Needs Analysis in Developing "English for Tour Guides" Materials for High School Students in Kepulauan Seribu, Indonesia

Lavinia D.W Araminta
Fakultas Ilmu Pengetahuan Budaya, Universitas Indonesia, lavinia.disa@gmail.com

Sisilia S. Halimi
Fakultas Ilmu Pengetahuan Budaya, Universitas Indonesia, halimisisilia@gmail.com

Recommended Citation

NEEDS ANALYSIS IN DEVELOPING "ENGLISH FOR TOUR GUIDES" MATERIALS FOR HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS IN KEPULAUAN SERIBU, INDONESIA

Lavinia D. W. Araminta and Sisilia S. Halimi

Fakultas Ilmu Pengetahuan Budaya, Universitas Indonesia;
lavinia.disa@gmail.com; halimisisilia@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

Kepulauan Seribu is one of the fastest growing tourism regions in Indonesia, but its growth can be hindered by the lack of English skills of local tour guides. In response to this, a workshop entitled "English for Tour Guides" was conducted for high school students on Pramuka Island, and in-house materials were developed. To determine how the materials were to be designed, a needs analysis using a three-question open-ended questionnaire was carried out in order to identify the students' views on local tourism, motivation to join the workshop, and aspirations after graduation. The results show that the students considered developing local tourism and improving their English skills, either for achieving future personal purposes or interacting with foreign visitors, important. Furthermore, this study also found that their motivation had both integrative and instrumental orientations. Based on the needs analysis, a set of principles informed by the literature on language teaching and learning was chosen, and it directed the pedagogical tasks selected as part of the materials.

KEYWORDS

English for tour guides; Kepulauan Seribu; materials; needs analysis.

ABSTRAK

Kepulauan Seribu adalah salah satu daerah tujuan pariwisata yang paling berkembang di Indonesia, tetapi pertumbuhannya dapat terhambat oleh kurangnya keterampilan pemandu wisata dalam berbahasa Inggris. Merespons situasi ini, sebuah pelatihan bertajuk "English for Tour Guides" diselenggarakan untuk siswa-siswi SMA di Pulau Pramuka, dan materi ajar disusun secara khusus. Dalam mendesain bahan ajar, sebuah analisis kebutuhan dilakukan menggunakan kuesioner yang terdiri dari tiga pertanyaan terbuka mengenai persepsi siswa akan pariwisata lokal, motivasi mereka untuk mengikuti pelatihan, dan aspirasi mereka setelah lulus sekolah. Hasilnya menunjukkan bahwa siswa-siswi peserta pelatihan ini menganggap penting upaya pengembangan pariwisata lokal dan peningkatan keterampilan berbahasa Inggris mereka, baik untuk menggapai tujuan pribadi di masa depan atau untuk berinteraksi dengan pengunjung dari luar negeri. Selain itu, penelitian ini menemukan bahwa motivasi mereka untuk belajar Bahasa Inggris berorientasi integratif dan juga instrumental. Berdasarkan hasil analisis

kebutuhan, seperangkat prinsip pemelajaran dan pembelajaran bahasa asing dipilih dengan mengacu pada tinjauan pustaka, dan prinsip-prinsip ini mendasari pemilihan tugas-tugas pedagogis untuk materi ajar yang dikembangkan.

KATA KUNCI
Bahasa Inggris untuk pemandu wisata; Kepulauan Seribu; materi ajar; analisis kebutuhan.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 English and tourism in Kepulauan Seribu, Indonesia

Spanning over 110 islands, Kepulauan Seribu Administrative Regency, also known as the Thousand Islands of Jakarta, is an archipelago located between Java Sea and Jakarta Gulf. Out of the many islands that the area encompasses, 45 of them are regarded as tourism islands, in addition to 7 resort islands, 4 historical islands, and 2 nature reserve islands. Given its characteristics as a cluster of islets which consist of corals and other biota, the development policies of DKI Jakarta stipulate that Kepulauan Seribu should focus on: 1) boosting tourism activities; 2) improving the life quality of local fishermen community by increasing sea cultivation, and; 3) maximizing fishery resources by conserving the ecosystem of atolls and mangrove (BPS-Statistics of Kepulauan Seribu Regency 2018, 5).

In regard to the first point, Kepulauan Seribu has been one of the spotlights in Jakarta's tourism industry in recent years. Data from the Department of Tourism and Culture of Kepulauan Seribu Regency show that in 2015, the total number of visitors to the main tourism islands, such as Untung Jawa Island, Tidung Island, Lancang and Pari Island, and Pramuka Island, reached 812,257, although this figure slightly dropped to 779,004 in 2016 but rose again to 884,387 in 2017. Moreover, the number of foreign visitors in 2017 was 692,827, exceeding the number of domestic tourists of only 191,521 (BPS-Statistics of Kepulauan Seribu Regency 2018). This suggests that the fame of Kepulauan Seribu as a tourism destination in Jakarta region has attracted global attention.

Figure 1. Tidung Island (image source: https://pulauseribu.jakarta.go.id)

The growth of tourism in Kepulauan Seribu has led to the rise of local businesses, for instance, homestays, restaurants, and resorts. Hence, the increasing demand for these services should be balanced with an improvement in both the quantity and quality of the human resources. Although travel agencies have mushroomed there, more and more tour guides, especially those who know the tourist environment in Kepulauan Seribu well, are still needed to keep up with the growing number of international visitors. However, not all local guides have sufficient English language skills to interact with foreign tourists, introduce surrounding destinations and cultures, and provide services for tourists. This also happens in other tourist areas in Indonesia, such as Bali and Lombok, where local residents involved in tourism interactions speak English but with noticeable pidgin, grammatical errors due to transfers from mother tongue, and false starts (Schneider 2016). Meanwhile, the role of language, particularly English, in tourism industry is undeniably vital. Thitthongkam and Walsh (2010, 185) summed up key findings of 15 studies and concluded that the roles of language in tourism organizational management include increasing customers' satisfaction, enhancing and maintaining language competency of tourism people, motivating international tourists, understanding culture, and creating effective internal and external communication.

Figure 2. Canoes on Sepa Island (image source: https://pulauseribu.jakarta.go.id).

