino-Japanese War (1894-95). During the colonial phase (1895-1945), only limited numbers of Taiwanese were able to have higher education in a limited number of subjects, for instance, medicine and basic technology. Subjects such as law, literature, politics and philosophy were considered to be dangerous to the colonial rule of Japan. During that period, the Japanese government did not want to develop higher education in Taiwan becasue they were afraid that this would inspire rebellion. In fact, their colonial policy was to industrialise Japan and to agriculturalise Taiwan (Tsurumi 1977; see Shen 1990).

However, during the Japanese occupation of Taiwan, Taiwanese girls were accepted for education and became as enthusiastic as their brothers in sports, e.g. swimming, tennis, track and field athletics. This policy was very different from that of ancient Chinese society in which females were never supported or encouraged to have public education or sports. In addition, the Japanese government encouraged the Taiwanese to give up the custom of binding women's feet which had been a practice common in China since the Sung dynasty (960-1126) (see Tsurumi 1977). These measures during the Japanese occupation were a crucial first step for women's liberation in Taiwan and made a significant contribution to the changing status of Taiwanese women.

In 1945, after the Second World War, Taiwan was returned to the Republic of China (ROC). Nearly 30,000 Japanese technical, managerial and professional personnel left Taiwan after the ROC took over Taiwan. In 1949 because of the upheaval and turmoil caused by Chinese communists, the government of ROC had to move to Taiwan with 1.6 million people. Even though a group of trained and experienced professionals moved from China to Taiwan, Taiwan still encountered a great shortage of highly qualified manpower. The government of ROC realised and acknowledged this urgent need for educated manpower (Li 1988; Shen 1990). The constitution of the Republic of China stipulates that all children (both males and females), without sex discrimination, are required to take fundamental (compulsory) education with free tuition. At the same time, government policies have been initiated to expand higher education in Taiwan (Li 1988; Shen 1990). Since 1968, fundamental education has been extended from six to nine years (Education Statistics of the Republic of China 1994).

The population of Taiwan increased so rapidly, that production was inadequate and the government budget deficient, and inflation soon followed. In this very awkward situation, the United States started to provide economic aid to Taiwan from 1950 (Li 1988; Wu 1985). This may be one of the reasons why American English rather than any other variety of English as a foreign language is taught in the Taiwanese education system.

In the 1960s and 1970s, Taiwan achieved a high rate of economic growth and was transformed from an agricultural to an industrial economy (Shen 1990). In 1965, the government of the USA ended economic aid because Taiwan's domestic savings increased (Li 1988). Before 1971, the ROC (Taiwan) was recognised as the legitimate government of China in the United Nations. After 1971 the PRC (China) took over from the ROC and represented 'China' in the United Nations. Since then, such countries as the US, Japan, and South Korea, the ROC's former allies, have developed diplomatic relationships with the PRC (Law 1994). At the same time, the PRC has purposely discouraged diplomatic relationships between Taiwan and other countries. Thus Taiwan has become more politically and geographically isolated than ever.

Lacking government-to-government diplomatic relationships with many other countries, in the 1970s, the Taiwanese government strengthened the policy to encourage the Taiwanese to be in contact with the rest of the world, establish people-to-people international friendships, and develop international trade. Special attention is paid to the enhancement of the tourism industry, though the opening up of international markets to welcome tourists from abroad started as early as 1956. Since 1976, the annual number of tourists from overseas has increased to over one million. In 1979, the Taiwanese government began to open the gate to let the Taiwanese travel abroad as they liked. This was the beginning of a new era in Taiwanese history in which the government has started to shift from a single to a dual approach to the international market in the tourism industry. In 1982, the tourism industry was listed as one of the most important aspects of the Taiwanese government's economic development policy (in Su 1993, author's translation).

There are great potentialities to develop the tourism industry in Taiwan. Taiwan is a small island (approximately 240 miles from north to south, and 90 miles from east to west), located 696 miles south of Japan and 199 miles north of Luzon, the large northern part of the Philippine archipelago (see Tsurumi 1977). Although its natural resources are limited, it is famous for its beautiful scenery as its old name, Formosa, 'beautiful', suggests. Under the support and encouragement from the government, many people have invested in and contributed to the tourism industry. There are increasing numbers of modern and comfortable hotels, and more advertising to attract international tourists and local people to travel inland. In addition, to the modernisation of Taiwan, at the same time, there is an attempt to retain the traditional cultural and historical heritage (Su 1993, author's translation). Because of its well organised transportation, accommodation and special geographical location, it is convenient to reach and internal travel is easy. Both government and people constantly take advantage of these potentialities to advance the tourism industry in Taiwan towards a more promising future in the 21st century.

In this modern world, the Taiwanese government has put more emphasis on education in order to find a more effective and better way to promote economic growth, international trade, and the modernisation of Taiwan. This has been shown by Dr. Ding-Huey Lee, the first popularly elected president of the R.O.C. He stressed the significance of innovation in education for moving Taiwan towards modernisation and internationalisation in his speech at the inauguration ceremony on 20 May, 1996 (author's translation from 20 May 1996 Central Daily News). Meanwhile, the new Taiwanese government has become more aware of the crucial role that English plays in the internationalisation and modernisation of the country. In the past, English language education was compulsory, starting with secondary school Taiwanese students. Since 1997, a new government policy has enforced the teaching of English in the primary school. In short, the new Taiwanese government has resorted to education, especially English language education, to support all sorts of development.

It is expected that English language education can help to increase communication with the rest of world, establish international friendships and diplomatic relationships, enrich knowledge of science and technologies, and improve international trade, especially in the tourism industry. For meeting the requirements of the modern world, the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (e.g. English for Business, English for Science and Technologies, and English for Tourism) has been offered in almost all commercial and technological senior high schools, junior colleges and universities in Taiwan.

However, it has often been found that reading skills are emphasised most in English language education. Consequently, reading skills help students in Taiwan to receive Western science and technologies, and Western ideologies. Accordingly, Taiwan has become a more modernised and highly technological country.

Because of the influence of Western ideologies, Chinese women know better how to achieve equal rights and fight for equal higher education and employment opportunities in contemporary Taiwan. Thus Taiwanese women have become part of the well educated human resources in this modern society, especially in the tourism industry, and contribute their knowledge and abilities to promote the economic growth and modernisation of Taiwan. They will never again suffer the bondage and torture of footbinding and be locked in an ivory tower as their ancestors experienced in China for more than one thousand years. Thus English language education, especially for specific purposes, plays an important role in moving Taiwan towards being a more modernised, internationalised and democratic country.

In addition to reading skills, knowledge of grammar is always the focus in the written examinations including entrance examinations for higher education. To help students to succeed in examinations for getting access to higher education, teachers focus on teaching English grammar and translating the English textbooks with the help of L1. In short, English instruction is still grammar- and examination-oriented. Consequently, speaking and listening skills are often not given sufficient

attention. Thus it is common that even university students are unable to handle English fluently to communicate with people. As Huang (1994) has pointed out, Taiwanese students are not ready to learn and improve their communication skills within the workplace. They are not even able to manage a simple conversation, such as how to order a drink, despite having studied for several years. In a similar way, Pan (1991) points out that in Taiwan, speaking seems to be the weakest part of English teaching. According to Pan, after several years of receiving English instruction, Taiwanese students are still unable to say much more than 'how are you?' when they have the opportunity to converse with English speakers.

It seems that there is a need for a change in the underlying approach to meet the immediate needs of present-day society. Many studies reviewed below share this argument and lead the debate on the improvement of English language teaching in the whole Chinese context.

#### **1.3 The Debate on the Improvement of English Language Teaching**

Chinese learning and teaching methods have been much discussed. Ting (1987) argues that there should be a change in the fundamental approach. Foreign language teaching in China should be reformed and modernised by adopting Western methodologies and educational thought. According to Ting's view point, learner-centred, practice-centred, and skill-development-centred methods suggest a warm interpersonal relationship in the classroom. At the same time, the teacher plays the role of a helper or facilitator and the learners feel free to use the target language to communicate, make errors and correct their own errors in communication. Ting (ibid) further suggests that a communicative approach to target language teaching in content subjects will be closer to how the language will be used by the students in their future work, and will be a more direct and practical way to meet the needs of society. The author argues that in Chinese society, it is crucial to remove the three Confucian centrednesses--focuses on the teacher, the textbook, and grammar.

Nevertheless, Rao (1996) finds difficulties in using the communicative approach. According to this author, his Chinese students considered the communicative approach ridiculous and inappropriate and refused to sit in a circle, speak to each other and participate in playing communication games. At the same time, they persisted in attending lectures, intensive reading, grammar learning and taking traditional examinations. Although a communicative approach seems to be closer to answer the needs of modern society, we cannot ignore the difficulties that Chinese students may encounter, and worse than that, they may even reject CLT. Two issues below which Rao (ibid) raises seem important for language teachers to consider when they adopt a communicative approach:

Do we have to do away with the traditional grammar-translation method completely to teach our students English communicative skills? Supposing we do need classroom interaction in English acquisition, what measures should Chinese teachers take to facilitate interaction in Englishlanguage classrooms?

(ibid: 459)

Harvey (1985: 185) finds that 'understanding the grammatical framework of a language is externely important for some learners, often especially so for speakers of very different languages.' The author (ibid) suggests that it would do no harm if the teacher offers explanations of some English grammar points to Chinese learners. By so doing, learners would know and understand the system and then use English more effectively. Harvey (1985: 186) argues that Chinese learning or teaching methods are deeply rooted in 'historical, pedagogic, psychological' factors and cannot be deemed 'primitive', 'old fashioned', or 'misguided'. Scovel (1983) comments:

I believe that the Chinese traditional interest in intensive study of language structures can be wedded with the more modern concern of acquiring rapid communicative skills if we concentrate on linking specific linguistic structures with more general communicative goals.

(ibid: 85)

White (1989) suggests that in order to motivate students to learn through a more communicative approach, it is important to consider their familar learning styles. Huang (1994) states that the concept of English language education in Taiwan has also been influenced by Confucianism. She (ibid) suggests:

If we can seek out a balanced point between the tradition and modern (since both Oriental and Western ideologies are relevant in this context), a merge of CLT and Chinese education philosophy may help to establish some success in English language teaching in Taiwan.

(ibid: 50)

Thus, Scovel (1983), Harvey (1985), White (1989), Huang (1994) and Rao (1996) argue the significance of negotiating a communicative approach with a traditional Chinese setting or education philosophy in considering Chinese students' difficulties with a communicative approach. This debate is worth noting and is part of the background to this work.

#### 1.4. The Current Background in Taiwan to This Work

English is a foreign language in Taiwan. However, there are still many opportunties for Taiwanese students to learn to use the target language. For instance, there are many tourists, businessmen, missionaries from abroad travelling and working in Taiwan. There are also a wide range of radio and television stations, such as BCC (Broadcasting Corporation of China), ICRT (International Community Radio Taipei) and the Educational Radio Station, and ORTI (Overseas Radio and Television Inc) which offer English programmes. ORTI also provides activities of 'Studio Classroom' involving discussions with Americans and offers two ELT magazines, 'Let Us Talk in English' and 'Studio Classroom' for studying English. There are also a number of international clubs, for example, Toastmasters' International Club, and International Women's Club. The author's students made good progress after joining activities outside the classroom, such as the Kaohsiung Toastmasters' International Club and the activities of 'Studio Classroom'. It seems crucial to look at the whole context of learning, both inside and outside the classroom.

During the author's three-year experience of teaching English for Tourism and discussions with ESP teachers at other junior colleges in Taiwan, some common problems of teaching English for Tourism in the classroom at junior colleges have been identified. There are around 50 students in a class. In fact, too many students in a class is a common Taiwanese problem from primary school to university. Further, two hours each week for English for Tourism is too limited for ESP students to develop communication skills.

In addition, the content of teaching materials or courses is too simple or not relevant for English for Tourism. As Kuo (1993) pointed out, in Taiwan, many ESP textbooks are too easy, uninteresting and insufficient for specific needs. In fact, the problematic issues raised from ESP teaching materials seem universal. As Kennedy and Bolitho (1984) note:

Most of the materials and courses available were appropriate for those coming to the study of the language for the first time, were suitable for younger learners and were written as "general" English courses. A gap in materials had to be filled for these specific purpose learners. (ibid: 2)

Moreover, teachers dominate the whole of the teaching time. Students in the ESP programmes are passive participants and learners. They mainly use rote-memory strategies rather than creative and critical thinking to learn grammatical rules and specialised vocabulary. Social interaction is generally ignored. Thus listening and speaking skills are not taken into much account.

Therefore it seems vital for ESP teachers in Taiwan to consider some of the issues as follows: what should be the appropriate methodology and materials for the effectiveness of ESP teaching and learning? How can we adopt a communicative approach in the traditional educational system? What difficulties may the students encounter or what learning strategies may they need to develop in order to cope with a new, communicative approach in Taiwan?

This work arises from an interest in teaching English for Tourism to the students of the Tourism Department at a junior college in Taiwan, where the writer has worked professionally for some years. To understand this problem fully, it is necessary to appreciate the reasons for the need for English in the Taiwanese context and to the understanding of some of the debates about Chinese education which have motivated this work. Part of the background concerns the economic changes in Taiwan which relate to wanting to make contact with the Western world and its technologies, and to develop the tourism industry. However, this has also led to pressure being placed on the old Confucian education system which recognises authority and grammar translation, and maybe is ill equipped to meet the challenge in front of it. At this point it is worth noting that this is a topic of lively debate among Chinese scholars. It is necessary to make a contribution to this debate in order to illuminate the learning of English in the Taiwanese setting. The interest of this work, however, is in looking once again at what happens when learning a language for tourism and in looking into the relevant published textbooks.

The programme of English for Tourism at Westminster College in London was chosen for this empirical research. The reasons for doing research here are that both English for Tourism and a communicative approach are the areas of the author's interest. The programme at Westminster College is taught by a communicative approach. All the learners in this study have been used to a grammar-translation method. It is possible from this research to derive ideas that help in understanding how students make the transition from the traditional education system to a communicative classroom. At the same time, it is valuable to note what English learning is like when it is part of an accommodation to a whole new culture. The study will focus on learners' strategies and is intended to serve a dual purpose. That is, to contribute to general understanding about language learning and furnish evidence of particular relevance to teaching English for Tourism for the Taiwanese context.

Following up this empirical research, the textbooks already used for teaching English for Tourism in Taiwan, and the relevant ones currently published in the United Kingdom, were selected to be evaluated. The purpose of the textbook evaluation is to decide which books are appropriate and suitable for teaching this area in the Taiwanese setting, and explore how the principles of approach to teaching English for Tourism are followed in the textbooks, and how far they are in touch with and justify modern perspectives.

#### 1.5 Summary

Utilitarian values and purposes are appreciated in modern industrial and commercial Taiwan. This explains why ESP programmes have played an important role in Taiwanese education. At the same time, this shows that a communicative approach (Western methodologies) rather than traditional Chinese learning and teaching methods serves the needs of this modern society in a direct and practical way. Nonetheless, with all the influences of traditional thinking, Chinese students may not take easily to a communicative approach. Considering Chinese students' difficulties, needs and skills, the debate about improvement of language teaching in the Chinese context has been discussed at great length.

In order to improve the learning and teaching of English in the Taiwanese setting, it is important to make a contribution to this debate and obtain some evidence relevant to a communicative approach to teaching and learning English. This work aims to explore such an approach. It includes an investigation of the difficulties of students who have been taught by a grammar-translation method when they try to adjust to the demands of interaction inside and outside the communicative classroom in the UK. At the same time, published textbooks used in Taiwan and published in the UK will be evaluated. In addition, the principles of approach for guiding the effectiveness of teaching and learning English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context with the modern perspectives will be considered. The researcher's personal experience as a teacher of English for Tourism at a junior college in Taiwan will be broadly reflected in many aspects of this work.

The next chapter will discuss issues in teaching English for Tourism with the modern perspective. It will begin to provide the theoretical background of this work.

### **Chapter 2**

# **Issues in Teaching English for Tourism**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This thesis is concerned with English for Tourism, a branch of ESP, a term commonly used for 'English for Specific Purposes' in the ESP literature today. In order to identify the nature and characteristics of English for Tourism, this chapter will primarily discuss the general key issues of ESP relevant to needs analysis, content and language, and methodology and the crucial specific issues in relation to the target situation in the tourism industry, tourism education and training and cultural content .

This work will adopt the current view of needs analysis described by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998). However, it is especially concerned with understanding 'learning needs' in depth by investigating learners' learning strategies (see Chapters 6, 7 and 8). At the same time, it also gives special attention to 'the target situation needs' by looking into the specific content and methodology that will be required in the target situation (see below in section 2.5 of this chapter).

In this chapter it will be argued that subject matter is not the centre of the programme of English for Tourism. Content covers much more than subject matter. In addition to content, methodology and language should also be taken seriously into account. Here it should be mentioned that Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) make the distinction between carrier content and real content. According to them, carrier content is relevant to subject matter whilst real content is the language or skill content.

This chapter firstly discusses the historical background. Secondly, it describes all types of ESP. Thirdly, it further discusses the issues raised from a definition of ESP. Following that it continues to explore some other issues in order to offer a definition for English for Tourism, and finally, deals with issues of ESP teaching and principles of teaching English for Tourism in Taiwan.

#### 2.2 Historical Background of ESP

The acronym ESP first emerged in the late 1960s and since that time interest in ESP teaching has grown quickly and has achieved attention and importance in the field of language teaching (Howatt 1984; McDonough 1984; Hutchinson and Waters 1987). It might seem that ESP teaching is a recent innovation. Nonetheless, Howard (in Harding 1998) takes a look at the history of the tourism industry, and comments that the tourist of today is not very different from those of the Greeks, nearly 3,000 years ago. He also acknowledges that the Olympic Games of 776 BC were the first international tourist event for which people travelled from many countries to watch and participate. Therefore it seems reasonable to accept the fact that the study of language for specific purposes has had its long history which might go back as far as the Roman and Greek Empires. (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

Though much later, Strevens (1977: 150; see Robinson 1980: 15) also states that SP-LT (Special-Purpose Language Teaching) has its long history, for instance, 1576 is the date of the first phrase book for foreign tourists and 'German for science students' was the earliest form of SP-LT, though without indicating any dates.

There are three main reasons for the importance of ESP within the Teaching of English as a Second or Foreign Language movement since the 1960s: firstly, in order to transform from agricultural societies to industrial ones and to develop modernisation, many developing countries, especially in Asia, made efforts to learn and adopt advanced Western technology and science around the 1960s. This is the case in Taiwan. Accordingly, this is also the reason that 'EST' (English for Science and Technology) has become a major branch of ESP since 1960s. At that time, English had already become the international language for various kinds of purposes almost everywhere in the world (Mackay and Mountford 1978; Kennedy and Bolitho 1984; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

In more recent years, due to the growth of international trade and the internationalisation of business, a new generation has learned the language to be able to, for instance, conduct negotiations, discuss contracts, promote sales and deal with commercial difficulties. Business English courses have been in strong demand, to help learners to develop their communication skills in this area(Strevens 1977; Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

Secondly, Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 8) acknowledge that 'new developments in educational psychology also contributed to the rise of ESP, by emphasising the central importance of the learners and their attitudes to learning (e.g. Rodgers 1969).' An English course relevant to their needs would improve their motivation and make learning better and faster (Hutchinson and Waters 1987). Awareness of learners' needs has been an important factor in the growth of ESP. Thus ESP is related to the global trend towards 'learner-centred' education (Strevens 1977; Mackay and Mountford 1978; Kennedy and Bolitho 1984; Zughoul and Hussein 1985).

Thirdly, new developments in linguistics concerned with specific needs also bring the emergence of all ESP. Traditionally, linguistics aimed to describe the rules of English usage. Widdowson (1978; see Richards, Platt and Platt 1995) has made a distinction between language usage (the language system) and language use (the system of communication). According to the author (ibid: 19), 'the teaching of usage does not appear to guarantee a knowledge of use.' It has been argued that the teaching of grammar was insufficient to those who needed to use English for their work. Thus not only grammatical structures, but also functions should greatly influence ESP programmes. A revolution in linguistics has been required to shift from language usage to the use of language in real communication (Widdowson 1978; Kennedy and Bolitho 1984; Hutchinson and Waters 1987). Thus language is used, for instance, to communicate with people and have things done, describe and explain facts. At the same time, it is important to be aware of the differences between, for instance, the English of commerce and that of science. Therefore Hutchinson and Waters (ibid: 8) point out the guideline of ESP: 'Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need'.

This historical background of ESP indicates why ESP has become an important branch of English language teaching in the modern world. To understand what ESP is, it is important to know types of ESP.

#### 2.3 Types of ESP

ESP has generally been divided into two main types, EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EOP (English for Occupational Purposes), according to whether learners require English for academic study needs or for work-related needs (Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Robinson 1991; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). The 'ESP family tree' is presented as follows by Robinson (1991: 3):



The distinction in such courses must be made according to three phases: pre-, inor post-study or experience, depending on the students' stage of study or work. As we shall see, this also applies to choosing textbooks (see Chapter 9). These differences are crucial for they will influence the degree of generality or specificity that is suitable to the course. Students who are experienced and qualified in the field need to operate in English, and students who are completely new to the field may need some instruction in the relevant concepts and practices (Kennedy and Bolitho 1984; Robinson 1991; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

EAP dominated early ESP work. The materials produced, the courses designed and the research carried out were mainly in the area of EAP, especially in EST (English for Science and Technology) (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). Thus it is easy to gain the impression that EST and ESP are synonymous (Kennedy and Bolitho 1984; Hutchinson and Waters 1987). In fact, EST is simply a major branch of ESP. English for Medical Studies, English for Psychology, English for Economics have had their place in EAP. In recent years, the academic study of business, finance, banking, economics, and accounting, especially, MBA (Masters in Business and Administration) has become increasingly important in the area of EAP. EAP courses often have a study skills component (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

EOP differs from EAP because EOP is related to professional rather than academic purposes, involving administration, law, medicine, and business, and vocational purposes. Thus the course which is designed, for instance, for practising doctors or practising lawyers to study for occupational purposes can be distinguished from that which is designed for medical students or law students to study for academic purposes (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

However, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) comment on the distinction between EAP and EOP:

This is, of course, not a clear-cut distinction: people can work and study simultaneously; it is also likely that in many cases the language learnt for

immediate use in a study environment will be used later when the student takes up, or returns to, a job.

(ibid: 16)

Compared to EAP, EOP played a less important role at first. Nevertheless, in recent years the enormous expansion of international business has brought extensive growth in the area of EBP (English for Business Purposes). In the 1990s Business English has become the largest area of growth in ESP (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). With a different view from Hutchinson and Waters, Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid) claim clear and vital differences between EAP and EBP. For instance, in EAP, the primary concern is learners' individual world for the acquisition of knowledge, in reading textbooks in English, listening to a lecture, and writing an assignment. In EBP, the main concern is learners' transactional world for communication with other people for the exchange of goods or services. Spoken interaction can be very important for EBP. However, nowadays more business people have to correspond by e-mail, so writing is important as well.

In fact, it is not difficult to make the distinction between EAP and EOP. Nevertheless, it is not easy to make 'a clear-cut distinction' between EBP (English for Business Purposes) and EVP (English for Vocational Purposes). According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), Business English involves a lot of General English and Specific Purpose English, and is concerned with the exchange of goods or services in a transactional world. In fact, these aspects of Business English can also be essential for Vocational English to cover. On the other hand, Vocational English contains finding a job and interview skills, and employer expectations and policies. These components can be important for Business English to include as well. Accordingly, it seems hard to make a 'clear-cut distinction' between Business English and Vocational English.

Nevertheless, Business English is likely to belong to a higher level than Vocational English. In Taiwan, 'Vocational English' is mostly considered in senior vocational high schools and 'Business English' in colleges or universities. At the same time, it has been found that English for Tourism and Business English are separate and individual programmes in the curriculum at Eastern Junior College of Technology and Commerce, and at some other colleges in Taiwan. Should English for Tourism be completely different from the features of Vocational English and Business English? In fact, all the features of Business English and Vocational English mentioned above are essential for English for Tourism as well.

In order to look into a definition for English for Tourism, a current definition of ESP will be presented and then the contemporary issues in ESP teaching will be discussed below.

#### 2.4 Issues in a Definition of ESP

It is not easy to produce a definition for ESP, especially for today's concept of ESP. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 4-5) review and synthesise Hutchinson and Waters' (1987), Strevens' (1988) and Robinson's (1991) definitions of ESP, and then follow Strevens to use the terms 'absolute characteristics' and 'variable characteristics' to define an up-to-date view of ESP:

- 1. Absolute characteristics:
  - . ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner;
  - . ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines it serves;
  - . ESP is centred on the language (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities.
- 2. Variable characteristics:
  - . ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines;
  - . ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English;
- . ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be used for learners at secondary school level;
- . ESP is generally designed for intermediate or advanced students. Most ESP courses assume basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be used with beginners.

(ibid: 4-5)

So far, this definition could be the most comprehensive in ESP literature. In reviewing this definition, we can see that needs analysis is still the main concern of ESP in order to meet the specific needs of the learner. Nevertheless, we find that the emphasis in ESP is shifted from subject matter to methodology. In addition, language is given an important status rather than a subordinate position to subject matter. Here it is imperative to discuss these key issues raised in relation to needs analysis, content and language, and methodology below.

#### 2.4.1 The Issue of Needs Analysis

What is meant by needs analysis? Although needs analysis has been identified as important in ESP for some time, the concept has not been clearly defined. Its interpretation has been changed over the years by different authors. The needs analysis is primarily based on Munby's (1978) model in which he gives an extremely detailed set of procedures for determining target situation needs. He has been extensively criticised for being too mechanistic and over-elaborate without giving sufficient attention to the needs of the learner in the learning process (Widdowson 1981; Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Nunan 1988; see Flowerdew 1995).

Hutchinson and Waters (ibid) criticise Munby for failing to take 'learning needs' into account. Therefore they argue that ESP should include both target situation needs and learning needs, including necessities, wants and lacks of the learner, particularly in preparing materials and methodological issues, at the course design stage. Robinson (1991) also states that needs analysis used to focus on target or end-of-course requirements (which she calls target situation analysis), but now it is usually concerned with students' initial needs (which she names present situation analysis), including learning needs.

Up to now, there are several pairs of contrasted views of needs, such as perceived and felt needs, objective and subjective needs, target and learning needs, and product-oriented and process-oriented needs (see Robinson 1991; see Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid) comment that these
terms have been produced because of different factors and perspectives. Simultaneously, they have helped the concepts of needs to grow, and to stand for different educational values and thoughts.

Holliday and Cooke (1982; see Dudley-Evans and St John 1998) suggest 'means analysis' as a subordinate to needs analysis for establishing a practicable course design to look at, for instance, the environment in which the course will be run. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) include Holliday and Cooke's (ibid) 'means analysis' to combine the ideas of needs analysis, especially from those of Hutchinson and Waters (1987) and Robinson (1991), and then further offer a current concept of needs analysis in ESP as below:

A. professional information about the learners: the tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for -target situation analysis and objective needs

B. personal information about the learners: factors which may affect the way they learn such as previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it, attitude to English-wants, means, subjective needs

C. English language information about the learners: what their current skills and language use are--present situation analysis--which allows to assess (D) D. the learners' lacks: the gap between (C) and (A) --lacks

E. language learning information: effective ways of learning the skill and language in (D)--learning needs

F. professional communication information about (A): knowledge of how language and skills are used in the target situation--linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, genre analysis

G. what is wanted from the course

H. information about the environment in which the course will be run-means analysis

(ibid: 125)

Until now, this notion of needs analysis as above may be the most comprehensive in ESP literature. Nevertheless, according to the indication of Hutchinson and Waters (1987), target situation needs and learning needs should be included in designing materials and methodologies, as already stated above. Accordingly, the desk-based study of published textbooks will specifically examine whether or not the textbooks meet the target situation needs and learning needs (see Chapter 9). Dudley-Evans and St John's (ibid) model will, to some degree, guide this work. In the empirical research, it is particularly concerned with deepening the understanding of 'learning needs' by exploring learners' learning strategies. At the same time, learners' factors (e.g. previous learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for attending the course and expectations of it) will be considered (see Chapters 6, 7 and 8). In addition, in section 2.5 below, special attention is given to the target situation analysis by looking into specific content and methodology that will be required in the target situation.

## 2.4.2 The Issue of Content and Language

In the past, in ESP, the subject matter was the focus and sometimes the role of language would be reduced to, for instance, 'service English' (Cortese 1985: 78) or 'an auxiliary role' (see Robinson 1980:6). However, some issues have been raised to question the important role of subject matter. For instance, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 3) argue against one of the absolute characteristics in Strevens' definition of ESP: 'ESP consists of English language teaching which is related in content (that is in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities.' They argue that it is misleading that 'ESP is always and necessarily related directly to subject content'.

In addition, there are some disadvantages when the content of the text is too specialised. For instance, more specific content may lower learners' motivation because they are bored with something unfamiliar or unable to cope with the topic. Teachers, untrained in ESP or lacking subject-specific knowledge may be unable or unwilling to teach the highly specialised content (Kennedy and Bolitho 1984; Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Robbins 1994; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). Furthermore, the use of texts which are too specific leads the class to become, for instance, Business Study rather than Business English (Robbins 1994).

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 4) recommend that `ESP teaching does not necessarily have to be related to content but it should always reflect the underlying

concepts and activities of the broad disciplines'. Robinson (1991) makes the same point:

An ESP course need not include specialist language (especially terminology) and content. What is more important is the activities that students engage in. These may be specialist and appropriate even when non-specialist language and content are involved.

(ibid: 4)

It seems that these authors reposition the important role of subject content to methodology. However, it may need to be argued that although methodology plays a significant role in ESP, it does not mean that content should be ignored. As Robbins (1994) claims, in ESP courses, we need to give our primary concern to both the learning process (or methodology) and the content. This is consistent with what Nunan (1990: 14) has suggested, that both 'process and content' need to be taken into account in any comprehensive curriculum.

Furthermore, content does not mean subject matter only. Non-specialist content and language can be included as the content in ESP. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) remind us that in ESP the carrier content must not be trivial but must be interesting, appropriate and valuable.

In addition, Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid) bring our attention not only to the role of methodology but also to that of language. As they acknowledge:

We also believe that language should be included as a defining feature of ESP. While the specified needs arising from needs analysis relate to activities that students need to carry out (rather than language), a key assumption of ESP is that these activities generate and depend on registers, genres and associated language that students need to be able to manipulate in order to carry out the activity.

(ibid: 4)

Thus the language which is learned and taught is supposed to be matched to the language that the ESP students are going to use in the activities. As stated above, they define one of the absolute characteristics: 'ESP is centred on the language

(grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities'.

Nevertheless, it may be misleading to focus either on the side of language or content. Otherwise ESP teaching might become either grammar learning or content learning. Hutchinson and Waters (1983; see Nunan 1988) pinpoint the disadvantage of the content-based model which ignores language knowledge. Thus they suggest language and content are relevant to the task (see Chapter 8 for more detail). On the other hand, the importance of the integration of language and content in a language learning course has also been suggested by Cook (1983), Mohan (1986) and Blanton (1992). As Mohan (ibid) argues:

We cannot achieve this goal if we assume that language learning and subject matter are totally separate and unrelated operations. Yet language and subject matter are still standardly considered in isolation from each other.

(ibid: iii)

Therefore it may be argued that language and content (interesting, appropriate and valuable content) are equal in importance, like two sides of a coin. The integration of language and content is appropriate and relevant to learning activities and tasks within communicative language teaching.

## 2.4.3. The Issue of Methodology

Widdowson (1983; see Robinson 1991) was a leading figure in accusing ESP writers in the later 1970s and early 1980s of ignoring the considerations of appropriate methodology in ESP. This is because they complied with the rigorous Munby principle in target situation needs analysis which was entirely concerned with syllabus design rather than methodology. Accordingly, there are a number of ESP writers, such as Markee, Mountford, Hutchinson and Waters (see Robinson ibid) and Robinson (1991) who have followed in Widdowson's footsteps to emphasise methodology in ESP. Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) learning-centred methodology stresses both target situation needs and learning needs. They (ibid: 129) outline some basic principles, for instance, 'language learning is not just a matter of linguistic knowledge' and 'learning is an emotional experience'. According to the authors, ESP teaching should concern both levels of the learners' knowledge of their subject specialism and their linguistic knowledge. Attention should be paid to the positive emotions, using pair work and group work to build social relationships, making 'interest', 'fun' and 'variety' in materials and methodology. In addition, they suggest that learning demands thinking. Furthermore, they stress creativity in the use of language. Therefore students are allowed different possible answers in which different does not mean wrong. Their primary concern in ESP teaching is with 'communication and learning' and making the ESP classroom a more effective, enjoyable, social and cooperative learning environment.

Robinson (1991) likewise acknowledges a consideration of the significance of a PSA (present situation analysis), an awareness of learners' personal and individual needs, and an appreciation of learning needs and target needs. She suggests that there are different types of tasks, such as role play and simulations, case studies, projects and oral presentations which can be utilised for ESP because they more or less reflect activities from the 'real world' outside the ESP classroom. Phillips (in Robinson ibid) suggests four important principles for LSP methodology:

reality control, which relates to 'the manner in which tasks are rendered accessible to the student'; non-triviality, that is, the tasks must be meaningfully generated by the students' special purpose; authenticity, that is, the language must be naturally generated by the students' special purpose; tolerance of error--errors which do not impede successful communication must be tolerated. (in Robinson ibid: 48)

Robbins (1994) points out that the case studies method seems to be based on these four principles mentioned above. She (ibid) further indicates:

The case study method suits the learning style of most adults, since it allows them to discuss issues which interest them. It involves them in discussing relevant and interesting business, rather than a classroom culture. This in turn encourages learners to become more responsible for the learning process. (Ibid: 28)

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) express their positive argument for case studies to be adopted in ESP situations:

Case studies are a feature of many professional courses such as business, law, engineering and medicine. Their purpose is to present students with some aspects of a real-life scenario, through which they can apply and integrate knowledge, skills, theory and any experience....

The business case study approach fits comfortably within ESP principles since it is activity based, often uses authentic material and involves learners in both individual and group work.

(ibid: 192-193)

Sturtridge (see Robinson 1991: 52) recommends that simulations 'provide the learner with an opportunity to summon up and use all the language he has, which will extend far beyond what he has been "taught". Wright (see Robinson ibid) also accepts the task-based work, for instance, the case study and role play approach:

Although the grammatical level of students may not be a great deal higher than when we first taught them,... they learn to use their English.

(see Robinson: 52)

Bloor and St John (see Robinson) also state:

We argue that project writing is an example of an activity which is directly relevant to target needs and yet provides the opportunity for processoriented language learning. We also argue that there are advantages to the learner in using language which is subject specific rather than merely engaging in activities designed to develop general competence.

(see Robinson: 52)

Robinson (1991) also expresses her positive point on task-based work:

the general consensus is that task-based work is enjoyable and actively engages the students both as specialists and as human beings, all of which are pre-requisites for the acquisition of new language and the consolidation of old.

(ibid: 53)

Robbins (1994) also comments that tasks help ESP students to engage in activities to comprehend, produce, or interact in English, and to focus on meaning rather than on form. According to her view, communicative language teaching is popular for its view of language as a dynamic resource for the creation of meaning, therefore, the language learning 'task' has also become more popular. In other words, the current trend is for ESP writers to argue for the task-based approach, especially for case studies and projects.

It is imperative to point out that in general, in the task-based approach, task or activity itself is only concerned with learning processes, and might not relate to real-world language needs of the learners or language activities (Nunan 1988; Breen 1987; see Swales 1990). In other words, the task-based approach does not take much account of language learning activities and language knowledge. As shown above, task is limited to role play, simulations, case studies, projects and oral presentations. Consequently, Littlejohn (1998) comments that task has been defined too narrowly. At the same time, the task-based approach seems to make the same mistake as the content-based model does, that is, neglecting language knowledge, as already stated above. It is vital to discuss whether the task-based approach alone is suitable, or how task should be defined, to fit the teaching of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. These issues will be discussed in Chapter 8. At the same time, it is also interesting to explore whether the published textbooks of English for Tourism are really organised by the task-based approach, especially whether or not case studies are used. At the same time, it is indispensable to think over what ESP teachers should do if such textbooks are adopted. These issues will be examined in Chapter 9.

There is another issue raised in the debate about whether or not ESP methodology is different from that of General English teaching. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue:

a) ESP is not a matter of teaching "Specialised varieties" of English....b) ESP is not just a matter of Science words and grammar for Scientists, Hotel words and grammar for Hotel staff and so on....c) ESP is not different in kind from any other form of language teaching, in that it should be based in the first instance on principles of effective and efficient learning....

(ibid: 18)

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 26) do not accept the views of Hutchinson and Waters (ibid) who argue against 'specific work in ESP' and, at the same time, against the idea that 'ESP methodology differs from that of General English teaching'. In contrast, Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid) acknowledge:

All ESP teaching should reflect the methodology of the disciplines and professions it serves; and in more specific ESP teaching the nature of the interaction between the teacher and learner may be very different from that in a general English class. This is what we mean when we say that specific ESP teaching has its own methodolgy.

(ibid: 4)

According to Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid), ESP contains more specialised carrier content whilst in GPE, shared knowledge and concepts are selected for carrier content. It is common that ESP learners have their own expert knowledge and experience of their own specialist field which ESP teachers usually do not have. This seems to be threatening for many ESP teachers. In fact, ESP teachers are not expected, for instance, to know how to run a business, but to have knowledge of how language is used in business or to help ESP learners to bring some knowledge of their specialist field to their language learning. In other words, ESP teachers, as consultants, have an equal status with the students.

At the same time, using learning tasks and activities, ESP learners can contribute their specialist knowledge, world knowledge and language knowledge both consciously and unconsciously as Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) suggested. In this case, it seems reasonable to accept Dudley-Evans and St John's (1998) argument that ESP methodology differs from that used in General Purpose English teaching.

On the other hand, like Hutchinson and Waters (1987), Robinson (1991) comments that there is nothing specific about ESP methodology that it differs very little from general English teaching. ESP teachers can learn a lot from general ELT materials and methodological suggestions. Nevertheless, she (ibid: 47) points out that 'the resultant difference might be that ESP can base activities on students' specialisms (but need not do so) and that activities can have a truly authentic purpose related to students' target needs.'

In the current development of English language teaching, it has been argued that not only ESP but also GPE should be developed within the communicative approach. As Cunningsworth (1995) points out:

Communicative language teaching has become the accepted orthodoxy of TEFL over the past ten years or more, and many, but not all, general courses refer to communicative goals, communicative practice or communicative methodology. Blueprint One (Abbs and Freebairn 1990), for example, highlights the students' need to communicate effectively: "Students need to know that the language they are going to learn will enable them to communicate their needs, ideas and opinions. Motivation...comes from knowing that language activities in the classroom are at all times meaningful and aimed at real-life communication." The New Cambridge English Course (Swan and Walter 1990) recommends that "language practice should resemble real-life communication, with genuine exchange of information and opinions" whilst Formula One (White and Williams 1989) aims at "providing ... an ability to use the language for communicative purposes" and Grapevine (Viney, P. and K. 1990) gives as one of its first principles "an emphasis on communicative goals". (ibid: 116)

Thus, if general courses adopt communicative language teaching in the classroom, then methodology and aims in general courses are unlikely to be very different from those in ESP. In this case, GPE has its own communicative purposes, needs and goals rather than 'TENOR' (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason) (Carver 1983).

As Carver (ibid) argues:

...there is no such thing as English without a purpose, or English for general purposes, and that a teaching methodology which includes purpose and specificity in its basic approach is thereby richer. In this sense, all English teaching is teaching of ESP.

#### (ibid: 132)

We can also say that all English teaching should be not only teaching of ESP but also communicative language teaching. ESP and CLT are inseparable and share numerous features. This is in line with the argument of Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 142) that ESP methodology does not differ from that of general English teaching.

Moreover, many teachers around the world have to face the difficulties of large classes. This is also the case in Taiwan. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) offer numerous solutions to meet challenges of large classes. For instance, the solutions involve a change of attitude and an encouragement of the strategies that the students themselves use to deal with large classes. The first step may be for the teacher to consult and observe learners; at the same time, learners have to realise that they cannot rely solely on the teacher. Instead, they need to use a cooperative approach to ask each other for help and share notes and ideas. Furthermore, some innovations are also introduced. First of all, the numbers can be reduced by, for instance, splitting classes at different available hours and rooms, teachers helping each other with group work, observing and evaluating procedures and materials, and getting support from the authorities to increase resources (e.g. teachers, rooms and materials). Secondly, the approach can be changed, e.g. by allowing learners to consult each other, learning through pair and group work. Therefore these approaches in large classes seem to emphasise 'involvement, interaction, individualisation and independence.' (ibid: 200). Above all, emphasis is given to ways of sharing responsibility and learning through a social process.

In short, the authors suggest that there should be much more development of moving away from general English teaching to communicative language teaching.

The communicative approach is important in ESP, even in large classes. The communicative approach relies on learners' motivation and strategies to use and learn the target language through social interaction. Hence it is crucial for teachers to develop their teaching strategies to encourage and motivate their students to take their own responsibility in their learning. Moreover, teachers also need to enhance their organisational abilities to arrange various pair and group work activities in the target language to help students to use the target language through social interaction.

Another crucial point that Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) make is: 'the classroom is only one place in which learning takes place.' Should the communicative approach stop in the classroom? This question needs to be discussed further in Chapter 8.

# 2.5 Issues in a Definition of English for Tourism

It is very difficult to produce a definition of English for Tourism. So far, the issues of ESP have been dealt with generally. In the ESP literature there is only passing reference to a particular area, such as English for Tourism. In this section, to look for some guidance about what is necessary for English for Tourism, we may need to consider the issues of the target situation of the tourism industry including the Business English context, Tourism education and training, and intercultural communication, in addition to issues of ESP in general. As we have already discussed the issues of ESP in general above, we are going to examine further some other issues below. Now let us look into the first issues of the target situation.

## 2.5.1 The Issues of the Target Situation

Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) indicate that in most English-medium communications in business, non-native speakers use international English to communicate with other non-native speakers from abroad. Therefore international English is about effective communication, and is not necessarily totally accurate or

As already mentioned in Chapter 1, in Taiwan, the annual number of international tourists is normally over one million. As the tourist statistics in 1984 in Taiwan showed, the number of international tourists was 1,516,138, and that of domestic travelers inbound, 25,597,090, outbound, 750,440 (see Chu 1986, author's translation). Therefore in the tourism industry, communication with the public is quite often not only in L1, but also in L2. In company dealings in the Taiwanese context, it is also often found that language shifts from L1 to L2 terminology.

Menne (1982: 4) indicates that 'when people use language in their work, the precise details of what they say will vary from one company or specialisation to the next, but there are certain types of language act that come up rather frequently.' The author points out the common language acts, such as checking bookings, dealing with complaints, explaining work routines and discussing policy. In a similar way, Pilbeam (1987) suggests typical objectives for people in business:

- (1) to present information to an audience for ten/fifteen minutes and answer questions at the end.
- (2) to take full part in discussions and meetings where diferent points of view may be expressed and argued.
- (3) to give and receive information on the phone about arrangements,

figures, names and dates...etc.

(ibid:120)

Charles (see Dudley-Evans and St John 1998) suggests that Business English teaching should consider the business context in which business meetings and negotiations take place. Robbins (1994) points out that an increasing emphasis in Business English training is given to training in 'communication skills such as negotiating, giving presentations etc.'

These activities mentioned above, such as checking bookings, dealing with complaints, explaining work routines, discussing policy, giving presentations, answering questions, business meetings, giving and receiving telephone information are the essential everyday professional activities in the tourism industry for which learners will be using English. In addition to a variety of professional activities, language skills and professional skills required to perform effectively in their jobs seem crucial and may also need to be taken into account.

The findings from Lii-Shih, Su and Lin's (1998) questionnaires to the people in the tourism industry in Taiwan indicated that listening and speaking were the most important in the work whilst reading and writing were much less important. However, with more computers and e-mail and less secretarial support, more business people have to deal with their business letters. Therefore writing skills must not be ignored (Dudley-Evans and St John 1998).

Much attention is given to professional skills, especially customer care and interpersonal skills. As Apps (1989) argues, customers are the most important factor in the tourism industry because customers mean jobs. Without customers there would be no restaurant, pub, hotel, bar, leisure centre. In addition, all members of staff in the tourism industry have to work as part of a team. Therefore the author further argues that a good customercraft skill needs to be developed in the tourism industry for dealing with the customers and work colleagues in a considerate, effective and suitable way.



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American Express Foundation (1994) also put the same argument that travel and tourism is a 'service' industry, and, therefore, interpersonal and customer service skills should be given special attention. As Burton (1994) suggests, good interpersonal skills which are the key to success in any career are especially crucial for the tourism industry.

Furthermore, many authors, such as John (1996) and Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) argue that it is important to build good relationships, not only to socialise. As John (ibid) indicates:

From a business perspective, the purpose is to establish a good working relationship through less formal channels and hospitality rather than merely socialise

(ibid: 10)

Accordingly, in the tourism industry, customer care and interpersonal skills can be seen as major concerns to build up good relationships rather than socialising.

Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid) further advise that relationships may be built during business discussions by one's attitude, for instance, smiles, eye contact and sensitivity to others' values. They also emphasise that spoken interaction is the primary concern in business. Good and active listening is vital in spoken interaction. Apps (1989) also emphasises the importance of telephone skills and further offers the good listeners' guide below:

- 1. Do give the speaker their full attention
- 2. Do show interest in what the speaker is saying
- 3. Do pick out the important things from what is being said
- 4. Do act on what they've heard, making notes or fetching other staff when appropriate

(ibid: 38)

In brief, in order to meet the target situation needs of the tourism industry, effective communication, especially in spoken interaction should be emphasised. Professional activities need to be considered. In addition, professional skills (e.g.

customer care skills, interpersonal skills and telephone skills) should be focused. At the same time, nonverbal communication skills, such as smiles, eye contact, sensitivity to customers' values, and active listening should be seen as important as verbal communication skills in the service industry. Above all, it is important to build up good relationships rather than merely socialising.

# 2.5.2 Issues Relevant to Tourism Education and Training

There are also some major issues relevant to tourism education and training. Cooper and Westlake (1989: 72) argue that tourism education 'allows the students to interpret and evaluate knowledge' whilst tourism training 'deals with the more specific applications and skills development (ticketing, keyboard, customer contact). Mr. John East, Chief Executive of the English Tourist Board (in Cooper and Westlake 1989: 72) urges that 'training is viewed as an investment not as a loss, to seek better coordination of education and training, to place more emphasis on foreign language, personal and communication skills....'

In addition, Busby (1994) suggests that tourism training should be focused on geographical knowledge, especially more on the human than the locational aspects. Davidson (1993) also states:

In the tourism industry, in particular, people are expected to know where places are, especially in their own country and in their own locality. Anyone who works as a hotel receptionist, in a travel agency, or in a Tourist Information Centre, for example, is constantly asked questions about where destinations are and how they may best be reached. They are asked about the weather at destinations, and such questions as "Where exactly is Alton Towers?", "Does it get too hot in Turkey in August?" or "What is the best way of getting from Newcastle to the West coast of Scotland?" (ibid: 22)

Holloway (1994) points out that to take account of the psychological needs of tourists, it is not enough simply to offer good beaches, a pleasant hotel, and well-cooked food. Therefore the author suggests that it is important to develop an image

of the destination. Geographical knowledge is very important in tourism training.

These tourism educators and experts bring our attention to the development of customer contact, personal and communication skills and geographical knowledge. At the same time, we also need to help learners to develop their foreign language skills and allow them to express their own views to interpret and evaluate knowledge rather than just to guide them to memorise, or accept values, as in traditional language education. Nevertheless, some skills such as in computer or keyboard, or ticketing are too highly specialised, and are usually taught in other courses. These skills may not need to be included in the English for Tourism course. However, students need to know how to use English in the interaction of booking tickets, and in e-mail or computer communication. Therefore as already suggested above, spoken interaction, especially active listening and speaking skills should be focused in the course. Nevertheless, other skills, such as writing skills should not be neglected completely. In addition, students at secondary schools or junior colleges in Taiwan need to take required courses in geography. Should English for Tourism involve geographical knowledge in the syllabuses? This issue will be discussed further in Chapter 8.

# 2.5.3 The Issue of Cultural Content

English for Tourism aims to equip learners to use international English to communicate with people from abroad effectively in their present or future jobs. Is subject matter sufficient for intercultural communication? As Louhiala-Salminen (1996) acknowledges:

Comments by the interviewees seemed to strengthen the view of English as "the business lingua franca", a code system with which they were able to communicate, but which does not have any cultural basis, as in "It is 100% subject matter, the culture behind it cannot be seen" or "Cultureless, pure business; only the subject matter, the text, is the same, wherever it comes from."

(ibid: 44)

Cook (1983) and Tomalin and Stempleski (1994) also suggest that literature related to culture has much value in broadening learners' horizons and increasing their cultural awareness. At the same time, cultural content may assist students to gain insights into different ways of life in terms of food, dress, art, customs, beliefs, political systems, leisure, and sports.

Talib (1992) also suggests teaching about students' culture. The author points out there are a lot of benefits in teaching students' culture. For instance, it will enable the teacher to raise the learners' sociocultural awareness, sense of self-identity, and communicative competence within their society as well as to promote a better command of the target language.

