

Michael Joseph Ennis

# What is ‘English for Tourism’?

## An Updated ‘Grounded Review’ of the Literature

### Abstract

*This paper reports the results of a replication of an exploratory study conducted five years earlier that sought to answer the deceptively simple question: ‘What is English for Tourism?’. The original study created a corpus of 348 texts that served as a representative sample of all EFT literature available on Google Books and Google Scholar at the time, including both teaching material and academic literature. A qualitative analysis, which categorized and coded the corpus in accordance with grounded theory, revealed two categories of teaching material—those written for local markets and those written for international markets—as well as two parallel research traditions within this niche of applied linguistics: studies that aim to understand and inform the teaching and learning of English for tourism (EfT) and studies that seek to understand and explain the English of tourism (EoT). A quantitative analysis using Microsoft Excel and the free concordancer LancsBox confirmed and qualified these thematic categories via a comparative analysis of the EfT and EoT sub-corpora. The present study employed the same sampling frame to update the existing corpus with 543 texts published or made accessible online over the last five years. The same mixed-methods data analyses were performed on the expanded corpus. The results of the replication reconfirm the semantic, conceptual, theoretical, and methodological differences and interdependencies between EfT and EoT found during the first study. The results also reveal recent shifts in international and national discourses and expose further gaps in the existing body of literature.*

**Keywords:** *English for tourism, English of tourism, English for specific purposes, grounded theory, corpus-based research, literature review*

There is no denying that the Covid-19 pandemic has had a negative impact on tourism in Italy. With over 13% of the Italian economy directly derived from tourism, the short-run effects of the pandemic have been detrimental to Italian businesses and families who depend on tourists for income.<sup>1</sup> Some countries, in particular island nation states, are more dependent

---

<sup>1</sup> According to multiple news reports—albeit sometimes sensationalized—the absence of tourists has also had positive effects for the conservation of ecosystems and world heritage. See, for example, this report on Venice: [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HwHpl\\_oNTVI](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=HwHpl_oNTVI). All websites last visited 08/07/2021.

upon tourism, with as much as 70% of GDP and 90% of the domestic labor market stemming from tourism-related activities.<sup>2</sup> These countries, and popular destinations like Venice, have faced extreme economic hardship due to travel restrictions and the shuttering of “non-essential businesses.”<sup>3</sup> But when it comes to tourism as a sector of the global economy, there is almost always light at the end of the proverbial tunnel. Established tourism markets have proven to be resilient to any manner of demand shock in the long run,<sup>4</sup> as the upward trend in international tourist arrivals has recovered from every calamity in recent memory, including September 11, the 2008 financial crisis, and the Arab Spring (see UNWTO 2018; 2021), to name but a few. It is for this very reason that tourism features prominently in most economic policies and economic development plans, and it is for this reason that experts predict that international tourism will fully recover from the global pandemic sometime between 2022 and 2024.<sup>5</sup> Whether or not any of this is good news for local communities, their cultural heritage, and their ecosystems—let alone the countless family-owned businesses who have already closed shop—is, regrettably, beyond the scope of this article.

There is also no denying the dominant role that the English language has come to play in international tourism (Crystal 2003). As will be discussed below, many scholars and policymakers in developing nations and regions have deemed the acquisition of communication skills in English to be a (or *the*) top priority in ensuring high quality services in tourism and in attracting and sustaining a regular flow of tourism export income. With such lofty policy targets—not to mention the hopes and dreams of entrepreneurs and workers—straddled upon the English language, it is no wonder that the teaching and learning of English for tourism has arisen as a global enterprise.

The value of the English language in tourism—or rather the return on investment for achieving so-called ‘native like’ English proficiency—is perhaps overestimated by many stakeholders. International tourist destinations are, after all, multilingual, multicultural spaces. Which language is used and how that language is used is renegotiated with each new context and/or audience (see, for example, Held 2018). As a result, the linguistic landscapes of most tourist

---

<sup>2</sup> See <https://www.visualcapitalist.com/countries-reliant-tourism/> and <https://knoema.com/atlas/topics/Tourism/Travel-and-Tourism-Total-Contribution-to-GDP/Contribution-of-travel-and-tourism-to-GDP-percent-of-GDP>.

<sup>3</sup> See <https://www.unwto.org/taxonomy/term/347> and <https://www.statista.com/statistics/627988/tourism-total-contribution-to-gdp-italy/>.

<sup>4</sup> Localized supply shocks are another matter. Consider, for example, the numerous examples of hot springs drying up or the impacts of climate change on coastlines and ski resorts.