To tackle the above issue, one of the ideas that can be implemented is to design materials specifically on English for tour guides. Unlike textbooks produced by global publishers which tend to apply the principle of "one-size-fits-all" and appear less authentic for students (Gray 2002), the materials are meant to allow students to explore local cultural content in terms of tourism. As a pilot project, the materials were tried out in an intensive English learning workshop to high school students in Kepulauan Seribu. Apart from the practicality reason of conducting such a program in a formal educational setting, high school students are thought to be prospective local tour guides for foreigners at present and future times. Referring to statistical data from BPS-Statistics of Kepulauan Seribu Regency (2018), the majority of population there obtained either primary, junior high, or senior high school degree as their highest educational attainment (29.92%, 25.12%, and 28.31% respectively in 2016), leaving only a small portion of those finishing the academy/ university level (4.42%). These school graduates may have limited career options compared to university graduates, but the chance can be high for them to be employed in two major industries in Kepulauan Seribu,

namely Services and Trade and also Hotel and Restaurant (based on the August 2017 National Labor Force Survey), given the development of tourism in this region.

Figure 3. Facilitators and participating students in the workshop at SMA Negeri 69 Jakarta.

Figure 4. Language instruction in the workshop on July 27–29, 2018.

Figure 5. A classroom activity in the workshop on July 27–29, 2018.

Therefore, the proposed program of "English for Tour Guides" workshop was expected to help improve the English language skills of high school students selected to take part in the program, as well as providing multicultural understanding (McKay 2002) to expand their career opportunities in the tourism industry and indirectly advancing local tourism in Kepulauan Seribu.

1.2 Research questions

This study seeks to gather initial information on the needs of high school students in Kepulauan Seribu for the purpose of developing materials on "English for Tour Guides". The English needs being explored are wants, as defined by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), of the selected high school students in Kepulauan Seribu as they would be the main participants in the learning process. The research questions of the study are:

    a) What are the students' views on local tourism in Kepulauan Seribu, particularly pertaining to the need for improving the English skills of local tour guides?

    b) Why are the students willing to participate in the workshop?

    c) What are the students' plans after graduating from high school?

The first research question is to find out the students' perceptions about the importance of improving the English skills of local tour guides in relation to developing local tourism industry. Meanwhile, the second question attempts to reveal the students' motivation for joining the English language training and, ultimately, learning English. Last but not least, the third question concerns if the materials and workshop correspond to the students' personal development and would likely be personally beneficial to them.

1.3 Theoretical background

Developing an ESP course requires making decisions regarding leaners, content, syllabus, instruction and materials, and evaluation (Basturkmen, 2010, p. 52). As a starting point, the focus of a course needs to be determined based on the results of needs analysis or decisions about grouping learners, for example, based on occupational jobs or the level of language proficiency, as well as theoretical considerations. Course

designs can be wide-angled, designed for a more general group of learners, such as Business English, or narrow-angled, designed for a very specific group of learners, such as English for Nursing Studies (p. 53).

Needs analysis itself is a process of identifying what specific language and skills will be needed by a group of language learners in order to perform jobs effectively in their fields of work or study (Basturkmen, 2010, p. 17), and this can be conducted as a pre-course needs analysis to determine the content (language and skills) to include and the teaching methods to use or an ongoing needs analysis to refine an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course (p. 26). It is one of the key stages in ESP along with the course design, materials selection, teaching and learning, and evaluation, all of which are overlapping and interdependent (Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998, p. 121). The important role needs analysis plays in ESP is implied in Hutchinson and Waters (1987, p. 53) who assert that the difference between ESP and General English lies in the "awareness" of learners' needs, not the "existence" of the needs. For example, it does not mean that students enrolling in a General English course have no specific needs; they actually have to some extent, but the teachers or they themselves are possibly not aware of such needs. On the other hand, those taking an ESP course already have an awareness that they need to learn particular aspects of English for certain purposes in the first place. Thus, it is important for any ESP practitioners to conduct a needs analysis, regardless of whether there are needs identified, to make sure that the linguistic features and skills taught to learners are what they need.

Among others, the types of data usually collected in a needs analysis are target situation analysis (the tasks and activities requiring learners to use English), wants (subjective needs), present situation analysis (learners' current proficiency of English), lacks, learning needs (effective ways of learning the skills and linguistic features), expectations about the course, and means analysis (the teaching and learning environment) (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, 125). The sources of data can be published and unpublished literature, the learners, applied linguists, or domain experts, while the methods of data collection range from using expert and non-expert intuitions, language audits, participant and non-participant observation, ethnographic methods, journals and logs, to language proficiency and competency measures (Long 2005, 5), with conducting interviews and circulating questionnaires being the most popular methods (Bocanegra-Valle, 2016, p. 560). It is important to note that over the years, these sources and methods have been triangulated, and there have been interactions between sources and methods (Serafini, Lake, & Long 2015).

Despite the salient research related to it, needs analysis has received many criticisms. From a critical point of view, it is seen as a practical tool in education per se, fitting learners into certain learning contexts and future professional communities (Benesch 2001 in Flowerdew 2013, 333) and serving the interests of institutions rather than those of the learners (Auerbach 2011 in Basturkmen 2006, 19). On the practical side, the concept of needs has evoked a number of issues. For instance, needs are not universal and are changing (Bocanegra-Valle 2016, 567), needs analysis is always insufficient due to the various teaching contexts and stakeholders' perceptions to take into consideration (Johns & Makalela 2011, 203), and, when it comes to designing a course, target needs are not always learning needs (Hutchinson & Waters 1987, 54).

The subsequent step is to determine the course content, also informed by needs analysis and theoretical considerations and affected by the focus of the course. There is a distinction between real and carrier content. Real content deals with pedagogical aims, such as the language features students hope to be able to produce, while carrier content deals with the means of delivering the aims, such as classroom activities (Basturkmen 2010, 59). Planning a syllabus entails deciding types of units, for instance, skills, vocabulary, and professional or cultural content, items in the units, for example, genres, semantic sets, and functions, and sequencing (Basturkmen 2010, 61).

Next, concerning materials development, ESP teachers and course developers favor the use of authentic materials, which are texts "written for purposes other than language learning and teaching", and authentic tasks (Basturkmen 2010, 62). Authentic texts are thought to demonstrate 'real' language use, although finding appropriate authentic materials is not always easy (Basturkmen 2010, 63). In fact, suitable materials can be obtained not only by writing them (development) but also by selecting existing materials (evaluation) and by modifying existing materials (adaptation) (Hutchinson & Waters 1987, 96). Meanwhile, the case for authentic tasks is in line with one of the absolute characteristics of ESP, which is making use of "the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves" (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, 4).

