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Developing the English oral competency of tourism industry students by means of a genre-based ESP approach

Taweesak Kunyot

Edith Cowan University

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Developing the English oral competency of tourism industry students by means of a genre-based ESP approach

Taweesak Kunyot
2005
Doctor of Philosophy
Developing the English oral competency of tourism industry students by means of a genre-based ESP approach

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BEd (English), MA (Linguistics)
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A Thesis Submitted in Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of
Doctor of Philosophy

Faculty of Community Services, Education and Social Sciences
Edith Cowan University
Australia
USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.
The purpose of this study is to establish a theory-based process for the improvement of the English oral competency of Thai tourism industry students and determine how far practical needs superseded theoretical demands. It was done firstly, by examining and blending genre and ESP theories in order to establish a genre-based ESP oral English teaching method, and secondly, identifying the specific features of the most common genres in the target language used by Thai tourist guides by means of genre analysis. Thirdly, the perceptions of the personnel managers of tour agencies and tourists towards the oral competency of Thai tour guides were explored before reaching the final stage of developing and teaching the course for teaching English for tour guides in Rajabhat Universities.

The first step in the course design process was to adopt a genre-based ESP teaching method, which included four stages: background to the genre, modeling the genre, construction of the genre, and assessment. Then field data of selected tour guide commentaries were identified. The results revealed four essential spoken genres, namely itinerary, description, narrative and procedure. The organization and features of these genres were utilized to implement a genre-based approach in the semester program for "English for Tour Guides" at Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University. In addition, a more general picture of the spoken competency of Thai tour guides was obtained from two sources: tourists from different countries and personnel managers of tourism agencies, and was introduced in the course. The thirty-four students, who participated in this study, were third-year tourism industry students.

At the end of the training course, student performances were assessed in two ways. Results from both these testing processes and student feedback to the course revealed that this tourist training course could improve the organization and language features of student commentaries and bring about some changes to overall competence.
Positive attitudes towards the course and its implementation were also produced. At the same time, it is evident that greater concessions should be made in the course to modifying the theoretical basis in the light of student needs for greater assistance with grammar and pronunciation. It is recommended that the adaptation of genre-based teaching and the learning cycle for this ESP course be employed by other teachers in similar situations.
DECLARATION

"I certify that this thesis does not to the best of my knowledge and belief:

(i) incorporate without acknowledgment any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education;

(ii) contain any material previously written by another person except where due reference is made in the text; or

(iii) contain any defamatory material."
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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ASEAN  Association of Southeast Asian Nations
CET   Communicative English for Tourism
CLT   Communicative Language Teaching
CR    Criterion-referenced
EAP   English for Academic Purposes
EFL   English as a foreign language
ELT   English language teaching
ETG1  English for Tourist Guides 1
ETG2  English for Tourist Guides 2
ESP   English for Specific Purposes
L1    First language
L2    Second language
LSP   Language for Specific Purposes
NR    Norm-referenced
NS    Native speaker of English
NNS   Non-native speaker of English
SLA   Second language acquisition
TAT   Tourism Authority of Thailand
WE    World English
ZPD   Zone of proximal development
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

The growth of the tourism industry in Thailand in the past twenty years has triggered an increasing demand for employees who can speak English well enough for communication in this service business. Both state and private agencies recognize that their employees need competence in English language skills for success in their jobs. As a state university in the lower northern region, Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University is responsible for the development of qualified personnel for this industry in that area.

This chapter introduces the reader to, firstly, general Thai education system, secondly, English language education in Thailand, thirdly, the demand for the English language in the tourism industry, fourthly, difficulties in learning and teaching English in Thailand, highlighting problems of Thai learners' speaking English for communication, fifthly, the genre approach to teaching that might alleviate problems in the teaching and learning of English for tour guides, that is the subject of this dissertation. The last four sections introduce the significance of the study, the purposes of the study, the research questions, and the structure of the thesis respectively.

1.1 The Thai education system

The Thai education system has a major role to play in the development of the country. Educational institutions are respected as sources of knowledge and guidance that Thai students carry with them throughout their lives. The teachers and schools are considered generators of student futures, taking on the responsibility to ensure that children learn and that young adults will mature and contribute to the national development (Srisa-an, 1998).

In Thailand, education is divided into four levels: pre-primary education, primary education, secondary education and higher education. Pre-primary education is optional for children between three to five years of age and is provided in the form of childcare by both private and public sectors. The curriculum at this level of education aims to develop physical, psychological, mental, emotional, personal, and social aspects of children before they enter the first year of primary school. According to the 2001 Basic Education
The twelve years of basic education are provided free of charge as guaranteed by the 1999 National Education Act (Office of the Educational Commission, 1999). Basic education can be provided in three ways: formal, non-formal, and informal education by parents, organizations and institutions and are divided into two periods. The first nine years of formal school are compulsory for every Thai child. The first six-year compulsory period (for children from 6-11 years old) is for primary school and another compulsory three-year period (for children from 12-14 years of age) for lower secondary school. Students can leave school after they have finished the lower secondary school. The last three years of basic education for upper secondary school (for learners from 15-17 years old) prepare the learners to further their study in higher education. Higher education is organised by both private and public institutes and universities. Thai students who want to study at the tertiary level have to take entrance examinations and their choices depend on their examination results. Most students have to pay full tuition fees in higher education.

1.2 English education in Thailand

The structure of foreign language in the Basic Education Curriculum 2001, in which English is the main foreign language, is categorized into four sections known as substances. These substances are: language for communication, language and culture, language within other disciplines, and language and society (Ministry of Education, 2002, p. 20).

Substance 1: Language for communication

Standard 1.1. Understand the listening and reading processes, be capable of interpreting what is heard and read, and apply knowledge critically

Standard 1.2. Have communication skills for exchange of information, expression of ideas by using technology and suitable management for long-life education

Standard 1.3 Understand the speaking/writing processes, and transforming of information, ideas and concepts creatively, efficiently and aesthetically

Substance 2: Language and culture

Standard 2.1. Understand and apply the relationship between language and culture of foreigners and apply them appropriately
Standard 2.2. Understand the differences between Thai language and culture and those of foreigners and apply it critically

Substance 3: Language in other disciplines
Standard 3.1. Use the language as the basis for learning other subjects

Substance 4: Language and society
Standard 4.1. Be capable of using the foreign language in a variety of situations both inside schools and in the society
Standard 4.2. Be capable of using the foreign language as a tool for learning, working, and initiating cooperation in the society.

This new syllabus is different from the old one, which focused on only the four macro skills of language, i.e. reading, writing, listening, and speaking, in that it provides clear goals of learning such as the use of the language in a variety of situations as a tool for working in the society as mentioned in Standards 4.1 and 4.2. These last two standards which so clearly relate to the topic of this thesis and were integrated in this tourist guide training course. However, this syllabus has been fully used only since 2004 and thus the students participating in this study had been taught by using the old syllabus before entering the university. They have therefore generally been unable to benefit previously from approaches which concentrate on language use in the community.

These four substances are to be taught at all levels of basic education during the twelve year basic education period. Students graduating from high school take entrance examinations to colleges and universities for tertiary education. An English test, which is part of the entrance examinations, must be taken by all students. Universities require that the English language be studied as a compulsory subject. The Rajabhat universities use a semester system based on credits and grades: a four-year degree requires 130-140 credits, including English courses. English is compulsory in the first year of all Rajabhat universities. All students must take at least two general English courses, of which one emphasizing speaking and listening skills and the other focusing on reading. Then each Rajabhat University program can choose a particular English course to meet particular student needs such as English for Science, English in Mass Media, and English for Tourism.
1.3 The tourism industry and English

The tourism industry is a major source of revenue for Thailand. According to the 2004 Tourism Authority of Thailand report, in the year 2003 alone, 10,004,453 tourists visited Thailand and spent over 300 million baht. The origins of these tourists vary. More than 6 million tourists were from Asia and over 2 million tourists were from Europe. Most of these tourists are from the countries where the first language is not English; for example, Austria, Belgium, Germany, Italy, Korea, Japan, and China. Tour agencies in Thailand cannot provide enough Thai tour guides who can speak the languages of the tourists because the major foreign language taught in every school in Thailand is English, although some universities offer programs in Chinese, Japanese, French, Spanish, and Korean. In the case that Thailand cannot offer sufficient tour guides in every language, English is considered the major foreign language used for communication with these foreign tourists. In order to make their commentaries comprehensible for these particular groups of tourists, the tour guides should use English that is clear and simple, because most tourists are not native speakers of English.

The forty or so Rajabhat universities throughout Thailand have been made responsible for regional development and the provision of several education programs to serve the community. As a direct consequence of this, the Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University is one of the eight Rajabhat universities in the northern region which offers a program to serve the needs of the tourism industry in the local area, especially Phitsanulok and Sukhothai. In these two provinces, there are a number of tourist attractions such as the Sukhothai Historical Park, the Srisalchanalai Historical Park, general and specialist museums, and ancient temples with famous Buddha images.

Although the tourism industry needs more employees, some students who have finished their specialist training at the Rajabhat Institutes remain unemployed. This may be because of their poor language proficiency. One of the factors that employers value when they recruit new employees is English language proficiency (Lafrenz, 1991). Businessmen need employees with the ability to communicate effectively (Dannels, 2001, p.1). Applicants with limited English proficiency, if accepted, will be put in low-guest contact positions where opportunities to be promoted to higher ranks are rare. A recent
study by Boonyavatana (2000) revealed that personnel in the tourism industry still had problems in using English in a way that was adequate for their employment. The two most important problems faced by these people have been identified as listening and speaking. Therefore, the provision of training to improve student English proficiency is of particular concern to the northern Rajabhat universities and is a major reason for this study.

1.4 Difficulties in teaching and learning oral English

English has been regarded as essential for the improvement of the quality of life and national development (Srisa-an, 1998a). Therefore, it has been taught in schools for many years. However, even after learning English in schools for twelve years, most students still cannot use it effectively. This is especially the case with oral English as stated by Tongra-ar in the introduction to his report (2000, p. 25).

According to a national quality assessment of education at upper secondary level, which was conducted by the Department of Curriculum and Instruction Development (Office of the National Education Commission, 2001, p. 51), the average score in English was lower than 50 percent. There are many factors responsible for this low proficiency. The first factor affecting the quality of English language learning may be the Thai teachers themselves. Many factors affect teacher performance. One of these is the lack of time. Most teachers have little time for or interest in understanding and adjusting to the requirements of the National Education Act or the Ministry of Education standards. Therefore, they often use the materials for teaching and assessment found in commercial textbooks (Watson Todd & Keyuravong, 2004, p. 37). Another example of this is shown by a recent investigation of Metropolitan Bangkok schools by Vacharaskunce in 2000. Her results reveal that many teachers of English in Bangkok avoided the use of English in the classroom because of the low proficiency of both teachers themselves and the students. The problems can be more serious in schools in the rural areas because many of the more proficient teachers in English are likely to move to work in big cities where the pay and working conditions are better (Smyth, 2001). A study by Promsiri, Praphal and Vijchulata (1996) investigated the problems of English teachers and the needs of in-service teacher training in a provincial upper-secondary educational region. This investigation
revealed that the communicative approach, introduced in the 1990s, had not been successful due to the lack of trained teachers.

The second factor contributing to the failure may be the students’ learning strategies which rely too much on rote-memorization and spoon-feeding (Tongra-ar, 2000, p.25). Many Thai students, especially upper secondary school students, begin preparing for the university entrance examinations for years in advance. The English test, which is a part of these exams, is not communicative in nature. Furthermore, the test is a pen and paper test where oral competence is not assessed. This kind of test encourages rote-learning among Thai students, because they know that spoken English is not relevant to the university examination. Thai students’ lack of confidence to use spoken English in class may be another cause of failure. They tend to use their own native language, the Thai language, in response to the teacher instead of using English.

Another factor affecting the quality of Thai learners is the lack of appropriate textbooks for Thai classrooms. Well-designed books may be available but their costs may be difficult to meet for underfunded schools in the rural areas. Furthermore, according to a comparative study of commercial textbooks by Watson Todd and Keyuravong, some textbooks do not cover all the objectives issued by National Education Act (Watson Todd & Keyuravong, 2004, pp. 25-29).

A brief history of the type of undergraduates encountered in this study will highlight these problems. Before these students participated in the project, they had taken two courses in Business Communication English, two courses in English for Hotel and two courses in English for Tourism. In addition, they had studied general English for only six years in secondary schools and high schools in accordance with the aims of the previous syllabus. As a consequence of these various studies, their knowledge of English, particularly in grammar and reading could be considered at high intermediate level at the start of the second semester of the third year, when they began the course of study under investigation in this thesis. From this the conclusion needs to be drawn that these students have a greater degree of need for effective oral/aural skills than those who have been the subject of such research as there has been reported in the journals. If those English majors are having difficulty, how much greater is the case with these vocational level students.
As has been stated they study only four courses in English throughout their degree and even the ones that they enrol for do not sufficiently target the spoken skills necessary for employment.

Although the students' earlier English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses provided the knowledge base for their future careers in the tourism industry, the emphasis in the courses was not on speaking but on information content and integrated skills. Even the original English for Tourism in Year 3, the focus of this curriculum renewal study, contained strong knowledge components such as reading itineraries and brochures, and describing interesting places. In addition, most of the other Year 3 courses are delivered in the Thai language by Thai instructors. As a consequence of this rather fractured training in English, the graduating tourism industry students' spoken English is not fluent enough to qualify them for acceptance into the tour guiding field as indicated by the fact that most later work in the hospitality rather than the tour guiding field. Understanding how to remedy this situation is the basis of the task undertaken in this research.

1.5 A genre-based approach to teaching English

The particular aim of this study is to investigate the use of a genre-based approach to develop tourism industry students' English oral competency in the foreign language teaching environment in Thailand. Several reasons have been taken into consideration for the selection of this method. First, genre theory indicates that the purpose of communication determines both the content and form of the language. This is supported by Substance 1 (language for communication) in the Basic Education Curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2002) which states that the learners should have communication skills for exchange of information. The language used in the tourism industry, particularly the language for leading tours, also has a particular communicative purpose. Swales (1990, p. 58) defines genre as follows.

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style.
According to this definition of genre, the communicative purposes of a particular discourse community are realized in certain culturally conditioned discourse forms. Consequently, if the Rajabhat students wish to join the discourse community associated with the tourism industry, they should develop the idea of the role of the genres used in that culture and this should be one of the tasks of the tourism trainer.

Second, genre teaching has been accepted as a successful approach to teaching students of all ages in Australia for several decades (Christie, 1985). It may therefore be an appropriate teaching approach for this study. This genre-based approach can be used as a means of scaffolding structures for students as suggested by Kamberelis and Bovino (1999). These authors argue that genre teaching provides a way to introduce students to target cultural artifacts:

One of the hallmarks of an effective speaker or writer is the ability to produce forms of discourse that adhere to cultural conventions and that accomplish specific rhetorical or aesthetic goals. These forms of discourse, typically referred to as genres, are open-ended cultural frames that embody relatively stable constellations of sentence and text level features. These constellations encode the practice and ideologies of particular discourse communities and are used to enact relatively specific communicative purposes within typical rhetorical situations. (Kamberelis & Bovino, 1999, p. 138)

Kamberelis and Bovino further state that students should be taught explicitly at the beginning in class so that they can apply their knowledge appropriately in real life situations. The development of student oral competency through genre is a form of cultural transmission, where learners become members of a society in order to learn how to function within it appropriately. This means they have to know the cultural frames of texts and their language features. In the case of tourism students, they should learn the target language in their specific culture, that is, the tourism industry, so that they can use the language to communicate effectively and appropriately. Thus, an alternative genre-based rhetorical structures method, as used in this study, could lead to the achievement of better English oral competency, even though the course itself would not be able to allow for real participation in the actual situations of employment.
1.6 Significance of the study

By law, tour guides who lead tourists in Thailand require Thai nationality. Therefore, Thai people who want to follow careers as tour guides are required to be proficient in a foreign language. Up to this point, however, studies of tourism in Thailand have not focused on the employees' communicative competency in languages other than Thai. Therefore, this research aims to study the development of the English proficiency of tourism industry students, especially those who intend to be tour guides. This group of students will have to use their oral communicative skills to describe interesting places, narrate stories related to these places and help tourists to solve their problems while, at the same time, carrying out their other tasks.

The study described in this thesis has been planned in the hope that it will be useful for educators or instructors, who want to develop their curriculum or teaching and learning materials for English for tour guiding. Its aims therefore are to explore student needs by investigating the perceptions of the personnel managers of tour agencies and tourists toward tour guiding English, to collect and examine authentic usage of English in Thai tour guiding and to develop a teaching model for developing tour guiding oracy in universities based on the most common genres found in this data.

1.7 The purposes of the study

The purposes of this research are the following:

- To consider how relevant theory relating to the teaching genre can be applied in Thailand.
- To explore the perceptions of the personnel managers of tour agencies and tourists of Thai tour guide English.
- To discern the most common spoken genres used by Thai tour guides.
- To design and present a genre-based English course for tour guides.
- To investigate the tourism industry students' oral competency at the end of the course.
- To examine the student attitudes towards the English for Tourism course.
- To develop guidance for future such training courses for Thai tour guides.
1.8 Research questions

The following research questions have been formulated from the study purposes outlined above.

**Research question 1**

What are the perceptions of key tourism stakeholders in northern Thailand concerning the oral competence of Thai tour guides? How does this information assist in the formulation of course for tourism students?

**Research question 2**

How can the course designer adapt genre theory to identify and utilise the common genres used for leading tours in developing a tourism oracy course?

**Research question 3**

How does the use of a genre-based approach in a teaching course reflect on student performance?

**Research question 4**

How does the use of a genre-based approach reflect on student attitudes?

**Research question 5**

What guidance can this study give to reformulating courses for Thai tourist guides?

1.9 Structure of the thesis

This thesis consists of eight chapters and several appendices. Chapter one introduces the reader to the background of this study such as the Thai education system, the English language education in Thailand, the importance of English in the tourism industry, and the relevance of a genre-based approach to teaching oral English. Chapters two and three contain literature reviews and give the theoretical background of this research. Chapter four highlights why and how authentic data of Thai tour guides' English was collected for use as the basis for the course design and authentic materials. Chapter five contains the research methodology, which includes a survey of tourists and travel agency managers' perceptions of the Thai tour guides' English, and the teaching
program. Research results of the pretest and the posttest are discussed in chapters six and seven. Chapter eight is concerned with the results from the student reports on the lessons and the attitude questionnaire, presents the students' perceptions of the implementation of the syllabus and their attitudes toward English language learning as a whole and the teaching process. The discussion of findings and recommendations are given in Chapter nine prior to the conclusion in Chapter ten. The complete lessons can be found in the appendices.
CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW I

This study aims to develop Thai tourism students’ oral competence so that the students will be appropriately trained to work with tourists from different parts of the world. In order to develop a suitable syllabus for this particular group of students, it is important to study how learners learn English as a second language, how teachers teach communicative language worldwide, what type of English should be taught, and how the latter impacts on the development of their oral competence. In addition, when considering the course design, in what way the role of English used around the world should be investigated as well as student attitudes.

With a view to activating these ideas for the purposes of my study, the first section will discuss how theorists suggest English as a second language is learned and taught. The second section investigates the type of English language used around the world, particularly in Asia, and in Thailand. The final section will discuss learner attitudes towards English teaching and learning.

2.1 Second language acquisition theories

In terms of the difference between second language acquisition (SLA) and first language acquisition Ellis (1997, p. 3) provides a clear description as follows:

At first sight, the meaning of the term ‘second language acquisition’ seems transparent but, in fact, it requires careful explanation. For one thing, in this context ‘second’ can refer to any language that is learned subsequent to the mother tongue. Thus, it can refer to the learning of a third or fourth language. Also, ‘second’ is not intended to contrast with ‘foreign’. Whether you are learning a language naturally as a result of living in a country where it is spoken, or learning it in a classroom through instruction, it is customary to speak generically of ‘second’ language acquisition...L2 acquisition’, then, can be defined as the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue, inside or outside of a classroom, and ‘Second Language Acquisition’ (SLA) as the study of this.
According to Krashen (1981, p. 1; 1982, p. 10), second language acquisition is similar to the process which children use in acquiring a first and second language. The latter is a unconscious process, in which language learners do not know that they are acquiring language. They know only that they are using the language for communication. Thus first language competence is acquired through learning of an implicit and natural kind.

The development of second language competence, however, must be considered different from this as the language is acquired by learning in a formal situation. To describe how second language learners acquire language, Krashen (1982, pp. 20-21) used the input hypothesis, which claims that the learners move from stage \( i \) (current competence in relation to input) to the next level \( (i+1) \) whenever they understand input that contains \( i+1 \). This means that acquisition occurs when students understand language which is a little more difficult than their current level. Kramsch (1990, pp. 20-21) supports Krashen when he says that learners need access to input that is communicatively and/or meaningfully oriented and comprehensible in nature in order to accomplish language acquisition, whether in the classroom or outside.

If IH(Input Hypothesis) is correct, it predicts, first, that more Comprehensible input, aural and written, results in more language acquisition. Better second language acquisition, as measured by a variety of tests, is associated with more comprehensible input in the second language outside of school (Krashen, 1989, p. 411).

However, Swain (1985), Larsen-Freeman (1991) and Markee (1997) have argued that although comprehensible input is necessary, it is insufficient for language learning to occur. Therefore, students should be active not passive learners. That is, they should be able to negotiate the information or input and then combine the new knowledge with their own in producing new language output. Rather than being the result of input alone, the process of SLA is a wider one, which occurs in a sequence. Ellis (1997, p. 35) introduces his model of SLA as follows:
First of all the learner is exposed to input and stores it in the short-term memory, which is then referred to as ‘intake’. Then some of the intake becomes long-term L2 knowledge through psychological processes. Finally, the learner uses that knowledge to produce spoken and written output in the target language. However, in classrooms in which learners are exposed to the same input at the same time, the input may not suitable for everybody because each learner processes the input at his/her own rate (Finch, 1999).

In the case of adult second language learners, Brown (1987, p. 54) asserts that they have similar ability to children in acquiring a second language in the classroom.

What we do is that adults and children alike appear to have the capacity to acquire a second language at any age. If a person does not acquire a second language successfully it is probably because of intervening cognitive or affective variables and not the absence of innate capacities... In the case of adult second language learning, parental input is replaced by teacher input.

Brown suggests here that teacher should communicate with the learners in meaningful ways, as if a parent were talking to a child, because the input is as important to the second language learner as it is to the first language learner.

Teachers should therefore be aware of the following notions proposed by Larsen-Freeman (1991, pp.153-156). First, individuals learn a language in different ways so a teacher should apply a variety of ways to teach them. Second, language learners gradually grasp forms, meaning, and use of a language. Third, learners learn a language from the input as chunks not as separate parts. Fourth, teachers should know the learner’s level of proficiency or stage of development so that lessons can be prepared to suit the level or stage. Fifth, second language learner background knowledge and experience help the learner learn new concepts. Sixth, feedback can be given to the learners when they are ready and have time to consider it. Seventh, it may be impossible for adult learners to be native-like speakers. Finally, most second language learners want to learn a new language so that they can communicate with members of the target language group or to participate in their institutions. These last two notions are necessary for EFL teachers and learners to
understand, in that they support Brown’s ideas regarding the importance of teacher input as a substitution of parental input, and that adult learners, like children, can learn second language at any age.

As an illustration of these principles, Swain (1985), for example, considered the case of students in the Canadian French Immersion Program. These students received abundant comprehensible input in French but had still not fully acquired grammatical competence. Since the learners could understand the input but were unable to replicate its syntactic structure, Swain suggested that the learners also needed to practice producing comprehensible output. Doing so would force them to move from semantic to syntactic processing. Swain maintains that comprehensible output, or language production, provides the opportunity for meaningful use of the learner’s linguistic resource (Swain, 2000, p. 99).

Output may stipulate learners to move from the semantic, open-ended, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. (Swain, 2000, p. 99).

Finch (1999) supports Swain in the case of output by claiming that in order for the students to know how they are progressing, feedback on their performance is needed in order to illustrate their learning needs and help them to evaluate their communicative competence.

According to Swain and Finch, therefore, second language learners can acquire L2 through the learning process which embraces comprehensible input, intake, and output. In the case of input, Alcon (1998) proposes three features of this process as part of interaction where learners are exposed to input simplification, input enhancement, and interactional modifications. The importance of simplified input has been emphasized by theorists because it is believed to make the input more comprehensible. The use of comprehensible input consequently enhances learning. In terms of input enhancement, attention should be directed to the formal properties of the language in order to develop second language knowledge. It is assumed that by focusing deliberately on the formal properties of language, the learners’ mental state is altered (Alcon, 1998, p. 437).
The remaining benefit from the input process is interactional modification. Theorists such as Long (1983) and Pica (1994) argue that the process of second language acquisition is hastened through conversational interaction.

For instance, the interactional hypothesis, as proposed by Long (1983), states that:

1. interactional modifications that are directed at solving a communication difficulty help to make input comprehensible, and
2. comprehensible input promotes acquisition.

According to this hypothesis, interactional modification promotes acquisition. In Long’s view, the learners need not only to hear the language forms at their own level of competence, but also to have an opportunity to interact with other speakers until they negotiate for message meaning and comprehension (Pica, 1994; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Lightbown and Spada (1999, p. 43) support this idea by writing:

> Modified interaction does not always involve linguistic simplification. It may also include elaboration, slower speech rate, gesture, or the provision of additional contextual cues.

Examples of conversational modification given by Lightbown and Spada are, firstly, checking comprehension, secondly, asking for clarification and thirdly, repeating or paraphrasing. The learner can check if the listener has understood what was said by asking a question, e.g. ‘Do you understand?’ The learner can check her/his comprehension of the message by asking the interlocutor to clarify the message, e.g. ‘Could you repeat that please?’ after which the speaker may repeat or paraphrase the original language input. Pica (1994, p. 270) suggests that transactional modification also provides feedback on the output which in turn can be used by the speaker to improve language performance.

This participation in negotiation also offers learners feedback on the comprehensibility of their own production. Such feedback can then be used to modify their production in ways that are important to restructuring work they might need to do to advance their interlanguage development.

However, interaction with peers may also result in negative input (Pica, 1994, p. 274). This is because if the learner interacts too much with class peers he may have
limited access to target-like second language input. Therefore, she suggests that to obtain better models students should interact with the teacher. Alternatively, peer interaction may have a positive impact on second language performance. Learners may help one another by sharing information and lexical items in their first or second language and continuing to negotiate until some resolution is achieved.

Another perspective on the role of interaction in second language acquisition is the sociocultural theory of human mental processing held by the psychologist Lev Vygotsky, who worked in the Soviet Union in the 1920s and 1930s. Vygotsky assumes that all cognitive development, including language development, occurs as a result of social interaction between individuals. The notion of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) is an essential part of Vygotsky's theory. The term ZPD refers to the mental space between present and presently potential cognitive levels, where a more capable interlocutor gives guidance in an interactive context (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86). It is the level of performance, which a learner is capable of reaching, when there is support during interaction from more advanced speakers. These are the people, teachers or other class members, who create supportive conditions for the second language learner to comprehend and produce language. While sociocultural theorists assume that language acquisition actually takes place at the point of interaction between learner and interlocutor, interactionists assume that input modification provides learners with the linguistic knowledge which they will process internally (Lightbown & Spada, 1999).

In sum, in order respond to the question how second language learners acquire English, the literature indicates that they must be exposed to comprehensible input and then process that input when called upon to produce the language as output. Second language acquisition will be facilitated by means of interaction with more advanced speakers, with such interaction taking place in the home, the classroom, and the community. The next section will discuss how these theories are currently translated into teaching practice for the second language classroom.

2.2 Communicative Language Teaching

This section discusses the origin of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), what the communicative approach means, and how teachers' and students' roles differ
from those in traditional teaching approaches. This leads into a discussion of the current situation in regard to CLT implementation in Asia and thus for this project.

2.2.1 Origins of Communicative Language Teaching

CLT began as a methodological revolution to achieve a move away from a focus on the form of the language to a focus on its meaning potential (Clarke, 1989, p.119). This shift from earlier methods, such as Situational Language Teaching, began in the 1960s. In the Situational Language Teaching approach, language was taught by practising basic form or structure in meaningful situation-based activities. But just as the linguistic theory underlying Audiolingualism was rejected in the United States in the mid-1960s, British applied linguists began to reconsider the theoretical assumptions underlying Situational Language Teaching. This occurred partly in response to the American linguist Noam Chomsky’s criticisms of structural theories of language. Chomsky had shown that the normal structural theories of language were not capable of accounting for some fundamental characteristics of language, that is, ‘the creativity and uniqueness of individual sentences’ (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.153). Other influences for the change came from the theories of British functional linguists, such as Firth and Halliday, as well as American sociolinguists, such as Hymes, Gumperz and Labov and the writings of Austin and Searle on philosophy (Howatt, 1984).

2.2.2 Development of CLT

CLT has developed from two strands, one in Europe and the other in North America. In Europe, the Council of Europe developed a ‘notional-functional’ syllabus in order to match the language needs of immigrants, overseas employees and the British traditional concept of language in terms of sociolinguistic and behavioral activities (Savignon, 2001, p.15). According to this concept, language is viewed as ‘meaning potential’ (Savignon, 2001, p. 15) and the focus is on the context of situation, where learners use language to function or do something. A needs analysis is required to provide information about functions of language for specified purposes of the learners. Another focus of the European strand is on the communicative classroom learning, which depends on the development of materials to match learner needs.
A major scholar in this first strand is M.A.K. Halliday, an applied linguist who systematised a functional approach to language development. Halliday (1978, p.19) argues that 'language is as it is because of what it has to do'. He defines language as a means of expressing meaning or interacting with other people in the society:

Language is being regarded as the encoding of a 'behaviour potential' into a 'meaning potential'; that is, as a means of expressing what the human organism 'can do', in interaction with other human organisms, by turning it into what he 'can mean'. (Halliday, 1978, p.19)

That is, what a speaker or writer can mean (or the semantic system) is changed into what he/she can say (or the language system consisting of grammar and vocabulary). Halliday (1978, p. 33) suggested that there are three variables, field, mode and tenor, within any context of situation that determine the language choices made to produce any language text. Field is the social setting where the use of language takes place. Tenor means the relationship between participants. Mode is concerned with the channel of linguistic communication adopted which can be written, spoken or even other possibilities such as gesture. These three variables function together to determine the choices that the speaker or writer makes from the systems in the language of discourse, vocabulary and grammar in a context of situation (Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan & Geroj, 1992).

In relation to the other strand, the United States form, Hymes (1971), reacting to Chomsky's linguistic competence, coined the term communicative competence to describe the appropriate use of language in social context (Savignon, 2001). Hymes focused on native speaker cultural norms, not on the second language learner's efforts, so the application of this strand in a foreign language situation may be difficult. However, later in 1972, the term communicative competence was modified by Savignon to describe 'the ability of classroom language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning' (Savignon, 2001, p.16). According to this description, communicative competence includes strategies used in interaction such as asking for information and seeking clarification.
From Howatt’s view (Howatt, 1984, pp. 273-289) the development of CLT began after 1970. At the beginning, a project which was funded by the Nuffield foundation to extend the teaching of foreign language in Britain brought together the representatives of the language teaching professions. After Nuffield, a group working at Leeds University began to produce a series of Materials Scope, which was designed to change from the teaching of a linguistics approach only to a combination of the sociolinguistic model of teaching using activity-based techniques based on children’s needs for language functions. Another project directed by M.A.K. Halliday at London University produced the materials Breakthrough to Literacy (1970) and Language in Use (1971). These two publications were examples of the teaching of English as a mother tongue. Then in 1976, Hasan wrote Cohesion in English which was published in collaboration with Halliday. Halliday and Hasan used cohesion to relate elements of grammatical structure in discourse. Another important contributor to the growth of CLT was H.G. Widdowson, who wrote papers and articles in a book Teaching Language as Communication (1978), which summarized the trends of the seventies. These ideas provide teachers with ways to organize classroom activities and materials based on register, discourse and learner needs analysis. CLT focused on determining both language needs and learner needs to prepare the way for the situations in which the learners might have to use the language, the role they might play, and the types of communicative activities they might have to take part in (Howatt, 1984, p. 281). In 1975, Van Ek wrote Threshold Level, which listed language functions separately and outside Europe, there was a project directed by N.S. Prabhu in South India. In Prabhu’s view, CLT depended upon the kind of instructional technique employed—group work, task accomplishment, meaning negotiation, caring and sharing, and so forth (Rodgers, 2003, p. 6). In Prabhu’s method, communicative tasks were graded in order of conceptual difficulty, beginning with very simple tasks and moving to more complex ones (Howatt, 1984, p. 288).

However, CLT has continued to develop since that time. Just as the origins of CLT are many, so one teaching methodology tends to influence another in order to suit the particular learning and teaching contexts. The communicative approach could be said to be the product of educators and linguists, who had grown dissatisfied with the audiolingual and grammar-translation methods of foreign language instruction. Its
supporters believe that in the modern context students should learn enough realistic, whole language in order to communicate in the culture of the language studied, using appropriate social language, gestures, and expression. But should stress be placed on the context or the language? It is now helpful to realize that within CLT itself there are two versions, a weak version and a strong version. The first focuses on learning activities, that allow learners to use their English to communicate purposefully. This version is experiential in nature because the learners are encouraged to try out their language in real communication. The second focuses on the use of the language itself used in the communication. This version provides learners with assistance to analyse the linguistic features from the language use in communication. This duality was noticed first by Howatt (1984, p.279) who wrote in the early 1980's:

The weak version which has become more or less standard practice in the last ten years, stresses the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use their English for communicative purposes and, characteristically, attempts to integrate such activities into a wider program of language teaching.... The strong version of communicative teaching, on the other hand, advances the claim that language is acquired through communication, so that it is not merely a question of activating an existing but inert knowledge of the language, but of stimulating the development of the language system itself. If the former could be described as 'learning to use English, the latter entails using English to learn it.

The results of communicative language teaching studies can also be said to illustrate two trends (Stern, 1993, p. 202), which mirror to a large degree the previous distinction as noted by Howatt. The first trend emphasizes activities, topics, or tasks in order that the learners can be involved in real communication in which the focus is not on the language forms and functions. The second, which leads to a functional syllabus, is developed on the understanding of sociolinguistics and pragmatics and utilises a curriculum based on situations, social roles, and language functions. It is argued that both approaches are useful for language teaching but in this research the major influence comes from the strong CLT version, which links language form to function.

The next section will discuss the current features of CLT used to guide the development of a syllabus for tourism students in Thailand.
2.2.3 Features of CLT

This section discusses the main features of CLT in relation to the teacher roles, student roles, resources, tasks, collaborative work, and assessment.

**Teacher roles in CLT**

As language teaching and learning has shifted to a communicative approach, the roles of the teachers have had to be adjusted to fit the change. Cohen (1992, pp. 248-250) and Stern (1993, p.320) suggest that teachers should take the role of facilitators or helpers. A teacher may act as a 'change agent, a diagnostician, a learner trainer, a coach, a coordinator, a language learner, and a researcher' (Cohen, 1992, pp. 248-249). Teachers should be able to identify their learners' individual ways of learning and learning difficulties they face and then train the learners how to use learning strategies coaching them in specific areas needed for effective use of those strategies. Hammond (2001, p.28) agrees with Cohen and Stern by suggesting that teachers should take a direct role in assisting students to develop the necessary knowledge, understandings and skills until the students develop greater control over their own performance. Then they can gradually withdraw support and encourage learner independence. In addition, teachers should do their own research by keeping records of the learning and teaching process to determine where the learners are experiencing success and failure and use the results for planning future lessons. Furthermore, Breen and Candlin (1980, pp.99-100) recommend other minor roles, such as an organizer of resources, a resource, a guide, and a feedback provider.

This change in the teacher's roles is echoed in Deckert's (2004, p.17) study of 75 instructors in a university on the Persian Gulf. Although he found that some of the students of those instructors considered a good teacher as one who constantly corrects the spoken and written errors of students, he suggests that:

CLT in EFL settings need not be elusive; teachers can take the critical step toward raising the level of authentic classroom communication by sharply reducing the amount of talking they do. To take this step, however, presupposes the belief of their part that real communication promises a greater payoff than extensive teacher commentary and frequent corrective intervention.
Therefore, traditional styles which are normally found in the Thai classrooms such as error correction, grammatical emphasis, extensive use of the first language, separation of the macro-skills, and fixed status for students and teachers should be revised in the syllabus planning for tourism industry students. However, some explicit teaching of the language particularly in the Thai classrooms may result in acquisition of very specific content if learners are developmentally ready and involved in authentic tasks (Freedman, 1993a, p. 243).

**Student roles in CLT**

In view of the changes affecting teachers, the students need to be informed about their roles in CLT classrooms; otherwise, they may expect to see the old environment where teachers provide them with texts, grammar rules, and error correction (Richards & Rogers, 2001, p.166). In CLT, learning should be seen as the expansion of students' potential to construct meaning not only the transmission of knowledge. Therefore, learners should be involved in an active process of learning (Hammond, 2001, p.21). Breen and Candlin (1980, pp.100-101) suggest that the learner should take the role of a 'negotiator between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning' because any knowledge is shared and confirmed by communicating with others in the community. In this sense, if the communication fails, both the speaker and the listener should accept responsibility (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.166) as the learners take the role of 'interdependent participant' in a social environment where learners support one another (Breen & Candlin, 1980, pp.100-101). In addition, the learners may take on the task of monitoring and guessing when they are unsure of form or meaning of their own and others' speech (Larsen-Freeman, 1991, p.150). Learners may be both teacher, sharing knowledge with other learners, and teacher assistant, informing and giving progress reports and even suggestions to the teacher about learning development. They should also take on the role of researcher discovering the knowledge and skills that are necessary for membership of their particular community. This means that they should be able to ask themselves about the texts they are required to produce and the contexts in which these texts occur (Johns, 1997; Paltridge, 2001).
**CLT resources**

As the roles of the teachers and the learners have changed, the resources for classroom learning should match this change, particularly the shift in the focus from form to meaning. CLT materials should be selected which depict the use of language in the real world. The resources that may be used in communicative classrooms are published textbooks, audio and video taped materials, or authentic materials from real life in relation to language use such as newspapers, magazines, advertisements, graphic or visual sources such as maps, pictures, graph and charts (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Clarke (1989) suggests that the use of authentic materials is an important feature of CLT materials design. In supporting this, Widdowson (1978) claims that authentic materials should be selected or produced to match the learner needs. They should be real in terms of the learner’s level of competence and interest, rather than merely the nature of the materials themselves (Clarke, 1989; Paltridge, 2001). Because the learners are expected to be able to use the information gained from the authentic materials to perform their own task, such materials need to be suitable in terms of comprehensibility. Otherwise it may be difficult to extract information from them.