<sup>5</sup> See <https://www.unwto.org/impact-assessment-of-the-covid-19-outbreak-on-international-tourism>.

destinations and real-world encounters between tourists and hosts are rarely ‘English-only,’ while most oral interactions typically involve code-switching and translanguaging. Moreover, most tourists seek ‘authenticity,’ and many could be classified as ‘language tourists’ or ‘cultural tourists’ who desire to experience local languages and cultures in their natural environments, including millions of language learners (Redondo-Carretero et al. 2017) and thousands of hypermobile expat English language teachers (Stainton 2018). Many forms of mass tourism, such as cruises and bus tours, are organized and conducted almost exclusively in the tourists’ first language, with minimal interaction between locals and visitors (Shambaugh 2013; Arlt 2006). Although most communications in international tourism involve English, most encounters that local service providers have with foreign visitors entail exchanges between ‘non-native’ speakers of English (McHenry 2019). The same is true of most promotional materials written in or translated into English: authors are typically L2 speakers. Any approach to teaching communication skills for tourism should therefore embrace models of plurilingual and intercultural education (Bosch and Schlak 2013), and any approach to teaching English for tourism should embrace English as a lingua franca (e.g., Jenkins, Baker and Dewey 2017, 439-528; MacKenzie 2014; Jenkins 2012).

None of this is stated to belie the fact that the ability to communicate in English is essential for any business endeavor or career in tourism. English—or some variety thereof—is the only language prevalent in nearly every international tourist destination around the world. In addition, the features and patterns of the English language have had a marked influence over how other languages are used for tourism, ranging from simple lexical borrowings to the adoption of the rhetorical structures of spoken and written genre (examples can be found in Rață, Petroman and Petroman 2012).<sup>6</sup> Even the academic discourse on tourism studies is predominantly constructed through the English language, which has epistemological ramifications (Korstanje 2020). So, it is understandable that stakeholders, including academic institutions, view English as an indispensable skill for both tourism as a field of study and tourism as an economic activity.

Despite the widely recognized importance of English in the field of tourism, the *teaching of English for tourism* has been largely neglected in academia and in the field of English for specific purposes (ESP) in particular, at least in North America and Western Europe (Ennis and Petrie

---

<sup>6</sup> Teachers of English should, however, recall that no language in the history of the world has been formed by contact with other languages more so than the English language has (Crystal 2018, 4-125). As a result, the English of tourism consists of numerous borrowings from French, German, Italian, and many other languages.

2019). There has been substantial research on how English is used and translated in the presentation and marketing of tourist products (e.g., travel guides, brochures, websites, and advertising campaigns) and there has perhaps been even more research on various forms of travel literature (e.g., travel memoirs, postcards, and travel blogs). Within these research traditions, it is accepted that the English of tourism constitutes a domain-specific, multimodal language (often also called a ‘specialized language’ or ‘special language’) which is employed to co-construct a tourism discourse associated with distinctive rhetorical patterns and tropes, including imagery of or allusions to ‘the foreign,’ ‘the strange,’ ‘authenticity,’ ‘the tourist gaze,’ ‘mobility,’ and ‘globalization,’ among many others (e.g., Bielenia-Grajewska and Cortes de los Rios 2018; Maci, Sala and Godnič Vičić 2018; Francesconi 2014; Maci 2013; 2010; Rață, Petroman and Petroman 2012; Thurlow and Jaworski 2010; Fox 2008; Gotti 2006; Jaworski and Pritchard 2005; Dann 1996). The English of tourism has distinctive linguistic features at every level of analysis (lexis, morphology, syntax, semantics, pragmatics, genre, and discourse), which implies that it should be instructed from an ESP perspective (e.g., Otilia 2013; Wade 2013; Ruiz Garrido and Saorín-Iborra 2006; Aleson-Carbonell 2000; Huntley and Gonzales 2000; Walker 1995). Yet the teaching of English to current and future tourism professionals has often been treated as a non-academic, remedial service (Bosch and Schlak 2013; Ruiz Garrido and Saorín-Iborra 2006; Aleson-Carbonell 2000; Huntley and Gonzales 2000), which has restricted the establishment of internationally connected academic discourses and communities of practice (Ennis and Petrie 2019).