Basturkmen (2010, 68) concluded that there is no ready formula for determining ESP curricula so that any arising matters need to be considered in each area of curriculum development. It is not to mention that beyond those steps in designing an ESP course, there are still a number of issues, such as teacher subject-knowledge expertise, acculturation, and critical/pragmatic approaches to teaching English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing, which can contribute to the design of an ESP course.

1.4 Research design and methods

In collecting and analyzing data, the approach of this study is largely qualitative as verbal data were heavily relied on. To answer research questions, primary data were obtained from learners who were going to take part in the workshop as participants. The population was high school students of SMA Negeri 69 Jakarta from grades X, XI, and XII. Using a convenience sampling technique which gathers participants based on their availability (Wagner 2005), 36 student respondents (8 males and 28 females) who were interested in joining the "English for Tour Guides" intensive workshop were invited to participate in the study. These students, who were between 16-18 years old, lived on either Pramuka Island, Panggang Island, or Kelapa Island.

The instrument used to collect students' opinions was a questionnaire consisting of three main open-ended questions inquiring: 1) their views on tourism in Kepulauan Seribu; 2) their respective plan after graduating from high school; and, 3) their motivation to join the English workshop. Verbal data from this questionnaire were separated into categories, such as "general positive view", "language", and "trash", and were then quantified and analyzed based on the categories. As this study concerns practical problems and solutions, the results of the analysis are accompanied by relevant pedagogical implications, as informed by the literature and the researchers' reflections.

2. FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

2.1 Students' Views on Local Tourism in Kepulauan Seribu

Positive responses (47 idea units) from the 36 participants outweigh the negative attributes (13 idea units) of local tourism in Kepulauan Seribu as perceived by the students. These responses fall into 15 categories for the positive comments and 5 categories for the negative ones.

Students' encouraging remarks about local tourism are mostly categorized under "general positive view", which contains nearly uniform responses that tourism in Kepulauan Seribu is "good", "sufficient", "interesting", and "well-developed". One student highlighted the significant growth of local tourism and the islands being assets of denizens and the government. This is related to the category of "economy" under which two students testified that the islands' tourism industry has boosted local economy. Other comments are more detailed, underscoring the facts that Kepulauan Seribu has plentiful small islands ("islands" category), offers interesting destinations, for example, the Love Bridge and historical places, such as Panggang Island

("destinations" category), and boasts beautiful natural landscapes ("scenery" category). One student pointed at the islands' nearby location ("location" category), which may refer to the relatively short distance between the islets or between Kepulauan Seribu and Jakarta, the capital city of Indonesia. While the former implies convenient transportation back and forth the many islets, the latter suggests easy access for tourists coming from Jakarta.

Based on the students' accounts, those advantages are supported by accommodation that is within range ("accommodation" category), relatively low costs for a vacation ("cost" category), and special cuisine ("food" category). The fame of Kepulauan Seribu can be achieved as so many people have been promoting the islands on social media ("social media" category). One student mentioned advanced technology ("technology" category) as the cause of the growing tourism, although its relevance remains unclear. Due to the rising popularity, six students agreed that the islands have attracted numerous tourists, including foreigners, to spend their holiday there ("tourists" category). One student reported that her family runs a travel agency and often guides tourists around ("travel agency" category). Moreover, two students believed that the local residents have been aware of the universal language, given the visits by domestic and foreign tourists, and that many of them have mastered English ("language" category). This intercultural interaction is probably what is meant by a student who claimed that the increasing tourism in Kepulauan Seribu has led to positive impacts on social and cultural conditions ("socio-cultural issue" category).

Regarding the students' negative evaluation, as opposed to the positive remarks under the "language" category, most of the students' responses address local tour guides' lack mastery in foreign languages, especially English. This, according to them, has hampered communication with international tourists. In relation to this concern, one student voiced out a call to action on improving the competitiveness of local human resources in order to advance local tourism industry and economy ("call to action" category). Some students were also alarmed about trash and residents' littering habit ("trash" category) and the lack of infrastructure on the islands, for instance, supermarkets, which has reportedly caused inconvenience for visitors ("infrastructure" category). Another relevant and interesting point was raised by two students under the "socio-cultural issue" category. They perceived that tourists often overlook local customs, for example, wearing clothing which is considered improper by denizens. One of the students suggested conducting introduction or cultural events to prevent local cultural values from being threatened.

The key takeaways from the above findings are that: 1) the students deemed enhancing tourism industry in their region important and took pride in local tourism; and, 2) they realized several areas which can be improved to further develop tourism in Kepulauan Seribu. When operationalized using a poststructuralist view on Second Language Acquisition (SLA), students' sense of pride may reflect their social identity. This notion is understood as a "sense of belonging to a particular social group" in terms of ethnicity, social class, language, and other possible means (Mitchell, Myler, & Marsden 2013, 276). In the case of the student participants, their shared social identity is largely geographical, as residents of Kepulauan Seribu. In addition, it is worth noting that the students' pride in the local tourism is accompanied by their awareness of what is lacking, and this entails the need for improving the capabilities of local human resources, particularly their English skills. Although this agreed statement needs further validation since it may not be based on students' first-hand experiences, this should reflect their personal view, which might be derived from watching or hearing from other people's experiences as tour guides.

2.2 Students' Motivation in Joining the Workshop

The majority of the students only gave rather general reasons as to why they were interested in participating in the advertised workshop. The most repeatedly mentioned reason is to improve English skills and knowledge, with no further details. Relevant to these findings, Long (1996 in Basturkmen 2006) postulates that learners cannot be relied on for information on their language needs. Similarly, Chambers (1980 in Basturkmen 2006) asserts that learners themselves are unlikely to be aware of their own needs. Six participants revealed their desire for gaining new experience, but, again, what they meant by experience was not specified. Nevertheless, one student wanted to experience being taught by university lecturers.

Five students were more particular about the aspects of English skills and knowledge they wished to develop, and these include fluency, pronunciation, and vocabulary. Two students admitted a perceived deficiency in English, and another student wanted more practice in using the language in the workshop. The three areas to improve indicate those students' learning goal, which was to acquire knowledge (vocabulary, including pronunciation) and skills (fluency) of English (Nation 2001, 96), presumably in speaking. The students' negative evaluation of their English abilities points to the cognitive component of second language (L2) self-confidence (Macintyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels 1998, 551). Meanwhile, the need for more practice signifies the possible lack of opportunities for oral practice in the classroom setting at school.