As mentioned above, sensitivity to customers' values is important in customer care skill training. In that sense, sensitivity to customers' cultures seems to be a good customer care skill training as well. At the same time, to consider students' culture is to help them to know better how to introduce the cultures of their own countries in depth, and bring the images of their countries to the tourists from abroad. Doing so is also to take account of customers' needs and interests. It seems reasonable to take the issues of cultural content and student's culture into account for teaching English for Tourism (see Chapter 8 and 10 for more detail).

To sum up, all the issues discussed above seem to be crucial for the target situation which may be included in content and methodology of teaching English for Tourism. Thus English for Tourism takes target situation needs into account when considering the training aspect. As Richards (1989: 207) argues, 'there is a strong case for looking more closely at training and occupational environments.' Accordingly, it seems erroneous to ignore training in ESP. In many ways, training can be educative as well. It is essential to look at training with broader perspectives in ESP and, at the same time, ESP teachers, educators, or practitioners should help schools to build close links with the workplace. As a result, English for Tourism programmes can be made more practical and more useful. At the same time, learners' development of intellect and profession, cultural awareness and sense of

self-identity has also been taken into account.

In summary, English for Tourism course should have the following characteristics: . English for Tourism is especially designed to meet the target situation needs of the tourism industry and learning needs.

- . English for Tourism is concerned with communicative methodology relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry. Thus learning activities should include professional activities (e.g. dealing with customer complaints, taking telephone calls and giving holiday information), focusing on speaking and listening skills.
- . English for Tourism takes account of the integration of language and content in relation to the target situation of the tourism industry. Content should include professional skills, such as customer care skills, interpersonal communication skills, telephone skills and nonverbal communication skills, such as good eye contact, active listening, friendly and sincere smile. Cultural content including students' culture should be covered as well.
- . English for Tourism emphasises learner-centredness by giving special attention to cooperative relationships between the teachers and learners, and among learners.
- . English for Tourism stresses effective communication in international English.
- . English for Tourism considers both education and training to link school with the tourism industry.

## 2.6 Teaching English for Tourism in Taiwan

As already mentioned, very little ESP literature has been concerned with English for Tourism. The empirical research has been not carried out in the area of teaching English for Tourism. This is also the case in Taiwan, although there are some general issues raised in ESP courses in the Taiwanese context. Let us turn to look at these issues first.

# 2.6.1 General Issues in ESP Courses in the Taiwanese Context

In order to meet both society and student needs, many writers in Taiwan suggest that the teaching of English as a foreign language in Taiwan today begins to accept the Western concepts of language learning such as 'Communicative Approach', 'ESP Course Design' and 'Needs Analysis' (see Lii-Shih, Su, and Lin 1998, author's translation). These concepts are still rather new in Taiwan, although they have existed for some time in the Western educational system, especially in the United Kingdom, and the United States.

Writers, in Taiwan, such as Chi-Hwa Kou, Wen-Ker Wang, Chen-Jer Huang, Pin-Huang Huang, Tyze-Lai Huang, Yu-Hwei Lii-Shih and Yung-Shen Oh argue that course design cannot ignore learners' needs, motivation, interest, experience, learning ability, learning strategies or learning style. They all urge that course design should be based on learners' needs analysis. It is important to select appropriate content and teaching methods to meet learners' needs. This may enhance learners' motivation and interest, and, at the same time, improve effective ESP teaching and learning (see Lii-Shih, Su, and Lin 1998, author's translation).

Lin and Lii-Shih (1996; see Lii-Shih, Su and Lin 1998, author's translation) used questionnaires to investigate the ESP teaching materials in secondary schools and junior colleges in Taiwan. They found out that in general the content of ESP teaching materials in Taiwan is too difficult, impractical, uninteresting, and far from the students' needs. On the other hand, as already mentioned in Chapter 1, Kuo (1993) also points out that in Taiwan many ESP textbooks appear too simple or uninteresting in terms of content.

In addition, Huang (1990; see Lii-Shih, Su, and Lin 1998, author's translation) also points out several difficulties regarding ESP courses encountered by ESP teachers at junior colleges and senior vocational schools in Taiwan. For instance, ESP teachers' background knowledge is usually limited to the Humanities as a result of being trained in the teaching of literature or general English teaching. They may feel fears and even antipathy toward the specialised texts which they are not familiar with or know little about. It is a tough job for many schools to select suitable teaching materials. The author suggests that teaching and learning activities should be designed to fit the 'real-life' situations. However, in Taiwan, it is often the case that examinations direct the function of teaching. Now ESP courses still keep the traditional grammar-orientation. The use of English is still not included in the examination. In fact, these problematic issues relevant to the role of ESP teachers, teaching materials, and teaching methods seem to be universal phenomena. Similar issues have been raised in the ESP literature (e.g. Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

Many authors in Taiwan mentioned above suggest that it is important to improve ESP teaching materials by considering a communicative approach. They also argue that teacher training programmes are crucial in order to equip qualified teachers in teaching ESP in Taiwan. A communicative approach has been given much attention in English language teaching in Taiwan today. However, as mentioned in Chapter 1, Chinese students in China and also in Taiwan have found difficulty in adjusting to the communicative approach. Therefore how ESP students develop learning strategies in the communicative classroom and how ESP teachers can help students to make the transition to the communicative classroom and select materials for effective ESP teaching will be the focus of the discussion in this work. In brief, this research centres on studying learning strategies, but the final part of the work is to review the materials for the Taiwanese context.

## 2.6.2 Principles for Teaching English for Tourism in Taiwan

In this chapter, the theme of this work has been introduced. We have looked at the way and reasons that ESP has been developed. We are concerned with some considerations which may affect travel and tourism. Up to now, we have not seen much literature about travel and tourism or English for Tourism. Nevertheless, certain key issues should be identified. We look further at this situation in Taiwan, where there is not any special literature written relevant to English for Tourism. As

already mentioned above, the concepts of 'Needs analysis', 'ESP Course Design' and 'Communicative Approach' are relatively new. Nevertheless, many authorities in the Taiwanese context have begun to set this new direction.

This is a major task for the researcher. It is important for her to rethink the principles for the best way of teaching English for Tourism. There emerges the general feeling that the English for Tourism classroom should develop a communicative approach.

Against this background, we need to set the aims and principles of teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. The English for Tourism programme aims to:

- \* familiarize students with the language system;
- \* develop appropriate learning strategies;
- \* improve language skills (especially speaking and listening skills);
- \* foster professional skills (especially customer care, interpersonal and telephone skills);
- \* enable students to handle English effectively in various professional activities and adjust to the ESP communicative classroom;
- \* enhance students' cross-cultural awareness;
- \* raise self-confidence in getting a job;
- \* and promote effective communication with clientele in international English.

In order to carry out the aims of English for Tourism, some of its principles should be given as follows:

- \* The course emphasises communicative methodology. Small group or pair work will be organised. These activities emphasise social interaction, focus on meaning rather than on form, and stress effective communication rather than accuracy. Cooperation between teachers and students and among students is also emphasised.
- \* The course is student-centered. Students accept and take responsibility for the process of learning. They are active in participating in various language learning

and social interactional activities or tasks.

- \* Students are encouraged to express their views, interpret and evaluate knowledge in the field, and share their knowledge for instance, in the subject, cultural differences and work experience.
- \* The professional skills (e.g. good interpersonal and customer care skills, telephone skills) including nonverbal communication skills (e.g. friendly smiles, and eye contact) are suggested to be included in the content of this course.
- \* Cultural content and students' cultures are recommended to be included in the content of the course.
- \* Language and content are closely linked together to be appropriate to and relevant to various learning tasks and activities. A variety of professional activities (e.g. dealing with customer enquiries, talking about the prices, taking telephone calls and dealing with customer complaints) are covered in learning activities.
- \* Learning activities help to develop language skills, professional skills and learning strategies.
- \* In order to enhance fluency, L2 is supposed to be used most of the time in the activities by both teachers and students.
- \* To use English for effective communication rather than to choose the correct grammar needs to be stressed in any examinations of English for Tourism.
- \* Appropriate, interesting and relevant published teaching materials need to be selected in order to motivate learners to use them in the classroom or self-study.
- \* The classroom may not be the only place for learning. The prime concern of teaching English for Tourism is an emphasis on 'communication and learning' as suggested by Hutchinson and Waters as mentioned above.

# 2.7 Summary

In this chapter we have begun to consider what would be the appropriate theoretical framework for teaching English for Tourism. In the current view of ESP teaching, subject matter is not the focus as it was once interpreted. However, content can involve interesting, relevant and valuable topics. The issue relevant to appropriate content for teaching English for Tourism will be discussed in Chapter 8.

It should be understood that there are some concerns about an overly specialised content. There is a danger that the ESP teachers who are trained in Humanities or in the teaching of literature or general English teaching may be reluctant to teach English for Tourism in a specialised way.

In addition, language (e.g. relevant grammar, vocabulary, and terminology) is not placed in a minor or auxiliary role as it was once, but plays as important a part as the content. It has been argued that both of them are integrated and relevant to learning activities.

Furthermore, modern ESP teaching also emphasises the importance of learning process, methodology. It has been claimed that a communicative approach for strengthening effective communication or fluency is important for ESP teaching, particularly in the case of English for Tourism. The importance of working in groups and pairs has been stressed for it helps ESP learners to learn to use the target language and to develop interpersonal communication skills. In addition, a task-based approach has also become more popular in the ESP literature. However, task seems to be narrowly defined. Therefore, the issue of how task should be defined for the Taiwanese context will be discussed in Chapter 8.

Special attention is also paid to the importance of the collaborative relationship between teachers and students and among students in the ESP classroom. Meantime, it has been discussed that professional skills (especially interpersonal and customer care skills, telephones skills), language skills (particularly speaking and listening skills) and a variety of professional activities (e.g. dealing with customer complaints, giving holiday information, talking about the prices, taking telephone calls and dealing with customer enquiries) are important for learners trained to work in the tourism industry. Nevertheless, when the communicative approach is considered to be the accepted orthodoxy of ESP in the Taiwanese context, it is important for ESP teachers to understand how their learners develop their learning strategies and what difficulties they may encounter in their learning process in the ESP communicative classroom. Therefore the empirical research is essential for understanding the learners' 'learning needs' in depth (see Chapter 8).

In addition, when we consider the efficiency of teaching English for Tourism, a clear understanding of teaching materials seems essential to check whether or not these materials help to meet the needs of their learners, especially the target situation and learning needs and the aims of teaching English for Tourism. Therefore it is important to evaluate the teaching materials in the Taiwanese context (see Chapter 9).

This chapter begins a consideration of a theoretical framework, which will be completed by Chapters 3 and 4, on which ESP teaching and learning and this work will be based. Chapter 3 will offer a general understanding of communicative language teaching and communicative competence to help readers to understand the ESP communicative classroom in general. Thereafter in Chapter 4, learning strategies will be defined and the issues raised by their features will be discussed before turning to the empirical data.

# **Chapter 3**

# Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): Background and Overview

# **3.1 Introduction**

In Chapter 2, a communicative approach was posited as the most appropriate approach for enabling ESP learners to fortify effective communication or fluency in L2. It is noted that although this approach has been well known for some while in the United Kingdom, it is still a somewhat fresh concept in the Taiwanese context. Therefore it is indispensable to elaborate it here in this thesis in consideration of the Taiwanese situation.

The development of CLT has assumed wide theoretical notions of communicative competence and these will be considered. Later studies, such as Widdowson (1983), Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), and Bachman (1990) will also be examined in order to look for useful components for curriculum design and classroom practice. Here, the emphasis will fall on strategic competence and discourse competence, as playing a crucial role in activating knowledge needed to reach the goal of effective communication or fluency. These two crucial components will be argued to be the first priority in language learning and teaching, provided that strategic competence is also viewed within a broad perspective, as containing both learning and communication strategies, rather than communication strategies alone as proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) taking a narrow view.

In this chapter, the historical background of communicative language teaching will be discussed. Following that, CLT will be defined, with a broad view, so as to include older methods and approaches rather than to exclude them. Furthermore, a notional-functional approach, suitably modified, will be proposed as the basis for ESP communicative syllabuses by combining with a task-based approach. Finally, communicative competence will be explored and defined to include much more than grammatical competence, by arguing that strategic competence and discourse competence are the most important components of communicative competence.

Now let us turn to look at the historical background of communicative language teaching.

# **3.2** The Historical Background of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

How L2 should be taught, learned and acquired has been discussed for a long while in the literature of language teaching. Grammar-translation method, which gives much attention to learning L2 as a grammatical system through L1, has been questioned for its appropriateness since the 1850s (Graham 1997). At the end of the nineteenth and beginning of the twentieth century, the direct method (the reform method) and the classical direct method, started as a revolt against the grammar-translation method. This new approach emphasised oral practice, disregarding translation as a technique of language teaching (Lado 1988). Maybe, at that time, travelling abroad, foreign trade, social and economic pressure were limited. The grammar-translation method still dominated the teaching of L2 in most schools in most countries at the opening of the twentieth century (Graham ibid).

Since the Second World War, especially after the war, there has been an urgent and great demand for the modern world to give much attention to the value and significance of being able to communicate with other countries for a wide variety of purposes, especially for the growth of international trade. Thus the traditional grammar-translation method has been considered to be inappropriate (Graham ibid). Progression toward an appropriate teaching method can bring about improvements. There had been several changes in teaching methods before CLT took a place in language teaching (Stern 1993).

The audiolingual method, in the 1960s, was an important approach to improving the teaching of English as a foreign language in the United States (Lado 1988; Stern 1993). Meanwhile, situational language teaching was the major approach in teaching English as a foreign language in Britain. In this approach language was taught by focusing on basic structures in topics or situations, e.g. 'At the restaurant', 'At the train station'. However, in the mid-1960s, when the linguistic theory underlying audiolingualism was attacked in the United States, British applied linguists also began to question the underlying theory of situational language teaching (Howatt 1984; Richards and Rodgers 1990).

Structural syllabuses focus on grammatical competence without consideration of practical applications in real situations. Situational syllabuses also emphasise grammatical categories that still do not take the learner's communicative process into account. The weaknesses of structural and situational syllabuses gave rise to the emergence of notional-functional syllabuses. Thus, since the late 1960s or early 1970s a communicative approach has begun to have a place in language teaching and learning, and moved towards being the major approach.

The concern with 'meaning' and 'language use' could be one of other major reasons for the rise of a communicative approach. Chomsky's classic books <u>Syntactic</u> <u>Structures</u> (1957) and <u>Aspects of the Theory of Syntax</u> (1965) demonstrated a major concern with syntax. Like Bloomfieldian and neo-Bloomfieldian American structuralism, Chomsky emphasises the study of language structure, and restricts his concern to the study of form, without reference to the categories of meaning. As Widdowson (1989) comments wryly, Chomsky is only interested in grammar.

Since the end of the 1960s and the early 1970s, many experts in linguistics, sociology and philosophy, concerned, unlike Chomsky, with language learning, have raised the issue of mastery of language use. They argued strongly for studying language in relation to its uses. The work of Hymes, Jakobovits, Halliday, Campbell,

Wales, Widdowson, Cooper, and of others with insights from anthropology, sociology, discourse analysis and pragmatics, especially the theory of speech acts, has widened and extended the view of competence (Munby 1978; Stern 1984; Lado 1988; Richards and Rodgers 1990).

Among these scholars, Hymes has played the most prominent role in the linguistic movement. Hymes' (1972) paper 'On Communicative Competence' attempted to expand Chomsky's concepts of 'competence' and 'performance'. According to Hymes, a version of competence is needed which takes the sociocultural dimension into account. This will be referred to in more detailed discussion of the notion of 'competence' below.

No literature indicates that ESP contributed directly to the emergence of communicative language teaching in the late 1960s and the early 1970s. Nevertheless, both ESP and CLT have together impacted on the development in seeking to cater for the needs of learners since that time. As Stern (1993) states, ESP and the communicative approach have developed in parallel in course design, to equip adult second language learners for the kinds of discourse they need so as to study and practise their chosen profession in L2.

It may be said that ESP has turned our attention to the fact that the communicative approach is crucial if we take the needs of learners into account. Thus a communicative approach can be the first step in equipping ESP learners for effective communication with speakers of English in their jobs.

In short, progression toward an appropriate teaching method, attention to 'language use' and 'meaning' and the impact of ESP could be the main factors that have led to the emergence of CLT. To understand CLT in more detail, in the next section, features of CLT will be discussed.

# 3.3 Features of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

What is communicative language teaching (CLT)? CLT has been defined and interpreted in many ways. As Stern (1981) points out:

Communicative language teaching is not interpreted uniformly. There is indeed a good deal of uncertainty, if not to say, confusion as to what it is all about... and it is not at all clear how different approaches to communicative language teaching hang together...

(ibid: 133)

Brown (1987) also mentions that it would be difficult to synthesize all of the definitions that have been offered. Thus Brown provides four features for a simple and direct definition of communicative language teaching, as follows:

- 1. Classroom goals are focused on all of the components of communicative competence and not restricted to grammatical or linguistic competence.
- 2. Form is not the primary framework for organizing and sequencing lessons. Function is the framework through which forms are taught.
- 3. Accuracy is secondary to conveying a message. Fluency may take on more importance than accuracy. The ultimate criterion for communicative success is the actual transmission and receiving of intended meaning.
- 4. In the communicative classroom, students ultimately have to use the language, productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts. (ibid: 213)

These four features differentiate CLT from older methods and approaches. Nonetheless, they are also likely to indicate that CLT does not abandon other methods and approaches completely; on the contrary, it includes much broader methods and approaches. As Swan (1985:87) suggests, 'try out the new techniques without giving up useful older methods.'

According to Brown (1987), Krashen and Terrell's (1983) Natural Approach and CLT share similar characteristics. However, in the Natural Approach 'comprehensible input' is considered more important than production. Thus Brown (ibid) comments that in the Natural Approach, the 'silent period' (delay of oral production) and the treatment of error are the most controversial issues.

CLT focuses on both productive and receptive abilities. A range of functional and interactive activities offer the students opportunities in this actual use of language to build fluency in CLT (Murray 1996). By so doing, forms will be taught or learned as a means rather than as an end and related to meaning, social factors, discourse or a combination of these factors (Celce-Murcia and Hilles 1988; see Rao 1996). Littlewood (1981: 1) reminds us that 'one of the most characteristic features of CLT is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view.' Thus CLT contains a functional and communicative view of language without excluding grammatical competence, whereas the Grammar-Translation method simply focuses on grammatical competence.

Brown (1987: 213) shows that 'in CLT we pay considerably less attention to the overt presentation and discussion of grammatical rules than we traditionally did. A great deal of use of authentic language is implied in CLT, as we attempt to build fluency.' Thus Brown indicates that fluency is more important than accuracy and function is superior to form. Murray (1996: 41) also emphasises as two fundamental principles that 'accuracy is subordinate to fluency' and 'form is subordinate to meaning'.

Finocchiaro and Brumfit (in Richards and Rodgers 1990) suggest that the procedures of CLT are evolutionary rather than revolutionary. Although the procedures may be evolutionary, some organisations or principles of CLT are somewhat revolutionary in impact. As Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall (1989) point out:

....In this approach students are viewed as communicators, that is, negotiators of meaning. The teacher's role... facilitator, and communicator.... ....Students are encouraged to do much more pairwork and small group activity (see, e.g., Gaies 18) than in the old-fashioned classroom. Desks and chairs are no longer in straight rows; they are moved around as required by classroom activities and students' needs.

(ibid: 35)

In many ways CLT implies the significance of learner-centredness in language learning and teaching. The roles of learners and teachers have been changed and are different from those of the traditional classroom. In the CLT classroom, learners have to become active rather than passive in taking the initiative and responsibility for their own learning. Teachers are not seen as authorities but as facilitators.

What might be difficult for students who are used to traditional Grammar-Translation method if they change to CLT? As White (1988) and Ellis (1992) point out, a new style of teaching might be difficult for students who are familar with or are used to traditional teacher-centred classrooms. They may encounter difficulties when they shift from being passive participants to taking the responsibility or initiative for their own learning. In addition, Widdowson (1978: 34; see Brown 1987: 215) has acknowledged that 'communicative competence is not a compilation of items in memory but a set of strategies or creative procedures for realizing the value of linguistic elements in contexts of use'. These are possible difficulties which learners might experience when the aim of CLT is to teach them to manage their grammatical knowledge in creative acts of communication.

As already stated in Chapter 1, Chinese students experience many difficulties in developing communicative competence in their English as a foreign language courses, and may resist CLT. However, Chinese philosophy, culture, and concepts of education are grounded deeply in the Confucian tradition. It has been argued that learners' difficulties should never be underestimated when using a communicative approach. It will be of interest to explore what language learners have to do in order to help themselves to overcome their difficulties in the transition from grammar-translation method to CLT. This issue will be central to this empirical study and will be discussed (see Chapters 6, 7 and 8).

As Harvey (1985) indicates, it would do no harm if the teacher offers explanations of some grammar points to the learners, especially for speakers of very different languages. The author (ibid: 185) points out that 'we (Chinese learners) would like to know what happens, because if we understand the system we can use English more efficiently.' The author warns that understanding grammar rules is not sufficient and learners cannot stop at that (see Chapter 1).

In this section, the features of CLT have been discussed, together with the difficulties which language learners may encounter in CLT and may even cause them to reject CLT. Thus it is intriguing to search for an appropriate model for the effectiveness of learning and teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context, to ensure that learners make the transition to the ESP communicative classroom more efficiently and easily.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, a growing number of writers of ELT (English Language Teaching), especially ESP authors today, have argued for giving special attention to a task-based approach. As Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) describe:

It has been in the vanguard of the development in ELT, moving from grammatical, functional and notional syllabuses to a more eclectic and task-based approach.

(ibid: 32)

However, a task-based approach has its own weakness in focusing only on the learning process without taking much account of real-world language needs of the learners or language learning activities as pointed out by Breen (1987) and Nunan (1988) (see Chapter 2). On the other hand, authors, such as Kim (1992) and Graham (1997) support a notional-functional approach crucial for language learning and teaching.

In the following section, the emergence of notional-functional syllabuses will be considered.

# 3.4 The Emergence of Notional-Functional Syllabuses

To develop a communicative syllabus for language teaching, in 1972, Wilkins, a British linguist, proposed a functional or communicative syllabus for language teaching, by analysing the communicative meanings that a language learner needs to understand and express. This sort of syllabus sought to overcome weaknesses of the structural and the situational syllabuses and give attention to functions, for attaining the ultimate purpose of language which is communication between people. Notional categories and communicative functional categories seem important to develop the learners' communicative competence and less wasteful than the grammatical or the situational syllabus. Accordingly, one starts from the notional categories which a learner needs to use rather than from linguistic forms (Munby 1978; Brown 1987; Richards and Rodgers 1990).

Wilkins (1976) further revised and broadened his 1972 document into a book, and uses the term 'notional syllabus' which includes semantico-grammatical and functional categories as concepts and uses. The first category, 'semantico-grammatical' includes concepts such as time, sequence, frequency, duration, location and quantity which are 'semantic' because they are items of 'meaning'. These may be related directly to grammatical categories. The second category called the 'communicative function' or 'functions' includes 'uses' e.g. requests, denials, offers, complaints, expressing, greeting, inviting. As Johnson (1981: 2) stated, a traditional view of a syllabus as a list of structures becomes insufficient. 'Meanings' and 'uses' should be included in the syllabus in addition to structures. Thus notional syllabuses played a significant role in influencing the development of CLT.

In the work of the Council of Europe, in addition to Wilkins (1972, 1976), van Ek and Alexander (1975) were also the influential representatives of the notionalfunctional syllabuses. Van Ek and Alexander (1975) expanded and revised Wilkins' (1972) work into The Threshold Level (T-level). Notions, the concepts that people use for verbal communication, in The Threshold Level are both general and specific. General notions represent broad levels of abstraction, such as, time, existence, and quantity. Specific notions, the topics, are introduced as components of the situations in which learners at T-level will be expected to need foreign language ability, for instance, personal identification, travel, shopping, food and drink, services, free time and weather.

In addition, three distinct situations which T-level learners have to be prepared for are social roles (e.g. stranger/stranger), psychological roles (e.g. equality, neutrality, sympathy, antipathy), and certain settings (e.g. hotel, restaurant, airport). In the programmes of English for Tourism, learners will be supposed to be prepared for customers and business operators, and, at the same time, sympathy will be stressed, to enable them to develop customer care skills. Hotel, restaurant, airport, and travel agency will be expected to be crucial settings for the learners of English for Tourism to use the foreign language in their work.

Functions are the components that learners will be assumed to use to communicate orally. The examples of functions can be seeking factual information (e.g. identifying, reporting), expressing an intellectual attitude (e.g. denying something, accepting an offer or invitation), expressing emotional attitudes (e.g. pleasure, liking, sympathy), expressing moral attitudes (e.g. apologizing, expressing approval), getting things done (e.g. inviting others to do something, advising others), and socializing (e.g. greeting people, when beginning a meal).

In the 1970s, notional-functional syllabuses began to grow in popularity in the United Kingdom, since they attended to functions as components in a foreign language syllabus. Grammar is attended to only in explaining the various forms for achieving certain functions (Brown 1987).

Van Ek and Alexander (1975) seemed more popular and more accepted by people than Wilkins (1976). So far, Van Ek and Alexander's list of functions has become the basic reference for the development of notional-functional syllabuses (Brown 1987).

A notional-functional approach will be considered as the basis for an ESP communicative syllabus.

# 3.4.1 A Notional-Functional Approach as the Basis for an ESP Communicative Syllabus

There are a number of advantages for considering adopting the notional-functional approach. Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1981) describes the nature of the notional-functional approach:

The exponents of the notional/functional approach maintain that syllabuses and teaching materials should not be based on linguistic grading but on the learners' needs, that is, what purposes the learners want to learn the L2 for. The learners' needs will tell us what notions/functions they want to express in the L2 for communication purposes and in which situations. Then it can be decided what forms are appropriate for the realization of these notions/functions. Finally, the appropriate linguistic realizations may be presented cyclically around certain themes and topics.

(ibid: 8)

In a similar way, Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983; see Nunan 1988) also acknowledge that the notional-functional approach has a great benefit for the students and emphasises their communicative purposes in the curriculum. They state the profits of adopting this approach as follows:

- 1. It sets realistic learning tasks.
- 2. It provides for the teaching of everyday, real-world language.
- 3. It leads us to emphasise receptive (listening/reading) activities before rushing learners into premature performance.
- 4. It recognises that the speaker must have a real purpose for speaking, and something to talk about.
- 5. Communication will be intrinsically motivating because it expresses basic communicative functions.
- 6. It enables teachers to exploit sound psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic, linguistic and educational principles.
- 7. It can develop naturally from existing teaching methodology.
- 8. It enables a spiral curriculum to be used which reintroduces grammatical, topical and cultural material.
- 9. It allows for the development of flexible, modular courses.
- 10. It provides for the widespread promotion of foreign language courses. (Finocchiaro and Brumfit ibid: 17; see Nunan ibid: 36)

At the same time, the notional-functional approach implies attention to a growing awareness that the process of education does not stop at the end of secondary or higher education but needs to be concerned with an increasingly complex economic world. Every individual must expect to be required to adopt new or changing roles soon after his or her conventional education has finished (van Ek and Alexander 1975; Brown 1987).

Kim (1992) argues that on account of the notional-functional approach stressing communicative competence and students' needs, this approach can be the theoretical basis for an effective ESP curriculum. Graham (1997) also acknowledges:

The emphasis on language as a communicative tool is reflected in syllabuses constructed according to a notional/functional approach such as the Council of Europe's 'Threshold Level' for English as a Second Language (van Ek 1979). There the aim is the development of practical skills for communication within social and commercial settings. Within this framework, proficiency is viewed as the completion of communicative tasks, within a clearly defined range of functions (e.g. socialising, getting things done), notions (e.g. travel and transport) and language forms that the learner will be expected to use.

## (ibid: 14-15)

Accordingly, it seems reasonable to accept a notional-functional approach to be the basis for an ESP communicative syllabus.

Nevertheless, no syllabuses have been found perfect, without defect. This is also the case of notional-functional syllabuses. Thus the notional-functional approach has received recognition and popularity; at the same time, it has also encountered censure.

# 3.4.2 Criticism of the Notional-Functional Syllabus Concept

As mentioned above, since the 1970s, notional-functional syllabuses have started to grow in popularity for designing the communicative syllabuses. Meanwhile, they
have also been criticised by several scholars. Widdowson (1978; 1990) is one of the most impressive figures among this group. Widdowson argues that the notional-functional syllabus is not appropriate for developing communicative competence, even though it claims to do so. According to his criticism (1990: 130), the notional-functional syllabus is 'of itself no more communicative than is a "structural" one'. Richards and Rodgers (1990) also point out that Wilkins's orignal notional syllabus model was criticized by British applied linguists for it was only one kind of list of notions and functions substituted for another list of grammar items. Writers such as Richards and Rodgers (ibid) and Nunan (1988) comment that the notional-functional syllabus indicates product-orientation rather than communicative processes.

Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1981) also remarks that while the notional-functional approach emphasises the learners' active role as speakers in developing their own productive abilities, aiming at promoting skills such as how to ask questions, invite, and refuse, the learners' active role as listeners, who need to develop receptive abilities, has not been seriously addressed. She argues that in CLT both productive and receptive abilities should be taken into account in a communicative event, as complementary rather than as two discrete skills. Her argument is consistent with one of the basic definitions of CLT which Brown (1987) offers and which concerns both productive and receptive abilities.

After reviewing the literature on the notional-functional syllabuses (e.g. Widdowson 1978a; Brumfit 1978; Hill 1977), Papaefthymiou-Lytra (1981) concludes that the main points that have been argued against notional-functional syllabuses are:

- b. the lack of sound grading of functions and their linguistic realizations, leading to language-like rather than real language behaviour, and
- c. the insufficient attention paid to learners' own learning strategies. (ibid: 9)

a. the difficulty in devising a taxonomy of functions/notions that will feed back in syllabuses and teaching materials.

Morrow (1981) and Widdowson (1990) argue that the significance of communicative methodology is largely not to be taken into much account in notional-functional syllabuses. Learning tasks or communicative tasks may be considered within the framework of a notional-functional approach.

However, so far, no single syllabus and methodology is likely to be perfect enough for ESP teaching and learning. As Prabhu (see Murata 1994: 221) acknowledges, 'there is no single methodology which ideally serves every teaching situation or language need of the learners.' Murata (ibid) suggests:

A methodology needs to be modified and adjusted according to the teaching situations and learner need at the level of execution even if the theory underlying the methodology remains the same.

(ibid: 221)

To avoid being criticised for neglecting communicative methodology, it seems imperative to modify and combine both notional-functional and task-based approaches. How this is related to the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context will be discussed in Chapter 8.

## **3.5** The Emergence of the Concept of Communicative Competence

The main concern focuses on ESP learners' communicative rather than their linguistic competence. It is crucial to examine how communicative competence has been defined and how such definitions may offer a foundation for deciding on what needs to be taught in ESP pedagogy. In this section, the background to the emergence of the concept will be explored. Then how it has been defined by scholars will be discussed in order to prepare a basis for learner needs in ESP teaching and learning.

## 3.5.1 Hymes' Model of Communicative Competence

Among a group of scholars, Hymes, a sociolinguist, is the most influential guiding light who expanded the concept from 'competence' to 'communicative competence' in contrast to Chomsky's linguistic notion. Thus Munby (1978) comments that one of his contributions is that he led the movement to shift from 'grammatical competence' to 'communicative competence' and this has become an underlying and influential term in applied linguistics.

Hymes (1972: 282; see Widdowson 1989: 129) defines communicative competence as 'the capabilities of a person' and 'it is dependent upon both [tacit] knowledge and ability for use'. He gives an example to indicate that knowledge of language only is not sufficient to communicate effectively (Hymes 1972):

We have then to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only grammatical, but as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others.

(ibid: 277)

Hymes implies that social-cultural variables in terms of speaker-listener, speech events, speech acts, and appropriacy are crucial to linguistics. Widdowson (1978, 1983) observes that communicative competence is said to include not only the speaker's knowledge of the rules of 'usage' (the linguistic system) of the language but also, more importantly, knowledge of the rules of 'use' of the language in appropriate situations.

Chomsky's linguistic theory is based on: 'grammaticality' and 'acceptability'. Hymes extends this theory, and his concept of communicative competence requires not just two features (grammaticality and acceptability) but four. Hymes (1972) suggests:

If an adequate theory of language users and language use is to be developed, it seems that judgements must be recognized to be in fact not of two kinds but of four. And if linguistic theory is to be integrated with theory of communication and culture, this fourfold distinction must be stated in a sufficiently generalized way.

(ibid: 281)

Hymes integrates linguistic theory with a more general theory of communication and culture and proposes systems of rules underlying communicative competence (Hymes 1972; see Munby 1978; see Savignon 1983):

- 1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
- 2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;
- 3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
- 4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what its doing entails. (Hymes 1972: 281; Munby 1978: 15; Savignon 1983: 12)

Thus Hymes expands from Chomsky's two parameters of competence to four by subdividing the category of 'acceptability' into three new aspects of 'feasibility', 'appropriateness' and 'attestedness in actual occurrence' in Chomsky's model (Widdowson 1989: 130; see Murata 1994: 6).

Munby (1978) elucidates that the four components of Hymes' communicative competence:

reflect the speaker-hearer's grammatical (formally possible), psycholinguistic (implementationally feasible), sociocultural (contextually appropriate) and de facto (actually occurring) knowledge and ability for use.

(ibid: 15)

Hymes' communicative competence relates to grammatical aspects of linguistics. It also deals with psychological processes related to linguistic knowledge, and sociolinguistic issues appropriate to the context. Ability for use may relate to all four parameters. As Hymes (1972) indicates:

Knowledge also is to be understood as subtending all four parameters of communication just noted. There is knowledge of each. Ability for use also may relate to all four parameters. Certainly it may be the case that individuals differ with regard to ability to use knowledge of each: to interpret, differentiate, etc.

(ibid: 282-3)

Each of Hymes' four parameters includes both 'knowledge' and 'ability for use'. His model of competence explains what kind of knowledge learners require more comprehensively than Chomsky's idealised competence model. Thus his model has influenced various scholars, applied linguists in particular.

Even though Hymes has contributed to and influenced applied lingustics, his concept of competence is still questioned, reinterpreted or expanded by other scholars.

## 3.5.2 Widdowson's View of 'Communicative Competence'

Widdowson (1983; see Murata 1994) comments that not only the model of 'competence' proposed by Chomsky (1965) but also that of 'communicative competence' proposed by Hymes (1972) are inadequate as frameworks for communication. Widdowson (1983; see Murata 1994) prefers the term 'capacity' to 'competence' or 'communicative competence'.

What the concept of competence does not appear to account for is the ability to create meanings by exploiting the potential inherent in the language for continual modification in response to change.

(Widdowson 1983: 8)

Widdowson (ibid: 25; see Murata 1994: 12) also suggests that: firstly, communicative competence 'seems to imply an analytic, rather than a user, perspective', and secondly, it 'seems to imply conformity, either to code (linguistic competence) or to social convention (communicative competence).' Murata (1994) supports Widdowson's views, and claims:

Widdowson's (1983) 'communicative capacity' seems deliberately more comprehensive than Hymes' 'communicative competence', which still seems insufficient to explain how learners activate their knowledge in actual communication, be it grammatical or sociocultural.

(ibid: 12)

Widdowson's point is well made, but it seems possible to extend 'communicative competence' to take account of these observations. This point refers also to the later models which have been well-refined and reinterpreted after Hymes' one, such as, Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983).

Others have worked on the categories of 'communicative competence'. Most of these categories explain how learners activate their knowledge in actual communication, especially Canale and Swain's and Canale's (1983) strategic competence and discourse competence in particular. Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) models have played influential roles in applied linguistics, curriculum design and classroom practice, as will be reviewed below.

## 3.5.3 Canale and Swain's and Canale's Models

Since Hymes first set out the components of communicative competence, several scholars have extended Hymes' original model or established their own definitions and interpretations. Canale and Swain are the most striking personalities among this group of linguists. Their framework of communicative competence has been widely accepted as a basis for curriculum design and classroom practice (Savignon 1983; see Murray 1996). They have made several contributions to make their models more comprehensive and more acceptable than others in the field of applied linguistics.

Canale and Swain (1980) argued that there was no research and no theory of human action to explain the notion of 'ability for use'. Therefore, they introduced the term 'communicative performance' to take the place of Hymes' term 'ability for use' for the actual use of language for communication. Moreover, they (ibid: 7) also pointed out that communicative performance is characterized as including factors, for instance, 'volition, motivation, and pathology (organic or functional) that may influence the range of choices of action one has in a given domain.' Comparing Hymes' 'ability for use' with Canale and Swain's 'communicative performance', these are two different phrases which bear similar meanings, and have a similar nature. However, Canale and Swain's term is likely to be more dynamic than Hymes'.

Canale and Swain (1980) point out that since Hymes, Savignon, Halliday, and van Ek, theories of communicative competence have not taken the integration of different components into serious consideration. Canale and Swain (ibid: 19) argue that these existing theories 'devote relatively little attention to how individual utterances may be linked at the level of discourse and do not provide an integration of the different components of communicative competence.' Canale and Swain introduced 'integrative theories of communicative competence'.

Moreover, Canale and Swain's (1980) model of communicative competence extended Hymes' original model to include the notion of 'strategic competence', which gives more insight into the activation of knowledge. Subsequently Canale (1983) slightly modified Canale and Swain's (1980) original theoretical framework of the three competencies, 'grammatical', 'sociolinguistic' and 'strategic', to four, by separating 'discourse' competence from 'sociolinguistic competence.' Canale (1983) outlined the content and boundaries of each of the four areas of communicative competence as follows:

- 1. Grammatical Competence ... concerned with mastery of the language code (verbal or non-verbal) itself.
- 2. Sociolinguistic competence ... which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors such as status of participants, purposes of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction.
- 3. Discourse Competence ... concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text .... Unity of a text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning.
- 4. Strategic Competence... composed of mastery of verbal and non-verbal

communication strategies ... to compensate for breakdowns in communication....

(ibid: 6-7)

Canale and Swain's or Canale's 'grammatical competence' is similar to Hymes' 'possibility' while their 'sociolinguistic competence' appears to correspond to his 'appropriacy' component (Murray 1996). Nevertheless, it is difficult to compare their categories of 'discourse competence' and 'strategic competence' with Hymes's other parameters of communicative competence. It seems that Hymes does not take discourse competence and strategic competence into account as parameters of communicative competence.

Hymes can be credited with leading us to take rules of use and social-cultural appropriacy into account in second or foreign language learning. Canale and Swain furthermore drew our attention to sociolinguistic competence as well as highlighting parameters of strategic competence. Canale polished the model by combining discourse competence with the essential components of sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Strategic competence and discourse competence seem to be the most crucial elements in the components of communicative competence and the most important contribution that these authors have made. These crucial components of communicative competence are often ignored or neglected by other models in addition to Hymes', and are usually forgotten in applied linguistics or language learning and language teaching as well.

In many ways, their models, Canale's in particular, are more refined, more elaborated and more comprehensive than Hymes'. This may legitimise their models, since as Savignon (1983) points out, these have been widely accepted as a basis for curriculum design and classroom practice.

## 3.5.4 Bachman's Model of 'Communicative Language Ability'

Bachman (1990), in a more current contribution to the debate, proposed a framework of 'communicative language ability' (CLA) as a basis for developing tests

of communicative proficiency in foreign languages. According to Bachman (1990: 81), CLA incorporates earlier work on communicative competence, such as Hymes 1972; Munby 1978; Canale and Swain 1980; Savignon 1983; Canale 1983. His framework of CLA contains 'both knowledge, or competence, and the capacity for implementing, or executing that competence in appropriate, contextualized communicative language use' (Bachman ibid: 84).

Bachman (ibid) defines language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms as the three components of CLA in communicative language use. Language competence comprises specific knowledge in language use, such as grammatical, textual, illocutionary, and sociolinguistic competence. Strategic competence consists of general knowledge in communicative language use including assessment, planning, and execution of communicative goals. Psychophysiological mechanisms are associated with language use according to the channel (auditory, visual) and mode (receptive or productive) (Bachman 1990: 107-108).

Basically Bachman's model of CLA and Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence are, to some degree, similar. Canale and Swain's (1980) model serves as a theoretical basis for communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. Bachman's (1990) model mainly provides a theoretical framework for second language testing. Both of them emphasise strategic competence, though their definitions of strategic competence are somewhat different. Canale and Swain's (ibid) strategic competence means the ability 'to compensate for breakdowns in communication' and to enhance 'the effectiveness of communication' (Canale 1983: 11). Bachman (ibid: 106) considers 'strategic competence' as 'a general ability, which enables an individual to make the most effective use of available abilities in carrying out a given task,...' Accordingly, Canale and Swain's strategic competence is limited to communication strategies whilst according to Bachman, it involves strategies of learning. In addition, what Bachman names 'textual competence' is also similar to Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) term 'discourse competence'. As Bachman (1990) states:

Textual competence includes the knowledge of the conventions for joining utterances together to form a text, which is essentially a unit of language-spoken or written--consisting of two or more utterances or sentences that are structured according to rules of cohesion and rhetorical organization. (ibid: 88)

Thus both Canale and Swain's model and Bachman's model take both strategic competence and discourse competence (or textual competence) into account in language teaching or language testing. Strategic competence and discourse competence are likely to be the crucial components for language teaching and learning. Hereupon we cannot help questioning whether we need to give special attention to both of these two components of communicative competence.

# **3.6 Two Most Crucial Components of Communicative Competence:** Strategic Competence and Discourse Competence

This framework of communicative competence raises an interesting and debatable issue whether there is a need to pay equal importance to the different components of communicative competence. There appears to be no empirical research to clarify this issue. However, Canale and Swain (1980) argue that:

There is no strong theoretical or empirical motivation for the view that grammatical competence is any more or less crucial to successful communication than is sociolinguistic competence or strategic competence. The primary goal of a communicative approach must be to facilitate the integration of these types of knowledge of the learner, an outcome that is not likely to result from overemphasis on one form of competence over others throughout a second language programme.

(ibid: 27)

Canale and Swain assert that a communicative approach must pay equal attention to each type of knowledge and integrate them without over-emphasis on one form of competence. Nevertheless, the following statements or arguments may lead us to focus on strategic competence and discourse competence as superior to other components.

#### 3.6.1 Strategic Competence

Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) stress strategic competence over other types of competence. As they argue, strategic competence should be a major component in communicative competence; however, strategic competence is seriously neglected by language teachers and language course books. According to their viewpoint, when students lack strategic competence, even though they may have a wide range of vocabulary and rich knowledge of grammar, they may still be unable to carry out their communicative purpose, whereas relying on their strategic competence, students may communicate successfully with only one hundred words. This is consistent with Canale and Swain (1980: 25) who indicate that strategic competence enables one 'to cope in an authentic communicative situation' and 'to keep the communicative channel open'. As mentioned above, 'strategic competence' plays a role in negotiation in the course of communication both by compensating for breakdowns and by enhancing 'the effectiveness of communication' (Canale 1983: 11).

Wolfson (1989:47) also comments that Canale and Swain's (1980) 'strategic competence' is foregounded to 'call attention to both verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that can help language learners to cope with remedy breakdowns in communication which result from lack of proficiency in the language.' In fact, the objective of the framework suggested by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) for second language teaching is to 'prepare and encourage learners to exploit in an optimal way their limited communicative competence in the second language in order to participate in communication situations' (Canale 1983: 17; see Wolfson 1989: 47)

What Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Wolfson (1989) and Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) identify as strategic competence is similar to what caused Savignon (cited in Savignon 1983: 40) to characterise strategic competence as 'coping or survival strategies'. Savignon (1983) also explains why strategic competence is a crucial component of communicative competence:

The effective use of coping strategies is important for communicative competence in all contexts and distinguishes highly competent communicators from those who are less so.

(ibid: 43)

Moreover, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) also suggest the necessity of 'integrative theories of communicative competence in which strategic competence relates to grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence.' Canale (1983) continues to emphasize the integrative theories of strategic competence with grammatical competence, sociolingustic competence and discourse competence. In other words, strategic competence plays an important role in communicative competence when integrated with other components.

Accordingly, strategic competence seems crucial. It may be imperative to argue that this competence should not be ignored in language learning and in language use. Authors, such as Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) have suggested that strategy training should be included in a communicative syllabus.

Here it is essential to mention that the definition of strategic competence proposed by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), is likely to be concerned only with communication strategies rather than learning strategies. Nevertheless it should be argued that learning and communication strategies are similar. As Oxford (1990) claims:

The argument that communication strategies cannot also be learning strategies is inaccurate. It is often impossible to determine whether the learner intends to use a given strategy to communicate or to learn; often the motivations are mixed, and besides, learning often results even if communication is the main goal (Tarone 1983; Rubin 1987). (ibid: 243)

In fact, it is difficult to say whether the learner's aim is to use strategies to learn or communicate. Learners may adopt strategic competence to learn and communicate

as well through language. To support the theory that communication strategies and learning strategies should be inseparable or should be integrated into one, in this thesis, the phrase 'learning strategies' is adopted, taking a broad view which contains both learning strategies and communication strategies in strategic competence.

## **3.6.2 Discourse Competence**

As stated above, most research literature on language acquisition is concerned with the issues of grammatical competence or sociolinguistic competence for the attainment of the goal of accuracy and appropriacy. Though discourse competence is a crucial component of communicative competence it is under-represented in empirical research and often ignored in the literature and in language learning and teaching as well, especially in the context of English as a foreign language. It is worth discussing why discourse competence is a crucial component of communicative competence and should not be ignored.

It seems that if discourse competence is neglected, too little account is taken of abilities 'to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text' (Canale 1983: 6) or to connect 'a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole' (Savignon 1983: 38). Instead, structural correctness (accuracy) has primacy rather than the connection of discourse. However, it has been noted that correct sentences are not sufficient for communication. As Cook (1995) also comments:

There is more to producing and understanding meaningful language--to communicating--than knowing how to make or recognise correct sentences. (ibid: 6)

If discourse competence is ignored, learners may have to forgo the opportunities to implement and promote their sociolinguistic competence. By so doing, foreign language students stop at the level of grammatical competence and do not have the ability or even the confidence to produce discourse whenever they have to face unmet communication needs. This case is similar to that described by Brown (1987) of the foreign language students 'for whom speech does not "emerge" and for whom the "silent period" might last forever.' It may be said that the long 'silent period' or difficulties in communicating in L2 fluently related to lack of discourse competence.

The ultimate goal of grammatical competence is to attain accuracy, and of sociolinguistic competence appropriacy. Discourse competence seems to pursue the eventual purpose of fluency. This might be illustrated as follows:

- 1. grammatical competence---->accuracy
- 2. sociolingustic competence----> appropriacy
- 3. discourse competence----> fluency, cohesion and coherence
- 4. Strategic competence helps all three of them to realise their final goal more effectively.

To sum up, discourse competence and strategic competence may be seen as the basic and first priority. Accordingly, fluency should be put before accuracy for emphasising the importance of effective communication in teaching English for Tourism which has been argued in Chapter 2.

## 3.7 Summary

This chapter has focused on discussing features of CLT, the main components of communicative competence and looking into a model for the effectiveness of CLT. In reviewing the theories of CLT, it has been noted that 'comprehensible input' (Krashen and Terrell 1983; Krashen 1985) seems to be insufficient for CLT. Both productive and receptive abilities have been argued as an integrated skill rather than two discrete skills in CLT.

In examining components of communicative competence, discourse competence and strategic competence seem to play an essential role in the theoretical framework for curriculum design and classroom practice. These two components seem to be especially helpful in prioritising learners' fluency in using L2 and in facilitating the move toward accuracy. However both discourse competence and strategic competence are often ignored in language teaching and learning. This is also the case in foreign language teaching in the Taiwanese context. With this in mind, the empirical study will be directly relevant to ESP learners' development of strategic competence in order to achieve their utmost goal of discourse competence (fluency). It is hoped that the implications and applications of the current study can bring Taiwanese language teachers' attention, to these two crucial components of communicative competence. On the other hand, it is suggested that strategic competence should be seen with a broad perspective, as including learning and communication strategies.

It is noted that no single approach can be suitable for ESP teaching and learning. It is suggested to further discuss how notional-functional and task-based approaches should be modified and combined to be suitable in teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

Having discussed some theories of ESP and CLT, it is important to go further to explore some theories of learning strategies. In the following chapter, learning strategies will be discussed.

#### **Chapter 4**

## The State and Status of Learning Strategies

## 4.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2, it has been postulated that it is imperative to understand learners' learning strategies in their 'learning needs' when considering a communicative approach as an orthodoxy of ESP in the Taiwanese context. In Chapter 3, strategic competence and discourse competence have been argued to be the most important components in language teaching and learning to emphasise fluency before accuracy. Moreover, it has been suggested that strategic competence should be considered to contain learning and communication strategies, which is a broader view than Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) have proposed.

In this chapter, first of all, some related terms--'strategies', 'tactics', 'techniques', and 'styles' will be discussed, in arriving at a definition of learning strategies. Secondly, Oxford's (1990) twelve features of learning strategies will be considered. Several issues will be raised from these features in terms of consciousness or unconsciousness, teachability, and three key factors influencing strategy choice. These three key factors (cultural background, teaching methods, and learners' belief) playing important roles in determining strategy choice will be explored in greater detail. Following this, several important studies in the research history of good learning strategies will be reviewed. Finally, three stages of second language acquisition will be explored.

