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Theme:

**An Analysis of the Tour Guide Discourse at
the National Office of Tourism, Ghardaia: a Case Study**

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List of Abbreviations

CDA: Critical Discourse Analysis

DA: Discourse Analysis

EFTGA: European Federation of Tourist Guide Association

ESP: English for Specific Purposes

ONAT: Office National du Tourisme

WTO: World Tourism Organisation

WTTC: World Travel and Tourism Council

Abstract

The present work was conducted through a qualitative and exploratory research that sought insight into the language of tour guides. Data were obtained through in-field observation and semi-structured interviews of respondents representing the National Office of Tourism (aka ONAT) Tour Agency in Ghardaia. The findings of the study show that tour guides have a crucial role in enhancing the image of the whole tourism sector as they are the front line staff. Tour guides are the persons who take care of tourists from their arrival till their departure. They are the ones who spend the longest periods of time with tourists. Tour guides are key constituents of the tourism sector due to their significant role to demonstrate historical and cultural products of the country to tourists. They are responsible of giving positive impressions to visitors and it is their duty to make the trip successful.

The main role of tour guides is to provide tourists with information. Yet, tour guides' role is multi-faceted; it is not limited to information disseminating. A tour guide is a leader, a teacher, a translator, an information-giver and an entertainer. As roles generate language, each role performed by the tour guides has its specific linguistic patterns and features. Besides being simple, tour guide's language is not constant. It varies depending on the situation and the need of the role. It includes diverse kinds of genres as it alters from description to narration, to direction, to translation and many other linguistic styles.

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General Introduction

The present research tries to conduct an analysis of the discourse of tour guides. A specific interest is given to the linguistic interaction of the tour guides within the context of tourism.

The importance of the tour guides in the field of tourism lies in their direct contact with tourists and their spending longer periods of time with them in comparison with other staff of the same field. It is necessary, then, for tour guides to be given much more consideration as a tribute for their valuable services.

The tour guide has to know how to deal with people from different backgrounds and cultures. He has to be careful and must adapt himself to any circumstances that are likely to happen during the journey. And he has to endure tiresome long periods with the tourists as he is the one who spends the longest time with them.

The motivation to do this research stems from the eagerness to discover the language used by tour guides to perform their roles within the tourism context. The tour guide has significant roles using a variety of linguistic genres, but, unfortunately, his language has gained little recognition by researchers (Holloway, 1981). This paper is an attempt to broaden the existing literature that relates tourism in one of its specific contexts, which is tour guiding, with discourse.

Tour guides play important roles in disseminating information and interpreting local culture to foreign tourists through the use of language.

Although tour guides play a significant role in the field tourism, tour guide repertoire has gained little consideration and a small number of works have been conducted about it. Tour guides are feeling the pressure of being linguistically

accurate and efficient as they are the ones who have the biggest share of interaction with tourists.

The purpose of this paper is to explore the language of tour guides for ONAT Tour Agency in Ghardaia in order to have new insights into it. The study will seek to find out the specific features and properties of the language used by tour guides within the context of tourism. To fulfill the purpose of the study, semi-structured interviews and field observations techniques will be conducted within a case study approach. It is felt that tour guide language deserves much more attention than it has received so far in research. The present study will call for more research to develop tour guiding discourse.

According to Locke, Spirduso and Silverman (1987), research questions are appropriate to qualitative, exploratory studies or incidents about which there is minimal knowledge.

Based on the felt need to explore the tour guides' language in the context of tourism to interact with English speaking tourists, the following guiding questions were developed for this research study:

- What is specific in the language of tour guides at the ONAT Tour Agency, Ghardaia?
- What are the roles of tour guides?
- How do tour guides perform their linguistic role?

The study is considered important because of the following reasons:

First, it will contribute to fill some void of the existing knowledge of discourse in terms of tour guiding. Second, it is hoped that the findings of this study will be helpful to depict the tour guiding linguistic features at ONAT Tour Agency, Ghardaia and promote the study of tour guide discourse. Third, this study will

help set the ground for more studies in the field of tour guide discourse in order for the tourism sector in Ghardaia to be, linguistically, more competitive and gain more benefits through the readiness of its tour guides.

In keeping with the aims of this enquiry, the study will confine itself to interviewing and observing the tour guides of ONAT public tour agency. The results of the study may not be relevant to other tour guides in different agencies.

The selection of the agency under study was based on the recommendations of local tourism officials because of its distinction in what concerns the number of foreign tourists.

A limited number of available English speaking tour guides were possible due to the scarcity of English speaking tourists visiting the region. The small number of English speaking tourists made it quite impossible to conduct more in-field observations with the tour guides; the situation worsened due to the unexpected events that have lately occurred in the region.

This thesis is presented into three chapters. Chapter (I) includes a review of the relevant literature on discourse and tour guiding, with an attempt to give particular attention to the combination of both topics, though the lack of sufficient works. Chapter (II) is a description of the research method and the rationale behind the use of qualitative means to collect and analyze data. This chapter discusses and justifies the research strategy (a case study) and data collection techniques (based on in-depth observations and semi-structured interviews) to be adopted in the empirical collection of data for this study. In addition, the limitations of the adopted approach to this research are discussed. Chapter (III) discusses the data gathered from the notes taken through in-field observations and the face-to-face

encounters with the tour guides. This chapter also provides a summary of the results of the analysis.

Chapter I: Literature Review

1.1 Introduction

This chapter summarizes the key points related to the study. It aims at reviewing the literature available in scholarly journals and seminal works on both discourse and tourism. The next section combines the two fields, discourse and tourism. The final section is devoted to tour guiding.

The literature review is aimed at highlighting the research gap in terms of the study of the language in relation to the discipline of tour guiding. This is true especially with respect to tourism experience, and there is a need to fill this gap because of the significant link between discourse and tour guiding. The reviewed aspects of the literature are presented under four headings: discourse, tourism, discourse and tourism, and tour guiding.

1.2 Discourse

The term discourse analysis stems etymologically from the Greek verb *analuein* ‘to deconstruct’ and the Latin verb *discurrere* ‘to run back and forth’. (Wodak and Krzyzanowski, 2008: 4)

The article *Discourse analysis* by Zellig Harris (1952) is considered to be the starting point of discourse studies. Harris was the first to use the term discourse analysis in a scientific article. He initiated a search for language rules which would explain how sentences were connected within a text by a kind of extended grammar. He had two main interests: the examination of the language beyond the level of the sentence and the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour calling this unit of analysis ‘discourse’. Harris suggests that the goal of discourse analysis is to discover how discourse differs from random sequences of

sentences (Cook, 1990; Malmkjær, 1995; Aijmer and Stenstrom, 2004; Renkema, 2004; Paltridge, 2008).

Discourse is a difficult notion to describe and, as most linguistic terms, there is no universal agreement on the exact definition of the concept. Sometimes it can seem as if each time it is used it means something different (Stubbs, 1983; Schiffrin, 1987, 1994; Gotti, 2003; Widdowson, 2004). Since discourse is a rapidly expanding discipline, the history of its development is diverse (Cook, 1990; Bechtold, 2011) and its concept has become vague (van Dijk, 1983; Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002; Stede, 2012).

According to Gee (2011), there is no grand agreed-upon body of content for discourse and there are too many approaches and controversies for that. Thompson (1984:74) refers to discourse analysis as *'a rapidly expanding body of material which is concerned with the study of socially situated speech...united by an interest in extended sequences of speech and a sensitivity to social context'*.

Jaworski and Pritchard (2005) see discourse as a complex and contested concept which evolves and assumes an increasingly significant role in social science research. Discourse is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. It grew out of work in different disciplines in the 1960s and early 1970s, including linguistics, semiotics, psychology, anthropology and sociology (McCarthy, 1991; Wodak and Krzyzanowski, 2008).

“Arising out of a variety of disciplines, including linguistics, sociology, psychology, and anthropology, discourse analysis has built a significant foundation for itself in Descriptive, and latterly, Applied, Linguistics. The various disciplines that feed into discourse analysis have shared a common interest in language in use, in how real

people use real language, as opposed to studying artificially created sentences.”
McCarthy (1991: 1)

Discourse analytical approaches take as their starting point the claim of the structuralist and poststructuralist linguistic philosophy that our access to reality is always through language (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002). Mills (2001) considers it as a reaction to a more traditional form of linguistics (formal, structural linguistics) which focuses on the constituent units and structure of the sentence. Trappes-Lomax (2004) states that discourse is part of Applied Linguistics but does not belong exclusively to it; it is a multi-disciplinary field, and hugely diverse in the range of its interests. Since its roots are not just in linguistics (Hymes, 1974) and because of the variety of fields with which it interacts, discourse has several related and often quite loose meanings (Baker and Ellece, 2011). It is one of the most vast but also least defined areas of linguistics (Aijmer and Stenstrom, 2004).

Schiffrin, Tannen, and Hamilton (2001: 1) observe that most definitions of discourse fall into three main categories: (1) anything beyond the sentence, (2) language use, and (3) a broader range of social practice that includes nonlinguistic and nonspecific instances of language (see also Coupland & Jaworski, 2001; Jaworski & Coupland, 2002, Jaworski and Pritchard, 2005). For some scholars what is important in discourse is just its structure, for others its functionality, for many others its social role, and for some others its communicative features in terms of context, cultural interaction, and so on (Schiffrin, 1994).

In their collection of classic papers in discourse analysis, Jaworski and Coupland (1999) include ten definitions from a wide range of sources. They all fall into three main categories: anything beyond the sentence, language use, and a broader

range of social practice that includes nonlinguistic and nonspecific instances of language.

The common denominator of these approaches relates to studying how language is used in context and exploring how language is shaped by the nature of human cognition and social-cultural activity. A number of source disciplines for the study of language in use include linguistics, psychology, pragmatics, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology (Trappes-Lomax, 2001).

According to Trappes-Lomax (2001), scholars study discourse from different backgrounds. Accordingly, they have quite different views of this concept. Trappes-Lomax (2001) provides a taxonomy concerning discourse based on these views. Discourse, as stated by the author, has been studied according to its principles and rules; its structure; its cultural context and its influential and critical aspect in human interactions.

1.2.1 Rules and Principles

Under this heading are grouped some approaches to ‘language description’ (Cutting, 2002:1) which seek to understand the means by which language users make sense in the light of various contextual factors (Trappes-Lomax, 2001). Discourse is seen as the product of terms of visible text, whether originally spoken and subsequently transcribed or originally written. Included are works in pragmatics (Levinson, 1983; Mey, 1993; Thomas, 1995; Yule, 1996; Grundy, 2000; Cutting, 2002); speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969); cooperativeness in interaction: the cooperative principle and its maxims (Grice, 1975) and procedures for determining relevance (Sperber & Wilson, 1995); politeness or tact and face (Goffman, 1967; Lakoff, 1973; Leech, 1983; Brown & Levinson, 1987; Kasper, 1997).

McCarthy (1991) argues that the study of language in use, as a goal of education, a means of education and an instrument of social control and social change, is the principal concern of Applied Linguistics. Brown and Yule (1988) argue that formal linguists are concerned with semantic relationships between constructed pairs of sentences and with their syntactic realisations. They are concerned, too, with relationships between sentences and the world in terms of whether or not sentences are used to make statements which can be assigned truth-values. They appeal to the very pragmatic approach to analyze discourse.

“They adopt a position which suggests that discourse analysis on the one hand includes the study of linguistic forms and the regularities of their distributions and, on the other hand, involves a consideration of the general principles of interpretation by which normally people make sense of what they hear and read.” Brown and Yule (1988: x)

Pragmatics emerged as a new direction in language studies. It is concerned with the study of the meaning of utterances in specific contexts of use (Jaworski and Coupland, 1999). Two influential works in the area of pragmatics, and relevant to the area of discourse analysis, are Austin’s (1962) *How to Do Things with Words* and Searl’s (1969) *Speech Acts*. Austin and Searl argued that language is to do things other than just to refer to the truth or falseness of statements. In his paper, ‘*Logic and Conversation*’, Grice (1975) argues that in order for a person to interpret what someone else says, some kind of cooperative principle must be assumed to be in operation. There is a set of principles which direct us to a particular interpretation of what someone says, unless we receive some indication to the contrary. Grice based his co-operative principle on four sub-principles, or

maxims. These are the maxims of quality, quantity, relation and manner (Paltridge, 2008).

Two further key notions in this area are politeness and face. The notion ‘face’ comes from Goffman’s (1967) work on face which ties up with notions of being embarrassed, humiliated, or ‘losing face’ (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Politeness and face are important for understanding why people choose to say things in a particular way in spoken and written discourse. Lakoff (1973) proposes three maxims of politeness: ‘don’t impose’, ‘give options’ and ‘make your hearer feeling good’ (Paltridge, 2008).

1.2.2 Functions and Structures

This heading sets the ground to some approaches that see discourse as an extended piece of text, which has some form of internal organisation, coherence or cohesion (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975; Carter and Simpson, 1989). The focus is on text, generally defined as language above, beyond or longer than the sentence, and especially on the structure of texts and on their formal (syntactic and lexical), or surface, features. A particular concern is given to the analysis of written texts (see, for example, Connor & Johns, 1990; Mann & Thompson, 1992). On the other hand, systemic-functional linguistics (Halliday, 1978; Halliday & Hasan, 1985; Martin, 1992) sees language not as an autonomous system but as part of the wider socio-cultural context. The aim is “*to look into language from the outside and specifically, to interpret linguistic processes from the standpoint of the social order*” (Halliday, 1978: 3). It provides a comprehensive theory of text analysis and genre (Martin, 2002).

According to Stubbs (1983: 9), discourse is language above the sentence or above the clause and would lend itself to the analysis of text structure and pragmatics.

For Stubbs, discourse analysis is *'to study large linguistic units such as conversational exchanges or written texts'*. He later notes that it also refers to *'the study of naturally occurring language'*.

Reed (1997) defines discourse as a framework with which the analyst approaches a text and explicates what it says and how it has been said, in addition to what has been understood and how it has been understood. Discourse is both the source of knowledge and the result of it (Johnstone, 2008).

The concrete representation of discourses is texts, or discursive 'units'. They may have a variety of forms: formal written records, such as news information, company statements and reports, academic papers; spoken words, pictures, symbols, artifacts, transcripts of social interactions such as conversations, focus group discussions, and individual interviews; or involve media such as TV programmes, advertisements, magazines, novels, etc. Texts are almost irrelevant if taken individually. It is only their interconnection that makes discourse analysis valuable. Discursive activity does not occur in a vacuum, and discourse itself does not hold a meaning (Bondarouk and Ruel, 2004).

Bondarouk and Ruel (2004) argue that the exploration of the interplay between discourse, text, and context builds the focus of discourse analysis. Therefore, we must observe selections of the texts that embody discourses. We cannot simply concentrate on individual texts but only on a set of them. However, we must refer to the concrete bodies of the texts. Similarly, we should examine the context in which the texts were found and discourses were produced.

Wodak (2006) relates discourse and society and suggests that there is an existence of a cognitive level in a model of text production. Considering the relationships between discourse and society, language use is part of social practice, or, in other

words, the language use which is beyond the literal meaning of sentences, causes different people to infer significantly different meanings when confronted with the same information.

1.2.3 Contexts and Cultures

Here are grouped some approaches which focus on the sensitivity of ways of speaking (and writing) to situational and cultural differences (Trappes-Lomax, 2001). It is based mainly on the American ethno-methodological view of discourse as the historically and culturally embedded sets of conventions which constitute and regulate such processes (Gumperz & Hymes, 1986; Duranti, 1997; Saville-Troike, 2003). The idea that we need, in addition to a theory of grammatical competence, a theory of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) arises from this fact. Speakers need knowledge not only of what is grammatically possible but also of what is appropriate and typically done. Another contributor to this view is the interactional sociolinguistics school (Schiffrin, 1994; Gumperz, 2001) which approaches discourse from a replicable analysis that accounts for the ability to interpret what participants intend to convey in everyday communicative practice (Gumperz, 2001).

Discourse is a particular way of talking about and understanding the world. Language is not merely a channel through which information about underlying mental states and behaviour or facts about the world are communicated; it is a 'machine' that generates and constitutes the social world (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002). Discourse Analysis is a field of study that examines the way in which a text communicates an intended message between a sender (speaker/writer) and receiver (hearer/reader) (Bechtold, 2011). We are fundamentally historical and cultural beings and our views of, and knowledge about, the world are the

'products of historically situated interchanges among people' (Gergen, 1985:267).

Discourse analysis started more systematically to embrace the study of modalities other than language (Barthes, 1973, 1977), for example, visual images (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996, 2001), music and other non-linguistic sounds (van Leeuwen, 1999), non-verbal communication and body image (e.g. Goodwin, 1981, 2000; Coupland & Gwyn, 2003). A later image of discourse was as a combination of both spoken and written texts which allowed us describe discourse as all forms of spoken interaction, and written texts of all kinds (Potter and Wetherell 1987).