**Tasks and activities**

Tasks and activities completed by students are an important aspect of these changes in the CLT classroom. Doughty and Pica (1986, p. 305) suggest that ‘a task with a requirement for information exchange is crucial to the generation of conversational modification of classroom interaction.’ During the information exchange, the learner and interlocutor have to work together and use the language in order to achieve a goal or outcome of a task (Pica, 1994, p.270). Stern (1993) suggests that communicative tasks could be divided into seven types, giving and following instructions, information transfer, information gap, the jigsaw principle, problem solving, informal talk, and role-play and drama techniques. However, Pica (1994, p.270) states that in order for the learners to achieve language outcomes they need to go beyond mere activity. They should be assisted with both language features and communication skills. Ulichny (1996, p.739) also argues, based on the results of her study, that second language learners normally
expect lessons to give them information about language use in addition to language practice.

Kramsch (1990, p.29) points out, however, that foreign language learning in classrooms is affected by a large number of variables that influence the way learners acquire the foreign language and the rate of their acquisition. Examples of those many factors which affect language learning are error correction, teaching methods, favoured versus disfavoured communication patterns between teachers and students and between students, statuses, roles, previous foreign language learning experience of learners, and social background of learners and their level of literacy (Kramsch, 1990, p. 29).

In the case of the Thai context, communicative tasks may not be easily adjusted to the Thai classroom teaching because of the difference in culture, especially the use of group activities classroom atmosphere. Students are used to receiving knowledge passively and may think they are not learning if the teacher has the students work in groups and does not teach them grammar on the blackboard (Smyth, 2001). Therefore, in order to reach a successful outcome with student performance, teachers should give the learners confidence that authentic language activities, requiring the selection of language options and the negotiation of meaning among participants, will lead to the acquisition of formal features of the language.

**Communicative Assessment**

Since CLT has accepted the difference between communicative competence and communicative performance (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 34), assessment should match the theory underlying it. That is, assessment should deal with both what the learners know and how they use this knowledge in a meaningful communication; therefore, it can be integrated in the learning and teaching process (Breen and Candlin, 2001) where learners can perform their tasks and be assessed. As Canale and Swain (1980, p. 34) point out, "pencil-and-paper" tests may not be able to indicate the learners' skills in actual communicative performance, therefore, performance tasks (tests) are recommended to assess this area of competence. Breen and Candlin suggest that there are four areas to be assessed, 'grammaticality', 'appropriateness', 'intelligibility', and 'coherence' (Breen and Candlin, 2001, p. 22). The learners can both evaluate themselves and others, using the
assessment as a part of classroom activities. This ongoing or formative assessment can provide the learners useful feedback from both other learners and the teacher. The criteria for the assessment could be established in relation to how successful the learner's performance is in the four areas mentioned above.

However, in order to evaluate course implementation, a summative assessment should be administered. Underhill (1987) suggests that teachers or testers can design their own evaluation rather than follow a procedure from someone else. Underhill argues that test designers can seek validity of their test by asking themselves if 'the test works properly or it does what it's supposed to' (Underhill, 1987, pp. 104-105). They can ask different people who use the test if it looks good, if it matches the aims of the course, and if it matches the theory behind it.

In the case of the evaluation of the English for Tour Guides course, which aims to develop students' oral competency, testers include external people such as a native speaker of English, a teacher from another institute, and the author himself. These people are asked to give comments on the test before administering it. The scores given by all the testers are compared to seek reliability because in oral testing it is not appropriate to use such statistical procedures as correlation and Kuder-Richardson formulae (Underhill, 1987, p. 107).

An oral test is a person encounter between two human beings; it is designed by humans, administered by humans, taken by humans and marked by humans, and it would be a surrender of the test designer's responsibility to allow the evaluation and development of this wholly human activity to be dictated by the statistical sausage-machine. (Underhill, 1987, p. 105)

In the case of the evaluation of English for this Tour Guides course, which aims to develop students' oral competency, test tasks should be developed based on target language use for leading tour groups e.g. introducing an itinerary, describing an interesting place. Douglas (2000, p. 15) gives a definition of specific purpose language testing as follows:

A specific purpose language test is one in which test content and methods are derived from analysis of a specific purpose target language use situation, so that test tasks and content are authentically representative of
tasks in the target situation, allowing for an interaction between the test taker's language ability and specific purpose content knowledge, on one hand, and the test tasks on the other. Such a test allows us to make inferences about a test taker's capacity to use language in the specific purpose domain.

Douglas (2000, p. 15) also suggests that specific language testing should be "criterion-referenced (CR)" rather than "norm-referenced (NR)" because CR tests are designed to represent levels of ability or domains of content. Results in such a case are based on the criterion levels which test takers might achieve and pass, while in NR tests ranking within a particular group determines the passing. An example of CR tests proposed by Kent (2004) consists of five levels of criteria, which can be used to evaluate Korean EFL students' planned communicative performance in five areas: fluency of speech, grammar use, listening comprehension, pronunciation, and vocabulary appropriateness and complexity. Performance in each criterion is ranked from 1 to 5: 1 (poor), 2 (below average), 3 (average), 4 (above average), 5 (excellent). Kent (2004) suggests that listening comprehension can be tested through question/answer tasks and pre-planned conversation, centered on a theme of student interest. In the case of the English for Tour Guides course the focus is not on students' listening comprehension but on their oral competency; therefore, only oral assessment is administered.

In sum, the course evaluation of this project was designed by this researcher to cover the required oral communicative competence by comparing the pre and post assessment results given by the different testers. The next section of the chapter includes discussion of the communicative competence, that should be developed among tourism students.

Collaborative learning

Towards the latter part the twentieth century, at the same time as CLT has emerged to be an important theory in the teaching of second or foreign languages, educational processes, which enhance achievement by means of active thought, have been emphasized by educational theorists and cognitive psychologists. As Swain (2000) in the ELT field points out, negotiation leads to greater comprehensibility of input and the comprehensible input achieved through negotiation assists second language learning. This
means that the learners should have opportunities to be involved in interaction with others for understanding of the message conveyed. Furthermore, in EFL contexts, the classroom is the major environment not only for learning but also for using foreign language (Littlewood, 1981). It is all the more necessary, therefore, in these contexts, for learners to be actively involved in the classroom. The notion of active learning closely relates to the collaborative learning process because this process helps students become members of the knowledge communities (Oxford, 1997) in which they can share their knowledge with one another through classroom interaction.

According to Vygotskyan theorists, social interaction is a prerequisite to learning and cognitive development, provided that the interaction occurs within the zone of one's potential development (Vygotsky, 1978). Interacting with more capable interlocutors gives the learners opportunities to not only engage in genuine and realistic communication (Canale, 1983, p.18), but also to deal with 'linguistic raw material', which they will process internally and invisibly (Lightbown & Spada, 1999, p. 44). Through this social process, the more competent students can benefit through discovering missing information and developing different means of understanding (Nyikos & Hashimoto, 1997). Therefore, both the low and high proficiency learners can benefit from group negotiation (Breen & Candlin, 1980, p. 92).

In such a classroom environment, the learners should not be segregated by supposed ability, achievement, interests, or any other characteristics, because segregation deprives all students of opportunities to learn from and with each other (Bruffee, 1993, p. 3). In EFL contexts, where the opportunity to interact with native speakers of English is rare, the teacher should take the role of a more capable interlocutor because he can be a useful source of language information for the learners. However, the teacher should gradually decrease his speech input so that the students can have more opportunities to use the target language themselves.

Another way of indicating necessary conditions for language learning is to think in terms of overt activity, emotional involvement, and absence of stress (Ferguson, 1998). Overt activity means that as the learner learns to speak by speaking, so each learner should have the opportunity to speak. In addition, the learning process should not only
engage the learners in terms of emotion but should also avoid creating stress on the learners by setting tasks within their abilities and expectations.

The positive impact of collaborative activities on language learned is summed up by Michael Long (1990, pp. 37-38) in this list of five benefits based on his research:

1. Group work increases the quantity of language practice opportunities.
2. Group work improves the quality of the student talk in several ways. They can engage in what Barnes (1976) calls "exploratory" talk and practice a functionally wider speech repertoire.
3. Group work helps individualise instruction, potentially allowing students to work at their own pace, perhaps using different materials.
4. Group work can help improve the affective climate in the classroom, the intimacy of the small group setting is often especially valuable to shy or linguistically insecure students.
5. Finally group work can help motivate learners because of the advantages referred to in (1) through (4) and because of pedagogic variety it brings to a classroom.

As a consequence, the tourism students studying English for Tour Guides are expected to gain better oral competence through the addition of collaborative learning processes within the language teaching program (See page 91).

2.2.4 Communicative competence in a second language

The term 'communicative competence', coined by Dell Hymes in 1966 to give a wide interpretation of language ability, means the 'intuitive knowledge of social, functional, and contextual features' of language (Stern, 1985, p. 344). Scholars in the field of foreign and second language teaching commonly use the term 'communicative competence' to mean the ability to use language appropriately in communicative interaction (Saville-Troike, 1992). This competence is present in those who express themselves in language with correct grammar, appropriateness, intelligibility, and coherence (Breen & Candlin, 2001, p. 22). This applies to all four main language skills, but of these, speaking is very important in international contexts, especially for students seeking successful professional careers in such fields as business (Dannels, 2001). Conversation, interviewing, story-telling and speech making are examples of spoken forms which need to be acquired (Chafe, 1992).
In terms of oral language competence, second language speakers do not have to be able to speak like native speakers of English because ‘complete competence is hardly ever reached by second language learners’ (Stern, 1985, p. 341). However, this is not meant to negate the fact that some non-native speakers can have better control of spoken English than native speakers (Brown, 1987, p. 47). Saville-Troike (1992, p. 273) claims that speakers’ communicative competence includes ‘knowledge of rules (i) for the appropriate choice of variety or language, given a particular social context and communicative intent; (ii) for switching between varieties or languages; or (iii) for maintaining silence when that is the most appropriate mode.’

The communicative and functional purposes of language are the most necessary to be acquired. Therefore, the main competence that second language learners should acquire consists of the following three characteristics. First, the learner should have enough knowledge of language forms and meanings carried by those forms in order to accomplish the communicative functions of language (Brown, 1987, p. 202; Stern, 1985, p. 346). Second, the learners should be able to use the language to communicate with the emphasis on knowledge of the social, functional, and contextual features, not on language forms. Third, language learners should have the ability not only to conform to existing rules but even create new forms (Stern, 1985, p. 346).

In relation to a closer analysis of the productive processes involved, Cohen (1990) discusses the two demands the average learner should meet in order to produce spoken utterances: planning an utterance, and executing the utterance. In the planning stage, there are four activities to be considered: ‘selection of elements, ordering of elements, agreement of elements and pronunciation’ (Cohen, 1990, pp. 53-54). To select the elements, the learners have to use their knowledge in relation to four aspects: linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic and content knowledge. First, they have to know how words, phrases and sentences are formed. Then they should know how these linguistic elements are linked to one another to form meaningful text. After that, they have to know the rules for the appropriate use of such forms. Dannels (2001) supports Cohen on this issue by suggesting that students require additional help with acquiring the communication skills they will have to use in the workplace. She suggests that these skills can be learned through the classroom practice within the learners’ disciplines; these
would include acquiring and selecting the information to speak about, organizing the information effectively, and pronouncing the utterance so that it will be intelligible to the listeners. After the selection of the language choices, Goulden (1998, p. 94) adds that speakers should practice their oral language before executing the utterances.

In order to produce the appropriate word choices and sentence structure for the listening audience as opposed to the reading audience, the easiest method to ensure authentic oral language is by oral drafting and presenting the speech in an extemporaneous manner.

During the second stage, that is, executing the utterances, second language speakers may need communication strategies such as borrowing, literal translation, approximation, description, word coinage, mime, and avoidance (Cohen, 1990; Stern, 1985) to supplement their speech when they are not sure of what to say and how to say it. Stern (1985) claims that the speakers willing to use these communicative strategies seem to be more successful. In addition, because speech is normally produced quickly and in unpredicted situations, they may make some errors while they are speaking. Consequently, these speakers may have to know how to correct their oral errors either by themselves or with help from the interlocutors without interfering with the speakers' thinking process. Goulden (1998, p. 94) suggests that if the speakers' errors affect the meaning of the message, teachers should make them aware of their errors.

According to Canale (1983, p. 5) knowledge of both language and communicative knowledge needs to be acquired and coupled with practice in target situations in the classroom before communicative competence is achieved. In order to evaluate the learner achievement, this research will take the view that grammaticality, appropriateness, intelligibility and coherence in communicative performance should be used as criteria for judging (Breen and Candlin, 2001, p. 22). These criteria are similar to those already mentioned by Cohen (1990) and Canale (1983) in that they include linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competence. However, both of the letter writers add an additional feature, with Cohen mentioning content knowledge as required for ability to communicate, and Canale adding strategic competence to his list. These two are not dealt with specifically in this project because content knowledge is taught as a separate unit.
and strategic competence relates more to those sections of the TAT requirements, which will be dealt with in future courses.

2.2.5 CLT in EFL contexts.

Although CLT has been widely accepted as an approach for teaching English as a foreign language in Thailand, many educators, who have studied the application of CLT from non-English speaking areas, question its use. In 1989, Burnaby and Sun investigated 24 English teachers' perceptions on the appropriateness and effectiveness of western language teaching methods in China. Then in 1993, Anderson, who trained young Chinese middle school English teachers for six weeks to use CLT, studied those trainees' attitudes towards it. Later, in 1995, Li examined 18 South Korean secondary school English teachers and in this same year Hird observed and interviewed his own class in China. One year after that Ellis studied the situation of CLT in Vietnam. Recently Deckert (2004) studied the notions and practice of 75 EFL instructors teaching English in Arabian universities. According to these studies, the difficulties can be divided into four major types, those relating to teachers, learners, different educational systems/policies, and CLT itself.

In relation to the first area of difficulty, the teachers are mentioned as presenting a major problem affecting CLT usage. Many teachers of English, particularly in EFL contexts in Asia, are not proficient English speakers. These teachers have low linguistic, strategic and sociolinguistic competence (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Hird, 1995; Li, 2001). Because of a lack of communicative competence, they are not confident to answer the students' questions and consequently the value of the interaction between teachers and students, which is a crucial component of CLT, decreases. In addition, many teachers lack opportunities to be trained or retrained in CLT; therefore, they may have misconceptions about it. As a result, some teachers focus too much on appropriateness and fluency of oral English and neglect the importance of language features (Hird, 1995; Li, 2001), while others spend too much time correcting students' errors (Deckert, 2004). Furthermore, some teachers are not able to develop their own materials because of limited access to authentic texts or lack of time and expertise in CLT (Burnaby & Sun, 1989; Li, 2001).
The second type of problem in relation to CLT application is caused by the learners' low proficiency and motivation. Learners in EFL classroom are perhaps reluctant to speak English because they lack communicative competence in English. In addition, learners care more about grammar than speaking (Li, 2001) and may not have the motivation to participate in classroom interaction. When learners are assigned to work in small groups, they tend to shift from English to their first language (Deckert, 2004). Because of the learners' tradition and culture in which teachers are respected as socially higher than the learners, many students prefer to learn passively from the instructors. However, a study of small group work in Cambodia in the 1990's indicates that a whole program consistent approach implemented over several years could have a different approach (Bowering, 1998).

The third type of problem concerns the education systems and policies of certain areas, where the application of CLT is not acceptable. In China, for example, teachers have to follow the curriculum developed by the government (Burnaby & Sun, 1989) so they have limited possibilities for the use of CLT (Hird, 1995). In South Korea, teachers find CLT implementation difficult because of large classes, insufficient funding to buy books and materials, and lack of support from colleagues and administration (Li, 2001). Some teachers in China, for example, find themselves having no status and no professional development if they use English for communication (Burnaby & Sun, 1989).

The final problem is caused by the nature of CLT application in EFL contexts. CLT focuses on teaching students to communicate in real-life situations, but in Asian countries where English is learned as a foreign language only in the classroom, there is little real-life communication for the learners outside the classroom. Therefore, students have few opportunities for interaction with more competent speakers (Burnaby & Sun, 1989). In this particular context CLT does not suit the learners' aims because most of them learn English in order to pass examinations (Ellis, 1996; Li, 2001). In addition, grammar-based examinations, which are commonly used, are not appropriate for communicative assessment.

In this author's view, problems and difficulties faced by teachers vary from country to country. The teachers should be ready to adjust their teaching methods to suit
their learners’ needs and their own cultural situations (Ellis, 1996). In response to teachers’ low proficiency, they may find other ways to improve their communicative competence and gain a better understanding of CLT either by in-service training or doing practical experiments. They should encourage themselves to feel confident to communicate with their students in English without being native-like, because they can be a good model of a successful learner of English and a provider of language knowledge and learning strategies for the learners by using their own direct experience (Medgyes, 1992). They may even combine CLT with their traditional methods if the context of situation is appropriate. If they cannot access authentic materials, they can collect their own. They can also use second language speakers as models, if the teachers encourage the learners to have positive attitudes to second language users (Cook, 1999) and their own culture. In relation to the learners’ proficiency and motivation, teachers can select activities to match the level of learners’ competence because teachers know their learners. They also know what the learners like or do not like so they can choose activities or tasks which will motivate the learners. In terms of the educational systems and policies, teachers may not have the power to change them, but they can nonetheless adjust their own lessons to promote communicative competence.

Related research in Thailand

Studies have been undertaken involving communicative language learning in Thailand for over a decade. Such studies cover external factors, classroom activities, and surveys of teachers.

In relation to the study of external factors, Krongboonsri (1989) investigated the relationships between student background and motivation with English communicative competence of Year 12 students in Bangkok. He found that the number of years studying English, experience in foreign countries, making use of media in English learning, family members’ talk in English at home, social-economic status, and parental support in English learning fostered the learners’ communicative competence. He also discovered that Thai learners’ integrative motivation and instrumental motivation played an important role in developing communicative competence. If a learner has integrative motivation she/he is encouraged to interact with speakers of the second language and
therefore obtains intake. While having instrumental motivation, a learner desires to achieve proficiency in a language in order to utilize it "as a means for attaining instrumental goals; e.g., furthering a career, reading technical material, translation, and so forth" (Brown, 1987, p. 115). Learners with instrumental motivation tend to interact with speakers of second language to practise using the target language (Krashen, 1981h).

In regard to CLT classroom activities, Sukprasert (1993) studied the effect of using selected activities on the achievement of communicative English usage of Year 6 students in Payao Province. The subjects were divided into two groups, the experimental group being taught through selected activities while the controlled group followed a regular instructional lesson plan. Sukprasert found that the learners’ achievement in the experimental group was higher than that of the control group.

Rattanapitakdhada (2000) investigated English oral communicative proficiency of Year 11 students in Samutprakarn Province using interaction strategies. She taught both the experimental group and the control group by herself. After six weeks of teaching, she found that students taught by using interaction strategies gained higher proficiency than those taught using conventional methods. She also found that students in the experimental group continued to use interaction strategies in the classroom after the experiment. A similar study was conducted by Khunmanee (2000) using the 4MAT system of instruction to teach Year 6 students in Bangkok. The finding was that student communicative competence in the experimental group was significantly higher than the control group. In addition, the students in the experimental group were highly motivated to participate in classroom activities and they also had positive attitudes toward studying English. Vudhanumra (1996) studied the effects of task-based activities and group work to promote communicative competence of second year students at the Royal Thai Air Force Academy. She found that the students’ communicative competence in four skills significantly improved. Similarly, Chayarathee (2004) compared two types of cooperative learning to improve primary school students’ English reading comprehension in Ratchaburi province. She found that students improved their reading comprehension under both teaching methods, but those in the cooperative group where students were given separate roles to fulfill in the group showed a greater improvement. In addition, the
students in that cooperative group had more positive attitudes towards learning English than the other group.

Through surveys of Thai teachers, Langla (1999) examined the English curriculum development of primary schools in Bangkok. The results showed that most teachers in Bangkok used the communicative approach in the classroom by adapting activities, contents, teaching aids to match the local needs. However, these teachers had too high a workload and lack of knowledge of local curriculum development. The school administrators provided teachers with texts but curriculum implementation was not evaluated. A similar study was conducted in Udonthani Province by Sribunruang (1990) to investigate primary school teachers' teaching techniques. The results indicated that on the average teachers seldom used the appropriate techniques in teaching communicative English because half of them had never participated in in-service training related to English instruction. Moreover, more than ninety percent of the teachers had not majored in English.

Although similar studies in relation to CLT have been conducted in Thailand for many years, the focus to date has not been upon oral competence at the tertiary level. The situation in Thailand may be different from other countries in Asia. Currently, government policy focuses on students' communicative competence in at least two foreign languages, despite the difficulties the publishers and educators have to adjust to new methods of teaching. The learners, especially tourism students, have chosen to study English so that they may find a job in the tourism industry. Therefore, they have the motivation to learn English to communicate with foreigners and they are bringing pressure on the teachers to teach communicatively.

As a consequence, it is essential that this project should align itself with the basic theory and practice of CLT, which is well known for its capacity to prepare students for communicative goals. It does this, according to Ellis (1992), by involving teachers and learners in certain activities. Teachers can give learners simplified input and questions while learners can actively participate in controlling, producing and analysing their own L2 production when they are ready to do so. Ellis suggests that CLT classrooms should consist of the following characteristics:
• Teacher-talk is simplified to a level that makes it possible for the learner to process input for communication.

• Classroom interaction provides opportunities for learners to observe the way utterances are constructed in the process of building discourse and to manipulate chunks of language in the expression of meaning content.

• Referential questions that encourage learners to express their own content in their own way in extended responses are used.

• Learners have opportunities to nominate their own topics and to control the development of these topics.

• Learners are given opportunities to participate actively in the classroom communication but are not required to produce until they are ready to do so. Advanced learners may need opportunities for extended production.

• The use of the L2 is not restricted to pedagogic functions but is also used for organizational and social functions. (Ellis, 1992, p. 177)

2.3 Learner attitudes

Learner attitudes are commonly studied in the field of education. An attitude is defined by Gredler (1997) as a capacity that influences an individual's choice about the kinds of actions to take, the habit of a person's thinking toward a certain object or action, and a "state of mind, potentiality, or preparation for action" (Gredler, 1997, p. 113; Musgrove, 1998, p. 85). This means that attitudinal research considers the system of students' beliefs, values, and tendencies to act in certain ways. If students believe that their vocational area is a good one, with opportunity for growth and advancement, they will tend to come to class on time, complete their assignments conscientiously, and look for additional things to do. If they value their spoken English, they will keep improving it. For example, Kuhlemeier, Bergh and Melse (1996) conducted a study of the relationship between students' attitudes toward the subject of German, the course material, and the teacher and students' achievements in German as a foreign language. Attitudes and achievements were measured at the beginning and end of the first year of German (i.e., the second year of Dutch secondary school). The results revealed that students who had a positive attitude rated higher in achievement than those having negative attitudes, both at the beginning and at the end of the second year.

Mantle-Bromley (1995, p. 372-386) asserts that there are three main components of attitudes: affective factors, cognition, and behaviour.
If, as research and theory suggest, attitudes influence the efforts that students expend to learn another language, then language teachers need a clear understanding of attitudes and attitude-change theory in order to address these issues in the classroom. Common to psychological theories on attitudes is the notion that attitudes actually have three components: affect, cognition, and behavior. (Mantle-Bromley, 1995, p. 373)

An affective factor is an evaluative emotional reaction such as the feeling of like or dislike. Cognition refers to what students know or believe about the language and the learning of it. Behaviour refers to actions related to language learning. However, Krashen (1981, pp. 21-22) states that there are two main factors in relation to attitudes: integrative motivation and instrumental motivation. Brown citing Gardner and Lamber proposed that integrative motivation is "employed when learners wish to integrate themselves within the culture of the second language group, to identify themselves with and become a part of that society" (Brown, 1987, pp.115-116). If a learner has integrative motivation she/he is encouraged to interact with speakers of the second language and therefore obtains intake. As mentioned earlier, instrumental motivation is the desire to achieve proficiency in a language in order to fulfill personal practical goals such as to obtain promotion in employments and/or new skills such as translation (Brown, 1987, p. 115). Learners with instrumental motivation tend to interact with speakers of second language to practise using the target language (Krashen, 1981b). Larsen-Freeman (1991) claims that attitudes affect motivation, while Brown (1987) states that motivation is made up of certain attitudes, which in turn affects second language acquisition. Mantle-Bromley (1995) supports these claims by confirming the significance of motivation.

It seems obvious then, that motivation is a major problem in achieving greater numbers of proficient speakers of second languages. Both research and common sense confirm the importance of motivation in L2 acquisition. Although theoretical models of motivation continue to be examined and debated, most researchers now agree (and most teachers intuitively know) that students' attitudes and motivations have a great effect on their achievement. In fact, participation in class, pronunciation, accuracy, and ultimately, persistence in language study, have all been authoritatively linked to attitudes and motivations in the language class.
In addition, Brown (1987, p. 127) suggests that the learners should have positive attitudes toward their learning environment.

It seems intuitively clear, nevertheless, that second language learners benefit from positive attitudes and that negative attitudes may lead to decreased motivation and in all likelihood, because of decreased input and interaction, to unsuccessful attainment of proficiency. Yet the teacher needs to be aware that everyone has both positive and negative attitudes.

If students believe that their occupational area (in this case, a tourist guide) is a good one, with opportunity for growth and advancement, they will tend to come to class on time, complete their assignments consciously, and look for additional things to do. If they value their spoken English, they will keep improving it.

In relation to negative attitudes, some learners may be frustrated about their learning, feelings which may hinder their learning. For instance, a survey of 346 college English learners in Taiwan conducted by Lin and Warden (1998) showed that most of the students had either fear or unpleasant memories about their past English learning experience, and that students of different majors had different perspectives on English learning. It is suggested that teachers should be aware of the different attitudes of their learners, so they can encourage individual learners to change their negative attitudes in order to learn English more effectively. This is because attitude change is a significant aspect of any pedagogical innovation (Karavas-Doukas, 1996, p. 188). In the case of Thai tourism industry students, instrumental motivation, particularly, should be present or promoted, so that students will be encouraged to practise speaking English. Furthermore, negative attitudes such as the fear of making mistakes or the feeling that English is irrelevant need to be eliminated. Musgrove (1998, p. 85) suggests that knowing that a student’s resistance is caused by fear or by indifference, should help teachers decide what supplementary activities should be included for each student. This is the reason why this study aims to investigate the students' attitudes towards the training provided by this particular course.
2.4 Regional Englishes

The English language originated in England but nowadays it has increasingly become a global language. The type of English used in each country or region may not be the same but people can generally understand each other without serious difficulty. This section will discuss current theories on regional Englishes, especially Asian English and Thai English, to provide a background to the differences, which are already widely accepted and which affect the type of English recommended for our tourist guides.

2.4.1 Current theories on regional Englishes

According to Kachru (1995) there are three concentric circles of English users around the world: the expanding circle, the outer circle, and the inner circle. In the inner circle such as the U.S.A., the U.K., Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, English is used as the first language and the people are generally native speakers of English. In the outer circle, particularly in postcolonial countries like Malaysia and Singapore, English is an institutionalized additional language. Many of the people in this circle are bilingual because English is an official language. In the expanding circle such as China, Japan, and Thailand, English becomes a foreign language often used for specific purposes such as in the tourism industry, in business or in education.

There are several reasons why the use of English has moved from the inner circle to other regions. First, English spread into various regions where Britain established overseas colonies and where new forms or varieties of English or new Englishes gradually developed (Crystal, 1997b; Vavrus, 2002). Second, over the last four decades English has become an international language, because it is used worldwide in education, in business, in tourism, and in personal communication (Crystal, 1997; Koscielecki, 1994; Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996). In addition, in the post-communist states, English is being fostered as a path to democracy, the market economy, and human rights (Phillipson & Skutnabb-Kangas, 1996). Rajagopal (2004, p. 111), who also accepts the use of English as an international language, states that:

World English (WE) belongs to everybody who speaks it, but it is nobody’s mother tongue. Although today ever more people accept the idea that there is such a thing as WE.
The result of this spread is that now there are many times more non-native speakers of English than native speakers (Ronowiez & Yallop, 1999, p. 14). According to Crystal (1997), the number of native speakers of English in 1997 was around 400 million, but there are now more than 700 million non-native speakers of English around the world (Singh, 2004). Therefore, the overall total is more than 1,000 million English language speakers including speakers with lower levels of language fluency and awareness (Crystal, 1997, p. 360). Non-native speakers use English to communicate with other non-native speakers from other countries or regions. For example, the Japanese use English to do business with Singaporeans or Thais and even when there is an Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) summit among the Southeast Asian governments, the only language used in this conference is English. This means that many different forms of English such as that spoken in Thailand are now acceptable and Thai speakers are not forced into conformity with native speaker norms.

As the number of people who use English in different parts of the world is increasing rapidly, it seems that the varieties of the English language will become more apparent in the next quarter of a century (McCarthy, 1998, p. 215). Kachru (1995, p. 5) describes the fact that the concept of variations of English is now accepted.

English has become a pluricentric language. That is, English has a multiplicity of norms, both endocentric and exocentric, multiple identities in creativity, and distinct sociolinguistic histories and contexts of functions. In other words, it is now more apt to use the terms “Englishes” than “English.”

Koscielckie (1994, p. 61) also argues that English as an international language is ‘multiform’ involving the use of both native and non-native international forms. The native norms can be described as British English, American English, Australian English, New Zealand English or South African English. Ronowiez and Yallop (1999, p. 26) describe the basic differences in the English language used by native speakers in Britain, the United States, Canada, Australia and New Zealand, pointing out that even among these five countries there are variations in spelling, pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary and idiom. Consequently, English cannot be described as a single form since there are already a few distinctive non-native norms of English. The varieties can be said to be different dialects or Englishes in different regions. Rajagopalan (2004) suggests that
educators dealing with English language teaching have to review their methodology in order to suit this trend, particularly the role of native speakers' English in the language classroom. In the future, native-speaker English may not be used as the measure or norm for learners.

2.4.2 Asian varieties of English

Many different factors explain why people in Asia use English. People in some countries, such as India and Singapore, commonly use English. As they were British colonies in the past (Britton, Shafer, & Watson, 1990, p. 249), English had become an integral part of the national framework. Some countries such as Japan, Indonesia, China and Thailand use English as a foreign language. English is used in these countries because of economic, political and educational reasons but its usage is nonetheless peripheral to the nation. For example, Koscielecki (1994, pp. 10-11) claims that the Japanese use English as a medium for their international business. Kirkpatrick (2000) argues that in East and South-east Asia, English has an important role as a lingua franca of the political elite at important meetings, such as ASEAN, as well as between professionals and the business community in this region.

Although the variety of English spoken by Asian people is different from the one spoken by native speakers of English, it has been argued that it should be accepted as it is and even taught in schools (Cook, 1999; Kirkpatrick, 2000).

2.4.3 Thai English

Thai parents and Thai employees as well as the Thai government see value in encouraging students to be proficient in English. Therefore, English is taught as the main foreign language in Thailand both in the public sector and the private sector beginning from the primary school level to the tertiary level.

English as used in Thailand is different from other varieties of English in the two productive areas of writing and speaking. O’Sullivan & Tajamoutsuk (1997, p. 86) note that Thai people use the ‘indirect’ approach in writing with their sentences circling around the topic and avoiding any explicit judgment or conclusion. This contrasts with the western idea of linear or direct organization and may confuse westerners. Furthermore, the English language spoken by most Thais is strongly influenced by the
Thai language system relating to both grammatical structure and pronunciation. Smyth (2001, p. 344) describes the process of creating a Thai accent whereby certain influences counteract the effects of attempts to reproduce American or British accents:

Thais speak English with a Thai accent because they try to fit every English word into the Thai phonological system. While this is to some extent true of every foreign accent, there does appear to be a peculiar reluctance among many Thai speakers to shed their accent.

According to Smyth, there are many factors underlying the development of the Thai accent. First, the pressure from peer groups discourages Thai students from appearing to be using standard English in the classroom. Second, Thai speakers pronounce English words in a Thai way to avoid leading to misunderstandings or sounding pretentious. Finally, this certain pronunciation is reinforced by Thai teachers and English-Thai dictionaries that describe the English sounds using Thai script. Consequently, Thai speakers pronounce English consonants and vowels in relation to their closest Thai equivalents.

In the case of these pronunciation deficiencies, the results from this researcher’s investigation of primary school teachers in the northern provinces of Phitsanulok and Sukhothai in 2000, results reveal that most such teachers of English have problems with the pronunciation of English consonant sounds which do not exist in the Thai system, e.g. /dr/ and /l/). They have more problems when such consonants appear at the end of the words because Thai has only eight final consonant phonemes and no final clusters. The English initial clusters /drl, /fr/, /f/, /v/, /sw/, /skl, /skl/, /spl, /ski/ and /su/ do not occur in Thai. Many Thai speakers insert a short vowel between the consonants or even create another full syllable (Smyth, 2001). For example, swim becomes su-wim, and speak becomes su-speak. In the word final position, Thais may either not pronounce these clusters or replace them with a single Thai consonant sound. For example, desk becomes dek or dek. Another problematic consonant for Thai speakers is /l/, because this sound is usually substituted by /l/ even in their own language.

As Thai is a tonal language, each Thai syllable has a fixed tone. This means that changing the tone can change the meaning of a word. Thai speakers also tend to give
equal weight to every English syllable, not realizing that English is a stress-timed language. As a result of this, a common mistake produced by Thai speakers is stress on the final syllable in words with more than one syllable such as *shopping, table,* and so on. Particular difficulty with word stress for the majority of Thai learners of English can thus be predicted.

Looking at this issue of speech variation in more general terms, Jenkins (2000, pp. 19-20) maintains that the most important factor that threatens intelligibility is pronunciation because non-native speaker varieties of pronunciation differ markedly. In addition, Ronowicz and Yallop (1999, p. 25) emphasize that there is more variability in spoken English than written; therefore, phonological intelligibility and acceptability should be emphasized in relation to situations where other nationals are involved. From the analysis of her data, Jenkins (2000) proposes that students master the following most important areas to preserve intelligibility in international English teaching:

1. Most consonant sounds
2. Appropriate consonant cluster simplification
3. Vowel length distinctions
4. Nuclear stress

Jenkins predicts particular difficulty with the English sounds mentioned above for the majority of learners of English. Identifying the sounds which are likely to prove especially difficult for learners can guide planning for the course. Therefore, Jenkins (2000, pp. 133-134) recommends that course planners include her Lingua Franca Core for teaching pronunciation:

1. The consonantal inventory with the following provisos:
   --rhotic [r] rather than other varieties of /r /
   --intervocalic / l / rather than / r /
   --most substitution of /θ/, /ð/, and [ t ] permissible
   --close approximations to core consonant sounds generally permissible
   --certain approximations not permissible (i.e. where there is a risk they will be heard as a different consonant sound from that intended)

2. Phonetic requirements:
   --aspiration following the fortis plosives /p/, /b/, and /k/
   --fortis/lenis differential effect on preceding vowel length
3. Consonant clusters:
   --initial clusters not simplified
--medial and final clusters simplified only according to L1 rules of elision

4. Vowel sounds:
--maintenance of vowel length contrasts
--L2 regional qualities permissible if consistent, but /ə/ to be preserved

5. Nuclear stress production and placement and division of speech stream into word groups.

The above areas require pedagogic focus for classroom activities because they have the potential for error. Other areas should be regarded as pertaining to a regional accent and not essential. Jenkins also asserts that insistence on 'correctness' (i.e. native-likeness) in the other areas can be described as insistence on conformity rather than on accuracy.

In terms of grammatical structure, the Thai language is very different from English, e.g. it does not have the past form of verbs. This leads Thai speakers to use the present form of verbs to talk about the past events as seen in the pilot study of tour guiding conducted by the researcher. In addition, plural nouns in Thai are unmarked, unlike English. Thai speakers normally use the singular form of an English noun where a plural should be used.

Although it has been argued that it is not necessary for Thai learners to adjust completely to a British or North American native speaker model, the teaching of English for Thai tourism industry students should certainly enhance intelligibility and acceptability of their presentation for foreign tourists in the ways envisaged by Jenkins. As a consequence of this, the present study incorporates assessment and evaluation processes based on the latter criteria rather than on complete conformity and accuracy.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter has described Second Language Acquisition (a theory of how to learn a language in general), the revolution of Communicative Language Teaching (the major current approach to language teaching), and the variety of Englishes, all of which provide guidance for the development of tourism students' oral competency. The literature review in relation to these three areas has revealed that there has been educational change in terms of the teaching and learning approaches and attitudes to the form of the English language itself. Although these changes of emphasis are supported in
principle by the Thai Government national education policy, it is difficult for teachers to introduce these new trends. As a consequence, Thai teachers need to promote modifications to suit Thai contexts, particularly in terms of Thai learner attitudes, classroom procedures and the type of English to be taught. To date although some research has shown that CLT methods can be effective in relation to oral competence at the school level, the tertiary sector has been neglected.

For all these reasons, the present study relating to tourism students could provide valuable evidence. However, before this can be done, the theories related to the detailed requirements and planning for such a course need to be reviewed. This is done in the next chapter.
CHAPTER THREE

LITERATURE REVIEW II

Discussion of the language training of tour guides and the contribution of ESP and genre theory to this training brings the literature review in this chapter closer to the EFL classroom. The first section explains the requirements for tourist guide training in general and the place of language within this. The English for Specific Purposes theory and research will then be described as a guide for teaching specialist English for tour guides. The last section discusses the theory of genre teaching from both the Australian and North American perspectives and its relationship to English for Specific Purposes with a view to developing support for the explicit teaching of spoken genres for tour guiding as well as to using this method, rather than a strict ESP approach. The nature of spoken English and its significance for tour guiding is the last section in the chapter.

3.1 Tourism training research

The tourism industry has become increasingly important for the economic development of many countries. As a result, schools, institutions and universities provide training to ensure the effectiveness of the tourism industry. Since such courses are a relatively new phenomenon, research to date has been slim.