Now let us begin by looking at basic terms related to learning strategies in order to define the term, learning strategies, itself.

#### 4.2 Definitions of Learning Strategies

To understand learning strategies, it is necessary to discuss the meanings of similar basic terms: for instance, strategies, tactics, techniques and styles. These terms are often used interchangeably in many studies. Rubin (1975: 43) defines strategies as 'the techniques or devices which a learner may use to acquire knowledge'. According to Oxford (1990: 7), strategy originates from the ancient Greek term 'strategia' which means 'generalship or the art of war'; 'tactics', a different but related term, are tools to achieve the success of strategies. As Von Clausewitz (cited in James 1984: 15 in Oxford ibid: 238) states, 'Tactics is the art of using troops in battle; strategy is the art of using battles to win wars.' Oxford (ibid: 7) further states that the two military terms share some basic implied features: 'planning, competition, conscious manipulation, and movement toward a goal.' Moreover, the 'strategy' concept has been applied to nonmilitary settings to mean 'a plan, step, or conscious action toward achievement of an objective' (ibid: 8).

Nonetheless, other writers below have different interpretations and offer clear distinctions between these terms. Seliger (1984; in Absy 1992) refers the term 'tactics' to conscious processes whilst the term 'strategies' relates to unconscious processes which are inaccessible for introspection. Whether 'strategies' should relate to conscious or unconscious processes is a very debatable issue which will be discussed further in section 4.3.1.

Stern (1975) makes the distinction between general strategies and specific techniques. In a similar way, Schmeck (1988) distinguishes between general strategies and specific tactics. In addition, Brown (1987) also distinguishes between styles and strategies:

"Style" is a term that refers to consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual.... For example, you might be more visually oriented, more tolerant of ambiguity, or more reflective than someone else....

Strategies are specific methods of approaching a problem, modes of operation for achieving a particular end, planned designs for controlling and manipulating certain information. (Ibid : 79)

According to these definitions, it seems easier to distinguish between styles and strategies. Nevertheless, it is much harder to tell the differences between strategies and tactics or techniques. Strategies seem more general than tactics or techniques. Schmeck (1988) comments that in theory, strategies, techniques, tactics and styles all comprise processes. It may be unnecessary to make strict distinctions between these similar terms.

Oxford (1990: 8) defines learning strategies as 'specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, more transferable to new situations'. Absy (1992: 6) states that learning strategies are 'commonly defined as deliberate behaviors or actions learners engage in for the purpose of facilitating and enhancing learning'. Wang (1992) with a broad view defines learning strategies as follows:

A learning strategy is a learner's deliberate intervention in his learning process, in which he consciously chooses a course of action, which he sustains over a period of time; which may be mental, physical, affective, social, or logistical; which makes use of internal and external resources; and which he directs towards some aspect of his learning goals.

(ibid: 89)

Thus Wang indicates that learning strategies originate from internal resources, within the learners themselves, but also from their external resources, teachers, peers, books, radio, and television. In short, learning strategies include psychological and social elements, 'not just the cognitive' (Oxford 1990: 9) or 'more than just the mind' (Wang 1992: 25).

These definitions show the dynamism, richness or excitement of learning strategies which are useful and helpful to language learning and language teaching. Combining these concepts as above, in this work, learning strategies are defined as internal resources within the learners themselves (e.g. mental, physical, affective or social behaviors, actions, or plans), and using external resources (e.g. books, teachers, radio and television) implemented by the learners to promote and ease learning and communication difficulties and improve effectiveness. Here it should be stated that when discussing and exploring learners' learning strategies, we need to include the whole context. That is, both within and outside the classroom should be taken into account. Having defined learning strategies, it is now appropriate to discuss the features of learning strategies.

## 4.3 Features of Learning Strategies

Oxford (1990) offers some general definitions of learning strategies, as mentioned above. She also provides certain key features of language learning strategies which will be summarised in the table and discussed below.

Table 1 Features of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies:

- 1. Contribute to the main goal, communicative competence.
- 2. Allow learners to become more self-directed.
- 3. Expand the role of teachers.
- 4. Are problem-oriented.
- 5. Are specific actions taken by the learner.
- 6. Involve many aspects of the learner, not just the cognitive.
- 7. Support learning both directly and indirectly.
- 8. Are not always observable.
- 9. Are often conscious.
- 10. Can be taught.
- 11. Are flexible.
- 12. Are influenced by a variety of factors.

Source: Oxford (1990: 9).

A number of the features listed above are exactly the same as the features of CLT or ESP which have been discussed in Chapters 2 and 3 respectively. For instance, learner self-direction (taking responsibility for their own learning, being active rather than passive learners), the teacher's role as a facilitator rather than an authority, relating to the main goal, and communicative competence are all the shared special features. As Murray (1996: 89) notes, the ESP learner 'will need to have invested in learning strategies that will enable him to adjust as effectively as possible to the communicative conventions of the community in which he finds himself functioning'. It seems that ESP, CLT, and learning strategies should be

linked together as a crucial trinity. Hence, three of them have emerged in a parallel development since the early 1970s to shift the focus from a teacher-centred to a learner-centred approach in language learning and teaching.

However, there are three features which need to be discussed further:

## 4.3.1 Consciousness or Unconsciousness?

As mentioned above, Seliger (1984; in Absy 1992) states that 'strategies' are unconscious rather than conscious processes. This view reflects Krashen's (1982) binary learning/acquisition distinction. Krashen uses the term 'acquisition' to refer to the unconscious process; 'learning' is relevant to the conscious process. However, many language education experts or authors, for instance, Chamot (1987), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) do not accept this rigid distinction and further argue to disprove this theory.

Chamot (1987) finds that good learners (identified by the teacher) do use conscious learning strategies in and out of classrooms for different kinds of language learning activities. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Oxford (1990) indicate that people can be consciously aware of their learning process and may even apply specific strategies to aid learning. According to their views, during the initial stages, learning strategies are always conscious actions, but can become unconscious or automatic after practice or use.

As Oxford (1990: 4) argues, 'learning strategies contribute to all parts of the learning-acquisition continuum' which shows Krashen's (1982) strict distinction between learning and acquisition to be unnecessary. Oxford (1990) also points out that many language education experts such as Campbell and Wales (1970), Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980), and Omaggio (1986) suggest that both learning and acquisition are essential for communicative competence.

It seems misleading to say that learning strategies are always conscious or always unconscious. It may be argued that it is essential that learning strategies connect both conscious and unconscious processes to contribute to learning and acquisition and achieve the goal of communicative competence, especially in fluency or effective communication.

## 4.3.2 Teachability?

A number of writers or researchers of language teaching have taken an interest in the argument about the teachability of learning strategies in recent years. Bialystok (1990) is the most prominent figure to oppose the teaching of communication strategies directly. Bialystok (ibid) claims that empirical evidence, as in O'Malley et al (1985 a, b) does not test the efficiency of teaching communication strategies to second language learners. Bialystok (ibid) also points out that Stern (1983) discusses CLT but never indicates that communication strategies can be taught as part of the curriculum. Bialystok (ibid) argues that what is necessary for instruction in language processing is practice rather than the teaching of strategies. As the author explains:

Experience in speaking, listening, reading, and writing all contribute to the learner's development of fluent procedures for identifying and accessing relevant knowledge, both linguistic and nonlinguistic, that become especially critical to communication when proficiency in the target language is limited. With the cultivation of these skill components, it is argued, will come the effective use of communication strategies.

(ibid: 146)

Bialystok wants to argue that once we practise the four language skills, we develop fluency, and later we adopt communication strategies effectively. The key argument she (ibid: 147) raises is: 'what one must teach students of a language is not strategy, but language.'

Rees-Miller (1993) also gives a less optimistic view of instruction of good language learners' learning strategies to less successful language learners to develop the effectiveness of their learning. The author points out that published data show that success in language learning could be more complicated than such an approach would indicate. Thus she further advises that to implement learner training in the classroom to facilitate independent learning on the part of students, classroom teachers must take into account certain factors, such as cultural differences, age, education background of students, students' and teachers' beliefs about language learning, and cognitive styles.

On the other hand, another school of authors and researchers offers positive views to support strategy training which is in line with what Norman (1980: 256; see Graham 1997: 171) has argued that 'it is strange that we expect students to learn yet seldom teach them anything about learning.' Chamot (1987) leads us to believe that it would be helpful for some students receiving training to be taught strategies which are more effective for learning and which learners might not think of using on their own. In their course development study, Chamot and Kupper (1989) observed four teachers teaching students how to apply learning strategies. These researchers found that the success of language learning strategies depends on teacher interest, development of techniques to train students to use effective strategies. In short, the teachers play important roles in training students to use effective or appropriate learning strategies and help them become more successful language learners.

Oxford (1990) states that even the best learners can also polish their strategy use through strategy training. Oxford and Crookall (1989), and Oxford (1990) advise that strategy training helps to guide learners to become more conscious of strategy use and more skilful in utilising appropriate strategies. As mentioned in Chapter 3, Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) argue that it is important to include strategy training in a communicative syllabus. O'Malley et al (1985 a, b) also suggest that the teacher should be aware of the possibilities for using learning strategies as part of their instruction and should identify specific strategies experimentally to indicate efficiency and value for increasing student learning. Graham (1997) also argues that educators must offer strategy training to aid their learners to gain access to the learning process instead of assuming that they will discover it automatically for themselves. In addition, Ayaduray and Jacobs (1997) report that there were no significant differences between the control class and the treatment class before the 10-week treatment in their own study. However, after the instruction, the treatment class asked significantly more higher order questions and offered significantly more elaborated responses. Therefore, they conclude that the result of this study is to support the view that it is possible to train students to choose new, more efficient learning strategies.

There are more authors who support strategy training than those who oppose it. The authors and researchers as above suggest that the teaching and training of learning strategies are useful and helpful. Accordingly, it seems reasonable to argue that it is crucial to include strategy training in the ESP communicative syllabus.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) also raised issues relevant to instruction in learning strategies. According to O'Malley and Chamot (ibid), researchers, such as Brown et al (1986), Palincsar and Brown (1984), Wenden (1987), Weinstein and Mayer (1986) and Winograd and Hare (1988) recommend that instruction in learning strategies be direct rather than embedded so as to be more effective. Whether instruction in learning strategies should be direct or embedded seems crucial for language learning. This issue needs to be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 8.

#### 4.3.3 Key Factors Influencing Learning Strategy Choice

Much research has examined factors related to the choice of language learning strategies. Language being learned; duration: level and number of years of language study; degree of metacognitive awareness; age; sex; affective variables, such as attitudes, motivation, language learning goals, personality characteristics, and general personality type; learning style; aptitude; career orientation; national origin; language teaching methods; task requirements; type of strategy training are all significant (Oxford 1989; Oxford and Nyikos 1989; Oxford 1990). This is consistent with what Oxford (1990) has already mentioned, as above, that a variety

of factors influence language learning strategies.

The three factors discussed below which have a direct bearing on the present research also play an important role in influencing the choice of learning strategy:

## 4.3.3.1 Cultural Backgrounds

Cultural backgrounds of learners have a strong influence on the learning strategies adopted. As Politzer and McGroarty (1985) note:

....many of the good learning behaviors represent certain types of social interactions which Asians are less likely to engage in than are Hispanics (and probably any other representatives of Western culture). Classroom behaviors such as correcting fellow students, asking the teacher all kinds of questions, any kind of volunteering, several social interaction behaviors such as asking for help, asking others to repeat, and asking for confirmation are apparently more a part of the Western rather than the Asian learning repertoire.

(ibid: 113-114)

In a similar way, Wenden (1982) points out that cultural assumptions and cultural

norms can direct one's learning experiences, behaviours, habits of doing things, or thoughts:

Some learners may realise that their inability to participate in class discussion is due to cultural norms that stipulate that they should not publicly disagree with another.

(ibid: 9)

This view mirrors that of Becker (1991) in 'Reasons for the Lack of Argumentation and Debate in the Far East':

In Chinese and Japanese eyes, taking opposite sides of an argument necessarily meant becoming a personal rival and antagonist of the one who held the other side. The more important concomitant of this idea was that if one did not wish to become a lifelong opponent of someone else, he would not venture an opinion contrary to the other person's opinions in public.

(ibid: 236)

As already discussed in Chapter 1, Chinese cultural background deeply rooted and shaped by Confucian philosophy did influence English language learning and teaching in China and in Taiwan. Intensive reading, rote learning, memorisation, grammatical analysis and translation are the typical features of Chinese learning. These are different from modern Western views which stress effective oral communication and extensive reading. Therefore, when we consider adopting a communicative approach in the Taiwanese context, we may need to take the traditional Chinese cultural background into account.

## 4.3.3.2 Teaching Methods

Learning and teaching are always to interact with each other. As Brown (1987) indicates:

Teaching cannot be defined apart from learning.... Teaching is guiding and facilitating, enabling the learner to learn, setting the conditions for learning. (ibid: 7)

Accordingly, it seems reasonable to assume that teaching methods greatly influence and even dominate how students learn. As Politzer and McGroarty (1985) show:

In addition, these behaviors may reflect the type of previous English instruction the subjects had received. In many Asian educational institutions, where the emphasis in language instruction is placed on rote memorization, translation of texts, or recognition of correct grammatical forms in reading, these interactive second language learning behaviors are not always likely to occur in classroom settings. Large class size may also make their use problematic. Both these factors characterize English instruction in Japan.... The situation in Taiwan is similar....

(ibid: 114)

Gunderson and Johnson (1980), Bejarano (1987) and Bassano and Christison (1988) also note that teaching methods or language learning experiences not only influence strategy use, but also determine the effectiveness and success of language learning. They find that small-group cooperative techniques are more effective than whole class methods because, in cooperative classrooms, learners begin to feel more successful and confident, more self-disciplined, and become independent thinkers and willing explorers. Therefore they suggest that in order to

meet the affective factors and the needs of students, small groups are organised to facilitate cooperative and communicative learning strategies. Simultaneously intergroup competition is used to motivate students' interest and enthusiasm for all class activities.

In a similar way, Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall (1989) and Oxford and Crookall (1989) explain why a communicative approach is different from the traditional classroom in influencing strategy use. According to these authors, in the communicative approach, simulation, games and game-like activities inspire both communication and language learning strategies. Through communication and cooperation with each other, students use social, cognitive, and affective strategies. In addition, these activities cause students to talk more and teachers to talk less. At the same time learners become more self-sufficient or self-directed, and more responsible for their own learning and use a wide range of language learning strategies.

Accordingly, language teaching methods frequently affect language learning strategy use, and effective and successful language learning as well. They show that a communicative approach is very different from the traditional classroom. In the communicative approach, learners develop, for instance, communication, cooperation, self-confidence, responsibility, independence, appropriate learning strategies, motivation, interest, and enthusiasm. This supports the argument of authors, such as Brown (1987) and Oxford (1989) that in order to make teaching methods more effective and appropriate, language teachers should be aware how important are the roles they play in determining the teaching methods. Nevertheless, it may be indispensable for teachers to consider learners' previous learning experience when they are new to a communicative approach.

### 4.3.3.3 Learners' Beliefs

Since the early 1970s, researchers and writers of second language learning have focused their interest on what learners do (the learners' strategies). However, little

or no theoretical or empirical research has been concerned with learners' reflections on the beliefs about their second language learning. What the learners believe can influence strategy use (Wenden 1982, 1986 a, 1986 b, 1987). In her thesis, Wenden (1982: 5) points out that in 1948 Lewis said: 'in learning a second language, the adult student almost inevitably thinks about what he is doing and reflects on the nature of the process.' Thus Wenden was the first to initiate investigation into not only what learners do but also what learners think, that is, the beliefs underlying the learning process which Lewis referred to.

Horwitz (1987) states that ESL students hold a wide variety of beliefs about language learning. According to the author, these beliefs may be influenced by the students' previous language learning experiences or shaped by their cultural background.

Wenden (1986 a and b) argues for the significance of activities of 'thinking about learning'. As she (ibid a) suggests:

Research on learner strategies has been motivated, in part, by the desire to discover the secrets of successful language learners, with the hope of using the information to help less effective learners. This study suggests that our curricula in learner training, i.e. the activities we develop to nurture strategic competence, should not be limited to the transmittal of effective strategies. Teachers are also urged to discover what their students believe or know about their learning, and to provide activities that would allow students to examine these beliefs and their possible impact on how they approach learning. In sum, it is not enough that we strive to help language learners diversify their repertoire of strategies. A critical and informed awareness is necessary for the artful use of acquired skills. (ibid a: 199)

Wenden (ibid b) advises that this activity has educational value. Horwitz (1987) acknowledges that the importance of identifying or discovering students' beliefs about language learning aims to help them to clear up misconceptions about language learning and develop more effective and more appropriate language learning strategies. Giorgi (in Wenden 1982: 102), in a similar way, points out one

important type of learning, 'Breaking Wrong Assumptions in a Situation'. The author (see Wenden ibid) further explicates:

It is when learners become aware of the wrong assumptions they hold about their linguistic competence and about how to learn a language that they decide to change.

(see Wenden ibid: 102)

Accordingly, learners' beliefs determine whether they implement appropriate or inappropriate learning strategies. It may be argued that activities not only transmitting effective strategies, but also 'thinking about learning' need to be included in the teaching and learning of English for Tourism programme.

Nunan (1989; 1993) also advises that learners should be encouraged to reflect on their learning process and enunciate those they prefer and need. By taking account of subjective learner needs within a learner-centred approach, Nunan (1989; 1993) further proposed that there should be negotiation and consultation with learners in selecting content and methodology. In a similar way, Brindley (1984; see Nunan 1993) indicates:

Since, as we have noted, a good many learners are likely to have fixed ideas about course content, learning activities, teaching methods and so forth, it seems that teachers will continually have to face the problem of deciding to what extent to make compromises. However, if programmes are to be learner-centred, then learners' wishes should be canvassed and taken into account, even if they conflict with the wishes of the teacher. This is not to suggest that the teacher should give learners everything that they want-evidence from teachers suggests that some sort of compromise is usually possible, but only after there has been discussion concerning what both parties believe and want.

(Brindley ibid: 111; see Nunan ibid: 6)

Accordingly, it may be important to investigate not only what learners do, but also what they believe about the second language learning and how the appropriate content and methodology will best help them to enhance the effectiveness of learning. These issues will be the centre in this empirical research and discussed in Chapter 8.

In summary, these three factors of cultural backgrounds, teaching methods, and learners' beliefs are likely to have a direct and strong impact on determining the choice of learning strategy. It seems crucial to investigate how learners who have different cultural backgrounds or who have experienced different teaching methods may need to make changes in their assumptions or beliefs and develop learning strategies in the new learning context. Therefore, this is appropriate for the purpose of the current study. Before doing further research in learning strategies, it is essential to review research history in this area.

#### 4.4 Research History of Good Language Learners' Learning Strategies

Learning strategies can be traced back to ancient Greek times, but only recently have these attracted the interest of researchers, linguists and educators. McLaughlin (1987; in Absy 1992) indicates that language learning strategies may be educed from findings or principles of cognitive psychology. In 1966 Aaron Carton's study 'The Method of Inference in Foreign Language Study' was the first research on learner strategies. In 1971, following Carton and work on learning theory, Rubin initiated research on the strategies of good language learners (Rubin 1987). She (1975) was the first to focus on studying 'good' language learners' strategies through observations and talking to good language learners and their teachers.

Stern (1975) has noted numerous differences between good and poor learners. Good learners attempt to discover their preferred or particular learning strategies so as to make their own language learning more effective, while poor learners have little insight into their own learning and do not develop any specific and efficient learning strategies or study habits. The author has suggested that the contrast between good and poor learners is the best way to understand better the poor learners' difficulties and help them to develop more effective strategies.

In their longitudinal study, Chamot and Kupper (1989) also have similar findings: more successful students used learning strategies more often, more appropriately, and in a wider range to complete their learning tasks successfully. Less successful learners had fewer kinds of strategies, used learning strategies inappropriately and did not complete their learning tasks successfully.

According to Oxford and Nyikos (1989), several authorities, such as Hosenfeld (1979), Reiss (1983), Politzer (1983) and Politzer & McGroarty (1985) commented that appropriate learning strategies help the performance of good language learners. Inappropriate learning strategies frequently cause failures of poor language learners.

These perspectives can explain why in the research history of learning strategies, much research has either focused on investigating strategies of good language learners or on contrasting good and poor language learners. It is assumed that examples of good learning strategies can be used to help poor or less successful language learners to discover and develop more appropriate language learning strategies to promote their performance, discover some special tricks and shortcuts and make second language learning easier and more effective (Rubin 1975; Hosenfeld 1979; Chamot 1987; Oxford 1989; Oxford and Nyikos 1989).

Which strategies do good language learners use? How can researchers identify them? It depends on from which angle or which focus researchers look at the good language learners. Since Rubin (1975) there have been numerous identifications of good learning strategies. All good learning strategies listed by researchers have certain features in common.

Rubin (1975) has described and listed seven learning strategies of a 'good language learner' in her paper as follows:

- 1. Willing and accurate guesser.
- 2. Strong drive to communicate.
- 3. Often not inhibited--willing to appear foolish or willing to make mistakes in order to learn and to communicate.
- 4. Focusing on communication and prepared to attend to form.
- 5. Practices--practising pronouncing words or making up sentences,

seeking out opportunities to use the language. 6. Monitors his own and the speech of others. 7. Attends to meaning.

(ibid: 45-47)

Rubin relates the 'guessing' strategy to Carton's 'inferencing' strategy. The process of inferencing or guessing is very different from language learning which puts too much attention on mimicry and memory. The importance of a 'guessing' or 'inferencing' strategy has often been recognised in the literature of second language learning or teaching today.

Rubin (1981) comments that since the appearance of her article (1975), attention has been paid to three aspects of good language learning: social strategies, psychological characteristics and cognitive processes. Rubin (1981) further classifies strategies which contribute to direct language learning (e.g. clarification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive inferencing, deductive reasoning, and practice), and indirect language learning (e.g. creating opportunity for practice and production tricks). It seems that Rubin paid much attention to cognitive strategies and processes. As Wang (1992) comments, Rubin believes that cognitive strategies are the more important and her definition reflects her cognitive orientation.

Rubin (1987) also interprets the research results in her (1975) paper, including the following variables:

Learner psychological characteristics (risk-taking, tolerance for ambiguity and vagueness, willingness to appear foolish), Learner communication strategies (use of circumlocution and gestures), Learner social strategies (seeking out opportunities to use language), Learner cognitive strategies (guessing/inferencing; practicing; attending to form by analyzing, categorizing and synthesizing; and monitoring). (ibid: 20)

Based on his own experience as a learner and teacher, and the literature on learning learning, Stern (1975) also provided a list of 'good' language learning strategies:

1. A personal learning style or positive learning strategy.

- 2. An active approach to the learning task.
- 3. A tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and empathy with its speakers.
- 4. Technical know-how about how to tackle a language.
- 5. Strategies of experimentation and planning with the object of developing the new language into an ordered system and of revising this system progressively.
- 6. Constant searching for meaning.
- 7. Willingness to practise.
- 8. Willingness to use the language in real communication.
- 9. Self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use.
- 10. Developing the target language more and more as a separate reference system and learning to think in it.

#### (ibid: 316)

Many of the strategies in Stern's (1975) list are very similar to Rubin's (1975). In addition, both Rubin and Stern lacked headings or categories for grouping the similar kinds strategies together and separating the different types of strategies. However, the tenth strategy, learning to think in the target language, is new. Nida (1957) also notes that 'learning to think in the target language' is essential for being successful in second language learning.

Whereas most research in the 1970s focused more on cognitive process or cognitive strategies than on social strategies, Fillmore (1976) paid much more attention to social interaction and social strategies related to successful language learning. In her doctoral research, she (ibid) studied five Spanish-speaking children studying at an English-medium school in California. Her work is an important contribution to understanding the significance of different social strategies involved in language learning. She found that some social strategies are more important than the cognitive ones because the learners use them to increase interaction with native speakers who can give them input and enhance the amount of exposure to the target language.

In 1979 Fillmore wrote a report, 'Individual Differences in Second Language Acquisition', to further explain and explore the issues of social strategies, social relations and social situations which were raised by her in her 1976 doctoral research. For instance, among those five learners, Nora was the most successful

and liked to interact and socialize with other children. Unlike Nora, Juan who learned less than any of the others, was not interested in associating with English speakers. Fillmore (1979) explains as follows:

It was not for lack of interest in the learning of the new language, nor for want of trying: He (Juan) frequently asked how one said, and he seemed to try hard to remember what he learned. But he truly did not care much to socialize with the people who spoke the language, and hence, he had little reason to use what he was learning. The other four children were far more interested in making friends than they were in learning any language, and they learned considerably more than Juan during the year.

(ibid: 209)

In many ways Fillmore attempts to prove that social strategies, or social interaction are more significant and meaningful than cognitive strategies in language learning. Compared to Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975), Fillmore's (1979) list of strategies seems more systematic and is divided into two categories, social and cognitive, as follows:

Social Strategies

- S-1: Join a group and act as if you understand what's going on, even if you don't.
- S-2: Give the impression--with a few well-chosen words--that you can speak the language.
- S-3: Count on your friends for help.

Cognitive Strategies

- C-1: Assume that what people are saying is directly relevant to the situation at hand, or to what they or you are experiencing. Metastrategy: Guess!
- C-2: Get some expressions you understand, and start talking.
- C-3: Look for recurring parts in the formulas you know.
- C-4: Make the most of what you've got.
- C-5: Work on big things first; save the details for later.

(ibid: 209)

Naiman et al. (1978) studied adult learners. According to the interviewees' report, the list of strategies described five strategies of good language learners (GLLs) as follows:

1. Active Task Approach: GLLs actively involve themselves in the language

learning task.

- 2. Realization of Language as a System: GLLs develop or exploit an awareness of language as a system.
- 3. Realization of Language as a Means of Communication and Interaction: GLLs develop and exploit an awareness of language as a means of communication.
- 4. Management of Affective Demands: GLLs realize initially or with time that they must cope with the affective demands made upon them by language learning and succeed in doing so.
- 5. Monitoring of L2 Performance: GLLs constantly revise their L2 systems. They monitor the language they are acquiring by testing their inferences (guesses); by looking for needed adjustments as they learn new material or by asking native informants when they think corrections are needed. (ibid: 13-15)

Most of the strategies identified by Naiman et al. are the same as those of Rubin (1975) and Stern (1975) under different names. Like Rubin and Stern, they do not offer categories to classify specific strategies. However, the aspect 'affective demands' is unique, has aroused much interest and has become one of the main components of good learning strategies in most of the literature of language learning currently. As a subject in their study stated, 'when learning a language, "You've got to be able to laugh at your own mistakes, you've got to have a sense of humor" (Naiman, et al. 1978: 14).

One thing that makes their research unique is their biographical work. As Skehan (1983) comments, their biographical study was the herald to another study which attempted to uncover learner strategies more precisely. The description of learning strategies in a biographical study sounds closer to real-life and more interesting. Thus, in Chapter 7 below, biographies of two language learners will be presented.

Fillmore was concerned with children acquiring language in the classroom and in the playground in which the target language is used for social interaction. On the other hand, Naiman et al dealt with adults learning the target language in the country where the language is spoken. Skehan comments that the studies of both Fillmore and Naiman et al gave much attention to the significance of 'social' strategies because of the increased amount of learner exposure to the target language. Thus Skehan concludes that social strategies seem to be the most significant during informal language learning.

All these studies can be seen as representatives of good learning strategies identified in earlier research. Nevertheless, after examining the work of Rubin, Stern, Fillmore, and Naiman et al, Skehan (1983) says:

The various studies that we have reviewed have all suggested that some language learning strategies can promote good language learning. But these studies have not been of an experimental nature, and as such, are suspect to the extent that they have not been proved to be independent causes of success.

(ibid: 28)

Although good learning strategies may not be independent causes of success, they are likely to be important elements to help successful language learning. As Wang (1992: 57) argues, 'Surely, strategies need to be seen not as the key to learning or teaching, but as just one more element, important though it is, which we should consider for good teaching and good learning.'

Oxford (1989) notes that early studies in the literature of strategy research have encountered several main problems:

- 1. lack of a hierarchical system
- 2. lack of consensus on the number and kinds of general categories
- 3. limited attention given to social and affective strategies
- 4. vast confusion about "communication strategies"
- 5. lack of attention to the compensatory function of a wide range of receptive and productive strategies
- 6. classification of a single strategy into several different groups by different researchers (or even by the same researcher at different times and
- 7. confusion about broad labels like direct and indirect.

(Oxford 1989: 31; see Wang 1992: 47)

Thus Oxford (1989; 1990) has synthesized earlier work (e.g. Rubin 1975, 1981, 1987) on good language learning strategies in general. Wang (1992) comments that Oxford (ibid) offers the most comprehensive taxonomy of learning strategies in strategy literature (Wang 1992). Oxford (ibid) organised a language strategy

system which suggested that good language learners (GLL) use the six broad categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, affective, social strategies.

According to Oxford (1989; 1990), GLL use memory strategies, such as grouping, using keywords, structured reviewing, using mechanical techniques to get information into memory and to recall it when needed. GLL employ cognitive strategies, such as repeating, practising using the language for actual communication, getting the idea quickly, analysing expressions, taking notes and summarising. GLL utilise compensation strategies to overcome knowledge limitations, for instance, guessing meanings intelligently, using mime or gesture, coining words, and using a synonym. Through metacognitive strategies, GLL plan or evaluate their learning, such as, delaying speech production to focus on listening, seeking practice opportunities, self-monitoring and self-evaluating. GLL lower their anxiety and encourage themselves through affective strategies, for example, using laughter, taking risks wisely, discussing their feelings with someone else. GLL also operate social strategies to ask questions and cooperate with others, for instance, to ask for correction and clarification, cooperate with peers and proficient users of the target language and develop cultural understanding.

Like all the other studies, Oxford (1989; 1990) simply identifies good language learners' strategies without considering developmental aspects. It seems that the studies discussed above give us insufficient information on how learners improve their learning strategies in order to learn and communicate more efficiently and reach the broad goal of communicative competence, fluency in particular. These studies seemingly indicate that good language learning is innate; good language learners implement their appropriate learning strategies naturally, without making efforts.

As mentioned earlier, direct teaching of learning strategies has been recommended as useful and helpful to their development, and teaching methods frequently determine or influence whether learners implement appropriate learning strategies
or not. It seems misleading to assume that the use of appropriate and effective learning strategies is inborn. It is more probable that learning strategies can be developed or nurtured as well.

Here it seems essential to understand fully the processes of how learners start to develop learning strategies to learn and communicate effectively. Now let us turn to review three stages of second language acquisition.

#### 4.5 Three Stages of Second Language Acquisition

Anderson (1990) points out that he (1983) and Fitts & Posner (1967) have indicated that it is usual to make distinctions between three stages in the development of a skill. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) also mention that Anderson's three stages of skill acquisition have significant implications not only for understanding the process of second language acquisition but also for improving pedagogic practice. Anderson's (1990) description of three stages of skill acquisition in terms of the cognitive, associative, and automative stages is as follows:

Fitts and Posner call the first stage the cognitive stage. In this stage subjects develop a declarative encoding; that is they commit to memory a set of facts relevant to the skills. Learners typically rehearse these facts as they first perform the skill....

....The knowledge acquired in the cognitive stage is quite inadequate for skilled performance. There follows what is called the associative stage. Two main things happen in this second stage. First, errors in the initial understanding are gradually detected and eliminated.... Second, the connections among the various elements required for successful performance are strengthened.... Basically, the outcome of the associative stage is a successful procedure for performing the skill. In this stage, the declarative information is transformed into a procedural form. However, it is not always the case that the procedural representation of the knowledge replaces the declarative. Sometimes the two forms of knowledge can coexist side by side, as when we can speak a foreign language fluently and still remember rules of grammar. However, it is the procedural, not the declarative, knowledge that governs the skilled performance.

The output of the associative state is a set of procedures specific to the domain....

The third stage in the standard analysis of skill acquisition is the autonomous stage. In this stage, the procedure becomes more and more automated and

rapid. No sharp distinction exists between the autonomous and associative stage. The autonomous might be considered an extension of the associative stage....This autonomous stage appears to extend indefinitely. Throughout it, the skill gradually improves.

(ibid: 258-260)

Using these stages, O'Malley and Chamot (1990) delineated the processes that

second language learners may go through at each stage as follows:

The intensive attention to the new language that characterizes the cognitive stage may explain why many learners go through a silent period or delay language production at the beginning of their exposure to the L2 (Krashen 1980). Beginning-level learners may find it easier to focus on understanding and remembering different parts of the new language by silently attending to it instead of by being distracted by the demand of immediate language production.

In the second, or associative, stage of skill learning, learners begin to develop sufficient familiarity with the knowledge acquired in the first stage so that it can be used procedurally. This stage appears to correspond with what second language theorists term interlanguage, the not-yet-accurate use of the target language by the L2 learner (see Selinker 1972; 1984)....At this intermediate stage, the L2 learner is able to use the language for communication, although imperfectly, but may find difficulties in using the new language as a tool for learning complex information,...

When second language learners reach Anderson's third stage of language learning, they are able to process language autonomously, or without reference to the underlying rules. In other words, their performance in the language is very like that of a native speaker. In second language acquisition, this third stage has been called automatic processing (McLaughlin et al. 1983). At this point, the learner focuses on using the language for functional purposes, whether these are social, academic, or technical.

(ibid: 78-79)

John-Steiner (1987) also presents her interviewees' second-language development in three stages which appear to correspond to Anderson's (1990) schema. The first stage of her study, 'leaning on the known' (John-Steiner 1987: 359), is similar to Anderson's first stage, 'the cognitive stage', in which her interviewees develop declarative knowledge and refer facts and things to their memory. At the first stage, many of John-Steiner's interviewees rely heavily on their mother tongue and experience a silent period or delayed language production of the target language (Krashen 1980). This stage is also exactly akin to what O'Malley and Chamot (1990) notice in second language learning.

In the second stage, 'an uneasy alliance of two languages' (John-Steiner 1987: 363), subjects struggle to overcome their silent period or to break their dependence on their first language. They are finding ways to process their second language. Their first language and second language can be integrated in thinking to move from thought to expression. This second stage seems similar to Anderson's second, associative stage. The second language development at this stage appears to be what O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 78) call 'interlanguage' in Selinker's term, 'the not-yet-accurate use of the target language by the L2 learner.'

The third stage which she notes is moving 'toward unity of thought and diversity of expressions' (John-Steiner 1987: 366). According to John-Steiner, this stage illustrates the complex relationship of language and thought. This is similar to the process which Vygotsky (see John-Steiner 1987) has described:

A speaker often takes several minutes to disclose one thought. In his mind the whole thought is presented at once, but in speech it has to be developed successively.... Precisely because thought does not have its automatic counterpart in words, the transition from thought to words leads through meaning.

(see John-Steiner 1987: 367)

Therefore this stage, in John-Steiner's study, is not quite akin to what Anderson (1990: 260) describes as 'automated and rapid' or to O'Malley and Chamot's (1990: 78) account, that 'performance in the language is very like that of a native speaker'. Nonetheless, the third stage is the stage of using the language for communicative purposes. John-Steiner's study can be interpreted as evidence for Anderson's cognitive-associative-autonomous schema.

It seems that all the writers discussed above argue for three stages of skill or language acquistion. Ellis (1992) also suggests:

It is possible to identify three major processes in development-as-growth: (1) Innovation (i.e. the introduction of new forms into the interlanguage

system).

- (2) Elaboration (i.e. the extension of the communicative base of the new form).
- (3) Revision (i.e. the adjustments to the entire interlanguage system resulting from innovation and elaboration).

(ibid: 199)

Nevertheless, unlike other writers, Ellis (ibid) argues that 'these processes are not stages; they are overlapping and continuous. Thus while one form is entering the learner's interlanguage, other forms are in the process of becoming elaborated and revision of the system also starts to take place.' It will be of interest to examine whether learners do really go through three stages as most writers above argue. This issue will be discussed in Chapter 8.

It is crucial to point out that the introduction of learning strategies has been made in many different ways. That is, authors of language learning research vary the terms they use. For instance, John-Steiner (1987) makes use of the terms of input strategies, processing strategies, and production strategies. O'Malley and Chamot (1990) employ the terms of metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies and social/affective strategies. As mentioned above, Oxford (1990) applies the terms of memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, affective strategies and social strategies. In conducting this empirical study, there are modifications of three general broad terms drawn from the combination of these three sources.

This empirical research is particularly interested in looking into social interaction with people and affective control for the development of self-confidence to support learning. In addition, it is imperative to understand and investigate how people overcome limitations in order to receive and produce the target language and how these work together in language use. Furthermore, it is vital to study how students of English for Tourism learn their content more effectively. Accordingly, three terms, social-affective strategies, input-output strategies and processing strategies are chosen in this empirical study because they are different aspects of classroom learning processes which are relevant (see Chapters 6 and 7). These terms will not be presented as stages but will organise the focus on the different strategies as these headings.

Social/affective strategies are the learning strategies relevant to social interaction with others and affective control to aid learning, such as cooperating with others, asking for explanations and encouraging themselves to take risks in using the L2. Input-output strategies are the learning strategies related to receiving and producing the target language to overcome limitations, especially in speaking and listening, such as using a circumlocution or synonym, and guessing the meanings. Processing strategies are learning strategies pertinent to the content learning, such as taking notes, using memorisation, repeating new relevant and useful terms and using external resources, such as teaching materials including video cassettes relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry.

#### 4.6 Summary

This chapter has concentrated on the discussion of definitions of learning strategies, and the examination of some of their features. It defines learning strategies to include not only internal resources within learners themselves but also use of external resources, such as teachers, television, and books as suggested by Wang (1992). In addition, the whole context, that is, within and outside the classroom is taken into account.

In discussing the features of learning strategies, ESP, CLT and learning strategies seem to be closely linked together as the crucial trinity. It is important to bear in mind that learning strategies are likely to be influenced especially by teaching methods, cultural backgrounds and learners' own beliefs about second language learning. Thus it seems crucial to suggest that learners' factors, such as their previous learning experiences, their cultural backgrounds, or their own beliefs or expectations on the subject of second language learning should be taken into account when considering how to adopt a new, communicative approach. It may be argued that both conscious and unconscious processes which seem to be essential in language learning need to be linked together to contribute to learning and acquisition and achieve the goal of communicative competence. The literature indicates that direct teaching of learning strategies may be useful and helpful. In addition, social strategies and social interaction are likely to be more important than cognitive strategies in language learning. Nevertheless, in general, English language teaching in Taiwan has not included direct teaching of learning strategies or given sufficient attention to the development of social interaction or social strategies. It might be valuable to discuss what these issues imply for pedagogy in Taiwan.

It has been assumed that learning strategies can be developed and nurtured. Some writers have argued for three stages of second language acquisition. Nevertheless, Ellis (1992) argues that learning processes are not stages but are overlapping and continuous. Do learners really develop through three stages? Which argument is right? (see Chapter 8).

The terms, social-affective strategies, input-output strategies and processing strategies will be used in this empirical research. The research methodology for this empirical study will be considered in Chapter 5. Following that, data will be described and analysed (in Chapters 6 and 7), and interpreted and discussed (in Chapter 8), based on the theories in the preceding chapters.

# **Chapter 5**

# **Research Methodology**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

The implications of the preceding chapters have been for a broad view of ESP (English for Specific Purposes) concerned with English for Tourism, together with attention to the learners' learning strategies and to the communicative approach as the basis of English for Tourism. With this in mind, a study was designed to investigate whether learners of English for Tourism can really develop their learning strategies in the communicative classroom. At the same time, the researcher wanted to see what difficulties these learners might encounter, and what content and methodology should be included in the pedagogy of English for Tourism.

As mentioned earlier, this empirical research was undertaken in the context of the programme of English for Tourism at Westminster College, London. In the autumn of 1995, the researcher attended both advanced and intermediate English for Tourism classes at this college as part of a series of initial visits. These two programmes were taught by the same teacher, Ms. Annette Anderson, on different days. With the help of these initial visits, firstly, the researcher became familiar with the new setting, and was able to ensure that the teacher understood the purposes of her visits and gain the teacher's support for further research. Secondly, the researcher learned that all the learners came from countries in which English is a foreign language, and had previous general English grammar learning experience. Thirdly, the researcher observed how these learners from abroad learned and progressed in a communicative approach. Fourthly, the students in the Advanced classes had already overcome their difficulties and had adjusted well to the communicative classroom. However, the students in the Intermediate classroom still

had difficulties in the early stages but later they developed learning strategies, overcame difficulties and adjusted to the communicative classroom.

The programme of English for Tourism at Westminster College focused on content learning which is different from the emphasis on language learning and language knowledge in Taiwan. Nevertheless, it is of considerable interest to know and understand students' development in learning strategies in the content learning communicative classroom, assuming that if a communicative approach were to be used in Taiwan, language learners there may experience the same difficulties in adjustment.

In this empirical research, the learners in the intermediate class were chosen as the sample to be studied, during the autumn of 1996, from September 6 to December 13. Initially, there were sixteen students in the intermediate class. One student, Catherine, left the programme one month and half later. The remaining fifteen students participated in the interviews. Among the fifteen students, there were three Japanese and three Italian students. The others were Spanish-speaking people from Central and South America and Spain. Most participants were females; there were only two males. Like the learners observed in the initial visits, all the participants in this study were from countries in which English is a foreign language and had had grammar-translation learning experiences. Their ages ranged from the early twenties to the early thirties.

In what follows, a rationale for the choice of a qualitative approach for this empirical research will be explored. Secondly, the research methods used will be discussed. Thirdly, methods of interpretation will be described. Finally, the limitations of the study will be examined.

# 5.2 Rationale for the Choice of Qualitative Approach

Before the choice of the approach for this empirical research, it was important to understand the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research. Scott (1995) lists seven such issues to distinguish qualitative and quantitative research:

- 1. qualitative versus quantitative data;
- 2. the investigation of natural versus artificial settings;
- 3. a focus on meanings rather than behaviour;
- 4. adoption or rejection of natural science as a model;
- 5. an inductive versus a deductive approach;
- 6. identifying cultural patterns as against seeking scientific laws;
- 7. idealism versus realism.

# (ibid: 45)

Miles and Huberman (1984: 15; see Scott 1995: 45); Blaxter, Hughes and Tight (1996: 177) all distinguish qualitative from quantitative research as being concerned with 'words' and 'numbers' respectively. Best and Kahn (1989) state:

Quantitative research consists of those studies in which the data concerned can be analysed in terms of numbers... Research can also be qualitative, that is, it can describe events, persons and so forth scientifically without the use of numerical data... Quantitative research is based more directly on its original plans and its results are more readily analysed and interpreted. Qualitative research is more open and responsive to its subject.

(ibid: 89-90)

Bell (1993) also stresses the differences between qualitative and quantitative research:

Quantitative researchers collect facts and study the relationship of one set of facts to another. They measure, using scientific techniques that are likely to produce quantified and, if possible, generalizable conclusions. Researchers adopting a qualitative perspective are more concerned to understand individuals' perceptions of the world. They seek insight rather than statistical analysis.

(Bell 1993: 6)

In general, both qualitative and quantitative approaches have their own functions and advantages, and at the same time, their own weaknesses or disadvantages.

This empirical research aims to maximise understanding of ESP adult learners' points of view and perceptions in an in-depth data gathering approach. A qualitative

approach has been preferred, though this is not to rule out the contribution that can be made to qualitative work by quantitative measures.

## **5.3 Research Methods**

Observations and interviews were used to collect data for the research. These methods were combined to provide for triangulation to reduce bias and increase reliability.

## 5.3.1 Participant Observation

The major types of observation are participant/non-participant and structured observation. In general the former is an ethnographic or qualitative technique while the latter is a quantitative one. The teacher frequently invited the researcher to sit with the students and participate in learning activities. Thus, participant observation was adopted to collect data. In these circumstances, the researcher was able to watch closely and easily what they were doing, and study their attitude toward classroom learning activities.

To understand whether learners develop learning strategies in different ways or at different rates, two learners, Sara and Keiko, were the focus during the observations. They were observed for more than two hours respectively each week and were constantly compared. The comparison of the vignettes of the two learners is given in Chapter 6. To obtain and identify certain significant common learning strategies, other learners in the classroom were not ignored. Important common learning strategies will also be discussed in Chapter 6.

To obtain more objective, unbiased data, make contact with the learners and get close to them in understanding what happened in their learning processes, the observer tried to take a detailed notes without the help of videotaping or taperecording. Meanwhile, she took 'impressionistic' rather than 'structured' notes (Oxford 1990: 194). The impressionistic notes include, for instance, the learners' facial expressions (e.g. shyness, anxiety, lack of confidence, boredom), gestures, social interaction with others, speech patterns, and their developing note-taking skills. The observed learners were repeatedly interviewed informally during the observation periods and the teacher was also interviewed to support the observations made. All kinds of learning activities, and the content of the teaching programme as it was delivered were recorded in the field notes as well. Field notes were made chronologically.

#### **5.3.2 Semi-structured Interviews**

Formal interviews were also used to confirm and extend observations. As Saracho (1988: 45-46) points out, there are two purposes of an interview: 'to obtain information which cannot be obtained through observation, and to clarify inferences from the observations.' Thus formal and informal interviews were undertaken to form triangulation to support and confirm the data from observations.

To understand the students' perception and points of view in depth, semi-structured questions were chosen for the formal interview. These questions were not limited to what was relevant to inside the classroom, but also sought information related to outside of the classroom and learners' previous learning experiences (see Appendix 1).

Depending on the learners' preference and convenience, individual or small group (two to five) interviews were used and held at the researcher's place during meal times. The interviews were intended to be informal but also as serious as possible. It was explained to the students that the interviews would remain confidential, and they were encouraged to be as frank as they could. The fifteen students who participated in the interviews were the same as the ones who had been observed. The average length of the individual interviews was one hour and a half, and that of the group interviews, a little more than two hours. The interviews were tape recorded.

The data from the interviews with Sara and Keiko was selected as the chief focus to be studied. Doing so permitted an examination whether or not there were different ways and rates of learning. At the same time, it also allowed the presentation of two biographies of Sara and Keiko in Chapter 7. Data from the interviews with other learners were used to highlight the emerging strategies and identify the important common strategies as shown in Chapter 7.

## **5.4 Methods of Interpretation**

When transcribing the observation data, the researcher, first of all, identified and listed the key points from Sara and Keiko. The strategies these two learners developed in slightly more than three months were classified under the categories mentioned in Chapter 4. The systematic analysis of the two learners is central to this study. The data obtained from other learners were then used to confirm and explore the strategies further.

In dealing with the interview data, the key points of the whole content of interviewees' reports were transcribed. Some adjustment to these interviewees' English was made as needed. These data were analysed in order to enhance the picture of non-observable processes, either those which are internal or which take place outside the classroom, and to confirm the strategies already noticed. The same categories of strategies used in the analysis of the observation data have been used for interpreting the interview data.

# 5.5 Limitations of the Study

There are strengths as well as limitations in these research methods. In classroom observation, the data which could be achieved were mainly derived from the observer's impressions. Data relevant to the internal or mental processes of the students were not available. It was difficult to obtain data about, for instance, how they think or what they believe is the best way to learn, how they process their learning mentally, or how they receive inputs of knowledge. Furthermore,

classroom observation data were limited to the classroom and necessarily ignored significant data from outside the classroom.

The students' self-reports in this study confirmed the data derived from observations and added data which could not be achieved from observations. Nevertheless, the duration of group interviews was much longer than expected. Some interviewees became impatient and tired after two hours. Some questions at the beginning were answered in great detail, and several guestions at the end were dealt with rather hurriedly. Moreover, this study only lasted slightly more than three months. Language learning is a long and complex process. A longitudinal approach may be needed to understand learners' learning process in more detail. Furthermore, the small number of the participants may be another weakness of this study. However, many useful insights into language learning were secured from these adult learners. The sample was small, but the depth of the study allowed for high validity in terms of the evidence which was obtained. The students seemed comfortable talking to the interviewer, which perhaps allowed them to be forthright and honest with their answers, thus establishing a high degree of validity. The study was able to conclude that students from different cultural and language backgrounds have different insights into their language learning.

In this study, priority is given to the data from observations and learners' selfreports. Meanwhile, the content and methodology of English for Tourism are also considered. Therefore, teaching materials and syllabuses were also collected. Written work was not gathered because it was not of particular interest. There was a written examination, but the grades in this examination would be given to the students two or three months later, after the course and the field work had finished and the researcher had left the class. Therefore, these grades fell outside the period of the study and we did not use them. There was no oral examination offered in this course. The researcher's assessment of learners' development of fluency was based on intuition and on discussion with the teacher, who held the same opinion, rather than on formal testing. Nonetheless, there is no doubt that they made considerable improvement since they were able to pursue their study of this programme in the British context.

#### 5.6 Summary

The purpose of this study is to explore how learners from overseas develop their learning strategies in order to make the transition and adjust inside and outside the English for Tourism communicative classroom in the British context. A qualitative approach has been preferred to a quantitative approach for the purposes of obtaining students' points of view and perceptions in depth. Participant observations, informal interviews with students and the teacher, and semi-structured interviews have been combined to collect data and to provide for triangulation in order to reduce bias and augment the reliability of the empirical research. Nevertheless, the strengths and limitations of the methods of collecting data for the study have to be borne in mind.