Five other participants stated that they wanted to be able to talk to foreigners. One of them even expressed her desire to establish friendships with foreigners. Considering their geographical context, it is safe to say that these foreigners refer to visitors from overseas, although one of them mentioned communicating with foreigners on vacation. More specifically, one student would like to introduce local tourism to foreigners. Also, another student was willing to help international tourists in getting around as she once witnessed a foreign visitor getting lost when trying to find a homestay, but the locals were unable to help her due to a lack of English speaking skills. This group of students can be said to have an integrative orientation in learning English as they sought social exchanges with speakers of the target language (Brown 2007a, 170). This orientation is opposed to instrumental goals of other student participants, which can be related to career, such as to get a job and to become an English teacher, or academic-oriented, such as to satisfy university's requirements and to join an exchange program abroad, all of which position the target language as a means to achieve those goals (Brown 2007a, 170).

Apart from the two groups, one student highlighted that learning is a must for students, suggesting that his motivation to sign up for the workshop is for the sake of studying as a moral duty. Other reasons mentioned by the students include bigger, non-personal issues, for instance, the status of English as an international language and a foreign language commonly used in Indonesia, the growing local tourism, and the fact that there was no English learning institution on the island where they lived.

2.3 Students' Future Aspirations after Graduation

28 out of the 36 student participants declared their intention to pursue higher education as their main priority upon graduating from high school. While 17 of them seemed certain about their preferred major, university/college, or both, the remaining participants merely alluded to a broad idea of attending university. Specific higher education institutions, mostly public universities, were mentioned, including Bandung Institute of Technology, Universitas Indonesia, Universitas Gajah Mada, Universitas Padjajaran, Public University of Jakarta, Universitas Buya Hamka, and the Police Academy. Some students also pointed out to the majors they were interested in, such as pharmacy, medicine, dentistry, nursing, chemistry education, computer

science, petroleum engineering, English language teaching, psychology, social and political sciences, history, international relations, and the study of business, television, and films.

In comparison, only two students chose to directly work after high school. However, one of them planned to save up money from working to finance her studies later on. Financial issues were brought up by four other students who declared willingness to work while studying or work first before pursuing a higher-education degree. This situation is understandable, given the students' varying socio-economic background, although the data show that the percentage of the poor in Kepulauan Seribu in 2017 stood at 12.98%, higher than the preceding years and multiple times larger than the range of 3.14-5.59% for the rest of the municipalities in DKI Jakarta (BPS-Statistics of Kepulauan Seribu Regency 2018).

Moreover, the aforementioned multistep strategy was also suggested by a student who intended to go to an Islamic boarding house for Qur'an memorization while taking an English course at the same time before studying psychology at the university. Apparently, enrolling on an English course was quite an option as two students expressed their intent to go to "*Kampung Inggris*" (the English Village) in Pare, East Java. One student remained undecided about either working or studying, while the other participant did not specify his plan.

Those findings reveal that the student participants aimed at a higher level of educational attainment after graduating from high school. Notably, none of them mentioned tourism studies as their favored study program. The students who intended to work straight after graduation did not suggest being a tour guide, either. This may mean that tour-guiding is not an occupation they considered earnestly. Nevertheless, in Indonesia, entrance tests to colleges and universities commonly include a section on English, particularly assessing reading skills and grammatical competence. As such, learning English is highly relevant for those students aspiring to enter higher education institutions. In this case, joining a training on "English for Tour Guides" which emphasizes on oral proficiency seems inapt for their plans.

However, while the need to acquire English for university admission exams or job applications is derived from the students' near-future goals, the researchers saw that the need to learn English for tour-guiding arises from their present situation, but this is not to be confused with the concept of present situation analysis according to Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998). Instead, it resonates more with the difference between "immediate needs" and "delayed needs" (Dudley-Evans & St. John 1998, 148), seen as two ends on a continuum in this context. Since the students were still in high school, there would be a waiting time until they pass a university entrance exam or apply for a job. Their English needs then lean towards the side of delayed needs. Meanwhile, living in Kepulauan Seribu, they are likely to frequently encounter foreign visitors and come in contact with them, either voluntarily or at the request of the tourists who are asking for direction or help. Thus, their need to learn English for tour-guiding purposes is more immediate than taking an admission test or looking for a job. If the students were prepared to handle such interactions in English and successful in conversing with foreigners, their L2 self-confidence in speaking could be boosted. It has been noted in the literature that when L2 learners face native speakers of English as interlocutors, this can affect their L2 self-confidence (Heng, Abdullah, & Yusof 2012; Morita 2004; Woodrow 2006).

3. RATIONALE FOR THE DESIGN FOR "ENGLISH FOR TOUR GUIDES" MATERIALS

3.1 Principles of the "English for Tour Guides" Materials Development

After analyzing the students' responses and consulting the literature, a number of principles underpinning the design of the materials on "English for Tour Guides" were established.

The first key principle is student-centeredness which is based on needs analysis. In developing materials for spoken language, Bao's (2013) stressed the importance of conceptualizing leaners' needs by means of needs assessment. Thus, it is essential that the materials include specific language features and skills needed by learners for their study purposes (Basturkmen 2010, 17) and attempt to achieve authenticity in texts and tasks (Basturkmen 2010, 62). This principle concerns whether the materials have relevance to learners' needs, for instance, resembling real-life tasks they are likely to do in English and containing the spoken genres typically used when guiding tourists.

Secondly, the materials should nurture learners' intrinsic motivation, taking their wants and personal interests into account. Since the workshop was supplementary to the English subject taught at their school and their participation was deliberate, their motivation to learn might also be external, for example, to comply with their school teachers' request for them to join the workshop. Although by and large external motivation can contribute to acquisition, intrinsic motivation is indicated to be more prevailing (Brown 2007b, 89) and corresponds to enjoyment and engagement (Mishan & Timmis 2015, 11). Hence, it is desirable that the topics are interesting as well as intellectually and emotionally stimulating, the activities are various as well as challenging but still attainable (Tomlinson 2011, 10), and the layout and visual design of the materials are appealing enough to learners.