“The interest of discourse is beyond language in use to language use relative to social, political and cultural formations ..., language reflecting social order but also language shaping social order, and shaping individuals' interaction with society.” (Jaworsky and Coupland, 1999: 3)

To discourse analysts, 'discourse' usually means the actual instances of communicative action in the medium of language (Johnstone, 2008), although some define the term more broadly as 'meaningful symbolic behaviour' in any mode (Blommaert, 2005). Communication can of course involve other media besides language. Media such as photography, clothing, music, architecture, and dance can be meaningful, too, and discourse analysts often need to think about the connections between language and other modes of semiosis, or meaning-making (Johnstone, 2008).

For Bechtold (2011), discourse analysis evaluates linguistics and discourse, but not apart from people. Analysis of discourse, then, is an analysis of discourse in

use, which cannot be separated from the purposes and functions of use in human interaction.

1.2.4 Power and Politics

Too much consideration is given to pragmatic and sociolinguistic approaches to power in language and critical discourse analysis. Discourse is viewed from the linguistic, cognitive and social processes whereby meanings are expressed and intentions interpreted in human interaction (Trappes-Lomax, 2001). Largely grounded in a European tradition of scholarship (Blommaert, 2005), critical approaches to discourse analysis do not hold a monopoly on interest in the power and politics of discourse. Pragmatic and sociolinguistic approaches necessarily share this concern (Fairclough, 1989, 1995; van Dijk, 2001; Luke, 2002). They are concerned with issues of identity, dominance and resistance and draw on critical, poststructuralist, feminist and postcolonial theory, on Foucault's anti-essentialist philosophy of knowledge/power and Bourdieu's theory of symbolic capital (Trappes-Lomax, 2001).

Michel Foucault is one of the theorists most often referred to when discussing the term discourse (Mills, 2001) as he played a central role in the development of discourse analysis through both theoretical work and empirical research (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002). The majority of contemporary discourse analytical approaches follow Foucault's conception of discourses as relatively rule-bound sets of statements which impose limits on what gives meaning. Foucault developed a theory of power/ knowledge. Instead of treating agents and structures as primary categories, Foucault focuses on power. In common with discourse, power does not belong to particular agents such as individuals or the state or

groups with particular interests; rather, power is spread across different social practices (Jorgensen and Phillips, 2002).

Foucault (1972: 49) defines discourse as ‘practices which systematically form the objects of which they speak’. Burr (1995:48) expands on Foucault’s definition as:

“a set of meanings, metaphors, representations, images, stories, statements and so on that in some way together produce a particular version of events . . . Surrounding any one object, event, person etc., there may be a variety of different discourses, each with a different story to tell about the world, a different way of representing it to the world.”

Locke (2004) considers Fairclough as one of the founders of critical discourse analysis. Norman Fairclough (1995: 132) has described the issue as aiming

“to systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and ideologically shaped by relations of power and struggles over power.”

For Fairclough (1995), the study of discourse is the study of any aspect of language use, no matter whether it is speech or writing, discourse is seen as a variety of semiotic elements of social practice (language, non-verbal, visual). Fairclough (1989: 14) considers discourse to be “*language as social practice determined by social structures.*” Because language is a part of society, it is a social and a socially conditioned process. Explaining social practice, Fairclough (1989: 18-19) gives three features: “*Firstly, that language is a part of society, and not somehow external to it. Secondly, that language is a social process. And*

thirdly, that language is a socially conditioned process, conditioned that is by other (non-linguistic) parts of society.”

In line with this analytical framework of looking at discourse as social practice, he has distinguished three stages of “Critical Discourse Analysis” referred to as “description”, “interpretation” and “explanation” (Fairclough, 1989: 26).

According to Fairclough (1995), language is part of the society, which means discourse involves social conditions of production and interpretation. To analyze language as discourse and as social practice, all these things have to be looked at: analyzing texts, analyzing processes of production and interpretation and analyzing the relationship between texts, processes, and their social conditions.

The first stage, description, refers to the formal properties of the text. The analysis of texts involves traditional linguistic analysis such as vocabulary and semantics, grammar, phonology and writing system. Apart from that, it also involves analysis of textual organization, cohesion and the overall structure. Both meanings and forms are equally important in the analysis of texts.

The second stage, interpretation, looks at the relationship between text and interaction. Discourse practice is the mediator between the textual and the socio-cultural practice. This involves the inter-textual analysis of texts in which it looks at texts from a discourse practice point of view. The goal of this is to explain and describe the many genres and discourses available in the texts. Inter-textual analysis is backed by linguistic analysis, and is interpretive in nature. It also depends on the understanding of social and cultural practice.

This brings to the socio-cultural practice, the final dimension in CDA. The relationship between interaction and social context is the explanation stage. This looks at the bigger picture of the socio-cultural contexts so that the

communicative event will be better understood. There is a distinction between economic, political and cultural aspects as economic and political aspects involve power and ideology issues whereas cultural aspect deals with the question of value and identity.

Hawthorn (1992) considers discourse as linguistic communication seen as a transaction between speaker and hearer, as an interpersonal activity whose form is determined by its social purpose. According to Gee (1999), discourses are a form of social or ideological practice which governs the ways in which people think, speak, interact, write and behave. Gee (1999) distinguishes crucially between two senses of the word discourse: what Gee calls discourse and Discourse. The former refers to instances of language in use, actual speech events whereas the latter refers to abstract ways of using language (Trappes-Lomax, 2001). Discourse is using language, of thinking, valuing, acting, and interacting, in the right places and at the right times with the right object, not just to say things, but to do things. Gee defines Discourses as ways of being in the world, or forms of life which integrate words, acts, values, beliefs, attitudes, and social identities, as well as gestures, glances, body positions, and clothes (Gee, 1999, 2011).

People use language to communicate, co-operate, help others, and build things like marriages, reputations, and institutions. They also use it to lie, advantage themselves, harm people, and destroy things like marriages, reputations, and institutions (Gee, 2011). Richardson (2007: 10) puts it the same way when he states that:

“Language use exists in a kind of dialogue with society: language is produced by society and (through the effect of language use on people) it goes on to help recreate it. Language *first* represents social realities and *second* contributes to the production

and reproduction of social reality of social life. This ‘social-ness’ of language is revealed in a number of ways: for example, the way in which people speak to each other is in part a product of social context. You wouldn’t speak to someone in a pub the same way as you would in a court of law (unless you wanted to be found in contempt).”

Van Dijk looks at discourse as “a communicative event including conversational interaction, written text, as well as associated genres, face work, typographical layout, images and other semiotic, or multimedia dimension of signification” (van Dijk cited in Wodak and Meyer, 2001: 20). Jorgensen and Phillips (2002: 1) define discourses as a “particular manner to talk about and understand the world. Based on Foucault’s notions of the link between discourse and power, discourses are forms of knowledge or powerful sets of assumptions, expectations and explanations.”

According to Jorgensen and Phillips (2002), discourse analysis can be seen as a series of interdisciplinary approaches that can be used to explore many different social domains in many different types of studies. Discourse analysis may, though, be defined as the analysis of patterns of language structures that people’s utterances follow when they take part in different domains of social life.

Broadly speaking, discourse is a term that has become increasingly common in a wide range of academic and non-academic contexts. It can be defined as the study of language viewed communicatively or communication viewed linguistically (Trappes-Lomax, 2001). Any more detailed spelling out of such a definition typically involves reference to concepts of language in use, language above or beyond the sentence, language as meaning in interaction, and language in situational and cultural context. Depending on their particular convictions and

affiliations – socialism, functionalism, cultural interactionism, etc. – linguists will tend to emphasize one, or some, rather than others in this list.

Accordingly, discourse can be defined as:

1. The linguistic, cognitive and social processes whereby meanings are expressed and intentions interpreted in human interaction (language as meaning in interaction),
2. The historically and culturally embedded sets of conventions which constitute and regulate such processes (language in situational and cultural context),
3. A particular event in which processes are instantiated (language above or beyond the sentence) or
4. The product of such an event, especially in term of visible text, whether originally spoken and subsequently transcribed or originally written (language in use).

Each of the four linguistic views above tends to favour one or more of a variety of approaches to conduct their research that have developed from these various sources (Trappes-Lomax, 2001).

1.3 Tourism

Down through the ages, various historic civilizations have made major contributions to travel. The Sumerians (4000 BC) were early traders, bringing goods from Egypt and India into the Fertile Crescent. They have been credited with major contributions to civilization (writing, the working wheel, money and the concept of a travel guide), all of which were useful to early tourism development (Edgell et al., 2008).

Academics have debated theoretical definitions of tourism for several decades. There are two main ways of attempting to define travel and tourism demand: Technical definitions, concerned with who is (or isn't) a tourist rather than what tourism is, and conceptual definitions which attempt to define the meaning or function of travel and tourism as a social activity (Sharpley, 2006). Webster's New University Dictionary defines tourism as 'travelling for pleasure; the business of providing tours and services for tourists.' The World Tourism Organization was endorsed by the UN's Statistical Commission in 1993 devised the following definition: "*Tourism comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes.*" Tourism is a complex, multidisciplinary subject, requiring knowledge of not only business and management but also such diverse disciplines as law, town and country planning, geography, sociology and anthropology.

Jafari (2000) defines tourism as the study of man (the tourist) away from his usual habitat, of the touristic apparatus and networks responding to his various needs, and of the ordinary (where the tourist is coming from) and non-ordinary (where the tourist goes to) worlds and their dialectic relationships. Mitchell (2006) defines tourism as the temporary movement of people to places other than work or home, the activities undertaken during their stay and the facilities created to meet their needs.

Edgell et al. (2008: 3) consider tourism as the practice of travelling and also the business of providing associated products, services and facilities. "*It is not a single industry but instead an amalgam of industry sectors – a demand force and supply market, a personal experience and a complicated international*

phenomenon". Goeldner and Ritchie (2006) define tourism as the processes, activities, and outcomes arising from the relationships and the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, and surrounding environments that are involved in the attracting and hosting of visitors.

"When we think of tourism, we think primarily of people who are visiting a particular place for sightseeing, visiting friends and relatives, taking a vacation, and having a good time. They may spend their leisure time engaging in various sports, sunbathing, talking, singing, taking rides, touring, reading, or simply enjoying the environment. If we consider the subject further, we may include in our definition of tourism people who are participating in a convention, a business conference, or some other kind of business or professional activity, as well as those who are taking a study tour under an expert guide or doing some kind of scientific research or study." Goeldner and Ritchie (2006: 4)

Durán Muñoz (2011) argues that tourism is the mirror through which many countries show themselves to the world. It is an activity which involves the direct contact between cultures and all that this includes folklore, customs, history, etc. Robinson (1998) considers tourism to be the 'largest of multi-national activities.' Within the same vein, Sheller and Urry (2004) add that 'Travel and tourism' is the largest industry in the world.

The first characteristic to note is that this is a service rather than a tangible good. The intangibility poses particular difficulties for those whose job it is to market tourism. Selling holidays is like selling dreams. When tourists buy a package tour abroad, they are buying more than a simple collection of services, such as an airline seat, hotel room, three meals a day and the opportunity to sit on a sunny beach; they are also buying the temporary use of a strange environment, incorporating what may be, for them, novel geographical features – old world

towns, tropical landscapes – plus the culture and heritage of the region and other intangible benefits, such as service, atmosphere and hospitality. The planning and anticipation of the holiday may be as much a part of its enjoyment as is the trip itself. Then, recalling the experience later and reviewing videos or photos are further extensions of the experience. These are all part of the product, which is, therefore, a psychological as well as a physical experience. The challenge for the marketer of tourism is to match the dream to the reality (Holloway, 2009).

Another characteristic of tourism is that it cannot be brought to the consumer. Rather, the consumer must be brought to the product. All destinations share certain characteristics. Their success in attracting tourists will depend on the quality of three essential benefits that they offer them: attractions, amenities (or facilities) and accessibility (or ease with which they can travel to the destination) (Edgell et al., 2008).

Formal study of tourism is a relatively recent development, the result of which has been that the tourism business has sometimes lacked the degree of professionalism we have come to expect of other industries. It was the expansion of tourism in the 1960s and 1970s that finally led to the recognition that the study of tourism was something to be taken seriously (Holloway, 2009).

In 1992, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) released the first estimates indicating that travel and tourism is one of the world's largest industries and a generator of quality jobs (Goeldner and Richie, 2006). By 1992, it had become the largest industry and largest employer in the world (Theobald, 2005). In many communities and countries throughout the world, tourism is the most valuable industry (Edgell et al., 2008). Worldwide arrivals have increased from 25,282, in 1950, to 625 million in 2000, and tourist receipts (excluding air

transport) from \$US 2,943 million, in 1950, to US\$445 billion in 2000 (WTO, 2001).

The whole tourism business is revolving around the tourist who is defined by Webster's New University Dictionary as 'one who travels for pleasure.' Goeldner and Ritchie (2006:14) argue that the "very heart of the tourism phenomenon model is unequivocally the tourist, and the travel experiences that he or she seeks when visiting a tourism destination." Cooper and Hall (2008) consider the term 'tourist' as the concept we use to describe those consumers who are engaged in voluntary temporary mobility in relation to their home environment. Edgell et al. (2008) see the tourist as the temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the country visited, the purpose of whose journey can be classified under one of the following headings: (a) leisure, recreation, holiday, health, study, religion or sport; and (b) business, family, mission or meeting. Goeldner and Ritchie (2006) define a tourist as any person on a trip between two or more countries or between two or more localities within his/her country of usual residence.

Tourists are motivated to travel for, amongst other reasons, a better understanding of the culture of the place visited. Supporting this premise is Quiroga's (1990) study of tourists experiencing guided coach tours of Europe, which reported that 45% of respondents gave 'to broaden their cultural horizons' as their motivation to travel. The next highest response was 20% for the motive 'to increase opportunities for social interaction'. Additionally, 35% of her sample of tourists mentioned cultural enrichment as a specific reason for satisfaction at trip's end. The premise is also supported by Ryan and Glendon's (1998) study of the motivations of British holidaymakers. The 'pull' motivations of 'discover new places and things' and 'increase my knowledge' scored second and sixth

respectively out of thirteen motivation variables. Both these variables are concerned with the transfer of cultural understanding (McDonnell, 2001).

When tourists enter particular stages, they are usually informed by pre-existing discursive, practical, embodied norms which help guide their performative orientations and achieve a working consensus about what to do. (Edensor, 2001: 71)

1.4 Discourse and Tourism

The first comprehensive study on the language of tourism and its influence on the behaviour of people is Graham Dann's crucial work *The Language of Tourism* (1996); in which the author claims that the tourism industry exploits language to allure and control tourists and their experience of the destination. Dann (1996) argues that the language of tourism attempts to persuade, lure, woo and seduce millions of human beings via many forms and convert them from potential into actual clients. Thurlow and Jaworski (2007) point out the inherent discursiveness of tourism, i.e. the extent to which tourism is always a heavily textually mediated practice. They argue that the structuring of the tourist gaze, i.e. tourist patterns of consumption, is commonly acknowledged to be pre-figured by a host of discursive (including linguistic and visual) practices.

Durán Muñoz (2011) claims that tourism has a discourse of its own and it has recently started to be investigated from a linguistic perspective. The language of tourism is thus a great deal more than a metaphor. The author considers tourism language as a joint element between tourists and the place they are visiting and their cultures. Agorni (2012) considers the language of tourism as a form of cultural mediation, as it translates cultural values by promoting the identity of specific geographical areas and their communities. Agorni (2012) argues that the

language of tourism has become a productive field of research, stimulating work in various fields, such as cultural studies, discourse analysis, and specialized discourse, to name just a few. In their analysis of tourism communication, Boyer and Viallon (1994) argue that it is not so much “a place that is inherently touristic but rather it is the language that makes it so.”

Haugen (1972) puts it more specific to start mapping the genres and ecologies of language (and discourse) in tourism – their functions, uses, contexts, speakers, symbolic and economic capital, and so on. Cohen and Cooper (1986, qtd. in Dann, 1996) elicit several distinguished varieties from tourism discourse. They observe an interesting phenomenon in the language use. Apart from discourse of tourism and expressions indicative for the sociolinguistic, Dann (1996) lists several other terms used by researchers, which demonstrate that tourism is more and more being regarded as a language. These associated references are: word power, cliché, formulae, vocabularies, speech, talk, voices, idiom, semantics, grammar, and text. He claims that tourism is also referred to as communication, advertising, publicity, promotion, and even propaganda.