This study concerns the learners' learning process. The vignettes of the learners, Sara and Keiko, are the focus for comparison to explore whether learners develop learning strategies in different ways or at different rates. The vignettes of other learners have been taken into account as well in order to pinpoint common significant learning strategies. Learning activities and the content for the programme of English for Tourism have also been investigated.

As already stated earlier, there are two enquiries included in the work undertaken. This empirical research project is one, and will be described in Chapters 6 and 7, and interpreted and discussed in Chapter 8. The other enquiry is a desk-based study of textbooks which will be considered in Chapter 9.

# Chapter 6

# **Commentary on Observations**

#### **6.1 Introduction**

As proposed in Chapter 4, learning strategies are not only innate but also can be developed or nurtured. This empirical study relates to this issue by exploring how learners discovered and developed learning strategies appropriate to their learning needs in order to adapt to the programme of English for Tourism which adopted a communicative approach for focusing on content learning. This was very different from their previous general English learning which emphasised grammar learning.

This chapter aims at describing the investigation of the enhancement of two learners' learning strategies in order to adjust to the content learning communicative classroom. The vignettes of these two learners, Keiko and Sara, are representative of different rates of their progress of learning strategies and provide an illustration of their developmental processes of learning strategies in classroom learning.

Collection of the observation data in the classroom and in the school environment, centred on the crucial data from the two learners in particular without ignoring others. The other learners will be examined as well in order to identify certain common significant strategies.

The observed students were repeatedly interviewed informally during the observation periods. The teacher was also interviewed informally. These informal interviews will be described in this chapter to support observations. In addition, the formal interviews with fifteen subjects, recorded separately, will be presented in

Chapter 7 to confirm and supplement observations.

In what follows, firstly, parameters of the organisation of this course will be presented. Secondly, learning strategies between the two main learners will be compared. Thirdly, common significant strategies will be examined. Finally, the interview with the teacher for checking the observations will be discussed.

# 6.2 Parameters of the Organisation of this Course

The main characteristics of the classroom organisation were as follows:

a. Three or four students sat around a square table facing each other, rather than in rows facing the teacher. The purpose of this kind of seat arrangement was for the convenience of social interactive or communicative activities or tasks.

b. All the learning activities or tasks were relevant to the target situation, therefore included a variety of professional activities (e.g. dealing with customer complaints through business letters, telephone or face to face, meeting and greeting tourist groups, and job interviews and applications). Language learning activities and language knowledge were less emphasised in this programme.

c. The teacher was not the only actor. All the students in the class had equal chances to interpret and evaluate knowledge in this field, contribute what they knew, and express their views.

d. Content in teaching materials including video cassettes was connected to the target situation of the tourism industry. Authentic texts (e.g. brochures, business letters, faxes, memos, timetables, reports, menus, maps and advertisements) were offered. In addition, cultural aspects (e.g. customs, eye contact and body language both in British and other cultures) and historical and geographical knowledge, which are important for better intercultural understanding and communication and for the needs and interests of tourists from abroad, were also included in the content of the programme.

e. The regular programme is shown below.

9:00-9:10 The students were assigned to read teaching materials.

9:10-9:40 The teacher asked them questions, at the same time, students were also allowed to ask questions or ask for explanation relevant to the teaching materials. 9:40-11:40 The teacher gave a brief lecture for around fifteen minutes. Students were then divided into small groups to be engaged in social interactive or communicative activities or tasks (e.g. role-play, simulations, problem-solving activities and small group discussions)

11:40-12:10 Watch video cassettes

12:10-12:40 Lunch break

12:40-2:00 Social interactive or communicative activities or tasks relevant to the content on video cassettes.

2:00 Class dismissal

To sum up, this programme aims to train learners to work for the tourism industry. On that account, content and learning activities in this programme were all relevant to the target situation and will be examined. For this purpose teaching materials and syllabuses were collected. Teaching materials are too numerous to be presented in detail and a syllabus can be found in Appendix 2.

# 6.3 Comparison of Two Learners' Learning Strategies

In this section, the data from observations of two main learners, Keiko and Sara, will be examined. This study explores the learners' development of learning strategies. The analysis and discussion are directly relevant to comparing Keiko and Sara's ways of developing learning strategies or the rates at which they adjusted to the content learning communicative classroom.

It has been argued that learning strategies should be defined to include internal resources within learners themselves and their use of external resources (teachers, peers, reference books, teaching materials, television and radio). In addition, situations both within and outside the classroom should be included in the whole context of learning processes as suggested in Chapters 2 and 4. This chapter will deal only with the classroom observations. In Chapter 7, the interview data will be

concerned with events not only within the classroom but also outside the classroom.

As already stated in Chapter 4, in conducting this empirical research, the overall classification of social-affective, input-output, and processing strategies is a useful way of describing learning strategies by looking into three broad aspects: the first aspect concerns the issue of social interaction with other people and affective control (social-affective strategies); another aspect focuses more particularly on receiving and producing the target language (input-output strategies) and studies how these work together in language use; and the third aspect considers strategies in content learning.

In Chapters 6 and 7, learning strategies are divided into the three main components as stated above for the analysis and discussion of observation data and interview data. In what follows, the observation data will be analysed and discussed in relation to: 1. social interaction and affective control (social-affective strategies), 2. language use (input-output strategies), 3. content learning (processing strategies).

# 6.3.1. Strategies in Relation to Social Interaction and Affective Control (Social-Affective Strategies)

Before the analysis of the vignettes of Sara and Keiko, it needs to be stated that there was no clear picture of how many stages either of them had gone through. In addition, they progressed at different rates. Therefore the analysis of the observation data in this section was not divided into stages. Nonetheless, it was discussed according to their different rates of progress.

In the communicative classroom, the social process was centred on the development of learning strategies and on linking comprehension with production and interaction. Both Sara and Keiko became aware of the significance of social interaction and social strategies sooner or later. Social strategies and social interaction would overlap in other categories of strategies as well.

The first impression of both Sara and Keiko was their silence in the classroom. They simply observed and listened to all that was going on. They tried to avoid answering the teacher's questions whenever the teacher asked the whole class questions. When the teacher asked students individually, Sara simply responded by 'yes', 'no', or 'O.K.' and Keiko, by nodding her head, and then they did not offer further explanation. It seems that both of them just wanted to watch and listen and were not confident in saying anything in the classroom. They were not active in the learning situation but waited to be instructed. In some senses there were similarities between them at first because they relied on input strategies which will be described in the section below.

However, it is interesting to make comparisons between the development of their social interaction in the learning process over time. In the third week, Sara started to make some changes. She became actively involved in her own learning and in using the target language for communication through social interaction. She started to answer the teacher's questions using what she remembered learning from teaching materials. Sometimes, she asked the teacher or her peers for clarification or explanation, eg. 'Does it mean...?' She asked the teacher or other students to repeat whenever she could not follow them.

She was mixing with non-Spanish learners and was engaging in conversations with them in the target language during the breaks. Although her use of the target language was not very grammatical, (e.g. I no like) and she was speaking with a heavy Spanish accent, she was still communicating. She was willing to take risks in using the target language, despite errors, to reach the goal of communication. Her case is a clear example of 'learning through the errors'. Meanwhile, she was very cooperative in working with other learners in social interactional or communicative activities or tasks (e.g. role play, problem-solving activities, simulations and small group discussions).

In the second month, Sara was not only active in responding to questions, but also raised questions with the teacher or the whole class in longer or more complete sentences than before. At this time she not only used the words or expressions she had just memorised or learned from the programme, but also connected the knowledge, the experience and the language she had in the past to express her insights, respond to the teacher's questions and participate in the discussions.

It seemed that after she had developed social-affective strategies, she became more confident and more relaxed in social interaction and using the target language for communication. In other words, social-affective strategies were probably the crucial strategies that she developed, as she helped herself to overcome the demands of communication. Moreover, her willingness to share and work with her peers helped her to cope with the new learning experience more effectively. As she had a part-time job, she often enjoyed sharing her work experience in the classroom. Sometimes she discussed the programmes she had watched on TV the night before with her peers during the lunch break.

She sometimes raised thoughtful questions. In the field trip in the third month, she initiated several questions to ask the staff at the British Tourist Centre: e.g. 'Is there any in-service training in your company?' or 'What qualities and qualifications should the persons have in order to get a job in tourism?'

She looked more free and more confident in taking risks and in making mistakes in using the target language in the classroom. In the third month, she told the observer that:

It is important that we should encourage ourselves to be more active in participating in the classroom activities, especially in the discussions or problem-solving.

As she believed, the more we use the target language, the more confidence we gain in using and in learning it. In fact, through practice in using the target language, her language proficiency also progressed. It seems that her increased language proficiency enhanced her confidence in performance in the target language.

Keiko, unlike Sara, in the first month, still looked very tense. She often hesitated to talk and was not confident enough to express her own opinions in the classroom or in the small group discussions. During the group discussions, she usually kept quiet, or just nodded her head and said 'yes' when she agreed with someone's opinions. She seldom expressed her insights in public. Seldom or never did she say 'no', disagree with anyone's views, or voluntarily or actively answer the teacher's questions.

She answered questions only when asked to do so. For instance, when the teacher called her name: Keiko, how about Japan...? When the teacher asked her questions, she often took a long while to say something. Moreover, she seldom asked for explanation or clarification. She appeared very concerned to avoid error and avoid communication.

During the lunch break, she talked about her previous learning experience to the observer. In her previous foreign language learning experience, her teachers always dominated the whole duration of the class hours. She was not given the chance to speak or to use the target language in the classroom. But studying in the UK, she had a very different learning experience. This was the first time in her life that she encountered the pressure of communicative needs in the classroom. She felt scared and shocked in the classroom. Moreover, she was not confident enough to participate in the classroom activities or answer the teacher's or other students' questions yet. What worried her most was that she could not speak correct English.

Her previous classroom language learning experience seemed to have been a major cause of her difficulty in adjusting to a classroom which adopted the communicative approach. Since this communicative classroom was a small social world, learners were expected to use the target language to collaborate with each other, share their experiences and develop interpersonal relationships in different social interactional or communicative tasks or activities. She was frustrated because her previous language learning experience had not included using the target language in these ways. This new language learning experience was so odd and so different that she found that it was difficult for her.

Compared to Sara, Keiko appeared to be passive, not participating in the learning activities in the classroom. Nevertheless, she was diligent and continued with her efforts to study the target language in the library after school. Instead of using an active approach in social interactions and in producing the target language, she adopted 'input' strategies.

In the second month, it was found that Keiko did not have difficulty in handling simple but not fluent conversations out of classroom. The lack of sufficient practice using the target language meant she simply did not have enough confidence to participate in the learning activities in the classroom and produce the target language fluently for social interaction.

It is interesting to find that from the ninth week, she started to change. Instead of going to the library to study by herself, she often mixed with other international students in the college canteen and talked with them in English. Sometimes she went to ask the teacher for help to guide her in how to write business letters. The teacher always patiently offered her extra assistance. This informal social interaction seemed to give her confidence to produce the target language. In the tenth week she began to answer the teacher's questions and participate in group discussions in the classroom.

In the third month she looked much more relaxed and confident in using the target language for communicative needs. She enjoyed working with her peers and sharing her experiences. Although she did not have any work experience, she shared her experience from the world or personal life, for instance, as a customer or in acquiring cultural knowledge. It seemed that as soon as she became aware of the significance of social interaction and social strategies, she was consciously, voluntarily and actively making the choice to use the target language for communication. Thus she became an effective and confident language learner and user. To summarise, Sara developed social-affective strategies at the very early stages. Compared to Keiko, Sara was able to establish and maintain interpersonal relationships in social situations and spent more time in the social context in which the target language was used. Through this, she became more relaxed and more confident in the learning process which she found enjoyable. Thus, she appeared to be more adjusted than Keiko to the expectations and demands of the communicative classroom.

At the later stages, Keiko took a big step to initiate informal social interactions with other international students and the teacher. In a similar process to that which Sara had gone through, she developed social strategies to play an active role in using the target language for discussions, sharing experiences and establishing interpersonal relationships in the social context within the communicative classroom. It seems that the social process is of significance in second language learning and use.

# 6.3.2 Strategies in Relation to Language Use (Input-Output Strategies)

It was difficult to assess how these learners used their internal resources to receive the target language (listening and reading) more effectively because these processes and behaviours are not observable. It could only be seen that they resorted to external resources, such as the teacher, their peers and teaching materials to help to receive the target language. Therefore this section does not deal much with input strategies which will be reviewed in the discussion of interview data in Chapter 7.

Nevertheless, it was easier to see how these learners used their internal resources, such as circumlocutions, alternative expressions, monitoring and physical actions, such as gestures, facial expressions, to facilitate production of L2. At the same time, they also resorted to external resources, for instance, the teacher and peers, to offer them opportunities to produce the target language.

The time available did not allow them to be offered writing practice, e.g. business

letters in the classroom, though they were often assigned to do some home-work. The observation data did not include output strategies in writing, but the interview data in Chapter 7 would take account of them to some extent.

As stated above, at the beginning, Sara mainly observed and listened, in order to absorb and receive all that was going on in the classroom. She appeared to be watching and paying attention to what the teacher and other learners were saying and doing. However, in the third week, by taking advantage of social interaction and affective controls, she developed her output strategies. She practised using the target language not just by answering questions, but also by actively initiating a number of them.

In the first month she already became an enthusiastic and cooperative participant in classroom activities. By the seventh week, she seemed to be able to express her insights confidently in the learning activities or tasks, especially in discussions. At the same time she knew how to use circumlocution (e.g. I forget what it is called in English and we use it to boil the water) or to find alternative expressions (e.g. 'a small bag' for purse) to get her meanings across, with the help of her gestures and facial expressions. After she became more familiar with her fellow learners, she liked to talk, during the lunch break, about the programmes on TV she watched the night before. In fact she loved to express herself and share interesting happenings around her, especially those relevant to her work. It seems that she knew how to seek different opportunities to practise her production of the target language through social interaction.

In the second month she already had no difficulty in spontaneous talk and had confidence in producing the target language. For her, speaking or production was part of the learning process. In many ways, even at the early stages, Sara already showed her desire to break the ice, initiate output and express her views in English.

Sometimes she corrected her own errors immediately (A man want (wants) to pay for a holiday) or sometimes she just did not care and continued the strings of words (Last year, I work at the restaurant. A woman try to use her credit card....). Moreover, she corrected not only her own but also other fellow students' English (One of her peers said, 'At Sundays, I...'. Sara corrected her immediately by saying, 'You mean, on Sundays?'). Correcting others' errors was not part of Keiko's learning behaviour or strategy. Compared with Keiko, during the whole process of learning, she appeared to be much braver in taking the opportunities to produce the target language.

In contrast, at first, Keiko seldom participated in the learning activities in the classroom. As stated above it took her more than two months before she built up her confidence to produce something to say. During the adjustment phase, instead of developing output strategies and social interactions, she was very attentive in listening to the teacher's lectures and to her counterparts' discussions. Moreover, after the class, she often went to the library to choose the books she liked or was able to comprehend. She did not like to read books which were too difficult for her to understand. Focusing on listening and reading seemed to be convenient ways for her to receive more language input, but there were no direct or apparent ways for her to approach communication or achieve fluency. It seems that without social interaction to practise using the target language as a resource for communication, speech remained impossible and inaccessible.

In the ninth week, she seemed to become aware that her attention to comprehension was not enough for her to meet the demands of the new learning system. Practising production through social interaction was urgently needed. The following incident showed how Keiko began to make changes and find her way out of her difficulties. During one lunch break, as she told the observer: when she saw that her peers were participating more and more in the classroom activities, she felt very ashamed that she had nothing to say. Therefore she tried to overcome her nervousness or lack of self-confidence, and encourage and even force herself to say things in the discussions. At the same time, she tried to listen attentively to other learners as they brought their own insights into discussions.

In fact, Keiko learned not only from the teacher but also from her peers. Observing their performance, she felt ashamed that she could not perform herself. At the same time, she tried to take risks in using the target language. Thus she began to consciously and actively seek opportunities to use English. For instance, she began to try to answer the teacher's questions with the help of teaching materials or taking notes. She asked the teacher or other peers for clarification or for explanation (Suburb? What is it?). In addition, she participated in the discussions, using phrases she learned or memorised from the teaching materials or for her fellows' performance. Furthermore, she often talked with fellow international students in the target language in the college canteen.

At the end of the third month, near the end of this programme, Keiko had enough confidence to share her experiences and express her own insights into the learning activities. In this phase, she also adopted self-correcting behaviours (I go to see movies last night--->I went to see movies last night) during communication with the researcher.

Through social interaction, Keiko gradually controlled her negative affective factors and began to develop output strategies to move toward communication. Sara started to promote output strategies through social interaction much earlier than Keiko. In addition, Sara was much more active in taking advantage of various learning activities and situations in using the target language. She was more conscious and more alert in engaging in constant use of the target language, and was much more fluent and communicative.

It seems that comprehension is not equivalent to production though the former is very closely interrelated with the latter and makes it more possible and more attainable. The former can never ensure that the latter will emerge automatically without use through social interaction. A concern for comprehension is not sufficient for CLT. Learners have to learn production through communication (social interaction). Thus not only comprehension but also production and interaction should be taken into account in the communicative classroom.

#### 6.3.3 Strategies in Relation to Content Learning (Processing Strategies)

It was not easy to get data through observations, about how these students made use of their internal resources to learn the new content. It has been found that that they relied on, for instance, taking notes or repeating the important terms. At the same time, they resorted to external resources, for instance, teaching materials and learning activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry to help to learn the content. These observations will be supplemented in Chapter 7.

Sara and Keiko frequently repeated important terms silently after the teacher when she was introducing the new content. As soon as they developed social-affective strategies (around three weeks later for Sara and two months later for Keiko), if they did not understand the new terms, they repeated these new terms out loud and asked for explanation (e.g. Package holiday? What is the meaning?). Through practice in using the target language socially, it seemed easier and more enjoyable to help to learn and remember the new content. Sara described her experience in learning the new content in the second month to the observer during the lunch break. According to her experience, if she used socially the new terms or knowledge of new content that she had learned she would remember them. On the contrary, if she just tried to memorise them, she would forget them very easily or quickly. This strategy which could be seen as a good initial social and processing strategy was essential for comprehension, production and interaction in the new language. Through social interaction, language use and content learning took place and developed at the same time.

Taking notes was a strategy in common use in the class to aid the content learning. At first Sara tried to take notes on every word as the teacher said it. Her notes seemed rather messy at first. After the first month, she made changes using key words in the target language for taking notes excluding a number of less useful words, (for instance, the subjects--it, they, or prepositions, in, on, at). Her notes became neater and briefer. At first, Keiko often used to tape-record the lessons. At the same time, she used her native language to take notes on all that she heard. In the second month, she used English to take notes and sometimes mixed English words with her mother tongue. Notes were taken in translation or in a mixture of the native language and the target language. This was also what happened among the participants in John-Steiner's study (1987).

In the tenth week, she stopped using her first language, and used key words in the target language to take notes. Her notes also became more concise than before. Sara and Keiko explained why they used only key words: in this classroom, they needed to learn to respond immediately. If the notes were brief and clear, they would become more useful in helping them to understand and remember knowledge of the new content. At the same time they could use them in the lessons, especially in discussions.

It seems that at the beginning, when they were not confident, they relied on memory, writing down everything or using a tape-recorder to record everything, even writing in the native language. They found that translation of those elaborate notes was less useful than taking fewer notes. Moreover, when they took fewer notes they had higher levels of comprehension, relied less on memory and more on understanding of the lesson. Rather than writing everything down in their own language, they seemed to become aware of the sorts of notes that would be more effective and more helpful to them.

In addition, the teacher always wrote the key words on the board to aid the content learning. All the learners including Sara and Keiko always copied down these key words. The key word notes, like teaching materials, helped them to remember and understand the new content. With the help of these notes, they could use the new terms and new phrases they learned to respond to the teacher's questions or participate in the communicative tasks or activities.

In this programme, plenty of teaching materials including video-cassettes relevant

to the target situation of the tourism industry were provided to aid content learning. In addition, cultural content was also covered in the teaching materials. Socialinteractive or communicative activities or tasks (e.g. role-play, simulations, problem-solving, small group discussions) also related to the target situation were offered to support the content learning. Meanwhile, after around one month for Sara, and ten weeks for Keiko, they also learned to use knowledge they obtained from this programme, the world outside or work experience to express their views to interpret, evaluate, and contribute to the content. In order to encourage students to make their contribution to the content, everything they wanted to say was accepted and valued by the teacher. Although historical and geographical knowledge is not included in the teaching materials, students were frequently given the chance to supply what they knew in these areas.

In short, students repeated important words and took key word notes to learn and remember the content, and practised using them socially. In addition, teaching materials and learning activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry were offered to help to learn the content. Sara and Keiko also contributed their knowledge and views to enrich the content. Nevertheless, it was noted that language learning activity and language knowledge were less emphasised in this programme.

Looking back over these data, we can construct the main strategies being used as follows:

Social-Affective Strategies

Strategy 1: 'yes' or 'no' responses, avoiding errors and avoiding communication.

Strategy 2: answering the teacher's questions, using memory.

Strategy 3: seeking help, clarification or explanation from the teacher or peers.

Strategy 4: mixing with international students from other countries.

Strategy 5: cooperating with peers in activities or tasks and sharing world or work experience.

Strategy 6: actively responding and raising questions going beyond just memory.

Strategy 7: taking risks in using the target language.

Input-Output Strategies

Strategy 1: waiting to be instructed, observing, listening and reading to receive more language input.

Strategy 2: relying on teaching materials or notes to answer the teacher's questions.

Strategy 3: using circumlocutions and alternative expressions.

Strategy 4: using gestures or facial expressions.

Strategy 5: consciously and actively seeking opportunities to use L2.

Strategy 6: correcting one's own and others' errors in language production.

**Processing Strategies** 

Strategy 1: repeating important terms and taking key word notes to help to learn and remember the content.

Strategy 2: resorting to teaching materials (including video-cassettes and authentic materials) and social interactive or communicative activities or

tasks relevant to the target situation to support the content learning.

Strategy 3: using knowledge obtained from world or work experience to

assist content learning and contribute to the content.

To sum up, it seems that Keiko and Sara did not really develop learning strategies in different ways, but progressed at rather different rates in the learning process. Keiko spent a longer time before she started actively responding, raising questions and taking the initiative. In fact, they shared many things in common in their learning processes needed to adjust to the content learning communicative classroom: firstly, both Keiko and Sara were highly motivated students of English for Tourism. Secondly, they shared a number of learning strategies. As they became aware of the significance of social interaction and social strategies, they began to be consciously and actively engaged in language use and to use the knowledge of content in the social process. Thus they became effective classroom participants eventually.

Social interaction and social strategies are likely to play important roles, helping language input and output to work together for effective language use. The social process is also significant in assisting content learning more effectively by communication. In brief, the social process links language use and content learning closely together. Therefore social strategies may be seen as the most essential among the important strategies discussed above.

Nevertheless, it is worth pointing out that language learning activities and language knowledge were less emphasised in this programme. Social interactive or communicative activities or tasks were mainly used to aid content learning and language use. Without the explicit presentation or teaching of relevant and useful grammatical rules, Sara and Keiko were likely to be required to discover and reorder their grammar, linked to the content, to produce the target language so as to enable them to be involved in the social interactive or communicative activities or tasks, especially in their early stages.

In the next section some common significant learning strategies will be discussed.

# 6.4 Common Significant Learning Strategies

After having compared data concerning the two learners and examined other learners in the classroom, it was clear that they did not really develop learning strategies in different ways, but progressed at different rates in the learning process. At the same time, they shared a number of common strategies which are significant in order to cope with the content learning communicative classroom. We turn in the following section to look at the strategies employed by the students more widely. These follow the same patterns as Keiko and Sara. For convenience, however, the discussion of these strategies is organised under six general headings which refer to the list of the strategies as already identified above: taking risks in using L2 (social-affective strategy 7), answering and asking questions (social-affective strategies 2, 3 and 6), cooperating and sharing experiences (social-affective strategy 5), circumlocution or alternative expressions (input-output strategy 3), taking notes (processing strategy 1) and resorting to relevant materials and activities or tasks (processing strategy 2).

## 6.4.1 Taking Risks in Using the Target Language

Studying in the CLT classroom in the British context and focusing on content learning for tourism were the first experience for all the students in this study. This new learning experience was challenging, unfamiliar and frustrating for them. Lack of confidence, or lack of motivation to take risks in using L2 would prevent them from adjusting to the communicative classroom. The following incident showed how an adult learner could not match the expectations and demands of CLT because she did not take risks in using the target language.

Catherine often sat quietly by herself at a round table in the corner. Her facial expression showed a lack of confidence and considerable personal anxiety. When the teacher asked her to sit with other students, to work and to cooperate with others or participate in the discussions or in role-plays, she often objected. In the third week, the observer moved to sit with her. She complained quietly that the teacher did not teach grammar and that she hated to talk in the classroom and participate in the learning activities. Maybe she did not know how to overcome the inevitable difficulties in the new learning system. Maybe her proficiency level or her self-confidence was too low for her to be ready for the communicative classroom.

In addition, she was unlikely to be motivated to improve her learning strategies or to make the necessary changes to face the new learning challenge. Obviously she had difficulty in adjusting to the communicative classroom. Thus one month and half later, she disappeared from the class. She was the only case in the programme who did not try to take risks in using the L2.

Like Catherine, many of the other learners in the programme were rather tense in the early stages and did not have sufficient confidence in language use for communication or in participating in social interactive or communicative activities or tasks in the classroom. However, during the adjustment phases, most of them concentrated on listening. Sooner or later, they started to shift their focus from comprehension to production and interaction. They began to take risks in using the L2 in varied social interactive or communicative activities or tasks. They often mixed with fellow students to provide themselves with more opportunities to use the L2. The more they practised using the target language socially, the more confidence they built up in taking risks in using the L2.

# 6.4.2 Answering and Asking Questions

Answering questions was a common strategy which was especially crucial for these learners practising use of the L2 in the early stages. Almost all of them started to practise answering the teacher's questions with simple sentences or short phrases. In addition, asking questions was also another common strategy in the class. Most of them, especially Sara, Gina, Pauline, Jane, often asked the teacher or other peers to clarify or explain unfamilar terms or phrases (For instance, Gina: Escorted tours? What does escorted tours mean?). This strategy was also important for these learners in the early stages. Through these strategies of answering and asking questions they built up confidence in using the target language and learning the content relevant to tourism.

# 6.4.3 Cooperating and Sharing Experiences

Cooperation and Sharing experiences were perhaps the most significant, welcome and common social strategies in the communicative classroom. Through these strategies they worked together, shared their world knowledge (e.g. geographical knowledge, historical knowledge and cultural differences), and work experiences, practised using the target language, enhanced content learning and developed their interpersonal relationships.

Sharing experiences is particularly important for learners from different cultural backgrounds to develop cultural understanding. One day's observation of their sharing of experiences which took place at the end of the third month of this programme showed how this promoted cultural understanding. They shared their experiences relevant to these topics of body language, recognition of signals and cultural differences. Most of them were active in sharing their knowledge and experience about these topics. Keiko raised the issue that avoiding eye contact is a sign of respect in Asia. None of the European students could understand this for they interpreted it as a sign of insult or disrespect. Then they began to have a heated discussion and talk about what they had learned from their work experience or from their life. Sara, finally, burst into laughter and said, 'I did not know why some Asian customers did not look at me when they were talking to me. I thought that they did not like me.' Through this sharing of experience, they learned that body language appropriate in some cultures may be taboo in others. Thus they developed their intercultural understanding as well.

#### 6.4.4 Circumlocution or Alternative Expressions

Circumlocution or using alternative expressions was a common strategy to aid these learners to get their meanings across. Sara, Gina, Emma, and Grace in particular often used circumlocution (e.g. I forget what's its name. That's a ticket you can use to go and come back) and alternative expressions(e.g, 'a small note-book' for 'a brochure'), with the help of gestures, to deliver their intended meanings. These strategies indicated that these learners wanted to break the ice, initiate output and express their views and were confident and willing to take risks in using the L2.

## 6.4.5 Taking Notes

A strategy which was commonly used from the beginning to the end of this programme was taking notes. In the early stages, most of them appeared to write down everything which they heard from the lessons in the target language. Keiko, Jane, Pauline, Tim, and Masako, either took notes in their native language or in a mixture of the target language and their mother tongue. All the notes seemed to be rather chaotic in the initial stages. The teacher often wrote the key words of new content on the board when she was leading a whole class discussion on a new topic or after playing video-cassettes. The teacher's notes seemed very precious to these learners, and all of them always copied down the teacher's key word notes.

There were several possible motives which pushed students to develop key-word note-taking skills: first of all, maybe they found the teacher's key word notes were helpful and useful for them to remember and understand new content. Secondly, they possibly found that translation or elaborate notes took longer and did not help them to develop their English. Thirdly, perhaps as they developed learning strategies and built up their self-confidence, they relied less on memory and more on understanding. Most of them wrote less and developed key word notes in the target language sooner or later.

The key word notes seemed to help these learners to remember and understand the knowledge of new content more effectively, respond to the teacher's questions, and participate in discussions. At the same time, they helped them to absorb the idea quickly, respond immediately and perform better.

# 6.4.6 Resorting to Relevant Materials and Activities or Tasks

As mentioned earlier, this was the first time for these learners to learn the content

of tourism. Thus teaching materials and learning activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry were crucial for them to support content learning. In the teaching materials, authentic texts (e.g. business letters, faxes, advertisements, brochures and timetables) and a video relevant to the target situation were covered. Thus students could learn from the realia (the real things) from the work-place. That is, they could learn how to write business letters with help from the samples offered to them, and the video showed how people at the work-place dealt with customer complaints face to face or through the phone. In addition, social-interactive or communicative activities or tasks relevant to the target situation also offered activities, such as dealing with customer complaints through business letters (usually assigned as homework, but in the class, the teacher taught students how to lay out a business letter), through the telephone, or face to face, and how to greet and meet groups. These activities helped these students to acquire not only speaking and listening skills, but also professional skills (e.g. customer care skills, telephone techniques, and interpersonal skills and relations), learning strategies, cultural, geographical and historical knowledge.

Meanwhile, these learners were also allowed and encouraged to interpret and evaluate knowledge in the teaching materials, and use their knowledge obtained from this programme, world or work experience to assist the content learning and even contribute to the content.

To summarise, the strategies mentioned above were commonly used by these learners to help them to reach the main goal of effective communication, enhance content learning and cope with the expectations and demands of this programme. In general, no single strategy was sufficient for efficient content learning and language use. The learners needed to combine several strategies in the social process in order to learn the content and develop language use. Doing so is to link comprehension, production and interaction closely together. Social process, social interaction and social strategies may be seen as the most important aspects of learning in the content learning communicative classroom.
Evidence from the data which was collected showed that learners with grammartranslation experience needed to develop learning strategies which were appropriate to making the transition to the new learning experience possible and effective. Most of the learners in this study did try hard to produce the result which was expected in this programme of English for Tourism sooner or later.

Now let us turn to look at the teacher's view of her students' learning.

# **6.5 Interviewing the Teacher to Check the Observations:**

Comparison between the two learners showed that Keiko appeared to be slower than Sara, especially in the early stages. To check the observations, the teacher was interviewed about individual differences in the learning strategies which her students used in the classroom. Her comments are presented as follows:

Through her thirty years of experience in teaching ESL and eight years of experience in teaching English for tourism for foreign students, she found that many Japanese learners have spoken language problems and have difficulty speaking in the class. It often happens that their spoken English is not as good as their written English. They prefer to be silent rather than risk making mistakes. Furthermore, Japanese learners are usually not in employment, and have not been put in a situation where they have to communicate. Therefore it is easier for them to avoid spoken language in public.

Since they do not have adequate confidence in speech, they tend to sit and study in the library. They are embarrassed to participate in the discussion because they see that everyone else speaks well. Not just language but also culture shock can delay their language production.

Low self-esteem, and lack of confidence are often found among Asian learners, especially Japanese women students who tend to defer to another opinion. According to the teacher's view, this is a cultural feature. The teacher believed that they cannot learn until they have self-confidence. Therefore if they want to work with Westerners, they need to make cultural and affective changes. In addition in the Western education system, especially in higher proficiency levels, there are many tasks which are problem-solving, without right-wrong answers.

The teacher was aware of Asian learners having difficulties with tasks which call for imagination, discussion or presentation of an idea. Many students withdraw to lower courses because they cannot cope with the demands of the Western education system at the higher levels, for which they need to use more creative thought. When the written task has no right-wrong answers they do not know what to do because they need to use imagination or creative thought which is not often required in the Asian education system. To adjust to the new situation the Japanese students need to make big changes in the assumptions they bring to the classroom.

According to the teacher's views, in the European education system and culture, arguments and activities are used for problem-solving, discussion, and presentation of ideas. The European students are happy and not worried so much about their grammar, so long as they are communicating. They are more happy and more confident in speaking and making mistakes. Moreover, most European students also have jobs which provide them with opportunities to use the language in public. It is much easier for European students to learn and use the target language in the UK compared with Japanese learners. According to the teacher's previous experience, Japanese learners take longer to be able to communicate. For example, European learners may take three months while Japanese need six months.

The statement above was derived from the teacher's views. In fact, from the observation data in this study, not only Japanese learners but also some European learners had difficulties in adjusting to CLT. The example of Catherine showed that she failed to overcome these difficulties, control her negative affective factors and meet these learning challenges deriving from the expectations of CLT. It is true that learners with grammar-translation experience may find it not only challenging but also frustrating to study in CLT. Thus not only Japanese, but any learners need

some time, encouragement and motivation to develop learning strategies in order to overcome these inevitable difficulties. Otherwise they will not be able to reach the goal of having new learning experiences or achieve the targets which they set for themselves.

It is essential to take into account learners' factors, for instance, their previous learning experiences, proficiency levels, cultural backgrounds, motivation to language learning and difficulties in adjusting to new learning experiences. The teacher needs to provide for individual difference in learning progress because some learners may need longer than others to move towards fluency. The learner should be encouraged and supported by the teacher to move towards the goal at all times.

#### 6.6 Summary

This chapter has concentrated on the analysis of the observation data by comparing two learners, Keiko and Sara. The overall classification of social-affective, inputoutput and processing strategies is a useful way of describing this. We then follow and confirm this by looking at the group more widely. The observation data show that students do not really develop learning strategies in different ways, but progress at different rates in the learning process. At the same time, they share a number of common learning strategies in order to adjust to the content learning communicative classroom.

These observation data indicate that students with grammar learning experience seem to be be insecure, frustrated, and lacking in confidence in the content learning communicative classroom in the early stages. Learners who are successful in making the transition to the new learning system are highly motivated learners and become aware of the significant role of social process and social interaction and expectations of the communicative classroom. On the other hand, Catherine, who is the unsuccessful case in making the transition to the new learning system, seems not motivated to take risks in using L2 for communication. She still insists on learning grammar in the communicative classroom. Maybe, she has not adequately acquired certain grammatical features and does not have effective learning strategies to be ready for the communicative classroom. Maybe the communicative classroom is too challenging for her. Her case indicates that language learners may need to force themselves to struggle to make certain changes or adjustments. This may be a painful experience. Meanwhile, some learners are likely to encounter more difficulties or make slower progress than others.

It may be assumed that Taiwanese students will encounter similar difficulties if the teacher adopts a new, communicative approach. In order to avoid the case of Catherine, teachers in Taiwan probably need to consider how to help their students to make the transition more easily and effectively when such an approach is adopted.

It is worth noting that in the communicative classroom, these learners in the empirical research are required to be able to engage in dynamic and spontaneous talk through social interaction. Attention to form and error avoidance alone are obviously insufficient for successful communication. Thus, fluency and meaning can be seen as primary to reach the level of discourse and achieve the goal of effective communication. Meanwhile, comprehension, production and interaction should be stressed and closely linked together. Furthermore, these learners are also allowed to interpret and evaluate their knowledge in the relevant field, and share their work experiences, cultural, historical and geographical knowledge. Students' contributions to new content are always encouraged and valued.

It is essential to note that this programme emphasises social interactional or communicative activities or tasks for content learning. Language learning activities and language knowledge are less emphasised. In other words, it mainly focuses on content learning. This is similar to the 'content-based model' which has been criticised by Hutchinson and Waters (1983; see Nunan 1988; see Chapter 2). This programme is different from the English for Tourism programme in Taiwan which lay stress on language learning. As has been argued in Chapter 2, either the focus on content learning or language learning alone can be a mistake in teaching English for Tourism. Thus, the balance between language and content may need to be critically considered within the communicative classroom in the Taiwanese context. This issue will be discussed further in Chapter 8.

Aganist this background, the analysis, in the next chapter, of interview data reported by the students will be explored.

# **Chapter 7**

### **Commentary on Interviews**

#### 7.1 Introduction

In Chapter 6, the description and analysis were mainly derived from the researcher's impressions of how learners developed their learning strategies in order to match the content learning in the classroom of English for Tourism. One of the purposes, as stated in Chapter 6, of the interviews was to obtain further evidence and confirm the general observations. Therefore some interview data may overlap. Another purpose of the interviews was to supplement observations and seek information which could be difficult to obtain or was not accessible through classroom observations.

Several reasons suggest the inadequacy of the classroom observations alone, and the interviews as essential to complement the observations. Observations are mainly limited to the classroom and are insufficient for discussing and exploring learners' learning strategies. There is a need to include the whole context: i.e. inside and outside of the class. As already argued in Chapter 2, outside classroom learning which is crucial should be considered. Secondly, in the observations, it is likely only to see what learners were doing without knowing what they think. As discussed in Chapter 4, it is important to investigate not only what learners do but also what they believe, e.g. what they believe to be the best way to develop more appropriate learning strategies; what sorts of teaching materials and methodology do they believe help them to learn the content and language use. In other words, it is possible to miss many 'invisible' or 'mentalist' strategies if we rely on the sole use of observations (Oxford 1990).

There were fifteen interviewees in this empirical research. All of them had studied general English by the grammar-translation method for more than ten years before coming to study the programme of English for Tourism at Westminster College in the United Kingdom. Some of them lived with British families. Others shared flats with their friends who spoke their native language. Others lodged at an international hall. 'Immersion' in a foreign country or in an English-speaking country and studying in a communicative classroom were new experiences for them.

To provide details about the two learners, Sara and Keiko, the main focus of the observations in Chapter 6, the biographies of these two learners are given below. They represented different rates in the progress of the learning process as stated and compared in Chapter 6. In this chapter, they are described as representatives of those who came to the UK with almost zero ability in effective communication in using the L2 and ineffective learning strategies, though with fundamental English knowledge. They then discovered and enhanced learning strategies to become more fluent speakers and more successful learners. Furthermore, 'students', 'learners' and 'subjects' are interchangable terms in this chapter. L2, the target language, and English are also identical.

This chapter will include: firstly, biographies of the two learners; secondly, learning strategies of the fifteen learners; and, thirdly, significant common learning strategies.

#### 7.2 Biographies of the two Learners

#### 7.2.1 Biography One

Name: Sara Age: 23 Occupation: Clerk at Supermarket Languages Learned: Spanish, Swahili, and English

Sara was born in Spain and brought up there in a bilingual family. Her father is Spanish and her mother African. The languages spoken in her home were Spanish and Swahili. At the age of 9, she started to study English which was taught in the traditional grammar-translation method. Her work was mainly drills and translations, and she memorised plenty of vocabulary and grammar. This way, she always got good grades in the English tests.

As soon as she completed her BA degree in economics, she came to the United Kingdom with some goals, dreams and ambitions. For instance, she wanted to improve her English proficiency, find a decent job with a good salary and enrich her experiences and her knowledge.

Staying and studying in the United Kingdom was her first experience of being abroad. Soon after Sara arrived in the UK, she experienced not only culture shock but also linguistic shock because in her previous language learning experience, she had not been offered opportunities to use the target language for communication. At first she tended to avoid meeting any English-speaking people. As she described her first experience, 'I felt quite lonely... I had nobody to talk to.' Without any friends and relatives in this unfamiliar alien land, she was very homesick. Sometimes she cried because she missed her family and friends and the food and the weather in her country. Her memory of her first two weeks of staying in this country was traumatic.

She soon realized that she should not go through life like this. If she did, she would not be able to reach her goals or fulfil her dreams: 'if I don't open my mouth, even if I stay in the UK for more than one hundred years, I still won't be able to speak English. My life will be meaningless.' She began to encourage herself to improve her English. Firstly, she took an active approach to exposure to the target language. For instance, she tried hard to read the subtitles and listen to English while watching TV, at the same time, repeating and imitating their English. She often talked to herself in English and tried to make friends with non-Spanish speakers in order to practise English. Moreover, she tried courses in other language schools, before she came to Westminster College. She thought the college was a wellorganised training institute which also provided such courses as 'English for Tourism', 'English for Hotel Reception & Front Office' etc. She believed that it was worthwhile and valuable 'to kill two birds with one stone' so that she could improve her language learning as well as develop professional potentiality. She wanted to find a job related to tourism at some time in the future. Meanwhile she got a job as a clerk at the supermarket. This job not only enabled her to survive in the expensive city of London but also offered her the opportunity to use the target language.

Sara became a more effective language learner or user as soon as she was active in using various social settings or situations in and out of the classroom. At first she could not handle spontaneous conversations in the target language. After about three months practising using the language, she had already built up her confidence to communicate with the native speakers fluently in different social settings, though she had not achieved native-like fluency. She was very proud of her progress in oral production in the target language within a few months of being in this country: 'Since I was 9, I have studied English. Now I am 23 years old. I have been in London less than six months. In the six months in the UK, I have learned much more than I learned in my country from 9 to 22.' Now she is quite satisfied and confident about her progress in her language learning.

However, she showed her dissatisfication with her grammar-translation learning experience. She commented that her previous language learning was boring because of the focus on grammar rather than learning through social interaction or communication: 'I think my previous English teachers talked too much in our language in order to explain the grammar rules, and the students seldom had the chance to talk.' She believed that she learned most when she had opportunities to use the target language to communicate with others.

Sara did experience difficulties and adjustments in the early stages. She overcame all her problems and developed more effective learning strategies to adjust from grammar-translation learning to a communicative approach and to an immersion situation. The main reasons for her success in making the transition and in language learning and use were her strong motivation to be successful in language learning and in her career, and her development of social strategies to make herself use the target language frequently.

### 7.2.2 Biography Two

Name: Keiko Age: 23 Occupation: No Job Experience Languages Learned: Japanese and English

Keiko is a native speaker of Japanese from Kobe, Japan. At the age of 12, she started to learn English. Like Sara, her English was also taught by the grammartranslation method. In her previous learning experience, she needed to memorise hundreds of intricate rules or vocabulary and take part in drills or translations. She was not offered opportunities to learn to use the target language. Travelling, staying and studying in the United Kingdom was also her first experience overseas. When she first came to this country, her ability to maintain a conversation in English with a native speaker was almost nil. Her first few months in London were very frightening and difficult. This is how she recalled her negative feelings about her initial experience:

When I just arrived at this country, I could not understand people talking to me in English. Whenever they talked to me in English, I simply replied "yes" or "thank you" without understanding anything at all. I felt very shamed, silly, and embarrassed with my inability to understand English. My first impressions of people in London were impatient, unfriendly and busy. When I was very new in this big city, I often got lost and had the difficulties to find new places. It was not easy to find someone to give me a clear guide to find the places or sometimes I was refused by answering. At that time, I really had the bad impressions with the people here. I often asked myself why I needed to come to this country to suffer all these things. I had very strong feelings that I wanted to go back to Japan immediately. She suffered a linguistic shock as well as a cultural shock in the initial stages. Nevertheless, her desire to learn something new, improve her language ability, and have better professional ability inspired her to stay longer. On the other hand, her lack of confidence, shyness, timidity or fear of being hurt kept her away from non-Japanese people and made her reluctant to speak the target language for about five months. Luckily, in London she had several Japanese friends to provide company for her and talk to her.

Although with limited production ability in the target language, Keiko took many initiatives to have a rich language input. She described what she did to help herself overcome the difficulties at the initial stages:

I studied American English before I came to this country. I really had the difficulty to understand British English. I thought that could be also one of the reasons why listening comprehension was so difficult for me at the very beginning. In order to improve my listening comprehension, I bought a lot of tapes from the bookstores, then listened to the tapes as many times as I could. Moreover, I also recorded good programmes from the TV, and watched the video tapes as many times as I liked. When I listened to the tapes or watch the video tapes, I first gained the ideas of the contents, and then tried to imitate the pronunciation and the intonation. In order to enrich my vocabulary power, I also read newspapers, magazines, and British history, etc. every day.

She undertook self-study for about five months, and then enrolled in the English for Tourism course at Westminster College. She hoped to improve her English, then obtain a certificate in tourism and then find a job as a tourist guide in Japan.

The emphasis in the English for Tourism programme was on communication. It was the first time in her life that she encountered the need to communicate in the classroom instead of merely sitting quietly and receiving knowledge or information from the teacher. She described her classroom shock:

My first experience in the classroom in this country was another frightening adventure in my life. Previously in my country, what I only needed to do was

just to keep quiet and to be attentive to receive and to memorise whatever the teacher taught me, I did not need to use my brain to think or to create something to say. In fact, there was no space for us to express our ideas and our insights. What the teachers taught and said, or what the contents of textbooks included were the truth or the knowledge, we did not need to argue, we only needed to accept. Besides to argue with our teacher or even with our classmates is not proper in my society. But education here is different, memorisation is not enough, you need to use your imagination to create something to say, to contribute your ideas and to share your experiences.

She felt ashamed, embarrassed and even angry with herself at first when she saw other students actively participating in the learning activities. She did not know what to say. Therefore she simply kept quiet.

She became aware that her lack of confidence and of extroversion hindered her in interacting sociably with people in using the target language which she believed was crucial for successful second language learning or for learning to speak. Therefore she tried to overcome this deficiency and make changes. She encourage herself to start to seek opportunities to use the target language and make non-Japanese friends. At the same time, she tried to receive calls on the public telephone and take messages for other housemates. Through the social process, she gradually built up her confidence in using the target language, especially with her British friends outside the classroom.

However, she found some differences between talking with her friends out of the classroom and learning in the classroom. As she mentioned, she could stop and ask her friends if she did not comprehend what they were saying. Moreover she was afraid of making mistakes in front of other people. In addition she found that in this programme she needed to learn to use a lot of imagination and creativity. She emphasised the difficulties of using the target language in an imagined situation. She did not have any work experience, therefore the real-world of the work-place was a completely imagined world for her. Using this imagination or creativity seemed very novel to her because in her previous learning experiences she had not been offered opportunities for this kind of training. Therefore she found it difficult

to get involved in the learning activities, such as role play between seller and buyer, writing and answering letters of complaint and laying out a report or an advertisement for the work-place.

At first she relied totally on her teacher and asked her for help after the class. On the other hand, she read some samples to show her, for instance, how to lay-out a business letter and a report. Through her constant practice in using the target languge and attentively listening to how others constructed and expressed their views on the topics they were discussing, she gradually built up her confidence and developed imagination, creativity and understanding in using the target language in the communicative classroom.

#### 7.2.3 Concluding Remarks on Sara and Keiko

From the analysis of the two vignettes, it is clear that Keiko was much slower than Sara in the development of learning processes in this setting. The reasons for this may be Keiko's culture, shyness, language level, and lack of confidence and extroversion. European students are likely to learn English more quickly than Asian ones, because English is a European language with a largely Latin-based vocabulary. English is closer to the categories of Spanish than to Chinese or Japanese. It is more certain that lack of work experience and of opportunities to converse regularly in the target language can be significant factors in retarding language acquisition. In addition, Keiko discovered that was a very painful and struggling experience to meet the additional difficulties of constructing meanings in imagined real-world situations. Meanwhile, it took Keiko a long while to overcome her difficulties and develop her imagination, creativity or understanding, instead of using memory only. These factors may explain why Keiko was much slower than Sara.

In fact, both of them experienced a sense of insecurity in the early stages. The development of social strategies and learning through social interaction appeared to be very significant for their progress and adjustment to the content learning

communicative classroom. Moreover, both of them had strong motivation and determination for success sufficient for them to make adjustments and overcome difficulties in the new learning context.

The following statements from and information concerning all fifteen learners parallel some of the experiences that Sara and Keiko came through.

#### 7.3 The Analysis of Fifteen Subjects' Learning Strategies

This section will focus on what the subjects said. The interviews took place soon after they had completed the English for Tourism programme. Fifteen students participated in the interviews. These students were the same as the ones who had already been observed and presented and discussed in Chapter 6. Depending on the convenience and preference of these students, group and individual interviews were used and were held at the researcher's place during meal times. They appeared to be enjoying the meal and the talk rather than having a formal interview.

Individual and group interview data were treated equally in the analysis. The questions (see appendix 1) used in the interviews were given to the interviewees two weeks beforehand so that they could have time to consider their answers. The interview questions were in semi-structured question style and were based on their backgrounds and their past language learning experience in relation to their present English for Tourism learning experience and immersion experience in the British context. All the interviews were recorded.

These interviewees appeared to be full of confidence and answered the questions fluently. They seemed very enthusiastic about communicating what they knew. In other words, when interviewed, they had already developed confidence and fluency in using the target language. This phenomenon was rather different from initial impressions gained through observations of their learning in the classroom. As mentioned in Chapter 5, there was no oral examination provided for these students. Therefore the assessment of their development of fluency was based on the researcher's intuition and on the discussion with the teacher who was in agreement, not on formal testing. However, there is no question that they made considerable improvement enabling them to pursue study in this programme in the British context.