Not a great deal of published research exists in this area. An example of such a study at the high school level was conducted in 1994 by the Institute of Contemporary Art in Philadelphia (Witmer & Borst, 1999). This program was designed to train high school students to lead tours of art galleries, in the belief that high school guides possessed the desired level of aesthetic development. The results reveal that the program helped the students develop critical thinking, visual literacy, and public speaking skills by means of peer-facilitated discussions. Similarly, Gesek (2000) claimed that a tour guiding program at Montgomery High School in New York which involved the four steps: classroom simulation, field trips with an adult trainer, field trips with a student trainer, and a student-led tour for the public, could develop self-confidence and improve speaking skills by applying the knowledge about the topic students had studied before. To sum up,
tour guide training in high schools can not only foster the students' public speaking skills but also supplement their knowledge of the tourist attractions in their communities. However, these two studies carried out with native speakers give little assistance on how to teach the language of tour guiding to second language speakers.

Some studies in Thailand deal with these issues more directly. In vocational and higher education in Thailand, tourism training is offered as short-course training or a four-year degree program provided by both the private and government sectors. Mukpradapthong (2001) investigated the level of satisfaction of undergraduates with the tour guiding curriculum of the Hotel and Tourism Training Institute. She found that the trainees were dissatisfied with the short period of time for practice and she also suggested that a further study of the satisfaction of tourists with the tour guides' performance and the industry's needs for tour guides should be conducted. Furthermore, a specific course about tourist attractions should be offered.

A study on the demand for English language in the tourism industry conducted by Boonyavatana (2000) indicated that although almost all personnel in this field agreed strongly that English was essential for their jobs, half of them thought English was difficult. The ones who considered English difficult said that the difficulty was caused by the differences between Thai and English grammar and pronunciation, lack of English language knowledge, lack of time to practise, lack of confidence, and few opportunities to use English in everyday life. Among the four language skills, they considered speaking the most important, but when they spoke English, most of them did not possess enough vocabulary. However, a study of tourist perceptions in Chiangrai, Thailand, conducted by Duangsanit (2003) revealed that most foreign tourists thought the Thai tour guides' English was better than they had expected. It may be assumed these studies indicate that although Thai tour guides are not happy with their English, foreign tourists can comprehend and be satisfied with it.

In relation to the teaching of tourism students in tertiary education, several studies have been conducted in Thailand. In northern Thailand, Aphichai (2000) developed an experimental course with tourism students at Maejo University, Phrae Campus, by using a content-based approach. The results revealed that most students obtained information...
presented through English at an average level by combining the new knowledge gained through reading with their own knowledge. In Chiangmai, Inthanark (2002) studied the effect of using a problem-solving approach to teach English to fourth-year tourism students at Chiangmai Rajabhat University. She found that more than sixty per cent of the students could speak English quite well and the motivation to learn increased through the teaching and learning process. Earlier in north-eastern Thailand, Sriwongtrakul (2000) investigated trends in the teaching and learning improvement of the tourism industry program in Nakhonrachasima Rajabhat University. The results suggested that students should be trained more with a focus on service attitude, ethics and language competence.

A study of the potential of traditional tourist guides to become eco-tourism leaders conducted by Kannasombat (2000) in Thailand, revealed that most tour guides did not have positive attitudes towards eco-tourism's focus on travelling to natural and cultural attractions. She suggested that tour guides should study in detail how to perform their tasks properly in different places such as caves, beaches, mountains and historical parks so that they could give correct information to tourists.

The conclusion can be drawn from the research review that tour guide training could develop students' abilities in such areas as public speaking skills, knowledge of tourist attractions, positive attitude to spoken English, and self-confidence. In addition, the research of the learner needs indicates that that tour guide trainers or instructors should make allowance for the details of prominent tourist attractions, the attitudes of the students and the development of the appropriate language skills that will lead the students to perform their tasks appropriately. This project aims to take such matters into consideration.

3.2 Stakeholder requirements for the tour guiding course

According to Johns and Price-Machado (2001), stakeholders such as an employer, an agency, a government, an educational institution, or the students are the clients of an ESP program. Such programs are commonly developed on the basis of the demand of these stakeholders; this section, therefore, describes the requirements of the two main stakeholders in this case, the Rajabhat University and the Tourism Authority of
Thailand, since they are the two bodies, whose guidelines need to be taken into account for the course design.

Rajabhat University (previously Institute) requirements

According to the Rajabhat Institute Council Curriculum (1997), every student is required to take at least two General English courses within the first year of study. They are: English for Communication and Information Retrieval, and English for Communication and Study Skills. The first course aims to develop students' communication skills in everyday life and strategies for searching for information in English through many sources such as the internet, newspapers, journals, and electronic database. The second course aims to develop the students' four macro language skills but focuses more on reading and presenting what has been read.

After the completion of the two courses above, each individual program chooses selective courses to match the students' discipline. For example, the students in the Tourism Industry Program have to study many English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) courses such as English for Tourism, English for Hotels, and Business Communication in English. In relation to English for Tourism, there are four consecutive courses to be studied within the period of four years. The first is designed to give the students an overview of the tourism industry and basic vocabulary and expressions needed in the tourism industry. The second aims to develop more specific language features used in different aspects of tourism, e.g. accommodation, itinerary, and description of tourist attractions. The third provides practice in language skills and language features appropriate to the tourism industry, both domestic and international. This course is designed to train the students to use spoken and written language in various situations. The fourth provides for the development of skills in all aspects of leading a tour, such as planning, organizing, and conducting tours and giving descriptions and information about the tour sites.

The third-year students in the Tourism Industry program, the subjects of this research, have already taken two English for Tourism courses, English for Tourism 1 and English for Tourism 2. As the use of English for tour guiding, a major part of English for Tourism 3, has specific functions and purposes, the course must be organized to help the
tour guides communicate with foreign tourists. This project aims to develop the course and materials so that the learners can study the appropriate language functions identified.

Tourism Authority of Thailand requirements

Any course planned for tourist guides in Thailand needs to follow the foreign language standards issued by the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT). According to TAT tourist guide training manual (Tourism Authority of Thailand, 1998), a tourist guide should be able to perform the following communicative tasks:

1. describing and explaining (50%),
2. giving instructions (20%),
3. answering and asking informative questions (10%),
4. interacting appropriately and courteously in social situations (10%),
5. dealing with complaints (10%).

In relation to these five tasks required by TAT, because of the need to fit the course within the overall course pattern of the Rajabhat as well as limitations of time, this course will deal only with task (1), which covers fifty percent of the requirements. In addition to explaining and describing tasks, a narrative task is added because the pilot field data (see Chapter 5) indicates that tourist guides narrate when they describe the history of important places and people in the north of Thailand. Tasks (2) to (5) will be taught in later courses in the fourth year.

The next section will discuss theory in relation to English for Specific Purposes, the branch of linguistics which deals with the type of English used for specialist purposes. The application of these theories to the development of the syllabus and teaching materials is also considered.

3.3 English for Specific Purposes (ESP)

ESP as a major area of language practice first appeared in the early 1960s (Swales, 1992) because of the demands of new technological and business world, the revolution in linguistics, and the new focus on learners and their needs. Hutchinson and Waters (1987b, pp. 6-8) note that the Second World War also influenced its growth due to a sudden expansion in scientific, technical and activity on an international scale. Because
of the economic power of the United States after the war, capital and knowledge were transferred from western countries to the oil-rich countries during the Oil Crisis of the early 1970s and the language used to transfer this knowledge to other countries was English. Consequently, English became a subject not only for language teachers and students but also for those people who wished to achieve prosperity. At the same time as the demand arose for English courses for different groups of people, a shift from using the rules of English as a basis to ways to use language in real communication was occurring in language courses. Thus, the second cause of ESP's emergence, as mentioned by Swales, was the linguistic revolution. While linguists began to describe language features, researchers started to develop theories about how language is used in separate areas of communication. This idea led to the teaching of English for specific groups of learners, because in real communication the situational usage varies. As Swales had indicated, learners had different needs and interests, and as a result, course developers had to develop the courses to match the factors in particular contexts. When the language is used in different situations with different people, the features of the language change and this new language form is what must be taught.

**Definitions of ESP**

ESP has been defined as 'the technique of teaching English to students who need it for a particular job or profession or for some other purposes' (Sinclair, 1987, p. 478). This definition corresponds with that of Hutchinson and Waters (1987b, p. 19) who describes ESP as 'an approach to language teaching which is directed by specific and apparent reasons for learning'. In Swales' view (Swales, 1992, p. 300), Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) or ESP is 'the area of inquiry and practice in the development of language programs for people who need a language to meet a predictable range of communicative needs.' A similar definition is given by Johns and Price-Machado (2001, p. 43):

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is a movement based on the proposition that all language teaching should be tailored to the specific learning and language use needs of identified groups of students—and also sensitive to the sociocultural contexts in which these students will be using English.
It is therefore argued here that at some point English courses at the tertiary level, which are aimed at enabling students to use the language for their professional purposes (Srisa-an, 1998a, p. 165), would benefit from an ESP approach.

**ESP development**

Since the number of ESP practitioners, both teachers and learners, has increased, more specialist courses have been developed to match the needs of the learners. This is particularly so in EFL contexts where adult learners are eager to learn English for their future careers in such areas as international business (Johns & Price-Machado, 2001). Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, pp. 4-5) suggest that the teaching of the English of a specific profession or discipline should utilize different approaches and methods from the ones used in general purpose English teaching. Strevens (1988) also supports teachers' rights to adopt new ways for successful teaching of ESP.

ESP can be successful when teachers are given special preparation, when special teaching materials are produced, and when it is accepted that a considerable initial investment in time and money is required in order to achieve cost-effectiveness. (Strevens, 1988, p.2)

In developing this idea, Hutchinson and Waters (1987b, pp. 9-14) state that there are five stages in ESP course development. At the early stage, register analysis is used to identify grammatical and lexical features of English for certain subjects such as science. These linguistic features at the sentence level are then used to develop teaching materials. The second stage of ESP development moves on to discourse analysis, focusing on how sentences combine to produce meaning. The organizational patterns found are then used to form the framework of the syllabus of the ESP course. At the third stage, a needs analysis of the target situation in which the learners are expected to use the language is done to identify the language features of that situation. However, as Swales (1992, p. 302) pointed out, the needs analysis is used to discover both teachers' and students' wishes. The fourth stage attempts to discover skills and strategies underlying language use, which are then commonly integrated into reading or listening courses. The last stage of ESP focuses attention on the understanding of the process of language learning within the course.
In relation to the development of English for Tour Guides course, this research applied to the first of the three stages involved with the identification of the language in the target situation, while the course assessment tools were used to throw light upon the final two stages.

**Criteria of ESP**

Although ESP has undergone many stages of development, it is still relatively new and many of its actual features are still under consideration. Strevens (1988, pp. 1-2) defines the distinctions between the four absolute characteristics of ESP and two variable characteristics of ESP:

The absolute characteristics of ESP consist of English teaching which is

(i) designed to meet specified needs of the learner;

(ii) related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;

(iii) centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis; discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse; and

(iv) in contrast with General English.

The ESP variable characteristics may be, but not necessarily,

(i) restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only); and

(ii) not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology.

Anthony (2004) notes that there has been debate about what ESP means, referencing particularly the 1997 Japan Conference on ESP, where the main guest speaker, Dudley-Evans, extended the definition of ESP. This modification adds more variable characteristics, claiming that ESP is not necessarily related to specific disciplines. Dudley-Evans (1997) removed the absolute characteristic that “ESP is in contrast with General English”, perhaps to indicate that ESP is inclusive of some elements of English for General English and added additional variable characteristics in order that ESP could extend its meaning to cover the teaching of English for both adults and young adults who already have some basic knowledge of the language system at tertiary level and secondary school level. In this modified version, it is important that one absolute characteristic has been added. The new list of absolute characteristics includes genre, which should be treated in company with grammar, lexis, register, study skills, and
discourse. This project adopts both the absolute and variable characteristics of Dudley-Evans in that it is designed to meet specific needs of the learners and uses a genre-based methodology which is described in the next chapter. At the same time, however, aspects of CI.T as it relates to the teaching of General English have also influenced the research design. Dudley-Evans' full list of variables is as follows:

**Absolute Characteristics**

- ESP is defined to meet specific needs of the learners.
- ESP makes use of underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves.
- ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

**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 for learners at secondary school level.
- ESP is generally designed for immediate or advanced students.
- Most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language systems. (Anthony, 2004, p. 2)

**ESP program planning**

As ESP programs are developed because of increasing demand of many people involved, course developers should take many factors into account. Johns and Price-Machado (2001, pp. 45-49) recommend five factors for consideration: stakeholders in the project, availability of teachers, authenticity issues, curricular decisions, and assessment.

In relation to the stakeholders, course developers should bear in mind who that wants the program and what they want the program to provide. These people can be employers, an agency, a government, an educational institution, or the students themselves. The business organizations, institutions, and the government may want their employees or students to be trained in specialized language skills and often these people will also be the source of funding. For example, in Thailand, TAT wants Thai citizens to
become tour guides, and it therefore sets its own course requirements, and asking institutions and universities to offer training courses using the TAT criteria. Institutions and universities also offer several English for Specific Purposes programs such as English for Secretaries and Business English, but in these cases the stakeholders would be different.

The second factor to be considered relates to the teachers who will be involved in the program. These teachers should be qualified in terms of the ability to analyse the language knowledge and skills needed for the specific areas they are going to teach. Some teachers may not be familiar with ESP content including the particular vocabulary and discourse, and the processes that are necessary for training the students in a particular context. Teachers may also have to conduct some needs analysis by researching target situations if they have to design the syllabus themselves.

The third factor involves authenticity issues because ESP is concerned with special English in particular contexts. It is therefore beneficial if the learners can learn to use the language in the real contexts. However, if such on-site courses cannot be possible, teachers should seek other ways to provide the learners with authenticity. One of the ways is to analyse the target situations where the learners will be using English in the future and bring the results into the curriculum so that the learners can study in the classroom. An example of this successful practice is illustrated by the work of MacDonald, Badger, and White (2000) who used teacher simulated videotapes of presentation within an ESP classroom in comparison with audiotapes of authentic data to promote student listening competence. The research found that the use of simulation videotapes was more beneficial than the real data.

The fourth factor concerns making curricular decisions. Course developers have to choose the teaching approaches which are relevant to their learners' specific linguistic and pragmatic needs, as well as suitable resources and materials for use in the classroom. Teachers can use the commercial materials and/or develop their own materials to match the language and skills needed for the particular careers, that are available to their students.
The last factor to be considered is assessment. Because the clients and students want to know the results of the specific goals of learning, the assessment should be carried out in the form of both formative and summative evaluation (Douglas, 2000, Johns & Price-Machado, 2001). Douglas' suggestion that ESP assessment should be appropriate to the target instructional context has influenced this project's use of a direct form of oral assessment to evaluate the students' performance.

The development of this specialist course has thus taken five factors into account. First, the design responds to the combined demands of both the students' institute and the TAT. Second, the course design utilises the needs analysis conducted by the researcher to examine target situations. This study found that the most common spoken genres needed in students' future careers were the itinerary, descriptions of places and animals, narratives about famous people, and places and explanations of procedures. Third, the teacher provides the learners with authenticity by using modified versions of tour guides' spoken language in real sites in the classroom. Fourth, the assessment is appropriate to the target situation context because the student speaking performances in those particular genres is assessed both prior to the learning process and at the end of the course.

**Research in ESP**

Most research in ESP oracy to date has involved the survey of target situations and needs together with competency assessment either of the learners or people in a particular profession and experimental teaching in the hospitality and business areas.

In relation to hospitality, Nammanuti (1999) studied the problem of the English used in communication between hotel receptionists and guests in Bangkok, Thailand. The results showed that hotel staff strongly agreed that English language training in the four skills should be given to them to improve their language ability to do their job, and this despite the fact that almost all the guests were satisfied with the language skills of the hotel staff. A similar study in the field of hospitality was conducted by Blue and Minah (2003), who investigated the English language used by hotel receptions at four hotels in Southampton in 1998. They recorded front desk conversations for one month for later analysis and found that the conversation between the receptionists and the guests had
particular language patterns. They suggested that some hospitality skills such as communicative skills could be developed through in-service training, as these were considered very essential by hotel resources managers and researchers in the field of hospitality management.

In relation to research in regard to English for business communication, Crosling and Ward (2002) conducted a survey of employees who graduated in the field of business and commerce from Monash University in Australia in 1988. Crosling and Ward found that those employees required strong oral communication skills without which they would be disadvantaged in the workplace. These researchers suggested that teachers should provide experience and instruction in a range of oral communication settings including communicative skills in dealing with cross-cultural matters such as gender, age, and status group. Another business English study was conducted by Louhiala-Salminen (2002) in Finland. She tape-recorded most of the discourse activities of a business manager occurring in one day and interviewed this manager to confirm the data. She found that the English language used by the manager had a particular characteristic, that is, it belonged to a specific language culture. In addition, the results show that sometimes both written and spoken forms were used simultaneously; e.g. talking on the phone and reading email.

Two recent courses have gone beyond recommendations about specialist needs to the actual development of courses. In addition to research on learner needs, Shi, Corcos, and Storey (2001) developed a course for medical students at the University of Hong Kong based on the taping of six ward-teaching sessions over a period of three months. The linguistic analysis of the tapes revealed that the doctors were using both everyday and technical terms to translate information from doctor-patient to doctor-doctor discourse, for example, using verb tenses correctly to establish chronology in case reports, and describing location and procedure accurately in reporting physical examinations. The end-of-course evaluation revealed that the students found the course helpful and enjoyable, because it covered appropriate content and allowed them to deal with real data from the videos. In a further study, Sullivan and Girginer (2002) used the discourse analysis of the recordings of the communication between pilots and air traffic controllers, observation in the airport tower, and questionnaires and interviews with
Turkish pilots and traffic controllers as a basis for developing course materials. They argued that this process could help ESP teachers, who had little knowledge of the special language needs of their students, to gain more knowledge and understand the target situations. Moreover, the professionals involved in the recording and interview could also gain more knowledge and understanding of their own discourse.

In sum, the research in both the hospitality and business areas indicates that personnel need help to improve their English communicative skills to do their jobs. Other research using discourse analysis reveals that the English used in particular fields has specific characteristics, that need to be taught and included in the planning of courses. In addition, research reveals that using data, such as videos of real use of English, can be helpful. However, it has not been possible to locate studies which utilize spoken genres in the area of tour guiding, which this project aims to teach.

3.4 Genre and genre teaching

This section will describe the genre approach to teaching English for Specific Purposes, as well as specific spoken genres used for leading tours with a view to using a genre approach to analyse samples of authentic data.

The term 'genre' has normally been used widely to refer to fictional and non-fictional written texts, but in the last twenty years it has become common to use genre as a term, when referring to "complex oral or written responses by speakers or writers to the demands of a social context" (Johns, 2002, p. 3). To develop the application to teaching, the theoretical basis of genre and in particular the ideas of Australian School of genre are described. This Australian approach, which has been adopted in this research, will then be contrasted with that of the North American School, before ESP genre-based research is used to give weight to the use in this study of explicit genre-based teaching, as proposed by the Australian school.

Defining Genre

Despite the fact that 'genre' is a term commonly applied to categories of texts, which possess similar formal features, scholars do not always agree on what a satisfactory
definition of genre would be. Although all definitions contain similarities, variations in focus provide teachers with ideas for the implementation of theory in teaching.

From the writings of Aviva Freedman, an American genre scholar, comes the first view that although both social and linguistic factors influence the emergence of genres, prior place needs to be given to the nature of the entire text, the product of an actual context. She writes:

Situation, motive, substance, form—each plays a part in defining genre. But the whole is greater than and different from the sum of these parts.
(Freedman, 1991, p. 192)

On the other hand, Christie (1989, p. 168) an Australian linguist, highlights the textual shape itself more than the context and motivation in the following definition. She defines genre as:

A text may be said to have ‘generic structure’ because it has an overall characteristic pattern of shape, making it identifiably different from some other genre, whose functions will of course be of a different kind.

Other Australian writers, Knapp and Watkins, (1994, p. 20) define genre as the social process:

Genres are the ways in which we make texts to get particular things done through language—the way we exchange information and knowledge and interact socially.

In the United Kingdom, John Swales (1990), the scholar noted for developing the theoretical basis for ESP, in the next definition takes the view that each genre represents a known communicative event, its purpose determining both content and form. This means if the members of any group of people have the same communicative purpose, they build up the fundamental basis for the genre, which then determines the discourse structure, content and style of each genre. Swales defines genre as follows:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choices of content and style.

These definitions, which indicate that particular genres emerge from a social process with each having a purpose and special structure and language features, are the
basis for the discussion which follows on the two major approaches to genre study, as found in the Australian, North American schools.

**The Australian Approach to Genre**

One outcome of Michael Halliday’s teaching of systemic functional linguistics at the University of Sydney after 1975, has been the work of such people as Jim Martin, Joan Rothery and Frances Christie in developing a genre-based theory of writing and its teaching. It is their view that through the teaching of genre, the disadvantaged can be assisted to acquire both oral and written genres (Hyon, 1996, p. 700).

This approach has been developed through extensive research, conferencing and publication of materials over the last two decades of the twentieth century. As a result, genre-based teaching has become very influential in relation to literacy teaching for primary and secondary school students. It has also extended to adults within the further education and migrant streams in Australia. Guidelines have been made available for teaching the most common factual and narrative genres, although the former have received greater attention (Richardson, 1994, p. 127). Freedman and Richardson (1997, p. 141) summarized the work of several Australian studies and suggested the following genres to be taught in schools:

- **factual genres**: procedure (how something is done), description (what some particular thing is like), report (what an entire class of things are like), explanation (a reason why a judgement is made), argument (arguments why a thesis has been produced);
- **narrative genres**: recounts, narrative based on personal experience, narrative based on fantasy, the moral tale, myths, spoofs, serials and thematic narratives.

Notwithstanding this, the approach has been criticized in Australia (Johns, 2002, p. 5). For example, Sawyer and Watson (1987, p. 47) claims that the teaching of authoritative and fixed genres silenced the voice of the individual. It is their belief that students become familiar with a new genre by grappling with ideas rather than with the language and that teachers should use the less interventionist and directive process writing method (Sawyer & Watson, 1987, p. 54).
In response to such opposition Martin, Christie and Rothery (1987, p. 55) argued that the use of process writing is beneficial only for the few, while at the same time it penalizes the disadvantaged students. Other educators, Callaghan, Knapp and Noble (1993, p. 180) supported this, since their view was that writing is similar to reading in that it requires instruction and cannot be left to natural processes. Answering the criticism that student ability to express themselves will be damaged because of the close attention to textual analysis, Martin, Christie and Rothery (1987, p. 76) replied that students must first acquire basic skills because young students are not yet proficient. In their view, these learners have to learn familiar meaning through the genre approach at an early stage before they can become creative.

As a result of this movement, genre pedagogy has come into wide use in Australian schools with disadvantaged students, aboriginal students, and second language students since the 1990s (Hyon, 1996; Johns, 2002), and Christie (1999) has given the following argument to back the genre approach in teaching English as a second language. She argues that genres:

1. offer a principled way to identify and focus upon different types of English texts, providing a framework in which to learn features of grammar and discourse;
2. offer students a sense of the generic models that are regularly revisited in an English-speaking culture, illuminating ways in which they are adapted or accommodated in long bodies of text in which several distinct genres may be found;
3. offer the capacity for initiating students into ways of making meaning that are valued in English-speaking communities; and
4. form a potential basis for reflecting on and critiquing the ways in which knowledge and information are organized and constructed in the English language.

(Christie, 1999, p. 762)

In going beyond the definitions of genres and their features, Christie in this quotation leads her readers into the second language classroom, where learners can learn to understand and produce the language of specific genres. It is argued in this research that this reference to specific genres includes the genres of specific disciplines.
The North American Genre Approach

Genre studies in North America have developed in a different way to those of the Australian School. While the latter have emerged from Halliday’s theory of the social functions of text, the North American approach to rhetorical context is much broader (Freedman & Medway, 1994; Van Lier & Corson, 1997) and depends on the writings of prominent scholars in Europe and America. These researchers have analysed specific modern genres in science, business, technology and politics at a professional and tertiary level (Freedman, 1993b). Freedman claims that the use of explicit instruction as recommended in the Australian school is quite unacceptable, on the basis that genres are variable and subject to change according to context. For example, Freedman (1993a, p. 225) asks the question of supporters for the explicit teaching of genres:

...if genres are responses to contexts, can they be learned out of context by explicating features and specifying rules of either form or context?

This group of North American educators by rejecting explicit teaching of language features concentrates instead on the central role of the context of the genre rather than its form (Freedman & Medway, 1994, p. 9). However, the fact that an English speaking context, such as they envisage, does not exist at present in the tour guiding field in the north-east of Thailand suggests that better results in this project would proceed from a decision to adopt an explicit approach along the lines of the Australian approach.

Even in America some genre scholars would agree with the view that genre features can and should be taught. For example, Fahnestock (1993, p. 269), giving the example of learning a craft as an apprentice, said that “no craft is ever taught without a conscious awareness of technique”. He also adds that for the successful acquisition of any genre, instruction in the “building blocks” of that genre is required. Williams and Golomb (1993, pp. 258-259) at a similar time expressed the opinion that in their experience the detailed treatment of genre features is very helpful. Citing the example of learning to swim, Coe stated a preference for modern teaching methods of teaching people to swim rather than leaving it to nature. On this basis, Coe put forward a two-stage process in the development of genres, first to develop the notions of purpose and audience in students and then to help them to acquire the formal structures, either by instruction or discovery (Coe, 1994a, p. 165).
The conclusion that can be drawn from this discussion is that the mainstream North American genre-based approach is better suited to advanced users of the language. However, opinion is divided even in the United States with researchers such as Coe being much closer in their views to the Australian School. American scholars such as Coe would see the situation in this project as needing an approach which will assist those who are merely learning the craft.

**Genre-based ESP Research**

Although genre-based research is not as common in the ESP field as in General English, the approach has proved useful in several specialist areas over the last ten years or so.

Most such studies however have reported on efforts to improve student writing. Bhatia (1993) applied his analyses of business and scientific genres to create self-access English for business and technology materials for several polytechnic universities in Singapore. These sets of materials provided students with models of genres and worksheets in order to enable students to construct their own written texts. Something similar was done by John Flowerdew (1993) in Hong Kong. His genre-based multi-purpose program in English for Professionals was meant to give the students practice in various genre forms in such a wide range of circumstances as marketing, broadcasting and tourism. In Hong Kong too, Lynne Flowerdew (2000) took a genre-based, holistic approach in her study of the organization patterns of engineering reports. Her final year students, she stated, were assisted in their writing by having an opportunity to discuss and study genre samples in which the linguistic level challenged did not overwhelm them. She argued:

> It would probably be more motivating for students... if they could be exposed to good ‘apprentice’ generic exemplars which can provide a realistic model of writing performance for undergraduate students. (Flowerdew, 2000, p. 370)

The Flowerdews' position is supported by the earlier work of Ken Hyland at the University of Papua New Guinea in 1990. After his analysis of the genre of argument, and the teaching of these features in a writing course for EFL students, Hyland concluded
that student understanding of the elements of argument in text and production of their own written arguments are enhanced by the use of the genre approach (Hyland, 1990).

Other evidence for the value of this method comes from ESP reading studies. Concerned about the extent of the academic challenge given to second language students, Paltridge in 1995 created a new EAP reading and writing course at a New Zealand university. In order for the students to be able to recognize differences in the readings first Paltridge felt that they first needed assistance in reading and discussing genre and text type (Paltridge, 2002, pp. 88-89). Results from Hyon’s genre-based course for ESL students in academic reading, in which the students carefully examined the features of four genre texts, were positive as indicated by qualitative interview results (Hyon, 2002, p. 139). However, it was evident that when applying their knowledge to new texts, student understanding of the organisational and linguistic features had improved more than their grasp of features such as purpose and context. For future courses, Hyon recommended that two new components, covering the areas of content and lexis, should be added to her course on the understanding that the teaching would relate to the same texts (Hyon, 2002, pp. 137-139). In any case she wanted her readers to realise that genre teaching, however valuable, cannot solve all the problems of reading and that students need individual, sustained practice as well.

The view of genre-based ESP in this study

The consideration of the area of genre-based ESP brings us in close contact with our area of interest. ESP in all its various manifestations, including English for the professions, the vocations and the advanced student requiring academic learning skills, has developed to serve the particular need for specialist discourses among those learners. In many instances, these studies have identified the key role of genre in those communities as well as the necessity for newcomers to the discourses to become aware of the appropriate genres. Swales’ definition of genre given earlier provided the basis for accepting that genre teaching would prepare ESP students to participate in the key communicative events needed by their discipline. This point of view is supported in a recent article by Belcher who comments that the distinction between ESP and genre studies in becoming blurred (Belcher, 2004, p. 167).
It might seem that genre analysis in this Australian approach would differ little from the North American school. However, the ESP approach differs from the latter in two main ways. First, Swales has a view of the genre community which is not as high status as that of Freedman (Freedman & Medway, 1994, p. 7). This enables ESP researchers to introduce simulated situations for the purpose of illustrating context within the classroom. Secondly, ESP studies to date have emphasized formal properties of text rather than their actual context (Hyon, 1996, p. 695). Organisational and sentence-level grammatical analysis of lectures, abstracts, journal articles, meetings and conversations has provided the data for the teaching of mainly academic genres. ESP has therefore used both the context and the form of genres to enable L2 learners to acquire mastery of the oral and written genres, associated with work and study in the modern world. To that degree, therefore, the ESP genre school which aims to make the form of genres explicit to the learner through teaching, has more aspects in common with the Australian genre school than the North American (Hyon, 1996, p. 701). Therefore it can provide a suitable framework for the genre-based focus of this study.

To sum up, genre theory is basically used for exploring and explaining language and its roles in social contexts (Christie, 1999, p. 761). It further provides teachers with the knowledge of how language in those situations works to build particular genres. This knowledge will enable teachers to guide their students to acquire these genres. In addition, the analysis of the speech genres identified in the audio taped transcripts and utilised in teaching programs offers students a principled way to identify and focus on different types of texts. In this way, students are given a framework to learn how to organise and construct their knowledge to be used in tour guiding discourse.

The nature of the speech of tour guides and specific spoken genres found by the analysis of tape transcripts will be discussed in the next section.

Use of genre theory for the analysis of English for tour guides.

Genre analysis has been used as an effective tool for first analysing and then teaching the spoken and written language, needed by language learners in academic and professional settings (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990). As is the case most generally in communicative language teaching, the focus is on analysing the language actually used in
different situations or contexts and then applying the results as a model to materials used in the teaching and learning process. Harvey (1993, p. 25) argues that analysing texts has many benefits. It can help teachers select appropriate texts for teaching and assessing students’ writing. Furthermore, it can assist students to understand how language functions and to construct appropriate texts in specific contexts. Although much of genre analysis, following Swales’ work, has focused on the analysis of the moves (Dudley-Evans, 1994) or organisation of ideas, other language features such as tense usage, lexical frequency, and specific verbs are important for the analysis of the conventions of genres (Dudley-Evans, 1994, p. 220). Therefore, the materials produced this way focus not only on the language but also on the conventions and procedures, that shape the genres. In this way they promote awareness of the linguistic system underlying a certain genre and also offer an explanation as to why certain features of language realize specific values in individual genres. By learning this process students should be able to use language more efficiently in their tasks.

To date, however, genre analysis has focused on written language because of easier access to that form, and analysis of written form of the language, although useful, is not appropriate to the oral medium which is the focus of this research (Carter, Goddard, Reach, Sanger, & Bowering, 1997, p. 248). Although little has been studied in terms of the rules of specific spoken genres, Dannels (2001, p. 147) suggests that oral genres are important sites where the knowledge of a particular discipline can be learned. In the case of the tourism industry, students should know what grammatical features and vocabulary are common in very specific as well as more general spoken genres, so that they can develop fluent and natural speaking skills. In addition, English language instructors should be provided with models of spoken language in tour guiding so that they can produce authentic materials for their learners.

But what are these model genres of English for tour guides for Thailand? And how do they fit with existing speech research? The English spoken by tour guides, as indicated by the researcher’s pilot study of the speech of the Thai tour guides, is mainly planned speech of a transactional nature. The planning aspect derives from the fact that the tour guide has to prepare information of particular tour sites before leading the tour. The speech is also mainly transactional, because the tour guide takes the role of an
information provider. In contrast to interactional conversation, tour guiding speech could be regarded as similar to lectures in three respects (Guillot, 1999, p. 127). First, it is prepared speech because the guides always have previously prepared itineraries and site descriptions which help them plan in advance what to do during each trip. In addition, they may have to prepare additional information about the places they are going to visit, so that they can be ready to give specific details of those places and people. Second, as the main function is to give information to tourists, the tour guides’ role is similar to that of a lecturer in that they act as experts in their field. They are the ones who have stored relevant information about tourist attractions and their duty is to transfer this information to tourists. Third, it is mainly one-sided, with the tour guides taking the major roles in the trip. The role of the tourists on the tour is similar to that of students in a lecture where they mainly listen and back-channel, asking questions only occasionally when they need more information.

It can therefore be concluded that the tour guides’ spoken English is mainly transactional rather than interactional because it is used for transmitting factual information and not for maintaining social relationships (DeCarrico & Nattinger, 1992, p. 75). Carter and McCarthy (1997, p. 18) add that transactional language is used in the process of conducting business and generally getting things done. However, there is some variation to this. It has been found that when the number of tourists in the group is small, the relationships tend to be more interactional, that is, there are more questions and answers and back-channeling. Since this English for Tour Guides course will prepare the tour guides for the most common scenarios that they will meet, and these are the group tours, training for interaction will be given in the Year 4 course.

Moving beyond the type of speech to particular features of this type of speech is also useful, because the tour guide in many ways acts as a lecturer and delivers information in a planned way. In Guillot’s analysis of a lecture sequence (Guillot, 1999, pp. 129-135), four aspects were found. They were: (i) clear overall structure, (ii) sparse content, (iii) spaced out language, and (iv) common stress, silent pauses, shifts in speech rate and loudness. If these, or at least the first three, are then related to the teaching of genres in the Thai situation, it is clear that they give considerable encouragement to that process as to the possibility that second language speakers can benefit from it.
In addition to the above features of a lecture, DeCarrico and Nattinger (1992, pp. 77-79) refer to the particular kinds of lexical phrases in spoken transactional discourse. They distinguish the forms of these discourse devices, found in written and spoken discourse, by considering the presence or absence of idiomatic meaning and/or variability of the lexical phrase frames. In addition, they make the point that although in spoken language, the syntax is less structured than in written language, spoken phrases are often more syntactically complex. Some lexical phrases are used as markers of logical connection, temporal connection, exemplification, and summary. Some other lexical phrases are used only in spoken discourse such as fluency devices, 'you know', 'well of course' and markers of asides such as 'where was I?', 'let's get back to the point'. As with lexical phrases, Brinton and Holten (2001, p. 242) suggest that grammatical explanations should be expanded and linked to the content so that the learners can express ideas using a variety of grammatical structures.

In conclusion, although the functions of transactional written and spoken discourse are the same, many of the forms are different. McCarthy (1998, p. 4) suggests that the text types used to describe written language should not be transferred to spoken language. The differences in spoken events should be studied so that learners can understand spoken genres. In line with this advice, the lexical phrases and features commonly found in spoken discourse were taught in this program with examples taken from actual spoken discourse. The issue of which specific genres were selected is taken up in the next section.

**Specific spoken genres for tour guiding**

For the teaching and learning of English, Knapp and Watkins (1994, pp. 20-22) argue that genre teaching should be viewed as a social process which produces a particular product or text type. They divide genres into five social processes: description, explanation, instruction, argument, and narrative (Knapp and Watkins, 1994, p. 22). This framework is included here as it will guide the analysis of the genres commonly found in the tour guides' speech. Although these genres could be said to belong to the sphere of General English speech, it needs to be understood that they also relate to some of the specific vocational fields in particular those such as Tour Guiding. This is because
personnel, who work in these fields, are dealing with many aspects of everyday life as it exists and has existed in the community, rather than a complex body of academic knowledge. The examination of the discourse therefore can make use of already established bodies of knowledge about the nature and teaching of the genres found there.

Figure 3.1 illustrates how these five genres are used:
Genres
Social processes that:

Processes

Describe
through the
process of
organizing things
into
compositions of
technical
framing of
meanings

Explain
through the
process of
seemingly
arrangement
and
causal
relationships

Instruct
through the
process of
logically
arranging
actions for
helping

Argue
through the
process of
persuading
people and
events in
time and
space

Commonly used in

Products

Personal
descriptions
Conversational
descriptions
Technical
descriptions
Information
reports
Scientific reports
Definitions

Explanations of
how
Explanations of
why
Explanations
of

Procedures
Instructions
Manuals
Science
experiments
Recipes
Directions

Essays
Expositions
Discussions
Reviews
Interpretations
Explanations

Personal
reports
Historical
reports
Stories
Fairy tales
Myths
Fables
Narratives

Figure 3.1 Genres as social process (Knapp and Wutkins, 1994, p. 22)
The genres commonly found in the tour guide recordings were description, explanation, procedure, and narrative. At the beginning of each trip, the tour guides use the explanatory genre to introduce an itinerary. This genre relates to the explanation genre in Knapp and Watkins’ list of genres in that it applies the sequencing process in temporal relationship. The use of procedure, which belongs to the instruction genre, is for telling tourists how to do something. For the main part of their commentary, the guides use description to describe places and people, and animals. Finally the genre of narrative is used for talking about the history of places and the lives of famous people. These four genre categories will form the basis of the research into how tour guides can be assisted in the development of their speaking skills.

Available commercial texts in Thailand

Although there are some commercial texts for teaching English for tour guiding in Thailand, it is considered in this study that those texts focus on teaching integrated skills rather than oral English genres. To compare three textbooks used by universities in Thailand, one written by a professor of Thammasat University and the other two by a professor of Dhurakijpundit University, the aims of the books, the places of genres, the teaching of genres, and the assessment are discussed.