Calvi (2000) claims that although tourism is a fragmented discipline with an uncertain object of study, on a professional basis, the tourism sector is easily recognisable and its language can be considered specific of a particular professional field. Dann (1996) argues that the language of tourism is similar to everyday language, however, it is a very special type of communication. According to Ding (2008), tourism English tends to use objective and concise language in a clean logical way. The language of tourism has successfully combined components drawn from everyday language together with specifically-

devised elements referring to the most specialized concepts, according to Sager, Dungworth and McDonald (1998).

Tourism language shows some particular lexical, syntactic and textual features which justify its inclusion as a specialized discourse. The language of tourism must be definitely considered an independent specialized language which presents its own features and terminology (Durán Muñoz, 2011). Gotti (2003: 24) provides a definition for the language of tourism as a specialized discourse as “*the specialist use of language in contexts which are typical of a specialized community stretching across the academic, the professional, the technical and the occupational areas of knowledge and practice*”. Gotti (2003) identifies two levels of expression for the language of tourism. This language may be: 1) highly specialised discourse used by experts in the field of tourism to communicate to one another; 2) similar to general discourse when it is adopted in interactions between specialists and non-specialists.

1.5 Tour Guiding

The Oxford English Dictionary (1933) defines the concept ‘guide’ as ‘*one who leads or shows the way, especially to a traveller in a strange country, especially one who is hired by a traveller or tourist to conduct (e.g., over a mountain, through a forest or over a city or building) and to point out objects of interest*’. Another definition provided by the Professional Tour Guide Association of San Antonio (1997) states that the guide is a person with an effective combination of enthusiasm, knowledge, personality qualities and high standards of conduct and ethics who leads groups to the important sites, while providing interpretation and commentary. Collins (2000: 22) defines a tour guide as “*a person who guides*

visitors (in the language of their choice) and interprets the cultural and natural heritage of an area, possessing an area-specific qualification.”

While there are various definitions of a tour guide, an internationally accepted definition given by the International Association of Tour Managers and the European Federation of Tourist Guide Associations (EFTGA, 1998) is that a tour guide is a person who guides groups or individual visitors from abroad or from the home country around the monuments, sites and museums of a city or region; to interpret in an inspiring and entertaining manner, in the language of the visitor's choice, the cultural and natural heritage and environment.

These definitions conduct tour essential ingredients that constitute the work of the tour guide. That means the tour guide should have a passion for each tour subject and take an interest in each guest. In essence, the work of a tour guide not only involves the transmission of information, but also presenting it in an interesting and sincere manner (John, 2001).

1.5.1 History

Twenty-first-century travellers are the latest in a long line of travellers reaching back to antiquity. Guiding, counseling, and harboring the traveller is among the world's earliest vocations. The Epic of Gilgamesh (c. 2000 B.C.E.) recounts the travels of a Sumerian king who is given directions by a deity. By only a slight stretch of the imagination, Gilgamesh's deity might be regarded as the first travel guide. This adds a fourth reason to credit the Sumerians with the beginnings of the travel industry. (Goeldner and Richie, 2006: 40)

According to Herodotus (c. 484-424 BC) the role of guides was divided between those whose task was to shepherd the tourists around the sites (the periegetai) and others who were to provide information for their charges (the exegetai)

(Holloway, 2009). A fourteenth-century travellers' guide gave pilgrims detailed directions about the regions through which they would pass and the types of inns they would encounter along the often inhospitable routes (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006).

While tour guides have existed virtually as long as there has been travel (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006), tour guiding has received relatively little attention in the English-based literature (Ap & Wong, 2001; Holloway, 1981; Jafari, 1985), and there is a dearth of empirical research in this field (Black and Weiler, 2005). It is reported that there have been very few research studies on tour guides (Almagor 1985; Cohen 1982, 1985; Fine and Speer, 1985; Pearce 1984; El-Sharkawy, 2007; Skanavis and Giannoulis, 2010; Zhang and Chow, 2004). However, a number of authors, including Chan (2004), Cohen (1985), Geva and Goldman (1991), Holloway (1981), Hughes (1991), Pond (1993), and Weiler and Crabtree (1998) have explained the important roles that tour guides can play in enhancing tourists' experiences.

From the early 1980s the subject of guiding began to move into a more academic debate, (Holloway, 1981; Cohen 1985; Pearce, 1985; Pond, 1993; Bras & Dahles, 1999; Bradt, 2000; Ap & Wong, 2001; Cohen, 2002). Guided tours and tour guides have been examined from a number of perspectives. The collected literature shows that research has often been one of two distinctive types: 1) Social science inquiry based studies on the performances of guides and the roles they assume, and the experience of guided tours, including the tourist guide encounter. 2) Social science inquiry based on managerial. As far as this paper is concerned, the most part of literature review will focus on the first part, the role and performance of the tour guide.

Social scientists have considered guide roles and functions (Cohen, 1985) and the factors that shape the experience (Pearce, 1984); while practitioners and management academics have focused either on the vocational aspects of tour guiding (Pond, 1993; Collins, 2000; Mancini, 2001) or the broader issues surrounding training and certification (Ap and Wong, 2001; Mason and Christie, 2003; Black and Ham, 2005).

1.5.2 Role and Performance

Given the ubiquity of the tour guide in most areas of tourism, it is somewhat surprising that it has received so little attention from the academic tourism community. This lack of academic activity is of long standing. In 1985, *Annals of Tourism Research* devoted a special issue to the role of tour guides, under the guest editorship of Erik Cohen, but, this did not result in an explosion of knowledge on the topic (McDonnell, 2001).

The origin and evolution of the role of a today's guide was expounded by Cohen (1985) who was a pioneer of making tourist guiding a matter of scientific attention. Cohen explores more deeply the interpretative role of guides. In a review about the origin, structure and dynamics of tour guiding, Cohen (1985) creates a model based on its historic beginnings with the pathfinders and mentors of ancient times. He re-named these two roles to make them more relevant to modern tour guiding and called the pathfinder role 'leadership', and the mentor role 'mediatory'. As a leader, the tour guide has to organise (i.e. provide direction, access, and control) and build the team (i.e. ensure group cohesion and morale). As a mentor, the guide acts as an interactionary (or 'middleman') and is an educator for the group. (Cohen, 1985: 7)

In his opinion, the role of professional guides consists of four components, marking the communicative role as the most important: the selection of interesting points, presenting correct information and interpreting all that tourists do not seem to understand. Cohen especially emphasizes the significance of interpretation identifying that term with intercultural mediation, explaining it as translation of foreign and unknown elements of a host's culture into a cultural idiom which is close to the guest (1985).

The role of the mentor resembles the role of teacher, instructor, or advisor. The mentor points out the objects of interest, explains them, and tells tourists where and when to look and how to behave. Mentors may select the objects of interest in accordance with their own personal preferences or tastes, their professional training, directions received from their employer or the authorities, or the assumed interest of their party. (Cohen, 1985: 14)

Besides finding the way in an unmarked territory, guides are faced with the necessity to ensure themselves of the goodwill and hospitality of the natives of an area. Gaining access to a remote social environment and making themselves and their party welcome is a difficult task that makes heavy demands on the guides' mediation talents which makes them the pivotal link in an encounter among total strangers. If they operate in a new, still underdeveloped tourism area, they are called path-breakers, who literally select new objects of interest and make them accessible. In contrast to the pathfinder, the mentor focuses on organized mass tourism. Having had formal education and being employed by a tour operator allows them to work in the center of the tourism system. Unlike pathfinders, mentors work on established attractions and do not discover new sites or produce new narratives (Cohen, 1985: 21-26). These roles provide the basis for identifying

the attributes and competencies required to be a qualified or good guide (Black and Weiler, 2005).

According to Pond (1993), guiding ranks among the world's oldest professions. Humans have roamed the earth since they emerged, and the earliest accounts refer to those who lead the way – pathfinders, bear leaders, proxemos and cicerones – all antecedents of today's guide. Pond (1993: 17) states that a number of terms are in use to describe those whose responsibility it is to 'shepherd and inform' groups of tourists. 'Courier' is most commonly applied to describe the role, although other terms used include city guide, and step-on guide. Other terms with slightly different connotations are 'tour manager', 'escort', 'tour escort', or 'tour leader', 'tour captain', and 'tour guide'. The latter term is more commonly used to designate one whose principal task is seen as imparting information.

According to some studies (Fine & Speer, 1985; Holloway, 1981; Hughes, 1991), tour guides play different roles within their work, such as leader, salesperson, teacher, information-giver and organizer. Jafari (2000) argues that the main role of the tour guide is to shepherd and inform groups of tourists. He claims that courier is the most commonly applied term to describe the role, although other terms are used including tour leader, tour captain, tour escort, tour manager and tour guide.

In the contemporary context of tourism the pathfinder role is still extant in that the tour's itinerary shows the path to tourists wanting to discover more about the place they are visiting, or as Cohen (1985) puts it, through a socially defined territory to which they have no access. Pearce (1984) supports this idea when he points out that in cross-cultural settings many tourists still need a guide since such visitors frequently break social rules and intrude upon others privacy. In addition, the

pathfinder role gives the tourist a sense of security in a strange environment, a precursor to a successful tourist destination region, as Leiper (1996) has noted.

It is Cohen's (1985: 15) view that "*interpretation and not the mere dissemination of information, is the distinguishing communicative function of the trained tourist guide*". The dissemination of correct and precise information is considered to be the kernel of the guide's role. This is supported by some of the very few published training texts for guides - Barry (1991) and Mancini (1990). It is interesting to note that Mancini (1990) states that tourists are hungry to learn things; it is one of the main reasons they travel. The many who have made similar observations include Moscardo (1996), who states that interpretation is trying to produce mindful visitors; visitors who are active, questioning and capable of reassessing the way they view the world. In other words, interpretation of information can give tourists new insights and understandings of the culture of the area they visit.

Cohen's proposition is reflected in the meagre literature on tour guides, including Nettekoven (1979: 142), who states that "*professional guides are ... the most important informants about touristic as well as social conditions of the destination*". This makes the tour guide a culture broker between the cultures of the host and guest or, in other words, a person who is familiar with and knowledgeable on all aspects of the host culture and who has some understanding of the culture of the guest (Nettekoven, 1979; Holloway, 1981; Hughes, 1991).

Ap and Wong (2001) assert that tour guides are the essential interface between the host destination and its visitors. It is about the key front-line players in the tourism industry, who are largely responsible for the customers' satisfaction with the services of a tourist destination. The tour guide has the capacity to play a pivotal

role in facilitating quality experiences for tourists (Black and Weiler, 2005). The guides must translate “*the strangeness of a foreign culture into a cultural idiom familiar to the visitors*” (Cohen, 1985: 15). They are entrusted with the public relations missions to encapsulate the essence of a place and to be a window onto a site, region, or country (Pond, 1993).

According to Gurung, Simmons, and Devlin (1996), guides in their role as brokers serve as a buffer, insulating many travelers from the difficulties and possibly, some delights of the visited culture ... indigenous guides play an important role in building better host–guest relationships.

Guides are becoming interpreters; they are not translators of other cultures in the limited sense of the word, but are mediators who enable tourists to experience the other culture; they are guides who encourage tourists to see, hear, smell, taste, and feel the other culture (Urry, 1990).

Schmidt (1979) examines the function of the guided tour and the circumstances under which starting from role-theory. Holloway (1981: 385-86) describes and analyses the way in which guides interpret their roles in coach tour settings. The role of tour guides is complex and it consists of numerous ‘sub-roles’. As sub-roles, Holloway lists: ‘information-giver and fount of knowledge’, ‘teacher or instructor’, ‘motivator and initiator into the rites of touristic experience’, ‘missionary or ambassador for one’s country’, ‘entertainer or catalyst for the group’, as well as ‘group leader and disciplinarian’.

The guide’s role calls for social involvement with the audience, in which the guide becomes catalyst. The guides will adopt practices designed to break the physical and psychological barriers. (Holloway, 1981: 384)

Cohen's (1985) seminal work on the guide's role structured the views of Holloway by going to the historical origins to clarify the roles and sub-roles of the guide. Cohen's schematic treatment helps to see how the role of the professional guide borders on that of other actors who may be present on the guided tour, such as tour managers. While Holloway claims that the guide role is little institutionalized, Cohen says that the guiding profession is semi-professionalized, even in the most advanced tourist countries (Megeed, 2010).

Bruner (2005) is in the same ground with Holloway. He depicts the tourists as active and equal co-producers. He finds that:

“the guided tour has the format of dialogic interaction between interpreters and small groups of tourists... The result is a very open format, more like a discussion than a lecture, one that allows improvisation and that facilitates the constructivist process.” (Bruner, 2005: 166)

McDonnell (2001) argues that while the original role of the mentor was one of spiritual and intellectual guidance, the contemporary mentoring role can be considered to be one of transmission of information and the interpretation of that information. The one constant in the evolution of sightseeing, as Adler (1989) observes, is that of discourse between the tourist, the mentor and eminent people encountered during the tour.

As tourism has become a mass phenomenon, opportunities for discourse with eminent people have lessened somewhat for the great majority of tourists. The discourse of discovery of information now is mainly between the tour guide and the tourist and, if done well, results in transference of cultural understanding between guide and tourist (McDonnell, 2001).

The description of the tour guide's roles shows that it is important in bridging the gaps between different cultures. Hughes (1991) points out that inappropriate commentary content and communication style have been shown to ruin an entire holiday. Inappropriate can mean a recitation of a list of names and dates that remind tourists of a school history lesson, rather than transferring understanding of the host culture (McDonnell, 2001).

McDonnell (2001) considers tour guides as the spin-doctors of tourism as it is through their interpretation of facts that tourists form impressions and understandings of the host culture.

Cross (1991), Mancini (1990) and Pond (1993) provide useful practical hands-on information about tour guiding practice, professionalism, and address issues such as the role of guiding, guiding skills and techniques, and the problems and issues that a guide may face when leading a tour. Pond (1993), for example, indicates that the role of the guide includes one who is: (1) A leader capable of assuming responsibility; (2) An educator to help the guest understand the places they visit; (3) An ambassador who extends hospitality and presents the destination in a way that make visitors want to return; (4) A host who can create a comfortable environment for the guest; and; (5) A facilitator who knows how and when to fulfill the previous four roles.

According to Howard (1997), the guide's role in this interaction includes- telling (provision of information); selling (interactive communication that explains and clarifies); participating (being a part of activity); and delegating (giving responsibility to some future behaviour).

Tour guides can be source of important brand knowledge; they mediate how visitors understand the significance of attractions (MacDonald, 2006) and they influence how visitors *“think, feel and behave in the short term (on site) and possibly in the long term once they have returned home”*. (Armstrong & Weiler, 2002: 104)

Pearce (1984) goes further and considers the emotional, cognitive and environmental factors that shape the tourist-guide interaction, the tourist experience and subsequent perceptions of the experience. His study also highlights the need to distinguish different types of tours in terms of their structure and content. More importantly, Pearce’s study highlights the tensions inherent in training tour guides, and provides hints at potential solutions (Lugosi and Bray, 2008).

Ferguson (2010) sees the tour guide to be an expert, a storyteller, a leader, and a problem solver. Tour guides lead groups of people on visits to sites of interest. Some guides lead short excursions that last only a few hours or a day. Other guides, sometimes called tour managers, lead groups of travellers on extended trips that can last anywhere from a few days to a month. A guide knows all about the local culture and neighborhoods, history, geography, points of interest, attractions, museums and architecture, shopping, entertainment, and restaurants. A tour guide must also direct the driver, interface with the clients, resolve emergencies, know where buses may legally drive and safely park for passengers to get on and off, coordinate admissions and make lunch recommendations.

According to Ferguson (2010), tour guides escort groups of people who are travelling to different cities and countries. Essentially, their job is to make sure

that their travelers have a safe and enjoyable trip by planning and overseeing every detail of the tour. Once the plans have been made and the tour begins, the guides' duties may include almost anything that makes the trip run smoothly. They must make sure that everything goes as planned, from transportation to accommodations to entertainment.

The tour guides are the monitors of the trip. Their familiarity with the locations gives them the opportunity to know the best places to eat; the ways to hotels; the places that tourists should see; the customs, laws and languages of the local people and the value of the local money in foreign currency. The tour guides should also know how to make any necessary reservations, plan tourists' entertainments in advance and make any alternative arrangements.

Rabotic (2010a) considers guides as relationship catalysts between visitors and local residents, enabling communication, comprehension and actions among people who speak different languages and belong to different cultures. Rabotic (2010a: 15) says that *'even though the visited place can make a tourist disappointed, the relation between places and information about them creates attraction and "draws" visitors.'*

Weiler and Ham (2001) underline the influence of a high-quality presentation to tourist satisfaction. At the same time that expectations of quality from both tourism industry stakeholders and consumers have been increasing (Jones, 1999), the role of the guide has gained prominence as a potentially key element in facilitating a quality tourist experience (Page & Dowling, 2002; Weiler & Ham, 2001).