The interview data was analysed utilising the same categories used for the analysis of observation data in Chapter six. Thus the analysis and discussion of the learners' self-reports directly focus on their learning strategies in relation to: 1. social interaction and affective control (social-affective strategies), 2. language use (input-output strategies), 3. content learning (processing strategies):

# 7.3.1 Strategies in Relation to Social Interaction and Affective Control (Social-Affective Strategies)

Before analysing the vignettes of the fifteen learners' learning strategies, it also needs to be stated that the interview data confirmed the observation data that social interaction or social process played an important role in developing learners' strategies. The analysis shows that social interaction was significant in every category of their learning strategies.

All the participants described their first weeks in the United Kingdom as a nightmare or a frightening experience. According to their reports, when they arrived in the country, they found that their knowledge of grammatical rules was inadequate for them to have conversations with native speakers. After saying 'hello', they did not know what the people or the families they lived with were saying. They just answered everything with 'yes' and smiled. As Jane recollected her first weeks of her arrival in this country:

On the first weeks I was very scared of talking to people in English. When they came to talk to me and I could not understand or did not know how to answer them. At that time, I really wished to disappear from the world. Maybe at that time I was too nervous to understand or to say anything.

Because of their difficulties in using the target language for communication or social interaction, they often felt silly, lonely, disappointed, frustrated and upset.

Their first experience was to discover that learning a language is more than learning grammatical rules; they also needed to learn how to use language as a resource for communication within a variety of social settings. Many interviewees criticised the inefficiency of their past grammar-translation learning experience. The following two statements exemplify their complaints. As Keiko stated:

I had studied English for more than ten years before I came to this country. In my country, I simply memorised the vocabulary and studied some grammatical rules in order to pass the tests and examinations in English. When I found that I could not understand the native speakers' English at all and had difficulty in the conversations, I felt very stressful and frustrated.

Sara also made a similar complaint:

I had studied English since I was 9. I found that I had the difficulty in conversations with the people here when I just arrived in this country, I felt quite angry with my language inability. I had spent so much time in my life in the past studying the boring grammatical rules. I think that it is not right to learn only grammar.

They declared their dissatisfaction with their previous grammar-translation learning experience because it had not prepared them to use the target language for communication.

Their negative feelings or anxieties may not only have derived from the target language itself, but also from its speakers. Many of them reported that as soon as they found out that the native speakers spoke too fast for them to comprehend or might become impatient with their broken English, they would stop the conversations. At that time, they felt more comfortable to be with friends from their own countries or with someone who shared the same language. They avoided opportunities to meet native speakers or to use the target language.

All the phenomena which the students reported at this adjustment stage were similar to the description by Naiman et al. (1978):

The problem which everyone interested in these questions faces -- .... -- is inadequate knowledge and frequent failure after years of language study. Success in language learning is not the rule. Moreover, failure is accompanied by dissatisfaction, awareness of one's own inadequacy and sometimes annoyance, disappointment, frustration, and even anger at the colossal waste of time. These feelings may then spill over into negative attitudes to the L2 and its speakers.

(ibid: 1)

Their anxieties or negative feelings may also have been related to their unfamiliarity with the learning environments and situations. They encountered more or less classroom shock in addition to cultural shock or linguistic shock during the first stages. According to their reports, there were a number of differences in the English for Tourism classroom from their previous learning experience. For instance, they just needed to learn the L2 itself, and did not need to learn the content, such as tourism. They simply listened to teachers using mainly L1 to teach or explain the grammatical rules, vocabulary or phrases. The situation was that teachers always talked and taught, and students just listened. However, in this programme of English for Tourism, students had to learn the content. They did not simply listen to the teacher's lectures. They were expected to take responsibility for their own learning, to work and collaborate with their peers, and share their experiences with others in varied activities or tasks. The teacher did not dominate the whole duration of the class time.

They found it odd and difficult at first to study in this new learning setting. However, all of these interviewees had strong motivation and determination to be successful in their language learning and in their career. Therefore, as soon as they became aware that their primary urgent need was to develop social strategies to use language for communication, they encouraged themselves to have social interaction with English-speaking people and take risks in using the target language not only inside but also outside of the classroom. As they became more familiar with the learning and social contexts in the United Kingdom and acquired more friends, their negative feelings or anxieties vanished sooner or later. Mike reported how his anxieties lessened:

As I became more interested in social interacting with people and more familiar with the environment, I tried to seek more practice opportunities in using English. Therefore I took courses at Westminster College, and have had a part-time job for me to practise English every day. The more I practiced using the target language, the more confidence I built up in using it. My anxieties seemed to become lower and then vanish.

Mary also reported how she overcame her nervousness in using the target language through the help of her friends outside the classroom:

After three months later I had several nice British friends who were very patient and helpful to improve my English. At first I was very nervous. I often said that I was sorry that I could not speak English well. They said that I did not need to say sorry and I should be proud of myself and they should feel shamed for they could not speak anything in my language at all. They gave me a lot of encouragement, confidence and opportunities in using English. Through the continuous practice English with them, I could cope with the communicative classroom at Westminster College. Now I already built up my confidence in using English. I am not afraid of making errors any more. I know that I can communicate with my friends fluently and they can understand me. I think that it is the most important that people can understand you when you use the language.

Pauline, in a similar way, stated how she promoted her linguistic and affective developments:

Two months later I got a job to be a waitress in a restaurant. At first I was very nervous to ask the customers their orders, then after practising English every day in the job, and talking with the friends working in the restaurant. Very soon I overcame my nervousness in speaking English. I think that it is important to overcome the fear or nervousness in using the language. Once you overcome it, it will be easier for you to achieve something. I think that this work experience also helped me a lot to cope with the communicative classroom at Westminister College. I could also bring my work experience to the classroom to share with my classmates. Now I feel very happy and

very confident in speaking English and have confidence in myself. I plan to apply the scholarship to study at Oxford University and go on my further study in the foreign languages.

Sara likewise reported:

I believed that if I did not open my mouth to speak English with the native speakers or other people, I would not be able to improve my English. Therefore I encouraged myself to make more non-Spanish friends and to have social interaction with them in using the target language. At the same time, I got a part-time job which offered me a lot of opportunities to use the target language. Now I am not afraid of using English and feel comfortable and confidence in speaking it.

In fact, not only Sara and Pauline, but also Grace, Barbara, Mary, Tim, Mike, Gina, Emma and Jane reported that their part-time jobs offered them many opportunities to use the target language for communication or social interaction with other people every day. Thus through constant social interaction in using the target language in their jobs or with people, especially with friends out of the classroom, their anxieties became lower and eventually disappeared.

However, Keiko, Masako and Hiromi reported that they did not have job opportunities to practise using the target language every day. It seems that their anxieties faded more gradually. Thus they spent a little longer adjusting to the new learning system in the British context. During the adjustment phase they simply sought out more language input, mainly from the teacher or from the mass media, or by self-study. Later on, they realised that comprehension alone was insufficient for successful language learning and use. They began to encourage themselves to mix with non-Japanese friends, overcame their negative feelings or anxieties in using the target language, and take risks in using the L2 to participate in learning activities in the classroom. As Keiko stated:

At first I was shy and afraid to speak English, especially in the classroom. When I saw a lot of classmates very active joining the discussions, I felt shamed for I was too nervous to say anything. Then I encourage myself to have more non-Japanese friends and to speak more out of the classroom. After a long while I tried to answer or ask the teacher or other friends questions and to participate in the discussions in the classroom. Then my fears in speaking English seemed to disappear gradually. I think it is the most important to have confidence. Once you have confidence, it will be easier for you to achieve something. Now I am not be afraid and even I feel happy and confident to have the chance to talk in English.

As Jane reported, she often asked her British friends for explanation or clarification out of the classroom. Therefore, she felt comfortable and confident not only in answering questions but also asking her teacher or her peers for explanation or clarification in the classroom as well. Mary also reported in detail how her British friends outside the classroom helped her to cope with the communicative classroom more effectively. When encountering a new word during conversation with her friends, sometimes she might guess its meaning from the context or from the situation. Then she further asked them to clarify or confirm whether she had guessed right or not, 'Is it right, you meant....' Sometimes, she also asked them to write important words down or spell these words out for her. From her friends' constant providing her opportunities to practise using L2, she built up her confidence in using it. The strategies she developed through social interacting with her friends also confirmed the goal of this programme. Thus she adjusted to the classroom with ease.

Accordingly, all the subjects reported that it is essential to make more friends and seek more opportunities for using the target language outside the classroom. According to them, they were not really learning the language until they began to make friends or meet socially with people outside the classroom. Thus they learn best this way.

In addition, these interviewees believed it to be important for them to bring their work experiences and their world knowledge (especially knowledge in cultural difference, geography and history) to the classroom. They loved to share experiences and knowledge with each other, learn to express their thoughts and feelings and develop intercultural understandings. Sara described how she enjoyed learning through the sharing experience:

I love to share all my friends and my classmates the experiences happened to me in my life or in my job. I found the more I practiced using some new terms, I became more comfortable and more confidence in using them. I found sharing experiences a good way in learning.

Mike also described how he felt from the sharing of work experience:

I have worked as a receptionist at the hotel for a long while. During the discussion related to the customer care, and how to keep the memos, how to deal with difficult customers, etc. I had a lot of experiences in these areas in my work. I felt proud and loved to share all my experiences with my classmates. Sharing experiences offered me a lot of opportunities to use English.

Hiromi also pointed out:

I did not have any work experience, and I did not know how to develop customer care skills, or how to deal with customers' complaint. I loved to listen to other classmates' work experiences.

Mary also stated:

I believed that sharing experience is a good way of learning. We said something from our own experiences and from our understandings. It seems more realistic. I especially liked to share our understandings we learned from our cultures. I think it is a good lesson to improve intercultural understandings.

Their appreciation of sharing experiences already came through the general observation data in Chapter 6.

To sum up, evidence from the interview data confirmed and supported impressions gained through general observations. Social strategies and social interaction were

crucial for learners to build up their confidence, develop their language proficiency and improve interpersonal relationships and intercultural understanding. In addition, the interview data supplemented the data from general observation by revealing that these subjects learned a great deal through social interaction outside the classroom, where the use of the target language was as significant as or more significant than the work done in the classroom.

# 7.3.2 Strategies in Relation to Language Use (Input-Output Strategies)

The interview data not only confirmed, but also supplemented observation data: the learners resorted to external resources, for instance, television, films, radio, tapes, teaching materials, teacher, peers or friends to help to develop language input and output. They used internal resources, such as circumlocution, alternative expressions, monitoring and physical action (e.g. gestures, facial expressions) to help to communicate in the target language. Furthermore, they also relied on internal processes and unobservable behaviours, such as translation, thinking in the target language, imagination or creativity in their language use. At the same time, experiences not only inside but also outside the classroom were significant in assisting them to develop their language use socially.

All the learners reported that while they avoided conversational situations in the first few weeks in the United Kingdom, the mass media were their favourite and important resources for language input. The majority of the participants liked television best because the body language and facial expressions on television helped them to understand the language they heard. John-Steiner (1987) also obtained a similiar finding in her study:

The mass media were another important source for second-language input where the learner did not need to respond. Many of those interviewed like television best--it offered a lot of nonverbal information with which to interpret the language they heard.

(ibid: 360)

Several subjects further illustrated other strategies for improving their listening comprehension on TV or on film in the early stages. Hiromi described what she did to help herself to understand TV programmes and film better:

At first, I could not understand at all from TV or the film. Then I tried to read the subtitle in English. I think that the subtitle on TV or on the film was very useful. It helped me to understand better and learn a lot of vocabulary.

Jane described another similar strategy:

I read the newspapers, before I watched the news on TV. From the reading newspapers I could catch the key words first, it was easier for me to understand the news on TV.

Listening to cassettes was also a valuable source of language input since they could listen to them as many times as they liked. As some participants said, before coming to the United Kingdom, they just learned American English. It was very difficult for them to understand British English and converse with native speakers at first. Cassettes helped them to pick up and understand British intonation and pronunciation. In addition, they could listen to them several times, first for getting the meanings and then for improving their intonation and pronunciation.

Barbara recalled that she liked to stay in her room and read English books aloud. When she did this, she could hear her own pronunciation and checked if she pronounced the words correctly, with the help of the tapes. She believed that reading aloud and listening to the cassettes were good ways to improve her pronunciation, enrich her vocabulary and promote language proficiency. It seemed that these adult learners had strong motivations and knew how to find external resources to increase language input, in order to overcome their language drawbacks or barriers in their early stages.

The learners could not rely only on language input. There were still many situations in which they could not easily avoid encountering native speakers and using the target language, especially for communicating with the families they lived with. When needing to use the target language during the first few weeks, the majority of interviewees reported that sometimes they used key words, short phrases and simple sentences to express their ideas with the help of gestures and facial expressions. In addition, they tried to keep conversations short and clear. However, they often needed to guess from the situations, or from the speakers' facial expressions or gestures in order to improve listening comprehension. Sometimes they used drawings or a bilingual dictionary to help communication. Tim reported what he did when talking with the family he lived with during the first weeks:

When I first lived with the family, I could not understand them at all. I always guessed what they were talking to me from their facial expressions or from their body language. When I needed to answer them, I tried to use one or two key words to express my ideas with the help of my body language. Sometimes I used a bilingual dictionary for the new words. Or sometimes I wrote down the key words to them if those words were difficult for me to pronounce and asked them to teach me how to pronounce them. I always repeated the difficult words as many times as I could.

Tina also reported similar strategies for handling communicative needs:

The family I lived with were patient and helpful. Whenever they did not understand me, I always tried to say it again with the help of gestures or sometimes with the help of drawings. Or sometimes I asked their help to tell me how to say it. I always repeated the useful terms and expressions they told me.

In the initial stages of the immersion experience in the UK, these subjects had to learn to overcome their inhibition in speaking and utilise tricks or strategies to deal with urgent needs for communication. In some social settings, the subjects had to overcome not only a block in speaking, but also limited ability in listening.

Understanding people was an arduous task for them to master. It was more difficult than speaking to people at first. As these interviewees mentioned, they could try to slow their own speech but they could not control other people's speed in speaking. Several interviewees complained that native speakers often spoke too rapidly for them to understand, even though they asked them to speak slowly. They felt frustrated and exhausted after listening to fast speaking, and tended to avoid anyone who spoke too fast for them to understand. Many participants in John-Steiner's (1987: 359) study reported their similiar experience: 'when they asked for clarification, people tended to raise their voices instead of slowing their speech or paraphrasing their utterances.'

Many participants mentioned that another main reason why they found it difficult to understand native speakers was that they tended to translate and try to understand every word which they heard. Consequently, they often got lost and could not catch the main ideas.

Furthermore, all of them reported that at first, they also depended on translation from their mother tongue to the target language when they wanted to say something. This was the main reason why they took a long time to produce something to say. As a result, other people could not quite understand what they were saying and became impatient when listening to them. In fact, they relied on translation for meeting unmet communicative needs in the very initial stages. Shortly they found that translation from the mother tongue into the target language or vice versa was a very tiring process and hindered them in their effective language use, making their conversations with native speakers or other people difficult. Grace decribed the long and exhausting process to produce a sentence:

When I was new in this country, I tended to translate everything what I heard and what I said. Therefore when I heard the native speaker's talking, I translated what the speaker said into my native language. That was the reason why I could not follow the speaker's talking all the time while my brain was still busy translating his preceding sentences. And when I wanted to express my ideas, I also thought in Spanish first and then translated them into English. It usually took a long time in order to speak my ideas out through this way.

The participants in John-Steiner's (1987: 362) study also found that 'a reliance upon translation persisted for a very long time.'

Another factor which made the use of the language more difficult in the early stages was the learners' excessive concern about the correct form. The majority of these subjects reported that when they arrived in this country, before they opened their mouth to express themselves, they always checked the sentence in their brain to see if it was grammatical or not. Only after they were quite sure that the sentences were grammatical, did they dare to open their mouths to deliver their ideas. Like translation, it usually took a long time in order to make a sentence and say it. Keiko described her ineffective language use experience:

At first, I always tried to think in Japanese, and then to translate it into an English sentence, and then to check if it was grammatical or not. It usually took me a long time in order to make a sentence in English before I spoke a sentence out. I felt very nervous and embarrassed to let other people wait for a long time. If I found that the listener who became impatient, I felt more stressful and more nervous, and then my tongue would be tied up. And then that would be the end of conversation between my conversationist and me.

According to all the learners' reports, when they became aware of the inefficiency of 'translation' and 'concern too much about form', they began to make some changes and tried to locate and develop more effective learning strategies. Later on, they learned to think in the target language by practising it consciously. Mike reported the importance of thinking in the target language while using it:

At first, I tried to translate everything from Spanish into English. I remembered that when I applied my first job here, I wrote a letter in Spanish and then translated it into English. I spent a whole day in order to write a letter. Besides writing, in speaking, reading, and listening, I always tried to translate everything. Then I found that to rely on translation took too much time. On the other hand, sometimes the translation does not make sense to people who do not know my language. You know, every language has its own way to express its ideas. Now, while I am using English, I try to forget Spanish and to think only in English.

Keiko also reported how she stopped worrying about the grammatical errors:

At first I really worried about grammar, and then I found that I concerned too much on grammar. Then I developed using the key words, and tried to speak as much as I could. I began to find out that it doesn't matter in making errors. The most important is that you try to use the language and to express your ideas, and people can understand you. The more you practise, the better people can understand you. Now I do not worry too much about grammar, and I know how to correct my errors. After I stopped thinking if my sentence was grammatical or not, the sentences from my mouth became naturally and automatically.

Many other participants also mentioned that with the help of using key words, they began to use the language as they could, without worrying too much about grammatical rules. Thus they developed their learning through accepting their errors.

The British context was full of opportunities for these language learners to receive target language inputs and produce it at the same time. All the learners reported that when they became more familiar with their living or learning environments, and had more friends, they began to take an active approach and seek practice opportunities for using L2. They frequently and deliberately sought different kinds of opportunities out of class. For instance, they listened to British people talking on the bus, started conversations with friendly strangers on the train, went to church, read newspapers and magazines in English, or sometimes talked to themselves in English when there was no one available for them to practise their English with.

Friends were also important for practising their language use and might be the main sources of language input and output. As Mary reported, she often went to talk with her friends who were patient and helpful. Her friends knew the level of her English, and they used a rate of speech which was comprehensible for her. Mike also reported that he tried to keep a diary or write to his friends in English rather than in Spanish.

Keiko described how she developed her confidence in using the target language and improved her language proficiency through receiving telephone messages for other housemates: The place where I live just has one telephone. At first I did not dare to receive the telephone calls for others because I was afraid that without the help of facial expression and gestures, it would be more difficult to understand English. Around three months later, I encouraged myself to go to pick up the telephone. Since that day, I began interested in receiving telephone calls for my housemates and in taking message for them. I tried to understand different accents and different ways of answering and asking questions. If the person on the phone spoke too fast, I always asked him to slow down his rate, or tried to catch the key words and to guess what he said and took the message. I tried to use the key words and to express myself and tried to speak clearly as I could. Then after taking this programme. Now I developed much better telephone techniques. In fact, the life in the English-speaking country, there are full of opportunities for us to practice and to use English.

It seems that these students became more effective learners when they knew how to cope with the social settings in and out of the classroom in the British context. What they did was consciously to seek practice opportunities to receive and produce the target language.

Their attention in speaking was paid to fluency rather than accuracy. However, according to them, there were some differences between the strategies in speaking and in writing. Most of them believed that accuracy is of equal importance to fluency when writing business letters. Because of the shortage of time, during a conversation they seldom stopped to use a dictionary to check the right vocabulary. They often used paraphrases, circumlocution or alternative expressions to overcome their obstacles in speaking. In contrast, they did resort to dictionaries, reference books or teaching materials quite often when they practised writing business letters as assignments at home in order to use the exact technical terms.

Sara said that she concentrated on the flow in speech and in writing. Nevertheless, after writing she always checked her work again. She paid more attention to accuracy in writing than she did in speaking. Therefore she often used a dictionary to check difficult terms in her homework, especially business letter writing. Mike also reported that in his job, if he kept a memo to take a message for his customer, he tried to write it clearly and briefly. He just used the words he knew to write the

memo and seldom used a dictionary. Nevertheless, if he handled more formal letters, he always checked whether he expressed his idea clearly and used accurate terms or spellings. On that account, he often used a dictionary to help in writing a more formal letter before he mailed it to his customer.

All the learners reported that they used self-correcting behaviours in speaking and in writing. Nevertheless, many of them also liked to have their teacher or their British friends correct their errors after they finished their writing or their speaking. Masako and Keiko stated that they appreciated correction, and often repeated the corrections several times. They would remember the corrections forever.

Moreover, according to all these learners' reports, they also needed to use a lot of imagination and creativity in activities, such as problem-solving activities, role-plays between customers and sellers, in business letter writing or other writing forms relevant to the target situation. They used imagination and creativity in developing strategies in speaking or writing. They stated that they improved their writing in business letters by doing the teacher's assignment at home. For example, when the teacher taught them how to organise business letters or reports, they had to do similar assignments at home. They believed the only way to learn to write is by writing. They also commented it was quite often necessary for them to project themselves into the imagined world of the writing assignments. At first, it was very difficult for them to learn to use imagination or creativity. However, after several attempts, they eventually developed their use of imagination and creativity. Keiko described how she struggled to shift from memorisation to using imagination in learning:

In Japan, I only needed to memorise the difficult words, the grammatical rules and to translate English into Japanese. Then I could pass tests and examinations in English successfully. Therefore I just needed to use memory to learn everything, and never used my brain to think or to express my own thoughts. But now studying here is very different. I need to use my imagination to create and to think. At first it was very difficult for me to use my imagination to write. I asked the teacher for help and read the samples in the reference books to guide me how to write a business letter, a report, etc. Then I tried my best to practice to use my imagination to think what I

need to put in my writing. For instance, how I can answer a complaint letter to my customer politely without offending him. Now I know much better than before in how to use the brain to think and to create something useful. In order to survive in this education system, it is very important to learn to use our imagination.

The learners needed to enhance higher and more effective learning strategies, for instance, imagination and creativity, rather than only memorisation for efficiency in language use. Learners whose past experience did not include using imagination and creativity might find it difficult to develop these strategies.

Most subjects stated that they did not possess effective strategies in reading at first. Nevertheless, later on they learned to develop rapid reading, by guessing the meanings of the difficult terms or catching the meanings from the key words rather than understanding and memorising every word in order to meet the expectations of the teacher. Sara described how she developed her strategies in reading:

At first, when I read, I read word for word. I tried to look for and underline the unfamiliar words, and checked them in my dictionary. I tried to memorise these difficult and unfamiliar terms and expressions. In fact what I did was just to memorise the vocabulary and expressions rather than to understand the whole text and to catch the meanings of the text. The reading process was really slow and exhausting. Therefore when the teacher began to ask the whole class questions I could not answer her in time. Later on, I tried to guess the meanings which I did not know instead of using the dictionary. Skip over the unimportant words, such as I, they, on, in, that and so on. Therefore when the teacher began to ask the questions, I knew what was going on in the readings and often answered her the questions.

Tina also reported similar reading strategies:

A friend of mine gave me some good suggestions to improve reading skills. She told me that I did not need to know all the vocabulary in the readings or to check difficult words with the help of dictionary. When encountering the difficult words, I just guess the meanings, and try to catch the ideas from the key words. I used this way to practise reading. Now I know it is important to get the meanings from the key words rather than to catch every word in reading. I used this way to improve my listening. I think that this is a good way to improve reading and listening comprehensions.

The interview data indicated that learners may need to develop different strategies for different language skills. For instance, using circumlocution or alternative expressions helps overcome obstacles in speech. Using a dictionary may be needed to discover the exact terms needed for writing. Guessing the meanings is a common strategy often used in reading or in listening.

To summarise, these learners may have relied mainly on receiving more language input (comprehension) in the early stages. Nevertheless, before long, they seemed to realise that it was insufficient, and began to work on production and interaction. If they worked on comprehension and production together, there was a greater possibility that they would be able to cope more effectively with the social contexts within and outside the communicative classroom. The interview data confirmed the classroom observation data which suggested that attention to comprehension only was not adequate for meeting the demands of CLT. As noted, in general, fluency should be seen as the priority. However, accuracy and fluency in writing should not be mutually exclusive, in the formal business letter in particular.

# 7.3.3 Strategies in Relation to Content Learning (Processing Strategies)

The interview data confirmed the observation data that these learners relied on their internal resources, such as taking notes or repeating important terms. They also resorted to teaching materials and learning activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry to aid content learning. They used knowledge obtained from experience in the world and at work to assist content learning and contribute to the content. At the same time, social interaction helped these students to absorb the content more effectively.

The interview data further explored the content which these learners believed should be chosen for teaching the programme of English for Tourism. Learning activities which they liked best or believed appropriate to help their content learning and language use were also considered. All the learners considered that the activities offered in this programme, such as dealing with customer complaints face to face, through the phone or through business letters, were very meaningful. Therefore they suggested that activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry were important in aiding content learning. Discussions, simulations, role-play and problem-solving were reported to be their favourite activities. Gina stated her insights into the learning activities:

I think that the discussions, simulation, problem-solving and role-plays are best activities to learn the skills, such as the customer care skills, to practice the telephone techniques, etc. From these activities, we not only learn the language skills, professional skills, but also have the chance to cooperate with our classmates to discuss some issues and to solve the problems and share the knowledge for bettering understanding the new knowledge. At the same time, we develop interpersonal relations.

Keiko reported slightly different views about the learning activities:

I did not have any knowledge about tourism, and did not have any work experience. Therefore I think that teachers' lectures on tourism and other learners' work experience were very important for me especially at beginning. Besides, watching video was also a good way to learn the professional skills. These three learning activities were very important for me to improve my listening comprehension. After I improve my listening comprehension and built up my confidence to talk in the classroom, I liked to have classroom discussions and small group discussions, and role-plays in which I can develop not only listening skills but also speaking skills and some professional skills.

It seems that some may like to develop listening and speaking at the same time while others may prefer to improve their listening before speaking. Nonetheless, it is better to organise various learning activities rather than only lectures or only one activity in the communicative classroom to help to acquire the content. Meanwhile, all of them deemed that learning activities are needed to help them to improve their language skills and professional skills. In addition to learning activities, all of them believed that teaching materials including video cassettes relevant to the target situation were also important to learn the content in specific areas. From these materials, they were offered the chance to learn the professional skills required to do a job (for instance, customer care skills, interpersonal skills, telephone techniques, negotiation skills and skills in organising and handling conferences). In addition, authentic texts (e.g. business letters, reports and faxes, and reservation forms) were also considered crucial to be included in the content. According to their views, they could learn, for instance, how to write business letters and how to fill out reservation forms from these samples of authentic texts. Furthermore, for better intercultural understanding and for the interest and needs of tourists from abroad, some cultural aspects (e.g. customs, foods, leisure, and body language across cultures), geographical and historical knowledge have been considered essential to be covered in the content. These aspects of content that students suggested have also been covered in this programme as shown in the observation data in Chapter 6.

They also commented that taking notes was important for them to keep the content and the new terms they learned from this programme. Mike, Tina, Masako, Jane and Gina also mentioned that they often relied on the notes or teaching materials to help them to grasp the ideas quickly so as to be involved in the learning activities in the classroom.

All of them preferred to write down key words. Sara stated that the key word notes in the target language were very helpful and useful:

At first I wrote a lot. I almost wanted to catch everything and write everything down on my notebook. I often found that I was still busy in taking notes on the preceding sentences, and missed the important messages on the following sentences. Besides, the notes were very messy which was not useful for me to help get the ideas quickly when I may want to use them to join in the discussions. In fact at first I tried to memorise everything rather than understand the meanings from what I heard. Later on, I tried to catch the meanings rather than to memorise everything. I wrote only the key words from what I understood. Then I found that I understood more when I took only key words. I think that maybe I improve my listening comprehension as well. Masako also made a similar comment about taking key word notes:

At first, I had the difficulty in listening comprehension and taking notes. I wrote a lot in Japanese from guessing what I heard and used the tape recorder to record everything in the classroom. Then I listened to the tapes as many times as I could at home. After I could comprehend everything in the tapes and then I took the notes. Around one month later, I improved my listening comprehension and my skills in taking notes, I took notes directly in the classroom without the help of the tape recorder. At first, I took notes mixing with Japanese and English including a lot of unimportant words. Later on, I found the teacher's key word notes on the board were very useful for me. Then I tried to develop the key word notes only in English.

The teacher's key word notes on the board seemed useful and helpful for them in learning the content. Like Masako, some learners also reported that they developed key word notes from the teacher. The interview data confirmed the observation data that when they relied more on understanding, they were taking fewer or only key word notes. In other words, when they understood more, they wrote less and knew what would be more useful for them.

All of them reported that when they heard important new terms in the classroom, especially from the teacher, they often repeated them silently. If they did not know the meanings of new terms, they usually asked their teacher or friends for clarification or sometimes checked them in a dictionary later. In addition, several interviewees suggested that it was important for them to develop self-study habits out of the classroom to help content learning. Then they could bring the knowledge they had learned to the classroom and share it with others. At the same time, they also regarded it important to use the knowledge that they had already obtained from the world and from their work to assist the content learning and contribute to the content for this programme. They believed that this is a good way of learning content. Thus they learned the content not only from the teacher or from the teaching materials only, but also from each other.

They also reported that the workplace of the tourism industry can be an ideal learning environment in addition to the classroom. The majority of the interviewees reported that it was meaningful to have field trips visiting the British Tourist Centre, the Scottish Tourist Office and the Swiss National Office. They commented that it was important to learn directly from the real world, especially visiting people working there. By so doing, they could have some general ideas about what people were doing in this area. Moreover, they learned the qualities and qualifications required for their jobs. For instance, customer care skills, good personality, and knowledge of geography are very important, as well as foreign language abilities, for people who want to work in the tourism industry. This may encourage them to develop these qualities before working for the tourism industry.

Accordingly, the effective content learning may not be necessarily limited to inside the classroom. The social context outside the classroom, such as in the work-place, must be taken into account. Furthermore, teaching materials and learning activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry need to be considered. Taking key word notes and self-study cannot be ignored either. Furthermore, students need to be motivated and encouraged to use the knowledge they obtained from the world and from work to aid content learning and contribute to the content. Above all, the learners needed to enhance more effective learning strategies, such as social strategies rather than only memorisation for the efficiency of learning the content.

We find the same strategies in the interviews which have been observed in Chapter 6. The interview data offered a great deal of insights into learning strategies, though centrally they are the same. From the interview data, we can now add to the list of learning strategies which developed from observations, the insights gained from students' reflection on the internal processes of their learning. Social-Affective Strategies

Strategy 1: 'yes' and 'smiling' responses, avoiding meeting speakers of L2, avoiding using the L2, or keeping friends from the same country or speaking the same L1.

Strategy 2: answering questions, asking questions, asking for explanation, asking for spelling or writing key words down or asking for correction.

Strategy 3: encouraging themselves to overcome negative feelings or

anxieties, take risks and build up self-confidence in using the L2 and making friends with people of the L2.

Strategy 4: purposely seeking the opportunities for social interaction with people out of the classroom, especially in jobs or with friends.

Strategy 5: cooperating and working with peers in pair or group work and sharing work experiences and world knowledge in the classroom.
Input-Output Strategies

Strategy 1: watching TV and film, listening to cassettes, reading L2 aloud and relying on self-study to improve listening and reading comprehension and pronunciation.

Strategy 2: guessing the meanings of unfamiliar key words from the situations in listening or in reading or from speaker's facial expressions and gestures in listening.

Strategy 3: catching the meanings from the key words rather than trying to understand and memorise every word in reading or in listening.

Strategy 4: relying on translation to receive or produce the L2.

Strategy 5: resorting to bilingual dictionary, using drawings or writing key words down, or using gestures and facial expressions to help communication. Strategy 6: using key words, short phrases and simple sentences to express ideas.

Strategy 7: keeping conversation short and clear, slowing down speech and saying key words or expressions again to make oneself understood.

Strategy 8: thinking in L2 instead of depending on translation.

Strategy 9: taking an active approach and seeking practice opportunities for using L2.

Strategy 10: using circumlocution, paraphrases and alternative expressions to overcome their obstacles in speaking.

Strategy 11: resorting to dictionaries, reference books or teaching materials during the practice of writing business letters.

Strategy 12: checking or correcting their language production in speaking and in writing.

Strategy 13: using imagination and creativity in language use rather than only using memorisation.

**Processing Strategies** 

Strategy 1: using teaching materials including video cassettes and socialinteractive or communicative activities or tasks relevant to the target situation to assist the content learning.

Strategy 2: using key word notes to help to learn and remember the content. Strategy 3: repeating relevant terms silently in order to learn the content. Strategy 4: developing self-study habits out of classroom to aid learning of the content and bringing what is learned out of classroom back to the classroom to share it with others.

Strategy 5: visiting the workplace and people working for the industry to facilitate the content learning relevant to the target situation.

Strategy 6: using knowledge obtained from the experience in the world or in the work to assist the content learning and contribute to the content.

To sum up, the interview data indicated that learners, with previous general English grammar learning experience, encountered a great many difficulties and need for adjustmen in the classroom which focused on the content learning of English for Tourism. It could be a painful, difficult and odd experience for these learners because they found that their old learning habits did not really work in the new system and they had to make changes, discover and develop something new and something more effective in order to comply with the expectations of this new system.

Nevertheless, because of their high motivation and determination to succeed in their language learning and in their career, as soon as they found the significance of social strategies and social interaction, they encouraged themselves to take risks to use the L2, make friends of speakers of the L2, or take advantage of the job opportunities to use the L2 outside of the classroom to the utmost. They used the knowledge they obtained from the world and from their work to share with their peers, and cooperated with them in varied social interactive or communicative classroom activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry. Furthermore, in addition to these activities, they also resorted to the teaching

materials relevant to the target situation, taking notes and developing self-study habits to learn the content. They used circumlocution, paraphrases and alternative expressions to overcome their limitations in speaking. Furthermore, they frequently asked for clarification or explanation from friends, peers or the teacher. At the same time, they struggled to develop some other higher levels of learning strategies, such as relying on thinking in the L2 rather than on translation, and using imagination or creativity rather than only memorisation. Because of their consciousness of the significance of the discovery and development of learning strategies, especially social strategies and social interaction outside the classroom, they could cope with the demands and requirements of the communicative classroom more effectively.

In the following section the common significant learning strategies for the fifteen learners in developing content learning and language use will be reviewed.

# 7.4 Common Significant Learning Strategies

The analysis of the interview data presented above also confirms the observation data that these learners did not really develop learning strategies in different ways, but progressed at different rates in the learning process. Nevertheless, they also shared a number of common learning strategies which are crucial to adjust to inside and outside the content learning communicative classroom in the British context. Several common important learning strategies which were found in the observation data were also confirmed by the interview data. These included taking risks in using L2, answering and asking questions, cooperating and sharing experiences, circumlocution or alternative expressions, taking notes and resorting to the relevant materials and activities, which are external observable behaviours. Meanwhile, when they expressed themselves in the interviews, they also talked about the other common strategies already identified above, such as purposely and consciously using the social context out of the classroom (social-affective strategy 4), thinking in L2 (input-output strategy 8), guessing the meanings of the unfamilar words and catching the overall meanings from the key words (input-output strategies 2 and

3) and using imagination and creativity (input-output strategy 13). These strategies not only supplement the observation data, but also give us insight into the internal process and unobservable strategies.

# 7.4.1 Purposely Seeking Opportunities for Social Interaction with People Outside the Classroom.

In the interview data, we have noted all of these learners purposely, consciously, and constantly using the social context out of the classroom, especially in jobs or with friends for seeking practice opportunties for using the L2. They all commented that they were not really learning the language until they started to make friends outside the classroom. In addition, some of them even started conversations with friendly strangers on the train, listened to British people talking on the bus, and went to church. Through constantly using the social context outside the classroom, they developed learning strategies, especially social strategies and their self-confidence in using the L2.

# 7.4.2 Thinking in the Target Language

These learners relied on translation in using the L2 at the initial phase. However, they found that it is often that translation did not really make sense to people who do not know their language and it took a long while in order to produce the L2. Therefore, before long, all of them became aware of the inefficiency and the tiring process of 'translation'. Then they tried to give up the process of translation. Meanwhile, they became aware of the significance of the strategy of 'thinking in the L2' and tried to practise it. Once they improved this strategy, they found it was a quick and efficient way to move towards effective communication and fluency in using L2.

# 7.4.3 Guessing the Meanings of Unfamilar Words and Catching the Meanings from the Key Words

At first, when they were still unable to communicate in the British context, they tried to understand every word. However, there were some unfamilar words in the conversations and they spent time working out the meaning of all the unfamilar words instead of understanding the overall meaning the person intended. Consequently, they often got lost and did not really catch the overall meaning of what people was said. Later on, after they developed the strategy, they found that they did not need to understand every word, but were able to catch the overall meaning from the key words. They could guess the meanings of some unfamilar words from the situation, the gestures and facial expressions of the speakers. They also commented that the strategies of guessing the meanings of unfamiliar words from the context and catching the meanings from the key words rather than trying to understand every word or memorising every word can also apply to developing reading skills.

# 7.4.4 Imagination and Creativity

Many students reported that in their previous language learning experience, they relied mainly on memorisation. However, they found that memorisation was insufficient for learning the new content and improving language use in this programme. In this programme, there were varied social interactive or communicative activities or tasks (e.g.role-play, problem-solving activities, discussions, or writing business letters or laying out a report for the workplace) relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry. They quite often needed to project themselves into the imagined world of the work-place, and employ much imagination and creativity in language use to be engaged in the learning activities. Thus they relied on imagination and creativity rather than only memorisation in this programme.

In summary, the above strategies were significant for the learners in developing

content learning and language use. In general, these students became effective language learners and users when they began consciously to choose to expose themselves to the target language and use it in social situations in and out of the classroom. These may have been the most significant strategies for these learners studying in the new learning system in the British context.

# 7.5 Summary

This chapter has focused on the analysis of the interview data. The overall classification of social-affective, input-output and processing strategies which emerged in observation data is also a convenient way of describing the sort of strategies students talked about. It was found that the interview data not only confirm but also supplement the observation data by offering insight into the internal process and unobservable strategies.

The interview data confirm the observation data that these students encounter a great deal of difficulty in the new learning system. It is indeed a painful and laborious experience for them to make changes in the transition from their grammar-translation learning experience to the focus on the content learning communicative classroom.

It is essential that teachers in the Taiwanese context understand their students' difficulties and help their students to make the transition more easily and more effectively when they adopt the new, communicative approach. Hence, it is necessary to discuss the implications and applications of this current empirical study to the Taiwanese context to assess the possibility of helping students to make the transition.

The interview data offer evidence that all of these students learn best after they start to make friends and interact socially with native speakers or international friends out of the classroom. Their learning out of the classroom may have been as important as or more significant than learning inside it. Accordingly, any social interaction in the target language outside the classroom should be encouraged, as this can play a crucial supplementary role along with the class work. At the same time, a variety of social interactive activities enables them to enhance language use and learn the content more effectively and more enjoyably. However, both social interaction and social strategies in and out of the classroom which are significant to help to improve their language learning appear to be neglected in language learning and teaching in Taiwan. It is essential to discuss the possibility of implications and applications of this issue to English for Tourism teaching and learning in the Taiwanese context.

It is worth noting that in the interview data students complained about the grammar-translation method and commented that this method did not help them to communicate with other people in the target language. In contrast, in the observation data, Catherine complained that there was no grammar teaching in the communicative classroom. Which statement is right? Can language learners in Taiwan study English without knowing grammar? We also found that lack of language learning activities and the teaching of relevant or useful grammatical rules caused many of the learners to struggle to discover and reorder their grammar, together with the content, in order to produce their target language, for involvement in the social interactive or communicative activities or tasks. Nothing here in this empirical study suggested that the value of grammar learning can be ignored. It may have been that these learners from the context of EFL spent too much time on details of the grammar which they were taught. This way, they may not have gained a concept of the language as a whole. It is not a problem only of lack of effective learning strategies, but of too much detail in the grammar teaching or learning. Nevertheless, if we want to know another language well, we need to have a sense of the grammatical categories and the structure of the language. Such understanding does help us in learning another language. It seems that the value of grammar cannot be disregarded. At the same time, if the content and grammar can result in more effective learning, then both of them will need to be taken into account. It might be essential to consider the role of grammar within the communicative classroom, and the balance between language and content in the programme of English for Tourism. These issues will be explored in Chapter 8.

Moreover, in the interviews, students have been offered opportunities to suggest the appropriate content and favourite learning activities which they believed helped them to develop effective learning strategies, learn the content and use the target language. The issues relevant to the appropriate content and methodology for the programme of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context, will need to be discussed in Chapter 8 in detail.

In the following chapter, the significant findings of the empirical research will be discussed and interpreted. It is hoped that it will have some implications for pedagogy of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

# **Chapter 8**

# **Interpretation and Discussion**

# 8.1 Introduction

This work began with some general research questions rather than a hypothesis. Here are the questions:

1. What can we learn from studying learners' strategies in learning needs in the British context?

2. What should be appropriate materials for teaching and learning English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context?

3. What should be the principles of approach which guide the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context?

The first research question is not directly answered but is fully merged into the discussions in this chapter. The second and third research questions are considered in the subsequent chapters.

In this empirical investigation, we have looked particularly at the details of learning strategies which were used and developed by students of English for Tourism studying in the British context for the first time. In this chapter, the important findings of this empirical research will be summarised and discussed in relation to the significant key points of the literature review. The major findings raise four crucial issues which will be further discussed: (1) the teachability of learning strategies; (2) the role of grammar teaching within the communicative language teaching; (3) the role of content in English for Tourism; (4) the place of methodology in English for Tourism.

A further end will also be kept in view: the major aim in this thesis has been to promote the effectiveness of teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. The learning strategies which are proposed are based on the researcher's observations and the comments of the students of English for Tourism in the British context. Suggestions on this basis will be made for looking further into the evaluation of textbooks and the improvement and development of teaching and learning English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. The climax of this chapter will be an argument for a combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches. It will be argued that the four issues should be taken into consideration when such a model needs to be developed.

In what follows, the major findings of this empirical study will first be summarised. Secondly, the four key issues will be discussed. Finally, a combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches will be proposed.

# 8.2 Summary of Major Findings

The foremost findings derived from observation and interview data may be summarised as follows:

As observed, this programme of English for Tourism focused on content learning and gave little attention to the language instruction. Language learning activities and explicit explanations of useful and relevant grammar to reinforce language knowledge were less emphasised in this programme. This programme is similar to 'the content-based model' which has been criticised by Hutchinson and Waters (1983; see Nunan 1988; see Chapter 2; see below). As already pointed out in Chapter 2, in the modern perspective, language plays an equal role with content rather than a 'minor' or 'service' role as in the past. For this reason, in the current view, this programme is not a typical or general, but a particular type of ESP. The issue of the balance between language and content in tourism needs to be critically considered in the following section as stated in Chapter 6.

This new programme adopted a communicative approach which emphasised the learner-centredness. Learners were required to take responsibility for their own learning, and contribute their own knowledge. The teacher was only a facilitator. Furthermore, this classroom was organised in a setting which may be represented

as a small social world. The desks and chairs in the classroom were arranged for students facing each other rather than facing the teacher. This was for the convenience of students' working and cooperating in groups or in pairs in varied social interactive or communicative activities or tasks. This is in line with what Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall (1989) have suggested, that to encourage students to do more pair work and small group activity, the desks and chairs are better arranged otherwise than in straight rows. The features of this classroom mentioned above are also consistent with those of a communicative approach (see Chapter 3).

The interview data showed that in their previous general English learning experience, these learners received explicit explanations or instruction of grammatical structures, or language learning activities to help them to be familar with the language system. That was a 'grammar-translation' model. In that, they did not learn specific content, such as tourism. In addition, it was teacher-centred. Teachers dominated most of the whole duration of the class hours. Students simply sat quietly to listen to and memorise the teachers' lectures. Hence, they had a very different previous language learning experience from this new one. For this reason, they, in the early stages, encountered classroom shock and experienced some degree of difficulty in making the transition from grammar-translation learning experience to the 'content based' communicative classroom. They declared their dissatisfaction with their old learning experience and complained that that learning experience had not prepared them to communicate in L2. This is consistent with what White (1988) and Ellis (1992) assert, that learners used to the traditional classroom may react negatively or may encounter difficulties in the more communicative, more learner-centred classroom (see Chapter 3).

However, it was found that partly because of their knowledge of grammar, these learners were able to monitor their own performance and correct their own mistakes when speaking in L2. Furthermore, they learned to use L2 fluently and confidently in less than six months (some in less than three or four months). It seems inappropriate, therefore, to conclude that their grammar learning experience is completely useless. On the other hand, Catherine, the unsuccessful case in the

content learning communicative classroom, insisted on the need for learning grammar in the classroom. Here it is crucial to consider whether or not there should be some grammar teaching or learning within the communicative classroom. This issue needs to be further discussed in the following section.

Apart from Catherine, other learners, who were highly motivated and determined to succeed in their language learning and in their career, made an attempt to overcome their difficulties in the new learning context. As they realised the need and importance of social process in the classroom, they encouraged themselves to take risks in using the target language and have social interaction with people not only in the classroom but also outside the classroom. Thus they forced themselves to make changes, adapt and refine their learning strategies, build up their self-confidence, improve language use for effective communication, comply with the expectations of this new learning system and make the transition to cope with it sooner or later. In brief, they did discover and enhance their learning strategies in the 'content-based' communicative classoom. As mentioned above, this programme has its own weakness for giving insufficient consideration of language knowledge and language learning activities. However, it is closely linked with CLT and the development of learning strategies as the crucial trinity as already suggested in Chapter 4. This evidence seemed to indicate that language teaching methods deeply influence students' learning strategies. Meanwhile, learning strategies could be developed or nurtured, as discussed in Chapter 4.

Social strategies and social process were more likely to be the most significant strengths needed for these learners to survive and succeed in the new learning context. This leads to a consideration of the insufficiency of cognitive skills. As Fillmore (1976) argues:

How much an individual learned of the new language and how quickly he mastered it did not depend on cognitive skills alone, but also on social skills and motivations which enabled him to move into the social situations in which the new language was used. Without the requisite social skills and motivations, the learner would be without ways of interacting with speakers of the language; without social interaction, there would be no way for him to learn the language.

(ibid: 722)

As observed and interviewed, after these learners were more used to their new challenges, developed more effective learning strategies and became more familiar with the social context, they enjoyed learning through different kinds of activities. According to their reports, they liked to learn from varied social interactive and collaborative activities rather than only one method, whether a lecture or only a discussion. The comment from interviewees seemed to justify the view of Naiman et al. (1978) as follows:

We do not believe that long lectures on strategies and techniques, or even lengthly discussions on the subject, would be particularly profitable. But hints from the teacher or periodical brief exchanges with students about different ways of learning would change classroom language learning from a fairly mechanical routine into a more deliberate cooperative undertaking. Different approaches to learning could be planned and tried out in a more conscious way than has been customary. We therefore recommend a cautious teaching how-to-learn approach.

(ibid: 103)

As observed, in the communicative classroom, comprehension, production and interaction were emphasised. This seemed to indicate that the theory of 'comprehensible input' (Krashen and Terrell 1983, Krashen 1985) was insufficient for these learners; this theory ignores the significance of production and communication. At the same time, it does not give the learners opportunities to monitor their own perfomance.

As noted, students were provided with plenty of teaching materials relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry to facilitate content learning. Both paperbased materials and video cassettes offered a number of topics such as dealing with complaints, meeting and greeting groups, telephone techniques, selling skills, customer care skills, interpersonal skills, and negotiation skills, and skills in organising and handling conferences. In addition, content relevant to body language and gesture across cultures or cultural difference was also included in the materials. Furthermore, geographical and historical knowledge was also covered in this programme. This seemed to be in consistent with the argument in Chapter 2, that content of English for Tourism does not need to be restricted to subject matter, but is required to be interesting, valuable and relevant. Meanwhile, the authentic texts (e.g. business letters, faxes, reservation forms, travel and holiday brochures, memos, reports, menus, advertisements, and timetables) were also offered. Authentic materials will be considered to be crucial in the classroom of English for Tourism (see Chapter 9).

In addition, varied social interactive activities or communicative tasks (e.g. role-play, simulations, problem solving, and group discussions) relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry, assisted the content learning and language use. In these activities or tasks, students were allowed to share their work experiences, interpret and evaluate the knowledge in the field, contribute their world knowledge (including cultural, geographical and historical knowledge) and express their views. Many of these features have been considered crucial for teaching English for Tourism in Chapter 2. Through these activities, learners were forced to discover and reorder their grammatical rules, learn professional skills, bring their experience in the world or in the workplace, locate and improve learning strategies, and handle and develop speaking and listening skills.

One finding seems to be particularly interesting and important: it was a very valuable experience for these learners to learn directly from the work-place. It is also worth noting the discovery that students became more effective learners when they consciously, actively and voluntarily used L2 in the social context not only inside but also outside the classroom in the British context. Wesche (1979) and Chamot (1987) also have similar findings. This seemed to suggest that the classroom alone may be insufficient for students to learn the needs, requirements and criteria of working in tourism, bridge the gap between industry and education and be familiar with occupational environments, and develop communicative competence. Accordingly, learning activities need not be restricted to the classroom environment. This issue how the social context outside the classroom is considered in the pedagogy of English for Tourism will be discussed in the role of methodology in the following section.