The third principle is influenced by Krashen's Input Hypothesis that acquisition can occur if learners understand messages in the second language. Therefore, the input needs to be comprehensible or slightly beyond learners' current level of proficiency (VanPatten & Williams 2015, 62). For the workshop context, this principle is appropriate as learners are high school students who were presumably not accustomed to using English on a regular basis. Presenting to them texts and recordings which are manageable and contain vocabulary and language structures that are within or just beyond their current knowledge can give a sense of security and encourage them to learn more. Moreover, input is likely to be comprehensible in communication situations in which meaning, rather than form, is consistently focused on (VanPatten & Williams 2015, 63). This is in line with most SLA research and theories which affirm that a major focus on pragmatic meaning can help learners develop true fluency (Ellis 2005, 212), an area of speaking which the students desired to improve. In addition, it is important to consider critical thinking skills, learners' personal views, and a balance between controlled and free exercises so that the materials predominantly focus on meaning. These criteria are deemed vital and relevant to be incorporated, given the language pedagogical practices in Indonesia which tend to emphasize on form and explicit teaching of grammatical structures.

Complementing the third principle is the Interaction Hypothesis, in line with real-life tasks which a tour guide usually performs. It asserts that when learners are "pushed" to produce output which is more target-like (Gass & Mackey 2015, 183), they can be pointed out to their linguistic problems, can trial their hypothesis about how to use the language, and can reflect on the language they or people around them produce through individual mental functioning (Swain 2005). In this case, the interaction in which learners are involved draws their attention to language form. Language-focused learning is not less necessary than meaning-focused learning because the former is helpful for learners to develop explicit knowledge needed in normal language use (Nation & Macalister 2010, 92). In the materials, the aspect of focusing on form is indicated by corrective feedback and controlled exercises.

The fifth principle maintains that learners' knowledge of the target language needs to be regularly recycled to develop their fluency in using the language both receptively and productively. This stems from the perceived difficulty of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners to access and use their knowledge of English fluently, no matter how substantial their knowledge is due to years of learning (Nation & Macalister 2010, 54). The case is true for most English learners in Indonesia as they do not have many opportunities to

use English in daily communication situations. It is in classroom settings where the recycle of knowledge of English can be done through fluency activities. Therefore, the language tasks in the materials should revise their existing knowledge of English.

Last but not least is the teaching of intercultural competence. In a narrower viewpoint, the purpose of teaching culture is for the learners to understand the perspective of a native speaker of English so that they are able to use English in "culturally appropriate ways" when interacting with the target language community (Kumaravadivelu 2003, 268). However, in a wider communication context, learners are likely to be involved in cross-cultural interactions with speakers of English from other cultural (and linguistic) backgrounds, which call for an appreciation of cultural similarities and differences. This can be developed through input which exposes learners to, for example, various global English accents.

3.2 Pedagogical Tasks in the "English for Tour Guides" Materials

Studies undertaking needs analysis found that EFL learners were typically worried about their speaking abilities, such as not being able to convey the message clearly or master the content (Anandari 2015), anxious about the activity of speaking itself, for instance, class interaction (Zheng 2015) and stage fright (Anandari 2015), and may be affected by the local cultural norms in their countries which did not encourage self-expression (Harumi 2011). This is apparently the case for most Indonesian-speaking learners of English. Thus, the main learning objective of the materials is to develop students' confidence and skills in speaking in English in the context of tour-guiding. To promote self-confidence in using English orally, the teaching approach of the unit is task-based, exposing learners to listening and speaking opportunities (Boonkit, 2010). Through content-based activities around the topic of local tourist destinations, learners would be provided with conditions for dealing with meanings and purposes for using English, which enable them to interact with peers (Bao 2013). It is hoped that engaging learners in such an actual communication can help them develop true fluency and eventually lead to acquisition of the target skills (Ellis 2005).

The students' similar geographical background can be advantageous for foreign language teachers and course designers to find common topics to discuss in the classroom. Recognizing learners' needs leads to the identification of subject matters and communication situations, including topics, communication strategies, functions, and key structures (Bao 2013). Since the "English for Tour Guides" materials were designed for a rather specific group of learners with presumably comparable cultural backgrounds and levels of proficiency, particular topics were desirable, such as tourist destinations in Kepulauan Seribu and tour-guiding activities. Also, corresponding to the real-life task of tour guides, the target communication context is delivering a tour guide speech. Conversational strategies are also taught as these are deemed essential to communicate meanings in real-life interactions (Bao 2013).
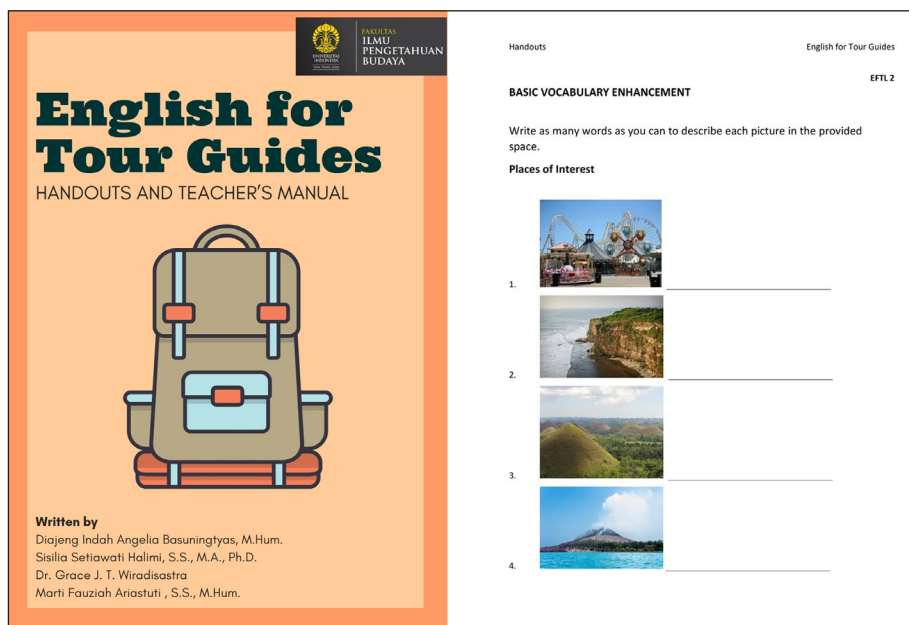
Figure 6. Cover and Content of the Materials.

The materials are compiled into a book titled "English for Tour Guides: Handouts and Teacher's Manual". It is divided into two parts, which are the worksheets to be duplicated for the students and the manual for teachers who are users of the book. For the purpose of this study, the focus is on the first part of the materials. The materials consist of seven units, namely "Body Language", "Basic Vocabulary Enhancement", "Common Expressions for Tour Guide Speech", "Giving Directions", "Getting to Know Your City", "Setting off on a Tour 1", "Setting off on a Tour 2", and "Evaluation for Delivering Presentation & Commentaries".