Tour guides have basic activities in the tourism chain. The importance of tour guides cannot be undermined even though they may be expected to assume different roles in different contexts. In India, for example, they are often referred to as cultural ambassadors and gateways for canalizing information to tourists (Prakash and Chowdhary, 2010). In Taiwan they are salespersons for the tour company (Lan, 2000).

According to Weiler and Davis (1993) a tour leader or a tour guide is a person who is responsible for the delivery of the group travel experiences organized by a tour operator. Ang (1990) states that tour guides exist not merely as a mouthpiece, mindlessly rattling information or as a merciless shopping salesperson...the job calls for commitment, enthusiasm and integrity as the entire experience of the tourist lies in their hands.

Tour guiding constitutes a strategic factor in the representation of a destination area and in influencing the quality of the tourist experience, the length of stay, and the resulting economic benefits for a local community (Dahles, 2002). The guide is portrayed as someone who builds bridges among different groups of people through the deployment of money, services, access, and information (Gurung, Simmons and Devlin, 1996).

A sensitive way of guiding demands that the guides display a high level of professional skills and an intimate knowledge of local culture (Dahles, 2002). Extensive expertise is regarded as a prerequisite by which to establish the guide's professional status as a mediator of culture, either as a "pathfinder" who "provides access to an otherwise non-public territory" or as a "mentor" who "*services as a guru to the novice, adept, or seeker, guiding him towards insight, enlightenment*

or any other exalted spiritual state” (Cohen, 1985: 10). Consequently, tour guides are more likely to be highly educated and formally trained.

Black and Weiler (2005) contend that the tourism industry’s focus on quality including in the tour guiding arena is increasing. This has resulted in a range of mechanisms being developed and implemented to attempt to improve tour guiding standards in all types of guided tour experiences.

Cohen (1985) notes that the information imparted by guides must be purely neutral; and Bruner (2005) emphasizes that all narratives should be constructed and told in competing voices. Holloway (1981) says that many tourists underestimate the occupation of the tour guide and are often surprised by the level of education and the social background of the guide, finding this difficult to reconcile with their previous image of the job.

One of the main problems facing the job of a guide is seasonality. Jafari (2000) puts it clear that the role of a guide suffers from being a seasonal occupation ... it is often seen as a temporary or part-time job, attracting teachers, actors and others with a good knowledge of foreign languages.

Pond (1993: 13) claims that *“guides have aptly been called the orphans of the travel industry somewhat hidden as they are within the trade”* in that their roles, value, and welfare are often neglected. However, despite the lack of recognition and awareness of the guide profession, Pond states: *“The tour guide makes or breaks the tour”*.

Tour guides are leading elements in enhancing the image and the reputation of tourist destinations, with the service quality they deliver regarded as an important criterion of the overall quality of tourism service. Their main role is often

communicating with people and speaking to a group of tourists. The tour guides insure that the tour runs smoothly and provide the needed information.

In spite of the long global history, the role of the guide and the guided tour as a field of practice has been remarkably little institutionalized in the course of time compared with other professional fields (Holloway, 1981; Cohen, 1985). The role of guides in disseminating information, offering explanations, and developing narratives has become a current research theme (Dahles, 2002). Cohen (1985), Holloway (1981), Fine and Speer (1985), Cohen, Ifegan, and Cohen (2002) and Reisinger and Steiner (2006) examine guide's skills, their potential roles, and the ways in which performances of these roles create particular tourist experiences of place and history. These studies help to understand the complex, performative nature of guiding.

1.5.3 Requirements and Qualifications

Tour guides are expected to play better roles when given the right education and training. Prakash and Chowdhary (2010) state that the tour guide's performance depends on his competences which in turn depend on the training and learning he has been through.

Almagor (1985) observed that the tourists to the Moremi Wildlife Reserve of Botswana did not follow the directions and advice of the guides, and this lack of authority was ascribed to the guides' poor training, poor knowledge and poor language skills.

Recent studies on the Australian and Hong Kong tour guiding industries (Ap & Wong, 2001; Australian Tourism Export Council and Tourism Queensland, 2001; Wong, Ap, Yeung & Sandiford, 1999) have highlighted a series of issues and

problems associated with current tour guiding practices in some sectors of the industry. In Australia these include inadequate skills and unethical behaviour of tour guides and inadequate or unethical human resource and employment practices of tour operators.

In his article entitled '*The role of the tour guide in transferring cultural understanding*', Ian McDonnell (2001) seems to blame the Australian authorities not to give more importance to tour guide education and qualification. He gives examples of Cyprus tourism industry regulations and Poland which has just recently diverged from a centrally planned economy in which it would be assumed the tourism industry was heavily regulated. Poland, according to McDonnell (2001), gives more importance to tour guides, a rate similar to the largest tourist destination countries in the world, such as France and Britain. These countries have licensing systems for guides and their education takes place at university or a college, as well as on-the-job training. McDonnell (2001) adds that countries with large inbound tourism flows, such as Thailand, People's Republic of China, the Republic of China, India, Singapore and Korea, all have formal training and licensing of guides. It is difficult to understand why, of all countries with large numbers of inbound tourists, only the USA, Australia and New Zealand do not license tour guides.

McDonnell (2001) insists on tour guides to be expert in the culture of the destination and have a good understanding of the culture of the tourist in order for them to be effective in their role as a cultural bridge. This training requirement can vary from one that is tightly regulated, for example in Cyprus, where the Cyprus tourism organisation controls tour guides, to Australia, where anyone can set up as a tour guide without any qualifications. Andronicou (1979) states that in

Cyprus only Cypriot nationals can become a tour guide, they must be of decent character, have an appropriate educational background, and have graduated from the school for guides, which teach Cyprus history, archaeology, art and culture. He states that the culture broking role of the tour guide is seen as vitally important, which is why their professional requirements are so high.

The roles that a guide may be required to perform in order to facilitate a quality tourist experience point to a range of skills, attitudes and knowledge that tour guides need (Black and Weiler, 2005). In one of the few studies aimed at assessing the on-the-job performance of guides, Weiler and Crabtree (1998) found that many guides working in the ecotourism industry did not demonstrate all the knowledge, skills and attitudes needed to deliver quality tourist experiences and, as a result, in some cases a gap existed between what these guides should do on-the-job and what they actually do (Black and Weiler, 2005).

To improve guides' professional skills and work performance, tour guide certification systems have been practised in many countries. In China, studies on this issue are related to the analysis of tour guide's function (Wang, 1997), professional knowledge, obligation and duty, as well as commentary skills and principles (Kong, 2005).

Meged (2010) states that since 1991 all authorized guides in Copenhagen have undergone an adult education course at Roskilde University, since 2001 formalized into a diploma degree. To enter the Tourist Guide Diploma Programme, the applicants must speak a foreign language fluently, they must have taken a further education course of at least two years' duration after high school,

and they must have a minimum of two years of work experience relevant to the guiding profession.

1.5 Conclusion

The above literature reviewing shows that tour guiding studies focus on two distinctive parts; performance and role-based studies on one hand, and management-based studies, including training, on the other hand. A careful reading of the relevant literature suggests that the term ‘tour guide language’ has rarely if ever been subject to serious examination. Given its importance in the field of tourism, it is rather strange that so little has been written on the topic. Despite its importance, most of the linguistic studies in relation to tourism have marginalized tour guide discourse and gave much consideration to other genres. Guidebook discourse, for example, has been widely recognized as one of the most representative genres of the language of tourism, and much of the debate has revolved around the textual and linguistic features of guidebooks (Castello, 2002; Fodde and Denti, 2005; Vestito, 2005, 2006; Nigro, 2006; Cappelli, 2006; Francesconi, 2007).

Social scientists have considered tour guides’ roles and functions (Holloway, 1981; Cohen, 1985; Bruner, 2005; Ferguson, 2010), the experience of tours (Pearce, 1984; Urry, 1990), vocational aspects of tour guiding (Pond, 1993; Mancini, 2001) or the broader issues surrounding training and certification (Ap and Wong, 2001; Mason and Christie, 2003; Black and Ham, 2005; Meged, 2010). The review of literature addresses issues of training, role development and their impacts on the tour experience, but it neglects, to a large extent, the linguistic aspects of tour guiding. To address this issue in current knowledge the current

research attempts to draw on a study of a public tour agency and explore the tour guides' discourse, including the many forms of the language used by them within the context of tourism.

Chapter II: Research Methodology

2.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to discuss the key methodological components used to answer the research questions of the study. The chapter concentrates on the description of the steps involved in the research process, ranging from the formulation of the research problem to the analysis and processing of data. It discusses the consequent choice of a qualitative method. Then, it outlines the reasons for the adoption of the case study approach. It also provides an overview of the data collection methods used for the research, as well as the means used to analyze the data. The chapter concludes with sections on the limitations of the research.

The purpose of this study is to analyze the language of tour guides at the ONAT Tour Agency, Ghardaia within the context of tourism. The major research questions were cited as follows:

1. What is specific in the language of tour guides at the ONAT Tour Agency, Ghardaia?
2. What are the roles of tour guides?
3. How do tour guides perform their linguistic role?

2.2 Research Design

There were three phases in the research process for this study. The conceptual phase was characterized by the formulation of the research questions and the purpose of the study. Then a literature review was made to become familiar with the content of the literature.

The subsequent phase involved the research design and planning of the study. The researcher was the data collection instrument, and the sample was the participants involved in answering interviews questions and frequently conducted tour guiding.

The empirical part of the research study involved the data collection and analysis and interpretation of the data. The data collection was conducted using a semi-structured interview with each of the participants. Some field notes were taken prior to one of the interviews.

2. 3 Research Approach and Method

2. 3. 1 Qualitative Research

The present research adopts a qualitative method. According to Manning (1996), qualitative method intends to produce descriptive material based on spoken or written words and observable behaviour. According to Creswell (1994), a qualitative study is defined as an inquiry process of understanding a social or human problem, based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words, reporting detailed views of informants and conducted in natural setting. According to Gillham (2000: 10), qualitative methods focus primarily on “the kind of evidence” (what people tell you, what they do) that will enable the researcher to understand the meaning of what is going on. Auerbach and Silverstein (2003: 5) state that qualitative research involves analyzing and interpreting texts and interviews in order to discover meaningful patterns descriptive of a particular phenomenon.

Qualitative research according to Holloway (2009: 47-51), “*involves the systematic collection and analysis of subjective narrative data in an organised and intuitive fashion to identify the characteristics and the significance of human*

experience.” According to Bryman and Bell (2007: 402), qualitative research is a research strategy that usually “*emphasizes words rather than quantification in the collection and analysis of data.*” It is felt that qualitative research method provides the variety and depth of data required understanding the phenomena under study. Miles and Huberman (1994) have summarized the strengths of qualitative data in terms of realism, richness and a longitudinal perspective, locating the meaning of experience within the social world; in other words placing the phenomena within their context.

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) argue that the advantage of using qualitative methods is that they generate rich, detailed data that leave the participants' perspectives intact and provide multiple contexts for understanding the phenomenon under study. Among the specific strengths of using qualitative methods to study social science research problems is the ability to obtain a more realistic view of the lived world that cannot be understood or experienced in numerical data and statistical analysis. They add that because of their elaborate methods of research (e.g. interviewing and observation), qualitative researchers manage to get closer to the individual's perspective.

Kirk and Miller (1986) argue that:

“Qualitative research is a particular tradition in social science that fundamentally depends on watching people in their own territory and interacting with them in their own language, on their own terms.” (p. 9)

The results of a qualitative research study are most effectively presented within a rich narrative, sometimes referred to as a case study (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994).

2.3.2 Exploratory Research

The present study is exploratory in nature. According to Collins Cobuild English Dictionary for Advanced Learners (2001: 540), “*exploratory actions are done in order to discover something or to learn the truth about something.*” Adler and Clark (2011: 13) argue that in exploratory research, the investigator works on a relatively unstudied topic or in a new area, to become familiar with this area, to develop some general ideas about it, and perhaps even to generate some theoretical perspectives on it. Exploratory research is almost always inductive in nature, as the researcher starts with observations about the subject and tries to develop tentative generalizations about it. Neuman (2003) favours the use of exploratory design when the study topic is either new, or when relatively little has been written about it, as is the case with the present study. Burns and Grove (2003: 313) define exploratory research as research “*conducted to gain new insights, discover new ideas and/or increase knowledge of a phenomenon.*”

This study attempts to explore the linguistic features of tour guide language within the context of tourism. For the purposes of answering the research questions pertaining to the ‘what’ and ‘how’, the researcher selected an exploratory method to gain new insights, discover new ideas and increase knowledge of experience about tour guide discourse. Creswell (1994: 145) considers that the exploratory researcher “*entered the research field from the point of not knowing and to provide new data regarding the phenomena in the context.*”

2.3.3 Case Study

Case study research is one type of qualitative research which has an in-depth, holistic and intensive nature of analysis of a phenomenon in its rich natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved (Duff, 2008). Bloor

and Wood (2006: 27) see the case study as a “*strategy of research that aims to understand social phenomena within a single or small number of naturally occurring settings.*” Daymon and Holloway (2011: 114) consider case study enquiry to be “*associated with an intensive investigation of a specific phenomenon in its natural context.*” Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) argue that a case study provides a unique example of real people in real situations, enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply by presenting them with abstract theories or principles.

This type of research, according to Walliman (2011), is based on data expressed mostly in the form of words – descriptions, accounts, opinions, feelings etc. – rather than on numbers. As for Yin (2003a: 1), case studies are the preferred strategy when “how” or “why” questions are being posed, when the investigator has little control over events, and when the focus is on a contemporary phenomenon within some real-life context. According to Duff (2008: 44), case studies are often ‘exploratory’ and, thus, “*they can open up new areas of future research, by isolating variables and interactions among factors that have not previously been identified for their possible influence on the behavior under investigation. They may also reveal new perspectives of processes or experiences from participants themselves.*” Merriam (1988: 16) considers case studies to be “particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic and rely heavily on inductive reasoning in handling multiple data sources.”

Yin (2003a) characterizes case study research as empirical inquiry that:

- investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when

- the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. (p. 13)

Yin (2003b) suggests three types of case study:

“An exploratory case study (whether based on single or multiple cases) is aimed at defining the questions and hypotheses of a subsequent (not necessarily a case) study or at determining the feasibility of the desired research procedures. A descriptive case study presents a complete description of a phenomenon within its context. An explanatory case study presents data bearing on cause-effect relationships explaining how events happened.” (p. 5)

Duff (2008: 43) defends the use of case studies on the basis of having a “*high degree of completeness, depth of analysis, and readability*” and on conducting a ‘*very thorough analysis*’, providing that they would be ‘*done well*’. Daymon and Holloway (2011) state that the case study incorporates other methodological approaches and theories within its design. In fact, much qualitative enquiry, such as discourse analysis, is considered to be a form of case study research. Within its embrace, a case study also encompasses multiple methods (such as interviews and observations). Often a case study is associated with a location, a set of people such as a social or professional group, an organization or a community. Case study research is more interested in examining an issue, event, process or problem within a particular context.

Gerring (2007) suggests eight features for case study:

“To refer to a work as a “case study” might mean: (a) that its method is qualitative, small-N, (b) that the research is holistic, thick (a more or less comprehensive examination of a phenomenon), (c) that it utilizes a particular type of evidence (e.g., ethnographic, clinical, non-experimental, non-survey-based, participant-observation, process-tracing, historical, textual, or field research), (d) that its method of evidence gathering is naturalistic (a “real-life context”), (e) that the topic is diffuse (case and context are difficult to distinguish), (f) that it employs

triangulation (“multiple sources of evidence”), (g) that the research investigates the properties of a single observation, or (h) that the research investigates the properties of a single phenomenon, instance, or example.” (p.17)

The case study is more specific than being generic, wherein the purpose is not to build theories, according to Stake (2005). Dobson et al. (1981) claims that *“the study is valid only for its subject”* (cited in Duff, 2008: 48). For Meriam (1998: 208), the study cannot be generalized *“because the researcher wishes to understand the particular in-depth, not to find out what is generally true of the many”*. Adler and Clark (2011: 178-179) stress the selection of a small number of the case participants: *“the researcher purposively selects one or a few individuals, groups, organizations, communities, events, or the like and analyzes the selected case(s) within their social context(s).”*

Gillham (2000: 13) considers the case study as *“a main method. Within it different sub-methods are used: interviews, observations, document and record analysis, work samples, and so on.”*

2.3.4 Data Collection Instruments

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) state that qualitative research method helps the researcher develop flexible ways in collecting data and provides the researcher with the perspective of the participants through the direct interaction with them. Data collection is crucial in research, according to Bernard (2006), as the data is meant to contribute to a better understanding of a theoretical framework. Foddy (1993: 11) argues that *“the use of verbal data has been made the keystone of contemporary social science and there is no sign of this situation changing.”* Marshall and Rossman (1999) suggested that data collection methods in qualitative research could be categorized into four types: (a) participation in the

setting, (b) direct observation, (c) in-depth interviews, and (d) document analysis.