As noted, these learners did not really develop learning strategies in different ways, but progressed at different rates in the learning process. At the same time, they shared a number of common learning strategies which were significant for them to adjust to inside and outside the content learning communicative classroom in the British context. There was no clear picture to show how many stages the learners passed through in the process of developing learning strategies to achieve this goal of effective communication or fluency. It seemed that their learning processes were different from Anderson's (1990), O'Malley and Chamot's (1990) and John-Steiner's (1987) 'three stages' in skill acquisition or in language learning. They were more likely to be similar to what Ellis (1992: 129) describes as developmental processes which 'are not stages; they are overlapping and continuous' (see Chapter 4).

It was found that these students had to discover and enhance their learning strategies for themselves without explicit strategy training or teaching. However, as Oxford (1990: 201) indicates, 'research shows us that learners who receive strategy training generally learn better than those who do not, and that techniques for such training are more beneficial than others.' Accordingly, it might be instructive to think about how we teach and train learning strategies more effectively. The issue is going to be discussed in the following section.

A list of the most important points of the major findings is presented below:

1. This programme of English for Tourism was 'content-based' and adopted a communicative approach. However, it gave little attention to language learning activities and explicit explanations or instruction of grammatical structures. Students, with previous general English grammar learning experience, encountered certain degrees of difficulties in making the transition to the content-based communicative classroom. However, because of their motivation and determination to succeed in language learning and in career, they overcame their difficulties, improved their learning strategies, built up their self-confidence, and made the transition sooner or later.

2. Students expressed their dissatisfaction with their previous grammartranslation learning experience. However, partly because of their knowledge of grammar, these learners were able to monitor their own performance and correct their own mistakes when speaking in L2, and learned to use L2 fluently and confidently in less than six months (some in less than three or four months). It seems crucial to consider whether or not there should be some grammar teaching or learning within the communicative classroom.

3. The content in teaching materials including video cassettes relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry, and authentic texts were included in this programme to assist the content learning.

4. Social interactive activities or communicative tasks in the programme related to the target situation of the tourism industry aid the content learning and language use. In these activities or tasks, learners had to develop learning strategies, professional skills, world knowledge, listening and speaking skills.

5. The desks and chairs in the classroom were arranged for learners facing each other to allow them to work in groups or pairs. Students preferred varied social interactive or communicative activities or tasks after they were more familiar with the communicative classroom.

6. Social strategies and social process seemed to be the most important requirements for progress in language learning in consideration of the insufficiency of cognitive skills.

7. This programme provided a challenge for social interaction and emphasised comprehension, production and interaction.

8. These students need to become aware of the importance of social strategies or social process, and the expectations of the 'content based' communicative classroom. This programme is closely linked with CLT, and learning strategies as the crucial trinity.

9. Direct teaching and training of learning strategies was suggested to help learners to promote learning strategies more effectively.

10. Social interaction out of the classroom can be as significant as or more significant than in the classroom.

11. Students did not really have different ways of developing learning strategies, but progressed at different rates in the learning process. They did share a number of significant learning strategies. No clear picture emerged to indicate how many stages they passed through in their learning process.

# 8.3 Four Key Issues

Four issues raised from the major findings above have been the teachability of language learning strategies, the role of grammar within communicative language teaching, the balance between language and content in specific areas, and the place of methodology. A study of the kind undertaken for this thesis necessarily touches on these questions, by opening windows on the learning of a group of students. All students in the study reported changes and development in their learning strategies. They commented on the place of grammar within the progress that they made, and there were inferences to be drawn about the role of content and the place of teaching methods.

In what follows, the observations and comments of the students will be interpreted in the light of interest in these issues. It will be necessary to keep a double focus. The data of the study concern the learning of a group of students within the British context. It will be necessary to attend first to issues in this context and to the testimony of the students in their present situation. More speculatively the implications for instruction in the Taiwanese context will be considered. Now let us turn to look at the first issue.

# 8.3.1 Teachability of Learning Strategies

All the students in this empirical study were taught by a grammar-translation method which has traditionally been adopted by the Taiwanese educational system. As observed, in the adjustment stages, all of them relied mainly on memory and grammatical knowledge which students normally use in learning the target language in Taiwan. Although these students came from other countries,

nonetheless, they had much in common with Taiwanese students and their experiences seemed to be relevant to students' learning in Taiwan. The data from this empirical study are valuable and useful because they illustrate the way students from other contexts responded to the British context and the difficulties which they had.

As observed and as the students reported, they had to make adjustments in the classroom where a communicative approach was adopted. For instance, they had to make changes in their old learning habits and develop new learning strategies. At that time, maybe they were anxious to be grammatically correct. Maybe they lacked confidence or lacked the vocabulary to engage in a dialogue. Or maybe they were unfamiliar with the content which they were studying. In the new system they needed to learn and relearn, or break with old or wrong assumptions about learning and develop new learning strategies in the new learning experience.

According to the reports of all the subjects, especially the Asians, they came with their own expectations. When they were studying in their countries, they just needed to memorise the vocabulary or grammatical rules which the teachers had taught or the textbooks had stated. It was sufficient for them to pass various kinds of examinations successfully. However, in the British context, they suddenly found that they were unsuccessful because their previous learning experience and learning strategies were not sufficient for them to able to handle and manage communication with other people in the target language.

It was the first time in their lives for these learners to realise that relying on memory is insufficient in learning the target language. It was a rather painful experience for them because they discovered that their old learning habits did not really work in the new situations. Furthermore they needed to struggle to develop new learning strategies. Their experience is consistent with Giorgi's (in Wenden 1982: 102) one type of learning: 'breaking wrong assumptions in a situation.' At the same time, it also confirms that learners' beliefs, which influence whether they use appropriate learning strategies or not, have been influenced and shaped by their previous learning experience or by their cultural background (see Chapter 4).

As observed and interviewed, they eventually broke with their wrong assumptions and made astonishing progress in the new learning experience. As they adapted to learning through the communicative approach, they developed more effective learning strategies, such as social strategies, and use of imagination, and creativity. It seems evident that we can advance language learning by developing different teaching methods. As discussed in Chapter 4, teaching methods greatly influence and dominate learners' strategy use. There is a general agreement that it should be possible for us to pass over to the students improved learning processes through the selection of teaching strategies.

While this study indicated that learning strategies could possibly be developed through teaching methods or strategies, it also raised the issue about how learning strategies would be taught. In Chapter 4, the issue of teachability was considered, and it was shown that many authors support strategy training or teaching. However, how learning strategies should be taught is still unsettled. The real issue is: are we really teaching learning strategies directly or indirectly? This issue is further discussed below.

# 8.3.1.1 Indirect Teaching

In the empirical study, it was found that the indirect teaching process helped students to learn and develop new learning strategies. Activities or tasks, such as role play, small group discussions, problem-solving, and simulations were often used in the English for Tourism classroom. Through these activities or tasks, learning strategies (such as using imagination and creativity, taking risks in engaging in speech with errors, asking for clarification or explanation and cooperating with others) were learned and developed. The literature supports the view that tasks or activities such as simulations, role-play, small-group cooperative learning activities encourage, inspire or help learners to develop learning strategies (see Chapter 4).

It was observed that when in the English for Tourism classroom, instead of receiving 'direct instruction', the students by being put in a social setting, for instance, in small-group tasks or activities, were forced to learn and develop new learning strategies. A key to this was the confidence the students developed new social strategies which underpinned the learning process in the English for Tourism communicative classroom. Thus, it may be concluded that the claim that social strategies are particularly effective and significant in the communicative classroom is confirmed by both this study and the literature. Nevertheless, these strategies were developed through 'embedded instruction' (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 153 or see Chapter 4).

# 8.3.1.2 Direct Teaching

The evidence of the data collected has little to say about the issue of direct teaching because this was not attempted in the classroom that was observed. However, the literature surveyed has suggested that all sorts of direct teaching can help learners to learn and develop their learning strategies. Direct teaching of strategies is possible, simply by presenting students with an overall list, as has been suggested by Hosenfeld (1979) and Oxford (1990) in strategy training. Thus students can gain an overall knowledge and view of appropriate learning strategies and become more aware of their own learning strategies.

Certain strategies can be selected. Then teachers can introduce and teach students these and discuss with them which strategies are the most effective for learning. At the same time, to motivate the students, teachers may need to explain how important it is to use good strategies to make their language learning easier. Through the process of direct teaching, students can learn why, when and how to use important and effective strategies, and avoid acquiring inefficient ones (Hosenfeld 1979; Oxford 1990). Moreover, students can understand the value and purpose of strategy training, as pointed out by O'Malley and Chamot (1990).

#### 8.3.1.3 Direct Teaching Neglected in the Teaching Methods

From the data collected in observations and interviews, it is evident that the English for Tourism programme adopted the communicative approach, which was unconventional for these learners of EFL in this empirical study. It is unconventional in Taiwan as well. Nevertheless, there is value in this approach because it helps students to develop a number of effective learning strategies. For instance, these learners learned to use a number of effective learning strategies (e.g. using imagination, creativity, asking for clarification, asking for explanation, cooperating with their peers and sharing experiences) rather than to rely only on memory. Thus they needed to learn to write business letters by projecting themselves into an imaginary real-world. In addition, they learned to encourage themselves to take risks in engaging in speech with errors, and cooperate with peers through varied social interactive and communicative activities or tasks.

Nonetheless, the problem is that students may find it very difficult to make the transition from a grammar-translation to a communicative approach, from an old learning system to a new one. As observed and as the learners reported, they had to struggle and overcome different kinds of difficulties in order to adjust to the communicative approach. For instance, at first they could not use imagination or creativity. At the same time, they hesitated, lacked confidence in speech, and worried too much about grammatical correctness. It was indeed a painful and anxious experience for them to make changes in their old learning strategies and develop new ones. It is also worth noting that some students had more difficulties than others, while some made faster progress because of personal variation in learning strategies, cultural background, or motivation. It may be expected that Taiwanese students would encounter similar difficulties if the teachers adopt the new, communicative approach.

Maybe in indirect teaching, they needed to guess and search a great deal before they discovered and developed effective learning strategies. Maybe they wanted to make sure first what was going on in the classroom. We may need to consider whether or not direct teaching helps the process of the transition from grammartranslation method to communicative approach.

From the comments of the subjects in this current study, it seems that their teachers using a grammar-translation method basically do not help them to develop effective learning strategies and do not teach or discuss strategies at all. This is also the case in Taiwan. It is all implicit. It is all up to learners how they might learn. The approach relies on memory. In real life, relying on memory is insufficient and it is difficult to make the transition to speech.

A communicative approach is better than a grammar-translation method in terms of helping learners to develop learning strategies. Nevertheless, like the grammartranslation method, the communicative approach normally does not explicitly discuss learning strategies. It seems that these two teaching methods have similar weaknesses: they do not address or discuss strategies directly with adult students. On the other hand, grammar-translation also has some advantages: for instance, learners may absorb a great deal of grammar and vocabulary.

# 8.3.1.4 Consideration of Direct Teaching in the Communicative Approach

As already mentioned in Chapter 4, the literature suggests that direct teaching is powerful and useful. It might be instructive to consider whether or not some direct teaching within the communicative approach would help in the transition from the grammar-translation method to the communicative approach. Adult students might find direct teaching or discussing learning strategies useful. It seems reasonable to suggest that some direct discussion on difficulties and direct teaching of new learning strategies could be employed. This might be valuable because it would let them think about the problems they might need to overcome when trying to use imagination or creativity. They also needed to build up their self-confidence and develop social strategies in particular.

It may be concluded that Taiwanese teaching could be improved by including direct teaching of learning strategies within the communicative approach. Such teaching may also help students to overcome the difficulties of moving from a grammartranslation method to a communicative approach. In addition, the study has shown that social strategies are the most significant strategies to use in language learning. In Taiwan, if teachers adopt the communicative approach, these are the sorts of strategies which students may have to develop.

Here it may also be suggested that any teachers who apply the direct teaching of learning strategies in the language classroom should not concentrate too much on the direct teaching approach. Maybe direct teaching of learning strategies should be limited to ten minutes each time. By so doing it may be possible to avoid being criticised for teaching students only strategy rather than language (Bialystok 1990; see Chapter 4). At the same time we may avoid boring the students. In addition, a distinction should be made between the teaching of strategies and the teaching of language, when the priority is on language. Moreover, it may be necessary to offer students opportunities, for instance, interviews, to reflect upon their own learning processes. In so doing they may be helped to clarify misconceptions about language learning and develop more effective learning strategies (Wenden 1986a; Horwitz 1987; see Chapter 4).

This section has demonstrated that the learners in this study did struggle to discover and develop effective learning strategies through indirect teaching and to adjust to the communicative approach in the British context. However, it may be more effective to integrate the direct teaching of effective learning strategies within the communicative approach. Such teaching should be given less priority than language teaching. Thus Taiwanese students may be helped to make the transition from the grammar-translation method to the communicative approach more easily and effectively.

In the following section, the rationale for learning grammar and the ways in which it might be learned within communicative language teaching will be discussed.

#### 8.3.2 Role of Grammar Within Communicative Language Teaching

In this study, the students provided strong negative evidence about the impact of grammar teaching. Many of them said that the teaching of grammar did not help them with communicative language learning and ability. It seems that these learners felt that they had not benefited from the formal teaching of grammar in their previous language learning experience. Nevertheless, some students, the Japanese in particular, did pay considerable attention to structure. At the same time, some of the students wanted to get beyond attending to structure. So, the grammar got in the way of their learning because they wanted to look at the structure and also develop their strategies. Above all, they often monitored their own performance and corrected their own errors. The evidence in this study showed that there was a slightly mixed message. It seems that it is premature to assume that we should not teach grammar or that their previous grammar learning experience did not help them at all. As Lado (1988: 101) argues, both 'the extreme antigrammar' and 'the extreme only grammar' methods can be misguided.

In recent years, many applied linguists, such as Harvey (1985), Lado (1988), Ellis (1992), Stern (1993), Batstone (1994), Jordan (1995) and Gollin (1998) have suggested that it is crucial to take the value of grammar learning into account in language teaching. As Ellis (1992: 232) points out, many applied linguists have argued that 'grammar teaching does aid L2 acquisition', seeking to refute Krashen's (1982) argument that grammar teaching will not develop 'acquired' knowledge. Harvey (1985; see Chapters 1 and 3) also argues that it is extremely important for speakers of very different languages to understand the grammatical framework of the target language.

Although there is a general agreement among many applied linguists that grammar should be included in language teaching, nevertheless 'how to teach grammar' is still a difficult issue. As Larsen-Freeman (1979: 217) points out, 'as is true in many areas of language teaching today, the teaching of grammar is fraught with controversy.' In this thesis the role of grammar within the communicative approach is a matter of concern. Therefore the issue of the place of inductive learning or

deductive learning within the communicative approach will be discussed next.

# 8.3.2.1 Inductive Learning

From the evidence in this current study, it may be concluded that the English for Tourism classroom emphasised the use of language for communication. The teacher or teaching materials did not provide explicit explanations of grammatical rules. Consequently, these learners were very attentive in listening and in observing what was going on in the classroom, especially in the early stages. At the same time, they needed to struggle to discover or reorder grammatical rules for themselves in order to use structures to function and communicate as speakers in the social interactive or communicative tasks or activities. The whole procedure of these learners in this communicative classroom was inductive learning rather than deductive learning. This is consistent with what Brown (1987) indicates that communicative second language learning pays special attention to an inductive approach.

# 8.3.2.2 Deductive Learning

The evidence of this study showed that the communicative classroom did not include deductive learning. Nevertheless, in these learners' previous grammartranslation learning experiences, they were taught grammatical rules directly by teachers and from textbooks. In that old learning experience, the focus was on teaching and giving information about grammar and forms. Thus, their previous grammar learning experience was deductive learning. As Brown (1987) and Koolhoven (see Eisenstein 1987) point out, the grammar-translation method emphasises deductive learning.

# 8.3.2.3 Deductive Learning Vs Inductive Learning

In the students' previous deductive learning experience, form was the focus in the classroom, and was learned completely separately and in isolation from use. Meantime, the grammatical rules are overt and explicitly presented and stated.

Actually, it may be easier or more helpful for adult learners to acquire an overall knowledge of grammar. As Krashen and Seliger (1975; see Eisenstein 1987) and Seliger (1975; see Eisenstein 1987) find, it is generally helpful with adult learners to provide an explanation or deductive learning of grammar within the formal setting.

However, the learners' deductive learning experience had weaknesses: for instance, in general, it focused on only studying grammar. It did not take their communicative ability or language use into account. The teaching method was inconsistent with Ellis (1992) and Batstone (1994) who have argued that it is crucial to offer opportunities for communicating in the L2 when learning grammar. As

Batstone (1994) argues:

Some understanding of grammar as process will be invaluable if we are to help learners to employ grammar effectively in their own language use. We cannot simply assume that because a learner has studied and practised the English first conditional, she will automatically be able to use it when she is busy navigating her way through the intricacies of real-time communication. (ibid: 5)

Since their previous experience did not take language use or communicative ability into account, these learners needed to make adjustments and overcome problems in order to make the transition from deductive learning in the grammar-translation method to inductive learning in the communicative approach. It was noted that they had encountered difficulties in learning to use English for communication without the help of a written presentation or explanation of grammatical rules.

This case is similar to what Rivers (see Eisenstein 1987: 289) has found, that 'making the student depend on aural signals alone in the early stages of learning a foreign language puts a much greater strain on the student than is generally realized.' Lewis also found (see Eisenstein 1987) that Russian adults experienced frustration when their language class did not include the conscious statement of grammatical rules. Eisenstein (ibid) suggests that conscious grammatical explanation should be taken into consideration for adult learners.

Thus inductive learning, where the grammar rules are implicit or learned covertly may have some shortcomings. This study has indicated that without overt grammar instruction, at the initial stages, these learners in this empirical study took some time to think, guess, or look for proper or correct forms before being able to function in the target language. Maybe, at that time, they lacked confidence in the new learning context. Maybe they had not acquired certain grammatical features. They probably did not make the connection between what they had already learned and knew from their previous learning experience and what was required of them in the communicative classroom. Above all, they may not yet have developed learning strategies to cope with the expectations and demands of the 'content-based' communicative classroom. It seems that it makes great demands on learners to expect them to rely on observations or listening alone to discover, and reorganise the grammatical rules for themselves in the early stages of inductive learning.

Stern (1993) also assumes that it is impossible to let learners discover their grammatical rules entirely by themselves. Stern advises that a deductive sequence needs to be taken into account for guiding rediscovery learning. This set of problems leads us to consider the place of grammar, deductive and inductive learning in language teaching and learning within the communicative approach.

# 8.3.2.4 A Combination of Deductive and Inductive Learning

The issue, 'should grammar teaching be deductive or inductive?' is a common one which has been discussed by applied linguists. Authors, such as Hartnett (1974), Larsen-Freeman (1979), Eisenstein (1987), Stern (1993), and Gollin (1998) suggest that both approaches should be included for effective teaching. Gollin (1998: 88) also points out that students are more motivated and are led to more efficient learning through 'modified deductive' and 'modified inductive' work on grammar, in which rules are all explicitly formulated before practice and after students have been guided to construct them through practice.

We should consider the significance of research by Hartnett (1974; see Larsen-Freeman 1979) who discovered that inductive learning was more effective for righthemisphere dominant students while deductive learning was more effective for lefthemisphere dominant students. Larsen-Freeman (1979) and Hartnett (1974) suggest that both kinds of learning are essential for the best second language class to meet the needs of all students, and it is important to design courses to include both inductive and deductive ways of learning. Similarly, Stern (1993: 150) suggests, 'if both the inductive and deductive principles are borne in mind, we gain a better perspective on what is practically possible and beneficial for the learner.'

The evidence obtained from this study suggests that the students felt that their previous language learning experience did not prepare them for communication. There is no evidence from either this study or the literature to say that grammar teaching does not help communication at all. The literature suggests that teaching grammar is in fact necessary for learners of English as a foreign language. No data proves whether it is better to teach grammar inductively or deductively or that teaching should always be inductive. What this study points to is that learning in the country of the target language is a very difficult experience for learners who have been taught only in the classroom and separated from the use of the language.

Inductive learning is at the centre of the communicative approach and may need to be integrated with deductive learning for the needs of all learners and for the effectiveness of the English for Tourism communicative classroom. It is reasonable to speculate that teachers in Taiwan who would like to adopt the communicative approach may need to integrate deductive learning within the communicative approach. This may help learners in Taiwan to make the transition from grammartranslation to a communicative approach easier and more effective.

Here it is necessary to mention that in Taiwan and elsewhere, ESP programmes are usually provided at the tertiary level. ESP learners have usually had formal systematic study of grammar learning experience. Thus they normally have some basic knowledge of grammar. ESP learners may not need to learn grammar systematically. Nonetheless, they may benefit if relevant grammatical features can be reintroduced or recycled, as advised by Larsen-Freeman (1979: 221) and Batstone (1994: 42). Moreover, when these grammatical features are being recycled or reintroduced and are difficult for learners to absorb, an explicit contrast made between the mother tongue and the target language may be helpful, as suggested by Jordan (1995). In so doing the learners may be helped to be conscious of the similarities and differences between the two languages, understand the difficulty they encounter in learning the target language and become aware of aspects they need to learn in the new language. In addition, learners may then find it easier to construct their structures and to function in the language in the early stages.

To avoid boring and frustrating students, it is better not to spend too much time on presenting or explaining relevant grammar structures. Learners need to be assisted to transfer from formal grammar practice to real-life language use as soon as the form is acquired, as suggested by Stern (1993) and Batstone (1994). Here it may be concluded that in the Taiwanese context the combination of inductive and deductive learning in the communicative classroom, must ensure the close linking of form and function which benefits learners instructionally, as found by Harley (1989; see Stern 1993). Above all, it is useful to keep in mind the axiom: 'to teach the language, and not about the language.' (Stern 1993: 146).

In this section, the value of deductive learning and inductive learning has been discussed on the basis of the data and of the literature. It can be misleading for deductive learning to be seen as the centre of the grammar-translation method while inductive learning dominates the communicative approach. To help learners to make the transition from an old learning system to new one, it has been suggested that deductive learning is integrated into the communicative classroom. It is necessary to take learners' characteristics and their needs into account when deductive learning and inductive learning are considered within the communicative approach.

In the following section, the balance between language and content in specific areas and whether or not the content covered in this English for Tourism programme is important and useful will be discussed.

# 8.3.3 The Role of Content in English for Tourism

In learners' previous language learning experiences, language knowledge acted a focal role. On the contrary, in this new experience, the content played a central role which was similar to what Hutchinson and Waters (1983; see Nunan 1988; see Chapters 2 and 6) have called, 'content-based'. In this content-based learning, little attention was paid to language learning activities or explicit presentation or explanations of relevant and useful grammatical rules offered to reinforce learners' language knowledge. It was found that in the early stages of learning, these learners needed to struggle to discover and reorder their grammatical knowledge in order to produce the target language and be involved in the communicative tasks, especially in the early stages. Thus, this evidence seemed to confirm what Hutchinson and Waters (ibid; see Nunan ibid) have pointed out as the weakness of the content-based model:

In the content-based model...the student is frustrated because he is denied the language knowledge that enables him to do the tasks set.... Although communicative competence encompasses more than just linguistic competence, linguistic competence is nevertheless an essential element in communicative competence.

(Hutchinson and Waters ibid: 101; see Nunan ibid: 38)

This is also consistent with the argument stated in Chapter 2 that it is misleading that either language or content learning has been neglected in ESP instruction. At the same time, it seems reasonable to accept the argument of Cook (1983), Mohan (1986), and Blanton (1992) that it is important to integrate language and content in language courses (see Chapter 2). Thus, learners may benefit if both language and content in specific areas are balanced and integrated in assisting language use. Doing so is to support the argument in Chapter 2 or proposed by Hutchinson and Waters (1983: see Nunan) that language and content are appropriate or relevant to the tasks or activities. Accordingly, language, content and tasks are likely to be closely linked together in ESP instruction.

As noted, several sorts of content were included in the content of the English for Tourism programme in this empirical study. It is important to look at whether or not the content selected is useful or appropriate in the profession of training people for tourism.

# 8.3.3.1 Professional Skills and Authentic Texts

Much of content was directly relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry. For instance, in paper-based materials and video cassettes offered, there was a wide variety of professional skills (e.g customer care skills, interpersonal skills, negotiation skills, telephone techniques, skills in organising or handling conferences and skills in oral presentation) to be included. In additon, the authentic texts (e.g. reservation forms, business letters, faxes, travel/holiday brochures, airplane timetables) were frequently provided. The teacher frequently stressed customer care skills, especially focusing on attentive and active listening and speaking politely in a gentle voice with good eye contact and friendly smiles. These skills have been considered to be crucial for learners who are trained to work in the tourism industry so as to build up good relationship rather than merely socialising (see Chapter 2).

In the data of learners' visiting work-places, the staff of the British Tourist Information Centre also emphasised that good customer care skills were essential for anyone working in the tourism industry. Most of the learners reported that professional skills, especially customer-care skills, and telephone skills, and interpersonal skills were especially important for them to learn. They believed that such skills were imperative for people's success not only in their work but in their lives as well. In brief, these comments justify the argument in Chapter 2 that professional skills should be stressed for training learners to work for the service industry in consideration of the target situation. In Chapter 9, it will be argued that authentic materials which are concerned with the target situation of the tourism industry should be seen as crucial for the effectiveness of the teaching and learning of English for Tourism.

# 8.3.3.2 Cultural, Historical and Geographical Knowledge and Student's Contribution

As observed, the teacher in this empirical study often offered small maps to students to ask students to give directions or follow the instructions to find the way. In addition, she frequently pointed to the places she mentioned on the world map hanging on the wall of the classroom. Furthermore, students were also allowed to share their knowledge about the places, especially about the tourist attractions in their countries. It is clear that in this programme, geographical knowledge was not neglected.

Several learners in this study reported that they were often asked, during their work as hotel receptionists, how to get to certain resorts and what the weather was like in those places. In addition, it was noted that two members of staff of British Tourist Centre also stressed the importance of geographical knowledge for people working in the tourism industry. The data we obtained obviously confirmed what Davidson (1993; see Chapter 2) has indicated that anyone who works as a hotel receptionist, in a travel agency, or in a Tourist Information Centre is expected to know where places are, because they are constantly asked where destinations are and how they may best get there.

As noted, the teacher also often introduced some parts of British history in an interesting way. These learners from abroad enjoyed listening to this, and frequently asked questions about it, especially about Tudor times and the members of the royal family at that time and political development in British history. In addition, students were also allowed to contribute some of the interesting history of their own countries.

Both teacher and students considered that geographical and historical knowledge was interesting and crucial for people working in the tourism industry. Here we need to state that this geographical knowledge or historical knowledge is not exactly the same as that which students need to learn in their required geography and history courses. Teachers of English for Tourism do not need to teach the whole package of geography or history. Nevertheless, they can introduce a bit of history and geography which relate to the interests or needs of the students and tourists from abroad. At the same time, they can also ask students to share their own. In brief, geographical and historical knowledge is essential for people who are equipped to work in all areas of the tourism industry.

The observation data also indicated that certain students encountered misunderstandings between them and their customers because of lack of sufficient cultural knowledge. All of the learners suggested that cultural content should be considered for successful intercultural communication. This seemed to strengthen the view in Chapter 2 that subject matter is not sufficient for learners to deal with intercultural communication, and cultural content should be covered in this programme.

Furthermore, as already stated in Chapter 2, Talib (1992) also suggests the significance of teaching about students' culture. In Chapter 10, the importance of the role played by local input of students' culture and country in teaching English for Tourism, and of the ways in which learners of this area introduce their own culture and country to the tourists from abroad will be discussed further.

As observed, the learners frequently shared their work experiences, cultural, historical or geographical knowledge. Whatever they supplied to the classroom was always valued, encouraged and accepted by the teacher. Therefore, they contributed their knowledge to enrich the content for this programme. This is also consistent with what Cook (1983:231) and Alexander (in Cook 1983) have suggested that the students themselves are a major source of content in the classroom. In short, content contributed by the students is a possible type of real content for the learners of English for Tourism.

To sum up, professional skills and authentic texts, geographical and historical knowledge, cultural content and student-contributed content should be included as crucial aspects of the content of English for Tourism. This is consistent with the argument as stated in Chapter 2 that content of ESP does not mean subject matter.

Nevertheless, interesting, valuable and appropriate content should be suggested to be included.

In the following section, appropriate methodology of ESP teaching and learning will be discussed.

# 8.3.4 The Place of Methodology

As already stated, in these learners' previous learning experience, teachers dominated the whole duration of the class hours by lecturing. There was no time for the students to contribute their knowledge, share their experiences and express their views or insights. What they were required to do was just to listen and memorise what the teacher said and what the textbooks presented. Their old learning habit was mainly memorisation. It was apparent that the grammar-translation method did not help learners to develop learning strategies. In addition, the approach lacked real challenge and led to boredom. Although it did help learners to acquire a great deal of form and vocabulary, it stopped at that, without assisting them to link form to function, and interaction.

To make English for Tourism teaching and learning more effective, a dynamic methodology may be required. As argued in Chapter 2, the significance of an appropriate methodology in ESP should be recognised and stressed rather than neglected. We will next turn to discussion of the appropriate methodology for teaching English for Tourism.

# 8.3.4.1 Social Context in the Classroom

In contrast to learners' previous language learning experience, in the English for Tourism classroom, the teacher did not dominate the whole classroom. The teacher's lecture was only a very small part among the learning activities. The learners were not expected to wait and be spoon-fed. On the contrary, they were required to take responsibility for their own learning and participate in communicative or social interactive tasks or activities (small group discussions, problem-solving, simulations or role-play). These activities were all closely linked with the target situation of the tourism industry to assist the content learning and language use. The teacher also used plenty of teaching materials including authentic texts (e.g. business letters, faxes, and reservation forms) and video cassettes reflecting the target situation which helped students to learn and acquire the content.

As mentioned above, for the convenience of social interaction, the desks and chairs in the communicative classroom were arranged for learners facing each other rather than sitting in straight rows and facing the teacher. Accordingly, learners could work and cooperate in groups or in pairs. Learners were also encouraged and motivated to interpret, evaluate, and contribute knowledge in this field. In order to stimulate learners to express their views, share their knowledge and use their imagination or creativity, anything coming from the learners was acceptable and valued. This is consistent with what Cooper and Westlake (1989) have suggested, that the students should be allowed to interpret and evaluate their own knowledge in tourism education (see Chapter 2). At the same time, the teacher also paid attention to the flow of their speech and allowed errors in their production of the target language, conforming to the idea that teachers in a communicative classroom should emphasise fluency before accuracy (Murray 1996) and learners should learn in 'a non-judgemental atmosphere' (Cunningsworth 1995: 99). Consequently, these learners developed learning strategies, became more effective classroom participants and improved fluency. What the teacher did was to help the learners to develop learning strategies through indirect teaching. This is similar to what O'Malley and Chamot (1990: 153) call 'embedded instruction', as mentioned in Chapter 4 and above.

In the new learning experience, everything seemed implicit. There were no explicit statements of relevant grammatical features presented in learning activities and in teaching materials. No language learning activities were included to reinforce learners' grammatical structures or rules. Therefore learners needed to work hard to discover and reorganise grammatical features to link with the content, at the same time, they had to struggle by themselves to locate and develop learning

strategies in order to perform the social interactive or communicative activities or tasks.

To these learners, the new learning experience was full of adventures and challenges. Inevitably, they experienced classroom shock to a greater or lesser degree in the early stages of learning in the communicative classroom. They went through a great deal of painful difficulties and challenges in order to make the transition from the old to the new experience. The teacher did not appear to consider individual differences and needs or give sufficient assistance to the learners to aid them to make the transition. It may be unrealistic to expect that all the adult learners will be motivated sufficiently to discover or reorder their grammatical knowledge, and locate and develop their learning strategies in the new and challenging learning experience. Take the case of Catherine mentioned in Chapter 6 as an example. Listening to Catherine talk in the classroom before she disappeared, it was possible to assess that her level of language proficiency was low. She lacked confidence and motivation to engage in dialogue or participate in activities. Meanwhile she stressed that she needed to learn more grammatical structures rather than only to learn to communicate. As mentioned, it is probable that there were certain grammatical features which she had not yet acquired. Or maybe she had not developed appropriate learning strategies. Without explicit explanations or instruction of relevant grammatical rules, she was unlikely to know how to discover or reorganise her grammatical features, linking the new content to the communicative tasks or activities. Moreover, she might have been motivated to find out and develop effective learning strategies. The new learning experience may have been too challenging for her to adjust to.

It may be assumed that Taiwanese students will experience similar difficulties and adjustments if they are new to the English for Tourism communicative classroom. We may need to consider whether or not students there at low levels demand language learning activites before they are required to participate in the social interactive or communicative tasks or activities. In the early stages of their learning in the new system, if the teacher had offered explicit instruction either on grammar or on effective learning strategies, this might have helped Catherine or other adult
learners to adjust to the English for Tourism communicative classroom. As Stern (1993: 142) argues, it is important not to think that explicit grammar teaching corresponds simply to 'old-fashioned' or 'inferior' pedagogy. The literature suggests that the direct teaching of learning strategies and deductive grammar learning are essential and useful.

It seems reasonable to assume that the social context of the classroom is useful to help English for Tourism learners to develop learning strategies and reach the goal of effective communication. Nevertheless, teachers also need to keep in mind not to ignore helping learners to adapt to the new learning system. At the same time, they also allow learners to progress at their rates. Thus learners' individual differences, needs and learning demands should be considered. In other words, in addition to giving attention to the importance of content learning, the clear and explicit teaching and learning of grammatical rules or structures and effective learning strategies may be also taken into account.

### 8.3.4.2 Social Environment Outside the Classroom Included in the Pedagogy

All the learners in this current study commented that when they became aware of the need and the importance of taking advantage of social interacting with their British friends and friends from other countries out of the classroom, they learned and progressed the most. This seemed to confirm that social interaction out of the classroom was as significant as and perhaps more important than in the classroom. Wesche (1979) and Chamot (1987) also found that successful learners tended to consciously or voluntarily expose themselves to the target language out of classroom. Moreover, the learners in this empirical research also stated, it was a valuable experience for them to learn directly from the workplace. Therefore learning activities may not necessarily be limited to the classroom environment. The social environment out of the classroom including work-place may need to be included in the pedagogy of English for Tourism.

Among these important findings, it is imperative to point out that in the British context, learners became more effective language learners when they became

conscious of the impressiveness of social strategies and social interaction as an important component in their language learning. Accordingly, they consciously, voluntarily or actively chose to seek out situations and expose themselves to the target language, and practise and use it both in and out of the classroom through social interaction. This has a significant implication and application for the Taiwanese context. It would be possible for teachers to discuss with their students how they might take the initiative to expose themselves to the target language. At the same time, it is hoped that not only teachers but also learners would be mindful of the weight of social contexts, interaction and strategies.

This study suggests that learners should be encouraged not only to participate in social interactive activities in the classroom but also to have social interaction with English-speaking people outside the classroom. Teachers in the Taiwanese context can require their students to interview tourists from abroad or visit families of English-speaking people or other nationalities in Taiwan. Students can be encouraged to participate in international clubs. For instance, as mentioned in Chapter 1, in Taiwan, there are several international clubs, such as the Toastmasters' International Club, International Women's Club and Studio Classroom for people to develop their English proficiency and enhance interpersonal relationships across cultures. In addition, they can be prompted to attend interesting English movies or TV programmes, art exhibitions or artistic performances. Students attending these activities can be encouraged to take note of key words and then report to the class. Lado (1988) suggests that in order to make the presentation interesting the teachers should prepare their students in advance.

The third graders studying at Eastern Junior College of Technology and Commerce in Taiwan usually have job training, for instance, at the travel agency, hotel or restaurant, in the summer vacation. In order to link education with industry, the teacher of English for Tourism may ask students to share their work experience. The teacher may also require them to write a report and make a five-minute oral presentation in English. At the same time, they may be divided into small groups to discuss and share experiences or into pairs to role-play business operators and

#### customers.

This section has discussed the value of social interaction and social strategies in and out of the classroom for English for Tourism learning and teaching. Hence, learning activities may include both social contexts in and out of the classroom in the pedagogy of English for Tourism. Meanwhile, teachers of English for Tourism may need to consider learners' individual factors (e.g. their proficiency level, past learning experience, their belief in language learning, learning strategies, selfconfidence and motivation) when the classroom is organised as a social context. In so doing, they may help their learners to make the transition from the old to the new learning system, especially in the early stages. In Taiwan, English for Tourism teaching and learning may be improved by following the same procedures.

To sum up, in order to improve their teaching, teachers and educators of English for Tourism need to take the four issues into account: the teachability of learning strategies, the role of grammar, the balance between content and language and the place of methodology. That is, the direct teaching of learning strategies, deductive or explicit teaching of grammar, content learning integrated with language learning, and social contexts in and out of the classroom may be included in the pedagogy of English for Tourism for the effectiveness of teaching and learning. Accordingly, these issues need to be taken into account in the Taiwanese context when considering the improvement and development of teaching and learning of this area.

#### 8.4 A Combination Model of Notional-Functional and Task-Based Approaches

Against this background, it is important to turn to the final crucial issue of what evidence is available to suggest the basis on which syllabuses and methodologies in English for Tourism should be constructed. We have seen that the development of learning strategies, some notions of grammar learning, and the balance between language and content must be taken into account. The learning must be realised through an active methodology. From this perspective, the basis for the English for Tourism syllabus and method seems to be the integration of notional-functional and task-based approaches which have been suggested in Chapter 3.

There are a number of issues which we need to take into account when considering the integration of the two approaches for English for Tourism teaching and learning in the Taiwanese context:

In the perspective of English for Tourism, 'notions' need not be seen as general linguistic conceptual meanings, but need to be interpreted as concepts of both language and content in specific areas which learners of English for Tourism need for verbal communication. At the same time, 'functions' need to be considered as learners' 'social behaviour' (Hutchinson and Waters: ibid: 31) or 'communicative purposes' (Nunan: ibid: 35) for which they use language integrating content. Thus this is slightly different from Wilkins (1972, 1976) and van Ek and Alexander's (1975) focus on linguistic notions and linguistic functions. Functions and notions have their own clear taxonomy (see Chapter 3).

It is also important to establish a definition of what 'a task' is in consideration of the Taiwanese context and students there. However, little agreement has been reached on an appropriate definition of the term 'task' (Swales 1990). In addition, the term has been too narrowly defined (Littlejohn 1998; see Chapter 2). According to Littlejohn (ibid), the term commonly refers to meaning-focused work, for instance, projects, problem-solving and simulations. Thus it cannot be applied to materials which are not meaning-focused (e.g. grammar drills, dictations). The author suggests that it is necessary to propose a definition with a broader view.

With Taiwanese context and students in mind, we need to propose a more comprehensive and broader definition of a task-based approach. First of all, task is equivalent to activity (Long 1985; Coleman 1987; see Swales 1990). Secondly, task includes the communicative task in which learners are involved in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on meaning (Nunan 1989). In addition, a variety of different kinds of tasks or activities in which learners are engaged in learning about the target language are also considered (Littlejohn 1998). Thirdly, individual or self-

access or out of class activities are also covered. Fourthly, a variety of things (professional activities) students need to do in their everyday present or future jobs are also considered (see Chapter 2). Fifthly, a task can be graded according to difficulty or complexity (see Swales 1990). Sixthly, a task helps students to develop learning strategies explicitly and implicitly (see Chapter 4 and this chapter).

Furthermore, we need to take account of criteria for 'Good Language Learning Tasks' that Candlin (1987) has proposed, especially the following.

Such tasks:

- (1) Should promote attention to meaning, purpose, negotiation.
- (2) Should draw objectives from the communicative needs of learners.
- (3) Can allow for different solutions depending on the skills and strategies drawn on by learners.
- (4) Should involve learner contributions, attitudes, and affects.
- (5) Should be challenging but not threatening to promote risk-taking.
- (6) Should require input from all learners in terms of knowledge, skills, participation.
- (7) Should define a problem to be worked through by learners, centred on the learners but guided by the teacher.
- (8) Should involve language use in the solving of the task.
- (9) Should provide opportunities for language practice.
- (10) Should promote sharing of information and expertise.
- (11) Should provide monitoring and feedback, of the learners and of the task.
- (12) Should heighten learners' consciousness of the process and be reflexive.

(ibid: 9-10)

Both notional-functional and task-based approaches which are interpreted with a broader view are combined as the province of English for Tourism syllabuses and English for Tourism methodologies. This model seems to be consistent with what Nunan (1990: 14; see Murata 1994: 221) suggests: both 'means and ends' or 'process and content' need to be considered in designing any comprehensive curriculum. Accordingly, the teaching of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context may be improved by considering the combination model to meet learners' needs by paying attention to 'process and product'.

It is also implied by this that language and content should be closely linked together, playing an equally important role in English for Tourism teaching and learning (see Chapter 2 and above). In so doing, we may avoid the situation of falling into a content-based model, criticised by Hutchinson and Waters (1983; see Nunan 1988; see above). They (ibid: 101; see Nunan 1988: 38) propose a model which merges the four components of content, input, language and task:

The LANGUAGE and CONTENT focused on are drawn from the INPUT and are selected primarily according to what the learner will need in order to do the TASK. In other words, in the TASK the linguistic knowledge and topic knowledge that are built up through the unit are applied to the solving of a communication problem.

(Hutchinson and Waters ibid: 102; Nunan 1988: 38)

As already stated in Chapter 2 and this chapter, language and content are appropriate to or relevant to the tasks. Therefore a more constructive approach to effective English for Tourism teaching and learning seems to see language and content, and task as complementary, with each supporting and enriching the other. These procedures would consider the issues of development of learning strategies, the role of grammar learning, awareness of the sigificance of integration of language and content, and realization of the importance of active methodology for the effectiveness of the teaching and learning of English for Tourism.

#### 8.5 Summary

This chapter has discussed the major findings of this empirical research, four key issues raised from these findings and a combination model. In these major findings, it has been noted that the English for Tourism classroom in this empirical research focuses on content learning. In this classroom, learning strategies and grammatical rules are all implicitly learned. In addition, it is full of challenges. These students in

this study who are from overseas, with previous general English grammar learning experience, encountered a great deal of difficulty when they were new in this classroom in the British context because everything was so strange and different from their old classroom. They have had to make changes because they find that their old learning habits do not really work. To meet the expectations of this new learning system, they need to locate and develop their learning strategies, and discover and reorder their own grammatical features, linking with the new content to produce the target language to be involved in social interactive or communicative activities or tasks.

With the exception of Catherine, all the learners, who were highly motivated to succeed in their language learning and career, ended by making the transition to the new learning system. Nonetheless, they encountered a painful and demanding language learning experience. On that account, this 'content based model' may not be suitable for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

The implications of the current study for the Taiwanese context have been considered by taking account of the four key issues and a combination model for the possibility of helping to ease the transition and enhance the effectiveness of teaching and learning English for Tourism. Accordingly, first of all, direct teaching or explicit instruction of learning strategies need to be considered in the course rather than let students struggle to discover them for themselves. Social-affective strategies which have been found the most significant strategies for assisting content learning and language use, have always been neglected in the Taiwanese teaching system. Teachers of English for Tourism in Taiwan may need to give special attention to these strategies when they consider to including direct teaching or training in their syllabuses. Secondly, it is essential for deductive teaching or explicit explanations of relevant grammar and language learning activities to be taken into account for Taiwanese students, especially for students at lower levels. This avoids the assumption that learners will discover or reorder their own grammatical features to link with the content in order to produce the target language in the social-interactive or communicative activities or tasks.

Thirdly, language and content should be closely integrated and balanced to be appropriate to or relevant to tasks or activities. Teaching materials related to the target situation of the tourism industry are important to aid content learning. However, cultural content, other knowledge such as geographical or historical knowledge are crucial for successful intercultural communication, and the needs or interests of tourists from abroad must not be ignored. Thus, content should be carefully selected in consideration of its appropriateness, interest and relevance. Fourthly, social interactive or communicative activities or tasks relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry which are imperative for content learning and language use need to be considered. However, language learning activities which are crucial to help Taiwanese students to be familiar with the language system cannot be neglected, either. Furthermore, the significance of social contexts in and out of the classroom is always forgotten in the Taiwanese educational system. Teachers of English for Tourism in Taiwan may need to use their organisational ability to arrange the classroom to become a small social world. They may also need to discuss with their students how they might use their initiative to take advantage of the social contexts in and out of the classroom and use the target language as much as they can. In addition, it is important for teachers to understand how their students learn and allow them to progress at their own pace. Students are also encouraged to interpret, evaluate the knowledge in the field, express their own views and share their knowledge in the world or in their work.

Finally, notional-functional and task-based approaches are interpreted, with a broader view, to be combined by considering the four issues of development of learning strategies, the role of grammar learning, awareness of the significance of integration of language and content, and realization of the importance of active methodology. The combination model is suggested according to the English for Tourism teaching situation in the Taiwanese context. In short, when we consider the effectiveness of English for Tourism teaching and learning, learners' factors, individual differences, needs and learning demands should be taken into account.

The next chapter, Chapter 9, will evaluate textbooks and select appropriate textbooks for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. Subsequently, Chapter 10 will discuss the improvement and development of teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. These two chapters will take account of the overall key points drawn from this empirical research, especially the four key issues raised and the integration of two approaches.

## **Chapter 9**

# An Evaluation of Published Textbooks for Teaching English for Tourism for the Taiwanese Context

### 9.1 Introduction

In Chapter 2, the nature and characteristics of English for Tourism have been examined. Learning needs and target situation needs were considered in designing materials and methodologies of English for Tourism. On that account, this work is particularly concerned with these two needs. The following aims of teaching English for Tourism have been proposed: to help learners to be familiar with the language system, develop appropriate learning strategies, improve language skills and professional skills, enhance cross-cultural awareness, adjust to the ESP communicative classroom, manage effective communication in English in various professional activities and be more confident in getting a job in the tourism industry. A communicative approach and learning strategies have also been postulated to be closely relevant to the efficiency of ESP teaching. These have been discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 respectively.

An empirical research which is concerned with learning needs by focusing on learning strategies has been described in Chapters 6 and 7. In Chapter 8, the issues, the teachability of learning strategies, the role of grammar within a communicative approach, the variety of content, the balance between language and content in specific areas, and the place of methodology have been examined. A combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches has been suggested, modified so as to consider needs of learners and the effectiveness of ESP teaching and learning in the Taiwanese context.

In this chapter, the textbooks already used in Taiwan and certain currently published textbooks in the United Kingdom will be evaluated. Then, we will decide which books will be useful and appropriate for teaching English for Tourism in the future in the Taiwanese context.

Here it should be acknowledged that English for Tourism is not the only English course for students of Tourism Department at junior college in Taiwan. Other English courses, such as general English course and English conversation course are also covered in the curriculum. In addition, in very recent years, some five-year junior colleges have upgraded to become four-year colleges or universities, and the rest of them will follow the same change. Eastern Junior College of Technology and Commerce, where the researcher has served, also plans to be transformed in this way in two or three years. 'Junior college' may become a historical term in Taiwanese educational history. In this chapter, 'textbook', 'coursebook', 'material' and 'student's book' are exchangable terms.

In what follows, first of all, some problematic issues of teaching English for Tourism at junior college in the Taiwanese context will be described. Secondly, the reasons for using the textbook will be discussed. Thirdly, the textbooks of English for Tourism which have been used in the Taiwanese context and published in the United Kingdom will be analysed and selected.

# 9.2 Issues in Teaching English for Tourism at Junior College in the Taiwanese Context

Students are usually 16 years old when they pass a joint entrance examination to enter a five-year junior college. In their previous English language learning experience at a junior high school, they usually have had three to five hours a week through the grammar-translation method. Through this teaching method, teachers use L1 most of the time to explain all the grammatical rules, and translate all the meanings and expressions in the vocabluary list and in the lesson from L2 into L1. Students often simply write down the translation and do various grammar and vocabulary exercises. At the same time, they also need to memorise a wide range of grammar, vocabulary, and expressions. Social interaction is often not taken into much account. In addition, written tests, especially multiple choice for correct grammar, rather than oral tests are used in the school. Thus speaking and listening skills are often not much considered. The whole learning process tends to be tiring and boring. Thus many learners are unmotivated and passive in learning English.

Nevertheless, similar teaching methods are commonly implemented in junior colleges, even in the English for Tourism programme. The new students of Tourism Department at junior colleges usually have no difficulty in adjusting to this programme which still employs the traditional teaching method with which they are familiar. In fact, it is generally considered that mastery of grammar is the key to successful language learning in the in-school examinations and the national joint entrance examinations for entry to higher levels of education. Thus it has often been found that students of English for Tourism at junior college are familar with the language system. However, they are incapable of using the language either orally or in written form. This phenomenon of mastery of grammar as an end for succeeding in examinations in the ESP teaching has been criticised by Taiwanese authorities (see Chapter 2). These Chinese ways of learning and the reasons for them have also been discussed in Chapter 1.