The first unit to be taught is "Basic Vocabulary Enhancement", which aims at familiarizing learners with vocabulary related to tourism, including places of interest, belongings, transportation, holiday activities, and warning signs. However, instead of providing vocabulary items, the unit presents pictures which serve as visual cues, while learners need to come up with words related to the pictures. Hence, the teaching of vocabulary is implicit and aims for learners to generate the vocabulary items themselves with the assistance of facilitators in the workshop. Another reason for having the vocabulary taught implicitly is to draw learners' attention to accomplish the communicative speaking task and encourage them to develop fluency of expression, instead of focusing on accuracy (Burns 2012).

The next unit introduces common expressions for tour-guiding in three steps. First, a model tour guide speech is provided with blank spaces, and learners are asked to fill them in with words or phrases they have learned from the preceding unit. This reflects the principle of recycling students' knowledge to develop fluency in using the target vocabulary items. Second, from the model tour guide speech, learners need to find common expressions for greeting and introduction, as well as explaining rules, warnings, and etiquette. Learners' awareness of language for guiding a tour, particularly common discourse markers and formulaic ways of performing common speech acts (Thornbury 2005), is raised. Formulaic expressions are considered valuable to cater to fluency (Skehan 1998 in Ellis 2005) and to develop a rule-based competence (Ellis 2005). This task takes an inductive approach to learning formulaic expressions since rules are discovered by generalizing from examples (Thornbury 1999). The third task is for the learners to write their own tour guide speech using the same structure as the model, with given tour agenda and rules for visitors.

Next, learners are taught more vocabulary and grammar on giving directions and describing a tourist destination, such as positions of a place based on a map, passive voice to tell the history of a place, and adjectives of a place. For giving directions, a small speaking task is given, in which learners need to take turns asking and giving directions. This realistic role-playing allow for retrieving and generating under real operating conditions (Nation 1995) and facilitate learners to practice using conversational strategies in a pair discussion, such as building talk upon the interlocutor's utterance and taking turn (Bao 2013). Meanwhile, regarding describing places, controlled exercises in the form of a grammatical drill, a sentence-writing task, and a fill-in-the-blank vocabulary task are provided. This language-focused learning is believed to be an effective way to learn language features quickly, especially to help learners understand input (Nation & Macalister 2010).

The subsequent materials are divided into two units, which are titled "Setting off on a Tour 1", which focuses on a tour guide speech to one tourist destination, and "Setting off on a Tour 2", which focuses on giving a city tour while on the bus or another transportation mode. For "Setting off on a Tour 1", a four-part tour guide speech on Pura Ulun Danu, Bali is given as an example. The choice of Bali is deemed relevant with Kepulauan Seribu as both regions offer island-based tourism. The speech consists of welcoming tourists, describing a location, warning, and closing remarks. The part on warning tourists is to sensitize learners with cultural customs in local tourism. Learners are then asked to extract information about Pura Ulun Danu from the model speech. After that, they need to work in a group to come up with a tourist destination they know in Kepulauan Seribu and present information about the place using a table organizer.

To accomplish the above task, each of them needs to share his/her existing knowledge about the issues in the chosen excerpts. This information gap activity (Tomlinson 2011) requires them to discover missing information in their knowledge gaps by learning from partners and employing individual knowledge (Bao 2013). Learners are then asked to complete a four-part tour guide speech by filling in the blanks. These reading, listening, and writing activities constitute a series of small orientation tasks guiding learners to be prepared for the content and language in the main speaking task, which is role-playing as tour guides and tourists in front of their group members and other groups. The presence of these orientation tasks echoes the principle of utilizing reasonable degree of familiarity with the topic (Bao 2013). Learners are encouraged not to read from their notes when speaking and given some time to practice individually. When presenting to their peers, the skill being practiced is production skills, including using devices to assist the production of speech under time pressure and experiencing corrections and alterations of learners' own speech (Bygate 1987).

The activities for "Setting off on a Tour 2" follow a similar format. The only difference is the structure of the model tour guide speech, which comprises seven parts, including welcoming tourists, describing the first destination site, remarks, describing the second site, remarks, describing the third site, remarks, and closing remarks. Working in the same group, learners are expected to choose three other destinations in their surrounding area to describe. The activity of deciding three destination sites is intended for developing learners' active participation, autonomy, and wider personal involvement (Bao 2013). Furthermore, since individual students bring different knowledge to the group, each group in the class will have much information on different places in Kepulauan Seribu, and this can be the basis of a whole-class information sharing activity led by the teacher.

Other than the content of the tour guide speech, learners are introduced to body language when guiding a tour by watching a video of a tour guide explaining six tips, for example, maintaining eye contact with audience and practicing a firm handshake. The pedagogical task is a listening activity, after which learners need to make notes about what to do and what is not appropriate to do in tour-guiding pertaining to each tip. As the video contains language which is seemingly higher than the high school students' current

proficiency, options of answers are provided, and the students can match them with the right category. Learners are also provided with lists of possible questions asked by tourists and typical answers from tour guides, all of which they need to practice in pairs. With this task, learners can exercise their interaction skills which comprise management of interaction, such as managing the topic, and negotiation of meaning, such as comprehension checks, confirmation checks, and clarification requests (Bygate 1987; Kumaravadivelu 2003).

During the group speaking activities, the teacher can go around the class, observe students' performance, and occasionally give feedback on correctness to improve learners' language accuracy and effective use of skills and strategies (Burns 2012). It is important for the teacher not to overemphasize correction and to value students' attempts, give a lot of positive feedback, approach students with good humor, and encourage remarks (Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, & Thwaite 2001). A vital role played by the teacher is to provide support and create relaxed classroom atmosphere to lower a sense of fragility and helplessness within learners, attributed to their language ego (Brown 2007b). At the end of the learning session, the teacher can point out the linguistic features of spoken language, as opposed to written language, including frequent use of ellipsis and the occurrence of performance effects, such as hesitations, repeats, and false starts (Burns 2012). This is to prevent learners from assuming that speaking calls for 'perfect' use of English, and, thus, to foster their self-confidence.

3.3 Materials Evaluation and Revision

The workshop on July 27-29, 2018 was continued with a follow-up workshop on September 22, 2018 for five students who participated in the first workshop to see if they still retained the knowledge and skills taught by assessing their performance in delivering tour guide speeches. Before the second workshop was held, the materials had gone through some revisions based on the facilitators' experience of using the materials. One particular unit that was given attention to is "Giving Directions". The comparison between the original and the revised version is presented below.