Yin (2003a) lists sources used in case study: documentation, archival records, interviews, direct observations, participant observation and physical artifacts.

The data of qualitative inquiry is most often people's words and actions, and thus requires methods that allow the researcher to capture language and behavior. The most useful ways of gathering these forms of data are participant observation, in-depth interviews, group interviews, and the collection of relevant documents. (Maykut and Morehouse, 1994: 42)

Two data gathering instruments were developed for the purposes of this study; semi-structured in-depth interviews with tour guides, and field observation of tour guide linguistic interaction in order to be in contact with real situations. All of which were considered to be appropriate strategies to obtain in-depth context specific information about particular subject areas (Yin, 2003a). Data collection begins with the permission of the tour agency manager to conduct interviews and observations during tours. The participants wholeheartedly agreed to participate in the study.

Qualitative researchers typically gather multiple forms of data, such as interviews, observations, and documents, rather than rely on a single data source. (Creswell, 2009: 142)

While many studies successfully utilise one method, combining methods, an approach defined as triangulation (Denzin, 2006), can be a useful research option. As Mason (2002) has stated, the aim of triangulation is to "*seek to corroborate one source and method with another*". It helps also to "*enhance the quality of the data*" (2002: 33). Triangulation may be considered as a negative feature of case study research. "*The amount of data from different sources to be analyzed and*

synthesized can be daunting,” according to Duff (2008: 55). Due to the lack of sufficient opportunities it was not possible to obtain all the data through in-field observation; most of the data were collected through informants’ interviews. “*Qualitative interviewing continued to be practiced hand in hand with participant observation methods.*” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005: 701)

The present paper uses data triangulation as a strategy whereby data is collected in two ways: tour guide in-field observation and interviews with three tour guides. The principal method that was adopted for this thesis was the in-depth interview, as there was almost not possible to conduct more than a single in-field observation.

2.3.4.1 In-Field Observation

This stage of the research involved an overt participant observation of one tour guide. The emerging questions were discussed with the guide during informal conversations during and after the tours. Participant observation has been employed in numerous studies of guided tours and tour guiding (Gorman, 1979; Holloway, 1981; Dahles, 2002). Participant observation was used to gain subjective, first-hand insights into the tour experience. Accompanying the tours provided the opportunity to engage in dialogue with the guide. When the tour was attended overtly the observer effect clearly disrupted the guide performance and there was a risk that knowledge of the study would have led to unnatural behaviour among the guide in future tours (Lugosi and Bray, 2008).

Patton (2002) defines the process of observation as the descriptions of activities, behaviours, actions, conversations, interpersonal interactions, organisation or community processes or any other aspect of observable human experience. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 396) consider observation as a “*tool that provides a*

'reality check' for the researcher." They argue that the distinctive feature of observation as a research process is that it offers an investigator the opportunity to gather 'live' data from naturally occurring social situations.

Duff (2008: 138) argues that many case studies in applied linguistics include the systematic, focused observation of case participants in their natural contexts (classrooms, homes, community centers, workplaces), especially if one of the objectives of the study is to examine people's linguistic performance or interaction in naturally occurring social situations... observational work can help researchers understand the physical, social/cultural, and linguistic contexts in which language is used, and also collect relevant linguistic and interactional data for later analysis.

The present researcher adopted an overt technique in conducting the observation of the tour guide, as deceptive and covert practices are not in keeping with ethical practice (Taylor and Bogdan, 1984; Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Shils, 1959). The observation, or field visit, is the most suitable method for the exploration of tour guide language in its real settings. It is where the researcher could get raw, genuine and authentic data without any intermediary. To go on-site and capture people's interactions and understand social environment is to have a clear idea about what is going on. It is considered vital to the present study as it adds significant depth to the case study. The participant observation technique was used along with participants' interviews to support further triangulation of data.

2.3.4.2 Interviews

The methodological approach to this study is qualitative. For the purpose of answering the research question pertaining to the "what" and "how" of tour guide discourse, this approach is used to enable the researcher to obtain first-hand

information from tour guides by means of interviews. For the purpose of this study, the researcher used in-depth, face-to-face interviews as a method of data collection. This specific methodological approach also allows the researcher the freedom to ask broader probing questions in a less formal environment in the quest for obtaining the maximum relevant information on the research subject.

An interview is *“a widely used method of data collection for conducting systematic inquiry, have commonly been defined as ‘conversations with purpose and direction.’ Postmodernists describe interviews as dynamic meaning-making occasions that result in a collaborative production of knowledge. Viewed in this way, interviews are a process of seeking knowledge and understanding through conversation.”* (Mills, Eurepos and Wiebe, 2010: 495)

“We interview when we want to know something about what another person has to say about her or his experience of a defining event, person, idea, or thing...The interview invites and persuades individuals to think and to talk.” (Nunkoosing, 2005: 699)

Due to the lack of sufficient opportunities it was not possible to obtain all the data through in-field observation; most of the data were collected through participants' interviews. The interviews have many advantages including the explanation of the research purpose, greater depth and probing, and being in direct contact with the respondents.

Interviewing is considered as a *‘universal mode of systematic inquiry’* (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005: 699). It is called also *‘the art of sociological sociability’* (Benney and Hughes, 1956: 137, in Adler and Clark, 2011: 252). The qualitative interview, also called the in-depth or intensive interview, is where an interviewer adapts and modifies the interview for each interviewee... It is designed to allow

the study's participants to structure and control much more of the interaction. (Adler and Clark, 2011: 252)

Burg (2001) observes that in some cases, being a good interviewer is described as an innate ability or quality possessed by only some people. Interviewing, from this perspective, has been described as an art rather than a skill or a science. In other cases, interviewing has been described as a game in which the respondents receive intrinsic rewards.

According to De Vos (1998), face-to-face interview assists researchers to understand the closed worlds of individuals and communities. The interview is a widely used method of generating data in qualitative social research. It is used to enable the interviewees to narrate their experience. Denzin and Lincoln (2005) show the importance of interviewing:

“Asking questions and getting answers is a much harder task than it may seem at first. The spoken or written word always has a residue of ambiguity, no matter how carefully we word the questions and how carefully we report or code the answers. Yet interviewing is one of the most common and powerful ways in which we try to understand our fellow humans.” (p. 697)

The advantages of interviews are that they enable the interviewer to follow up and probe responses, motives and feelings and their potential added value is that the recording of nonverbal communications, facial expressions and gestures, for example, can enrich the qualitative aspects of the data. (Jupp, 2006: 157)

Kvale (1996: 1-3) considers knowledge as *“buried metal”* and the interviewer as *“a miner who unearths the valuable metal.”* The interviewer attempts *“to understand the world from the subjects' points of view, to unfold the meaning of peoples' experiences, to uncover their lived world”*. Furthermore, qualitative

research interviews enable a researcher to “*see the research topic from the perspective of the interviewee*” (King, 2004: 11).

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 349) consider the interview as a “*powerful implement for researchers*” which is “*a flexible tool for data collection, enabling multi-sensory channels to be used: verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard.*” Denzin and Lincoln (2005: 698) consider it as “*individual, face-to-face individual interchange.*” Foddy (1993: 50) considers interviews as ‘*requests for information*’. For Hancock and Algozzine (2006: 39), interviews are a very common and suitable form of data collection in case study research. They add (p. 40) that semi-structured interviews “*invite interviewees to express themselves openly and freely and to define the world from their own perspectives, not solely from the perspective of the researcher.*” Duff (2008: 132) argues that “*interviews play an important role in much research in sociolinguistics and applied linguistics. Not surprisingly, they are very commonly used in case studies.*”

Stake (1995) gives much importance to interviewing as a method of data gathering:

“Much of what we cannot observe for ourselves has been or is being observed by others. Two principal uses of case study are to obtain the descriptions and interpretations of others. The case will not be seen the same by everyone. Qualitative researchers take pride in discovering and portraying the multiple views of the case. The interview is the main road to multiple realities.” (p. 64)

The most common qualitative data collection method is probably the interview (Mason, 2002) and the one highlighted by Guba and Lincoln (1985) and Charmaz (2006).

Qualitative interviews are characterised by the following:

- They use open-ended questions,

- They are mainly single interviews where one person is questioned at a time,
- Questions are not structured in a fixed, rigid manner, allowing questions to be asked in a different order and allowing the addition of new questions, and
- Interviewers have greater freedom when presenting questions, altering wording and adjusting the interview to meet the goals of the study (Sarantakos 1998: 255).

Interviews allow the researcher to explore the previously unexplored aspects of a specific topic. Darlington and Scott (2002: 48) consider in-depth interviewing as the most commonly used data collection approach in qualitative research. It is a complex process and a major source of data in qualitative research. It is a way of exploring informant perspectives and perceptions, for Daymon and Holloway (2011: 220-221).

In the qualitative interview the interviewer asks open-ended questions (either pre-formulated or constructed during the interview), frequently modifies the order and the wording of the questions, and typically asks respondents to elaborate or clarify their answers. (Adler and Clark, 2011: 252-253)

McCracken (1988: 21) refers to the need in qualitative interviews to let the respondent describe his or her experience. Interviewers (or purpose statement writers) violate the “*law of no direction*” in qualitative research by using words that suggest a directional orientation.

2.3.4.2.1 Semi-Structured Interviews

A semi-structured approach to interviews was chosen. Hancock and Algozzine (2006: 40-41) argue that semi-structured interviews are “*particularly well-suited for case study research. Researchers using semi-structured interviews ask follow-up questions designed to probe more deeply issues of interest to interviewees ... the researcher should ask only open-ended questions... while avoiding yes/no*

questions". According to Knox and Burkard (2009), semi-structured interviews serve as a foundation on which the interview is built but one that allows creativity and flexibility to ensure that each participant's story is fully uncovered. Babbie (2005) notes the inherent flexibility in this approach as one of its major advantages. For Flick (2002), there is an expectation that the views of the interviewee will be more freely expressed when the format of the interview is more flexible and open-ended than where the interview style is regulated and confined to a standard set of questions or a survey.

Qualitative interviews are special kinds of conversations or speech events that are used by researchers to explore informants' experiences and interpretations (Mishler, 1986; Spradley, 1979).

Spradley (1979) summarizes the stance qualitative researchers take in relation to their informants:

"By word and by action, in subtle ways and in direct statements, [researchers] say, 'I want to understand the world from your point of view. I want to know what you know in the way you know it. I want to understand the meaning of your experience, to walk in your shoes, to feel things as you feel them, to explain things as you would explain them. Will you become my teacher and help me understand?'" (P. 34)

Interviews are semistructured because, although researchers come to the interview with guiding questions, they are open to following the leads of informants and probing into areas that arise during interview interactions. (Hatch, 2002: 94)

Hatch (2002: 106) argues that *"the power of qualitative interviewing is that it gives informants opportunities to share their unique perspectives in their own words."*

A semi-structured interview for Dornyei (2007: 136-137) is where “*the format is open-ended and the interviewee is encouraged to elaborate on the issues raised in an exploratory manner*” and where “*the interviewer provides guidance and direction.*” ... “*Usually, the interviewer will ask the same questions of all of the participants, although not necessarily in the same order or wording.*” But the interviewer has to “*ensure that the questions elicit sufficiently rich data and do not dominate the flow of the conversation.*”

Structural questions invite informants to demonstrate how they organize their cultural knowledge. They are a way to get some understanding of how informants think about what they do. They provide questioning tools for going beyond descriptive information into exploring what relationships informants see in their cultural experiences. (Hatch, 2002: 104)

Hatch (2002:106) offers some recommendations as a guide to the researchers about the criteria they should use in order to form effective questions.

- *Questions should be open-ended.* This means that questions should not be set up in dichotomous terms, i.e. yes/no possible answers. ‘The tone of such an interview can become more like an interrogation than a conversation.’
- *Questions should use language that is familiar to informants.* The researcher should ensure that communication be established in a two-way form.
- *Questions should be clear.* The interview should be set in a simple and familiar language. The informants should feel comfortable to share their perspectives.
- *Questions should be neutral.* It is wiser for researchers not to ask leading questions or to show their points of view and put the under question. This may lead informants to try to please rather than inform.

- *Questions should respect informants and presume they have valuable knowledge.* The researcher-informant relation at this level should be the same as student-teacher as the researcher seeks to know from his informant teacher.
- *Questions should generate answers related to the objectives of the research.* Questions should be set to serve the interview; and the interview should help to accomplish the purpose of the whole research.

2.3.4.2.2 Conducting Interviews

Dornyei (2007: 141) argues that the main weakness of the interview is that it is time-consuming to set up and conduct, and that it requires good communication skills on the part of the interviewer, which not all of us have naturally. Dornyei (2007: 137-141) provides a set of recommendations to conduct interviews:

- We must remember that we are there primarily to listen.
- We must let the interviewee dictate the pace without being rushed or interrupted.
- The interviewer should try to be neutral involving creating appropriate space for the interviewees to share their experience with us freely.
- We need to explain again the reason of the interview, reassure the respondent again on the issue of confidentiality and build rapport with the interviewee.
- At the 'ice-breaking' period researchers often start with easy personal or factual questions.
- It is time when the researcher tries to establish his credentials and make himself accepted.
- The 'content' questions are considered as knowledge seeking questions.

- The ‘probes’ are used to go further and to increase the richness and depth of the responses. The ‘final closing question’ helps the interviewer to have the final say.

De Vaus, (1996) presents the following checklist of sixteen points to assist in the wording of questions:

1. use simple language
2. ask short questions
3. do not ask double barrelled questions
4. do not ask leading questions
5. do not use negative wording
6. consider whether the respondent has the knowledge to answer the question
7. consider whether the question means the same to all subgroups
8. avoid prestige bias
9. use unambiguous wording
10. consider whether direct or indirect questioning is most appropriate
11. ensure a clear frame of reference for the question (e.g. temporal)
12. do not ask questions which may create opinions
13. consider whether a personal or impersonal approach is most appropriate
14. avoid objectionable wording
15. always place subject of question before alternative answers
16. avoid creating questions which may elicit socially acceptable responses.

Duff (2008: 136) adapts Kvale’s (1996) types of questions that might be asked in interviews as follows:

- *Introducing questions* (e.g., “Can you tell me about your L2 learning history?”)
- *Follow-up questions* (asking more about the previous utterance or response) e.g., “Could you say more about that?” or “Could you give an example of that?”

- *Probing questions* (e.g., “Could you say something more about the courses you attended?”)
- *Specifying questions* (e.g., “How did you react?”)
- *Direct questions* (e.g., “Have you ever had trouble being understood?”)
- *Indirect questions* (e.g., “How do you think other students feel about x?”)
- *Structuring questions* (moving onto another topic when off-track or when topic has been covered; e.g., “Now I have a different question/topic/task for you.”)
- *Silence* (to encourage reflection or amplification of responses)
- *Interpreting questions* (e.g., “You mean that ...?”)

The interviewee is given much importance as Spradley (1979: 34), quoted in Kvale (1996: 125), considers him as a teacher and expresses the willing to learn from him. *“I want to understand the world from your point of view. I want to know what you know in the way you know it. I want to understand the meaning of your experience, to walk in your shoes, to feel things as you feel them, to explain things as you explain them. Will you become my teacher and help me understand?”*

In conducting semi-structured interviews Bryman (2004: 321) suggests that the questions should be prepared in advance, but their order does not need to be necessarily followed along the interviews. The researcher can reestablish the order of his questions according to the interview development, the respondent’s reactions and the answers; and obtain the more in depth responds by asking the supplementary questions.

Descriptive, structural, and contrast are types of questions that give researchers an organizer for thinking about how to frame questions, but the substance comes from the unique focus of each study... We didn’t directly ask, *“What’s your philosophy?”* or *“What’s your practice?”* but we designed questions that we thought would reveal how they thought and what they did. (Hatch, 2002: 104)

Semi-structured interviews are designed ahead of time but are modified as appropriate for each participant. They begin either with a list of interview questions that can be modified or with an interview guide, which is a list of topics to cover in a suggested order. (Adler and Clark, 2011: 268)

Hancock and Algozzine (2006: 39) show the importance of the interview guide which sometimes called an interview protocol. It provides a checklist of topics that the interviewer wants to cover. It will “*identify appropriate open-ended questions that the researcher will ask each interviewee.*” Dornyei (2007) argues that it is important to have an interview guide which has to be made and piloted in advance that enables the interviewer to ensure the covering of important areas. The first step in preparing the guide will be to write down the research question(s) and to make sure that the interview is always focused on the research question(s). Fox (2009) advises qualitative researchers to be open to ideas that are not expected to emerge during the interviews.