In addition, there are practical difficulties in stimulating the use of L2 in two hours a week for teaching English for Tourism, with fifty students in a large classroom. Even though there are another four hours for teaching general English and two hours for conversation, time is still too limited for learning to use L2 effectively. At the same time, there is no detailed syllabus designed for teaching English for Tourism. ESP teachers in the Taiwanese context usually follow the content of textbooks as syllabus. Therefore it seems crucial to select appropriate textbooks for orientating the learning and teaching process toward communicative competence and appropriate learning strategies. It has been noted that textbooks for teaching this area in the Taiwanese context are confined to those imported from the United Kingdom or the United States. However, only limited relevant published textbooks of English for Tourism are imported. All of these books are written for an intensive course, not book series. Therefore relevant published books in this area are extremely scarce in the Taiwanese booksellers. In addition, books are habitually changed in different semesters and grades in Taiwan. Accordingly, ten books may be a minimum amount altogether required for teaching five-year courses in a junior college. Therefore it is often the case that insufficient published textbooks can be found and chosen from the Taiwanese booksellers. In this situation, teachers of this area have to choose the general coursebooks instead.

The above identified issues need to be taken into account when evaluating and choosing textbooks for effective teaching of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. In addition, the reasons for which we use the textbooks, whether we need to choose published or in-house materials and what criteria are required for the selection of textbooks for teaching and learning this programme are crucial and need to be explored below.

Let us turn to examine the reasons for using the textbooks or materials in the following section.

### 9.3 Reasons for Using Textbooks

Materials are used in all teaching. However, Allwright (1981: 5; see Robinson 1991: 57) raises the issue 'what do we want teaching materials for'. The author (ibid) points out the weakness of 'a necessarily limited role for teaching materials' leading to 'teacher overload' and 'learner underinvolvement'. He further suggests that the shift of emphasis from 'teaching materials to learning materials' is 'related to the conception of the whole of language teaching and learning as the cooperative management of language learning.' The author also argues that though learning strategies and techniques are not explicit goals of traditional language instruction,

they need to be taken into account in the content of learning materials, if we aim to help learners to be better learners.

There is consensus that we need materials for teaching or learning support. According to Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), in addition to paper-based materials, ESP teachers also want to use audio and video cassettes, overhead transparencies, computers and other equipment or actual objects. The authors (ibid: 170-172) point out four reasons for using materials in the ESP setting:

a. **Source of language**: according to the authors, in English as a foreign language situations, the ESP classroom may be the primary source of English. In the circumstances, 'materials then play a crucial role in exposing learners to the language, which implies that the materials need to present real language, as it is used, and the full range that the learners require.' (Dudley-Evans and St John ibid: 171). However, real language in materials may fail to meet the learners' needs. As the authors (ibid) acknowledge:

If nearly every text comes from magazines such as <u>Time</u> or the <u>New</u> <u>Scientist</u>, content and style will be journalistic. The language differs substantially from the didactic/ pedagogic style of textbooks. So, the language is real but it cannot provide the range of features that learners require.

#### (ibid)

Therefore the authors indicate that we cannot select every text from magazines, even though the language is real. We need also to consider whether both content and language correspond to what all the learners need when we choose the teaching materials.

In addition, only one textbook may be insufficient for students as a source of language input. Therefore the authors also suggest that additional material is provided to increase exposure to the language, and for interested learners to use for their own learning practice. Moreover, they offer a suggestion that the L1 may be used in the materials for instruction and explanations in monolingual situations

and both languages may be used for learners who begin with a low level of language. This point can be variable. The ESP courses are usually taught in the secondary or tertiary level in most education systems. ESP students have already studied general English courses for some years before studying ESP courses. This is especially the case in Taiwan. According to the researcher's previous experience of teaching ESP at a junior college there, the most difficult thing that the ESP learners encountered was to use L2 in communication rather than in understanding the content in the ESP text. In addition, a criticism has been that ESP teachers use too much L1 in the ESP classrooms (see Chapter 2).

Accordingly, it may be argued that in addition to teaching materials, we need to suggest or offer some additional materials. The content and language in the texts should be designed to satisfy learners' needs and the L1 should be avoided. L1 is used only when it is necessary or in vocabulary explanations.

b. Learning Support: as a learning support, Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid: 171) argue against 'a fixed format'. According to their views, ten comprehension questions following each text in published materials do not cover 'the real or carrier content of the materials', but lead to 'trivial fillers' and 'distract from the real objectives.' They indicate that there have been too many comprehension questions in printed materials in which activities only stimulate the mechanical learning processes to find relevant sentences in the text. They (ibid) further suggest that 'to enhance learning, materials must involve learners in thinking about and using the language. The activities need to stimulate cognitive not mechanical processes. The learners also need a sense of progression.'

c. **Reference**: many ESP learners need materials for self-study and reference. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998: 172) suggest that materials need to be 'complete, well laid out and self explanatory' because 'learners will want explanations (possibly in an L1, as well as in English) examples and practice activities that have answer and discussion keys'. As already argued above, the use of an L1 should be avoided in ESP materials. In addition, the teachers may need to guide their students in when to use their dictionaries to support learning or how they develop their learning strategies in reading.

d. **Stimulation and Motivation**: the authors (ibid: 172) advise that 'to stimulate and motivate, materials need to be challenging yet achievable; to offer new ideas and information whilst being grounded in the learners' experience and knowledge; to encourage fun and creativity.' Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 129), Waters (1988: 35; see Robinson 1991: 46) also make the same points concerning learning factors, their experience, especially emotional experience. Thus 'interest', 'fun', 'enjoyment', 'variety', 'creativity' and 'involvement' are taken as the primary concern in materials and methodology.

To sum up, the four reasons for using materials, which Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) have argued, also lead us to consider some crucial points when we choose the materials. Thus it seems essential to consider whether or not the language and content are relevant and match learners needs. At the same time, it seems much more significant to consider stimulating cognitive rather than mechanical processes in methodology. However, as already noted and discussed in Chapter 8, social processes and social strategies seem to be the most crucial in relation to the effectiveness of learning. Accordingly, mechanical processes may need to be given the least attention. It is important to remember that comprehension questions alone are insufficient for learning, and that learning activities and tasks need to be challenging and interesting in order to encourage communication and creativity. Furthermore, teaching materials including additional materials offered to learners for self-study and for reference, need to provide something familiar and something new, and match language learning needs. Meanwhile, L1 may need to be avoided in ESP teaching and learning.

There are some important issues relevant to materials which need to be discussed as follows.

### 9.3.1 Authenticity

The issues relevant to authenticity have been discussed in the ESP literature for a while. However, the exact meaning of authenticity is still unsettled. Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 159) indicate that the meaning of the term 'authentic' brings the message of 'taken from the target situation, and therefore, not originally constructed for language teaching purposes.' Robinson (1991: 54) uses 'authentic materials' with reference to 'the use of print, audio, video and pictorial material originally produced for a purpose other than the teaching of language.' Dudley-Evans and St John (ibid: 27-28) also point out that many ESP practitioners have used 'authenticity' to refer to 'unsimplified or genuine texts that were used in ESP materials but were originally written for purposes other than language teaching.' Accordingly, 'authenticity' is closely linked with the target situation or purposes.

However, the issue of whether the use of ESP texts should be authentic or not also leads to considerable argument in the development of ESP (Kuo 1993; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998). Hutchinson and Waters (ibid) argue that 'we should be looking not for some abstract concept of "authenticity" but rather the practical concept of "fitness to the learning purpose".' In many ways, they indicate that it is more important to guarantee that the activities reflect the learning process or purpose than to use genuine texts from the target situation. Arnold (1991) also acknowledges that authentic materials (e.g. business realia, forms, recordings of meetings and telephone conversations) do not ensure authentic interaction or authentic communication. Robinson (1991: 56) likewise argues that 'authentic materials will not work well in the classroom unless the methodology is carefully considered.' The authors above seem to show that methodology or learning process is more important than authenticity or authentic materials.

On the other hand, Kuo (1993) argues that texts from real world situations which ESP learners must face should not be excluded competely as they can best suggest successful transfer of language use and communication skills at the end of the course. This seems to support what Wilkins (1976: 79) has claimed that authentic

materials 'bridge the gap between classroom knowledge and an effective capacity to participate in real language events.'

Arnold (1991) acknowledges that task-based approaches to materials design problems are popular today in ESP courses, especially in business courses. By using task-based courses, the material design problem is to match what happens in the classroom with what happens in the real world outside the classroom. The author argues that the more task-based courses reflect the real world, the better the learning will be.

Here we need to suggest that the programme of English for Tourism aims to educate and train students to make ready to work in the tourism industry. It would be misleading or erroneous to ignore the target situation. In addition, when we are concerned with authenticity, it does not mean that we exclude methodology or learning processes. Therefore we may argue that authentic materials (e.g. business realia, reservation forms, formal letters, recordings of meetings and telephone conversations) which are derived from the real world of the tourism industry and task-based approaches which reflect the real world of the tourism industry should be taken seriously into account. In short, the use of authentic materials should be regarded as crucial and reasonable in ESP teaching and learning.

### 9.3.2 Which to Choose, Published or In-House (Tailor-Made) Materials?

The issue whether ESP teachers should use published materials or in-house (tailormade) materials has also been debated for some time in ESP literature. For global commercial situations, published matterials have been criticised, for instance, for a lack of concern with students' cultures (Barron 1991) and lacking social and cultural appropriateness (Kuo 1993). Candlin and Breen (see Kuo: 1993: 178) also argue that 'there can be no such thing as ideal and universally applicable language materials.' Although published materials have a number of weaknesses, there are still many ESP practitioners (e.g. Jones 1990; Robinson 1991; Kuo 1993; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998) supporting published materials. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) explain why ESP teachers make use of published materials rather than write their own:

Each stage of finding suitable carrier content, matching real content to learning and real world activities, composing clear rubrics, planning an effective layout is time-consuming. Estimates vary but 15:1 can be considered a minimum. Preparing new materials from scratch for every course taught is clearly impractical, even if every teacher actually had the ability.

(ibid: 172)

It takes time to write in-house (tailor-made) materials. Swale (see Robinson 1991: 58) also points out that the in-house materials are easily lost or out of order because they are usually in the form of 'shower of single-page handouts'. Kuo (1993) also shows that it has often been found that ESP teacher-generated materials have less credibility than published materials. At the same time, ESP teachers, for instance, in Taiwan, are usually too busy to write materials, or may lack sufficient subject knowledge. In addition, there is a lack of limitations of resources and facilities to support teachers in writing material (Kuo 1993). Funds are available for buying books, and the students want to have their own copies of the textbook (Baumgardner et al. in Robinson 1991). Therefore, it is more common that ESP teachers select published materials. This is also the case in Taiwan where published textbooks play an important role in the education system because they are 'source of language', 'learning support', 'reference' and 'stimulation and motivation'. Hence it is urgent and crucial to evaluate carefully and select appropriate materials for the Taiwanese context. The evaluation of textbooks of English for Tourism can be a starting point and significant undertaking in consideration of the effectiveness of ESP language learning and teaching in Taiwan. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) indicate, a careful evaluation of materials can save a great deal of expense and frustration. In order to select appropriately from what are available, we need to set out what criteria are important.

## 9.4 Criteria for Selecting English for Tourism Textbooks

Up to now, there are numerous criteria which exist for evaluating GPE (e.g. Cunningsworth 1984; Breen and Candlin 1987) and ESP textbooks (e.g. Pilbeam 1987; Hutchinson and Waters 1987; Cunningsworth 1995; Dudley-Evans and St John 1998; Nesi 1998). Nevertheless, GPE evaluation criteria which are commonly too general may not be relevant to the application to English for Tourism. In addition, we need to consider the individual characteristics of English for Tourism. Furthermore, we also need to keep in mind that Taiwanese students who have previously received the traditional formal English instruction may lack effective learning strategies, self-confidence, motivation, or abilities in using L2 to communicate.

In making up the final list below as criteria for choosing English for Tourism textbooks for the Taiwanese context, it seems imperative that we need to refer to the preceding discussion of the theories and the data with Taiwanese students in mind, and take account of some questions of ESP textbook evaluation, especially drawn from Cunningsworth (1995) and Nesi (1998). A further version of these two ESP textbook evaluations can be found in Appendix 3.

## 1. Specification

\* Does the book meet target situation needs, learning needs or match the aims of the programme? (see Chapter 2; Hutchinson and Waters 1987).

\* How old is the book? Is it modern and up to date? Where was it published? (Nesi 1998).

\* How is its physical appearance in terms of clarity, attractiveness, pictures, and other nonverbal sources? (Nesi 1998).

\* How local is the book? Is the book concerned with the students' culture? (Nesi 1998; see above in this chapter; see Chapter 2).

\* Are there a teacher's book, an answer key, student's workbook, cassette, and video? (see Chapter 8; Nesi 1998).

\* How many hours will it take to teach this book? (Nesi 1998).

\* Do General English teachers have difficulty in using this book? (see Chapter 2).

## 2. Content

\* Does the book offer clear grammatical explanations, relevant vocabulary lists, or useful language and expressions? (see Chapters 2 and 8).

\* Are language and content integrated and relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry? Is the content interesting, relevant and valuable? (see Chapter 2 and this chapter).

\* Are cultural content and learning strategies taken into account in the content? (see Chapters 2 and 8 and this chapter; Nesi 1998).

\* Does the content include professional skills (e.g. interpersonal communication skills, customer care skills, telephone skills, nonverbal communication skills in terms of friendly and sincere smiles, good eye contact, and active listening, and some other skills in negotiating, giving presentations, organising and handling conferences)? (see Chapter 2).

### 3. Methodology

\* Does the book encourage a collaborative approach between learners and teachers or among learners? Does it offer learners opportunities to bring their work experience and subject matter, and geographical, historical or world knowledge to the classroom to share with other students? (see Chapters 2, 3 and 8; Cunningsworth 1995).

\* Do the learning activities focus on listening and speaking skills without ignoring reading and writing skills? (see Chapters 2 and 8).

\* Do learning activities and tasks reflect the target situation of the tourism industry? (see Chapter 2 and this chapter).

\* Do learning activities or tasks help to develop learning strategies and build up self-confidence? (see Chapter 2).

\* Do learning activities take account of learners' needs in performing the professional activities (e.g. dealing with customer enquiries, giving holiday information, describing an itinerary, talking about the prices, taking phone calls,

booking tickets, checking tickets and flights, and dealing with customer complaints)? (see Chapter 2; Cunningsworth 1995).

\* Does the textbook have groupwork, pairwork or a variety of social interactive activities or communicative tasks to help learners to develop social strategies and social interpersonal relationships? (see Chapters 2 and 8).

\* Do the learning activities allow the learners to interpret the knowledge and express their own points of view, and challenge students to think? (see Chapter 2).
\* Does the textbook also include outside classroom activities? (see Chapters 2 and 8).

### 9.5 Evaluation of the Textbooks of English for Tourism

As mentioned above, so far, there are not many imported published textbooks of English for Tourism available in the Taiwanese booksellers. On this account, this study intends not only to review all the books which have been used in Taiwan, but also to survey and evaluate relevant books in the United Kingdom so as to make the further suggestions for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

It has been noted that two imported published textbooks designed for teaching English for Tourism which have been on the market in Taiwan: <u>Five Star English</u> (Revell and Stott 1981), and <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u> (Stott and Holt 1991) have been chosen as the textbooks at Eastern Junior College in Taiwan. These two books are individual books not book series.

# **9.5.1** Published Textbooks Used for Teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese Context

As mentioned above, not many relevant published textbooks are available in the Taiwanese booksellers. Teachers of English for Tourism at Eastern Junior College have to choose ESOL general coursebooks which are originally not prepared for teaching English for Tourism, for instance, <u>Success: Communicating in English 1,2,</u> <u>3 and 4</u> (Walker 1994), <u>Interchange: English for International Communication 1, 2</u>

and 3 (Richards, Hull and Proctor 1990), <u>On Course 1 (Cellman 1988)</u>, and <u>On</u> <u>Course 2</u> (Flamm 1989). This section will examine the general coursebooks first before reviewing <u>Five Star English</u> and <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u>. Finally, relevant textbooks currently published in the United Kingdom will be evaluated. The textbook analysis below will deal only with the text of students' books. It is not necessary to answer all the questions already listed in the criteria for the selection of textbooks of English for Tourism as shown above. Textbooks which are found unsuitable for meeting the aims of teaching English for Tourism will be reviewed briefly and not be considered for teaching this area in the Taiwanese context. Nevertheless, it will give a detailed analysis in the case of books considered worthy of use in the Taiwanese context. Some other good or weak points in the textbooks are also taken into account.

## <u>On Course 1</u> Carol Cellman. 1988. and <u>On Course 2</u> Jacqueline Flamm 1989. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

<u>On Course</u> 1 and 2 are a two-level ESOL speaking and listening course for young adults and adult learners. The series of books are organised with a careful sequenced grammatical syllabus integrating communicative functions all through the books. In addition, their topics are covered around everyday situations. The students can listen to the conversations through cassettes and can also read the conversations in the books. They then can practise similar conversations with a partner. The student books 1 and 2 are comprised of 30 two-page units respectively. Moreover, teacher's books are offered suggesting how to teach each unit and a whole tapescript.

However, the textbooks include only general or everyday English. There is nothing at all which indicates or is relevant to the tourism industry or to learning strategies. Students simply need to use memory to learn the grammar and conversation models and practise them with a partner. From the start to the end, all the exercises are copying activities. Students do not need to use creativity and imagination, express their own views, or interpret their knowledge in the learning process. No activities are included to help learners to develop learning strategies, and stimulate them to think. Here we cannot help wondering whether students develop social relationships by simply practising English conversation through memorising rather than by working cooperatively with others to complete these activities.

A collaborative approach between learners and teachers is also ignored. There is nothing about learning activities outside the classroom at all. It seems that the books do not consider target situation needs of the tourism industry neither do they take learning needs into account. In other words, teachers of English for Tourism may have difficulty in achieving the aims of the programme if they only use this series of books, one for each semester.

## <u>Vistas: An Interactive Course in English</u> 1, 2, 3 and 4. H. Douglas Brown. 1993. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Regents/Prentice Hall.

The book series emphasises four language skills. It gives a lot of exercises by choosing the correct answer or filling out the blank to test the listening and reading comprehension in the books, and reinforce vocabulary and structures. Students simply need to use memory to learn some vocabulary and expressions. The collaborative approach between learners and teachers is not taken into account. Students do not need to express their own views or contribute to their knowledge. No learning activities challenge students to think, and use creativity and imagination. Most topics in the series are not relevant to the tourism industry at all. In other words, the book series does not answer the aims of this programme. Therefore it is not considered suitable for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

# <u>Success: Communicating in English</u> 1,2, 3 and 4. Walker, M. 1994. New York: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

The book series is prepared for a four-level ESOL programme for young adult and adult learners. The books emphasise listening, speaking and reading skills. Writing skills are not taken into account. As with <u>On Course</u> series, grammar practice and comprehension questions are taken too much into account. All the learning procedures are merely copying activities or mechanical processes, not requiring any creative thought or social interaction. Furthermore any collaborative approach between learners and teachers is also ignored. Students are not given the opportunity to express their own views or contribute to their own experience or knowledge. Most of the content in each unit is not relevant to the tourism industry. In short, the book series can not meet the aims of this programme. They should not be considered appropriate to be chosen to teach English for Tourism.

# <u>Interchange: English for International Communication</u> 1, 2 and 3. Jack C Richards with Jonathan Huall and Susan Proctor. 1990. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The book series is prepared for a three-level course for young adult and adult learners of English from beginning to high-intermediate level. They cover four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing including pronunciation and vocabulary. In addition to a student's book, teacher's manual and workbook, class cassettes and student cassette are available. A variety of recorded native and non-native accents is one of major features in the book series. As argued in Chapter 2, it is important for ESP students to learn to understand international English. There are many pictures and names of famous people and stars, interesting places and things covered in these books.

There are various interesting and challenging activities for students working in pairs or in groups in which they need to use imagination or creativity, or develop learning strategies, for instance, to make up an interesting story together or take turns to talk about their favorite city. Although the methodology reflects 'a communicative approach' and learners are stimulated to use creative thought in communication activities, the learning activities do not reflect the real-world of the tourism industry. Most of the content in each unit is relevant to general interest and is not concerned with the target situation of the tourism industry. Students will not develop professional skills from this book series.

Compared to other general coursebooks reviewed above, <u>Interchange: English for</u> <u>International Communication</u> 1, 2 and 3. are the better type of general coursebooks. However, we still cannot recommend them to teach English for Tourism for they do not correspond to target situation needs.

To sum up, most of general coursebooks above simply help students to know about L2 rather than helping them to use it to communicate effectively. However, <u>Interchange: English for International Communication</u> 1, 2 and 3, which are considered better than other general coursebooks reviewed for helping learners to develop learning strategies and promote effective communication, can be recommended as textbooks for teaching subjects, such as General English Course or Conversation.

The learning activities and the content in all the general coursebooks do not reflect the real-world of the tourism industry. Therefore none of the general coursebooks reviewed should be recommended for continued use in teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context because they do not take account of the target situation needs. Otherwise, there is no difference between ESP teaching and GPE teaching in the Taiwanese context. This is consistent with what both Robinson (1980) and Cunningsworth (1995) have argued that teaching materials for ESP should be regarded as different from general coursebooks. As Robinson (1980: 34) has claimed: 'the ESP teacher will not expect to use a general coursebook organised around general human interest topics and situations, functions, etc.' Now let us continue to review two ESP books which are for people working or training to work in the tourism industry, and used as textbooks at Eastern Junior College in Taiwan.

## <u>Five Star English</u>. 1982. Rod Revell and Chris Stott. Oxford: Oxford University Press

<u>Five Star English</u> is prepared for people working or training in the hotel and tourist industry. The book includes a teacher's note, self-study guide and cassette. In the cassette, there is recorded a wide variety of English accents. In Appendix 1, there is a list of 'useful vocabulary' whilst in Appendix 2, a list of 'British and American English'.

Nevertheless, the book does not look up to date. It is indeed not modern at all for it is almost twenty years old. There is no contemporary content and no superb visuals. In addition, there are a lot of comprehension questions after reading or listening to a text. As noted, the comprehension questions simply require mechanical answers. This evidence confirms the argument, as discussed above, that activities for comprehension questions do not stimulate either cognitive or social processes, but only a mechanical process.

Speaking practice is mainly a mechanical exercise. Students seemingly need to mainly use their memory to learn the language. They are not challenged to think. The development of learning strategies has not been emphasised. The collaborative approach between teachers and students is not taken into account either. There is not much space for students to contribute their own work experience, and their subject, and world knowledge (e.g. cultural, historical and geographical knowledge). All the learning process is dull and tiring.

Although <u>Five Star English</u> is prepared for the people working or training to work in all areas of the tourism industry, it seems out of date for modern society. Thus it does not consider target situation needs and learning needs. In brief, it does not meet the aims of this programme. This book is not recommended for use in teaching English for Tourism today in the Taiwanese context.

# <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u>. Trish Stott and Roger Holt. 1991. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

<u>First Class: English for Tourism</u> is designed for a course for people working or training to work in all areas of the tourist industry. It looks modern and is up to date. It attracts our interest with superb visuals. It also offers the necessary relevant vocabulary for contemporary Tourism. In addition to a student's book, a cassette and teacher's book are available. In the cassette, there are a variety of recorded native and non-native speakers of English to help students to understand international English. As mentioned above, this point is essential.

There are some activities to aid learners to reinforce relevant vocabulary and grammar and be more familar with the language system. In the appendices, there are a list of irregular verbs, a letter layout, common telex abbreviations, and a word list in English (American English equivalents), French, Italian, Spanish, German, Turkish, and Japanese.

In this book, there are twenty units which include all the relevant topics, for instance, flight reservations, changes and cancellations, travel requirements, hotel facilities, telephone enquiries, checking in, complaints, organising a conference, local tours, foreign tours, itineraries, and job interviews. In addition, there are a variety of professional activities (e.g. dealing with complaints, taking reservations over the telephone and writing telephone messages, describing conference facilities). These activities help learners to develop professional skills (e.g. negotiation skills, interpersonal communication and customer care skills, telephone skills, and skills in giving presentations, organising and handling a conference) in addition to language skills (especially speaking and listening skills). Thus the learning activities and content in this book are relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry. Nonetheless, it does not include cultural content.

This book also aids learners to develop learning strategies, for instance, by indicating that they should 'invent some information' to reply to a letter of complaint, and 'use their imagination' to deal with the complaint by inventing a dialogue and role play the situation with a partner (in pp. 62-63). In the learning process, students are often challenged to think, and to use their creativity, for example, to imagine that they have to develop their country's hotel industry to a group of tour operators from abroad. They often need to work in pairs to talk about such subjects as service, hospitality and famous hotels, and present their talk to another pair or to the rest of the class. They also need to take turns to role play (e.g. to be a hotel receptionist and a business traveller) (see p. 59). Students are allowed to participate in various learning activities, and contribute their own work experience and subject knowledge. Thus a cooperative approach and social interaction in the classroom are encouraged.

The textbooks reviewed above do not offer any information about Taiwan. This book involves an article about the hotel industry in Taiwan, and three pictures of tourist attractions there, though not much is included (see p. 58). Compared to other books, <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u> is much closer to target situation needs and learning needs and the aims of this programme. Thus it can be recommended for continued use for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

To sum up, only <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u> seems most likely to match the aims of teaching English for Tourism. All general coursebooks reviewed above and <u>Five Star English</u> are unlikely to reach the aims of the English for Tourism programme and are not suggested for continued use in teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. One textbook alone is not sufficient for a five-year junior college (or four-year college). Luckily, some published books of English for Tourism have been published in recent years in the publishing industry in the United Kingdom. Therefore we are eager to go on to review them for the possibility of using them in the Taiwanese context in the very near future.

# 9.5.2 Published Coursebooks of English for Tourism in the United Kingdom

In order to conduct this review, it seems clear that the emphasis should be on modern texts. Therefore it has been decided not to investigate earlier than 1980. We consulted with the recent publishers' lists, and looked up the library titles in order to arrive at the selection of the books. According to the recent publishers' lists, besides <u>Five Star English</u> and <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u> as already analysed above, we can also locate some other relevant books on the market in the United Kingdom (see Appendix 4 for the full list of the books). The books reviewed as follows which may not be comprehensive are based on the recent publishers' lists in the field.

### English for Travel. John Eastwood. 1980. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

This book is not modern. Indeed it is out of date because it was produced in 1980 and therefore does not include interesting contemporary content. In addition, all the pictures are black-white with poor printing and without attractive pictures of well-known tourist attractions covered. Furthermore, there are many comprehension questions and no activities which challenge students to think or help them to develop learning strategies. In short, <u>English for Travel</u> is not recommended to teach English for Tourism in Taiwan.

# <u>Check In: English In Tourism</u> and <u>May I Help You: English in Tourism</u>. Christopher St. J. Yates. 1992. London: Prentice Hall

According to the author, these two books are written for people training and working as hotel and reception staff to be able to deal with a variety of tourists in English as a means of communication. The cover of each of these two books looks modern. However, the inside of the books looks out of date with only black and white drawings. In them, there are only language learning exercises in terms of asking and answering questions orally, putting a tick in the box, and filling out the

blanks. The print size is rather small, and becomes much smaller when especially presenting something, such as authentic business letters, faxes, and the information about Holiday Inn Hotels. The smaller print soon makes the eyes tired and uncomfortable. In addition, cultural content and learning strategies are not covered.

No activities challenge students to think, or to use imagination and creativity. All the whole learning exercises are rather mechanical and do not help learners to develop more appropriate learning strategies. These two books simply follow strict graded grammar syllabuses rather than the communicative approach. Learners need to memorise to learn vocabulary, to ask and answer questions.

In short, <u>Check In: English In Tourism</u> and <u>May I Help You: English in Tourism</u> simply helps learners to learn the language system, but cannot help them to use the target language more effectively and immediately. Therefore they do not meet the aims of teaching English for Tourism, and will not be suggested for use in teaching this programme in the Taiwanese context.

# <u>High Season: English for the Hotel and Tourist Industry</u>. Keith Harding and Paul Henderson. 1994. Oxford: Oxford University Press

This book is a course for people working or training in the hotel and tourist industry. A great amount of new vocabulary is introduced through authentic reading and listening texts. In addition, in each unit, there are a Language study and a Word study section to help learners to practise a considerable amount of useful and relevant grammar and vocabulary in the language learning activities. At the end of each unit, there is a Vocabulary section to list useful and relevant words and expressions covered in each unit with clear explanation. Tapescripts and a wordlist are also included at the back of the book.

There are twelve topics: types of accommodation, hotel facilities, staffing and internal organization, reservations and check-in, hotel and restaurant services,

money matters, dealing with complaints, off-site services, the business traveller, conferences, and the planning and the execution of tour operation covered in the content. The topics stated above are all relevant to the target situation of the areas of the tourism industry, especially in the specific area of the hotel.

A collection of authentic texts, such as formal letters, faxes, computerized bills, rooming lists, and excursion booking forms, which are displayed to the people working in the areas of the tourism industry, are essential to learners' needs in terms of the target situation needs. As already argued above, authentic materials relevant to the target situation are crucial for people training or working in the tourism industry.

Books reviewed above disregard the significance of cultural differences in the areas of the tourism industry. However, this book brings our attention to the significance of different cultural practices and customs by considering what the hoteliers can do to prepare to make people from different nationalities and cultures feel at home and to be able to mix with others (see pp. 104-105).

In each unit, there are a variety of listening, speaking, reading and writing activities around authentic texts designed to help the four language skills. As with the content, the learning activities or tasks reflect the target situation of the tourism industry. Thus there are various professional activities (e.g. dealing with complaints face to face or replying to a letter, planning a conference, and planning, negotiating, administrating, and marketing a new tour programme). In these activities, students are offered opportunities to apply what has been learned immediately. At the same time, they also need to learn the way in which they should behave in the tourism industry. In many ways, the book enables students to develop not only language skills, but also professional skills (e.g. interpersonal communication skills, customer care skills and telephone skills and skills in negotiating, giving presentations, organising and handling conferences).

In addition, students are often asked to express their opinions, contribute their

knowledge, and work and cooperate with others in pairs or groups. Thus this book encourages a collaborative approach and social interaction in the classroom. Teachers are given the role as facilitator rather than transmitter of knowledge. Students are not taught to use appropriate learning strategies explicitly, but are helped to develop them implicitly. However, in addition to reading activities covered in each unit, students need to read long authentic texts first in order to carry out some activites. It seems that this book puts much emphasis on reading skills.

This book is full of interesting and humorous content, for instance, a 'Tall Story' describes what problems tall people face when staying in hotels and eating in restaurants (see p. 27). This book offers a variety of real-life attractive pictures of, for instance, tourist attractions, and modern facilities in the hotels and restaurants. Thus it captures people's interest with superb visuals and authentic contexts and texts, and interesting and humorous content from a wide range of sources. This book not only looks and but also is modern and up to date. In addition to a student's book and teacher's book, a student's workbook and cassette are offered. However, the student's book does not include an answer key but this is provided in the teacher's book. It would be more convenient for students to be offered the answer key for self-study instead of placing it in the teacher's book. In the cassette, only recorded native speakers of English are included without non-native speakers of English. In addition, no video is offered. On the whole, High Season: English for the Hotel and Tourist Industry meet learner's needs and interests and match the aims of the programme. It should be recommended for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

# <u>At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry</u>. Trish Stott and Angela Buckingham. 1995. Oxford: Oxford University Press

According to the authors, this book is a beginning course for 'people training to work in hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, tourist information centres, and airports, and in any jobs where basic communicative competence in English is essential.' There are fifteen units in this book including different communicative functions in various professional activities (e.g. greeting guest, making a room reservation, answering the telephone, giving information to customers, offering to help people, understanding and dealing with tourists problems and requests, and explaining plans and itineraries to a tour group). This book often offers some suggestions such as to request information politely, give instructions politely, and answer the telephone politely. Therefore this book emphasises the crucial professional skills (e.g. interpersonal communication skills, customer care skills and telephone skills). However, cultural content is not covered in the book.

In each unit, this book introduces and gives practice in the grammatical structures and vocabulary including useful expressions by asking and answering the questions with a partner, filling in the blanks, or matching the correct answers. It is for the beginners in English for Tourism, therefore the vocabulary, expressions and grammatical structures covered are rather easy and simple. There are a vocabulary list at end of each unit. In addition to student's book, teacher's guide, workbook and class cassette are also included, though no video is covered. The complete listening scripts and a word list of core relevant vocabulary at the back of this book in English, Spanish, Portuguese, Japanese, Chinese, Thai, and Korean. It looks and is modern and up to date. There are many pictures of tourist attractions from many different countries including one from Taiwan. It is a book of interest, attractiveness and clarity.

This book focuses on the development of listening and speaking skills. Nevertheless, reading and writing skills are not neglected completely, for instance, students need to read timetables and take simple messages. This book also offers some learning tips to help learners to apply appropriate learning strategies. For instance, it suggests that students should use their imagination in carrying out an activity (see p. 22). A cooperative approach and social interaction in the classroom are encouraged. In some activities, students are required to work in pairs, to take turns, for instance, being a tourist and a tourist information officer to ask or recommend the places to visit. In addition, students are also offered games to play in groups by asking and answering simple questions (e.g asking the guest when

he/she wants to stay, asking the guest about payment and saying your address in English). There are some other activities given for learners to ask about or talk about, for instance, the time, timetables, directions, jobs, workplaces, and experiences. In general, the exercises and activities are not too challenging or too difficult for beginners.

To sum up, <u>At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry</u> considers most of the criteria of target situation and learning needs and can meet the aims of this programme. It can be recommended to teach English for Tourism for beginners in the Taiwanese context.

## <u>International Hotel English</u>. Donald Adamson and <u>International</u> <u>Restaurant English</u>. Liela Keane. 1997. London: Prentice Hall.

According to the publisher, these two books are designed especially for those training for, or working in the hotel and catering business in which it is becoming increasingly important to communicate with an international clientele effectively. In each of these two books, there is an audio cassette which includes native and non-native speakers of English to help learners to understand a variety of English accents. However, there is no teacher's book. These two books focus on the development of listening and speaking skills. Learners may be helped to improve reading and writing skills by reading some authentic texts and taking messages.

Although the language and content are relevant to jobs in hotels and restaurants, cultural content and learning strategies are not covered in these books. There are some tasks which reflect real-life situations and are rather challenging. At the same time, there are also some exercises in filling blanks and matching. In the appendices, transcripts of recordings, information gap exercises which can be extra tasks in the classroom, international dialling service, and a word list of core vocabulary in English (including American English), French, Spanish, Italian, German, and Greek are included.

Many authentic texts, such as advertisements, business letters are written in smaller print, and some of them lack clarity. They use all black-white, unclear and unattractive pictures to present types and facilities of hotels and restaurants. These dark pictures and authentic texts may tire students' eyes and also lose their interest. There are some strong points in these two books, but we still do not suggest that <u>International Hotel English</u> and <u>International Restaurant English</u> should be used as textbooks in the Taiwanese context.

## English for International Tourism. 1997. Miriam Jacob and Peter Strutt. Essex, England: Longman.

This book is a course for people training and working in the tourism industry at the upper intermediate level and above. In addition to the course book, a set of 2 cassettes, teacher's resource book, workbook and cassette are available. The cassette recordings are to help learners to understand conversations and discussions between experts in the tourism industry in British, American, Australian or other international accents. This point has been mentioned as crucial in Chapter 2 and above.

This book covers fifteen units and three scenarios which are all relevant to the target situation, such as types of holiday, customer relations, selecting locations and organising excursions. Learning activities and tasks reflect the real world in the tourism industry by taking account of various crucial professional activities (e.g. making recommendations to a tourist board, dealing with complaints, telephoning, taking bookings and filling in booking forms, giving tourists advice and suggestions on tourist attractions). Through these activities, students are helped to develop not only language skills but also essential professional skills (e.g. telephone skills, interpersonal and customer care skills, skills in giving presentations, negotiating, organising and handling a public meeting).

In fact, this book is very much 'task-based' (e.g. problem-solving activities, case studies, role plays, and project work) as described in Chapter 2. It was noted that
the problem-solving activities, case studies, and project work covered are rewarding, but very challenging or difficult. For instance, in the first task of Unit 6, following a picture in the text, students are required to work in groups to discuss these questions: e.g. what do you think a foreign tour operator wants from a hotelier? what do you think a local hotelier wants from a foreign tour operator? who is in a better position to negotiate? and what problems do you think there might be? The answers can be very different from each other. In the fourth task, students work with a partner to be research assistants for a tour operator to write a report. Although they can refer to two articles and report-writing tips, it is indeed a tough task. In the tenth task, they work in groups to re-open a hotel and decide what needs to be done. In the eleventh and twelfth tasks, they work in groups to look at a different text and negotiate an agreement, and then consult with an outline of a model to write a letter to confirm an agreement. In all these tasks, students need to use a great deal of imagination, creativity, work experience, and world knowledge in order to be able to answer.

There is an example of an outside classroom social activity in the project work as below which we have not found existing in other textbooks. For instance, in Unit 4, students have to write down a questionnaire to interview some foreign visitors to their town or city about where they have visited, why and how they traveled, where and how long they are staying and what special things they have purchased. After this interview, students compare findings with each other, and write up the findings of their survey using charts and statistics (p. 29).

The case studies of authentic situations in the scenarios are especially challenging. In these cases, students need to read long and difficult authentic texts in order to able to carry out various activities or tasks in which they need to handle a variety of roles in authentic situations in the tourism industry. This may be too challenging or difficult to encourage students to develop speaking skills. In addition, it has been found that reading and writing skills seem to play important roles in this book. There are 'authentic' letters and messages serving as models to guide the students in writing activities. The cooperative approach and social interaction in the classroom are taken into account. The students are often given opportunities to, for instance, give presentations, advice and information and contribute to their subject knowledge, geographical knowledge and world views and knowledge. In addition, they often need to work with a partner or in groups to discuss various relevant and valuable topics.

The book offers a variety of learning tips explicitly to help learners to enhance their learning strategies. In addition, it provides a few valuable suggestions to guide students in writing a CV and finding a job in tourism. It also aids learners to develop vocabulary, grammar and good pronunciation and learn the content relevant to the tourism industry. In addition, it looks and is modern and up to date. It captures people's interest with superb pictures of tourist attractions from different countries and contemporary authentic texts. Nevertheless, cultural content is not included.

On the whole, <u>English for International Tourism</u> is concerned with both target situation needs and learning needs and meets the aims of this programme. It should be recommended for use by learners at an advanced level in learning English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

# <u>Professional Reading Skills: Tourism</u>. 1998. Neil McBurney. London: Prentice Hall.

This book focuses on reading skills which are not the major skills in this programme. It does not have good print quality. Smaller print is used in some texts which is very uncomfortable for the eyes. In addition, all the learning activities are simply answering questions. Comprehension questions are taken too much into account. No activities are given in which students contribute their views and work experience. Social interaction and a cooperative approach are not considered. It includes only an audio cassette, without a covering a teacher's book and student's workbook. Although this book is a brand new edition, it is very old fashioned. In short, this book is not suggested for use in teaching English for Tourism in Taiwan.

## <u>Welcome! English for the travel and tourism industry</u>. 1998. Leo Jones. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This book is an intermediate level course for people training and working in the tourism industry and wishing to use English in their work. In addition to a student's book and teacher's book, a student's book audio cassette set and student's book audio CD set are available. Many different voices speaking at their natual speed are covered in the recordings to help learners to understand different accents of English. This has been pointed out to be important in Chapter 2 and above.

There are fifty lessons in this book which includes a broad range of different jobs and situations in the travel and tourism industries, such as hotels, restaurants, cafes and bars, travel agencies, tour operators, information offices, airlines, cruise liners and ferries, rail and road transport, and leisure facilities. At the end of some lessons, there is a highlighting note to offer some crucial skills and techniques and some suggestions. For instance, in Lessons 1, 2, and 4, welcoming and sincere smile, a friendly greeting, good eye contact are advised as being very important for building a favorable first impression and a good relationship, and for making customers feel comfortable. In Lesson 11, smile rather than try to be funny and not to make jokes when using the phone. In Lesson 42, it is recommended that 'the customer is always right'. Therefore it is usually best to 'apologise and offer to take action' when dealing with complaints. These notes are essential for establishing good customer care and interpersonal communication skills and telephone skills. They have been pointed out to be crucial in Chapter 2.

In addition, this book is also concerned with cultural differences (see Lesson 3). This lesson deals with such issues as how visitors should be sensitive to the different customs of the place they are visiting and should 'when in Rome, do as the Romans do'. It also offers the suggestion that people in the tourism industry should treat each foreign client as an individual and should not stereotype him or her because this person comes from a particular country. Moreover, people with different cultures or customs have different views of formality and informality.

Therefore it is also considered better not to treat a foreign client too informally unless you know the person very well. These cultural issues, which are essential for developing interpersonal communication across cultures and avoiding unnecessay misunderstanding, are considered in this book. In Lessons 9 and 10, it also provides world maps and flags to strengthen learners' geographical knowledge, and teach them new names of many different countries.

All the learning exercises and activities, including vocabulary exercises and grammar, also reflect the target situation of workplace. Students are often required to work in pairs and in groups to role play or to discuss relevant questions. During role playing, another student is the observer who is supposed to give feedback to the speakers, for instance, commenting on how they sound on the phone (see p. 29). In addition, the book frequently suggest making sure to sound as friendly, helpful, polite as possible (pp. 15, 31, 41). Thus this book gives much attention not only to language skills but also to the importance of professional skills (e.g. interpersonal communication relations and skills, telephone skills and customer care skills).

This book offers some, though not many, learning tips. For instance, in the section on listening, it indicates that 'you do not need to understand every word people say, only the main point they make' (p. 8). In addition, it also considers a collaborative relationship and social interaction. The learners are offered opportunities to contribute, for instance, their own work experiences, subject, geographical, historical and world knowledge. This coursebook emphasises speaking and listening skills without neglecting reading and writing skills. For instance, students are required to write about 50 words about the work they do or will do, and look at the authentic texts, such as advertisements, in order to discuss some questions further (see p. 9).

This book looks modern and is up to date. It offers different attractive and interesting pictures to present the target situation. It has good quality print in terms of clarity. To sum up, <u>Welcome! English for the travel and tourism industry</u> is

interesting, challenging, and relevant and should be highly recommend for teaching English for Tourism.

## <u>Going International: English for Tourism</u>. Keith Harding. 1998. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

This book is designed for people training and working in the tourism industry at upper-intermediate level. In addition to a student's book and workbook, a teacher's resource book and audio cassette are also included. There are twelve units in the book which cover different topics and situations that students will face in their jobs in the tourism industry, such as the organisation and structure of tourism, travel agents, tour operation, tourist information, guiding, promotion and marketing, and developments in tourism. There are three sections in each of the twelve units. Each section is also divided into some sub-sections, for instance, listening, speaking, vocabulary (also a vocabulary list at the end of each unit), language focus (on key grammar and functional language), pronunciation focus and output task or activity.

A wide range of reading and listening authentic texts (e.g interviews with industry professionals, articles, brochures, maps, memos, phone messages, letters, faxes, and guidebooks) help to develop and reinforce language skills, vocabulary and specialist knowledge. At the same time, the book also offers some interesting and relevant articles, for instance, about 'the Art of Successful Negotiation' to help to promote negotiation techniques (see pp. 47-48) and 'How to be a Good Guide' to give advice on knowledge, skills and roles which tour guides are required to have in order to do a good job (p. 138). Listening, speaking and reading skills are the three major skills in this book.

The collaborative approach and social interaction are encouraged in this book. Students are often required to take turns to play the roles of customers and people working in the tourism industry. They are also allowed to work in groups to carry out some tasks relevant to various professional activities (e.g. telephone conversations, designing a cruise trip, finding out about prices and facilities, and negotiating with a hotel). These activities help them to develop not only language skills but also professional skills (e.g. interpersonal communication and customercare skills and relations, telephone skills, negotiation skills and selling skills). In addition, these activities also challenge them to think. They need to use much imagination and creativity or develop learning strategies in order to perform these tasks.

A wide variety of pictures of well-known tourist attractions covered capture students' interest and enable them to satisfy customers' enquiries about where to visit. In addition, world maps included help them to make or reply to enquiries about travelling, and reinforce their geographical knowledge. In addition, this book also contains the cultural content relevant to different ways of behaving in different countries and cultures, international etiquette and how to be a good tourist. At the same time, it looks modern and indeed is up to date, has good quality of clear print.

In short, <u>Going International: English for Tourism</u> is interesting, valuable and relevant. It corresponds to target situation needs and learning needs, and anwers the aims of this programme. It should be highly recommended for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

To sum up, among the books reviewed above, there are six books altogether chosen to teach English for Tourism for the Taiwanese context:

- 1. First Class: English for Tourism
- 2. High Season: English for the Hotel and Tourist Industry
- 3. At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry
- 4. English for International Tourism
- 5. Welcome! English for the travel and tourism industry
- 6. Going International: English for Tourism.

In these selected books, language and content are integrated and relevant to the target situation. Content of the texts is not highly specialised. However, except for <u>English for International Tourism</u>, general English teachers do not have difficulty to

use these books for teaching English for Tourism. Authentic texts (e.g. business letters, faxes, message notes, or reservation forms) used in the real world of tourism industry are offered. Nevertheless, cultural content, students' country or culture, and learning strategies which are crucial, are not included in the content in most of them (see the discussion in Chapters 2, 8 and 9).

In methodology, these books adopt the communicative approach. Pair work and group work, social interaction, a cooperative approach, imagination and creativity are taken into much account. In addition, social interactive or communicative activities or tasks (e.g. role play, discussions, giving presentations, negotiating, or case studies) relevant to the target situation and reflecting professional activities are considered to help learners to develop not only language skills, but also professional skills, learning strategies and confidence. In addition, language learning activities or explicit explanations of structures are included to enable learners to be more familar with the language system. Thus relevant grammatical rules are learned both deductively and inductively.

In the learning process, learners play as thinkers, presenters, negotiators, and receivers whilst teachers are not transmitters of knowledge but facilitators. Nevertheless, outside classroom social activities, which are essential for learners of English for Tourism, are almost completely forgotten (see Chapters 2 and 8). As already stated in Chapter 2, many ESP writers argue for a task-based approach for teaching ESP. However, we have found that these books reviewed above take a rather different line from this view.

In specification, all the books selected look and are modern and up to date with clear print. They capture students interest with superb visuals, especially with wellknown tourist attractions. Teacher's books and cassettes are available in addition to student's books. In the appendices of the student's books, some important information, especially a word list of core relevant vocabulary is also provided.

We have selected only six books. As mentioned earlier, we may need at least ten

textbooks for teaching a two-semester five-year junior college. It seems insufficient for Taiwanese teaching situations. As we found, no books are perfect, even the selected books still have more or less weaknesses. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 96) indicate, 'there is no absolute good or bad -- only degrees of fitness for the required purpose'. How can ESP teachers in the Taiwanese context deal with imperfect textbooks? All the issues raised from the analysis of textbooks need to be carefully considered in Chapter 10.

#### 9.6 Summary

This chapter is concerned with a desk-based study of textbooks. It has been pointed out that certain crucial issues need to be taken into account when choosing the textbooks: whether the language and content match learners' needs or not has to be considered. The significance of methodology for stimulating social and cognitive rather than mechanical processes is essential. On that account, it is important to remember that comprehension questions are insufficient for learners to enhance learning. Learning activities and tasks which are challenging, interesting, and encourage communication and creativity are required to be considered. Authentic materials and task-based approaches reflecting or relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry are indispensable. L1 may need to be avoided in ESP teaching materials and instructions.

This chapter has established a list of criteria for reviewing not only the published textbooks already used in Taiwan for teaching English for Tourism but also those relevant books currently published in the United Kingdom. After the analysis of these textbooks, six books have been suggested as appropriate to be selected for teaching this area in the Taiwanese context. Meantime, it has been noted that no book is perfect.

Some qualifications should be added to the textbook evaluation. The textbook does not always make clear whether work experience is assumed. This, however, is important in considering the suitability. Moreover, the emphasis here on good presentation still recognises that many authentic texts and authentic travel documents are not visually pleasing. As argued above, the use authentic materials should be regarded as essential in English for Tourism teaching and learning. Students have to study these as well.

Against this background, the implications for the teaching and learning of this area in the Taiwanese context demand to be examined. Therefore, there are two reasons for looking at these textbooks. One reason is to decide which books are appropriate for teaching this area in the Taiwanese setting. The other reason is to see how the principles of approach to teaching English for Tourism are included in the textbooks, how far they are in touch with and justify modern perspectives. Chapter 10 will further explore these issues in consideration of the vision of the future in teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

#### Chapter 10

# Vision of the Future: on the Future of English for Tourism in Taiwan

#### **10.1 Introduction**

Chapter 1 was concerned with the need for improvement of English language teaching in Taiwan, bringing a modern perspective to the traditional Confucian education background. Against this background the work has been undertaken. In Chapter 2, we have explored the features of English for Tourism and proposed the aims for teaching this area. We have further posited that the communicative approach and learning strategies are closely linked to the effectiveness of ESP teaching. These have been discussed in Chapters 3 and 4 respectively. In Chapter 5, research methodology indicated that a qualitative approach has been considered by using two research methods, participant observation and semi-structured interview, in the empirical research for exploring learning strategies. The data of observation and interview have been described in Chapters 6 and 7 respectively. In Chapter 8, we have analysed the empirical data, discussed the issues raised, and suggested a combination model of the notional-functional and task-based approaches effective English for Tourism teaching in the Taiwanese context.