The overall aims of the three books are to improve student language skills, particularly speaking skill, for use in the tourism industry. However, the learning activities seem to emphasize tourist information rather than to practise speaking. Book 1, Communicative English for Tourism (CET) (Utawanit, 1991), aims to prepare the learners to improve both speaking and writing skills for a career in travel and tourism industry so that they can understand tourists’ questions and statements and reply to them appropriately, supply correct information, produce statements and questions of their own, and communicate confidently and effectively. Book 2, English for Tourist Guides (ETG1) (Parasakul, 1997a), aims to provide the students with the language skills for use on their jobs as tourist guides in Bangkok, focusing on oral skill. Book 3, English for Tourist Guides 2 (ETG2) (Parasakul, 1997b), is the continuation of ETG1, and aims to provide the students with the language skills for use on their jobs as tourist guides outside Bangkok by focusing on oral skills.
The common genres found in the analysis of the transcriptions of the tourist guides in northern Thailand are not explicitly taught in any of the three textbooks. In CET, the first nine units provide students with the sorts of questions and answers commonly heard at the travel agencies or a hotel about information of interesting places and accommodation. Mention of the four genres can be found in the last five units, but they are not taught explicitly. The itinerary genre is presented in an exercise (completing a monologue) and the other genres description and narrative are presented in exercises (completing a monologue or a dialogue). The procedure genre is not found in this book.

In ETG 1, the itinerary and procedure genres cannot be found. The most common genres are description and narrative which are presented in conversation form (question and answer) and an exercise (completing a passage or a conversation). ETG 2 is similar to ETG 1 but the itinerary genre is embedded in a conversation only once. This difference in treatment maybe attributed to the fact that these two books are theme-based and emphasize historical places rather than language form.

The teaching and learning activities in the three books provide neither spoken model genres nor methods of oral assessment. In CET, each unit begins with vocabulary and reading development exercises, which aim to provide background lexicon and factual information on various tourist attractions. The students then practice listening to missing words form the dialogues and do matching and dialogue completion exercises. At the end of each unit students construct dialogues and act these out in class using pair work. This book also contains writing exercises which provide a basis for writing short advertisements, and descriptions of tours. In ETG 1 and ETG 2, each unit begins with dialogues or written passages followed by comprehension, vocabulary, and grammar exercises. Among the three books CET utilizes a learning process which closest to the genre-based approach in that it provides students with background information and language features before using these to construct their own dialogues. The other two books ETG 1 and ETG 2 also give background information and language features but they do not focus on independent construction of language. Although the exercises are related to the readings, none of the three books uses authentic data to provide common model genres for the students. This study filled this gap by using genre-based approach which would provide students with spoken model genres and their language features.
These books also lack reference to assessment activities, possibly because they want the teachers to create their own assessment. Without this guidance, teachers may check their students' competence mostly through the student written exercises. The use of genre-based oral assessment in this study may well provide more guidance on this issue.

3.5 Conceptual framework

The two literature reviews embraced the theoretical background of the development of the English for Tour Guides course, the basis of the design for which is shown in the following conceptual framework.

![Conceptual framework](image)

**Figure 3.2 Conceptual framework**

The word "authenticity" has been placed at the centre of the conceptual framework, because it best summarises what the various theoretical positions, described in the two literature review chapters, are suggesting. The term 'authenticity' is used here
its widest sense of 'adherence to what is real and actual' and is intended to raise the question in the research as to how far course designers and teachers are bound by the types of findings and criteria as put forward from the research basis in this field. For example, whether this study supports the views of SLA researchers, who suggest that learners can acquire a language through comprehensible input (Krashen, 1989) and interaction in authentic situations. Furthermore, the review in Chapter 3 dealing with ESP and genre teaching strengthens the central role of authenticity, with both promoting the view students should learn the language from as well as in real contexts. However, if such on-site courses cannot be possible, teachers should seek other ways to provide the learners with real practice. Alongside this, genre theory proposes a model of teaching specific genre where authentic situations and materials can be used as the basis. From CLT, which is the major current approach to language teaching in Thailand, comes further support, in that purposeful language activities should be the main focus for real communication in the classroom. Furthermore, the most appropriate roles of the teacher and learner should be seen as fostering and practising the authentic use of language.

Although theory influences practice, theory and practice are not the same. What this thesis seeks to do is take the concept of authenticity and all that it implies in relation to language teaching theory and then apply it to the design and implementation of the course. This can be done by blending the global theories of SLA, genre, ESP, and CLT with the local demands of situation including the needs of stakeholders such as the tourists, tour agency managers, and TAT as well as those of the learners and the Rajabhat University. Results from the theoretical research are then to be assessed against what local research is saying about meeting authentic local needs and ideas about Thai English. By doing this and examining the results in the actual course, this thesis will illustrate the extent to which the theory of 'authenticity' may need modification in practice.
CHAPTER FOUR
METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with an overview of methodology employed for the research on preparation and teaching of a specialist course in English for Tour guides. The first section provides the rationale underlying the research methodology, adopted from current trends about Communicative Language Teaching, genre theory, and English for Specific Purposes. The second section describes how course input was obtained from a variety of sources by means of needs analysis, while details of how the genre syllabus was developed are given in the third section. Course implementation is then discussed in section four. Finally, the chapter describes the process of evaluating the students' oral competence and the course.

4.1 Course design theory

The design of the English for Tour Guides draws on ESP theory and genre theory as a specific expression of communicative specialist language teaching and on Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) theory as a broad field of methodology. A number of principles that are useful as a basis for developing the English for Tour Guides' have emerged from these theories.

Genre Theory Principles

- The activities should serve the student needs in their specific discipline and cover appropriate language features, skills, discourse and genres (Dudley-Evans, 1998).
- Discourse, grammar, and vocabulary should be used in specific ways to make specific meanings for a particular purpose and context (Hammond, Burns, Brosnan, Joyce, and Gerot, 1992).

In the case of teaching each genre, the teacher is responsible for modelling the text, together with its function, organisational features and linguistic markers (Richardson, 1994, 129). Students respond first in discussion with the teacher and/or with each other and then put this knowledge to work, gaining skills in developing their own
genre texts both jointly and individually (Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan, and Gerot, 1992).

ESP Principles

- ESP is designed to meet specified needs of the learner (Sinclair, 1987; Swales, 1992).
- ESP is related in content to particular disciplines, occupations and activities (Strevens, 1988; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Widdowson, 1983).
- ESP is centred on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse (Strevens, 1988).

CLT Principles

- Learners need access to communicative and meaningful input in order to accomplish language acquisition (Ellis, 1992, Krashen, 1981, Van Patten & Lee, 1990).
- Learners should be able to test what they have learned in order to see whether it works through the use of output (Swain, 1985).
- Second language learners must have the opportunity to interact in authentic and meaningful second language situations (Stern, 1993).
- Successful communication is evaluated by actual outcomes, which include grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Canale, 1983).
- Teachers should take the role of facilitators or helpers (Stern, 1993), organizers of resources, guides, and feedback providers (Breen and Candlin, 1980).
- Learners should take the role of active learners (Hammond, 2001), negotiators (Breen and Candlin, 1980), interdependent participants (Richards & Rodgers, 2001), teachers and teacher assistants, and researchers (Johns, 1997; Paltridge, 2001).

The application of these principles to the course will be discussed later in this chapter (See section...page...). The next section will examine how guidance for the course design was obtained from a needs analysis.
4.2 Needs analysis

The aim of this research is to develop tourism industry students' oral competence by means of a specialist English for tour guiding training course. It was therefore considered important to gather information about students' 'target needs' (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987b, p.55) so that the different types of information could be integrated in the course design. It was decided that the data from three sources were needed to supply course input, that is, field recordings of English used for tour guiding in northern Thailand, the clients' perceptions, and the Rajabhat Institute's course guidelines.

4.2.1 Authentic Data for Course Input

Samples of actual tour guiding commentaries were required and, as authentic material relating to tour guiding language in Thailand was not available, it was necessary to collect samples of the same. Three tour guides, working for different tourist agencies in Chiangmai, which is the centre of the tourism industry in the northern part of Thailand, were asked to voluntarily record their commentaries. The commentaries of several one-day trips were then analysed to discover the common genres used by tour guides (See details in Chapter ...).

Analysis showed that at the beginning of each trip, tour guides explained the program to tourists, thus producing a particular genre which was called “Introducing an Itinerary” (See page____). The most common genre used within the commentaries themselves, however, was the descriptive genre, which was used to describe places, animals, and events seen at tour sites. Where there was a monument or a statue of someone famous, tour guides used narration to talk about those people and the places related to them. The last genre found to be common in the analysis of the tapes was procedure, which was used to explain the process of doing or producing something. Therefore, it was decided that these four genres i.e., introducing an itinerary, description, narrative and procedure should be the major focus in the course.

4.2.2 Clients' perceptions of needs

In addition to the sample genres, guidance for course design was provided by the major clients of the industry i.e. tour agency managers and tourists. These people are
considered by Johns & Price-Machado (2001) as the stakeholders of the course, those who will have information for use in the course design. Ten tour agency managers, representing tour guides' employers and randomly selected from all tour agencies in Northern Thailand, were chosen to have in-depth interviews relating to their perceptions of tour guide English. The second group of subjects representing the direct clients of Thai tour guides were tourists visiting the northern part of Thailand, and were drawn from three regions in the world: Asian countries, European countries where English was not the first language, and English speaking countries. In both groups, subjects were randomly selected to complete questionnaires.

**Tourist Questionnaire**

These questionnaires, in which views were given on a five-point rating scale on each of 20 questions (See Appendix ....), were used to discover how the tourists perceived the English spoken by Thai tour guides. One hundred and twenty questionnaires were given to tourists and three quarters of them were completed. The analysis of the personal data of the tourists responding to questionnaires revealed that the types of the tourists who answered the questionnaires varied. Within the group, 46 per cent were from English speaking countries, 42 percent were from other countries, where English was not the first language, and 12 per cent were from Asian countries. In relation to gender 47 of the tourists were male and 42 were female. More than half the tourists had visited Thailand before and half were under 40 years old.

In order to determine the findings from the questionnaire, the 20 question items about Thai tour guides were divided into four categories. The items in the first group (items 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5) were meant to indicate the tourists' perceptions on the guides' commentaries while the second group (items 6, 7, 8, and 19) dealt with the tour guides' knowledge in general. The items in the third group (9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 20) focused on the tour guides' language and the final category (15, 16, 17, and 18) was concerned with the certain problem areas. In discussing the data, which is recorded in Table 4.1, the decision was made to collapse the two positive categories (Strongly agree and Agree) into one in order to give a clearer picture of the results.
### Table 4.1 Tourist Questionnaire Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td><strong>Guide</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1. I feel that the commentary given by the Thai tour guide was clearly presented.</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. The commentary was too formal.</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>45.5</td>
<td>21.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. The commentary was relevant to the itinerary of the tour.</td>
<td>44.2</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. The commentary was well organized.</td>
<td>50.6</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. The commentary was of appropriate length.</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td><strong>Knowledge</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. The tour guide seemed knowledgeable.</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. The tour guide seemed confident.</td>
<td>59.6</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. When I asked a question, the tour guide satisfactorily answered my questions.</td>
<td>60.7</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. The tour guide spent too much time answering questions.</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>40.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td><strong>Language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. The vocabulary used was suitable to the subject of commentary.</td>
<td>38.2</td>
<td>49.4</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. I understood the vocabulary used.</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>53.9</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. The tour guide spoke slowly and clearly.</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>48.9</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>13. The vocabulary used was appropriate.</td>
<td>28.4</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>14. The tour guide made many mistakes in grammar.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td>46.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15. I understood the tour guide's pronunciation.</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td><strong>Problem</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16. The instructions were given too quickly.</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td>31.5</td>
<td>43.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>17. I couldn't hear the commentaries.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>8.0</td>
<td>14.8</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>38.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>18. There weren't any opportunities for questions.</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Notes: SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = Neutral, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree*
In relation to the first category, the results revealed that almost all of the tourists considered the commentaries given by the Thai tour guides were clearly presented, well organised and relevant to the itinerary of the tour given before the trip. More than half of the tourists thought that the English used by Thai guides was acceptably informal, rejecting the idea of too much formality, while most accepted that the length of commentaries was appropriate.

Furthermore, when the content of the commentary was considered, again, almost all the tourists thought that the Thai guides were knowledgeable about the tour sites and confident in their use of spoken English. The tourists were also quite happy that the tour guides were able to answer questions well and the time used by the tour guides to answer questions was appropriate.

In relation to the tour guides' use of English, a high proportion of the tourists considered that the tour guides spoke English fluently and the grammatical mistakes made by the tour guides were at an acceptable level, while only around five per cent thought that the guides had made too many mistakes. In addition, almost all thought that the vocabulary used by Thai guides was suitable to the subjects they were talking about and that the vocabulary used by Thai guides was comprehensible, with slightly fewer considering the vocabulary used was appropriate. Furthermore, about three quarters of the tourists felt that they understood Thai tour guides' pronunciation and slightly more considered the Thai guides' speech clear and slow.

According to the tourists' feelings and reaction to Thai tour guides commentaries, most of the tourists did not have problems they could not solve. However, when they did encountered problems, most of them thought there were enough opportunities for them to ask questions. When the Thai tour guides gave instructions, the giving of the same was slow enough for the tourists to understand. A high proportion of the tourists felt they could hear what the tour guides spoke about and that they understood the Thai tour guides' pronunciation.

The quantitative findings in relation to the tourists' perceptions of the Thai tour guides revealed that the commentaries given by the guides were informal, clear, well organized, at appropriate length, and relevant to the tour. The tourists said that the tour
guides were knowledgeable and confident in their spoken English and were able to respond to the clients' questions well and appropriately. Most of the tourists agreed that the English language, particularly the vocabulary used by the guides, was appropriate and comprehensible although there were some grammatical mistakes. They were also quite happy with the Thai tour guides' spoken English which was slow and clear. In addition, the tourists had positive feelings towards the guides because when they wanted to know something, the guides gave them clear and comprehensible instructions.

To sum up, the findings of the tourist perceptions of the Thai tour guides in the four categories mentioned above indicate that the majority of tourists were happy with the guides' English. Comment on these findings was added to the introductory unit of the English for Tour Guides course, emphasizing that the English used by the Thai tour guides was acceptable to most of the tourists visiting the north of Thailand. Furthermore, it was concluded that samples of tour guides' commentaries could be used as authentic samples in the classroom. Furthermore, the findings suggest that the English spoken by the Thai tour guides was comprehensible so it was not essential for them to speak like native speakers of English. Even so, it is important that they remain aware of the necessity to be "intelligible, communicative, and confident users of spoken English" (Morley, 1991).

**Tourist Agency Manager Opinions**

Two different methods were used to obtain information from the tour agency managers, that is, the use of a questionnaire and an interview. This group of subjects had been working in the field of tour guiding for several years and most of them had been tour guides before. Therefore, their direct experience of tour guides, which represents the students' target situation, should be valuable for designing the course in English for tour guiding.

This section will discuss the results of the analysis of this questionnaire, which was very similar to the tourist questionnaire, although the number of the items was smaller. A five-point rating scale was again used for measurement (See Appendix IV, pages 237-240), this time to discover how tour agency managers, who were the product users, perceived the English spoken by Thai tour guides.
The fourteen question items relating to Thai tour guides working under travel agencies in northern Thailand were categorized into three groups. The items in the first group (items 1, 2, 3, 4) were intended to elicit the managers' perceptions on the commentaries. The second group (items 5, 6, 7) referred to the tour guides in general. The items in the third group (8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14) were designed to discover the tourists' feelings and reactions to the Thai tour guides and their language use.

Table 4.2 Tourist Agency Manager Questionnaire Results

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Commentaries</td>
<td>1. I feel that the commentaries given by the Thai tour guide are clearly presented</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. The commentaries are too formal.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. The commentaries are well organized.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. The commentaries are of appropriate length.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour</td>
<td>5. The tour guides seem knowledgeable.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. The tour guides seem confident.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. When tourists ask questions, the tour guides satisfactorily answer their questions.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tour guide English</td>
<td>8. The tour guides speak English fluently.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. The vocabulary used is suitable to the subject of the commentary.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. The vocabulary used is appropriate.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. Thai tour guides make too many mistakes in grammar.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Thai tour guides have strong Thai accents.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11. The tour guides speak slowly and clearly.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>12. The instructions are given too quickly.</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results revealed that 40 per cent of the managers considered the commentary given by the Thai tour guides clearly presented, while 60 per cent were undecided. Some considered the commentaries were well organised while more than half could not decide and 10 per cent had negative ideas about the extent of the organisation of ideas in commentaries. Concerning the style of the commentaries, less than half of them thought that the English used by the Thai guides was informal while only half accepted that the length of commentaries was appropriate.

In relation to the guides themselves, 60 per cent of the managers thought that the Thai guides were knowledgeable about the tour sites and 90 per cent thought that the tour guides were confident regarding their spoken English. When the tourists asked questions, more than 60 per cent thought the guides were able to answer well.

With regard to the managers' feelings about the guides' use of English, 50 per cent of the managers considered that the tour guide spoke English fluently but the grammatical mistakes made by the tour guides were at an unacceptable level. In addition, 70 per cent thought that the vocabulary used by Thai guides was suitable to the subjects they were talking about, and 70 per cent of them considered the vocabulary used was appropriate. Half of them considered the Thai guides' speech clear and slow. However, they were not sure if the speed of their delivery was slow enough for the tourists to understand. In addition, about 80 percent of the managers felt that the guides had strong Thai accents.

In sum, the findings of the travel agent managers' perceptions of the Thai tour guides in the three categories mentioned above indicate that the managers, in contrast to the tourists, had both positive and negative feelings regarding the guides. Some of them were happy with the guides' self confidence in their use of spoken English despite strong Thai accents, as well as being knowledgeable, able to answer questions, and use appropriate vocabulary. Other areas such as the speed of giving instructions, grammatical mistakes, the length of commentaries, the organisation of ideas, and the overall effect of the commentaries did not produce the same degree of assurance from the managers. These findings were added to the introductory unit of the English for Tour Guides, emphasizing that the English used by the Thai tour guides was acceptable to a small
number of the Thai managers and that those guides were still able to do their jobs well because they were confident.

Tourist Agency Manager Interviews

Further data from the ten tour agency managers were collected by means of an interview. However, it was easier to get the data from a questionnaire than from an interview because the managers were too busy for interviews. During the time of data collection, some appointments had to be postponed because of their businesses. However, after three months, the data collection was completed and the tape recordings of the interviews were analysed by using content analysis. The following were the interview questions.

1. Have you received any complaints from your customers about your tour guides?
2. What do you think about your tour guides' command of English?
3. Do they have any problems using English to do their jobs?

The recordings of the interview were transcribed so that the content could be translated into English. The English version of the transcription was then analysed using different color-highlight pens to mark the common themes found in each manager's transcription. The frequency of each theme was then noted so that the statistics could be used for interpretation. According to the analysis of the managers' perceptions, Thai tour guide competencies can be divided into five areas: overall competence, language competence, communicative competence, speaking style and listening.

In relation to the overall competence the managers thought that most of their tour guides were capable of doing their jobs well but some of them received complaints from tourists about the lack of detailed information. The following is a quotation from a manager.

Manager 10 "Some tourists not only want to know the history of Thailand, but they also know about business or Thai way of life. When asked, tour guides should be able to answer all the questions. If a tour guide cannot give satisfactory answers, we have to stop giving him jobs. When they have improved their knowledge, we will let them work again. Good guides should study hard, read everything they can find about what might be asked by tourists."
In addition, when tourists asked questions, some tour guides could not answer them. Some tour guides did not provide good services because they were too money-minded, trying for example to persuade tourists to go shopping at particular places where they could receive payment. Some also did not place sufficient emphasis on punctuality.

In relation to the second area, language competencies, most managers were satisfied with the tour guides' use of simple vocabulary and grammar. However, some criticised their use of grammar while others thought both their grammar and vocabulary were acceptable in the case of tourists from non English speaking countries. They also were aware that English was also difficult for tourists, whose first language was not English.

Manager 1 “Not all tourists can speak English well. But our tour guides use only English so we have problems communicating with tourists from France, Italy, and Germany whose language is not English.”

Manager 3 “Sometimes the tour guides and tourists cannot communicate well because the tourists do not speak English as their first language. The tourists from France and Germany cannot speak English clearly. Most of our guides can use only English so it’s difficult to communicate.”

Furthermore, some managers suggested that tour guides needed to improve their ability to simplify their language to suit the audience.

Manager 7 “Some tour guides cannot remember the vocabulary used to describe the places. They cannot simplify the language particularly when the tourists are from the countries where English is not their first language, such as France, Italy, and Germany. Some tourists do not know some English words and the tour guides cannot simplify those words. Therefore, tour guides should have good knowledge of the vocabulary used for describing every place they visit.”

Manager 9 “Most of the tourists do not use English as their first language so tour guides have to repeat their explanation or paraphrase it.”

These two sets of evidence, one from the tourists and the other from the travel agent managers, revealed both positive and negative perceptions of the Thai tour guides and their spoken English. The tourists were much more likely to be pleased with all aspects of the guides’ performance: their well organised commentaries, the good
knowledge of tour sites, and the use of English to give commentaries and respond to questions. However, a smaller number of travel agent managers were happy with the guides' English. Most of them felt uncertain about this and would like the guides to improve their performance particularly in relation to the use of English to make themselves understood better by means of simplifying the language and using correct grammar and vocabulary.

Both sets of opinions are crucial for the development of the English for Tour Guides course because these people are the future clients of the tourism industry students. However, the managers' views are more credible and therefore more important than those of the tourists, because the managers are the ones who will recruit new tour guides to work for their companies so the students should know their expectations. In addition, as the managers have worked with the tour guides for a long time, they have collected information both by themselves as well as from the tourists' complaints and questionnaires so students should know their expectations.

As a result of the analysis of the two sources mentioned above, it is suggested that several important points are to be integrated into the course. The first and most essential point to be emphasized is the organisation of ideas and the main language features used for itineraries, description, narrative and procedure. These are the common genres found in the tour guides' commentaries. The second most important point is to give students confidence in their spoken English and in the possibility that they do not need to be native-like, because the English spoken by Thai tour guides is acceptable to most tourists. The final important point to be focused on is the content or the knowledge about every tour site, including the vocabulary used to describe it.

4.2.3 Course Guidelines

The new English for Tour Guides syllabus was created by the researcher to improve the implementation of the Rajabhat English for Tourism 3 course for the 'practice in language skills and expressions used in the tourism industry, both domestic and international'. It was based on information derived from the literature review, the questionnaires, the analysis of the samples and the requirements of both TAT and the
Rajabhat. Listening work was the initial basis supplemented by exercises involving both aural and written work, the latter being needed to give confidence to the students.

The outline of the previous course is shown below with the new course being found in the attachments (pages 119-250).

Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Rajabhat Institute Phitsanulok
Course Syllabus

English for Tourism III
1552460 3 (3.0)

COURSE DESCRIPTION

This course provides practice in language skills and expression used in the tourism industry, both domestic and international. The students should be trained to use spoken and written expressions in various situations. The course will develop and extend more basic materials presented in English for Tourism I and II.

OBJECTIVES

1. Students are able to develop four skills in aspects of the tour.
2. Students can use spoken and written expressions in various situations.
3. Students can provide information about the tour sites both locally and internationally.

WEEK / CONTENT

1 - 2  Reading and writing brochures
3 - 5  Writing and describing itineraries
6 - 7  Responding to questions commonly asked by tourists
8     Midterm Test
8 - 10  Describing tourist attractions
11    Telling stories
12 - 15 Summary of English use for various situations
16    Final examination

TEACHING METHODS

1. Practice reading and writing brochures
2. Role play to ask and answer questions
3. Practice language in different contexts
4. Present the information about the tour sites

MATERIALS


EVALUATION

Final grades will be calculated as follows:

1. Attendance 10 %
2. Semester work 55 % (including: assignments, tests and participation)
3. Final Exam 35 %

GRADING

A  85 - 100 %
B+  80 - 84 %
B   75 - 79 %
C+  70 - 74 %
C   65 - 69 %
D+  60 - 64 %
D   55 - 59 %
E   50 - 54 %
F   0 - 49 %
In addition, the foreign language standards issued by the Tourism Authority of Thailand (TAT) were to be applied to the syllabus. That organisation stipulated that tour guides should be able to perform the following communicative tasks: (1) describing and explaining, (2) giving instructions, (3) answering and asking informative questions, (4) interacting appropriately and courteously in social situations, and (5) dealing with complaints.

As indicated by the earlier analysis of the samples of tour guide English, the explanation of itineraries, description, narrative, and instruction were the main genres that were commonly found. Consequently, these four genres which covered items 1 and 2 in the above list became the centre piece of the course. The remaining items of a more sociocultural nature were not included for several reasons. It was seldom found that there were questions or complaints in the tapes and questions were frequent only when the number of tourists was small. Tour guiding English was more likely to consist of one-sided speech by the tour guides and some social back-channelling from tourists. This meant that there was little social interaction on most occasions between the guide and the tourists. Furthermore, as the time frame for the experiment was limited, that is, 8 and a half weeks and 300 minutes per week, the last three tasks: answering and asking informative questions, interacting appropriately and courteously in social situations and dealing with complaints, were left for a follow-up course.

4.2.4 Use of sample genres

In the approach to course construction taken in this research, the four stages in a teaching-learning cycle was adapted from Hammond, Burns, Joyce, Brosnan, and Gerot (1996). These stages are:

- Stage One – Background to the genre
- Stage Two – Modeling the genre
- Stage Three – Construction of the genre
- Stage Four – Assessment

**Stage 1: Background to the genre.**

This first stage is very important for ESL adult students because at this stage the learners can build and develop the general knowledge of the social contexts of the topic
they are expected to talk about (Hammond, Burns, Borsnan, Joyce, and Gerot, 1992). During this, the learners become familiar with the topic and the genre used. The purposes of the different genres would be progressively introduced.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage might include:

- a class discussion, which is an activity to enable the learners to share experiences and knowledge
- use of visuals such as photographs, videos to build context.

**Stage 2: Modelling the genre**

This stage introduces the learners to the model of the genre they will later be producing. The aim of this stage is to focus on the genre analysis through a model text obtained from the field data. This involves preparing the learners for a development of an understanding of the overall organization and language features of a specific genre.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage might include:

- introducing learners to a variety of texts related to the topic;
- shared listening and reading of texts in group-work;
- discussion of the purpose of the genre;
- language explanation and activities focusing on pronunciation, language features and vocabulary;
- schematic pattern of the sample genre and function of each stage.

**Stage 3: Construction of the genre**

The aim of this stage is to encourage the learners to construct a similar spoken text that has been examined during Stage 2 with the roles of the teacher at this stage changing to that of advisor and facilitator. The preparation may include gathering relevant information through reading books, brochures and preparing notes to be used as the basis for construction of a new spoken text. After group discussion and preparation, the learners should be able to construct a new text and present it in class.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage might include:

- revision and further discussion of purpose, context and schematic structure of genre;
• building and developing knowledge of the field through reading, information gathering, and note-taking;
• consulting with other students in the group and the teacher about the appropriate language use;
• drafting and editing the talk;
• role play of the prepared talk.

Stage 4: Assessment

This stage aims to empower the learners to be able to identify their own progress through the criteria given explicitly by the teacher. The criteria used focus on assessing the learners' understanding of different schematic structure and language features of the genre.

Classroom tasks and activities at this stage might include:
• role play of a representative for each group;
• group assessment;
• group discussion of the results.

4.3 Course design

The overview for the entire course, together with the listing of the main formal features of genres is shown in Table 4.3.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Unit of Work</th>
<th>Settings (Texts)</th>
<th>Language study</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>• Introduction of Tour Organization</td>
<td>• Classification of Tour • Roles of Tourist guides</td>
<td></td>
<td>Students can describe the types of tour and roles of tour guides.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-3</td>
<td>• The Speech of Tour Guides</td>
<td>• Common genres for tour guiding</td>
<td>• Comparison of written and spoken language • Comparison of conversation and a lecture</td>
<td>Students can orally compare the spoken and written forms of language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-5</td>
<td>• Explanatory Genre: Itinerary</td>
<td>• Full-day tour itinerary</td>
<td>• Language Focus: Future Simple If-clause Cohesion markers Pronunciation: Stress</td>
<td>Students can use appropriate language features to explain an itinerary fluently and show understanding of the relationship of ideas within and between sentences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-7</td>
<td>• Instruction Genre: Procedure</td>
<td>• How to make cloth</td>
<td>• Language Focus: Imperative • Modals—should • Pronunciation: Length of vowels</td>
<td>In response to one of several situations, students can give instructions appropriately.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-10</td>
<td>• Descriptive Genre</td>
<td>• Elephants • Orchids</td>
<td>• Language Focus: Present simple • Linking verbs • Comparative degree • Pronunciation: Intonation</td>
<td>In response to several assignments, students can describe tourist attractions, animals, or plants using coherent, grammatically correct utterances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-13</td>
<td>• Narrative Genre</td>
<td>• History of Chiangmai • Sun dok Temple</td>
<td>• Language Focus: Past tense Passive • Pronunciation: Consonant clusters</td>
<td>Students can tell a story of a famous person or an important place using appropriate, coherent, grammatically correct, and comprehensible utterances.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-15</td>
<td>• Combination of Genres</td>
<td>• City-Sightseeing tour of Chiangmai</td>
<td>• Language Focus: Revision of tenses Active—Passive Lexical phrases</td>
<td>Students can give commentaries using appropriate transitions in and between the four genres.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-17</td>
<td>• Assessment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Each session lasted for 3 hours; in most of the 8 weeks students received 6 hours' tuition.*
Table 4.3 shows that Unit I begins with the introduction of tour guiding to present roles and rules for good tour guides. The nature of spoken English and the speech of tour guides was introduced in the second unit. In Units 3 to 6, the four genres: itinerary, procedure, description, and narrative are taught respectively. The combination of all four genres is practised in the Unit 7.

As far as intelligibility was concerned, the segmental and suprasegmental features of the 'Lingua Franca Core' proposed by Jenkins (2001), were taught explicitly in Units 3 to 6. This area was suggested by the tour managers and tourists.

Particular grammatical structures (Brinton & Holten, 2001; Knapp & Watkins, 1994) were taught in lessons. This aspect was also suggested by the tour managers and tourists. Grammatical features such as the use of tenses (the future tense in Unit 3, the present simple in Unit 5, the past tense in Unit 7), passive voice (in Unit 7), and parts of speech (in Unit 5), were emphasized. In addition, lexical phrases (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992) relevant to the organization of genre structure and overall organization of each genre were introduced in Units 3, 4, and 7 in order to comply with the ideas suggested by the principles and sources mentioned.

Resources collected to be used as teaching and learning materials for the course were dictionaries, brochures, websites, video tapes, tape recordings, and reference books. All these elements were woven into a course which could be termed communicative in approach. To an unusual degree in Thai tertiary institutions the teacher assumed the role of facilitator and resource and the students took on greater responsibility for dealing with the input, making sense of it and judging one another’s performances. Furthermore samples of authentic field data were the major resource and the tasks undertaken for the tests were designed to simulate the work of the guide.

4.4. Sample course units

Two sample course units, Unit II and Unit III are shown in the following pages but the entire course can be viewed in Appendix I on pages 198-230.
Unit II

The speech of Tour Guides

2.1. Background to Spoken English

- Work in groups and discuss the following questions.

Do we speak the same way as we write?

How would a good tour guide speak to the tourists?

Is the speech of a tour guide like a conversation, or like telling a story/joke or like a lecture? Why?

Is it like a lecture?

- Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow.

English spoken by tour guides is mainly planned transactional speech which is quite similar to the spoken form of language used in lectures. Like lectures, tour guide English has the following features.

1. It is prepared speech. Tour guides always have itineraries in hand which help them plan in advance what to do during each trip. In addition, they have to prepare information about the places they are going to visit so that they can be ready to give specific detail of those places and people. As tour guides have time to organise their ideas in advance about what they are going to talk, their speech has a clear overall structure.

2. It is mainly one-sided. Tour guides take major roles in the trip, around 80 per cent of the talk, giving commentaries for the major part of the time. By contrast, the role of tourists is similar to that of students in a lecture in that they mainly listen and back-channel, asking questions only when they need more information. Difference is that it must sound more natural especially with smaller groups and with a different purpose. In a small group with two or three tourists, the talk tends to be similar to a conversation. In this kind of spoken language the syntax is less structured than in written language. However, spoken phrases are more syntactically complex. Some lexical phrases are used as markers of logical connection, temporal connection, exemplification, and summary. Some other lexical phrases are used only in spoken discourse: fluency devices such as ‘you know’, ‘well of course’, markers of asides such as ‘where was I?’, ‘let’s get back to the point’. Lexical phrases are commonly used to link the content to express ideas logically.

In conclusion, one of the functions of transactional spoken discourse is to impart information, which is similar to that of the written language. However, as mentioned above, many of the forms are different. Therefore, the text types used to describe written language should not be transferred to spoken language.
Answer the following questions.

1) In what ways is the speech of tour guides similar to a lecture?

2) Why is the speech of tour guides different from a conversation?

3) Are the roles of a tour guide the same as those of a lecturer?

4) What are the main differences between spoken and written language?

Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow.

Genres should be viewed as social processes which produce a particular product or text type. They can be categorized into five social processes or genre types: to describe, explain, instruct, argue, and narrate. From these, there are four genres which are commonly found in the tour guide recordings, i.e., explanation, description, instruction, and narrative. At the beginning of each trip, the tour guides use the explanatory genre to introduce an itinerary. The use of instruction is for telling tourists to do or not to do something. For the main part of their commentary, however, guides use description to describe places and people, and animals. Finally, the genre of narrative is used for talking about the history of places and the lives of famous people. These four genre categories will form the basis of the planning of how tour guides can be assisted in the development of their speaking skills.

From this, it is clear that the tour guides’ spoken English is mainly transactional rather than interactional. This is because it is used for transmitting factual information and not for maintaining social relationships. Transactional language is used in the process of conducting business and generally getting things done. However, it has been found that when the number of tourists in the group is small, the relationship tends to be a little more interactional, because there are more questions and answers and back-channeling.

In conclusion, one of the functions of transactional spoken discourse is to impart information, which is similar to the case of much written language. However, as mentioned above, many of the forms of spoken English are different. Therefore, the text types used to describe written language should not be transferred to spoken language.

Answer the following questions.

1) What spoken genre would you use to talk about King Naresuan the Great?

2) What spoken genre would you use to tell the tourists about the
program?

3) What spoken genre would you use to talk about water buffaloes?

4) If you have to inform the tourists about how to cultivate rice, what genre would you use?

5) Do you have to use each genre separately?

• Listen to this example of a tour guide's commentary and work with your group to

1) write down five words or phrases that are not commonly found in the written form

2) list three characteristics of the commentaries that show you this is spoken not written English

Tape script

(Tour guide) that mountain in front of you! that's called Suthep Mountain

up on the mountain it is where Doi Suthep Temple is!

have you been there?

(Tourist) yes

(Tour guide) how was it?

(Tourist) very nice

(Tour guide) yep, yesterday was a day off! a lot of Thai! every Thai when they came / they must go/ because some say those who have been here without visiting that place/ they're not better than those who have never been before/ so it is a must!

like if you are going to Bangkok you don't visit the Grand Palace/ same thing/ see the accommodation on your
right-hand side? You can stay there for free and three meals a day.

(Tourist) It looks very nice.

(Tour guide) yes, looks very nice from outside, but I think you don't want to be there. Sure.

(Tourist) What is that?

(Tour guide) A prison.

(Tourist) It's nicer to be outside. What's the main reason people go there?

(Tour guide) Ah, the main problem now is drugs. Yeah it is drugs from Myanmar! Because up north, here we join the border with Myanmar and further from here, about three hours to Chiangrai.

Chiangrai joins the border with Myanmar and Laos. So some drug smugglers took the drugs very easily.

(Tourist) .........

(Tour guide) Yeah because very long border between Thailand and Myanmar! In the west part of Thailand, about 2,000 kilometers, so some areas just mountains, some areas only small streams, so very easy.

Activity: Each group shares one or two ideas about spoken language.

Review: There are five spoken genre types: explanation, description, instruction, argument, and narrative. The argument genre is not found in the recordings of tour guides' commentaries so it is not mentioned in the following lessons. In the next units we will learn how to produce the explanatory genre used to talk about the itinerary, the descriptive genre used to describe places, animals and plants, the instructional genre used to tell tourists to do or not to do something, and the narrative genre used to talk about the histories of famous places and people.
Unit III
Explanatory Genre: Introducing an Itinerary

3.1. Background to the Itinerary Genre

Discussion

What does itinerary mean?

Did you ever read an itinerary?

When do you need one?

What should you talk about in your itinerary?

3.2. Modelling the genre (Analysis of genre features)

The teacher uses the following sample itinerary to discuss both organisation and language features with the students with the overhead projector.

Genre 1: Introducing itineraries

Example 1

OK so I want to talk with you about the program
the first one we'll go to the elephant camp
that is about 26 kilometers from here and spend
about half an hour from here too but on the way
we stop to see orchid and butterfly farm
then we go to the elephant camp you'll see
the elephant at there and then we can ride on
the elephant too if you like too if you want
after that we'll go to see the waterfall

Recognising the genre

Work in groups of five. Rearrange the following sentences on your desk so that you can a complete a
spoken form of a tour guiding itinerary.

Itinerary 1

a. then we will go to the elephant camp
b. first we'll go to the elephant camp
c. and then we can ride on the elephant too if you like
d. OK so I want to talk with you about the program
e. after that we'll see the waterfall
f. that is about 26 kilometers from here

g. but on the way we stop to see the orchid and butterfly farm

h. and spend about half an hour from here too

i. then we will go to the elephant camp

j. you can see the elephant there

Now listen to the tape and correct the order of your sentences.
Relisten checking the order.

• Group discussion of the itinerary. Students are given a typed copy of the itinerary to refer to
Where would the commentary above normally occur?

When do you think you will give a commentary like this one?
What is the purpose of this kind of commentary?

Analyzing the genre
From the sentences above, identify which sentences

1) introduce the tour program

2) tell the main stages of the program

3) give options about the program.

• After checking answers, lecturer will discuss the following questions with the group.
What tenses are commonly found in each stage?
What sentence structure is used for each stage?
How is each sentence linked to the others?

• Listen to the taped commentary and complete the text to reinforce the format of the itinerary genre.