Figure 7. The original (left) and the Revised (Right) Versions of the Unit "Giving Directions".

The revised version of the unit portrays a significantly different map in terms of the names of the streets, the buildings, and the placing of these buildings. One of the most striking differences is that while there is a train station in the original version, the revised version has a harbor facing the sea. This new section on the map resembles the real situation in Pramuka Island and other islets in Kepulauan Seribu which are connected by ships, rather than trains. Another example is that "Jl. Mokodompit", "Jl. Sentosa", and "Jl. Damai" were replaced by "Jl. Kakaktua", "Jl. Pelikan", and "Jl. Elang". The latter group consists of the names of birds in Indonesia. Some buildings which were eliminated include the "jewelry store", "women's wear", "men's wear", "sporting goods", "book store", and "movie theatre", and the new buildings which appear in the revised materials are "mini market", "souvenir shop", "administration office", "school", and two hotels. This change is in line with the results of the questionnaire regarding the lack of infrastructure, as perceived by the students. The buildings in the previous version do not commonly exist in Kepulauan Seribu, and this can possibly pose a challenge for the students to relate to the materials. With buildings which are associated with tourism industry, such as hotels and a souvenir shop, and familiar to them, learners can make use of their prior knowledge to help them understand the vocabulary and grammar items being taught.

The above finding carries a theoretical implication. While course designers and material developers tend to rely on the results of needs analysis, in fact, a try-out of the materials and its corresponding feedback need to be given emphasis. Ellis (1997 in McGrath 2013) draws a line between a pre-use evaluation of materials, which is predictive by nature, and a post-use evaluation, which is termed as "retrospective" evaluation and results from users' experience and perceptions of the effects of the materials. The trial of the materials in the workshop leads to a finding that a post-use evaluation is equally important as the materials need revising to better suit the students' cultural background.

4. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Overall, this study lays out an example of conducting a community service program on teaching English for tour guides using a bottom-up approach. It started with a needs assessment and gathered actual data from the participants on their English learning needs. These data were then consulted to the literature on foreign language teaching and learning. This process resulted in a set of teaching principles for the materials and workshop on "English for Tour Guides", which were then translated into carefully selected pedagogical tasks for the students in the materials.

In light of the questionnaire responses, this study suggests that the learners value local tourism in Kepulauan Seribu highly, although some areas need improvement. This positive attitude can translate into intrinsic motivation to learn English, especially for tour-guiding purposes, because they could see the relevance of the workshop with their personal life. This is also one of the reasons why the materials were developed using local content, which was to encourage the students to keep learning without struggling to understand cultural content that is unfamiliar to them, for example, if tourism destinations in overseas countries were selected instead of the ones in Kepulauan Seribu. Even after the materials were tried out and evaluated, some content still needed to be more localized. This may also be because the facilitators found that the exercises on giving directions were rather challenging for the learners, so it was deemed necessary to increase the degree of familiarity between the students and the materials. In addition, their intrinsic motivation to learn could have been strengthened further as the learners were aware of their limited capabilities in using English, while a mastery of this language may help them in achieving their more long-term goals, such as being admitted to a public university and getting a decent job. This implies that when running an ESP course, the needs of the students other than the ones set out by course developers in the

beginning may play an important role in maintaining students' motivation to learn and, thus, should be taken into account.

Regarding the materials, as the students had relatively low proficiency in English, the syllabus did not attempt to cover all the skills needed by a tour guide when encountering international visitors. Rather, priority was given to teach them how to prepare for and deliver a guide speech as well as how to answer tourists' questions. However, these sub-skills were taught in a guided manner, which is step-by-step and included some controlled activities, instead of assigning the students free production activities only. This decision was reached after considering that the students did not have much confidence in using English orally due to their lack of knowledge, skills, and practice in doing so. Pushing them to formulate utterances related to tour-guiding without sufficient guidance could inhibit their willingness to try. By learning from examples and practicing with peers, they were given the opportunity to experiment using English without fearing for making too many mistakes.

Furthermore, the study points out that for those students, English education may not be a privilege. Thus, the workshop provided supplementary English trainings. Proponents of critical approaches to teaching English may maintain that the workshop satisfies only future professional communities (Benesch 2001 in Flowerdew 2013), for instance, those operating tourism businesses in Kepulauan Seribu. Nevertheless, the function of the pre-course needs analysis in this study was to find out if the workshop would be of relevance with students' personal life goals. Rather than selling the idea that being a tour guide is the perfect job to pursue after graduation, the students' own aspirations were considered, and the materials related to tour-guiding were directed at preparing them to face intercultural encounters with foreign visitors, not to secure a job as a tour guide. Moreover, the study found that for the students themselves, improving their English skills is necessary to interact with foreign tourists in their present situation and to achieve study- or work-related goals in the future. This demonstrates that, unlike Auerbach's (2011 in Basturkmen 2006) concern, needs analysis can also be used to acknowledge learners' interests and help them achieve life targets, not only catering to the needs of certain institutions.

At last, it is advisable for other community service programs which involve foreign language teaching to conduct a pre-course needs analysis and compare the results with theories and empirical studies on language teaching and learning to make informed decisions, especially when designing materials. In addition, both stages of the workshop have informed that teaching foreign language skills to students through hands-on experience is more beneficial than having oral practice in the classroom, which is typically preferred by school teachers, mostly due to time and resource constraints.

REFERENCES

Anandari, Christina L. 2015. Indonesian EFL Students' Anxiety in Speech Production: Possible Causes and Remedy. *TEFLIN Journal* 26, no. 4 [January]: 1–16. Accessed January 27, 2017. http://dx.doi.org/10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i1/1-16.

Bao, Dat. 2013. Developing Materials for Speaking Skills. In *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*, edited by Brian Tomlinson, 407–428. London: Bloomsbury.

Basturkmen, Helen. 2006. *Ideas and Options in English for Specific Purposes*. New York: Routledge.

_____. 2010. *Developing Courses in English for Specific Purposes*. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Bocanegra-Valle, Ana. 2016. Needs Analysis for Curriculum Design. In *The Routledge Handbook of English for Academic Purposes*, edited by Ken Hyland and Philip Shaw, 560-576. London: Routledge.

Boonkit, Kamonpan. 2010. Enhancing the Development of Speaking Skills for Non-native Speakers of English. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences* 2 [January]: 1305–1309. Accessed February 3, 2018. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2010.03.191.