An initial study of the relevant literature on the research topic was undertaken (chapter two). The information that was derived from the literature review helped to construct guidelines for the in-depth interviews. The guidelines pertained to specific questions that were covered along the interviews. Open-ended questions were employed to elicit elaborate information about tour guide discourse and role in the context of tourism.

Questions are almost always open-ended and interviewees can introduce issues the researcher may not have thought of.

The interviews were semi-structured and in-depth in nature and were conducted on an individual basis. The researcher chose to use semi-structured interviews in order to get detailed information about an interviewee’s beliefs concerning the

research topic and their perceptions or accounts of the topic. Adler and Clark (2011: 254) argue that “*structure in an interview can limit the researcher’s ability to obtain in-depth information on any given issue.*” This method allows the researcher to follow up interesting information that emerges during the interview. “*With semi-structured interviews the researcher will have a set of predetermined questions on an interview schedule, but the interview will be guided by the schedule rather than dictated by it.*” (De Vos et al., 2002: 302).

The respondents were free to expand on the topic as they saw fit, and to relate their own experience. The interviewer intervened only for clarification or further explanation. Semi-structured interviews are generally the most useful, in that they allow full exploration of the topic and yet retain a degree of structure, which ensures that most of the information obtained is relevant and manageable (Veal, 1997).

The site was ONAT Tour Agency. The case study is not intended to be an exhaustive of all the tour guides in the agency. Such a way would have been enormously time-consuming. Three of the tour guides formed the focus of the study. They worked for longer periods of time with the agency. This allowed a focused, achievable approach to the study, giving the opportunity to a limited number of tour guides to express detailed views on tour guide discourse. The interviews took place through long time intervals as it was difficult to have contact with the guides and because of their being not available.

The respondents agreed to have the interviews tape-recorded for analysis which enabled the interviewer to pay close attention to discussions. The researcher explained the purpose of recording the interview to the respondents. The

respondents were assured to that the information recorded would be used only for the purpose of the study.

The interviews were set in a semi-structured technique in which a list of discussion points was prepared beforehand in order to insure harmony of interviews as they were conducted in different settings and within long intervals. The questions were amended throughout the period of interviewing. And there were some subsidiary conversations before and during each interview in order to build rapport and intimacy with the respondents.

The purpose of the interviews was to establish a vision on tour guide discourse. Stake (2010:95) considers interviewing as a means used to ‘find out about “a thing” that the researchers were unable to observe themselves’. Interviews depend on the availability of respondents. The interviewees were contacted many times to get appointments. They were interviewed on an individual basis as it was felt that conducting a group interview would be practically difficult.

The interviewees were asked a number of questions about their roles as tour guides in a semi-structured approach. They were asked to convey their experience on tour guiding. They were invited to discuss their beginnings with tour guiding, the way they perform their job and the difficulties they face during their work. Journey planning was also discussed, especially the way guides prepare themselves linguistically. Interviewees were let free to add any information or detailed explanation they consider important; they were not confined to the interviewer’s questions.

To gain a detailed view of participants’ perspectives related to their experiences in the field of tour guiding, the researcher conducted individual interviews lasting between forty minutes to one hour through two face-to-face interviews and one

interview by means of the telephone. These interviews were semi-structured and audio taped. The specific questions explored are summarized in the following paragraph.

The individual interview questions were arranged from general to specific to follow a progression of participants' experiences in tour guiding. The interviewee was asked: (a) How did you become a tour guide? (b) Why did you choose to be a tour guide? (c) Can you please tell me about your experience in tour guiding? (d) Can you tell me, in detail, about the roles of a tour guide, please? (e) How important is the role of a tour guide? (f) How do you prepare for a tour, please? (g) Can you describe a typical day with tourists, please? (h) Please tell me about your linguistic interactions with tourists. (i) What is special in the language of a tour guide? (j) What did you learn from being a tour guide?

On the other hand, in order to insure the fluid flow of information, the interviewees were let free to expand and provide further information. In that way, the questions were set to serve this purpose. The interviews were conducted in an informal way so as to provide a sense of intimacy and friendliness between both sides. For that purpose, there were short meetings with two of them and some short phone calls beforehand to gain familiarity and confidence with the interviewees.

It is expected that the results of this study will provide the reader with a clearer picture of tour guide discourse.

Given that a major focus of this research is to gain a deeper understanding of how tour guides, in practice, interact linguistically, then selecting ONAT Tour Agency as part of the case study presents an opportunity to address issues surrounding guides' views and experiences of linguistic interaction.

Selecting ONAT agency to be subject of the present study is not a pretence that this tour agency is representative of other agencies within the tourism field in the region and that what happens in ONAT in this context happens, or will happen, elsewhere. Instead, the study is hoped to be of interest to other agencies. Tour guide discourse is of great interest to the whole field of tourism and the experiences and perspectives of one agency will add to the knowledge base of tour guide discourse research.

The respondents under study had been chosen according to the manager's recommendations and also to the respondents' availability. Therefore, there could be no claim to achieving representative views related to the broader tour agency community. Instead, this research had as its focus the aim of achieving an in-depth and qualitative insight into tour guide discourse issues. The review of relevant literature established that tour guiding is an area of increasing interest and so the results of this study will be of interest to those engaging with similar issues. The choice of research respondents was also due to time issues and easy access to these participants.

Qualitative data will be obtained mainly through the means of interviews. This opens the opportunity to discuss tour guide discourse in depth. However, in order to establish a framework around the interviews, and to focus on specific issues with different interviewees, the interviews were structured with questions prepared beforehand. But the interviewer opened to new issues depending on the responses and willingness of the interviewee.

In order to gain fuller insights on the case under investigation, the present researcher tried to collect data from two different sources: in-field participant observation and semi-structured interviews with different participants.

In qualitative research, the researcher attempts to develop understandings of the phenomena under study, based as much as possible on the perspective of those being studied. The study focused much more on performing interviews as a means of data collection because less alternative empirical material was available. There was a desire to perform more in-field observations as this means tends to bear close contact with real settings wherein tour guides use real language. It was quite impossible to do so.

Stake (1995) shows the need to combine interviews and observations in a complementary way. The researcher is obliged to interview because people in the field are more knowledgeable. They know more about the field of research; their views and experience are interesting and the researcher should benefit from them. Stake (1995: 66-67) puts it clear that observation should be combined with interviews: *“it would be good if we could get what we need by observation alone. But often we have too little time and have to rely on what others have seen. And sometimes we do care about the comments the interviewees make. So we interview. But it is usually so much better if we can see it ourselves.”*

Once data was collected through individual interviews, audiotapes were transcribed and transferred from spoken to written word to facilitate analysis. Qualitative data analysis procedures followed.

2.3.5 Participants

Subsequent to the specification of the data collection techniques, the following step was to choose the participants from whom the data would be collected.

“The terms subject and participant are often used synonymously in case studies, although participant is the preferred usage currently in the social sciences. Some accounts of case study still use the earlier term subject because the research

participant is the main subject of the study. Informant is still used in some anthropological research, although it is falling out of favor.” (Duff, 2008: 35)

The participants in this study are three male tour guides aged between thirty and forty years. Two of them have a BA in English and no professional background studies in relation to tourism. They got involved into tourism and had experience in the field. One of the informants is an expert tour guide. He has got a higher education diploma in tourism. He works at the ONAT headquarters in Algiers and he generally guides officials.

Denzin and Lincoln (2000) state that small samples of participants help investigate research problems in an in-depth manner. However, they weaken the opportunities to draw generalizations or make broad recommendations.

There should be mentioned that the selection of participants was based much on availability more than on any other criteria, especially in what concerns field observation. Tour guides were not always in service and that impeded the research pace.

Due to the qualitative nature of the study, the participants were not representative of all the tour guides in the region, and the findings can hence not be broadly generalised.

2.3.6 Data Analysis

Qualitative researchers tend to use inductive analysis of data, meaning that the critical themes emerge out of the data. *“Inductive analysis means that the patterns, themes, and categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them prior to data collection and analysis”* (Patton, 2002: 306). Marshall and Rossman (1999) define qualitative analysis in terms of organizing and attributing meaning to the data. For Duff

(2008:160), researchers seek patterns which are more inferential and related to apparent rules observed, more general themes or explanations. Analyzing interview transcripts and field notes was based on an approach aiming at identifying patterns in the data. Miles and Huberman (1994) describe a three-phase procedure of data analysis which includes: (a) data reduction, (b) data display, and (c) conclusion drawing and verification.

Data reduction is the first phase of data analysis. It involves selecting, simplifying, and extracting themes and patterns from written field notes and interview transcripts (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Interview transcripts were read and read again searching for similarities and differences in themes. Code names were assigned to the themes that were detected and then organized into categories of related topics, patterns, concepts, and ideas that emerged from participants' perspectives and in-field observation.

The subsequent stage was the coding of collected data and formulating of themes. The data analysis procedures began once the interview data was converted from audiotapes to transcribed text. Data reduction began with reading and re-reading the transcribed data. After thorough examination and consideration of the data collected from the field observation and the respondents' answers came the search for similarities within data and group fitting information within same heading. The themes began to emerge with the initial reading of each transcript. At this point there was a final check for specific properties in each theme in order to trace a final outline of the predominant themes which serve as the answer to the research questions.

The final phase of data analysis, according to Miles and Huberman (1994), consists of drawing initial conclusions based on data displays.

2.3.7 The Research Context

The case study agency ONAT, initially known as Altour then ATA, is a public tour agency. It was created in 1969 and named ONAT (Office National du Tourisme) in 1984. Its main office is located at Emir Abdekader Avenue, Ghardaia.

From 1984 to 1997, ONAT Ghardaia was appointed regional delegate comprising Eloued, Timimoun, Tammanrasset and Djanet agencies. Its mission comprised mainly receptive tourism including many activities such as receiving and hosting tourists, providing catering, housing, touring and entertainment to local and foreign tourists.

ONAT marked some hardships during 1993-2005, a period that was marked by a big regression due to the decrease of the number of people visiting the region. The tour agency was obliged to shift to outbound religious tourism only.

Recently, with the increasing number of foreign tourists, the agency has begun to promote receptive tourism and reorganize domestic tourism. Its services have also started to get better organized as the overall tourism field gets some recovery.

ONAT manager showed an eagerness to launch ambitious plans for the following touristic seasons including guided tours to some local and regional sites, such as Ghardaia, Metlili, Zelfana, Sebseb, Mansoura, Meniaa and Laghouat.

Although the multi-faceted downturn has dampened the growth to some extent, the market for tourism in the region is growing. This must create the need for better preparedness and willingness to regain a suitable position.

2.3.8 Limitations of the Study

It was hoped to have a significant number of English speaking tourists in the course of this study. Unexpectedly, most of the tourists were generally French speakers or tourists speaking other languages who were inclined to speak French rather than English. This fact made the study insufficient as far as English is concerned. Besides, it was difficult to get appointments with the respondents and this hindered the normal progress of the study.

2.4 Summary

For this exploratory qualitative study of the tour guide's language, three tour guides, working for the ONAT Tour Agency were interviewed through semi-structured interview techniques and one of them was observed at work guiding a group of tourists. Once the data was collected from the in-field observations and the interviews were transcribed, the data was coded, then analyzed and organized into headings in order to find similarities to find out any specific characteristics of the tour guide language.

Chapter III: Findings and Discussion

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the case study described in Chapter 2 (Research Methodology) and the analysis of these results. The guiding research questions served as the basic framework for a discussion of the findings. The research was conducted with tour guides working with the ONAT Tour Agency. The research concentrates on conducting interviews with three tour guides and observing one of them during his guiding of a group of tourists. The participants are generally involved in guiding English speaking tourists. First, a description is provided of the results of tour guides' semi-structured interviews. Another description of some observations during a tour with a guide is provided, as well.

3.2 Findings

The information provided by respondents through semi-structured interviews was supplemented by information generated from the observation of one participant during his guiding of a group of tourists. The main source of information was respondents' interviewing. As there was almost no opportunity to conduct more field observations, the researcher was not able to follow tour guides for a considerable period of time.

3.2.1 In-Field Observation

I asked the manager of the agency for his permission to accompany tour guides as an observer during some tours. He gave me his agreement. He introduced me to one of the tour guides and I explained my research aim to him. He seemed to be willing to help. We arranged some short meetings afterwards. We discussed some topics concerning language and tourism. He told me that English speaking tourists were scarcely visiting the region. Most of the tourists tend to speak French, rather

than English. But whenever they got an English speaking group they would call me. I received a call after quite a long waiting period and I was told to be prepared to join the tour guide for some visits for a given date.

The agency offered a minibus to get tourists to their first destination a bit far in the outer surroundings of the city. Before starting the tour I introduced myself to the tourists and gave them some information about the purpose of my study.

The tour guide gave the tourists an itinerary of the tour on the bus. He gave them some information about the spots planned to be visited.

The tourists were a group of middle aged Asians. They were seven, four men and three women. Two of them seemed to speak English quite well. The others appeared to have difficulties in speaking English. They frequently asked their mates to translate things in their own language. I was not interested more in their English. My purpose was to observe the guide's language and the way he provided information to his group of tourists.

The first visit took about a day in a sunny day. It was divided into two parts; the morning was devoted to a walk in the city surroundings and within some main parts of the city, and the afternoon walk consisted of visiting some squares inside the city including the market square. There was a break at lunch time.

The guide was conscious of being observed, his performance was severely affected and he seemed to be a little bit confused at the beginning of the tour. The fact of being observed might make him behave unnaturally and influence his performance. The visit was fascinating, though, and I had the opportunity to see some places for the first time and got important information about those places. The tour guide seemed to make efforts to give details about the places of interest.

The visit started by passing through some lanes and narrow streets to see some ruins and old buildings, the architecture and the materials used for building. The guide focussed his speech on the harmonious shapes and the selection of almost a unique colour for the facades of those buildings and how it complied with the local weather conditions.

A first impression showed that tour guide language differed according to the type of information given in each stage of the tour. For instance, when the tour guide began to describe an old building, he said that it was built out of local materials. The tour guide said that the building had a specific shape that allowed its inhabitants to get adapted with the local hot summer climate and get less heat through small windows and low roofs, and a specific wall covering using special materials and special outer design in order to get more shade. The tour guide was using a language which served the needed function and the listeners were exposed to a set of vocabularies proper to description rather than any other linguistic function. At that stage, a number of adjectives were used such as local, ancient, old, low, small, hot...

The guide then started to tell stories and anecdotes about some buildings and the significance of their style and architecture. The tour guide talked about history and past events. He used a set of dates with names denoting people who first established those buildings and then he talked about the appropriateness of choosing the site.

The morning visit ended in a garden where the guide tried to explain the traditional irrigation systems and the way local people used to dig wells for water. He gave the tourists information about local crops and plants. At a rest time, the guide prepared tea in the traditional way. Tourists were fascinated with the way

tea was prepared. They said it was different from their own way; they said that the taste was different from theirs, too. They seemed to like tea and they very much appreciated the rest.

In the afternoon, there was a visit to some squares of the city. The tourists seemed to enjoy the unique building structure. Again, they were given some details about the local architecture and the materials used in building. The last tour was to the main square of the city, the market square, where the tourists enjoyed seeing a mixture of traditional and modern shops. The market is an open museum full of carpets, clothes, food, farming tools and many other things. Tourists liked old objects more and they asked many questions about their use. They bought some items where the guide was an intermediary between shop keepers and tourists. He helped them bargain the price and buy some goods.

The next day was devoted to a visit to an old underground water distribution system. It is used to divide the valley water between the neighbouring gardens. In a way that keeps water stored and run for a given period of time within which farmers could benefit long time water flow in equal and fair shares to help them water their crops. The tourists had a rest at a garden where they enjoyed some local food. They were very pleased again. Tourists wanted to know many things and asked local people some questions, including food and gardening, and the tour guide was an intermediary between both sides once more. He seemed to have quite enough knowledge due to his frequent being on the site.

The afternoon tour was attributed to a visit to some museums and old monuments. Again, the tour guide gave information about the items in the museums with the help of the museum staff. He also gave much information about the monuments;

their history, significance, shape, materials, dimensions and so on. At this stage, the tour guide used more informative and descriptive language.

The last day with the tour guide began with a tour into some old castles where the tourists enjoyed their passing through shadowy lanes and sloppy pathways leading to main squares in each castle. The architecture impressed visitors much and they kept asking questions about every scenery they saw. The guide provided answers and comments. He seemed to be well informed about the sites. He told them stories about the castles. He mentioned some historical events, personalities and dates that much characterized those places. The last day tour ended with a longer walk in the market where the visitors could see and buy objects and souvenirs. The guide was a mediator again. He helped tourists buy and bargain.