Itinerary 2

yes from the city it _______ about half an hour/
the first stop we _______ be at the orchid farm/
we'll be at the orchid farm _______ ten minutes/
or 15 minutes it _______ _______ on you
just have a walk in that area / and _______.
we'll go further _______ to the elephant camp/
it's in the same area _______ we are going today/
the show starts at 9:40 and _______ for an hour/
forty minutes _______ _______ the show/ if you need
to do the elephant riding/ you _______ do/ that's your option/ you can do that________ the show finishes/ yes after the elephant camp we'll go _______ to the botanical garden/ _______ the botanical garden/ we will go further to Maeo/ after visit the hilltribe _________ lunch/ lunch time/ that’s all of the program/ the program is a _________ bit earlier/ I mean we’ll finish early/ if not 4 o'clock as _________ in the brochure/ but _________ we are going to the handicraft village tour to do shopping/ some of the factories for tourists/ if you like to do/ _________ depends on you/ _______ you want to go/ we will _________ it for you/ if you don’t go/ we will _________ there and come back

• Discussion
Check answers with the group.

Are the tenses, sentences, and linkages similar to itinerary 1?

• Pronunciation practice. Underline the stressed syllable of each word and then practice reading them.
You may consult your dictionary.
orchid depend area botanical garden
earlier brochure anyway factory arrange
option handicraft kilometer

• Lecturer leads the practice with the following structures. (Students do not have the written text).
1) I want to talk with you ________ about the program for today.
I would like to tell you
Let me tell you

2) After the __________, we’ll visit _________
elephant camp the waterfall
orchid farm the museum
After we ..........!! we'll ..... visit Wat Suandok go to Wat Yai
have lunch visit the Folklore museum
go shopping go back to the hotel

If you want to .........., you/we can .......... have lunch at the waterfall do that
go shopping arrange it for you
see the house-boats do that after ....

* Complete the following text by selecting the correct linking word(s) from the list. then, after, after that, first and then, if, it depends, for about

Itinerary 3
good morning, ladies and gentlemen I am Somsak Sisal
you can call me Suki'd like to tell you about the program
for today we're going to visit Wat Nangphaya we will be there twenty minutes
we'll visit Wangchan Palace where King Naresuan the Great was born! we'll go to Sukhothai which is about 60 kilometers from here! we will have lunch in the city
lunch we'll go to the Sukhothai historical park you can take a small bus to see the park you want or you can hire a bicycle one hour at the park we can go shopping at the china village you like to do so!
if you don't we can come back to Phitsanulok earlier!
that's all of the program for today!
3.3 Construction of the genre

- Work in groups of five. Study the following examples of written itineraries taken from brochures. Then write down ideas about an itinerary for one-day trip starting from the Patlyn Hotel in Phitsanulok. After that take turns to talk about the program with your group. Remember that we do not speak in exactly the same way as we write (See Unit II).

ALL-DAY DAMNOENSADUAK AND ROSE GARDEN

Daily
(Coach tour-everyday)
Visit includes the bustling floating market at Damnoensaduak with a stop at Nakhonpathom, where the largest chedi in Thailand is located. Proceed on to lunch at the picturesque Rose Garden. Afterwards enjoy the colourful Thai Village Show—a Buddhist ordination procession, sword fighting, elephants at work, folk-dances, and a traditional wedding ceremony.

CHANTHABURI SAPPHIRE MINE

This trip to Chantaburi includes observation of the local people actually working in their mines at the foot of a mountain. Then drive up the hills to visit private sapphire mines. During the journey, stops will be made to see rubber and tapioca plantations, fruit market (depends on the season) and a historic old fort dating back to 1768.

Distance for return trip from Pattaya is about 550 kms.
Lunch and soft drinks included.

Ayutthaya Sightseeing Tour

- Leave Bangkok by train from Bangkok Station
- Arrive Ayutthaya...visit Vihan Phraongkhonbophit
- The Ancient Palace
- Wat Phrasisanphit
- The Chao Samphraya National Museum
- Lunch and relax at Pharam Park
The Elephant Show

Wat Phnachhoeng

Leave for Bangkok

Arrive Bangkok

- Work with the whole class to plan an itinerary for a trip from Phitsanulok and then appoint a volunteer to introduce it to the whole class. After that compare it with the one created by your own group to find out the similarities, differences in staging, language features of texts and cultural differences.
- Role play in groups and then with the whole class by the representative of each group.

3.4 Assessment
- Assess your partner's performance using the checklist prepared by the teacher.
- Discuss the results of the assessment.

4.5 Course implementation

The subjects of this study were 34 third-year students enrolled in the course "English for Tourism 3" at Pibulsongkram Rajabhat Institute. The students, of whom 30 were female and four were male, were between 20 and 22 years old. As there was only one group of students in the tourism industry program, they were not selected randomly but represented all the students studying in this program who had to take the course before completing on-the-job training during their fourth year. As the number of male students was small compared to that of females, gender was not used as a variable for the experiment.

The experimental teaching was conducted by the researcher himself during the second semester, from November, 2002 to February, 2003, the teaching process itself lasting 8 and a half weeks and covered around 51 hours. Before the teaching, students were instructed to prepare for the pre-test during which students gave performances in all four genres: itinerary, description, narrative, and procedure. The post-test took place another week after the end of the course.

Both English and Thai languages were used for giving instructions because sometimes the students needed clarification of a particular idea in their first language. English was used most of the time and Thai was used when the students asked for it.
4.6 Data Collection

In order to answer one of the research questions "How does the introduction of a genre based approach reflect on the student performance and attitudes?", the data were collected by the use of three methods: pre- and post-tests, questionnaire, and reports. The aim of the pre- and post-tests was to assess the student performance in order to discover if the course helped improve student oral competency. Details of pre- and post-test preparation and organization as well as the results are shown in Chapter 6, while an analysis of transcribed student discourse in both tests is shown in Chapter 7.

A questionnaire and student reports were also used to investigate the student attitudes towards the implementation of the course, with questionnaire items designed to encompass three components of attitudes: affective, cognitive, and behavioural factors. Results from the questionnaire which used a five-point Likert scale to discover the student attitudes towards firstly, English in general, secondly, the English lessons and thirdly, the teacher who taught the lessons, are shown in Chapter 8. In order to discover the student perceptions of the course in greater detail, students were asked to write a student report at three different points in the course. They were not assigned to write the report after every unit because this activity might consume too much of the limited time available. A handbook containing five questions and blank spaces for writing answers was given to each student after unit 3. The first three questions aimed to discover the main concepts and benefits obtained from the course and what areas were inadequately covered. The fourth question elicited student suggestions about supplementary activities that may be useful for developing oral competence. Student opinion about what they thought were the most confusing issues was sought in the last question. The reports were collected at the end of the course and analysed in terms of the themes commonly found. Results from these are given in Chapter 8.

4.7 Conclusion

This chapter has provided a general overview of the tour guiding English course development and evaluation. It has shown there is a link between the input obtained from various sources and the final design of the course and that throughout the process, the emphasis was upon utilising the best evidence to guide the presentation of this innovative
genre-based ESP course. The next chapter will explain how to collect and analyse authentic data used as comprehensible input for the English for Tour Guides course.
CHAPTER FIVE

AUTHENTIC DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

This chapter begins with the rationale for authentic data collection used for comprehensible input in the learning of spoken English. This is followed by the method of collecting the field data from Thai tour guides and how the tapes were transcribed. The final section contains the genre analysis of the transcription which revealed the relevant components of specific genres that should be taught in the classroom.

5.1 Rationale for collection

In order to obtain authentic materials for the training course this study collected actual field data of tour guiding English to be used as an input in learning process. According to Krashen (1982, pp. 20-21), second language learners acquire language through the operation of the input hypothesis, which claims that the learners move from one stage to another whenever they are exposed to and understand language which is a little more difficult (input plus 1) than their current level. In this case, the input language for the tourism students is English for tour guiding because they already have some competence in general English.

With regard to communicative language teaching, Stern suggests that communicative activities can be created through "contrived arrangements" (Stern, 1993, p. 185). When natural communication is difficult, well-chosen readings, sound recordings or films can be created for classroom learning. In the case of the Thai tourism course, field visits were difficult to arrange as students had a fixed schedule of subjects and time. Furthermore, a visit to a target language community costs time and expenditure. Therefore, this study used the second method, that is, sound recordings, for comprehensible input in the learning process, because the students are expected to use spoken English in their future career.

These sound recordings were considered appropriate for the input because they were authentic, interesting, informal and at the right level. Their authenticity derived from the fact they were obtained from the target field, where tour guides work. The
tourism industry students could be motivated to learn by working with these recordings because, they dealt with familiar places and students were aware that they would need to use similar language in the future. In addition, the language in the recordings was informal and at the right level in terms of the students' proficiency, because it was used by Thai tour guides instead of native speakers of English.

In relation to collection of field data from the guides, two studies were conducted. In order to discover the clients' needs, the perceptions of firstly, travel agency managers, and secondly, tourists regarding Thai tour guides' English usage were investigated. The results of this study are discussed in the next chapter but it should be noted here that all those surveyed indicated that the giving of suitable commentary was an important aspect of the tour guides' work. Therefore, obtaining real data from the field was considered a vital task and since all Thai tour guides are second language speakers it is reasonable to assume that the actual speech of those tour guides would provide the most suitable input for the program (relate this to earlier section on Thai English, pages 42-45).

5.2 The target situation

In order to discover more about the target tour guiding situation, the researcher collected data from Chiangmai province. First, the researcher visited some travel agents and asked them to allow their tour guides to be informed about and involved in the purposes of the research project. Not many tour guides were willing to cooperate because they felt uncomfortable to record their commentaries while they were leading the tour. However, three of them, one male and two females, agreed to help record their talks. A letter of invitation and an agreement form were sent to these tour guides to assure them that their information would be kept confidential (See appendix... Page....). The tour guides were asked to record commentaries from the beginning until the end of their particular tour. All three led a one-day trip but the length of the talks, recorded with the help of a pocket microphone and small tape recorder, varied from half an hour to one hour and a half according to their different tour sites. Topics commonly found among the three tour guides' commentaries are shown as follows.

Tape 1, which is 44 minutes long, covers the areas of the introduction of an itinerary, elephants, orchids, a botanical garden, hilltribes' beliefs and way of life,
economic fruit crops, rice growing, Royal Projects, drugs, cloth production, and cooking. Tape 2, which is 13 minutes long, covers the areas of the introduction of an itinerary, places of interests such as the city hall and resorts, cock-fighting, orchids, butterflies, elephants, elephant show, and a botanical garden. Tape 3, which is 90 minutes long, covers the areas of the greeting and introduction of an itinerary, history of Chiangmai, Songkran Festival, descriptions of places along the way, history and description of Suandok Temple, Buddhism, ordination, trees, architecture, a biography of a revered monk, Buddhist holidays, the monks' way of life, Buddhist scripts, Buddha images, Doi Suthep Temple and activities that people do there, local market places, local food, history of a road, Visakhabucha Day, a cable car, mural paintings, description of the scenery seen from Doi Suthep Temple, Naga staircases, Thai food, history and description of Chet Yod Temple, a local cemetery, temple dogs, the Ping River, and Varorot Market.

5.3 Transcription process

This section describes the process of transcribing the recorded tour guide commentaries to be used as input for the teaching English for tour guiding. After listening to the tapes several times, the researcher went ahead to transcribe the commentaries. Wherever the sound was not clear enough to identify the word, three dots were used to show the missing words or phrases. After completion, the transcriptions were analysed to find the most common genres, which represented the most frequently occurring functions in the tapes.

From this process, it emerged that the macro-discourse contained four genres used by all the three guides at different times during the journey; itinerary, description, narrative and procedure. These could be described as follows.

- The **itinerary genre** occurred on the bus at the beginning of the trip. It usually begins with greeting the tourists, introducing self, and explaining the tour program.

- The **description genre** was used to give information or details of the things the tour group saw on the way or at the tour sites. Whenever the group tour passed something interesting, the guide would describe it by both pointing at it and
giving information. This genre may be initiated by the guide or as a response to tourist questions.

- The **narrative genre** was used to tell stories of a place or important person. For example, when the tour group reached a monument, the tour guide would tell tourists why the monument was built for that person. When they visited an old place or city, its history would be told by the guide.

- The **procedural genre** was used to instruct the tourist on how to produce something seen while taking the trip. This genre usually occurred when the tour guide introduced a local product or a particular dish or snack.

### 5.4 Identification of genres

Genre theory is basically used for exploring and explaining language and its roles in social contexts (Christie, 1999:761). It provides teachers with the knowledge of how language works to build particular genres, thus enabling teachers to guide their students in the learning of the appropriate genres in language use. Therefore, teachers should understand the genres they teach:

> They should ask how the form is functional: What purposes does this genre serve? How do its particular generic structures serve those purposes? How is it adapted to its particular readers? How is it appropriate to its context of situation? (Coe, 1994:160)

Furthermore, the analysis of the speech genres identified in the transcripts and utilised in the teaching program offers students a principled way to identify and focus on different types of texts. As Coe (1994, p. 165) states:

> Sometimes, with students who have mastered the concept and practice of genre, it may be most efficient simply to present a new genre, explaining how its structural features are strategically functional in communicative context. In deed, for such students, it might be a waste of time and energy to make them reinvent or rediscover the genre. But whatever pedagogies we decide are best for particular students and teaching situations, we should lead students to understand formal structures generically in relation to rhetorical contexts and discourse communities. ... They should learn to notice genres, to make sense of genres, even to renovate genres. (Coe, 1994, p. 165)

In this way, students are given a framework or a model of text (Hammond, Burns, Borsnan, Joyce, & Gerot, 1992, p 20) to enable them to learn how to organise and
construct their own text to be used in tour guiding discourse. In the case of the tourism industry, students should know what schematic structures and language features are common in very specific as well as more general spoken genres so that they can develop fluent and natural speaking skills.

In relation to the analysis of the two main components of genre, that is, organisation of ideas and language features found in the literature review, the transcripts were modified to a small degree because there were some grammatical mistakes. This was necessary because the transcripts would be used as models in the lessons. A sample modification showing the limited changes is given in Table 5.1 below. In this sample, there were altogether eighty-five words and about 6 per cent of them were modified by adding a new word (such as we stop = we will stop, deleting (such as at there= there).

Table 5.1: Example of itinerary transcription

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Original transcription</th>
<th>Modified Version</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>OK so I want to talk with you about the program--the first one we'll go to the elephant camp—that is about 26 kilometers from here and spend about half an hour from here too--but on the way we stop to see orchid and butterfly farm—then we go to the elephant camp you'll see the elephant at there--and then we can ride on the elephant too if you like--too if you want--after that we'll go to see the waterfall</td>
<td>OK so I want to talk with you about the program--the first one we'll go to the elephant camp—that is about 26 kilometers from here and spend about half an hour from here too--but on the way we will stop to see the orchid and butterfly farm—then we will go to the elephant camp you'll see the elephant there--and then we can ride on the elephant too if you like--after that we'll go to see the waterfall</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The sounds of the original recordings were poor because the commentaries were recorded on the coach or at the tour sites where there was a lot of white noise. Consequently, the modified versions of the transcripts were then rerecorded. This was done by asking the researcher’s colleagues, who were Thai teachers of English, to read the transcripts and record their reading in a quiet room so that the quality of sound would be clear. These Thai teachers were chosen to be Thai tour guide substitutes, because they were more accessible than native speakers of English. In addition, using the Thai accent
as a model may encourage the Thai learners because they would realize that the Thai accent did not interfere with understanding.

5.5 Analysis of genre features

The method of analysis for the transcript to identify genre features was adapted from Hammond, Burns, Borsnan, Jorce, and Gerot (1992, p. 75-93). In order to make the analysis clear, the transcript was put in the middle of a page and the right hand space was left for identifying the major language features of the genre while the genre organization or schematic structure was noted on the left. The following page shows examples of this analysis.

The first genre shown below is itinerary. With this particular genre, the organization of ideas begins with the introduction of the program followed by steps. Sometimes an option is given at the end. The main language features of this genre are future simple tense, temporal connectors such as “first”, “after that”, and “then” and action verbs such as go, visit, ride, see and stop.

Table 5.2: Analysis of itinerary features 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Transcription</th>
<th>Language features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introducing program</td>
<td>OK so I want to talk with you about the program--the first one we’ll go to the elephant camp-- that is about 26 kilometers from here and spend about half an hour from here too-- but on the way we will stop to see the orchid and butterfly farm then we will go to the elephant camp you’ll see the elephant there-- and then we can ride on the elephant too if you like - - after that we’ll go to see the waterfall</td>
<td>future tense: will, action verbs: spend, go, ride, stop, see temporal conjunctions: first, after that, and then conditional sentence: you can.... if you like...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Steps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Options</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Table 5.3: Analysis of itinerary features 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Transcript</th>
<th>Language Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| **Introducing the program**  | yes from the city it takes about half an hour--the first stop will be at the orchid farm--we'll be at the orchid farm about ten minutes or 15 minutes -- it depends on you-- just have a walk in that area-- and then we'll go further to the elephant camp-- it's in the same area where we are going today -- the show starts at 9.40 and lasts for an hour 40 minutes-- and after the show if you need to do the elephant riding you can do-- that's your option-- you can do that after the show finishes-- yes after the elephant camp we'll go further to the botanical garden-- after the botanical garden we will go further to Maeo-- after visit the hilltribe maybe lunch lunch time -- that's all of the program-- the program is a little bit earlier-- I mean we'll finish early if not 4 o'clock as mentioned in the brochure-- but anyway we are going to the handicraft village tour to do shopping some of the factory for tourist if you like to do-- that depends on you-- if you want to go we will arrange it for you-- if you don't to go we will finish there and come back-- so do you want to go or not-- so if you want to go after that area we're going to the handicraft village and we will have lunch there-- after lunch we'll do some factory tour-- so that can finish about four or four-thirty | **future tense**: will, are going to  
**action verbs**: have a walk, go, ride, visit, do shopping, have  
**temporal conjunctions**: first, after, then, and then  
**conditional sentence**: if you want..., we’ll..... |
| **Steps**     |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         |                   |
| **Options**   |                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                                         |                   |

One sample for each of the three remaining genres, description, narration and procedure is given in the next section. However, further examples of these can be found in the appendix, pages .........

The most commonly found genre, description, contains varied structures of ideas depending on the topic described. However, it usually begins with the introduction of the topic and its classification e.g. "I want to tell you about the elephants there are two kinds..."
of *elephants in the world.* Other themes such as location, appearance, properties, behaviour, and reproduction where appropriate are then covered. The main language features of this genre are the present simple tense, relational verbs ‘to be’ and ‘to have’, and action verbs. The action verbs occur commonly in the description of animals. An example of analysis of the description genre is given below.

**Table 5.4: Analysis of descriptive features**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Transcript</th>
<th>Language features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Classification | I want to tell you about elephants-- there are two kinds of elephants in the world-- do you know what they are-- African elephants and Indian elephants-- and the African elephants they have bigger ears but smaller heads than Indian elephants-- so that is why Indian elephants are clever and easier to train than the African elephants-- and all elephants in Thailand are Indian elephants-- and on average elephants are about 3 meters high from the feet to the highest point of shoulder-- they eat 250 kilograms of food and 60 kilograms of water per day-- yes it's body is big-- and an elephant sleeps just only 3-4 hours per day from 11 p.m. until 3 a.m.-- when an elephant sleeps it sleeps like human lying down-- an elephant is pregnant for about 22 to 24 months about two years-- when a mother wants to give birth-- she looks for the comfortable spot with a midwife-- a midwife is an elephant too-- the midwife helps the mother clean up the placentas-- and keeps the baby apart from the mother-- because after birth the mother is very exhausted and hurt-- she can kill her baby by bite-- normally we can train elephants when they are 4 years old-- and they work until 60 years old-- then they are retired and they will be set free in the jungle | - present tense  
- relational verbs: is, are  
- action verbs: sleep, eat, look for, help, give, work |
| Appearance     |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                        |
| Property       |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                        |
| Location       |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                        |
| Property       |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                        |
| Behaviour      |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                        |
| Reproduction   |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                        |
| Working        |                                                                                                                                                                                                          |                                        |
The next genre, narration, usually begins with an orientation of the topic e.g. "This temple is called Suandok Temple/ Suandok means a flower garden.". After that, a sequence of events is narrated and the story normally ends with a resolution or summary statement. The most important language features of this genre are past simple tense and action verbs, temporal connectors, time phrases, and causal conjunctions. An example of analysis of the narration genre is given below.

Table 5.5: Analysis of narrative features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Transcript</th>
<th>Language features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Orientation</td>
<td>Chiangmai in the former time about 705 years ago we had our own kingdom--we called it Lanna Kingdom--and it was the center of the kingdom at that time--King Mengrai the same king who built Chiangrai he first built Chiangmai to be the center of Lanna--but it didn't work because it was not a good location not good enough--so he moved down here--and then he chose the new place--that's why he built a new city here--and he named this city--Chiangmai means a new city and Chiangrai means the city of King Mengrai--the word &quot;chiang&quot; means city--so Chiangmai was built in 1296--and he built it in the old city area--and he built the brick wall in the triangle shape to protect from the army--because this area was the route of the Burmese army--the Burmese went past this area and went down to Bangkok to fight against Bangkok army--that's why we had to have a strong wall.</td>
<td>-past tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sequence of events</td>
<td></td>
<td>-action verbs: built, chose, named, went, moved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td></td>
<td>-relational verbs: was, had</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solution</td>
<td></td>
<td>-passive voice: was built</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-temporal conjunctions: at that time, then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solution</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last genre, procedure, usually starts with the introduction to the process e.g. "I want to show you this one/this is a kind of hemp/this is the bark of this plant." The steps followed in producing the item are then explained. An evaluation e.g. "so they make their own cloth." may be added to mark the end of the procedure. The main language features found in this genre are present simple tense and action verbs, relational verbs, imperatives, temporal connectors, and demonstrative adjectives e.g. 'this, that'. An example of analysis of the procedure genre is given below.
Table 5.6: Analysis of procedure features

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Transcript</th>
<th>Language Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Description  | I want to show you this one--this is a kind of hemp--this is a bark of this plant-- and twist them a bit to make it more stronger--this other bit-- after twist them they have to be boiled in the wood ash to make it whiter like this--and then spin-- and then go to the loom outside--the loom is just a small loom--that loom-- so they make their own cloth | - present tense  
- imperative:  
- action verbs: show, twist, make, spin, go  
- relational verbs: is  
- temporal conjunction: after, then  
- demonstrative adjectives: this, that |
| Steps        |            |                   |
| Evaluation   |            |                   |

**Conclusion**

This chapter described the recording of selected Thai tour guides’ commentaries, followed by the analysis of the transcriptions of the recordings based on genre theory. The analysis reveals that the common genres used by Thai tour guides in their commentaries are the itinerary, description, narration, and procedure. These genres have their own type of organization and language features so these two areas were adopted to form the basis of the activities of the English for Tour Guides course.

In the next chapter, the results of student performances before and after training in the four genres will be described.
CHAPTER SIX

PRE AND POST TEST RESULTS

In this thesis, two methods of measuring student oral competence are described, one analytical and the other holistic. The former detailed analysis will be found in the next chapter, while in this chapter the approach will focus on the overall ability of students to make themselves understood as they use the particular genres. This chapter begins with describing the approach to assessing spoken English, with a view to explaining how the assessment is linked to the main components of spoken genre. This is followed by the arrangements for testing the student performances. Finally, pre and post test results are described and analysed.

6.1 Approach to assessing spoken English

It was proposed in the literature review that the teaching of English for Thai tourism industry students could enhance intelligibility and acceptability for the tourists, rather than conformity and accuracy. Moreover, in genre and CLT theory, the focus is on analyzing the language used in different situations and contexts and then applying the results as a model. In this case, therefore, it is argued that students should know what language features are common in very specific, as well as more general, spoken genres, so that they can develop fluent and natural speech. This study has consequently combined both appropriate language features and intelligibility in the assessment process.

In accordance with this approach, three different testers were selected for their ability to represent a varied tourist audience. The first one was a native speaker of English (NS), who had little experience of the Thai English accent, but who could be regarded as a substitute for a native-speaker tourist. The second and third were experienced Thai teachers of English (Thai teacher 1 and Thai teacher 2), who could speak for the tourism regulator, the Tourism Authority of Thailand and understand the spoken genre requirements.

6.2 Arrangements for testing

At the beginning of the training, the 34 students in the class were assigned to prepare four oral tasks, an explanation of an itinerary; a description of a place, a plant or
an animal in the local area; a narrative of a famous person or a place; and a procedure for doing something. The commentary for each genre was to occupy no more than 5 minutes. The student performances were then video-taped before the lessons started. At the end of the training, the students were assigned to do the same tasks again using the same instructions and these final talks were also video-taped.

Because the pre- and post-tests were taped at separate times, comparison was technically difficult. Therefore, each student's performances were put together on the same tape in order that it would be easier for the testers to watch and assess them consecutively. The order of the talks was itinerary, description, narrative and procedure respectively. However, because the student talk was continuous, it was difficult for the testers to recognise the boundaries between each genre. The researcher therefore had to help pause the tape at the end of each genre so that the testers could have time to think before marking the score sheet.

At the first meeting before assessing the tape, the testers were informed of the nature of genre teaching in general and of the specific four genres. The researcher, who was with them throughout the viewing and assessment, explained the difference between the two main areas to be assessed; organization and language features. They were told in their assessment not to focus on accuracy but on intelligibility as discussed earlier (see section 2.24). In fact they were to try to judge the two performances from the standpoints of tourists and officials, who do not work with a long checklist of requirements but merely want to be informed and satisfied. Thus the assessment criteria as shown on the next page was made as basic guide, which could be used within a short time frame after the playing of each of the genre pairs.

Before the real assessment began, the researcher had the testers try out their assessment and let them ask questions to ensure that all of them understood the assessment process and the criteria used for it. The tape was paused after the pre- and post-tests of each of the four genres, giving the testers time to think before making their decisions. The testers were allowed to ask for a replay of the tape when they thought they wanted to rehear it. There was a break after finishing the assessment of a quarter of the class so that the testers could rest their eyes.
The criteria and score sheet used by the testers for the assessment is shown below.

Criteria for Assessment

Ask yourself these questions as you watch the pre- and post-performances of the students.

Organisation

How would you compare the content of the post- with the pre-test?

Are the ideas in the post-performance easier to follow?

Language Features

How would you compare the language used in the pre- and post-performances?

Is the language used in the post-performance easier to understand?

Range of scores

Indicate your opinion of the post-performance compared with the pre-course performance by writing the number indicating your judgement in the correct columns.

4 Much higher level of organisation and comprehensibility
3 Higher level of organisation and comprehensibility
2 Same or similar level of organisation and comprehensibility
1 Lower level of organisation and comprehensibility
The score sheet above indicates that with each genre there were two main aspects to assess: the organisation of ideas and the language features. The first aspect was included in order to discover the general intelligibility and acceptability to the listener of the post-course performance compared with the pre-test, while the latter measured the appropriate use of the linguistic features of the particular genre. During the assessment process one special problem was encountered with the native English speaking tester, who asserted that the Thai accent was too difficult for him to catch. He said some students put the wrong stress and pauses on their words and phrases so it was hard to assess the language features. In addition, some spoke too softly for them to hear. All the three testers agreed to have a break a few times during the process because they felt tired and stressed. However, after due application all three testers finished the marking of the 34 student performances.
6.3 Analysis of the results

The analysis of the results illustrates in what way the introduction of a genre-based approach had an impact on the student performance in terms of the changes in each genre.

*Pre and Posttest Results for the Whole Class*

All 34 students in the class completed both the pre and posttests. Each student completed all four genres and for each genre there was a maximum of 8 points, 4 points for organization and another 4 points for language features. Therefore, the maximum points, which could be given by each tester for each student, were 32.

In order to calculate the overall points of the three testers, each tester's marks were added together. After this calculation of the composite of the three testers' marks, in which the possible overall total composite score was 96, a student whose total points were lower than 25 was considered at a lower level of organization and comprehensibility than at the pretest. Those with points between 25 and 48 were at the same or similar level. Those with points between 49 and 72 were at a higher level, and any whose points were higher than 72 were at a much higher level.

The following figure (Figure 6.1), displaying the results for the totals of all four genres, illustrates that the total composite scores of twenty-two students were between 61 to 80 and the others were over 81. None of the students obtained a total composite score lower than 64.
When the marks for organisation are considered, Figure 6.2 illustrates that two thirds of the students substantially improved their performances in terms of organisation. Over two thirds of them obtained the mean scores of over 41 out of the possible total score of 48.

A slightly different picture emerges with regard to the language features. Figure 6.3 shows that although the raters considered all of the student performances in relation to language features were much better, only 4 of them obtained the scores of over 40 out of the possible total score of 48.
Comparison of Testers' Results

What follows in this section is a discussion of the results from the three testers, Tester 1 being the native speaker, Tester 2 and Tester 3 the Thai teachers. First, the table for each rater is displayed followed by a short commentary for each.

Table 6.1 Tester 1 - Median Scores (Native Speaker)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Itinerary* Organisation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description* Organisation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative* Organisation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure* Organisation</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*sig. dif. (p<0.001) between the two areas, organisation and language features, according to the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

In the native tester's opinion, genre organization improved in all four genres with the medians being between 3 and 4. However, student competence, which relates to
language features, improved in the first genre, the itinerary, with a median of 3, while no change could be seen in the other three genres with the median remaining at 2. By using a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, Table 6.1 indicates that there is a significant difference at p<0.001 between the two areas, organization and language features for all genres. The first area improved, while the latter was at the same level in the view of this rater.

Table 6.2 Tester 2- Median Scores (Thai teacher 1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Language features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Itinerary</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* sig. dif. (p<0.001) between the two areas, organization and language, according to the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

The test results from the non-native speaker in Table 6.2 indicate that there was an improvement in both areas for all four genres. The greatest improvement could be seen in itinerary, with a median for both areas of 4, while a median of 4 was given to the organization and 3 to the language features of the procedure. Student language competence had also progressed in the two other genres, the description and the narrative, with a median of 3. By applying a Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test to the figure in Table 6.2, there is a significant difference between the two areas, genre organization and language features, for Procedure (p<0.001) in Tester 2's opinion.
Table 6.3 Tester 3 Median Scores (Thai teacher 2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Itinerary</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Median</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>Organisation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Language features</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*sig. dif. (p<0.001) between the two areas, organisation and language features according to the Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

Table 6.3 indicates that in the opinion of Tester 3 genre organization and language features in all four genres improved. In relation to genre organization there was a much greater change with a median of 4 in all the genres. However, the median of 3 in the area of language features of all four genres still indicates that this area of student commentaries had improved at the end of the training course. When the Wilcoxon test is applied to Table 6.3, it shows that, in the opinion of Tester 3, there was a significant difference (p<0.001) between organization and language features across all genres. This reveals that most students had improved in their genre organization.

The medians for the levels awarded by the three testers, whose background experience of Thai speakers was not the same, are illustrated in Table 6.4.
Table 6.4 Inter-Rater Median Comparison

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genres</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Language features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Tester 1</td>
<td>Tester 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itinerary</td>
<td>NS</td>
<td>Thai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*sig. diff. (p<0.001>) between raters across all genres according to the Friedman’s 2-way ANOVA by Ranks Test.

Table 6.4 shows that the student performances were perceived differently by the three testers. The comparison of the medians indicates that the Thai teachers, who have strong background experience of Thai speakers, awarded the highest scores for the student commentaries. The NS tester, who represented native English tourists visiting Thailand for the first time, gave the lowest scores for the same performances. Nonetheless all indicated that there was some improvement especially in regard to organization.

These differences between the medians for organization of the three testers are also seen in the table. The highest median of 16 for all genres was given by the Thai English teacher who had taught English to Thai students for more than twenty years. She would therefore be familiar with Thai students’ accents, so it was not difficult for her to understand their performance. The middle ranked median 14 belongs to the other Thai tester. The native tester, who found the Thai students’ pronunciation interfered with the understanding of the student commentaries, produced the lowest median 13. The differences between raters were significant at p<0.001.

In relation to language features, the highest median scores of 13 and 12 were given by the Thai teachers of English. This may be because they were familiar with identifying student errors in grammar or they may have had more knowledge of grammar. The lowest median 9 was given by the native speaker of English possibly because the
unfamiliar Thai accent of the students affected his ability to understand what was being said.

In sum, the differences between raters were significant at p<0.001 across genres according to the Friedman's 2-way ANOVA by Ranks Test.

6.4 Conclusion

These holistic assessments reveal that, in the view of the raters, by the end of the English for Tour Guiding course, an improvement had occurred in the main aspects focused on in the course, genre organization and language features. However, the degree of improvement as perceived by different testers varied from one tester to another. The native English tester thought that the students' organization of ideas improved while the language features were at the same level as in the pretest. The first non-native tester, who was familiar with the Thai accent, thought that both aspects of the four genres improved at a moderate level. The student performance as perceived by the other Thai tester developed in both aspects, but she thought that there was a greater improvement in the organization of ideas.

In the next chapter, the discourse analysis of selected student commentaries will supply a supplementary assessment of the student performances.
CHAPTER SEVEN
DISCOURSE ANALYSIS OF STUDENT COMMENTARIES

This chapter will use a different approach to that found in the previous chapter to investigate oral competency at the end of the English for Tour Guides course. In order to do this, student oral presentations were transcribed and then analysed to discover their significant features. The analysis, carried out according to the content of the teaching program, of the four genres, itinerary, description, procedure, and narrative, is discussed separately in the first section of this chapter. The second section will then be the summary view of the chapter.

7.1 Analysis of individual genres

Nine students out of thirty four were selected for the analysis of their commentaries from both the pre and posttests. These were identified as having high, medium, and low profiles in the results of the holistic pretest (See Appendix II, page ...). The commentaries in both the pre and posttest were transcribed so that it would be possible to carry out a detailed analysis. Then in order to discover the differences of the pre and the post test of each genre, each genre was divided into idea units for close scrutiny. In the next stage, some important factors, which were found in the Thai tour guide commentaries and presented during the course, were listed and put into a chart in order to be able to summarize the change in each student by comparing each factor in the two performances. Although in order to make the task of analysis manageable and meaningful the number of significant aspects was minimized to 5-8, this in no way suggests that all aspects have been included in the surveys.

In most cases the change could be indicated numerically with the first number in the comparative tables representing the pre-test and the second the post test. For example, the numbers 1 to 5 in the tour stage column means that the student increased her inclusion of tour stages from one stage in the pre test to five stages in the posttest. The numbers 7 to 17 in the length column means that the student managed to produce a much longer commentary since there were only seven statements in the pre test but seventeen...
statements in the posttest. In some cases it was not possible to give a numerical figure. In that case, the change is shown by phrases such as “similar”, “more detail” and “less detail”. For example, in Table 7.1, the phrase “similar” is used when a student presented a similar greeting and introduction in both the pre and posttest. Some students might add a statement e.g. *you can call me Nit*, to make the tourist feel comfortable. If such a detail was given in the posttest, the phrase “more detail” is shown. If a student might only greet the audience without introducing himself, then the phrase “less detail” is shown in the column.

7.1.1 Itinerary

According to the analysis of the itinerary genre and the course components, the six significant factors relating to the purpose of this genre are greeting and introduction, tour stages, length of commentaries, the giving of options, temporal connectors, and future tense. The itinerary usually begins with greeting the tourists and the introduction of self and then the tour stages are explained. The length of the talk depends on the number of tour stages and detail of tour sites. Different stages are usually linked with temporal connectors and the tense most frequently used in these stages is the future simple. Sometimes an option is given at the end of the genre to make the trip more flexible and suitable for a range of tourists.

The following table summarises the differences between the pre and post tests in regard to organizational and language features for the nine students.
Table 7.1: Comparison of Pre and Post Course Presentation

GENRE: ITINERARY Organizational and Linguistic Features

(Transcript see Appendix II Page ...)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Greeting &amp; Introduction</th>
<th>Tour stages</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Options</th>
<th>Future tense</th>
<th>Temporal connectors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bangkok</td>
<td>similar</td>
<td>1 to 5</td>
<td>7 to 17</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>2 to 7</td>
<td>2 to 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Samui</td>
<td>similar</td>
<td>4 to 7</td>
<td>7 to 17</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>4 to 5</td>
<td>3 to 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thachai</td>
<td>similar</td>
<td>7 to 5</td>
<td>13 to 7</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>5 to 3</td>
<td>4 to 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Denchai</td>
<td>more detail</td>
<td>3 to 2</td>
<td>7 to 10</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Suphan</td>
<td>more detail</td>
<td>1 to 5</td>
<td>2 to 5</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>0 to 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rayong</td>
<td>more detail</td>
<td>2 to 6</td>
<td>5 to 10</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>2 to 6</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Nakhon</td>
<td>less detail</td>
<td>4 to 3</td>
<td>6 to 10</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
<td>0 to 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Nan</td>
<td>less detail</td>
<td>5 to 2</td>
<td>7 to 11</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 7</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Thepnakhon</td>
<td>similar</td>
<td>similar</td>
<td>5 to 18</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
<td>0 to 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Some students replaced will with can in the future tense.

Table 7.1 shows that there is a significant change by the end of the course in four key factors, that is, length, the number of stages, the use of the future tense, and temporal connectors. The length of the itineraries as a general rule doubled in the post test and in only one did the detail decrease from 13 to 7 statements. The following example will illustrate what is meant by this improvement in length with the text of one student's performances.
Table 7.2: Change in Length

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Welcome to the Phitsanulok sightseeing tour</td>
<td>-Ladies and gentlemen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-my name is Ratri Khunson</td>
<td>-I'm Ratri Khunson</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-I'm your guide for this tour</td>
<td>-I'd like to tell you about the program for today</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-We (will) visit the Watphrasrirutamahathat</td>
<td>-First we are going to visit Wat yai and the folk museum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-.after we will take ...buy souvenir compound Wat Yai</td>
<td>-After that we will see the houseboat museum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Then we'll have lunch in the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-After we will have lunch # will we'll see Wangchuan Palace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-And then we will visit Wat Yai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-In the evening we will have dinner at the Paklin Hotel</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In regard to the second feature namely the tour stages, most of the students increased the number of stages for the tour, while half changed from one stage to five and six stages. In regard to the fourth feature in Table 7.1, some students did not use the future tense to explain their itineraries in the pretest but by the time of the post test the use of future tense had greatly improved. Moreover, half of the students failed to link the stages with temporal connectors in the pretest, but all used them better in the post test. The connectors such as first, and then, after that, after, finally are commonly found in the itinerary genre of the post test as seen in the following example where the connectors are shown in bold type.
Table 7.3: Use of Temporal Connectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-est</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Welcome to the Phitsanulok sightseeing tour</td>
<td>-Good morning, ladies and gentlemen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-I'm Suphaniika Banyen</td>
<td>-I'm Suphaniika Banyen // you can call me On</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-and I'm your guide for this tour</td>
<td>-I'd like to tell you about the program for today</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-We'll start at Watphusriratunamahathat or Wat Yai</td>
<td>-First we are going to visit Wat Yai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Wat Yai on the eastern side of the Nan River/ opposite the town hall of Phitsanulok</td>
<td>-Then we will visit Wat Naangphaya</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-We will have lunch in the city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-After lunch we will go to Kaengsopha Waterfall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Last we can back to the hotel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-Thank you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, little change was evident in the other two factors: greeting/introduction, and options with these two aspects continuing at similar levels from the pre test to the post test. In the case of greeting and introduction, there is no significant difference between the pre test and the post test, because in both tests most of the students greeted the guests first and then introduced themselves. However, in relation to the giving of options, which helps make tourists feel more comfortable, these were given by half of the students in the post test while only one was found in the pretest. The options are expressed by using an if-clause e.g. You can ... if you want.