In Chapter 9, we have evaluated the textbooks which have been used in Taiwan and some other relevant ones currently published in the United Kingdom. The textbook analysis is mainly directed by the criteria established by the preceding discussion of the theories and the data with Taiwanese students in mind, together with some questions from other ESP textbook evaluations, especially from Cunningsworth (1995) and Nesi (1998). After the evaluation, six published books have been considered suitable to be selected for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context in the near future. However, no books are found flawless, even the selected ones. The issues raised from the results of the textbook evaluation in Chapter 9 need to be discussed in more detail in this chapter, in consideration of the implications of the pedagogy of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. Meanwhile, it is imperative to discuss further the principles of approach for guiding the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context, drawn from the theories and the data in the preceding chapters.

This chapter will commence with the implications for the pedagogy of English for Tourism. Secondly, the principles of approach to English for Tourism will be considered. Following that, further research will be recommended.

#### **10.2 Implications for Pedagogy of English for Tourism**

As already stated, even the selected textbooks still have some weaknesses. How can teachers of English for Tourism in Taiwan deal with them? As Dudley-Evans and St John 1998) indicate:

- 1. select appropriately from what is available;
- 2. be creative with what is available;
- 3. modify activities to suit learners' needs; and
- 4. supplement by providing extra activities (and extra input).

(ibid: 173)

Some issues raised from the textbook evaluation will be discussed further below. When we discuss these issues, we should keep Taiwanese students or traditional classroom situations in mind.

#### **10.2.1 Providing Extra Input and Activities**

Up to now, audio but no video cassettes have been included in the published textbooks. In the empirical research, we have seen that with the help of video cassettes which reflect the target situation of the tourism industry, students can observe, for instance, how people in the industry deal with customers' complaints, especially with the difficult customers, how they greet customers with friendly smiles and good eye contact, how they handle the conversations politely face to face or through the telephone, how they negotiate with people, how they take reservations and how they work and cooperate with other staff. After watching video cassettes, students were asked to offer their feedback and share their ideas in the discussion relevant to this area (see Chapters 6). This seems to be an effective way to help them to learn not only the language skills, but also a variety of professional skills (e.g. interpersonal communication skills, customer care skills, and negotiation skills) which are considered crucial for people in the tourism industry (see Chapter 2). Professional skills, especially nonverbal professional skills (e.g good eye contact, friendly smiles) may be difficult to present in the paperbased materials, but more easily shown through video cassettes. It is a mistake to fail to include video cassettes relevant to the real world of the tourism industry in the materials or in the course.

It is crucial for ESP teachers to look for video cassettes, CD roms and internet for extra input. The teacher in the empirical research tried hard to get video cassettes appropriate for teaching English for Tourism, and eventually got them from several places, such as the English Tourist Board, Tourism exhibitions, Disneyland, and the BBC.

In addition, the teacher often provided her students with realia (the real thing or 'authentic material' that she obtained from, for instance, a British Information Centre or travel agency, such as airline time-tables and holiday brochures). After the students got the realia, they were asked to, for example, plan a trip for parents with two children. Students had to decide when these clients would go, how long they would visit different places and how much that journey would cost them. The incorporation of extra input and activities into the course was already suggested by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998), as mentioned above.

#### **10.2.2 Taking Advantage of Social Context Outside the Classroom**

All the textbooks selected adopt the communicative approach and are concerned with social interaction and the cooperative approach in the classroom which are essential for this programme. As stated in Chapter 2, work in the tourism industry is team work. Thus cooperation and social interaction with other people for the development of interpersonal relationships and communcation are especially important for students who are trained to work in the field of the tourism industry and should be emphasised in the classroom.

Nevertheless, taking part in social activities outside the classroom is forgotten by most of the books reviewed. In the interview data in Chapter 7, we found that all the students reported that they were not really learning the language until they started to make friends outside the classroom. They also agreed that visiting workplaces is a meaningful activity.

Social contacts outside the classroom should be especially emphasised. Teachers can discuss with their students how they can initiate the use of L2 by taking advantage of social contacts outside the classroom. In addition, students are assigned to interview tourists from abroad, or visit English-speaking families in Taiwan. They are also encouraged to make friends with people from other countries living in Taiwan and attend some international clubs, such as Toastmasters' International Club, International Women's Club, and Studio Classroom (see Chapter 8).

#### 10.2.3 Local Input

So far, we have found that there is only one short article about 'The hotel industry in Taiwan' with three pictures from Taiwan in <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u> (p. 58). There is also a recording of a Taiwanese tour company representative meeting a tour group along with a picture of Taiwan in the 'Listen and Practice' section in <u>At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry</u> (p. 5). In other words, we can find no more important mention of Taiwan in any of the published textbooks already reviewed. Students learn and know about a broad variety of well-known tourist attractions which are almost all from abroad. Without doubt students would love to see the famous tourist attractions in other countries. Nevertheless, the tourists from abroad visiting Taiwan would appreciate the local tourist attractions. Therefore students need to learn and know about the tourist attractions and other interesting things which have been provided in Taiwan and how they introduce them. As Kuo (1993: 172-173) suggests, 'it is essential, however, that there be room for local input. In other words, the published texts, activities, and tasks should be capable of accommodating any social or cultural learning context.' It is a deficiency that local input or information is missing in the textbooks or in the course.

What local information should be included and how should we introduce it? <u>Going International: English for Tourism</u> offers several valuable categories in the question 'why tourists visit this area?' in the Activity section, in terms of history, culture and religion, sport/leisure activities, typical entertainments, climate, and landscape (p. 17). In the empirical research, the teacher often suggested that we need to give customers or tourists information in a lively and interesting way. According to her part-time work experience as a tour guide, she found that the tourists from abroad visiting the United Kingdom were interested in British history, culture, architecture, poets and the royal family. Jenny Townsend (in Harding 1998) writes about 'How to be a Good Guide', in <u>Going International: English for Tourism</u>. She indicates that tour guides need to have a good sound knowledge of particular places the tourists are visiting, and of other things, such as architecture, history and local customs. She also suggests that 'a guide's commentary should be interesting, lively and above all, enthusiastic. In shouldn't be too academic and 'heavy', but neither should it be frivolous' (p. 138).

As mentioned earlier, the teacher in this empirical research also offered some information or maps to enrich some geographical knowledge. The staff at British Tourist Information Centre and Davidson (1993) also mentioned that it is important

for people in the tourism industry to know where places are, epecially in their country and in their local district (see Chapters 2 and 8). Therefore some information relevant to Taiwan in terms of history, local customs, religion, sport/leisure activities, typical entertainments, climate, landscape, architecture, and geography should be taken into account when we supply local input. In addition, student-contributed content should be also included (see Chapter 8).

#### **10.2.4 Cultural Content**

Only <u>Going International: English for Tourism</u>, <u>Welcome! English for the Travel and</u> <u>Tourism Industry</u> and <u>High Season: English for the Hotel and Tourist Industry</u> take cultural content into account. These three books suggest that it is important to understand different cultural practices and customs in terms of formality and informality, and to explain different ways of behaving or living so as to make customers feel at home, or enable them to 'when in Rome, do as the Romans do' and avoid unnecessary problems and even offending local people when travelling.

In the empirical research, we also found that European students misunderstood their Asian customers while they were working because of different cultural interpretation of eye contact (see Chapter 6). Therefore, it is important for people working in the tourism industry to be able to read their customers' body language better. As already argued in Chapters 2 and 8, the importance of cultural content should be included in the course to enable students to become sensitive to the different cultures and values of customers from abroad. It is therefore wrong to neglect the cultural content in the textbooks or in the course.

What cultural content do we teach in the course? Some information, as mentioned above, about different cultural customs in terms of formality and informality, different ways of behaving or living, or body language across cultures is crucial in the course. It may also cover some knowledge about cultural differences in, for example, food, dress, leisure, sports, habits, values, beliefs, art, and political systems (see Chapter 8 or Tomalin and Stempleski 1993).

#### **10.2.5 Learning Strategies**

All the books selected help learners to develop learning strategies implicitly. However, only <u>English for International Tourism</u>, and <u>Welcome! English for the</u> <u>Travel and Tourism Industry</u> offer some learning tips to help learners to develop learning strategies explicitly. As we have found, in the empirical research, without direct teaching of learning strategies, the students simply by being put in a social setting, were forced to struggle to discover and develop new learning strategies. As stated in Chapter 4, the literature indicates that direct teaching of learning strategies is useful and helpful. Thus Chapter 8 argues that it would be more effective to offer explicit teaching of learning strategies, especially to adult learners. Allright (1981) likewise suggests including learning strategies in the content of learning materials (see Chapter 9). Therefore it seems indispensable to include learning strategies in the materials or in the course.

How can learning strategies be covered in the materials or in the course? In addition to aiding learners to develop learning strategies unconsciously or implicitly, it is also necessary to promote their learning strategies consciously or explicitly (see Chapters 4 and 8). For instance, teachers can consult or instruct students directly by letting them know that it is important for them not only to use memory to learn the target language, but also to ask each other for help, share their notes, ideas, and work experience, and cooperate with each other. Sometimes they can also encourage their students to use imagination and creativity to carry out some challenging learning tasks and guess the meanings from the key words rather than try to memorise and understand every word in listening and reading texts (see Chapter 8).

In addition, it is imperative that learning tips or learning strategies are provided from time to time in the materials or in the course. At the same time, a list of all good learning strategies in the appendix of the textbooks or in the teacher's handouts would be very helpful. As mentioned earlier, in the Taiwanese educational system, learning strategies are not developed either implicitly or explicitly. Most students simply use memory in learning. It is vital for the Taiwanese situation that learning strategies are covered in the textbooks both implicitly and explicitly. In addition, teachers should teach learning strategies directly and organise the classroom to become social settings to help to promote students' learning strategies consciously and unconsciously. Meanwhile, students become aware of the insufficiency of memory, and want to develop more appropriate and more effective learning strategies. Therefore it would be very significant for learning in the Taiwanese situations to help students to use more appropriate learning strategies both consciously and unconsciously.

#### **10.2.6 Professional Skills**

We found that 'Negotiation Techniques' are the only professional skills offered in <u>Going International: English for Tourism</u>. In addition, <u>Welcome! English for</u> <u>International Tourism</u> offers some highlighting notes for improving certain professional skills, such as telephone skills, customer care and interpersonal communciation skills. Other books do not include professional skills explicitly at all. Therefore, without explicit instruction, students have to learn and develop all sorts of professional skills and techniques by carrying out various professional activities and tasks.

It would be better if textbooks could cover various professional skills explicitly. Thus students could learn these skills through instruction first, and then polish them by carrying out professional activities. In the empirical research, we saw that the teacher put special emphasis on customer care skills. If we can get the customer care skills right from the beginning, then we have a good basis to work on. Language skills go with that--please, thank you, good eye contact, welcoming, friendly and sincere smiles.

#### **10.2.7 Task-based Approach V Notional-Functional Approach**

Chapter 2 showed that most ESP writers argued for a task-based approach for teaching ESP. However, we have found that in the books reviewed, not all lessons or units take the task-based approach from the beginning to the end, but most of them adopt a combination of the notional-functional and task-based approaches. At the lower level, the approach is more notional-functional, less task-based. On the contrary, at the higher level, there is a more task-based, less notional-functional approach. For instance, At Your Service: English for Travel and Tourist Industry and First Class: English for Tourism are prepared for beginners or for a low level. It takes a much more notional-functional approach in the early sections to help beginners to learn more easily the relevant language and content. Then in the final section, there are learning activities, so that learners can practise and apply what has been learned immediately. This seems to be consistent with what has been argued in Chapter 8 that a combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches is essential for effective ESP teaching and learning in the Taiwanese context. According to the researcher's teaching experience in Taiwan, students, especially new students, need to learn the useful and relevant language and content first so that they have the confidence to take part in the learning activities or tasks.

However, in English for International Tourism, we find a much more task-based approach. In this book, students need to make considerable use of not only imagination and creativity but also all sorts of areas of work experience in the tourism industry, and subject and world knowledge, in order to carry out difficult or complex tasks such as case studies or project work. In some tasks, students are not offered the useful and relevant language first. If students do not have some work experience in the tourism industry, they may encounter difficulties in carrying out these tasks. In addition, reading and writing skills are also emphasised. Compared to other books, English for International Tourism is much more challenging and more difficult. ESP teachers may encounter some difficulty in using this book, unless they take advantage of their students' work experience. Thus this

book is suggested for students at advanced level who already have some work experience in the tourism industry.

We can illustrate this by the line below, going from the lowest to highest level which we have found that the published textbooks more or less follow:

Low Level	Н	ıh Level	
<		>	
Notional-functional syllabuses	+	Task-based approach	

Here we need to keep in mind that once students at the low level progress, we can add some more creative activities or tasks in the notional-functional approach. Meanwhile, if we find some tasks or activities are too difficult for some other students at the higher level, we may need to modify them to make them easier or supply some explanations of useful structures, vocabulary and expressions.

#### **10.2.8 Intensive Coursebooks for Longer Semester Course**

There are six books we have selected. As mentioned in Chapter 9, we may need at least ten textbooks for teaching a two-semester five-year junior college. However, the intensive coursebooks could be used over a longer, less intensive course. For instance, <u>English for International Tourism</u> provides rich information in the content and various challenging tasks which means we need to take a longer time to finish this book. Therefore it can be used for a two-semester course rather than a one-semester course. If we arrange in order the six books we have selected for the Tourism Department in the five-year curriculum at a junior college in Taiwan, we can decide that a more notional-functional approach is for learners at the beginning level and a more task-based approach for learners at the advanced level.

(1) Year 1

a. At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry

b. First Class: English for Tourism

(2) Year 2

High Season: English for the Hotel and Tourist Industry
(3) Year 3
Welcome! English for the Travel and Tourism Industry
(4) Year 4
Going International: English for Tourism
(5) Year 5
English for International Tourism

If Junior College is upgraded to four-year college, then:

(1) Year 1

a. At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry

b. First Class: English for Tourism

(2) Year 2

a. High Season: English for the Hotel and Tourist Industry

b. Welcome! English for the Travel and Tourism Industry

(3) Year 3

Going International: English for Tourism

(4) Year 4

English for International Tourism

To sum up, extra input and activities relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry, social context outside the classroom, local input, cultural content, learning strategies and professional skills are suggested to be included in the textbooks. In addition, a combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches is vital to help Taiwanese students to get used to the ESP communicative context. The combination model which is flexible can be adjusted and modified according to the levels of students. Furthermore, intensive coursebooks can be used for longer, less intensive courses for meeting the Taiwanese situation.

#### **10.3 Principles of Approach**

We have already looked at ESP learners' learning strategies in the empirical research and examined the textbooks for teaching English for Tourism. Exploring these two enquiries allows us to reiterate some of the essential principles of approach for teaching and learning English for Tourism, which have been discussed in the preceding chapters. It is worth underlining these principles to guide the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context.

#### **10.3.1** Consideration of Individual Differences and Learning Demands

From the case of Catherine in the empirical research, we learned that if challenges and difficulties in the learning process are too much beyond learners, they may inevitably feel anxiety and lose confidence, motivation and morale. Meanwhile, the comparison between Sara and Keiko indicated that students may not develop learning strategies in different ways, but they may progress at very varied rates (see Chapter 6). In addition, learners may differ, for instance, in their needs, interests, language proficiency levels, beliefs in language learning, socio-cultural backgrounds, work experiences and education histories. As Candlin (1987) argues:

To this differentiation should be added our practical experience as teachers (and learners) of those conditions which enhance rather than inhibit learning,... If we believe that we cannot expect each learner to learn in the same way the same things at the same rate

(ibid: 7)

Thus it is important for teachers to become aware of individual differences and allow learners to progress at their own pace. In addition, it is crucial for teachers to observe and become aware of individual differences and be conscious of their needs in the learning process. They can then give some learners who encounter more difficulties or make slower progress more immediate support and encouragement to help to develop their learning strategies, and enhance their selfconfidence and motivation.

#### **10.3.2 The Combination Model**

No single method and syllabus is sufficient to meet all needs of ESP learners. Therefore the combination of notional and functional and task-based approaches have been argued to be essential for effective English for Tourism syllabuses and methodologies in the Taiwanese context. In addition, this combination model has also been found in the design of textbooks of English for Tourism. According to the textbooks, whether we decide to arrange a more notional-functional approach or a more task-based approach in the combination model depends on the students' factors, especially their language levels. That is, the combination model can be variable and flexible in consideration of varied students' needs in different conditions and situations in their learning processes.

Here we may also suggest that notions and functions of language integrating with content are learned first and then relevant tasks or activities for social interaction follow. In so doing, comprehension is only one step earlier than production, and interaction. Thus comprehension, production and interaction are closely linked together (see Chapter 6).

#### **10.3.3 Attention to Fluency and Effective Communication**

It is essential for L2 learners to be familiar with the language system. This is the case for Taiwanese English learners (see Chapter 1). Therefore language learning activities should not be neglected. Nevertheless, grammar should be learned not only deductively but also inductively. Students should not only aim at grammatical competence but also at discourse competence at the same time. Thus, they should work with language at the discourse level to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve fluency with the help of strategic competence, then move forward to accuracy (see Chapter 3).

To do this is to support the argument as stated in Chapter 2, that priority should be given to effective communication and fluency in ESP teaching and learning. Here

we also need to suggest that language must be closely linked with content relevant to the tasks and activities which reflect the target situation of the tourism industry rather than taught as a separate entity (see Chapters 2, 8 and 9).

In order to help learners to develop language fluency more effectively, L2 should be used by both teachers and students during the whole duration of the course. In addition, the use of L2 for communication rather than the multiple choice questions on correct grammar should be stressed in the examinations. Furthermore, in addition to English for Tourism, the other English courses, the general English course and the conversation course should all adopt a communicative approach. In short, fluency and effective communication should be emphasised in any English courses for learners in the Tourism Department at a junior college or college from the very beginning.

#### **10.3.4 Special Emphasis on the Importance of Learning Strategies**

The central argument of this thesis takes account of not only what ESP students are learning but also how they are learning. We have shown that it is essential for students to develop learning strategies in the ESP communicative classroom. Thus it has been suggested in Chapters 4, 8, and 9 that direct teaching of learning strategies should be included in the course, and in the content of materials. The list of learning strategies may be included in the appendix of materials or in the teacher's handouts, as suggested above in this chapter. In addition, we may also ask students to monitor or evaluate the strategies they develop or use, as suggested by Graham (1997). Furthermore, students may need to reflect on their beliefs about their target language learning. Thus learners may become aware of the wrong assumptions about how to learn a language and then they can decide to change or break wrong assumptions (see Chapter 4).

Above all, it has been noted that social strategies are especially significant for the improvement of learners' language fluency (see Chapter 8). Therefore ESP teachers should take these strategies into consideration when they are organising the

activities. They may also discuss or consult with their students how they reinforce these strategies. In so doing, they may help learners to develop their learning strategies consciously and unconsciously.

#### **10.3.5 Taking Account of Target Situation Needs**

It has been argued that target situation needs should be taken into account (see Chapter 2) and that authentic materials are also essential (see Chapter 9). Therefore it can be crucial to develop a variety of activities around authentic texts from a variety of sources, for instance, interviews with experts and people working in the tourism industry, and key job-related situations. At the same time, it is vital that British, American, Australian and other international accents are available in authentic listening materials to help learners to understand a variety of English. In addition, it is imperative to learn how to write business letters or fill out the forms from the samples of authentic materials, such as, formal letters, faxes, computerised bills, reservation forms and rooming lists (see Chapter 9).

In fact, varied tasks and activities in different areas of professional situations are essential to allow students to develop not only language skills but also professional skills (e.g. customer-care skills, interpersonal communication skills, presentation skills, skills in negotiation, organising and handling conferences) (see Chapter 9). As argued in Chapter 2, listening and speaking skills are the most important in the tourism industry. For the target situation needs, special attention should be paid to the activities emphasising these two skills. At the same time, in practising these activities, students need to be prepared and become more aware of social roles between the customers and business operators in communication and in social behaviour (see Chapter 3). Learners quite often need to be equipped to develop attentive listening and polite speech in the service industry (see Chapter 2).

In brief, if we take account of target situation needs, students will be more familar with the target situation of the tourism industry and have more confidence in getting a job. At the same time, it is vital that the programme of English for Tourism should be closely linked with the target situation of the tourism industry.

#### **10.3.6 Attention to Varied and Variable Learning Activities**

There are many learning activities or tasks designed for English for Tourism, such as role-playing, discussions, project work, case studies, filling out reservation forms, writing business letters and listening to interviews with experts and people working in the tourism industry (see Chapter 9). At the same time, if necessary, learning activities should be flexible, as stated above. In addition, they should be graded according to difficulty or complexity (see Chapter 8). For instance, case studies and project work may be too difficult for ESP beginners. These two tasks or activities should be arranged for students at higher levels as suggested above.

Role-playing is the activity most frequently found in relevant books and in the empirical research. Role playing permits learners to improve not only listening and speaking skills, but also to develop professional skills (e.g. customer care skills, telephone skills, interpersonal and communication skills). This is consistent with what Wilkins (1976: 78) has suggested that 'the interactional nature of much communication will lead us to emphasise the place of role-playing'. Thus role-playing needs to be seen as one of the most important activities in the course.

As already stated, social strategies and social interaction are significant. Therefore various learning activities should also be directed to emphasise dynamic social interaction. At the same time, these activities should seek to challenge students to think, employ imagination and creativity in the use of L2, help them to enhance learning strategies, motivation, self-confidence, language skills and professional skills.

It should be kept in mind that language learning activities which help learners to be familiar with relevant and useful language (grammar, vocabulary, expressions and terminology) should not be neglected. At the same time, language, content and activities should be closely linked together to be relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry.

#### 10.3.7 Focus on Social Contexts Within and Outside the Classroom

In this thesis, much attention is paid to the significance of social strategies, interaction and contexts both within and outside the classroom. In the social context, the classroom should be student-centred rather than teacher-centred. Students are allowed to share their experiences, cooperate with teachers and their peers, express their own views, interpret knowledge in the field, discuss some relevant questions, develop learning strategies, especially social strategies, enhance interpersonal relations and communication skills, negotiation skills, and, of course, language skills as well. At the same time, the desks and chairs are arranged so that learners face each other, allowing them to work in pairs or in groups. Students need to take more responsibility and initiative for their learning both within and outside the classroom (see Chapters 6, 7 and 8).

Their contribution to their knowledge and their views expressed in the class should be valued and encouraged (Chapter 6). Furthermore, as mentioned above, fluency and effective communication are emphasised. Therefore, errors are tolerated in the learning process. The learning takes place in 'a non-judgemental atmosphere' as Cunningsworth (1995: 99) suggests.

Students can also be motivated or assigned to have social interaction outside the classroom, for instance, have interviews with English-speaking people or tourists from abroad or attend some international clubs, such as Toastmasters International Club as mentioned in Chapter 8 and above. They can bring back to the classroom what they have learned and gained from the social interaction outside classroom activities.

#### **10.3.8 Importance of Including Cultural Content**

It has been argued in Chapter 2 that the subject matter in the textbooks is insufficient for learners for intercultural communication. Thus it is essential to include cultural content in the textbooks to enhance learners' cross-cultural awareness and enable them to be sensitive to their customers' values and cultures, or read their body language. At the same time, interesting, valuable and relevant topics should be included in the content of English for Tourism.

In addition, it has been argued in Chapter 8 and above that cultural content should include not only other cultures but also the students' country and culture (or local input). Thus students not only become aware of cultural differences but also raise their own social-cultural awareness and sense of self-identity. At the same time, they are more able to introduce their own countries to the customers from abroad (see Chapters 8, 9 and 10).

Geography and history, which are important for people working in the Tourism industry, are included in the categories of cultural content as stated above. Therefore when reinforcing cultural content, students should also be allowed to bring their world knowledge, especially their geographical or historical knowledge, to the classroom and share it with their peers.

In summary, the principles of approach are concerned with not only pedagogy but also learning processes. In the learning processes, we need to give attention to the importance of individual differences and learning demands. The development of learning strategies is so significant that it should be included not only in learning activities but also in the content. Meantime, a flexible combination model of approaches is taken into account to fit the needs of learners. In addition, varied and variable learning activities are suggested to challenge students to think and act, to help them to enhance learning strategies, motivation, self-confidence, and language skills. In addition, it is recommended that grammar should be learned both deductively and inductively. Meanwhile, effective communication and fluency is the main goal of this programme. The value of social contexts within and outside the classroom and social strategies should be emphasised for focusing on effective communication and fluency, providing an enjoyable atmosphere for learning, working with peers and in a cooperative approach, and taking responsibility for their own learning.

Not only learning needs, but also target situation needs are taken into account. Thus activities, language and content are closely linked together to be relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry to help learners to improve professional skills and be familiar with the contexts of the tourism industry. At the same time, content should include not only relevant, but also interesting and valuable topics. In order to raise cross-cultural awareness, develop students' self-identity and know more about their own country and culture, cultural content including the target cultures and local cultures should be considered.

#### **10.4 Suggestions for Further Research**

In Chapter 2, we have analysed target situation needs only by studying the literature relevant to the target situation of the tourism industry including Business English or the tourism education and training. It would be useful to conduct empirical research by observations and interviews with people in the workplace in order to study target situation needs in the Taiwanese context.

We have done an empirical research to look at the learning needs of overseas students' (e.g Japanese students, Italian students and Spanish students) in the British setting, and some findings have emerged from this. It would be interesting to see what will be found from a study of students' strategies in the communicative approach in the Taiwanese context.

Textbooks mainly deal with the activities in the classroom, but do not really take account of those outside the classroom. However, we have already obtained good evidence in the British context that learners in the empirical study learned a lot from being involved in the activities outside the classroom. It would be meaningful to explore whether Taiwanese students learn from being engaged in the activities outside the classroom such as Toastmasters' International Club, Studio Classroom, and interviewing tourists from abroad.

We have suggested that up to date textbooks, more work outside the classroom, inductive and deductive grammar learning, a flexible combination model of notional-functional and task-based approaches would be more appropriate to all the students in the Taiwanese context. It would be informative to have other researchers do a classroom evaluation of the new approach.

#### **10.5 Summary and Concluding Remarks**

In this concluding chapter we have discussed the implications of the desk-based study of textbooks for pedagogy for the Taiwanese context taking account of learners' needs. Meanwhile, based on the discussion of the theories and the data in preceding chapters, we have further provided some principles of approach which may guide the teaching and learning of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. These principles of approach provide help for learners to become motivated, self-confident and responsible, be able to handle effective communication in L2 in the social contexts, be familiar with the target situation, and be confident and ready for getting a job and working in the tourism industry.

These principles of approach are designed to enable learners to reach the aims of teaching of English for Tourism which we have proposed in Chapter 2. Simultaneously, doing so takes both Widdowson's (1998) terms 'educational awareness' and 'professional purposes' into account; training and education are equal on the continuum of education.

The work from learning strategies to textbook evaluation is crucial for teaching English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context. Learning strategies are not taken into much account in the Taiwanese traditional classroom. It is hoped that this work will inspire ESP Taiwanese teachers to give more attention to the importance of learning strategies and to take action to provide them explicitly and help their students to develop them effectively, enabling them to become better language learners and enhance effective communication.

Textbook evaluation is given little consideration in the Taiwanese educational system. Therefore we find that many textbooks which are not appropriate for teaching English for Tourism have been used for this purpose for several years. From this work, we have found that it is worthwhile to evaluate the textbooks. In doing so, we can select appropriate textbooks for teaching this area in the Taiwanese context. Simultaneously, we are able to consider what sorts of textbook are best for the Taiwanese context by looking into how the principles of approach are included in the textbooks, how well they satisify modern perspectives and how far modern perspectives are justified by these textbooks. Therefore textbook evaluation is significantly relevant to the improvement and efficiency of the programme of English for Tourism.

To sum up, this thesis commences from the Taiwanese background context which is the Confucian tradition which advocates grammar learning. In order to enhance the learning and teaching of English for Tourism in the Taiwanese context, there are two investigations within this work exploring learning strategies and textbooks. The proposal has been made here in this thesis to move forward on the basis of the earlier tradition. Appendices

#### Appendix 1

Questionnaire for Interviews with Adult English for Tourism Learners

Background and Previous English Learning Experience

- 1. Where were you born?
- 2. What languages were spoken in your home?
- 3. Could you tell me how old you are?
- 4. Could you tell me your educational background?
- 5. When did you start to learn English?
- 6. Would you talk about what and how you studied in your previous English learning experience?

Living and Studying in the UK

- 1. Have you ever been other countries or other English-speaking countries before you came to the United Kingdom? How long have you been in this country? For what purposes have brought you to this country?
- 2. Would you describe how you felt when you just came to this country.
- 3. Which media do you like to learn English, TV, newspapers, radio or tapes?
- 4. How did you overcome the difficulties in order to make progress in communication? What did you deal with the situations when you still had difficulties in communication?
- 5. Why were you enrolled in this programme, English for Tourism at Westminster College?
- 6. How long did it take you to adjust to this English for Tourism programme?
- 7. Do you prefer to study English by previous or present language learning learning experiences? Why?
- 8. What activities do you use English for outside the classroom? For instance, movies, church, job, listening to the radio, talking with friends, reading for pleasure, etc.? Do you think that activities outside the classroom help you a lot to improve your English and adjust to the communicative classroom? Why?
- 9. Do you correct your own mistakes when you are using English? Do you like to be corrected? Do you correct others' mistakes?
- 10. Did you take notes to help yourself to learn the content of English for Tourism? If yes, how did you take notes?
- 11. What materials or activities do you like best to learn the content of English for Tourism? Did you repeat the important and useful terms silently after the teacher?
- 12. What content do you think should be included in this programme?
- 13. Did you like the activity of visiting the British Tourist Centre, the Scottish Tourist Office and the Swiss National Tourist Office? What did you learn from this activity?

- 14. In speaking, if you don't know a word or expression in English, what do you do to solve the problem?
- 15. In writing...? What is the best way do you believe to improve writing?
- 16. Do you participate often in class? Why? Do you prefer only one activity or many activities? Do you prefer more teacher's lectures or more chances to talk in the class?
- 17. When you don't understand something in class, what are you most likely to do?
- 18. If you do not know the words in listening, what do you do?
- 19. What do you do to develop more effectively in reading?
- 20. Do you translate or think in English when you are using English? Do you think it important to think in English?
- 21. Do you need to struggle to develop new learning strategiess or habits in order to study in this English for Tourism programme? Please explain in detail.
- 22. Do you think it important to learn through sharing experiences?
- 23. Which is more important, fluency or accuracy in speaking and in writing?
- 24. Do you think it important to develop self-study habits out of classroom? Why? Do you like to have the teacher suggest which books or journals you use for outside readings or would you like to find your own books for reading?

An Example of Interviews: Interview with Sara

Background and Previous English Learning Experience

- 1. Where were you born? I was born in Spain.
- 2. What languages were spoken in your home? My father is Spanish and my mother, African. The languages spoken in my home were Spanish and Swahili.
- 3. Could you tell me how old you are? I am 23.
- 4. Could you tell me your educational background? I got a BA degree in economics.
- 5. When did you start to learn English? When I was 9, I started to learn English.
- 6. Would you talk about what and how you studied in your previous English language learning experience? In my previous language learning experience, I studied mainly grammar. In my country, English teachers spoke in my language most of the time to explain grammar. Students seldom had the chance to talk and usually studied mainly hundreds of grammatical rules or vocabulary by memory. In that learning experience I did not learn to use English to communicate with people. However, through that way I could get good records in English tests.

Living and Studying in the UK

1. Have you ever been other countries or other English-speaking countries before you came the to the United Kingdom and how long have you been in this country? For what purposes have brought you to this country?

I have never been to other countries before I came here. I have been here for around six months. I came to this country with my goals, dreams and ambitions: I wanted to improve English proficiency, find a decent job with a good salary and enrich my experience and my knowledge.

2. Would you describe how you felt when you just came to this country?

As soon as I arrived in this country, I found that with knowledge of English grammar I still did not know what to say or how to say English to communicate

with people here. I felt quite angry with my language inability. It was really a shock for me. I tried to avoid meeting English-speaking people. I did not have any friends and releatives in this country either. Sometimes I cried because I missed my family and friends, the food and the weather in Spain. The first two weeks of staying in this country was really awful. At that time, I felt very lonely and homesick.

3. Which media do you like best to learn English, TV, newspapers, radio or tapes?

I like TV best. When I just arrived in this country, my listening comprehension was poor. The actors' gestures or facial expressions on TV helped me understand English and improve my listening comprehension. In addition, I also liked to listen to tapes because I could listen to them as many times as I liked. I think that listening to the tapes helped me not only my listening comprehension but also my intonation and pronunciation in English.

4. How did you overcome the difficulties in order to make progress in communication? What did you deal with the situations when you still had difficulties in communication?

At first I tried to avoid people, but then I realised: if I do not open my mouth, even I stay in the UK for more than one hundred years, I still won't be able to speak English. My life will be meaningless. Therefore I started to encourage myself to be more active to exposure to English. First of all, I tried hard to read the subtitles and listened to English while watching TV. I often repeated and imitated their English. I also often talked to myself in English. In order to practise using English, I tried to make British friends and friends from different countries. I also decided to take courses to improve my English. Later on I also got a job as a clerk at the supermarket. This job helped me to survive in the expensive city of London, gave me the opportunities to use English every day and made many good friends.

There were many situations which I could not avoid. For instance, the families I lived with. At the situations, I tried to use key words, short phrases or simple sentences to express my ideas. In addition, I used a lot of body language and sometimes drawings. I found that the most difficult thing in communication was that some people here spoke too fast. Sometimes I asked them slower down their speech or I asked for explanation.

5. Why were you enrolled in this programme, English for Tourism at Westminster College?

Before coming to study at Westminster College, I tried some courses in other language schools. Then I thought this college was a well-organised training institute which also offered the courses like 'English for Tourism' and 'English for Receptionist' etc. I believed that it would be more meaningful 'to kill two birds with one stone' so that I could improve my English and I could be qualified to work at the tourist industry at some time in the future. 6. How long did it take you to adjust to this English for Tourism programme?

At first I felt nervous to speak English either in the classroom or outside the classroom. Then, I tried to use just vocabulary or simple sentences with a lot of gestures and facial expressions. After constant use of English in the jobs and communicating with friends outside of the classroom, my anxieties in using English was gone rather quickly and also I have felt comfortable and confident in speaking it. Therefore it did not take me a long time to adjust to this programme.

7. Do you prefer to study English by previous or present language learning experiences? Why?

I prefer to study English by this new language learning experience. In the previous language learning experience, students needed to spend much time studying grammatical rules and vocabularay by memory. It was really a tiring and boring language learning experience. I think that it is not right to learn only grammar. In the new learning experience, I learned how to communicate with other people and also gained knowledge of tourism. I am very proud of my progress in English within the six months of staying in this country. You know, Since I was 9, I have studied English. Now I am 23 years old. I have been in London less than six months. In the six months in the UK I have learned much more than I learned in my country from 9 to 22.

8. What activities do you use English for outside the classroom? For instance, movies, church, job, listening to the radio, talking with friends, reading for pleasure, etc.? Do you think that activities outside the classroom help you a lot to improve your English and to adjust to the communicative classroom? Why?

I work four hours a day. During the work, I have to speak English all the time. After work, I often meet my British friends or non-Spanish friends at the pub, or sometimes I go to see movides in English with them. At my place, I often watch TV, listen to the tapes and watch video-tapes. I read a lot of English materials, for instance, teaching materials from this programme, English newspapers, English history and some magazines. Sometimes I like to read English books aloud.

Of course, outside classroom activities certainly helped me very much improve my English. My jobs and my frineds especially offered me a lot of opportunities to use English outside of classroom. By constant use of English, I built up my confidence to use the language to communicate with people and to adjust to the communicative classroom.

9. Do you correct your own mistakes in using English? Do you like to be corrected? Do you correct others' mistakes?

I often correct my own mistakes as well. I also like to be corrected. I often asked my friends to correct my English in speaking or in writing. I often repeat the correction. I often correct others' mistakes in my brain.
10. Did you take notes to help yourself to learn the content of English for Tourism? If yes, how did you take notes?

Yes, I took notes to help myself remember what I learned from this programme. At first I wrote a lot. I almost wanted to catch everything and write everything down on my notebook. Then I found that I was still busy in taking notes on the preceding sentences, and missed the important messages on the following sentences. Besides, the notes were very messy. They were not useful and helpful for me to get the ideas quickly when I wanted to use them to join in the discussions. At that time I tried to memorise everything rather than understand the meanings from what I heard. Later on, I tried to catch the meanings rather than to memorise everything. I wrote only the key words from what I understood. Then I found that I understood more when I took only key words. I think that maybe I improve my listening comprehension as well.

11. What materials or activities do you like best to learn the content of English for Tourism? Did you repeat the important and useful terms silently after the teacher?

I think that the teaching materials or video-tapes directly relevant to the tourist industry can be important to learn new content. I liked to watch the video tapes. From the video tapes, I could see and learn, for instance, the appropriate customer care and telephone skills directly. I think that in addition to the key-word notes, teaching materials helped me a lot to understand the new content, catch the ideas and help me to participate in the discussion as well. In addition, I learned a lot from other students, especially from those who shared their work experiences in the tourist industry. The activities I like best in this programme are discussions, simulations, roleplays, and sharing experiences. I think that these activities helped me to learn to use English to communicate with people and develop interpersonal relationships. I often repeated the important and useful terms silently after the

12. What content do you think should be included in this programme?

teacher or in my brain.

I think that customer care and telephone skills, cultural differences, geography, history and knowledge of tourism are important and should be included in this programme.

13. Did you like the activity of visiting the British Tourist Centre, the Scottish Tourist Office and the Swiss National Tourist Office? What did you learn from this activity?

I think that it is meaningful to visit the tourist centres. In the workplace, I can see what people at the tourist industry need to do in their jobs. In addition, it is significant to talk with the two employees at the British Tourist Centre. I learned a lot from talking with them. As they suggested, customer care, personality, foreign language abilities, computer literacy and knowledge of

geography are essential for people who prepare to work in the tourist industry.

14. In speaking, if you don't know a word or expression in English, what do you do to solve the problem?

If I don't know a word in speaking, I try to find other similar words to help express myself or simply describe the meaning of the word. I also use a lot of gestures, facial expressions and sometimes even use drawings.

15. In writing...? What is the best way do you believe to improve writing?

If I don't know a word in writing, sometimes I try to find other similar words in English or I look up the bilingual dictionary to find the exact word. I believe that the only way to learn to write by writing. In this programme, after the teacher taught us how to lay out business letters or reports, she always assigned us to do similar homework. I always worked hard to write these homework assignments. In these writing assignments, we need to use a lot of imagination.

16. Do you participate often in class? Why? Do you prefer only one activity or many activities? Do you prefer more teacher's lectures or more chances to talk in the class?

I often participated in class. I believed that if I want to improve my English, the only way I can do is to use it frequently. I prefer many activities for social interaction in using English in the class rather than only teacher's lectures.

17. When you don't understand something in class, what are you more likely to do? Do you ask for help or clarification?

I asked the teacher or another students for clarification. Sometimes I find help from a textbook or dictionary.

18. If you do not know the words in listening, what do you do?

If I do not know the words in listening, I usually try to guess the meanings of the words. Sometimes I ask people or friends for explanation.

19. What do you do to develop more effectively in reading?

At first, when I read, I read word for word. I tried to look for and underline the unfamiliar words and checked them in my dictionary. I tried to to memorise these difficult and unfamiliar terms and expressions. In fact what I did was just to memorise the vocabulary and expressions rather than to understand the whole text and to catch the meanings of the text. The reading process was really slow and exhausting. Therefore when the teacher began to ask the whole class questions I could not answer her in time. Later on, I tried to guess the meanings which I did not know instead of using the dictionary. Skip over

the unimportant words, such as I, they, on, in, that and so on. Therefore when the teacher began to ask questions, I knew what was going on in the readings and I could answer her the questions.

20. Do you translate or think in English when you are using English? Do you think it important to think in English?

At first, I tried to translate everything in my brain. It took me a long time in order to speak out or to write out English. Sometimes, I found that my translation did not make sense to people who did not know Spanish. Furthermore, I tried to translate everything from what I heard. Then I often found that I did not catch the meanings from listening. I think that translation could be one of the main reasons that I had difficulty in communication with people at first. I believe that translation was not an effective way of using English and it is important to develop 'thinking in English' when using it.

21. Do you need to struggle to develop new learning strategiess or habits in order to study in this English for Tourism programme? Please explain in detail.

I certainly need to struggle to develop some new learning strategies or habits in order to survive and study here. In the past, I mainly used memory and simply listened to the teachers' explanation in grammatical rules. But, now I need to use creativity, imagination or understanding in such activities as role plays, simulations, problem-solving, business letter writing and laying out a report or an advertisement for the work-place. I have to learn to communicate with people in English not only in the classroom but also outside of the classroom. I need to express my own ideas, participate in the classroom learning activities and share my experiences in the life and in the job. At first, I felt nervous and difficult in the different learning environment, but later on, I enjoyed learning through these different activities to social-interact with people. Through these new ways of learning, I also develop interpersonal relationships.

22. Do you think that it is important to learn through sharing experiences?

Yes, it is enjoyable and important to learn through sharing experiences. I love to share all my friends and my classmates the experiences happened to me in my life or in my job. I found the more I practiced using some new terms, I became more comfortable and more confidence in using them. I found sharing experiences a good way in learning.

23. Which do you believe is more important, fluency or accuracy in speaking and in writing?

I believe that it is very important to focus on the flow in both speech and in writing. After writing I always checked my writing again. I paid more attention to accuracy in writing than I did in speaking. Therefore I often used a dictionary to check some of difficult terms in my homework, especially business letter writing.

24. Do you think it important to develop self-study habits out of classroom? Why? Do you like to have the teacher to suggest you to read which books or journals for outside readings or would you like to find your own books for reading?

I think that it is crucial to develop self-study habits out of classroom because tourism includes very broad areas. After we develop self-study, we can bring the new knowledge we have learned to the classroom and share with each other. It may be helpful if the teacher can suggest some good books or journals relevant to tourism for outside readings. At the same time, I also like to find my own books for reading.

### Appendix 2

A Syllabus of Westminster College School of Languages

The syllabus included here has been reconstructed from several syllabuses. The teacher has agreed the rewriting. In practice, she did not follow this syllabus exactly.

1. <u>AIMS</u>. English for Tourism Intermediate Level aims to produce students able to occupy a position that brings them in direct contact with the travelling public on a day-to-day basis and liaise with customers and colleagues in the tourism industry.

## 2. GENERAL COMPETENCES OF STUDENTS AT THIS LEVEL.

a. Speaking and listening:

Maintain a simple conversation in an appropriate manner with customers and colleagues on everyday work and personal matters, both face to face and on the telephone. Listen to, understand and act upon verbal requests, complaints and instructions. Welcome and greet customers in a friendly professional manner.

b. Writing and reading:

Fill in forms, and write short business letters, faxes, notes and memos, properly laid out, to solve simple everyday problems in tourism. Read, scan and interpret authentic materials used in the tourism industry.

c. Customer care skills:

Distinguish between good and bad customer care and set service standards for themselves. Identify and be sensitive to particular customer requirements and service their needs. Recognise positive and negative body language and international differences. Develop selling skills.

3. Topics

Tourism vocabulary (e.g. trip, journey, travel and tour). Specialise vocabulary (e.g. airport and travel agency, geographical and historical). Overview of and history of tourism and jobs in tourism. Body language. Meeting and greeting

customers. Giving a short information talk. English way of saying days, dates, times (12 and 24 hour clock), names, addresses, alphabet, numbers, and money. Local history and local historical walk. Customs and celebrations. Timetables (e.g. air, rail, coach, and sea) and travel requests, reservations, changes and cancellations, and connected form filling. Making and receiving Telephone calls. Making and using appointment diaries. Requesting and giving factual information. Visiting different tourism and assessing tourist boards. Writing practice (see above). Tourism promotional materials (e.g. videos, CD roms, leaflets and brochures). Oral and written presentation techniques. Understanding and giving directions. Reading techniques (e.g. reading for specific details). Job applications covering letters, application forms, CVs and interviews. Handling simple calculations, both written and oral to customer satisfaction.

### **Appendix 3**

Cunningsworth (1995) suggests the following questions for checking ESP materials:

- \* Is the material based on a careful analysis of learner needs?
- \* Are objectives specified:
  - in content terms
  - in performance terms?
- \* Is the content appropriate to learner's needs? Does it have credibility (face validity)?
- \* Is there a body of 'core' specialist language related to the subject area?
- \* Are learners equipped with skills and strategies which will allow them to operate effectively in English in the professional/occupational situation?
- \* Is there a balance between subject-specific language items (grammar, vocabulary, discourse structure) and operational skills and strategies in language use?
- \* Does the material consider the relationship between teachers and students? If so, is a collaborative approach encouraged?
- \* Is the material sufficiently flexible to meet the constraints often found in ESP work, eg by having a modular structure of non-sequential units?
- \* Can the material be used for individual study? If so, are learners given guidance on how to use the material in this way?
- \* To what extent do the learning activities mirror real-life situations, eg through task-based and skill-based activities?
- \* Do learning activities have outcome or products which will help learners to evaluate their performance?

(ibid: 135)

Nesi (1998) reminds that there are some questions which we need to bear in mind when we choose or review an ESP textbook:

# 1. Specification

- \* Date and place of publication. How old is the book? Is it still in print? Does it seem dated in any way?
- \* Target user according to: a) the publishers blurb, b) your personal impression. How "local" are the materials? Could they be adapted for a different kind of user?
- \* Stated (or implied) aims.
- \* Length and approximate number of teaching hours.
- \* Physical appearance in terms of clarity, size and format, attractiveness, diagrams, pictures, and other non-verbal information.
- \* Is there a teacher's book? An answer key?

### 2. Content

- \* Are the texts genuine/simplified/abridged/doctored/contrived?
- \* Are texts presented as models to be imitated or reproduced?
- \* What is the connection between the material and the target situation? Does the material act as a means of arriving at the target? Does the subject matter of the material reflect the target situation, or does it simply act as a carrier for relevant language learning?
- \* What world knowledge or specialist knowledge is the user expected to possess?
- \* Will the material engage the users' emotions/interest? Will it appeal to them as people, or as specialists, or both?

### 3. Methodology

- \* Is the teacher given the role of: transmitter of knowledg? organiser of problem solving and meaning negotiation? something in between these two?
- \* Do the materials develop the learner's ability to learn?
- \* Are classroom procedures imposed by the material?
- \* How much scope is there for the teacher or learner to develop their own

procedures or ways of working with the texts?

- \* What opportunities are there for individual, paired, small-group and whole class activities? Is provision made for users of different ability levels?
- \* What kind of activities are there? Is there much variety of activities and/or unit format?
- \* What kind of teacher would be able to use the material? Is it necessary to have knowledge of specialist subject matter? ability to handle small group work? ability to improvise teaching procedures?

### 4. Organisation

- \* What sequence do the contents follow? eg easy to difficult? frequent to infrequent?
- \* If there is a gradation of difficulty, how steep is it?
- \* How are the contents subdivided? How (if at all) are the subdivisions interrelated?
- \* Do the materials incorporate revision?
- \* Is dipping or leap-frogging possible?

### **Appendix 4**

List of Relevant Current Published Textbooks of English for Tourism

1. <u>English for Travel</u>. John Eastwood. 1980. Oxford: Oxford University Press. This is not suggested to teach in Taiwan.

2. <u>Five Star English</u>. 1982. Rod Revell and Chris Stott. Oxford: Oxford University Press

This is not suggested to teach in Taiwan.

3. <u>First Class: English for Tourism</u>. Trish Stott and Roger Holt. 1991. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

This is suggested to teach in Taiwan.

4. <u>Check In: English In Tourism</u> and <u>May I Help You: English in Tourism</u>. Christopher St. J. Yates. 1992. London: Prentice Hall

These are not suggested to teach in Taiwan.

5. <u>High Season: English for the Hotel and Tourist Industry</u>. Keith Harding and Paul Henderson. 1994. Oxford: Oxford University Press

This is suggested to teach in Taiwan.

6. <u>At Your Service: English for the Travel and Tourist Industry</u>. Trish Stott and Angela Buckingham. 1995. Oxford: Oxford University Press

This is suggested to teach in Taiwan.

7. <u>International Hotel English</u>. Donald Adamson and <u>International Restaurant</u> <u>English</u>. Liela Keane. 1997. London: Prentice Hall.

These are not suggested to teach in Taiwan.

8. <u>English for International\_Tourism</u>. 1997. Miriam Jacob and Peter Strutt. Essex, England: Longman.

This is suggested to teach in Taiwan.

9. <u>Professional Reading Skills: Tourism</u>. 1998. Neil McBurney. London: Prentice Hall.

This is not suggested to teach in Taiwan.

10. <u>Welcome! English for the travel and tourism industry</u>. 1998. Leo Jones. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

This is suggested to teach in Taiwan

11. <u>Going International: English for Tourism</u>. Keith Harding. 1998. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

This is suggested to teach in Taiwan.

12. Be Our Guest: Basic English for Hotel Staff.

13. Highly Recommended: English for the Hotel and Catering Industry.

The last two books are not available.

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