The in-field observation was done prior to conducting an interview. It helped very much arrange the interview as it gave new ideas and insights about tour guiding and the way the guide performed his linguistic role. It gave the researcher the opportunity to be in close touch with real settings in tour guiding. It was not enough to conduct a single in-field observation, but it was very fruitful to be among tourists and experience a trip with the guide. It was really fascinating to be informed by a tour guide and given interesting information.

3.2.2 Interviews

At the beginning of the interview, all participants were informed that the research was a study on discourse as part of a postgraduate studies programme. In order to increase the response rate, anonymity and confidentiality were assured, so that participants felt motivated to take part in the interviews.

The researcher conducted face-to-face interviews with two participants and interviewed one participant by phone. These interviews involved in-depth and generally open-ended questions that were few in number and intended to elicit views and opinions from the participants. The main questions were sometimes followed by probing questions seeking for explanation and more information.

My first question was about the reasons that made respondents choose to become tour guides. They all said that they liked to meet people from all around the world. One of them said that he became a tour guide by chance and he liked it at the end. He liked being outside with people different from his background and culture. The respondents said that they felt pleased when they served people and helped them enjoy their trips. One of the respondents added that tour guiding is full of fun and enjoyment. The respondents said that they considered tourists their own guests. They felt responsible to make them having enjoyment and they were pleased when they served them. They said that they would do their best to make them feel welcomed.

When I asked them about the benefits they have from being tour guides, all of them said that tour guiding helped them discover places and get more information and learn about their own region. Being tour guides obliged them to learn more about the history, geography, geology and many other aspects of the region, they said. They said that they wouldn't have seen some local places if they hadn't been tour guides. All of them stressed on the benefit of knowing new people and helping them enjoy their tours. That was the ultimate benefit from being tour guides.

I asked them about the tour guide's roles. According to them, tour guide's responsibility began with the arrival of tourists and ended with their departure.

The tour guide is the person who accompanies tourists all along their stay. He is the person who must be present when the other staff left. The tour guide is the person who helps, guides, directs, translates and facilitates any process to tourists during their visit. It is the tour guides' role to tell the tourists about local customs. Besides giving the right information, they keep the tourists behaving within the confinement of the locals. They have to inform them to limit their conduct within the boundaries of the local society, especially when they have tours in the city. In addition, it is their duty to keep the unity of the group; they must always check and count their group members.

I asked them about the importance of a tour guide in tourism. They said that the guide was the person who took the biggest share of contact with tourists as he stayed with them the whole daytime during their stay. His role, then, was very important in providing information and in giving good impression about the region as he is considered to be the representative of the whole community. Another respondent made it clearer when he said: "Imagine you have a visit to a foreign place that you have never been to and you do not know anything about. You will not be able to know what to do there. You will be just wandering; you may even not know what is written on panels and probably you will lose your way. You feel then the need for someone to tell you about many things there. If you do not know the language of the people around you, you will not be able to understand what they tell you. This is part of the service a tour guide offers to tourists." This fact implies the need for tour guides to be ready to serve tourists and to accompany them from their arrival to their departure. Tour guides have also to get bigger shares of information concerning their surroundings including

not only documents and places of interest but every other aspect of life in their local environment.

I asked the respondents about the linguistic function of tour guides. They mentioned the variety of tour guide's language. Tour guides, according to them, perform many linguistic functions. It ranges from description to narration, direction, prescription and translation. Tour guides describe the sites, monuments, buildings and places of attraction to add clarity and meaning to the panorama. Tour guides also tell stories about the location, the monument or the building. They provide information about its history. They tell stories about it, and so on. One of them said that "description is like clarifying the seen picture whereas narration is unearthing the hidden." Tour guides direct tourists to the right destination. They give polite sets of instruction and advice. Tour guides help tourists to be in contact with the locals. They help them buy souvenirs and ask about ways to prepare local food.

I asked them to describe a typical tour. Two of them had almost similar descriptions. They had almost the same itinerary to follow. They seemed to provide the same information almost in the same way. They said that their main role was to provide information to the group. It always started with greeting tourists and then having some chats. Then, they gave tourists the plan of the tour. That was generally done on the way to the first destination. On the way, tour guides gave information about appearing things such as places, ways, and geographical arrangement of the region and its nature; they told tourists about the location of the place of interest in relation with the city. When reaching the target place, tour guides started to describe and give information about it. If there were some buildings or monuments, they told tourists about their history, architecture

and building materials. They told stories about the place and its significance to the whole region. If the visit were to be towards inhabited places tourists got in touch with locals and tour guides played the roles of translators and mediators between the two sides, they said. When in the market, tour guides told tourists about displayed things and made contact with shop-keepers to give more information about them. If tourists wanted to buy any object, tour guides would be the intermediaries between tourists and shop-keepers. They helped them bargain prices and buy their desired items.

The other tour guide seemed to be more structural in his job. He said that he generally guided officials or businessmen. The destinations were carefully selected because of the quite formal nature of their tours. Visits for him are often parts of larger ones throughout the country. They were not like the ordinary ways the other tour guides did. But still the main goal of the tours was to give information about places of interest. If there were some formal meetings or conferences, the tour guide played the role of a translator between both sides.

I asked them what makes tour guide's language specific. The respondents said that tour guide language is simple and ordinary. One of them said that it was like giving lessons to students; the importance lied in being understandable. Likewise a teacher, the tour guide must make his tour plan beforehand and prepare what to say and how to say it. Tour guide language is also vivid. It is mostly descriptive and it uses a set of positive adjectives that make it colourful. Tour guide language is situation-based. It depends too much on the current situation of the tour. Its function is liable to change according to what message tour guides want to convey.

The job is beneficial to the tour guides as well. One of the interviewees said: *“You are discovering new things and getting new ideas through mingling with people from different backgrounds and cultures. You are always expecting new faces, new mentalities and new thoughts. Those people are eager to know about your culture and city.”* Another interviewee says that being a tour guide helped him *“have fun and good times while associating with people looking for knowledge.”* He added that he benefited linguistically by acquiring more vocabularies and it gave him the opportunity to practise his English language. The other one said: *“It is wonderful to be outside. It makes you always going around and it provides you with the opportunity of discovery and exploration.”* He said that he could see some places for the first time due to his being a tour guide; he would not have had the chance to discover such places if he had not been a tour guide.

3.3 Discussion

Rabotic (2010a:15) shows an important influence of the tour guide on tourists when he says that *“even though the visited place can make a tourist disappointed, the relation between places and information about them creates attraction and “draws” visitors.”* The information meant by Rabotic is provided by tour guides. Ang (1990) puts it further and argues that the entire experience of the tourist lies in their hands. The importance of tour guides lies in their being the people whom tourists interact with for a considerable amount of time. *“The whole burden is put on the tour guide when the other staff left. The tour guide is the person who spends the longest time with tourists during their stay,”* said one of the respondents. Ferguson (2010) sees the tour guide a person who knows all about the local culture and neighborhoods, history, geography, points of interest, attractions, museums and architecture, shopping, entertainment, and restaurants.

3.3.1 Roles

The above findings confirm the view of many researchers (Cohen, 1985; Fine & Speer, 1985; Ferguson, 2010; Holloway, 1981; Howard, 1997; Hughes, 1991; Jafari, 2000; Pond, 1993; Urry, 1990) that the role of the tour guide is multi-faceted. The tour guide, according to them, is a leader, a salesperson, a teacher, an information-giver, an organizer, and much more. The tour guide is responsible of directing tourists and guiding them to places of their interest. The role of the tour guide goes beyond the fact of giving information.

3.3.1.1 Communicator

Cohen (1985) stresses the communicative role of tour guides as the most important: the selection of interesting points, presenting correct information and interpreting all that tourists do not seem to understand. The interviewees of the current study considered communication to be paramount in tour guiding. *“Tour guiding is communication,”* said one of them. Tour guides are masters of communicative techniques and they pay much attention to this issue. Tour guides give much importance to the ways of addressing tourists.

Along with the linguistic awareness, tour guides should acquire the skills of social contact. They should be presentable, clean, polite, smart, active, friendly and decent. They must be physically and personally ready to face foreign tourists. *“Tour guides represent the whole community and they may affect the tourists’ point of view about the society they belong to,”* said one of the respondents. Hughes (1991) points out that inappropriate commentary content and communication style have been shown to ruin an entire holiday.

3.3.1.2 Speaker and Listener

Speaking and listening are the most dominant skills in the workplace for tour guides. Tour guides spend much of their time speaking to the group. They describe, tell stories, translate, interpret, and perform many other language genres that need speaking. Tour guides are very aware of their speaking way including the use of high voice and clear and simple language. On the other hand, tour guides must be very attentive and listen carefully to any comment or question asked by tourists. They do not interrupt tourists when speaking. They try to make tourists feel welcome to ask questions. This, in fact, shows the extent to which a tour guide is respectful and successful in performing his role. This, also, impresses tourists and shows their enthusiasm and recognition of the guide's efforts. *"The more tourists accept the guide the more they feel at ease to have contact with him and the more they pay attention to what he says,"* said one of the respondents.

3.3.1.3 Teacher and entertainer

One of the respondents compared tour guiding to teaching. He said that tour guiding and teaching are both sharing jobs. *"A tour guide is a teacher himself. It is where you have the joy of sharing information with so many people,"* said the respondent. Cohen (1985:14) argues that *"the role of the mentor resembles the role of teacher, instructor, or advisor. The mentor points out the objects of interest, explains them, and tells tourists where and when to look and how to behave. Mentors may select the objects of interest in accordance with their personal preferences, their professional training, directions received from their employer or the authorities, or the assumed interest of their party"*. Likewise teachers do, tour guides must prepare and plan their trips well. They must know

what to tell their audience. They are often obliged to memorize some parts of their speech. They must have thorough information about the target sites. They are always expecting questions from the tourists. And they get satisfied with the feeling of having performed their role right. *“That is almost what happens to a teacher with his students. The difference is that a teacher is bound to given classes and to familiar students along the school year in classrooms, whereas a tour guide is always expecting unfamiliar people with different cultures and different backgrounds in open space. And that is the challenge,”* said one respondent.

Tour guides provide comments in an informative and entertaining manner. They must always keep a sense of friendliness and open-mindedness. They must create a positive environment in order to attract tourists’ attention and be experienced in relevant activities. They should tell amusing anecdotes related to what tourists are seeing in order to maintain the interest of the group. Tour guides should also tell stories and legends to attain that purpose.

3.3.1.4 Describer and narrator

Description is a prominent function of the tour guide’s language as the tour guide spends much of his speech giving information about sites and monuments. The use of description is frequent in the language of tour guides to depict the view and give information to tourists about a given place of attraction. Description is characterized by its variety in vocabulary. It is characterized by the use of positive adjectives, including base forms, comparatives and superlatives.

- past passive voice when talking about historical monuments: was built, was founded
- Adjectives: narrow, old, oldest, ancient,

- Size adjectives: small, smallest, tiny, big, bigger
- Colour adjectives: yellow, green, brown, red, white, yellowish
- Nouns: street, valley, mountain; road, path, building, roof, wall
- Prepositions: in, on, to, at

Description adds vividness to the whole image and adds context to the tourists' conception of the view.

Narrative content holds its share of the tour to attract tourists' attention. Tour guides tell stories about historical events and people. They tell anecdotes and show the importance of historical happenings and their impact on the development of life in the region. Narration is characterized with the use of past tense and the use of significant dates. Important personalities are also present in narration. The guides' narrations and performances attempt to create an environment within which tourists can learn about historical events and issues concerning the past of the region. The various narrative and performative tactics the tour guides use help tourists to vividly imagine and deeply connect with those who experienced the events.

3.3.1.5 Translator and interpreter

Translation is indispensable in tour guide's discourse. Tourists often want to meet local people and to share information with them. Tour guides play an intermediate role to ease the interaction between both sides and tour guides are to be the intermediaries. *"Tourists need to be in real contact with traditions, local parties and local food and cooking,"* said one of the respondents. Tour guides must give recipes and explain what is happening by asking locals questions in their mother tongue and translate it into English to the tourists and vice versa. Besides, tour guides help tourists at the market bargain and negotiate prices.

Being indirect sources of information, tour guides are required to keep the essence of the language and to be honest in transmitting authentic information to both sides.

Another role of tour guides is to give details and clarifications of the meanings and symbolism of cultural settings and events, the significance of dates, and personalities that had impact on the history of the site or the region as a whole. McDonnell (2001) considers tour guides as the spin-doctors of tourism as it is through their interpretation of facts that tourists form impressions and understandings of the host culture. Cohen (1985:15) says that “*interpretation and not the mere dissemination of information, is the distinguishing communicative function of the trained tourist guide*”. He emphasizes the importance of interpretation identifying that term with intercultural mediation, explaining it as translation of foreign and unknown elements of a host’s culture. The dissemination of correct and precise information is considered by Barry (1991) and Mancini (1990) to be the kernel of the guide's role. Urry (1990) asserts that guides are becoming interpreters... who enable tourists to experience the other culture; they are guides who encourage tourists to see, hear, smell, taste, and feel the other culture. This makes the tour guide a culture broker between the cultures of the host and guest or, in other words, a person who is familiar with and knowledgeable on all aspects of the host culture and who has some understanding of the culture of the guest (Nettekoven, 1979; Holloway, 1981; Hughes, 1991).

3.3.1.6 Leader and prescriber

Leading is frequently used all along the tour. It is a form of language used to show tourists the way and to instruct them to follow a given direction. It is worth

mentioning that leading has some special frequent vocabulary. These words function as a guider to direct tourists to the exact location.

- Nouns: north, south, west, front
- Verbs: turn, follow, take, go
- adjectives: left, right, many, few, little
- prepositions of location: next, near, far, about, over,
- adverbs: nearly, approximately, very, a little bit, too, much
- place or position adverbs: here, there, in front, below, up, toward, along, inside, outside, behind, down
- numbers: one, two, one thousand, first, second

Tour guides give travel advice and safety measures to the tourists by using specific form of language characterized by the use of imperative form. Tour guides have to tell tourists about the cultural differences and boundaries. They are responsible of explaining the limitations and restrictions; where the tourists are allowed to take photos, what is restricted or prohibited in the region, what is acceptable for the locals, and so on. Ap and Wong (2001) assert that tour guides are the essential interface between the host destination and its visitors. They are entrusted with the public relations missions to encapsulate the essence of a place and to be a window onto a site, region, or country (Pond, 1993).

Pearce (1984) points out that in cross-cultural settings many tourists need a guide since such visitors frequently break social rules and intrude upon others privacy. In addition, the pathfinder role gives the tourist a sense of security in a strange environment, a precursor to a successful tourist destination region, as Leiper (1996) has noted. This makes the tour guide a culture broker between the cultures of the host and guest or, in other words, a person who is familiar with and

knowledgeable on all aspects of the host culture and who has some understanding of the culture of the guest (Nettekoven, 1979; Holloway, 1981; Hughes, 1991).

Examples:

- Please meet back here in one hour.
- As a safety precaution, please stand behind the...
- Please stay with your group at all times.
- It is forbidden to take photographs.
- Please pay attention to the time. We don't want to keep the driver waiting.
- I recommend you to wear good shoes because we'll have a long walk.

3.3.2 Requirements

Tour guides are expected to have special manners and conduct towards tourists as they are obliged to show respect and understanding to the people under their responsibility. They have to be polite, patient, empathetic, punctual and flexible.

3.3.2.1 Politeness and empathy

The issue of comfort for tourists should not be tied only to the accommodations or any other material aspects though they are very significant. Comfort includes also polite treatment within which exists the language used to address guests as they need to be cared of, help them enjoy their stay and share information about the host country so as to make the travel experience more enjoyable. Familiarity is bred through contact; contact is much made through language. The respondents stressed the importance of politeness as being “the essence of tour guiding” for one of them. Tour guides are to be polite and show respect to the tourists. Tour guides should also keep some distance between themselves and the tourists.

The way tour guides address tourists is vital as it shows degrees of respect and politeness. Politeness appears in the first contact with tourists by exchanging formal greetings. Expressions like “Good morning”, “Good afternoon” or “How do you do” are very common in tour guide’s language. Polite title expressions such as Sir, Mister, Miss or Madam are very ordinary in tour guide’s language when addressing tourists to demonstrate respect and kind treatment. Polite phrases such as “Can I”, “Would you”, “Could you”, are expressions to offer tourists services or to ask them doing particular tasks gently; to sign forms or fill in registration cards, for instance. “Please” and “Thank you” are frequently used expressions when actions are required of and performed.

One respondent argued that formality does not necessarily characterise all the language of the tour guide. It depends very much on the way the tour guide and the tourist perceive and relate to each other. Blue and Harun (2003) go the same way when they argue that it may be that the informal, friendly behaviour and language which we found to characterise some tour guide–tourist interaction, including general chat and occasional jokes, contribute to making tourists feel welcome to a greater extent than a formal welcome might do.