In sum, the commentaries of the majority of the students in the itinerary genre reveal that the short course training provided benefit in at least four of the key points covered in the treatment of the itinerary.
7.1.2 Description

According to the analysis of the description genre and the course components, the five desirable features of this genre are:

- **the length of commentaries** The length indicates the amount of content that should be provided in order to be comprehensible and interesting.

- **descriptive features** This factor consists of words or phrases that modify the topic noun such as *most beautiful, interesting, three meters high*.

- **extended noun phrases** Noun phrases can be extended to add more detail by using prepositional phrases or relative clauses.

- **present tense** The main verbs of the description should be the present simple tense because tour guides describe what they see at that time.

- **the use of verb 'to be' and verb 'to have'** Most verbs used for the description are *to be* and *to have* because these verbs relate subjects and complements to one another.

The following table shows the comparison of the students' pre-and post-course performances in relation to description genre.
Table 7.4: Comparison of Pre and Post Course Presentation

**GENRE: DESCRIPTION  Organizational and Linguistic Features**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Descriptive features</th>
<th>Extended Noun phrase</th>
<th>Tense use-correct</th>
<th>Verb 'to be' 'to have' use-correct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bangrak</td>
<td>11 to 7</td>
<td>2 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>11-6 to 6-6</td>
<td>5-1 to 5-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Samui</td>
<td>5 to 4</td>
<td>2 to 1</td>
<td>3 to 6</td>
<td>5-2 to 4-4</td>
<td>4-2 to 3-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thachai</td>
<td>5 to 6</td>
<td>3 to 4</td>
<td>3 to 3</td>
<td>4-3 to 8-5</td>
<td>3-3 to 4-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Denchai</td>
<td>4 to 7</td>
<td>2 to 4</td>
<td>2 to 2</td>
<td>4-2 to 6-4</td>
<td>1-1 to 2-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Suphan</td>
<td>3 to 6</td>
<td>2 to 1</td>
<td>2 to 4</td>
<td>4-1 to 6-6</td>
<td>2-1 to 1-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rayong</td>
<td>3 to 15</td>
<td>1 to 3</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>3-3 to 13-8</td>
<td>2-2 to 6-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Nakhon</td>
<td>2 to 7</td>
<td>1 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>2-2 to 6-4</td>
<td>0-0 to 4-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Nan</td>
<td>0 to 8</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 7-6</td>
<td>0-0 to 5-5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Thepnakhon</td>
<td>1 to 7</td>
<td>2 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>1-1 to 7-7</td>
<td>1-1 to 4-4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.4 shows the improvement in three features, that is, length, extended noun phrases, and the correct use of present tense. The length of the descriptions as a whole increased, although two of the nine students shortened their talks.
The following example illustrates this increase.

Table 7.5: **Increased length and detail in description**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-The temple is WatphraSriratnamahathat</td>
<td>-Ladies and gentlemen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-It (...) on river side</td>
<td>-on the right is a Thungsaluanghnang national park covering an area of over</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Local people call Wat Yal</td>
<td>one thousand square mile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-When(....) you in the chapel you will see</td>
<td>-the most of area of this national park are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the most beautiful Buddha image</td>
<td>forest/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Many people call Luangphayai</td>
<td>- and it has a good climate and the most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-In the chapel have the wall painting</td>
<td>beautiful flowers especially from November to February</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-They tell story of Ramakian</td>
<td>- and also it has Kaengsophu waterfall which is like Niagara Waterfall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-When you go around the chapel you'll see</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many Buddha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dry banana... ...is a ...product in the area of Bangkrathum district</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in Phitsanulok</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-dry banana made from banana and good sunshine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-it sweet and good taste</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-I want to tell you about elephant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Elephant in Thailand are Indian elephant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Elephant are about three meters high</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-They eat 25 kilogram of food 60 kilogram of water for day</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-And elephant sleep only three to four hour</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-And they work until sixty years old</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the type of noun phrases used for description, more than half of the students increased their use of extended noun phrases to describe their topics more clearly. As seen in the example of Bangrak below, the description is made more effective by the use of a prepositional phrase (an area of over one thousand square mile) and a relative clause (which is like Niagara Waterfall). In regard to the use of tense to describe features, most of the students improved their use of the present form of verbs.

Table 7.6: **Use of present tense in descriptions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-You will see the temple</td>
<td>-Ladies and gentlemen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-It (...) on river side</td>
<td>-on the right is a Thungsaluanghnang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-The temple is WatphraSriratnamahathat</td>
<td>national park covering an area of over one thousand square mile/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Local people call Wat Yal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-When(....) you in the chapel you will see</td>
<td>-the most of area of this national park are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the most beautiful Buddha image</td>
<td>forest/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Many people call Luangphayai</td>
<td>- and it has a good climate and the most beautiful flowers especially from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-In the chapel have the wall painting</td>
<td>November to February</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-They tell story of Ramakian</td>
<td>- and also it has Kaengsophu waterfall which is like Niagara Waterfall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-When you go around the chapel you'll see</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many Buddha</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In both pre and post descriptions some statements lack a verb and some use future tense for the present situation but in the post test almost all of the verbs are correct. The absence of verbs is shown by dots in brackets in the example above. The situation is different in the case of descriptive features and the use of verb 'to be' and verb 'to have'. In regard to descriptive features, there is no significant difference between the pre and post tests as although some students increased their use of descriptive features, others did not. Furthermore, although the use of verb 'to be' and verb 'to have' increased in the post test, the verbs were in the wrong form.

In conclusion, the post tests show that a number of students were able to improved their descriptive ability but in some cases this was not so.
7.1.3 Narrative

Another example of a genre which forms a normal part of tour guiding commentary is the narrative. In regard to the analysis of the narrative genre and course components, the seven important narrative features taught in the course were orientation, events, solution, length, temporal connectors, past tense, and specific time phrases. The narrative organisation normally consists of an orientation, a sequence of events and a solution. The events, which constitute the main part of the genre, are expressed using key language features such as the past tense or they can be indicated by an adverb of time or a time phrase such as in 1556 and then linked by temporal connectors. The solution is the signal marking the end of a story. Summarized results for changes in selected students in relation to key features of the genre are indicated in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7: Comparison of Pre and Post Course Presentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GENRE: NARRATIVE Organizational and Linguistic Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Orientation</th>
<th>Events</th>
<th>Temporal connectors</th>
<th>Past tense</th>
<th>Time phrases</th>
<th>Solution</th>
<th>Detail Length</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.Bangrak</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>2 to 9</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
<td>0 to 6</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>4 to 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Samui</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>3 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thachai</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>3 to 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Denchai</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>2 to 8</td>
<td>2 to 2</td>
<td>3 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>7 to 15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Suphan</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>3 to 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rayong</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>3 to 3</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>4 to 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Nakhon</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 6</td>
<td>0 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Nan</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>2 to 7</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
<td>1 to 5</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>2 to 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Thepnakhon</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>2 to 6</td>
<td>0 to 4</td>
<td>1 to 6</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>2 to 11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7.7 indicates that there are major changes in both the narrative genre organization and the language features. In regard to the genre organization, the length of the narrative increased sharply in the post test and the detail decreased from 3 to 2 idea units. In relation to the second feature, namely the events, most students increased the number of events of their stories. However, little change was evident in the other
features: orientation and solution. In the case of the orientation, eight out of the nine students began their narrative with this feature in the post test whereas only six had done this in the pre test. Furthermore, the solution, which signals the end of a story, was given by only three in the posttest. However, seven of the nine students made important advances in the correct usage of the past tense. However, the use of time phrases to describe the past events was increased by only four students. The following example illustrates these changes.

Table 7.8: Changes in narratives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>- Phitsanulok is the birth place of King Naresuan the Great of Ayuthaya and his brother Prince Ekathotsarot -they are King Mahathavaracha's son -King Naresuan has been taking as a hostage to Burma for 6 years -when he was only nine years old -he was the great king -he liberated Ayuthaya from Burma while he</td>
<td>- Let me tell you the information about Sukhothai -Umni about seven (hundred) years ago two princes Phokhumphamuong of Muangreun and Phokhumbangklanghao of Muangbangyang combined the force and fought the Khmere -they drove the Khmere out of Sukhothai -Sukhothai was the capital in 1238 -Phokhumbangklanghao urged the people to be king was enthroned with the royal ... of Phokhumtri-inharathit -Phokhumtri-inharathit had two sons Phokhumbanmuang and Phokhumrunkhumanhaeng -King Ramkhumhaeng was Thailand first great king -a total of eight kings ruled Sukhothai... -the decline of Sukhothai occurred during the reign of the last two kings -the end of this first Thai kingdom occurred in 1365 when it became a ....state of Ayuthaya a young and rising power to the south -Ayuthaya became the capital of Thailand before Bangkok</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In addition, more than half of the students increased the use of the temporal connectors to link ideas. The commentary of one student is shown to exemplify this change.

Table 7.9: Use of temporal connectors in narrative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-Sunthonphu he was born at Rayong Province when 26 June 1929</td>
<td>-Do you know Sunthonphu?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-father lived in Ban Klam Amphoe Klaeng Rayong Province</td>
<td>-Sunthonphu or Sunthonvahan he was born 26 June 1929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-after that he lived in the palace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-and he was studied at Wat Sisudaram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-when he was twenty-one years old he went to visit his father at Klaeng City</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-and when he came back of Klaeng City he wrote many poems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-after that he died at the age of 70 years old</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In sum, this analysis has discovered that the training provided benefit in at least four of the main points covered in the treatment of the narrative.
7.1.4 Procedure

According to the prior analysis of the procedure genre and the course components, the six main features of this genre are introduction, steps, length, temporal connectors, imperative, and evaluation. An explanation of a procedure usually follows the order of introduction of the topic, steps, and finally an evaluation. Imperatives are used to indicate the steps in the procedure and these are linked by temporal connectors. Table 7.4 shows that there is an improvement in four of the six features, that is, steps, length, evaluation, and temporal connectors.

Table 7.10: Comparison of Pre and Post Course Presentation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Temporal Connectors</th>
<th>Imperatives Alternative</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Bangrak</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>3 to 4</td>
<td>6 to 10</td>
<td>3 to 4</td>
<td>0 to 4</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Samui</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>3 to 3</td>
<td>9 to 6</td>
<td>3 to 3</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>1 to 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Thachai</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>4 to 6</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>1 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 1/5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Denchai</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 8</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 2</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Suphan</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
<td>0 to 14</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>0 to 5</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Rayong</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>3 to 7</td>
<td>5 to 14</td>
<td>3 to 7</td>
<td>0 to 7</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Nakhon</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>4 to 8</td>
<td>4 to 12</td>
<td>1 to 4</td>
<td>2 to 8</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Nan</td>
<td>0 to 1</td>
<td>3 to 8</td>
<td>3 to 9</td>
<td>2 to 5</td>
<td>3 to 8</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Thep</td>
<td>1 to 1</td>
<td>2 to 4</td>
<td>3 to 6</td>
<td>1 to 3</td>
<td>2 to 4</td>
<td>0 to 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because greater numbers of steps and temporal connectors to link the steps are included in the post test, the talks are better organized and the content is extended. This improved organization is illustrated in the following example:
The third procedural feature that showed improvement is the use of imperatives as shown by the many uses of the imperatives in the posttest commentary. In addition, even those students, who used them in their pre test, tended to increase the number in the post test. Furthermore, an evaluation, which is usually added at the end of the talk to have closer contact with the audience, is found in half of the post test examples while evaluations are rare in the pre test. One illustration of this can be seen in final statement of Rayong’s post test in the example above.

However, the first feature, the ability to introduce the topic well, is maintained at the same level. The students who cited only a noun as the topic of the procedure followed by steps (as seen in the pretest of the example above) in the pre test maintained this pattern in the post test. Others who began with a few longer statements to introduce the topic (as seen in the post test above) continued in the same way in the follow-up test.
Despite these qualifications, the conclusion can be drawn that the procedural commentaries showed improvement.

7.2 Summary View

Table 7.12: Summary view

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Genre</th>
<th>Organisation</th>
<th>Language Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Itinerary</td>
<td>*** length</td>
<td>*** future tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number of stages</td>
<td>temporal connectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>* length</td>
<td>** extended noun phrases</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>** length</td>
<td>** past tense</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>number of events</td>
<td>temporal connectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>*** steps</td>
<td>* temporal connectors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>length</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>evaluation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a small degree of improvement **a high degree of improvement ***a highest degree of improvement

By the time of the posttests many changes appeared in both the organization of ideas and the language features of the genres treated in the course, but the degree of change varied from one genre to another. In relation to genre organization, the itinerary and the procedure improved the most regarding content, namely more stages, extended noun phrases, and complex sentences. Progress in relation to language features can be seen most in the itinerary, description and narrative respectively. Students in these, for example, selected more appropriate forms of language such as the future tense for explaining a tour program, the past tense to tell stories, and temporal connectors to link ideas.

However, little improvement is shown in some genres. This was especially the case with the descriptive genre where most students did not give more detail. Furthermore, the sample of procedure showed little improvement with language used being similar to that in the pre test.
In sum, the detailed analysis of the discourse indicates that though students performed better in two of the genres in the post test, the remaining two were little affected. Considerations of purpose however were generally more successfully absorbed, affecting the level of organization of the commentaries in a positive way. However, the acquisition of the requisite language used to express those purposes was less prominent.
CHAPTER EIGHT
STUDENT RESPONSE

In this chapter, the results from the student reports on the lessons and the attitude questionnaire are provided. The first section presents the students' perceptions of the implementation of the syllabus, while their attitudes toward English language learning as a whole and the teaching process, as revealed in the questionnaire, is discussed in the second part.

8.1 Course feedback

This section examines student feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of the course in response to five questions, answered in written form by the students at three points during the course.

(1) What is the one thing you are likely to remember from today's class?
(2) Is there anything you would like more information about?
(3) Is there anything you would like more practice in?
(4) Is there anything you as a student should be doing outside the class?
(5) What was the most confusing area in the course?

The first question aimed to discover the main concepts that the students obtained from the lesson. The second and third questions was intended to elicit aspects the lessons inadequately covered. The fourth question related to student suggestions about supplementary activities they might undertake for developing their oral competence. Student opinions about what they found were the most confusing issues was sought in the last question.

As there was not much time available for the lessons, the students were assigned to write the reports only three times during the whole teaching process. All the questions were asked first after the opening three lessons, of which the first two of which did not specifically concern genre but more general matters, associated with tour guiding and the difference between spoken and written language. At that time most students reported on
the second and third units, which are about spoken language and introducing an itinerary genre. The second report was given at the end of units 4 and 5, which covered two genre forms, description and instruction. The last report was done after the final units, in which narrative genre was covered and all four genres were reviewed. All reports were written in a small booklet containing the five questions in Thai so that the students would not have to spend too much time writing in English. They took the booklet home on the day they finished the class, so they were free to write without interference from the teacher. However, most of them gave only short responses instead of writing in full sentences. After translation, the responses were analyzed according to the main themes found in the responses and then categorized into major and minor aspects. Themes which attracted less than 10 per cent of all the answers were eliminated.

8.1.1 Feedback Results.

This section summarizes the responses of the students to the five questions. The summary for each question is first shown in a table and then followed up by discussion. In each table the number of student respondents is given at the head of the column. The two figures in each column show first the number of students, who mentioned the particular factor, and second that number as a percentage of the total number of respondents.

Q1. What is the one thing you are likely to remember from these lessons?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 8.1: Memorable Aspects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genre</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken English</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to the table, between twenty-six and seventy percent of the students said they would remember genre organization, showing that the number increased substantially from the first unit to the last one. It is possible that the repetition of the same model of learning in every unit from units 3 to 6 and the revision of the process was provided again in unit 7 helped the students to learn how to organize genres. This indicates that the course was successful in making students aware of ways to organize their speech.

However, the number of the students who placed the emphasis on genre features, that is, vocabulary, grammar and expressions, decreased over time. This may be because the students evinced more interest in genre organization rather than its features in later units. Grammar and expressions seemed to be memorable after unit 3, which focused on future simple, present simple and conditional sentences used for introducing an itinerary. Although the interest in genre language features decreased over the course, the fact that the total percentage of 77 per cent is higher than that for genre organization is also important. The table also shows that spoken English was mentioned most after units 4 and 5, where there were exercises about word stress and length of vowels, while the number was slightly lower in other units. Moreover, the average percentage of 29 was lower than the other two aspects because it is likely that correct pronunciation was not seen as a high priority as a result of the course. This analysis correlates with the tour manager and tourist perceptions on the Thai tour guide English which indicate that the guides’ English is acceptable.

In sum, it appears that the course was successful in highlighting in the students’ minds the main aspects which became the core of the course design.
Q2. Is there anything you would like more information about?

Table 8.2: Requests for Additional Help

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Units 1-3 Itinerary</th>
<th>Units 4-5 Descriptive/Instruction</th>
<th>Units 6-7 Narrative</th>
<th>Average %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genre</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre organization</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>11.55</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genre features</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>10.50</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>10.33</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>1.5</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spoken English</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>7.23</td>
<td>10.38</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8.2 indicates that the number of students who thought that genre organization was the area that was inadequately covered increased substantially from the first unit to the last one. Just as with the increasing number of students who found genre construction memorable in question 1, it may be assumed that the more significant genre became to them, the more they would like to learn about genres, particularly the narrative genre and the combination of all genres in the last two units. This indicates that more time and details were needed for the training. Correspondingly, as with question 1, there was a progressive decrease in the number of students who wanted to know more about vocabulary and expressions. It is possible that after getting used to the vocabulary and expressions in their field, they felt they had sufficient words for their commentaries. Although more grammar was needed in every unit, the need for more grammar rose to the highest point of fifty per cent during the last two units, concerning narrative and the combination of genres. The use of past tense to narrate may be difficult for them because in the Thai language there are no formal tense markers in the verbs. The need for more pronunciation was not significantly different in all units. However, the fluctuation between 20 and 38 per cent indicates that it was a matter of some concern to the students.
Q3. Is there anything you would like more practice in?

Table 8.3: Request for Additional Practice

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Units 1-3</th>
<th>Units 4-5</th>
<th>Units 6-7</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Itinery</td>
<td>Descriptive/InSTRUCTION</td>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td></td>
<td>N=30</td>
<td>N=30</td>
<td>N=27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre organization</td>
<td>3:10</td>
<td>4:13</td>
<td>9:33</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre features</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>7:23</td>
<td>8:26</td>
<td>2:7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>4:13</td>
<td>4:13</td>
<td>6:12</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>4:13</td>
<td>2:6</td>
<td>2:7</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken English</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>14:46</td>
<td>13:43</td>
<td>12:44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Table 8.3, as with the first two questions, the percentage of the interest in more genre-based activities, although not high, increased gradually from the first units to the end of the course. After the last two units, 33 per cent of them expressed a need for further assistance with genre organization. The need for more practice in genre features as a whole decreased at the end of the last two units, particularly in the area of grammar which dropped from 26 per cent to 7 per cent, while the need for help in the areas vocabulary and expressions also decreased slightly. Compared to question 2, the students needed to learn more information about grammar but they did not really want to practice using it. With the average per cent of 44, it is obvious that students wanted to practice pronunciation more than any other area in all the units. This may be because it was the first time for them to learn pronunciation with the help of the English phonetic script.
Q4. Is there anything you as a student should be doing outside the class?

Table 8.4: Independent Learning Activities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Units 1-3</th>
<th>Units 4-5</th>
<th>Units 6-7</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Itinerary</td>
<td>Instruction</td>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Practice at real sites</td>
<td>9:37</td>
<td>10:34</td>
<td>8:40</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Talking to foreigners</td>
<td>10:41</td>
<td>8:27</td>
<td>4:20</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watching TV, movies, videos</td>
<td>4:16</td>
<td>3:10</td>
<td>2:10</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening to tapes, songs</td>
<td>2:8</td>
<td>5:17</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This fourth question was to discover the students' suggestions about independent learning activities they should undertake. As seen from the table, about 40 per cent of the students would like to practice speaking at real sites and over a quarter of them thought they could learn to speak better if they had opportunities to talk to foreigners in real situations. Some of them said they could learn better by watching English movies, TV, and videos. A similar number of them preferred listening to tapes and English songs.

Q5. What was the most confusing area in the course?

Table 8.5: Problematic Areas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area</th>
<th>Units 1-3</th>
<th>Units 4-5</th>
<th>Units 6-7</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Genre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre organization</td>
<td>1:3</td>
<td>6:21</td>
<td>14:58</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genre features</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>19:63</td>
<td>6:21</td>
<td>8:33</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>3:10</td>
<td>6:21</td>
<td>3:12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expression</td>
<td>3:10</td>
<td>3:11</td>
<td>3:12</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spoken English</td>
<td>2:6</td>
<td>7:25</td>
<td>3:12</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8.5 shows that although students indicated strong interest in genre construction, as mentioned in the results of responses to questions 1 to 3, more than half of them revealed at the end of the course that it was the most difficult thing for them to understand. Grammar was considered the most difficult for nearly two-thirds of them at the start of the course, although this was reduced to one third at the end. According to their written reports some of them said though they had learned grammar before, they could not remember the rules when they spoke. Most of them asserted that the variety of tenses confused them, because when they spoke Thai they did not have to worry about tenses. The difference between spoken and written language was considered the most confusing aspect for students at the start of the course but this was not mentioned again at the end of the course. However when students were given books and articles to read for information, they did not know how to change to the spoken form, indicating that this remained difficult. A few students thought that expressions, vocabulary, and pronunciation were problematic for them.

8.1.2. Summary of report results

The analyses reveal five principal areas of the student perceptions in relation to course implementation, memorable aspects, teaching viewpoints, activity viewpoints, suggestions, and problematic areas. First, the number of the students who found genre construction memorable increased continually from the first unit to the last one, a result which is in line with current approaches to the teaching of form, which advocate the growth of student metacognition by means of the 'noticing' of form as an essential preliminary to learning (Ellis, 1997). It is assumed therefore that the repetition of the same model of learning process helped the students to learn how to organize genres. Pronunciation is also mentioned most in the middle of the teaching process, but after the first three units the other aspects such as vocabulary, grammar and expressions received less emphasis. The second area of perceptions shows that the following should be taught more intensively in the classroom; genre organization, vocabulary, expressions, grammar, and pronunciation. Responses to the third question revealed the student viewpoints on any inadequacies in the class. Pronunciation was considered to be the most important aspect to further study by the students. They thought that they should have had more
activities on far ahead of other areas such as expressions, vocabulary, grammar, spoken language and genre organization. Answers to the fourth question indicate that the students wanted to improve their oral skill outside the class by talking to foreigners in a variety of situations particularly at the real tour sites. In the result from last report grammar and genre organization were shown as the most confusing aspects of the lessons for the majority of the group. The indication from questions 1 and 5 therefore is that though they can remember something about genre but there are still unresolved issues.

8.2 Results of student attitude questionnaire

The questionnaire (See appendix VI page 237-240) was designed to examine student attitudes to English as a whole, to the lessons, and to the teacher. It contained 29 items 13 of which related to attitudes to the English language, 7 to the lessons and 9 to the teacher. The students were asked to give responses to the questionnaire immediately after the end of the course. Then the SPSS program was used to analyse the data to find means of the five-point Likert-scale for each item. The results were categorized into major and minor aspects according to the main theme of the items.

8.2.1 Attitudes to English

1. Social Member Acceptance

The three items in this section relate to the opinions of the students in regard to their use of spoken English in the community.

Item 1. If I speak English, I will be praised by my family and friends.

The mean of 4.00 for this item indicated that most students thought the people in their communities would accept them when they speak English. Only one of the thirty-five students strongly disagreed with this statement.

Item 2. I wish that I could speak English fluently.

Item 3. I wish that I could speak English accurately.

The mean of 4.94 for both items showed that the students expressed a strong desire to be able to speak English both fluently and accurately.
2. English as a Tool for Learning

Item 10. Subjects should be taught in English at university.

This item produced only mild agreement on the use of English as a medium of instruction in higher education.

Item 7. I should not be forced to learn English.

When adjusted for a negative statement, this result indicated a strong agreement that the English language classes should be compulsory at the university.

3. English for a Future Career

The three items in this section sought to discover the students' belief on the use of English for their future careers.

Item 4. I believe I will continue to need English skills after I graduate.

The result of the analysis indicated a strong belief in the need to use English for work.

Item 5. The ability to communicate in English is very important for success in my future career.

The mean of 4.86 for this item, which is very similar to Item 4, showed that the students had no doubt that communicative competence in English was a key to their success in their careers.

Item 9. The use of English is one of the most important factors for Thailand's economic development today.

Although the mean of 4.57 for this item was slightly lower than for the other two in this section, this result showed that students agree that English is useful as an instrument to develop Thailand's economy.

4. English for Every Day Life

Item 1. I feel uncomfortable when hearing one Thai speaking to another in English.

When adjusted for a negative statement, the mean of 2.94 for this item indicated a moderately strong acceptance of situations, where Thais use English to communicate.

Item 6. I feel uneasy and lack confidence when speaking English.
The mean of 3.71 indicated that more than fifty percent of the respondents thought they did not feel confident to speak English. Only 7 of them were confident.

**Item 8. I enjoy watching English language TV and movies.**

Although the mean of 3.83 for this item was not very high, it showed that more than half of them liked watching through English language TV and movies.

**Item 12. English allows me to meet and talk with more people.**

The mean of 4.15 for this item revealed a strong acceptance of English as a tool to make friends with foreigners.

**Item 13. I can understand and appreciate other countries' cultures and beliefs if I use English well.**

The mean of this item at 3.71 was not very different from item 8. It indicated a general acceptance of English as a tool to learn about other people's ways of life.

### 8.2.2 Attitudes to the lessons

#### 1. Students' Roles

**Item 22. I prefer talking in Thai with my friends while working with my peers.**

The mean of 4.20 for this item indicated a strong preference for the use of L1 in group work.

**Item 17. I prefer to prepare my talk by myself.**

Although items 15 and 18 showed the acceptance of peer assessment, the mean of 3.71 of this item indicated the preference of individual preparation of sample spoken genres.

#### 2. Activities for Improving English

**Item 16. I enjoy speaking in front of the class.**

The mean of 3.23 for this item was not high. It is evident that there is some reluctance on the part of students to speak English in public.

**Item 21. By learning the rules of grammar, I can speak better.**
The mean of 4.00 for this item, an indication student confidence in the use of grammar as a key to improving oral competence, confirmed earlier results relating to the call for more grammar teaching.


With a mean of 4.06, this item confirms the existence of a strong belief in the value of pronunciation activities.

*Item 19. I like listening to samples of talks in order to prepare my own talk.*

The mean of 4.20 for this item indicated that the use of authentic samples of talks from Thai guides was appreciated by the students.

*Item 20. Analysing the samples of talks is enjoyable.*

The mean of 3.87 for this item indicated that analysis of the sample genres was very acceptable to the majority of the students although it was somewhat lower than the previous mean.

### 8.2.3 Attitudes to the Teacher

#### 1. Class Management

*Item 24. I can do best when taught as a whole class by the teacher.*

This item with the mean of 3.83 showed that the group generally agreed that whole class teaching was preferred. However, it perhaps contains a suggestion that some students prefer to work in other ways i.e., collaboratively.

*Item 28. The teacher should talk more than students do in class.*

The mean of 3.11 for this item showed that the students were not convinced that the teacher should talk more than the students. Again this is a possible indication that students value the opportunity to discuss issues and make presentations.

*Item 23. The teacher should teach vocabulary explicitly.*

The mean of 3.91 for this item was very accepting of the fact that the teaching of vocabulary should be explicit.

*Item 25. The teacher should teach me how to organise a talk*
The mean of 4.37 gives a strong message that students maintained their positive views on the teaching of genre organisation.

Item 29. The teacher should teach rules of language appropriateness.

This item with the mean of 4.45 also produced a high level of agreement on the teaching or rules of language appropriateness in genres.

2. Feedback/Assessment

Item 15. I like my friends to correct me when I talk.

This item with the mean of 4.16 showed a strong acceptance of peer correction of the presentation.

Item 18. I like my friends to assess my speech.

Like item 15, the mean of 3.94 for this item reinforced the principle of accepting peer assessment.

Item 26. The teacher should give me feedback after my talk.

The mean of 4.49 for this item showed that the students really liked immediate feedback from their teacher following their presentations.

Item 27. The teacher should correct all the grammar errors students make.

This item with the mean of 4.48 also indicated a very strong agreement on the need for grammar correction by the teacher.

8.2.4 Discussion of student attitudes

Student attitudes as indicated by the analysis of the questionnaire results are examined from three perspectives: attitudes to English as a whole, attitudes to the lessons, and attitudes to the teacher.

The overall attitudes towards English of this group of tourism trainees are positive. The majority of them believe that their speaking English would be accepted by other Thais and they wish they could speak English fluently and accurately. As English is considered not only a useful tool for learning, but also a key factor in regard to their success not only of their own future but also that of Thailand, they think it should be a
compulsory course in higher education. Furthermore, the students feel comfortable to use English in their social life and to watch English movies and TV or talk to other people.

With an average mean of 3.94 in terms of attitudes towards the lessons which was slightly higher than that of the attitudes towards English, most of the students were accepting of this particular course of training. In class, they liked working with their peers and they enjoyed the group activities provided in the lessons such as listening and analyzing of the samples of talks, practising the sounds and grammar of English, and presenting their prepared talks to the whole class. However, they still preferred to use Thai in their small group discussion rather than English.

Furthermore, the role of the teacher as a class manager was accepted. The students agreed that there needed to be periods when group was taught as a whole although they were also happy with group work. They also considered the teacher had to teach the formal features of genre together with grammar and vocabulary explicitly before they prepared their own talks. In addition, the majority of them wanted the teacher to provide immediate feedback on their spoken commentaries in addition to that available from their peers.

8.3 Conclusion

The results discussed in this chapter and found from the two sources, the reports and the questionnaire, can be divided into three main areas, perceptions, needs, and indications about the course itself. In the first area, the participants viewed English positively. They saw it not only as a tool for their future and that of Thailand but also an open door to learn about other cultures. Therefore, the questionnaire showed that they had positive attitudes both to English and to people who speak English although some of them felt reluctant to speak English in the public. In addition, as indicated by the in-course evaluation the English course was considered a useful and enjoyable source of knowledge of genre organisation, pronunciation, the spoken form of language, and other language features. However, over the period of the course there was a significant change in perceptions about salience. Genre construction gradually became uppermost in the students' mind although it was also perceived as confusing. The second area in relation to needs showed that the students desired more practice in all aspects of the course.
particularly pronunciation. In the third area independent activities such as talking to foreigners in real tour site, listening to tapes or songs, watching English movies and TV were suggested by the students for their oral English improvement.

Evidence given in this chapter of student reactions to the English for Tourism course need to be considered alongside with data from pre and post assessment of student performance before answers can be given to the research questions in the next chapter.
CHAPTER NINE
DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Tourism has become one of the fast growing industries in Thailand. In particular, the number of international tourists visiting the northern region of Thailand is increasing because of its culture, natural beauty, wildlife and entertainment. This rapid growth of the tourism industry requires a large number of tour guides in proportion to tourists who are served. Therefore, many universities provide a program in tourism for undergraduate students in order that they can produce qualified personnel to serve the tourists' needs.

The forty or so Rajabhat Universities throughout Thailand have been made responsible for regional development and the provision of several education programs to serve the community. As a direct consequence of this, the Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University is one of the eight Rajabhat Universities in the northern region which offers a program to serve the needs of tourism industry in the local area, especially Phitsanulok and Sukhothai. In these two provinces there are a number of tourist attractions such as the Sukhothai Historical Park, the Srisatchanalai Historical Park, general and specialist museums, and ancient temples with famous Buddha images.

Although the tourism industry needs more employees, some students who have finished their specialist training at the Rajabhat Institutes remain unemployed. This may be because of their poor language proficiency. One of the factors that employers value when they recruit new employees is English proficiency (Lafrenz, 1991) because businessmen need employees with the ability to communicate effectively (Dannels, 2001). Therefore, the training to improve student English proficiency is of particular concern to the northern Rajabhat Universities and is a major reason for this study.

This study sets out to develop a more appropriate course which would improve tourism students' oral proficiency to meet the needs for their future careers. In order to do this, this research covering four areas of interest was conducted. First, the perceptions of key tourism stakeholders were investigated to assist in the formulation of this specialist English course. Second, the Thai tour guide commentaries were analysed using a genre-based approach to find out the most common genres in the field to be used as spoken...
genre models. Third, a genre-based course to teach oral commentaries was constructed built on the data from the first and second stages of the study as well as genre-based pedagogy. The fourth and final stage incorporated an evaluation of the course implementation to guide future course design and delivery. All this activity was undertaken to answer four research questions, which will now be dealt with one by one.

Research question 1: What are the perceptions of key tourism stakeholders in northern Thailand concerning the oral competence of Thai tour guides? How does this information assist in the formulation of courses for tourism students?

Stakeholders in this study were tour agency managers and tourists in the north of Thailand. Both groups were asked to respond to questionnaire in relation to Thai tour guides' English competence. Ten tour agency managers, representing tour guide employers, selected from all tour agencies in Northern Thailand, were randomly chosen to have in-depth interviews about their perceptions of tour guide English. The second large group of subjects, consisting of the direct clients of Thai tour guides, were foreign tourists visiting Chiangmai, Chiangrai, Sukhothai and Phitsanulok, who were in the northern part of Thailand from June 2002 to August 2002.

Managers

Two different methods were used to obtain information from the tour agency managers, that is, the use of a questionnaire and an interview. The results of the analysis of the questionnaire revealed that:

(1) The managers had both positive and negative feelings about the guides' English.
(2) Most of the managers were happy with the guides' self confidence in their use of spoken English despite their strong Thai accents. They also considered them knowledgeable and able to answer questions as well as use appropriate vocabulary.
(3) Other areas such as the speed of the giving of instructions, the frequency of grammatical mistakes, the length of commentaries, the organisation of ideas, and the overall effect of the commentaries did not produce the same degree of assurance from the managers.
In relation to the managers' interviews, the recordings of these were transcribed in order that the content could be translated into English. The transcriptions were then analysed by categorising the frequency of themes found. The results revealed that:

1. Most of their tour guides were capable of doing their jobs well but some of them received complaints from tourists about the lack of detailed information.
2. Most managers were satisfied with the tour guides' use of simple vocabulary and grammar.
3. Some managers suggested that tour guides needed to improve their ability to simplify their language to suit the audience.

**Tourists**

Quantitative results of the analysis of tourist questionnaires revealed that the tourists held quite positive opinions about the type of English used by the guides. They felt that the commentaries given by the guides were informal, clear, well organized, at appropriate length, and relevant to the tour. In addition, they were of the opinion that the tour guides were knowledgeable and confident in their spoken English and were able to respond to the clients' questions well and appropriately. They also found that the English language, particularly the vocabulary used by the guides, was appropriate and comprehensible although there were some grammatical mistakes. Therefore, the tourists were quite happy with the Thai tour guides' spoken English, which they believed was sufficiently slow and clear to be comprehensible. Moreover, they had positive feelings towards the guides because when they wanted to know something, the guides gave the tourists clear and comprehensible instructions.

The findings from these surveys, with the backing of the latest research on varieties of English (Krachru, 1995; Crystal, 1997; Vavrus, 2002; Rajagopalan, 2004), were added to the introductory unit of the English for tour guiding course emphasizing that the English used by the Thai tour guides was accepted by most of the tourists visiting the north of Thailand. Furthermore, they gave encouragement that these tour guides' commentaries could be used as authentic samples in the classroom. As the English spoken by the Thai tour guides was comprehensible, it was not considered essential for them to speak like native speakers of English (Jenkins, 2004). The use of non-native
speakers of English as learning materials are beneficial because the learners will have positive image of this sort of use rather than seeing it as an unaccepted variety (Cook, 1999). For this introductory unit of the English for Tour Guides these points were taken into consideration with the course emphasizing that the English used by the Thai tour guides was acceptable to this group of Thai managers and that those guides were still able to do their jobs well, because they were confident.

As English for tour guides is considered an ESP course, which aims to meet the learners’ needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987), the first step in course design is to analyse the learners’ needs. These needs, derived from the target-situation analysis of tour agency managers and tourists, were used as the basis of designing the objectives and materials for the course (Bosher & Smalkoski, 2002). This needs analysis helped the researcher to discover what was necessary for the learners to achieve (Anthony, 2004) because the researcher was not an expert in the target field, although he had several years’ experience teaching this sort of group. The analysis of the two sources mentioned above suggested several objectives for the English for tour guides’ course.

1) To give the students confidence in their spoken English without expecting them to go to the extent of reaching native-like competence because the English spoken by Thai tour guides is acceptable to most tourists.

2) To focus on the background information or the knowledge about every tour site including the vocabulary used to describe it.

3) To emphasize the organisation of ideas and the main language features used for itineraries, description, narrative and procedure, which are the common genres found in the tour guides’ commentaries.

However, the information gained from the tour agency managers and tourists was not enough to design the course syllabus and course materials. The researcher had to incorporate information from several sources such as the findings mentioned above, the course guidelines given by TAT and Rajabhat Institutes, and the researcher’s 25-year teaching experience and knowledge of the students’ needs and interests into the course design in order to craft a new course based on authentic materials.