BPS-Statistics of Kepulauan Seribu Regency. 2018. *Kepulauan Seribu Regency in Figures*. Jakarta: BPS-Statistics of Kepulauan Seribu Regency.

Breen, Michael P., Hird, Bernard, Milton, Marion, Thwaite, Anne, Oliver, Rhonda. 2001. Making Sense of Language Teaching: Teachers' Principles and Classroom Practices." *Applied Linguistics* 22, no. 4 [December]: 470–501. Accessed August 12, 2018. http://dx.doi.org/10.1093/applin/22.4.470.

Brown, H. Douglas. 2007a. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. New York: Pearson Education, Inc.

_____. 2007b. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*. White Plains NY: Pearson.

Burns, Anne. 2012. A Holistic Approach to Teaching Speaking in the Language Classroom. Paper presented at *Symposium, University of Stockholm*. Accessed August 12, 2018. Retrieved from http://www.andrasprak.su.se/polopoly_fs/1.204517.1411636356!/menu/standard/file/Anne_Burns.pdf

Bygate, Martin. *1987. Speaking*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Dudley-Evans, Tony & St John, Maggie Jo. 1998. *Developments in English for Specific Purposes – A Multi-Disciplinary Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ellis, Rod. 2005. Principles of Instructed Language Learning." *System* 33, no. 2 [June]: 209–224. Accessed April 11, 2018. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2004.12.006

Flowerdew, Lynne. 2013. Needs Analysis and Curriculum Development in ESP. In *The Handbook of English for Specific Purposes*, edited by Brian Paltridge and Sue Starfield, 325–346. Oxford: Wiley-Blackwell.

Gass, Susan. M. & Mackey, Alison. 2015. Interaction Approaches." In *Theories in Second Language Acquisition*, edited by Bill VanPatten and Jessica Williams, 180–206. London: Routledge.

Gray, John. 2002. The Global Coursebook in English Language Teaching. In *Globalization and Language Teaching*, edited by David Block and Deborah Cameron, 151–167. London: Routledge.

Harumi, Seiko. 2011. Classroom Silence: Voices from Japanese EFL Learners." *ELT Journal* 65, no. 3 [July]: 260–269. Accessed November 3, 2016. https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccq046.

Heng, Chan Swee, Abdullah, Ain Nadzimah, & Yusof, Nurkarimah. 2012. Investigating the Construct of Anxiety in Relation to Speaking Skills among ESL Tertiary Learners. *Journal of Language Teaching, Linguistics, and Literature Jurnal Pusat Bahasa, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia* 18, no. 3 [2012]: 155–166. Accessed February 18, 2017.

Hutchinson, Tom & Waters, Alan. 1987. *English for Specific Purposes – A Learning-centred Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Johns, Ann M. & Makalela, Leketi. 2011. Needs Analysis, Critical Ethnography, and Context: Perspectives from the Client – and the Consultant. In *New Directions in English for Specific Purposes Research*, edited by Ann M. Johns, Brian Paltridge, and Diane Belcher, 197–221. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

Kumaravadivelu, B. 2003. *Beyond Methods: Macrostrategies for Language Teaching*. New Haven: Yale University.

Long, Michael H. 2005. A Rationale for Needs Analysis and Needs Analysis Research." In *Second Language Needs Analysis*, edited by Michael H. Long, 1–16. Cambridge: CUP.

Macintyre, Peter D., Dörnyei, Zoltan, Clément, Richard, & Noels, Kimberly A. 1998. Conceptualizing Willingness to Communicate in a L2: A Situational Model of L2 Confidence and Affiliation." *Modern Language Journal* 82, no. 4 [Winter]: 545–562. Accessed January 27, 2017. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.1998.tb05543.x

McGrath, Ian. 2013. *Teaching Materials and the Roles of EFL/ESL Teachers*. London; New York: Bloomsbury Academic.

McKay, Sandra Lee. "Culture in Teaching English as an International Language." In *Teaching English as an International Language: Rethinking Goals and Approaches*, edited by Sandra Lee McKay, 81–101. Oxford: OUP, 2002.

Mishan, Freda & Timmis, Ivor. *Materials Development for TESOL*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2015.

Mitchell, Rosamond, Myler, Florence & Marsden, Emma. *Second Language Learning Theories* (3rd ed.). London; New York: Routledge, 2013.

Morita, Naoko. 2004. Negotiating Participation and Identity in Second Language Academic Communities. TESOL Quarterly 38, no. 4 [Winter]: 573–603. Accessed January 20, 2019. DOI: 10.2307/3588281.

Nation, Paul. 1995. *Teaching Listening and Speaking*. Wellington: Victoria University of Wellington.

Nation, I. S. Paul. 2001. *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

_____ & Macalister, John. 2010. *Language Curriculum Design*. New York: Routledge.

Schneider, Edgar W. "Grassroots Englishes in Tourism Interactions." English Today 32, no. 3. [2016]: 2–10. Accessed June 5, 2019. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0266078416000183.

Swain, Merrill. 2005. The Output Hypothesis: Theory and Research. In *Handbook on Research in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, edited by Eli Hinkel, 471–483. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Thitthongkam, Thavorn & Walsh, John. 2010. Roles of Language in Tourism Organizational Management. *Asian Journal of Management Research,* 184–199. Accessed December 2, 2018. Retrieved from https://www.academia.edu/2287142/Roles_of_Language_in_Tourism_Organizational_Management.

Thornbury, Scott. 1999. *How to Teach Grammar*. Essex: Pearson Education.

_____. 2005. *How to Teach Speaking.* Essex: Longman.

Tomlinson, Brian. 2011. Introduction. In *Materials Development in Language Teaching* (2nd ed.), edited by Brian Tomlinson, 1–31. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

VanPatten, Bill & Williams, Jessica. 2015. Early Theories in SLA. In *Theories in Second Language Acquisition*, edited by Bill VanPatten and Jessica Williams, 45–76. London: Routledge.

Wagner, Elvis. 2005. Survey Research. In *Research Methods in Applied Linguistics: A Practical Resource* (2nd ed.), edited by Brian Paltridge and Aek Phakiti, 102–124. London: Bloomsbury.

Woodrow, Lindy. 2006. Anxiety and Speaking English as a Second Language. *RELC Journal: A Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 37, no. 3: 308–328. Accessed March 7, 2016. https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206071315.

Zheng, Chao. 2015. A Comparative Study of Foreign Language Anxiety between Chinese First-Year University Students Studying in China and Those in New Zealand." Master's Thesis, The University of Auckland.