Tour guides have to be much understandable. They should take tourists age and state into consideration. If they guide older or disabled tourists, they must adjust their walking speed and take some rest whenever tourists feel tired. They have to ask them whether they get tired, thirsty, and hungry and so on. They have to show them empathy, acknowledge their concerns and take their complaints and needs into account. Tour guides must be familiar with relevant laws, safety and emergency procedures, too.

3.3.2.2 Patience and Tolerance

Tour guides are the front-line staff. They must be accustomed to every kind of tourists. *“It is not easy to get mingled with foreign people,”* said one of the respondents. Tourists are different; what is acceptable to some people can not be necessarily acceptable to others. Tour guides are the ones who endure being among different groups for each tour and different people in the same group. Their work obliges them to deal with different sorts of people from backgrounds and cultures different from their own. They have to be physically ready for long walks and sustain any physical efforts. Tourists may influence the tour and affect its planned running and that is where tour guides should adapt themselves with any probable situation without showing any sign of annoyance or displeasure. *“You have to forget about your problems outside the tour,”* commented one respondent. Ang (1990) states that the job of tour guiding calls for commitment, enthusiasm and integrity as the entire experience of the tourist lies in the tour guides’ hands. Prakash, Chowdhary and Sunayana (2011) consider tour guides to be expected to solve all problems of tourist within or outside of their control. Failure to do so is considered as a poor performance. The authors consider it unjust as well as challenging.

3.3.2.4 Punctuality and flexibility

Tour guides must respect their timetables. They should always be on time for the tour. Punctuality *“is a part of confidence-making between the two parts,”* said one respondent. Tour guides should never make their group waiting for their arrival. That may make tourists worried and may *“give bad impression about the whole service,”* said one respondent.

Tour guides should be flexible and ready for any probable changes in the schedule due to any inconvenience or unexpected circumstance. They must ensure the smooth running of the tour. One of the respondents asserted that although they mapped out the tour and identified the necessary stops beforehand, there would sometimes be some circumstances that diverged it from its proper course. Tour programmes should sometimes be planned according to the tourists' needs. Tourists have different needs and intentions from their visit and this fact must be taken into account. Some tourists need to visit historical sites; some of them want to get mingled more with local people, and so on. Tourists should be asked first about what they tend to see and then suitable programmes ought to be tailored for them.

3.3.3 Conversational Features

Tour guides' discourse is versatile. It includes many language forms including description, narration, directing, prescribing and translating, to name just a few.

3.3.3.1 Simple language

One of the most prominent properties of tour guide's language is its simplicity. Tour guides tend to use ordinary language with tourists. Their aim is to provide information in its clearest form to be understood by every member of the group. Dann (1996) argues that the language of tourism, including tour guide's language, is similar to everyday language, however, it is a very special type of communication. According to Vestito (2006: 24), most of the terminology of the tour guide's language is not perceived as technical. "*The language should be beautified with some expressions, but still it needs to be simple,*" said one of the respondents. Another one insisted that they "*are sometimes obliged to use the*

simplest and the very ordinary language, this is more needed when we translate from local language or make a deal with shop keepers, for instance.”

Tour guide's language is a rehearsed language with its own rules and norms. Similar key words and related actions are repeated with different individuals. It is important to recognize that the language used in one situation may not be readily transferable to another context. Though, there will inevitably be some areas of overlap.

A tour guide in guide-tourist context produces two types of discourse categorized by Brown and Yule (1988) as 'transactional', which is message oriented and communicates factual information and it is produced in a monologic form; and 'interactional', which refers to the communication between the guide and tourists.

3.3.3.2 Monologue and dialogue

The monologue is a one-way oriented form of speech within which tour guides give speeches and provide information to the tourists. Tour guides dominate the stage and act as mentors.

What characterizes tour guide's language is being, generally, a one-direction oriented speech. During which the tour guide functions as a lecturer. He provides information and explanations to his audience who listens and gives attention throughout the tour. Tourists receive information and they seldom ask questions. They rarely interact. The monological form of the tour guide speech gives him the power to direct the tourists' intention. This form is more dominant in the tour guide discourse. The tour guide provides many genres of language within which the monologue is influential such as direction, prescription, description, and narration.

The dialogue is a two-way form of speech where tourists share conversation with tour guides. Tourists tend to ask questions and tour guides answer them. *“The guided tour has the format of dialogic interaction between interpreters and small groups of tourists... The result is a very open format, more like a discussion than a lecture, one that allows improvisation and that facilitates the constructivist process”* (Bruner, 2005:166).

Telling tourists about historical sites, buildings or monuments is different from describing a natural view, for instance. In the former, tour guides should use specific terms and language such as the passive voice and past tense verbs: built, founded, and established, and so on. In the latter, you are just giving information and trying to frame the picture to the tourists, tour guides generally use descriptive adjectives and present tense to make the language informative. The use of some special language elements should be emphasized such as the frequent use of the verb to be, for example.

When tour guides lead the group they tend to use directive language distinctive by the use of imperative form. When they are in the market dealing with shop keepers or artisans, bargaining and translating their own words, it's totally different. When there is a meeting with local people they common introduction terms in order to introduce people to each other, for instance.

Blue and Harun (2003) divide the tourist stay into distinctive stages. Each stage has its own serving language. The arrival stage, for instance, starts by greeting tourists, wishing them enjoyable stay and make them feel welcome. It also includes helping them with their luggage and having brief question-answer transactions in formal tone. The familiarization stage starts by showing them the way, ushering them to their rooms or inviting them to a traditional meal. The

departure stage consists of bidding farewell and expressing thanks and promises. It is mostly formal as there are a number of precise but routine tasks to be accomplished.

3.3.3.3 Greeting, suggestion and offer

Greetings are used to initiate and end interactions with tourists. “Good morning/afternoon/evening,” “Hello,” “How do you do?” “How are you?”, “Enjoy your stay.” “Welcome.”

Shaking hands is a part of the greeting process which is considered vital for some tourists.

Tour guides use suggestions frequently. Suggestions are forms of politeness to make ideas or plans taken into consideration. Forms of language that are frequently used in suggesting are: “Let us ...” or “What about...?”

Examples:

- Let’s get off the bus.
- Let’s have a rest, please.
- What about a cup of tea?

Tour guides offer tourists help since their arrival stage. They help them to check in and check out. They help them in dealing with their luggage. They usually use expressions such as “Can I ...?” and “Let me ...”

Example:

- Let me help you with your suitcase.
- Have a seat, please.

To be a tour guide it is highly recommended to master many language genres such as description, narration, translation, direction and interpretation. Tour guiding is more obliging, as the tour guide should know much more things, including

history, geography, architecture, art, cooking, agriculture, and many other subjects. Each of these subjects has its proper terminology. What is common among them in the tour guide's language is the use of expressions from the everyday language. Some distinctive features of tour guide's English stand out more clearly. They consist of grammatical as well as lexical properties. Some of them are given below

3.3.4 Grammatical Features

3.3.4.1 Tenses

Tour guides tend to provide all kinds of necessary information. Depending on its function, information is given within different forms. Describing, narrating and directing are some of the linguistic functions used by tour guides. The present tense is dominant in description as the information delivered is mostly told as facts. The present tense of verbs is used in directing, instructing and prescribing. The past tense verb form is usually used to narrate and tell stories about past events.

3.3.4.2 Voices and moods

Active voice is dominant in tour guides' discourse. It is more subjective and flexible in communication and can easily express the speaker's feelings. Since tour guides try to depict some images in the tourist's mind, active voice is more suitable. It gives vivid sceneries that reveal the background to the tourists and put them into the context of the view. Active voice is used also when directing and giving prescriptions to tourists.

Imperative sentences are used to give instructions, directions, suggestions or express wishes, for example:

- Your passport, please.

- Let's have a walk through this narrow street.
- Enjoy your stay.
- Welcome to Ghardaia.

3.3.5 Lexical Features

3.3.5.1 Nouns and pronouns

Proper nouns are omnipresent in tour guide's discourse. Proper nouns are generally unchangeable and they have invariable pronunciations and spellings even when they are translated from or to other languages. A significant number of proper nouns can often be seen in tour guide language, ranging from history and geography to art, architecture, religion, cities, historical monuments and personalities, to the names of local dishes or traditional clothes and the names of hotels or restaurants.

On the other hand, common nouns cover an important deal of tour guide's language. The most frequent are scenic nouns. Nouns such as hill, valley, mountain, sand, desert, oasis, museum, bridge, market and palm-tree are very common in local tour guide's language.

Demonstrative pronouns are frequently used by tour guides including this, that, these and those.

The most frequent personal pronouns in tour guide's language are I, you, it, they and we.

3.3.5.2 Adjectives and adverbs

The use of adjectives is very common in tour guide language. Positive adjectives, such as beautiful, spectacular, interesting, strategic, relaxing, quiet, famous, big, local, natural, etc. are most frequent. The vividness and fascination of these adjectives tend to impress tourists and attract their attention. Moreover,

large amounts of adjectives could give special emphasis to the positive and enthusiasm emotion, especially the general superlative adjectives which convey strong positive emotions, such as the words largest, oldest and biggest. Adjectives are generally used to make the beauty and magnificence of places or things appear greatly.

The use of adverbs of place is very usual in tour guide's language such as here, there, over there, between, in the middle of, near to, in front of.

Degree adverbs are also common in tour guide's language. The use of adverbs such as too, very, quite and a little bit is frequent.

3.3.5.3 Verbs

Among the keywords of the tour guide language are action verbs, such as visit, walk, come, go, discover, build, etc., are very frequent in tour guide's language. Sense verbs like see, hear, taste, smell and look, for instance, are used to arouse more tourists' intention to come and enjoy the beauty of nature.

3.4 Conclusion

Tour guides tend to use simple and plain language. The simplicity of tour guide's language makes it understood by ordinary tourists. Another prominent property of tour guide's language is its genre diversity. It moves from description to narration, to translation, to many other styles. This variety and diversity make tour guide language inconstant, flexible and adaptable. Tour guide's language is subject to change according to the function meant to be accomplished. Roles generate language use. For each role of the tour guide there exists a specific form of language used to meet the necessities of the situation. Aesthetic devices are present in tour guide's language. They are used to add liveliness to the language.

The tour guides are masters of many language arts. They should be skillful using many communicative techniques moving from the monologue to the dialogue. They must have a great deal of information in what concerns culture, literature, geography, and history of their own region and country. Often they must be translators and middlemen to link the tourists with the local people. This richness of the tour guides' roles stimulates eagerness to uncover their discourse.

Oral language form is dominant in tour guide discourse. It is significant to mention that tour guides' language within tourism context is purely oral. Tour guides spend nearly all of their time with tourists speaking and giving information and sometimes listening to some questions and comments from the tourists' side.

As a consequence, much attention should be paid to the language of tour guides as they are the ones who spend longer time with tourists. The specificity of the information given by the tour guides implies a high level of concern.

General Conclusion

The present paper is an exploratory study. It is concerned with tour guides' performing of their linguistic roles within the context of tourism with English speaking international tourists. The findings are about the use of English within this context in order to explore tour guides' language and to reveal its specific features. Tour guide English often expresses and delivers information about history, geographic locations and cultural life including the living, eating, clothing and every other aspects of local social life. Many touristic sites are remarkable for their historic buildings and events and stories that happened there. People from every part of the world come to visit those places in order for them to appreciate the scenery, acquire knowledge about history and enjoy the special traditions which are different from theirs. Tour guides are the ones who are responsible to usher tourists to those sites and deliver the needed information.

The findings of the present research showed that tour guides have very important roles within tourism context. The guide is the person who takes the biggest share of contact with tourists as he stays with them the whole day. The tour guide is considered to be the leader who guides tourists along their stay and be almost the only person who has direct contact with. The above findings confirm the view of many researchers (Cohen, 1985; Fine & Speer, 1985; Ferguson, 2010; Holloway, 1981; Howard, 1997; Hughes, 1991; Jafari, 2000; Pond, 1993; Urry, 1990) that the role of the tour guide is multi-faceted. The role of the tour guide goes beyond giving information and describing the place.

Tour guides are key constituents of the tourism sector due to their significant role in demonstrating historical and cultural products of their country to tourists. They are responsible of giving positive impressions to visitors and it is their duty to

make the trip successful. The tour guide is the person who takes care of tourists since their arrival until their departure. He arranges and facilitates their movement during their stay and helps them practise activities specified in their programme.

Tour guides work in the front line of tourism and play important roles in enhancing the reputation of tourist destinations with the service quality that they deliver regarded as an important criterion of the overall quality of tourism service. Guiding includes welcoming tourists, providing the necessary information, showing the way, describing places of interest, telling stories about the place or the monument, helping tourists in translating and dealing with locals. Tour guides help tourists do their shopping and buy souvenirs and things of interest. They give advice and help tourists bargain and choose best quality things. Their duty is to ease the tourists' trip and make their journey more enjoyable.

A great deal has been written on tour guiding as a functional practice but a careful reading of the relevant literature suggests that the term 'tour guide language' has rarely if ever been subject to serious examination. Given its importance in tourism field, it is rather strange that so little has actually been written on the topic. Although much has been written about tour guides' history and their professional roles, their linguistic role has been marginalized. Not much interest is given to the study of their language and very few studies have focused on their discourse.

The tour guides readiness, including linguistic aspects, is of great significance as it makes them prepared to cope with tourists and fully meet their needs through communicating the right way and disseminating the needed information.

During his mission, the tour guide uses multi-faceted linguistic genres that move among a variety of language uses. Description, narration and translation are just some parts of the tour guide's linguistic practices. Tour guide's talent gives him

the possibility to use the right language form in the suitable situation. Tour guide language is rich and lively. What characterizes tour guide's discourse generally is being a one-direction oriented speech. The tour guide functions as a lecturer almost all the time. He provides information and explanations to his visitors who are listening throughout the trip. They rarely interact. They receive information and they sometimes ask questions.

Despite an increased interest in the language of tourism (Dann, 1996; Agorni, 2012; Durán Muñoz, 2011), it is surprising that so little empirical research has actually been conducted on the tour guide discourse. Very few studies have focused on the language of tour guiding (Pond, 1993) though it is very important in the tourism context.

The current paper is confined to the data from one public (state-owned) tourism office which may not reflect the overall view of the reality about the subject under consideration. Better services are likely to be provided by privately held agencies. The findings of this study are particular to the tour guides of the ONAT Tour Agency since the intent of qualitative inquiry "is not to generalize findings" to individuals or sites outside of those under study, and since "*Particularity* rather than *generalizability* is the hallmark of qualitative research." Creswell (2009: 156)

Sampling was limited to available participants with some professional background on tour guiding. The sample represents a limitation of this study, which can be considered small, as three participants were interviewed and not so many differences were found on their answers. Small sample sizes lessen opportunities to draw useful generalizations from or make broad recommendations based upon the findings (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). Because of the small number of

participants, the present research does not presume to represent the wider population.

The lack of English speaking tourists was also a limitation to the study, as it prevented the researcher from much empirical study and ample in-field observations which could have been more fruitful and reality depicting. The study, thus, was based much on the perceptions of tour guides and the information taken from them through interviews. The scarcity of information made the research goes in a very slow pace.

Tourism in the region is seasonal. Tourists are not available along the year. Seasonality of tourism is a problem for researchers as they find themselves obliged to wait till the next touristic season to find ground for their research. Most tourists come to visit the region at Christmas Eve or during the springtime. Besides, most tour guides at the ONAT Tour Agency are part-time employees, a fact that makes it difficult for a researcher to get them available in the site frequently or at least in the needed time.

The lately unexpected events that hit the region made tourism reverting to inferior conditions and impeded the present study from being more empirical.

The study focuses mostly on linguistic issues that left the door open to any contribution.

After the interpretation and the discussion of the results, the present researcher suggests the designing of a syllabus for the tour agency in order to be taught to the guides.

Communication skills should be given serious attention by tourism managers and educators in the field of tourism.

The development in the tourism industry makes the tour guides feel the pressure of being forced to communicate effectively in order to meet the challenges in the rapidly expanding field. As the number of foreign tourists increases, appropriate measures should be taken by those who are in responsibility of the tourism domain in terms of the quality services in order to make the tours enjoyable. More suitable guiding ways should be undertaken and more qualified, competent and proficient tour guides should be trained.

Tour guides need to be urgently equipped with the acceptable level of English proficiency, for insufficient English language proficiency may prove to be a disadvantage in the development of the tourism sector as a whole.

The fact that tour guiding is important in tourism entails the need for skillful front line staff having the ability to communicate effectively with their visitors and satisfy their needs. As tourism is developing, competition among tour agencies to provide better quality services to tourists throughout their stay is increasing.

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