In sum, this new program basically adopted Swales’ (1992) three-stage approach to the design of ESP program, that is, the survey of the target situation, the analysis of the
special language used in that situation, and the construction of curriculum and language learning activities that integrated those language features found in the analysis. The issues addressed prior to planning this tourism program were similar to those suggested by Johns and Price-Machado (2001, pp. 45-48) stakeholders, teacher availability, authenticity issues, curricular decisions, and assessment. To gain the views of the stakeholders, surveys had been conducted, which included tourists and tour agency managers’ perceptions with the final product also meeting the TAT requirements, and Rajabhat University curriculum. The teacher, who in this case was the researcher himself, was capable of analyzing the target language, because the experience of teaching in the areas of English and linguistics for several years, allowed him to develop the content of the course, based on the analysis of authentic target language. In addition, the contents and the method used for student performance assessment were derived from the analysis of the characteristics of the target language. Further detail on the process is given in the next section.

Research question 2: How can the course designer identify and utilise the common genres used for leading tours?

Central to both CLT and ESP theory is the principle that authentic materials can motivate students to learn language (Peacock, 1997), because the latter realize that they would have to use the language in those sorts of situations. ESP theory suggests that authentic materials are necessary for teaching and learning because the learners should be able to learn the language actually used in the target situation. In this case a certain kind of language is used by Thai tourist guides in northern Thailand. In order to study the target situation of the use of English for leading tours in northern Thailand three Thai tour guides were asked to record their commentaries during their one-day trips, such recordings being later transcribed and analysed. From these it was found that four genres were commonly used by the three guides; introducing an itinerary, description, narrative and procedure. In order to apply genre theory, the analysis of the two main components of each genre, that is, organization of ideas and language features were used as the basis of models in the lessons.

Having identified the genres, the researcher found that the authentic transcripts needed to be modified into two ways. First, some grammatical mistakes needed to be
removed as the students should not learn from incorrect models. In terms of authenticity, the modified transcripts were still authentic to a major degree, because they were not simplified. The fundamental nature of discourse or structure and lexis of the transcripts was not altered, although a few grammatical adjustments were made to help make them suitable for learning (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). Second, these transcripts were also rerecorded by Thai teachers so that they could be used as a model for listening activities. The new recordings were better than the original, because they were clearer in terms of the voice quality and the voices were those of Thais, who could thus represent the genuine Thai tourist guides. The tourist guides sometimes recorded their commentaries on a noisy bus or at a show with many people around so it was difficult for the learners to be able to identify words and phrases. Since the learners' acquisition depends on this latter kind of ability (Ellis, 1992), it was very important that learners be given the opportunity to process comprehensible models of the sorts of English that they needed later to produce. In addition, the students should be able to learn the language correctly from the start to prevent fossilization (Valette, 1991).

These two types of materials, the transcripts and the recordings, were considered authentic in regard to discourse and communicative purpose (Widdowson, 1981), as the modification did not change the discourse structure and content of the text. Correction of grammar was only a minor matter, while the only real change was in the recordings. However, this sound change did not greatly affect the authenticity of the materials because genuine Thai voices were still heard. Furthermore, the genre purpose of the communication that of transferring information to tourists, was still the same.

Both the transcripts and the recordings provided the most essential parts of the course development and final composition. The transcripts were analysed to find the most common genres used for leading tours and then utilised as model genres in every unit. The course was thus designed mainly on the basis of these findings and on the adaptation of the four-staged cyclical approach suggested by Hammond, Burns, Joyce, and Brosnan, and Gerat (1992). These authors' approach depended on their process, which covered building the context or field of the topic or text-type, modeling the genre under focus, joint construction of the genre, and independent construction of the genre. Assessment is also suggested to be an integrated part of the cycle. The teaching-learning cycle adapted
by the researcher was similar to this in that it began with building background to the
genre, and then proceeded to modeling of the genre, analyzing the genre, group
construction of the genre, and finally assessment. Relevant language features found from
these transcripts were adapted into the exercises built into these various sections, such as
the listening activities.

Without these two types of materials, the transcripts and the recordings adapted
from the original tapes, this training course could not have been developed successfully.

Research question 3: How does the use of a genre-based approach in a teaching course
reflect on student performance?

As derived from the review of literature about CLT and ESP theories, real
performance must be evaluated (Douglas, 2000). Therefore, in order to evaluate the
course the students were assigned to give semi-authentic commentaries in four genres at
the beginning and at the end of the course. Both performances were videotaped and the
students were also asked to write a report to reflect the teaching in between each unit. The
videotapes were evaluated by three different raters and also transcribed for discourse
analysis.

The rationale underlying the selection of these raters, whose backgrounds were
different, was to obtain reliability. Because they were from different backgrounds, their
marks were averaged to obtain validity and reliability (Hughes, 1989). Before assessing
the performances, the raters were trained in relation to the nature of genre teaching in
general and of the specific four genres as well as the criteria used for the assessment
(Hughes, 1989). The criteria for the assessment were divided into two main parts,
organization of ideas and language features. In relation to organization the raters were
asked to compare the content of the post with the pre test and decide if the ideas in the
post performance were easier to follow. With regard to the language features, the raters
had to compare the language used in the pre and post performances and judge if the
language used in the post performance was easier to understand. From this it can be seen
that the emphasis in the assessment was placed squarely upon genre features and not
upon pronunciation or fluency.
The procedure to prepare the raters for the assessment began with having them ask questions to ensure that they understood the assessment process and the criteria used for it. The tape was paused after the pre and post tests of each of the four genres, giving the raters time to think before making their decisions. The raters were allowed to ask for a replay of the tape when they thought they wanted to reheat it. While watching the videos, the raters had to choose the one level that most accurately described what they saw and heard. The following were the four levels of scores used in the assessment.

5 Much higher level of organisation and comprehensibility
4 Higher level of organisation and comprehensibility
3 Same or similar level of organisation and comprehensibility
1 Lower level of organisation and comprehensibility

In order to obtain the overall points of the three raters, the three marks were added. After this calculation of the three raters' marks, in which the overall total points were 96, a student, whose total points were lower than 25, was considered at a lower level of organization and comprehensibility than at the pretest. Those with points between 25 and 48 were at the same or similar level while points between 49 and 72 and then above 72 indicated higher levels, a much higher level respectively. Results indicated that only one third of the students (10 students) were at a similar level but two thirds of them (24 students) were at a high or much higher level with more than half of these at the highest level.

The results also revealed that there was a difference in the assessment among the three raters. The lowest medians of 13 (organisation) and 9 (language features) were given by the native speaker of English who had had little experience with Thai speakers. This may be because student pronunciation was still difficult for him to follow and unlike the tourists, he did not have the advantage of context to help him guess the meaning. The highest medians of 16 (organisation) and 12 (language features), and 14 (organisation) and 13 (language features), were given by the Thai teachers, who had taught English to Thai students for more than twenty years and could be considered a good judge of what is required in genre learning. The selection of these two Thai teachers was also determined partly by their suitability as both proficient in English and perceptive of the needs of tour
guides in the area. However, despite differences, all three raters considered the student commentaries to be at a higher level of organization and comprehensibility at the conclusion of the course.

This holistic method of assessment was considered suitable for this project because it matched CLT, ESP and genre theories and the aim of the course, which was to develop student genre-based oral competency. It is considered better than paper tests because the learners can really show their knowledge of language in a meaningful communicative task or performance (Canale & Swain, 1980) which takes place in contexts resembling specific purpose language use situations (Douglas, 2000). The tasks for the assessment were relevant because they were based on earlier research which identified a number of tasks categorized in terms of genres in particular tourism settings (Jacoby & McNamara, 1999). Furthermore, this sort of assessment was appropriate to the instructional context (Johns & Price-Machado, 2001) of a genre-based approach of teaching oral English. As oral comprehensibility, not perfect pronunciation, is an important part of communicative competence (Morley, 1991), the criteria used for the raters' assessment did not focus on the accuracy of pronunciation and grammar. Generally, the more the students speak, the more mistakes in grammar and pronunciation they will make. Although it was not the intention for the raters to identify incorrect grammar and pronunciation during the assessment, it must be these two areas would certainly have some effect on the raters' understanding subconsciously making them award lower marks. This may be because grammar and pronunciation are important aspects of communication (Morley, 1991; Savignon, 2001).

Despite this, in the case of the tourism students' performance, the bigger picture, that is, the organization of ideas and appropriate use of language features according to the appropriate genre, was what was really being assessed by the three different raters. Even if individual rater scores are taken into account the results show that all three raters agreed that the students' performances had improved and displayed a higher level of competence. Nonetheless, assessment by the raters still displays a few inherent disadvantages in such areas as the selection of raters, the training time, and the video tape viewing procedures. This is in part why the researcher remedied the disadvantages of
relevance on a single assessment by undertaking the discourse analysis of the student commentaries as the second assessment form.

In relation to the improvement of the rater selection, it is suggested here that the raters could have been chosen better. As getting real tourist view may be difficult because of their limited time is only for travelling and they might not understand genre, the three raters selected for this assessment, two of whom were Thai speakers, were studying in a university in Australia. As a consequence, they also had little time to spare. Because of the short period of training, these raters may have not only fully understood the concepts of the four spoken genres but also the criteria for the assessment. Such issues, as were indicated by their asking several questions while being trained, may be resolved by selecting university teachers who understand genre theory and have sufficient time for the assessment training. This longer time can give them opportunities to practise the use of the criteria before the real assessment. Another disadvantage is related to the video viewing. The raters could not fully concentrate on the detail because of the very ephemeral nature of these speeches and speech in general. In effect this meant that only comprehensibility was assessed and accuracy with the detail of genre organization and features being largely passed over. Even so it would still be more difficult, if the raters had little time or there was a large group of students to be assessed and in those circumstances. These problems could be lessened by double viewing the video tapes.

As indicated additional assessment by the researcher of student performance was conducted in order to compare the pre and post tests in more detail. Nine of the student commentaries were selected, three of which were from amongst those who received high, medium, and low marks respectively, given by the three raters, and then transcribed by the researcher. These nine were considered as suitable representatives of the whole group because they were selected from all levels of proficiency. The results of the analysis of the transcription found in Chapter 7 indicate that the two main areas of improvement were in relation to those features of genre organization and language, which were central to the course.

In greater detail this means that students developed better organization, length and linkage of ideas in three of the genres, itinerary, narrative and procedure but not for
description. A possible explanation for the difference in the case of description is that the structures of the other three genres are more easily indicated by the use of common connecting words such as first, after that, then, and finally. Students thus found these organizational patterns easier to learn. By contrast in the description connecting words are not commonly found and thus student grasp of this genre did not show clear improvement in terms of organization. On the other hand, student descriptions increased in length and communicative power, possibly because the lessons provided students with sufficient appropriate information to be used in the production of this particular genre. In the second area of language more correct and appropriate use of language features such as the tense and temporal connectors applied across all four genres.

In sum, it is considered that the evaluations by both the raters and the researcher showed that there was recognizable improvement of the students' performance as a result of the teaching in the genre-based course.

Research question 4: How does the use of a genre-based approach reflect on student attitudes?

In addition to the pre and post tests results, which reflect the course implementation, a qualitative study of student perceptions and attitudes was conducted by having the students write reports on the lessons. Five questions were used at three points during the course to discover their feedback on the strengths and weaknesses of the course. Content analysis was used to analyse their reports. The first question, *What is one thing you are likely to remember from today's class?*, aimed at discovering the main concepts that the students obtained from the lesson. Answers to the second question, *Is there anything you would like more information about?*, would produce what areas they thought were inadequately covered in the lessons. The third, *Is there anything you would like more practice in?*, was planned as a way to discover supplementary activities. *Is there anything you as a student should be doing outside the class?*, the fourth question would highlight what the students could do themselves to improve their learning either inside or outside the classroom. *What was the most confusing area in the course?*, the last question, was aimed at discovering what the students found concerning in the lessons.
The analyses of answers to the first two questions revealed two principal areas of student perceptions about the implementation of the lessons, which focused on what students said about genre. First, the number of the students who found genre organisation memorable increased continually from the first unit to the last one. It is assumed from this that the repetition of the same model of language features helped the students to gain a clear impression of what genre is and learn how to organize genres and that students increased their understanding of the genres as the course progressed. By contrast, in the first three units aspects such as vocabulary, grammar and expressions were mentioned but in the later stages they received less emphasis. Despite this seeming decrease in interest in bottom-up aspects, in response to the question ‘What was the most confusing area in the course?’ both grammar and genre organization were mentioned as the most confusing aspects of the lessons for the majority of the group. Some of them also said that expressions, vocabulary, and pronunciation were problematic. Second, the students indicated to varying degrees throughout that they would like more teaching and more practice on genre organization, vocabulary, expressions, grammar, and pronunciation.

The overall emphasis on genre in the student reports is possibly because the two main aspects of genre, the organization of ideas and language features, were not only new but also interesting. It might be argued that since they were highlighted throughout the course, it was natural that these aspects would have made an impression. However, students had the opportunity at several points to show negative reactions and they did not do so. On the other hand, it is clear that though genre teaching had made an impression, this new interest did not replace traditional interests in grammar and vocabulary nor had it led to complete clarity on the subject.

The results of the analysis of the other two questions revealed two main areas of further need which both related to the speaking skill. First, in response to the question ‘Is there anything you would like more practice in?’ the students would like supplementary activities that would be useful for developing their oral competence particularly in the area on pronunciation. It is possible that they liked the oral practice parts of the course better than other activities. Second, responding to the question ‘Is there anything you as a student should be doing outside the class?’ the students thought that they could improve their oral skill outside the class by talking to foreigners in a variety of situations.
particularly at real tour sites. Furthermore, some of them said that watching English TV, movies, videos or listening to tapes and songs could help learn to speak better.

In addition to these reports, the students were asked to respond to a quantitative Likert-scale questionnaire which was designed to examine student attitudes from three perspectives. Besides focusing on this course and the teacher's role in it, there was some consideration given to their attitudes to English as a whole.

The analysis of the questionnaire revealed that the students were very accepting of this innovatory tour guiding course and backs support given in the in-course reports. With a mean of 3.94 in terms of attitudes towards the lessons, which was slightly higher than that of the attitudes towards English, it is clear that most students felt that this particular course of training was suitable to their needs. In class, they liked working with their peers and they enjoyed the group activities provided in the lessons such as listening and analyzing of the samples of talks, practising the sounds and grammar of English, and presenting their prepared talks to the whole class. However, they still found it useful to use Thai in their small group discussion.

In relation to the student motivation, this training course met with student approval because it is backed by positive overall attitudes towards English. The analysis of the questionnaire showed that the students exhibited both integrative and instrumental motivation (Krashen, 1981). In relation to integrative motivation, the majority of the students believed that their spoken English would be accepted by other Thais and they possess desires to speak English fluently and accurately. Furthermore, the students felt comfortable to use English in their social life and to watch English movies and TV or talk to other people. From these it can be assumed that they would like to integrate themselves within the English speaking culture (Brown, 1987). In terms of instrumental motivation, the students expressed their desire to use English effectively both in the future career and their learning (Brown, 1987). As English is considered not only a useful tool for learning, but also a key factor in regard to their success not only of their own future but also that of Thailand, they even thought it should be a compulsory course in higher education.

Furthermore, the changed role of the teacher in the course as a class manager, facilitator and teacher-resource, rather than class director or controller, was accepted. 

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this tourist guide training course blended CLT, ESP and genre theories to suit the learning context and the learners preferred styles of learning (Bax, 2003; Power, 2005) rather than a pure CLT course, the role of the teacher was not only the facilitator (Stern, 1993), but also an important source of information. The teacher assisted the students to develop essential knowledge and skills by means of whole class teaching until they could develop greater control over their own performance (Hammond, 2001). However, the students were in agreement as shown by their comments that there needed to be periods when the group was taught as a whole, although they were also happy to participate in groups. In relation to this procedure they recommended that the teacher teach the formal features of genre together with grammar and vocabulary explicitly before they prepared their own talks. In addition, the majority of them wanted the teacher to provide immediate feedback on their spoken commentaries in addition to that available from their peers.

In sum, these findings, as supported by Bax (2003), revealed that the absolute version of CLT, which suggests that teacher talk be minimized, may not be accepted by Thai students. Because in the Thai context particularly up-country the teacher is normally the one who has the best command of English in the classroom, the students expect the teacher to use both English and even Thai if they think the language features are too difficult to understand. This is the rationale underlying the blending of CLT with such other more formal approaches as ESP and genre teaching.

The above discussed findings from both the reports and the questionnaire taken together are revealing about why students accepted this innovatory course. First, the course fostered their instrumental motivation by providing them with specific language they needed to succeed in their course and their future careers (Johns, 1991; Benesch, 1996). The belief therefore that the course was relevant and beneficial (Finch, 1999) may have motivated them. Second, this genre-based course might also have motivated them because it provided them with opportunities to participate in genuine communication involving task preparation, rehearsal, performance and evaluation of their own tasks in groups (Bennet, 1994). This sort of learning cycle incorporated in the course may have increased learning potential because the learners could be emotionally involved without feeling the stress associated with the teacher’s control (Dooley, 2002). This helped them to become more independent and self-directed (Finch, 1999). Third, the positive attitude
towards the teacher and the course as indicated by their expressed desires to extend their
language learning in the areas mentioned (Mantle-Bromley, 1996) may have had
something to do with the change of the teacher’s role to be both a learner trainer or
facilitator and a teacher-resource, rather than someone who ‘spoon-feeds’ and controls
the process at all points. Finally and fourthly, through personal observation by the
researcher and the above findings, it seems that the use of authentic materials may have
been responsible for creating a positive effect on the students (Peacock, 1997), because
they expressed enthusiasm about participating in these tourist guide discourse-based
course activities.

Question 5 What guidance can this study give to formulating courses for Thai tourist
guides?

In the light of these findings, it is recommended that lecturers at the Rajabhat
Universities, TAT and other Thai universities which organize training courses for tourist
guides adapt a genre-based approach to develop tourism student oral competency. This
could be done as an independent English course or as part of the overall tourist guide
training program.

The first guideline, provided by this genre-based approach to teaching oral English,
is the use of the basic stages, that are recommended for ESP teachers and practitioners to
follow in order to plan a language program for ESP learners (Swales, 1992; Price-
Machado, 2001). This three-stage approach consists of the survey of the target situation, the
discovery of the genre organization and language features of the specific genres commonly
used in that situation (Christie, 1999; Paltridge, 2002), and the construction of curriculum
and language learning activities that integrate the issues and language features found in the
survey and analysis to serve socially conventional purposes (Bax, 2003; Dooley, 2002).

The second recommendation in relation to the third stage mentioned above is that
this genre teaching and learning cycle can be used as an appropriate method for teaching
oral English including the design of oral activities. The five steps in the cycle are building
background knowledge of the genre, modeling the genre, analysis of the genre,
construction of the genre, and peer assessment.
Teachers can also be guided in their work by the possibility illustrated of establishing balance within the course in terms of content sections and timing. Arrangements should allow for the four sections of introduction of the spoken genres for specific purposes, the genres, reviews, and assessment, which in this course was done with the ratio of 3:10:2:2, thus providing a reasonable weight to each section of the course. A summary of the course in terms of balance is shown in Table 8 below.

**Table 9.1: Genre-based course outline**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Hours</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introduction</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Classification of tours</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roles of tourist guides</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speech of tour guides</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Genres</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itinerary</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Narrative</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Review</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Review of the four genres</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Assessment</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of student performance</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the teachers should not focus too much on the practice of genre teaching and ignore other student needs and learning styles. Consideration of student attitudes and expectations is also as important as the content and teaching methods (Bax, 2003). Teachers should be aware of this and so analyse their own students' language level and needs to provide them with suitable background knowledge and learning techniques that meet their specific purposes (Coe, 1994). This observation leads to the recommendation that several suggestions by the students, who participated in this study be taken into account in the
planning of a further ESP courses. Students thought their oral competency could be further improved by the addition of supplementary activities, which were not possible in this 51-hour course. These took the form of more time to practise in relation to the genres and the areas of pronunciation and grammar. Perhaps pronunciation was the area that was especially needed by many of them, because despite attempts to encourage the acceptance of Thai English and acceptable pronunciation of that by Thai speakers, they felt their accents were not good enough and would like to speak better. Theoretically, it is almost impossible for adult learners to acquire the same accents as those of native speakers, but if they try, some of them may reach a fair degree of success (Jenkins, 2004). In relation to grammar the students might need guidance in expanding their knowledge based on how those language features work in the contextual genres (Brinton & Holten, 2001). They also would like to have opportunities to practise the use of English outside the classroom especially in real situations.

**Conclusion**

In its answers to the research questions this chapter has offered an evaluation of genre-based instruction for oral competency development, concluding that the blended approach adopted can be useful for developing oral competency for tour guides as well as for course/materials production and implementation. The conclusion will summarise these findings, develop the pedagogical implementations and make suggestions about further research.
CHAPTER TEN
CONCLUSION

As the Thai tourism industry has expanded, the demand for employees with a good command of oral English has increased, and educational institutions have had to respond to meet this need. Pibulsongkram Rajabhat University, one of the main public universities in northern Thailand, has been responsible for the training of tourist guides in that part of the country. With increased demand, the focus has turned to one aspect of preparation which has always been of concern. This relates to the ability of trainees to deliver commentaries clearly and interestingly. Therefore, it has been the aim of this research to develop the English oral competency of tourism industry students in northern Thailand, where the tourism industry is one of the main sources of revenue.

The main thesis of this study is that a genre-based ESP approach to teaching English could be useful in developing oral competency of such a group, because the principles associated with this approach are suitable for the specific language needs of tourism industry students. Explanation of this view together with its implications is given in this final chapter, which incorporates an argument for the blend of the genre and ESP approaches, a summary of the findings, pedagogical recommendations, and suggestions for further research.

10.1 Rationale for the genre-based ESP approach

In relation to the genre-based theory each genre represents one of a set of known communicative events, by which the people in a particular discourse community realize their purposes. These purposes in turn determine the content and structure of the text. In North America because genre has for the most part been seen as variable, dynamic and subject to context, it has been argued that genre is to be acquired through exposure to the discourse community and not through instruction. Furthermore, the emphasis on the analysis of mostly written genres used in business and technology at a professional or tertiary level in the L1 environment precludes the usefulness of American genre research to this study. In Australia, however, although some genre research follows a similar line, the teaching of genre has taken on a distinctly different flavour. Since Australian
Researchers have shown that genre teaching can empower the disadvantaged to acquire both oral and written genres, its supporters have directed its use to meet the needs of both L1 and L2 learners. Thus although in Australia the emphasis has also been on the teaching of written genres in both L1 and L2 situations, this study has looked to the Australian Genre School for guidance. This latter approach to genre suggests methods that have been adapted here, namely that teachers should empower students to develop their communicative competency by first modeling the authentic function, organization features and linguistic markers of texts. In their turn then students can formulate their own samples with the same social function.

Like the proponents of the Australian genre school, ESP theorists suggest that ESP pedagogy can provide L2 learners with the English language they want and need to succeed in their specific target situation, whether for academic or professional purposes. In the earlier ESP phases of the 1970s and 1980s the emphasis was on identifying and teaching content and form of specific field such as business, science and technology. More recently however, ESP has placed the major focus on the formal properties of texts through analysis of purpose, discourse, and register. It is here that ESP and genre teaching have much in common and in recent years the two have moved closer together (Bolcher, 2004).

The theory associated with both genre and ESP approaches can be said to be closely related. Both of them analyse the discourse of specific communities and use the findings of these analyses of texts for teaching purposes. However, genre theory is especially useful in this case because it can be used as a tool within ESP for discovering and analyzing specific features of the target texts and developing genre-based teaching materials and activities. However, in this blend of the two theories, the role of each in the study was rather different. Genre analysis was utilized to identify common genre within the authentic texts together with the patterns of organization and language features of the English for tour guides. On the other hand, ESP theory provided a template for the course design, allowing the researcher to investigate the target language situations as well as the stakeholders' needs including sponsors' interests, teachers' wishes, and students' wants (Swales, 1992).
These two approaches to the course design were also supported by the CLT approach especially with regard to the changed roles of the teacher and the learner and the meaning-based use of authentic materials and tasks. CLT culture in fact strongly endorses one of the key course principles that the teacher should take the role of a facilitator or helper, while the students should become active learners and interdependent participants in their groups. Support also comes from CLT that the teacher should use authentic language activities and tasks to encourage the learners to try out their language in real communication.

10.2 Findings of the study

The implementation of this genre-based ESP approach to teaching oral English for tourism industry students has been shown to be both beneficial and well-accepted. The Rajabhat University undergraduates improved their oral performance in the main genres that they needed to perform in the course and require for their future careers, namely the itinerary, the description, the procedure, and the narrative. Their performances, as rated by two separate methods, illustrated improvement in comprehensibility, content and accuracy in terms of generic structure and language features. From the information given in the student reports and questionnaires, the conclusion can also been drawn that this ESP course was well accepted by the students. Evidence was gathered to show it encouraged them to be eager to further improve their oral competency, to rise to the challenge of preparing their talks, and to be confident in speaking in front of the video camera.

In addition, the use of the authentic field data in this study indicates that the transcriptions and recordings of tourist guides' commentaries can be an appropriate source for ESP course and materials development. These materials despite minor modifications can be considered authentic in terms of their content, generic structure and language features. The conclusion can also be drawn that the course was well accepted because it used materials based on student needs, the latter providing useful modeling of spoken genres. Though the data was collected in Chiangmai, the students could use the language learned from this data and transfer it to specific Phitsanulok and Sukhothai contexts. These sorts of materials could be said to be more suitable for teaching oral
English than commercial texts and tapes, because those that are currently available in Thailand are mostly in written form, which would not be appropriate in terms of authenticity for the development of oral competencies.

Even though the approach adopted in this study has been demonstrated to bring improvement to student oral competence, it is evident that two important components of comprehensibility, pronunciation and grammar, are still of concern. These are not normally dealt with specifically in most genre-based studies, possibly because they may not be problematic in the L1 context. In the EFL context such as this one in Northern Thailand however, one indication from the research is that pronunciation and grammar are aspects, which require further attention. As students have their own rights to influence what and how to learn, it is important that the desire of learners to have more explicit explanation and further assistance in particular areas be heard.

In EFL contexts students may desire help in these two aspects because they cannot acquire the necessary help outside the classroom. However, there is another side to this question which supports the approach taken here. If the teacher were to concentrate the teaching on these alone, students are very likely to improve in regard to these features, but still have no confidence to speak. Therefore, it is contended in this study that although greater emphasis on pronunciation and grammar is needed, such teaching needs to be integrated into courses such as this one which focus on such higher levels as genre discourse organization and language features. This approach it is argued will provide a better basis for the development of oral competency in the ESP area than isolated attention to the stated needs of students.

However, some limitations must be kept in mind if the improvements noted in this study are to be properly estimated. The first limitation is in relation to some unsatisfactory aspects in terms of the data collection. The discernment of student needs for examples was handicapped because of variations in the number of tourists visiting the north of Thailand meant that, the number of informants could not be easily controlled. This might have affected the validity of the tourism questionnaire results. In addition, some tour agency managers and tourists were rather reluctant to give information, being too busy and not wanting to reveal their perceptions for fear that this would affect the
reputation of both the tourist guides and their company. Some even expressed concern that the researcher was sent by the government to examine them. Furthermore, even the tourists did not feel completely comfortable giving information, because they were afraid that it would affect the careers of their tour guides.

Another limitation is related to the number of students involved and the time available for training. The size of the population for this study was quite small with only 34 students participating in this one course from one institute. Therefore, the results may not be easily generalized to students all over Thailand or beyond that. In addition, as these students had prior to this learned English mostly through Thai instruction, they were not familiar with the greater amount of spoken English both spoken in class and required in the assessment tasks. With the training time comprising only 51 hours over eight weeks, it was therefore difficult to obtain an absolute improvement of student oral English competence within such a short space of time.

Aspects of the research design might also have affected the results. Only one approach was used for the experiment. Since it is accepted that any period of training will produce some improvement after a period of time, the significance of the degree of student improvement must be regarded as preliminary only for the very reason that there is no comparison with other methods. However, as against that, since the course was delivered over quite a short period, and outside variables would be minimal in that time, it can be reasonably assumed that the course was a major determinant of improvement.

10.3 Pedagogical implications

The findings of this study indicate that the combination of an ESP and genre-based approach to teaching oral English could be beneficial for other Thai educators and trainers. This section will suggest ways for program planning, selecting and producing teaching materials, organizing learning activities, and changing the roles of teachers and learners.

Any program planner for ESP training courses such as English for business, English for tourist police, English for hotels should take into account the sort of stages course design as were adopted in this case. These stages covered;
• a survey of stakeholders which includes employers, sponsors, institutions, trainers and trainees;
• the conduct of a needs analysis of the language required in the specific situation in order to discover common genres and their language features;
• the development of course materials to suit the needs found from the first two stages;
• the selection of appropriate teaching activities and resources to be used in the teaching and learning cycle; and
• the establishment of an evaluation system which is appropriate to checking performance in the target real-life situation.

When transferring to other situations several practical aspects of the course design need to be kept in mind. In particular the importance of the activities used in the teaching learning cycle should be emphasized. This cycle covering both whole class and group activity allows students to prepare their oral performances by discussing background of the genre, getting familiar with the genre model, analyzing the sample genres in terms of genre organization and language features, working in groups to plan their own samples, role playing, peer assessing these and finally giving feedback. These activities help students to become knowledgeable about the required genres and confident enough to speak out. Moreover, the samples of each of the generic structures of genres provided in the lessons should not be too limited in number. If students are given opportunities to be immersed in as many different genre examples as possible, they are likely to become more aware of the structures of these genres and their functions. The learners can then use these examples as guidelines to create their own samples for the many varied situations in real life communication.

Teachers also need to be alert to the challenges presented by this type of course for both the teachers and the students, especially where in cases where EFL students are familiar with the teacher's giving lectures and controlling the whole class. This situation undergoes a major change if a genre-based approach such as this, is introduced. In addition, students are required to participate in role-play activities, which help create self-confidence, an important characteristic of a tourist guiding work as suggested by travel.
agency managers. In view of these differences in demands a sensitive teacher will prepare students to become more active learners by providing appropriate scaffolding for students about the organization of unfamiliar genres, the nature of the target genres and expectations associated with their work. These learning activities encourage them to be flexible by not clinging to only one variation of the genre and becoming confident enough to plan and create their own versions. While these positive features have been found to exist, nonetheless it must be understood that something approaching a revolution has to occur in relation to the classroom culture in order for the result to be beneficial.

Despite acceptance by these students of what was to them something novel, student feedback revealed that whole class teaching still needed to provide them with appropriate background knowledge for the expected oral tasks although they felt like working in groups. In addition, peer assessment activities within the teaching and learning cycle can be used as a powerful and guiding force for learning language.

Therefore, through the contributions of a genre-based training course such as this, students can be equipped with the framework of ongoing development of oral language skills appropriate to their target language situation. Teachers however need to be aware that these changes in teacher/student relationship and roles are not easily achieved or even accepted in the EFL situation.

10.4 Suggestions for further research

The findings and the limitations of this study reveal several directions for future research. First, a comparative study of the perceptions of tourists from different regions focusing on sociocultural linguistics issues may be conducted to discover the different challenges tourism students can expect to meet in their future careers. Second, research on Thai tourists' needs in relation to the full range of elements from the TAT criteria may be done to obtain a more complete understanding of the nature of the language required by Thai tourist guides. This sort of need analysis should include other areas which were not covered by this study such as sociolinguistic and strategic competence. These two kinds of competence are believed to be very necessary to further prepare students to use the language appropriately in unpredictable situations in the field. Third, since little is known about the effect of explicit and implicit teaching of genre, how different kinds of
genre-based instruction, activities, and materials influence genre learning could also be investigated. In relation to this point, the discovery of what might be the most appropriate tools to assess student communicative performance, whether in class or in the real context of situation, would also be a valuable fourth suggestion. Because very little is known about student learning strategies in such a course, the fifth recommendation relates to what strategies the students presently possess, those that they acquire during the course and how these strategies influence genre learning.

Finally, this research on students' oral genre development has focused only on genres in English for tour guides. The development of a more comprehensive theory of oral genre teaching will require expanding this focus to include other ESP fields such as English for hotels and English for business.

To summarize, this thesis has shown that formal instruction through a special course using a genre-based ESP model can play an important role in developing tourism students' oral competency in the Thai context. Such teaching has been shown to improve student ability to incorporate important genre features in their commentaries together with their confidence to speak in public. It is hoped that this finding can encourage practitioners in many ESP fields to analyse their own teaching learning contexts and adapt the model for the writing of their own course to meet their learners' needs and interests.
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Appendix I: English for Tour Guides course units

Unit I
Introduction to Tour Organization

• Read the following texts and then answer the questions that follow.

Classification of Tour

There are several kinds of tour depending on the classification.

1. Arrangement
   1.1. Ready-Arranged Tour. This kind of tour has been arranged by tour operators. Tourists can choose from the brochures or advertisements.
   1.2. Purpose-Tour. This kind of tour is not in the brochures but the tour operators will arrange it according to tourists' needs.

2. Distances Involved
   2.1. Short-Haul Tour
   2.2. Long-Haul Tour

3. Duration
   3.1. Half-Day Tour
   3.2. Full-Day Tour

4. Destination
   4.1. City Tour
   4.2. Sightseeing Tour
   4.3. City-Sightseeing Tour
   4.5. Night Tour

5. Forms
   5.1. Boat Trip
   5.2. Trekking Tour
   5.3. Diving
   5.4. Jungle Raft
   5.5. Safari

6. Payment
   6.1. Package Tour
6.2. Optional Tour

- Discussion

What kind of tour would you recommend to your guests in Phitsanulok? Why?
If your guests want to go to Sukhothai, what kind of tour would you recommend?
If your guests want to go hiking in Phitsanulok, can you suggest a proper place?

Tourist Guide Qualifications
1. Good interpersonal skills
2. Pleasant personality
3. Knowledgeable
4. Good speaker
5. Provider of good service

Tourist Guide Competency
1. Language competency
2. Knowledgeable of tourist attractions, history, tourist activities, Thai culture, architecture, traditions and relevant regulations.
3. Ability to lead tours.
4. Problem solving ability

- Discussion

Do you think you can become a tourist guide? Why/not?
Which qualification do you think is the most important for a tourist guide? Choose from the above list.
If you want to be a good tourist guide, what characteristics will you need to acquire?
How?

Roles of Tourist Guides
1. Transfer-in

The tourist guide must go to pick up tourists at the airport, train station, or bus station and take them to their hotels.

2. Leading tour

The tourist guide must lead the tourists to the tour sites as arranged in the itinerary.

3. Transfer-out
After the end of the tour the tourist guide has to take the tourists to the airport, train station, or bus station so that the tourists can travel back home or to other destinations.

- Discussion
  Talk with your peers and fill in the list of activities that the guide in the three roles may need to carry out.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transfer-in</th>
<th>Leading Tour</th>
<th>Transfer-out</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accept assignment from the travel agency</td>
<td>Make an appointment with a driver</td>
<td>Reconfirm tickets</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

- Compare your list with those of the other groups.
- Adjust your list if necessary before reporting your selections.
Unit II
The speech of Tour Guides

2.1. Background to Spoken English

- Work in groups and discuss the following questions.
  Do we speak the same way as we write?
  How would a good tour guide speak to the tourists?
  Is the speech of a tour guide like a conversation, or like telling a story/joke or like a lecture? Why?
  Is it like a lecture?

- Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow.

English spoken by tour guides is mainly planned transactional speech which is quite similar to the spoken form of language used in lectures. Like lectures, tour guide English has the following features.

(1) It is prepared speech. Tour guides always have itineraries in hand which help them plan in advance what to do during each trip. In addition, they have to prepare information about the places they are going to visit so that they can be ready to give specific details of those places and people. As tour guides have time to organise their ideas in advance about what they are going to talk, their speech has a clear overall structure.

(2) Its main function is to give information to tourists. The tour guides’ role is similar to that of a lecturer in that they act as experts in their field. They are the ones who have stored relevant information about tourist attractions and their duty is to transfer this information to tourists. However, the speech of tour guides is a little different because the amount of the content is smaller than a lecture. The tour guides can have silent pauses while they are talking. They can also change the speed and loudness of their speech depending on certain situations and audience.

(3) It is mainly one-sided. Tour guides take major roles in the trip, around 80 per cent of the talk, giving commentaries for the major part of the time. By contrast, the role of tourists is similar to that of students in a lecture in that they mainly listen and back-channel, asking questions only when they need more information. Difference is that it must sound more natural especially with smaller groups and with a different purpose. In a small group with two or three tourists, the talk tends to be similar to a conversation. In this kind of spoken language the syntax is less structured than in written language. However, spoken phrases are more syntactically complex. Some lexical phrases are used as markers of logical connection, temporal connection, exemplification, and summary. Some other lexical phrases are used only in spoken discourse: fluency devices such as ‘you know’, ‘well of course’, markers of asides such as ‘where was I?’.
'Let's get back to the point'. Lexical phrases are commonly used to link the content to express ideas logically.

In conclusion, one of the functions of transactional spoken discourse is to impart information, which is similar to that of the written language. However, as mentioned above, many of the forms are different. Therefore, the text types used to describe written language should not be transferred to spoken language.

- Answer the following questions.

5) In what ways is the speech of tour guides similar to a lecture?

6) Why is the speech of tour guides different from a conversation?

7) Are the roles of a tour guide the same as those of a lecturer?

8) What are the main differences between spoken and written language?

- Read the following passage and then answer the questions that follow.

Specific genres

Genres should be viewed as social processes which produce a particular product or text type. They can be categorized into five social processes or genre types: to describe, explain, instruct, argue, and narrate.
Figure 3.1 Genres as social process (Knapp and Watkins, 1994, p. 22)
From this list, there are four genres which are commonly found in the tour guide recordings, i.e., explanation, description, instruction and narrative. At the beginning of each trip the tour guides use the explanatory genre to introduce an itinerary. The use of instruction is for telling tourists to do or not to do something. For the main part of their commentary, however, guides use description to describe places and people, and animals. Finally the genre of narrative is used for talking about the history of places and the lives of famous people. These four genre categories will form the basis of the planning of how tour guides can be assisted in the development of their speaking skills.

From this, it is clear that the tour guides’ spoken English is mainly transactional rather than interactional. This is because it is used for transmitting factual information and not for maintaining social relationships. Transactional language is used in the process of conducting business and generally getting things done. However, it has been found that when the number of tourists in the group is small the relationship tend to be a little more interactional, because there are more questions and answers and back-channeling.

In conclusion, one of the functions of transactional spoken discourse is to impart information, which is similar to the case of much written language. However, as mentioned above, many of the forms of spoken English are different. Therefore, the text types used to describe written language should not be transferred to spoken language.

Answer the following questions.

6) What spoken genre would you use to talk about King Naresuan the Great?

7) What spoken genre would you use to tell the tourists about the program?

8) What spoken genre would you use to talk about water buffaloes?

9) If you have to inform the tourists about how to cultivate rice, what genre would you use?

10) Do you have to use each genre separately?
Listen to this example of a tour guide's commentary and work with your group to

3) write down five words or phrases that are not commonly found in the
   written form

4) list three characteristics of the commentaries that show you this is spoken not written English
   •
   •
   •

Tape script

(Tour guide) That mountain in front of you that's called Sulleep Mountain

up on the mountain it is where Doi Sulleep Temple is!

have you been there?

(Tourist) Yes

(Tour guide) how was it?

(Tourist) Very nice

(Tour guide) Yep, yesterday was a day off a lot of Thai every Thai

when they come they must go! because some say those who

have been here without visiting that place! they're not better

than those who have never been before! so it is a must!

like if you are going to Bangkok you don't visit the Grand

Palace! some things the accommodation on your

right-hand side? You can stay there for free and three meals

da day

(Tourist) It looks very nice

(Tour guide) Yes look very nice from outside! But I think you don't want to

be there! sure!

(Tourist) what is that?

(Tour guide) A prison

(Tourist) It's nicer to be outside! what's the main reason people go there?
(Tour guide) ah, the main problem now is drugs/ yeah it is drugs from Myanmar/ because up north here we join the border with Myanmar and further from here/ about three hours to Chiangrai/ Chiangrai joins the border with Myanmar and Laos/ so some drug smugglers took the drugs very easily/ (Tourist) ............... (Tour guide) yeah because very long border between Thailand and Myanmar/ in the west part of Thailand/ about 2,000 kilometers/ so some areas just mountains/ some areas/ only small streams/ so very easy

Activity: Each group shares one or two ideas about spoken language.

Review: There are five spoken genre types: explanation, description, instruction, argument, and narrative. The argument genre is not found in the recordings of tour guides' commentaries so it is not mentioned in the following lessons. In the next units we will learn how to produce the explanatory genre used to talk about the itinerary, the descriptive genre used to describe places, animals and plants, the instructional genre used to tell tourists to do or not to do something, and the narrative genre used to talk about the histories famous places and people.
Unit III
Explanatory Genre: Introducing an Itinerary

3.1. Background to the Itinerary Genre

Discussion.
What does itinerary mean?
Have you ever read an itinerary?
When do you need one?
What should you talk about in your itinerary?

3.2. Modeling the genre (Analysis of genre features)

Recognising the genre

Work in groups of five. Rearrange the following sentences on your desk so that you can a complete a spoken form of a tour guiding itinerary.

Itinerary 1

k. then we will go to the elephant camp
l. first we’ll go to the elephant camp
m. and then we can ride on the elephant too if you like
n. OK so I want to talk with you about the program
o. after that we’ll see the waterfall
p. that is about 26 kilometers from here
q. but on the way we stop to see the orchid and butterfly farm
r. and spend about half an hour from here too
s. then we will go to the elephant camp
t. you can see the elephant there

Now listen to the tape and correct the order of your sentences.

Relisten checking the order.

Group discussion of the itinerary. Students are given a typed copy of the itinerary to refer to
Where would the commentary above normally occur?
When do you think you will give a commentary like this one?
What is the purpose of this kind of commentary?

Analysing the genre
From the sentences above, identify which sentences
1) introduce the tour program

4) tell the main stages of the program

5) give options about the program

After checking answers, lecturer will discuss the following questions with the group.

What tenses are commonly found in each stage?

What sentence structure is used for each stage?

How is each sentence linked to the others?

- Listen to the taped commentary and complete the text to reinforce the format of the itinerary genre.

**Itinerary 2**

Yes from the city it _______ about half an hour.

the first stop we _______ be at the orchid farm.

we'll be at the orchid farm _______ ten minutes/

or 15 minutes/ it __________ on you.

just have a walk in that area / and ________

we'll go further ________ the elephant camp.

it's in the same area ________ we are going today/

the show starts at 9:40 and ________ for an hour/

forty minutes ________ the show/ if you need
to do the elephant riding/ you ________ do/

that's your option/ you can do that ________

the show finishes/ yes after the elephant camp

we'll go ________ to the botanical garden/

____ the botanical garden/ we will go further
to Maco/ after visit the hilltribe ________ lunch/

lunch time/ that's all of the program/

the program is a ________ bit earlier/ I mean we'll
finish early/ if not 4 o'clock as ________ in the brochure/

but ________/ we are going to the handicraft village tour
to do shopping/some of the factories for tourists/ if you
like to do/__________ depends on you/ _______ you
want to go/ we will __________ it for you/ if you don't
go/ we will __________ there and come back

• Discussion
  Check answers with the group.

  Are the tenses, sentences, and linkages similar to itinerary 1?

• Pronunciation practice. Underline the stressed syllable of each word and then practice reading them. You may consult your dictionary.

  orchid  depend  area  botanical  garden
  earlier  brochure  anyway  factory  arrange
  option  handcraft  ___ kmometer

• Lecturer leads the practice with the following structures. (Students do not have the written text).

  1) I want to talk with you about the program for today.

  I would like to tell you

  Let me tell you

  2) After the .........., we'll visit ..........

     elephant camp          the waterfall
     orchid farm            the museum
     botanical garden      the handicraft village

  5) After we .........., we'll ......

     visit Wat Suandok      go to Wat Yai
     have lunch             visit the Folklore museum
     go shopping           go back to the hotel

  6) If you want to .........., you/we can ..........,....

     have lunch at the waterfall  do that
     go shopping                 arrange it for you
     see the house-boats         do that after ....

• Complete the following text by selecting the correct linking word(s) from the list.

  then, after, after that, first and then, if, it depends, for about
Itinerary 3

good morning, ladies and gentlemen/I am Somsak Sisal
you can call me Sok/I'd like to tell you about the program
for today we're going to visit Wat
Nangphaya/ we will be there twenty minutes/
we'll visit Wangchan Palace where
King Naresuan the Great was born
we'll go to Sukhothai which is about 60 kilometers
from here we will have lunch in the city
lunch we'll go to the Sukhothai historical park/ you can take
a small bus to see the park you want/ or you can hire
a bicycle/ on your we'll spend around
one hour at the park/ we can go shopping
at the china village you like to do so/
if you don't we can come back to Phitsanulok earlier!
that's all of the program for today!

3.3. Construction of the genre

Work in groups of five. Study the following examples of written itineraries taken from brochures. Then write down ideas about an itinerary for one-day trip starting from the Pailyn Hotel in Phitsanulok. After that take turns to talk about the program with your group. Remember that we do not speak in exactly the same way as we write (See Unit II).

B10: ALL-DAY DAMNOENSADUAK AND ROSE GARDEN

Daily

(Choo tour-everyday)

Visit includes the bustling floating market at Damnoensaduak with a stop at Nakhonpathom, where the largest chedi in Thailand is located. Proceed on to lunch at the picturesque Rose Garden.
Afterwards enjoy the colourful Thai Village Show—a Buddhist ordination procession, sword fighting, elephants at work, folk-dances, and a traditional wedding ceremony.

P3: CHANTHABURI SAPPHIRE MINE

This trip to Chanthaburi includes observation of the local people actually working in their mines at the foot of a mountain. Then drive up the hills to visit private sapphire mines. During the journey, stops will be made to see rubber and tapioca plantations, fruit market (depends on the season) and a historic old fort dating back to 1768.

Distance for return trip from Pattaya is about 550 kms.

Lunch and soft drinks included.

Ayutthaya Sightseeing Tour

- Leave Bangkok by train from Bangkok Station
- Arrive Ayutthaya... visit Vihan Phramongkhonbophit
- The Ancient Palace
- Wat PhraSisaphat
- The Chaoamphraya National Museum
- Lunch and relax at PhraNan Park
- The Elephant Show
- Wat Phrachaoeng
- Leave for Bangkok
- Arrive Bangkok

Work with the whole class to plan an itinerary for a trip from Phitsanulok and then appoint a volunteer to introduce it to the whole class. After that compare it with the one created by your own group to find out the similarities, differences in staging, language feature of texts and cultural differences.

Role play in groups and then with the whole class by the representative of each group.

3.4. Assessment

- Assess your partner’s performance using the checklist prepared by the teacher.
- Discuss the results of the assessment.
Unit IV
Instruction Genre

4.1. Background to the Instructional Genre

- Class discussion

Have you ever given any instructions to a foreigner?
When do you think you will need to instruct tourists?
What is the main purpose of instruction?
In what situation would you give instructions to your guests?
Would you use the same form of language for every situation?

4.2. Modeling the genre

- Match the questions asked by a tourist with the responses given by a tour guide. If you have time, practice performing the dialogues with a partner.

Q1. My visa is about to expire. Where can I extend it?
Q2. I’ve lost my wallet. What should I do?
Q3. Can you help me? I need to make an international call.
Q4. I’ve lost my passport and I need to replace it urgently. Where can I find the Australian Embassy?
Q5. Where can I change some traveler’s cheques?
Q6. Should I pre-book my train ticket or is it OK to show up when I want to go?
Q7. I’ve had a bad stomach for days. What should I do?
Q8. I’d like to hire a car for a few days. What do I need to do?
Q9. I’d like to stay in a temple. Are foreigners allowed to stay in temples?
Q10. I’d like to explore some more, but I’m unfamiliar with the area. Can you tell me where to find a good map?

R1. The hospitals here are quite good and it will only cost you 20 bahts to see a doctor in a general hospital. Most hospitals in tourist areas are used to dealing with foreigners and the doctors can speak English. If it’s not serious, you can buy medication over the counter.
R2. Some temples provide overnight accommodation for a small donation. You need to dress neatly and have a basic knowledge of Thai etiquette. Mostly, temple lodgings are for men only.

R3. The two main immigration offices are in Bangkok and Chiangmai but you can apply for an extension at any immigration office in Thailand; every province that borders a neighboring country has one. Otherwise, you can leave Thailand and apply at a Thai immigration point in any of the bordering countries. Laos is particularly popular.

R4. It's always a good idea to pre-book, that way you are assured of a seat. Also, you have your choice of first and second class, sleeper, or rapid and normal train.

R5. Most of the major tourist areas rent cars and motorcycles. You will need to pay a deposit and possibly leave your passport. Do you have an international driving permit? You'll need one, otherwise you can apply for a Thai driver's license at the Police Registration Division.

R6. To tell the truth, it will be difficult to find it. However, you can contact the tourist police—they are more used to dealing with foreigners than the regular police. The hotline number from anywhere in Thailand is 1155.

R7. You can go to any bank and change your traveler's cheques. A lot of banks have a separate section outside, purely for changing traveler's cheques. Unless you are in a tourist center however, these close early.

R8. OK, you can dial direct from your hotel room but it's pretty expensive. Most major post offices offer international calling facilities. You can also buy CAT cards for 300 or 500 bahts. There are three kinds of public phones; the green ones are the phones that take phone cards.
R9. It depends on how much detail you need. The Tourism Authority of Thailand offers a variety of pamphlets on sightseeing, accommodation, transportation options and maps, however, the maps are fairly basic. If you need something more detailed, any good bookstore will stock decent maps.

R10. Most of the embassies are in the same area. You need to get to Sathon Tai Road. The best way to get there is to catch a metered taxi. You should also contact the Tourist police.

• Work with your peers. Compare the following two sets of instructions of how to meditate.

Set I: How to meditate

You should remember to sit with your legs crossed, both hands on your laps, palms up. You should not bend down while you are sitting. It is important to close your eyes while breathing slowly. You should make sure that you are breathing deeply. You will need to focus your mind at the middle of your body or your navel while silently saying the word ‘bud’ when you breathe in and ‘dho’ when you breathe out. You should remember not to think about anything else or let anything disturb you. You will need to continue for some time.

Set II: How to meditate

1. Sit down with your legs crossed.
2. Place your hands on your laps with open palms.
3. Do not bend down.
4. Close your eyes.
5. Breathe in deeply while silently saying the word ‘bud’, and then breathe out while saying the word ‘dho’. Repeat this action all the time.
6. Focus your mind at the middle of your body; do not let anything to interrupt your meditation.
7. Continue doing this until you feel calm and peaceful.

- **Class discussion**

Which set of instructions was easier to follow? Why?
What makes the two sets different from each other?
If you were a tour guide, which one would you use?

- Rewrite the second set of instructions about meditation above, using the sequence words below:
  
  *First....*
  *First of all.....*
  *Next.....Then.....*
  *After you have (done this), (do that)....*
  *Finally.....*

- Practice the following structures.

  - **You should**
  - **You can**
  - **You'd better**

  *bring your sunscreen.*
  *buy your own lunch.*
  *wear thick clothes.*
  *put on canvas shoes.*
  *wear a life-jacket.*
  *take off your shoes in front of the temple.*
  *ride on a motorcycle with a helmet.*
  *stay close to me*
  *come back on time*

  - **You shouldn't**
  - **You can't**
  - **You'd better not**
  - **You're not allowed to**
  - **You should remember not to**

  *smoke here.*
  *wear short skirts or pants in the temple.*
  *ride on a motorcycle without a helmet.*
  *drink alcoholic drink inside the*
  *put your wallet in the back pocket of your trousers.*
come back late.
leave your belongings anywhere.

• Fill in the blank with one of the following demonstratives: this/that/these/those.

1) _______ temple was built in 1350.
2) Look at _______ elephant under the tree. It's a white elephant.
3) ______ is a kind of buffaloes. It is called water buffalo because it likes to relax in the mud.
4) _______ stupas next to that vihan are in Sukhothai style.
5) After crossing _________ bridge, we'll see the orchid farm.

• Practice pronouncing the following words. You can consult your dictionary for the phonetic transcription.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronunciation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>seal</td>
<td>sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sleep</td>
<td>slip</td>
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<tr>
<td>wheel</td>
<td>will</td>
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<td>shit</td>
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<td>whale</td>
<td>well</td>
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<td>hail</td>
<td>hell</td>
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<tr>
<td>wait</td>
<td>wet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gate</td>
<td>get</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

• Listen to the tape and fill in the blank with the word you hear.

1) Please have a _________ .
2) We don't want you to _________ on the stairs up the Prang.
3) The monk had a strong _________ to build the road to Doi Suthep.
4) The gold was beaten into a _________ before cutting it.
5) There used to be a _________ in the middle of the wat.
6) The roof of the vihan was destroyed by a _________ storm last year.
7) Women should _________ outside the temple; you are not allowed to enter.
8) We'll _________ off the bus within ten minutes.

• Work in groups of five. Rearrange the following sentence by numbering them so that you can have a complete instruction of how to produce cloth by hilltribe people.

___ so they make their own cloth
___ this is a bark of this plant
___ this other bit
___ an then go to the loom outside
___ this is a kind of hemp
___ the loom is just a small loom, that loom
and twist them a bit to make them stronger
and then spin
after twist them, they have to be boiled in the wood ash
to make it whiter like this one
I want to show you this one

• Listen to the tape and check the order of your instructions.
• Read the instruction again and identify which sentences
  1) tell you the description of the process
  2) tell you the steps
  3) evaluate the process
• Talk with your peers about the structures of the instruction genre.
  Identify the stages and prepare the language structure for each stage.

4.3. Construction of the genre

• Work in groups of five. Study the examples of instructions in the given books. Then
  prepare your own instructions that you think you may have to give to tourists such as
  how to grow rice, how to make sun-dried bananas, how to make local wine, how to
  cook sticky rice and so on. After the preparation, take turns to tell your peers. And
  then discuss the results of your friend’s speech.

• The representative of each group presents the instructions to the whole class.

4.3. Assessment

Assess your friends’ performance using the given checklist. Then discuss the results
of your assessment with the whole class.
5.1. Background

• Class discussion

Have you ever read a description of a person, an animal, a plant, a building and so on?
Have you ever written a description by yourself?
What is the purpose of a description?
What details should you put in your description?

5.2. Modeling the genre

• Work in groups of five. Rearrange and number the following sentences so that you can have a complete description of an animal.

_____ and an elephant sleeps just only 3 to 4 hours per day
_____ and all elephants in Thailand are Indian elephants
_____ they eat 25 kilograms of food and 60 kilograms of water per day
_____ I want to tell you about elephants
_____ so that is why Indian elephants are clever and easier to train than the African elephants
_____ do you know what they are?
_____ African elephants and Indian elephants
_____ yes it’s body is big
_____ and the African elephants they have bigger ears but smaller heads than Indian elephants
_____ there are two kinds of elephants in the world
_____ and on average elephants are about 3 meters high from the feet to the highest point of shoulders
_____ and an elephant sleeps just only 3 to 4 hours per day from 11 p.m. until 3 a.m.
_____ an elephant is pregnant for about 22 to 24 months about 2 years
_____ when a mother wants to give birth
she can kill her baby by bite
and they work until 60 years old
normally we can train elephants when they are 4 years old
then they are retired
the midwife helps the mother clear up the placenta
and keeps the baby apart from the mother
and they will be set free in the jungle.
because after birth the mother is very exhausted and hurt
when an elephant sleeps it sleeps like human lying down
she looks for a comfortable spot with a midwife
a midwife is an elephant too

- Listen to the tape and correct the order of your sentences.
- Group discussion.
  Where do you think you will give this kind of commentaries?
  What is the purpose of this talk?
  Who will be your audience?
  When would it be an appropriate time to give a description of
    (1) animals, (2) buildings, (3) events, or (4) people?

- After reading the descriptions about elephants above, identify which part tells you about:
  (1) classification
  (2) location
  (3) appearance
  (4) characteristics
  (5) reproduction
  (6) training & working
• **Read the description of elephants again and answer the following questions.**
  What tenses are commonly used for the description?
  What sentence structures are used in each topic?
  Are there any words or phrases that link the utterances together?
  How many action verbs are there in the description? What are they?
  How many relational verbs are there? What are they?

• **Listen to the taped commentary and complete the text.**

OK so I want to tell you the information about the orchid/
there are 25,000 species ________ orchids around the world/
______ species in Thailand /and 500 species in Chiangmai alone/
naturally orchids ________ on other trees/
that's why we can ________ orchids in the wooden boxes/
and they get nutrition from ________ boxes/
and fertilizer is ________ once a week/
and we can ________ get perfume from orchids too/
but just only Thai orchids/ not a hybrid ________ this one/
because the hybrid does not have fragrant
and we also use glass around ________/
because we want to keep the ________ for the roots
of the orchids/ yes ________ also protect them
from strong sunlight with black plastic like ________/
because orchids don't like strong sunlight

• **Read the commentaries about the orchids and find out which sentences support the following topics:**

  1) classification
  2) location
  3) property
  3) cultivation
• Compare the descriptions of elephants and orchids to find out the 2-3 different language features and the structure of the texts.

• Pronunciation practice. Underline the stressed syllable of each word and then practice reading aloud.

  species  naturally  boxes  nutrition  decay  
spraying  perfume  hybrid  moisture  protect  
clever  easier  average  kilogram  pregnant  
comfortable  placenta  exhausted  normally  retired  

• Fill in the blanks with the correct form of the words given.

  a. There (be) __________ about three thousand elephants in Thailand nowadays.
  b. It (take) __________ about one hour from Phitsanulok to Nakhonthai.
  c. Normally the show (start) __________ at 9 o’clock and (last) __________
  for 30 minutes.
  d. If you (want) __________ to ride on a buffalo, you (do)
  __________ that. It (depend) __________ you.
  e. If it (rain) __________, we (change) __________ our program.
  f. If you (not want) __________ to go shopping, you (go) __________ to the
  zoo near Chiangmai University.
  g. I hope that there (be) __________ no rain tomorrow.
  h. When a mother elephant (want) __________ to give birth, she
  (look) __________ for a nook.
  i. The elephant (set) __________ free when they are sixty years old.
  j. Two hundred and fifty kilograms of fodder (give) __________ to an
  elephant per day.
• Notes: Comparative Forms

Add -er (than) to one-syllable words or two-syllable words ending with -y.

- tall    taller
- high    higher
- lazy    lazier
- heavy   heavier

Add more .... (than) to words with two or more syllables.

- more intelligent
- more beautiful

Some adjectives have particular comparative forms:

- good    better
- bad     worse

• Exercise: Write the correct form of the adjectives given in the brackets.

1. Wild orchids are (small) ______________ than domestic ones.
2. Is Phitsanulok (large) ______________ than Sukhothai?
3. Sukhothai is (old) ______________ than Sisatchanalai.
4. African elephants are (tall) ______________ than Asian elephants.
5. Asian elephants prefer a (cool) ______________ climate than African elephants.
6. Elephants pregnancies are (long) ______________ than human ones.
7. African elephants are (difficult) ______________ to train than Asian elephants.
8. Which one is (interesting) ______________ the Folk Museum or Wat Phrasiratanamahathat?

• Talk with your friends about the structure of the description genre. Identify the stages and prepare the language structure for each stage.
5.3. Construction of the genre

- Work in groups of five. Study the examples of description in the given books and brochure. Imagine that you have to write your own description of one selected item for a new brochure. This can be a place, an interesting animal, a local plant, etc. Before writing, you should decide with your peers about the stages, the vocabulary, the language features that should be used for each stage.

- The representative of each group presents the topic to the whole class.

5.4. Assessment

Assess your friends' performance using the checklist. Then discuss the results of your assessment.
Chapter VI
Genre 4: Narrative Genre

6.1. Background

- Class discussion

What does narrative mean?

Have you ever listened to a story?

When do you think you need a narrative?

Would you use a particular tense when you narrate?

6.2. Modelling the genre

- Recognising the genre Work in groups of five. Rearrange the following sentences on your desk so that you can complete a spoken form of your guiding narrative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Story 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. so he invited a monk to come here to preach Buddhism in this area</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. this temple is called Suandok Temple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. because first this area was a royal flower garden that belonged to our king, King Kuena</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. and then he looked for a proper place for himself and for the relic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. it's a small piece</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. so he chose this area to be his monastery because of its atmosphere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. that's why we call it Suandok temple or flower garden temple</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Suandok means a flower garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. But in the year 1370 he invited one monk from Sukhothai Kingdom/another kingdom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Now listen to the tape and correct the order of your sentences.

- Relisten checking the order.

- Group discussion of the narrative Students are given a typed copy of the narrative to refer to.

Where would the commentary above normally occur?

- When do you think you will give a commentary like this one?

- What is the purpose of this kind of commentary?

- What do you think of its length?

- Who do you think will be interested in this kind of commentary?

- Analysing the genre From the sentences above, identify which sentences

  1) introduce the story (orientation) 
  2) tell the main sequence of events 
  3) give the resolution of the story 

-
• Read the story again and answer the following questions.
  What tenses are commonly found in each stage?
  What sentence structure is used for each stage?
  How is each sentence linked to the others?

• Dictation Listen to a list of words twice, focusing on the consonant sounds. Then write down the words that you hear.
  1. tir  2. cell  3. nam  4. mca
  5. bui  6. Sire  7. ong  8. ace
  9. ass  10. my  11. ace  12. tick

• Practice pronouncing the completed words.

• Practice the following structures.

  **Active**
  He told us a story.
  She wrote a letter.
  King Mengrai built Chiangmai.

  **Passive**
  We were told a story.
  A letter was written.
  Chiangmai was built (by King Mengrai).

**Exercise** Write the correct form of the verbs in the brackets.

1. A lot of elephants (kill) ______________ last year.
2. King Ramkhamhaeng (invent) ______________ Thai alphabet.
3. Phra Buddhachinarat (build) ______________ during Sukhothai period.
4. There (be) ______________ a lot of houseboats along the Nan River a decade ago.
5. King Naresson (fight) ______________ against the Burmese army.
6. Phisanulok (burn) ______________ by a big fire twenty years ago.
7. In the past Phisanulok (call) ______________ Okhoburi.
8. King Sri Isaranusit (found) ______________ Sukhothai about seven centuries ago.
9. In the former time Thai women (not wear) ______________ pants.
10. Elephants (use) ______________ to fight in several battles during Ayutthaya period.
* Listen to the taped commentary and complete the text with one for each blank.

**Story 2**

Chiangmai in the former time about 701 years we had our own kingdom we it Lanna Kingdom and it was the center of the kingdom. King Mengrai the same king built Chiangrai he built Chiangmai to be the center of Lanna but it didn’t work it was not a good location not good enough he moved down here and he chose the new place! that’s why built a new city here! and he named this city Chiangmai means new city! and Chiangrai means the city of King Mengrai! the word “chiang” city so Chiangmai was built in and he built it in the old city area he built the brick wall in the triangle shape to protect from the army! because this area the route of the Burmese army! the Burmese went this area and went down to Bangkok to fight against Bangkok army we had to have a strong wall.

* Relisten to check your answers.
* **Class discussion**
  Are the tenses/ sentence structures/ linkages similar to Story 1?
6.3. Construction of the genre

- Work in groups of five. Study the stories, biographies, or histories of Phitsanulok and Sukhothai in the given books. Then select one story as a guide to prepare some notes for your commentary. You can discuss with your peers the structure or stages of the story, the vocabulary, and the language features that should be used for each stage.
- Using the prepared notes as a guide, tell your friends the story while they listen and take note for later comments. Your commentary should be no longer than the examples you have read.
- The representative of each group tells the whole class the story.

6.4. Assessment

Assess your friends' performance using the given checklist and then discuss the results of your assessment with the whole class.
Unit VII
Combination of Genres

7.1. Background
• Class discussion

When would you use all the genres you have learned?
Which genre would you be likely to use first?
Which genre would be used the most?
Which genre would not be often used? Why?
Do different types of tour need different types of genres?

7.2. Review Exercises
• Exercise 1 Write the correct forms of the verbs given in the brackets.
1) After we have lunch at the waterfall, we (visit) _______ a Mong village.
2) If you (want) _______ to go shopping, we can arrange it for you.
3) If (rain) ________, you’d better take your raincoat.
4) It (be) _______ very hot in Phitsanulok in summer.
5) As we have good irrigation, rice (grow) _______ three times a year.
6) You should (take) _______ off your shoes and put them on the shelf in front of the vihan.
7) King Naresuan the Great (be) _______ born at Wangchian Palace in Phitsanulok.
8) Khunphamuang (help) _______ Khunsri-intharathit overthrow the Khmers.
9) It is believed that Phra Buddhachiinaraj (build) _______ by a god, disguising himself as an old man in white clothes.
10) It’s easy to grow rice. First, (plough) _______ the rice fields thoroughly. Then (cast) _______ the soaked rice grains on to the field.
• Exercise 2 Choose the transitional words or phrases from the list to complete the following sentences.

at the present time | moreover | at the same time | not
---|---|---|---
only...but also | if | because
before | later | when | therefore
as | during

1) ________ we start the trip, I'd like to tell you about our route.
2) There used to be a lot of houseboats along the Nan River but ________ most of the houseboat people have moved to live on land.
3) Phu Hin Rongkla National Park is a popular resort ________ it has many interesting places to visit.
4) Phra Buddhachinaraj is believed to grant all sorts of wishes. ________ believers asking for special favours and those making offerings after their wishes are granted come in large numbers.
5) ________ some ancient pottery was found, we assume that this area was an old city.
6) A Buddhist monk must ________ refrain from taking life, stealing, lying, sexual misconduct and drinking alcoholic drinks-- he must ________ obey no fewer than 227 precepts.
7) ________ a monk lives in the temple, he learns the virtue of an ascetic life free from material possessions.
8) ________ it rains, we'll have to change our route a little bit.
9) ________ winter a lot of tourists from Bangkok and the south usually visit the north ________ it is cold up here.

Exercise 3 Listen and underline the stressed syllable.

finally | during | material | possession | sexual
conduct | alcoholic | assume | offer | interesting
refrain | popular | placenta | ascetic | area
disguise | ancient | moreover | irrigation | arrange
**Exercise 4** Identify the primary stress and intonation pattern of the following sentences whether they have a rising or falling intonation.

1) May I help you?
2) *Could you please keep quiet?*
3) *Do you want to go shopping or relax in your hotel?*
4) *What kind of gifts would you like to buy?*
5) *I recommend Thai silk.*
6) *Let’s have a walk to the Pagoda on the hill.*
7) *Let’s get off the bus, shall we?*
8) *How many shirts would you like to buy?*
9) *Tired?*
10) *Could you tell me what time it is?*

7.3. Modeling the Genre

- **Exercise** Imagine you are a tour guide welcoming tourists on a coach trip around Phitsanulok. Listen to the tape and then fill each blank using one of the following phrases.

  Then
  Finally
  After that
  Ladies and gentlemen
  May I also ask
  Please stay with me
  Let me introduce myself
  Thank you for your attention
  I would like to take this opportunity
  Please feel free to ask me any questions
  as I’m sure some of you know

  Good morning, ______________. On behalf of Thai Tours, ____________
  To welcome you aboard our coach tour of Phitsanulok. First of all,
  ______________. My name is Sonya Nirankan. You can call me
‘Nil’. I will be your guide for today. I am here to make your trip as pleasant as possible and give you some information about the history of the places we’ll be visiting.

Before we start the trip, ________ to tell you about our route. We will be visiting most of the main places of historical interest in the city, starting from Wat Phra Sri Ratana Mahathat. ________, we will be going to Wat Nangpaya, which, ________, has famous small baked Buddha images. ________, we’ll be going to the Folk Museum, and we’ll be looking round the museum for about one hour. ________, we will go to Wat Chulamani, which used to be an important temple during Ayutthaya period. The trip is expected to take three hours, so we’ll be back here by noon. ________, those of you who wish to smoke to wait until we get off the bus. And also ________ until I tell you to wander around yourselves. I hope that you have an enjoyable trip, and ________. I will do my best to answer them.

What would you call this genre?

- Read the following commentaries and find the parts that are examples of the different genres we have studied.

1) descriptive genre
2) instruction genre
3) explanatory genre
4) narrative genre

so on your right-hand side over there inside the wall
it is the old city area / the old city was surrounded by brick walls
and moats over there/ they are man-made moats/ so for Chiangmai
in the former time/ about 700 hundred years ago/ we had our own
kingdom, we call Lanna Kingdom! Chiangmai was the center of the kingdom at that time. King Mangrai, the same king who built Chiangrai, he first built Chiangrai to be the center of Lanna but it didn't work because it was not a good location, not good enough. so he moved down here and then chose a new place to build his city. he named the new city Chiangmai because Chiangmai means new city, and Chiangrai means city of King Mangrai. the word chiang means city so he built Chiangmai in the year 1296 and he built the area for the old city area and corporate with the brick walls in the triangle shape to protect from the army because this area is the route of the Burmese army. the Burmese went past this area to Bangkok to fight against Thai army that's why we have strong walls and gates! There are five gates altogether, one gate is that one, it was used for taking dead bodies out of the city! it's not good luck to someone, it brings bad luck.

during Songkran festival, did you hear about it? Songkran festival the water festival, that one, people will celebrate new year. it's Thai new year in April, people will celebrate by splashing water to each other, people stand around here, around the moats and play with water, they use water from this moat and throw it together.

now we are in front of the wall, this is the main wall, this entrance (how old is this temple?) I assume that it was built during the Sukhothai period. Sukhothai was the first capital of Thailand! (what are those people doing?) in Thailand, you know, we are Buddhists, right? and they come here to pay respect to the Lord Buddha, we have three sticks, one represents Lord Buddha, the second represents his teaching, the third one represents his disciples, so that you see three incense sticks very often like you see them 'wai', they call 'wai' in Thailand, the way they pay respect to the
Lord Buddha! we use lotus flowers as you see in the legend when our Lord Buddha stepped there would be a lotus under his feet wherever he stepped.

- Work in your group. Compare your findings with your peers. Discuss the structures of each genre including particular language features commonly found.

7.4. Construction of genre

- Work in group of five. Prepare an itinerary of a half-day trip in Phitsanulok. Then write down ideas about what you are going to tell your tourists. You need to combine the genres you have studied into your plan. After that take turns to talk about the program with your group.

- The representative of each group presents your talk to the whole class.

7.4. Assessment

- Assess your friends' performance using the given checklist.
- Discuss the results of the assessment.
### Appendix II: Class scores for the four genres

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OD</th>
<th>LF</th>
<th>OD+LF</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1*</td>
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<td>47</td>
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<td>S2</td>
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<td>44</td>
<td>91</td>
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<td>S3*</td>
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<td>64</td>
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<td>S4*</td>
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<td>S5*</td>
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<td>S33</td>
<td>44</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>S34*</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: OD = organization of ideas, LF = language features

* These students' commentaries were chosen to be transcribed for intensive analysis.
Appendix III: Tourist Questionnaire

Part 1: General Background Information. Please tick one item for each of the following categories.

1. I am from....
   - An Asian country
   - A non-Asian country where English is not the first language
   - An English speaking country

2. This is....
   - My first trip to Asia
   - Not my first trip to Asia

3. I am a .....
   - Male
   - Female

4. I am ......
   - Under 30 years old
   - 30-39 years-old
   - 40-49 years-old
   - 50-59 years-old
   - 60 and over

Part 2: Fill out the following questionnaire, checking the box which best describes your response to each statement. You may add a comment for any item on the last page.

Number your comments by the same numbers as the items in the questionnaire.

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = Neither agree nor disagree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

SA  A  N  D  SA  A  N  D  SA  A  N  D

1. I feel that the commentary given by the Thai tour guide was clearly presented.

2. The commentary was too formal.

3. The commentary was relevant to the itinerary of the tour.
4. The commentary was well organised.
5. The commentary was of appropriate length.
6. The tour guide seemed knowledgeable.
7. The tour guide seemed confident.
8. When I asked a question, the tour guide satisfactorily answered my questions.
9. The tour guide spoke English fluently.
10. The vocabulary used was suitable to the subject of the commentary.
11. I understood the vocabulary used.
12. I understood the tour guide's pronunciation.
13. The tour guide spoke slowly and clearly.
14. The vocabulary used was appropriate.
15. Sometimes I didn't know what to do.
16. The instructions were given too quickly.
17. I couldn't hear the commentaries.
18. There weren't any opportunities for questions.
19. The tour guide spent too much time answering questions.

PART 3 Written Comments
Appendix IV: Tour Agency Manager Questionnaire

Part 1: General Background Information. Please tick ✓ one item for each of the following categories.

1. Sex
   ___ Male    ___ Female

2. Work experience
   ___ less than 5 years    ___ 5-10 years    ___ 11-15 years
   ___ 16-20 years    ___ over 20 years

3. Number of tour guides employed
   Temporary ___ none ___ 1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ more than 4
   Permanent ___ none ___ 1 ___ 2 ___ 3 ___ 4 ___ more than 4

4. Sources of information about Thai tour guide English.
   ___ self    ___ tourists ___ others

Part 2: Fill out the following questionnaire, checking the box which best describes your response to each statement. You may add a comment for any item on the last page. Number your comments by the same numbers as the items in the questionnaire.

   SA=Strongly Agree, A=Agree, N=Neither agree nor disagree, D=Disagree,
   SD=Strongly Disagree

SA    A    N    D    SD

1. I feel that the commentaries given by the Thai tour guides are clearly presented.
   ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

2. The commentaries are too formal.
   ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

3. The commentaries are well organized.
   ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

4. The commentaries are of appropriate length.
   ___ ___ ___ ___ ___

5. The tour guides seem knowledgeable.
   ___ ___ ___ ___ ___
6. The tour guide seem confident.
7. When tourists ask questions, the tour guides satisfactorily answer their questions.
8. The tour guide speaks English fluently.
9. The vocabulary used is suitable to the subject of the commentary.
10. Thai Tour guides have strong Thai accent.
11. The tour guides speak slowly and clearly.
12. The vocabulary used is appropriate.
13. The instructions are given too quickly.
14. Thai tour guides make too many mistakes in grammar.

**PART 3 Written Comments**

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Appendix V: Tourist Agency Manager Interview Schedule

1. How long have you been in your position as a manager?
2. How many tour guides have you employed?
3. Have you received any complaints from your customers about your tour guides?
4. What do you think about your tour guides' command of English?
5. Do they have any problems using English to do their jobs?
6. What are the areas of their English skills that should be improved?
Appendix VI: Student Attitude Questionnaire

Directions: Read the following items and choose a response shown after each item. If you have more comments, please write them in the space under each item.

SA = strongly Agree, A = Agree, N = Neither agree nor disagree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree

**Attitude towards English**

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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. If I speak English, I will be praised by my family and friends.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>2. I wish that I could speak English fluently.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>3. I wish that I could speak English accurately.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>4. I believe I will continue to need good English skills after I graduate.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>5. The ability to communicate in English is very important for success in my future career.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>6. I feel uneasy and lack confidence when</td>
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speaking English.

Comments: ___________________________ 

7. I should not be forced to learn English.

Comments: ___________________________ 

8. I enjoy watching English language TV and movies.

Comments: ___________________________ 

9. The use of English is one of the most important factors for Thailand's economic development today.

Comments: ___________________________ 

10. Subjects should be taught in English at university.

Comments: ___________________________ 

11. I feel uncomfortable when hearing one Thai speaking to another in English.

Comments: ___________________________ 

13. English allows me to meet and talk with more people.

Comments: ___________________________ 

14. I can understand and appreciate other countries' cultures and beliefs if I use English well.

Comments: ___________________________ 

Atitudes towards tour guide English lessons.

15. I like practicing the sounds of English.

Comments: ___________________________ 

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comment Number</th>
<th>Statement</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I like my friends to correct me when I talk.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>I enjoy speaking in front of the class.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I prefer to prepare my talk by myself.</td>
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<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I like my friends to assess my speech.</td>
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<td>20</td>
<td>I like listening to samples of talk in order to prepare my own talk.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Analysing the samples of talks is enjoyable.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>By learning the rules of grammar, I can speak better.</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I prefer talking in Thai with my friends while working with my peers.</td>
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</table>
### Attitudes towards the English teacher

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<tr>
<td>24. The teacher should teach vocabulary explicitly.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>25. I can do best when taught as a whole class by the teacher.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>26. The teacher should teach:</td>
<td>how to organise a talk.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>27. The teacher should provide feedback after my talk.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>28. The teacher should correct all the grammar errors students make.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>29. The teacher should talk more than students do in class.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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<td>30. Teacher should teach rules of language appropriacy.</td>
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<td>Comments:</td>
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