One of the first scholars to describe ESP as an emergent field in the 1970s, Strevens (1977) noted that the teaching of English for tourism was the oldest form of ESP, while Swales referred to this practice as the “pre-history” of ESP (1984, 9), and most of the seminal works on teaching ESP have acknowledged the teaching of English for tourism as an established field in practice (e.g., Dudley-Evans and St. John 1998, 83, 217; Hutchinson and Waters 1987, 53). Yet it seems that much of the research related to the teaching of English for the specific purpose of tourism has been merely coincidentally situated in tourism contexts and is not widely accessible across national boundaries (Ennis 2019). The research that does exist has rarely been consolidated in the form of a literature review.<sup>7</sup>

It was in response to this oversight that an exploratory study was conceived in 2016 (Ennis 2019). That project was a continuation of a prior literature review which had been conducted to generate a syllabus for an English for Tourism Studies course (Ennis 2020). The aim of the

---

<sup>7</sup> There are, however, literature reviews (e.g., Salim, Ibrahim and Hassan 2012) and selected bibliographies (e.g., Francesconi 2014, 166-172) on the language of tourism.

study was to employ mixed methods to define the term “English for tourism” at the semantic, conceptual, theoretical, and methodological levels in order to offer guidance to practitioners who found themselves teaching English to current or aspiring tourism professionals. The present study sought to replicate the original in order to explore any new developments in academic and professional discourses as well as persistent gaps in the literature.

## 1. Methods

The present study maintained the research aims, research methods, and sampling frame of Ennis (2019). It was conceived neither as a traditional literature review (see Li and Wang 2018) nor as an annotated bibliography, *per se*. The aim of the original study—which was conducted in March 2016—was not to systematically summarize the current state of the art of a common research topic or research perspective within a field of inquiry, rather to compile and explore a corpus that served as a representative sample of the entire body of work within a sub-discipline that had yet to be properly defined. The present study—which was conducted in June 2021—therefore employed identical mixed methods to expand the existing corpus and then qualitatively and quantitatively analyze the updated corpus for any emergent themes or trends. Qualitative analysis was rooted in grounded theory (Charmaz 2006). During the original study, “data sources, research procedures, and actual questions [were] negotiated with an expanding sample as thematic concepts and categories began to emerge” (Ennis 2019, 12). The replication simply maintained the sources, procedures, and questions that had already been found to be most appropriate. Specifically, the exact phrases (i.e., n-grams) *English of tourism* and *English for tourism* were queried in Google Books and Google Scholar. Each search result that had not been discovered during the original study was carefully read. If a new text was deemed to be relevant to the teaching of English for tourism, it was categorized and coded by the following variables: its author(s), its country and world region of application, its genre, and its thematic focus (i.e., research topic or real-world application). Results were catalogued in a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet.

During the original study,

[c]orpus-informed, quantitative methods were adopted *post hoc* [emphasis added] to identify trends over time, compare tendencies across world regions and nations, compare semantic fields (via keywords) [...], and identify blatant gaps in research as a theory of EfT emerged. (Ennis 2019, 12)

The replication likewise adopted the notion of “web as corpus” (Timmis 2015, 137-138; McEnery and Hardie 2011, 7-8). When available, the abstract of each result, or the section of the

introduction which summarized the background and aim of each text, was rendered machine readable and saved as a Rich Text File. The files were stored in two separate folders based on the two research perspectives that had previously been identified: English for tourism (EfT) and English of tourism (EoT). Pertinent texts that had obviously been machine translated were categorized and coded in Excel, but were excluded from the corpus folders, whereas texts originally written in ‘non-standard’ English or human translations by the authors were included. Excel pivot charts and tables were used to compare and contrast broad trends, while the EfT and EoT folders were analyzed comparatively using the wordlist and keyword functions of the free concordancer LancsBox (v 3.0.2) (Brezina, McEnery and Wattam 2015).

There were a few minor differences in the procedures of the replication. First, whereas the search for new texts ceased upon data saturation<sup>8</sup> during the compilation of the 2016 corpus, leaving more than half the Google Scholar search results unread, in 2021 all search results were investigated and considered for inclusion. Second, given that data saturation had been successfully achieved in 2016, it was deemed unnecessary to search for additional texts by means of other digital libraries in 2021 (e.g., JSTOR, ProQuest, MLA International Bibliography, Web of Science, and the online repositories of major publishers). Finally, due to time constraints, an updated bibliography of all results included in the corpus has not yet been prepared.

## 2. Results and findings

In 2016, the search term *English for tourism* returned 100 texts on Google Books and nearly 1,110 texts on Google Scholar, while *English of tourism* returned 20 texts and 70 texts on the respective search engines. In August 2016, Google modified its search and ranking algorithms so that the search engines now only return the first 1,000 texts (or 100 pages of results). Furthermore, Google Books no longer restricts searches to exact phrases, but seems to include any instance of all words within the quotation marks appearing on the same page of a text. With

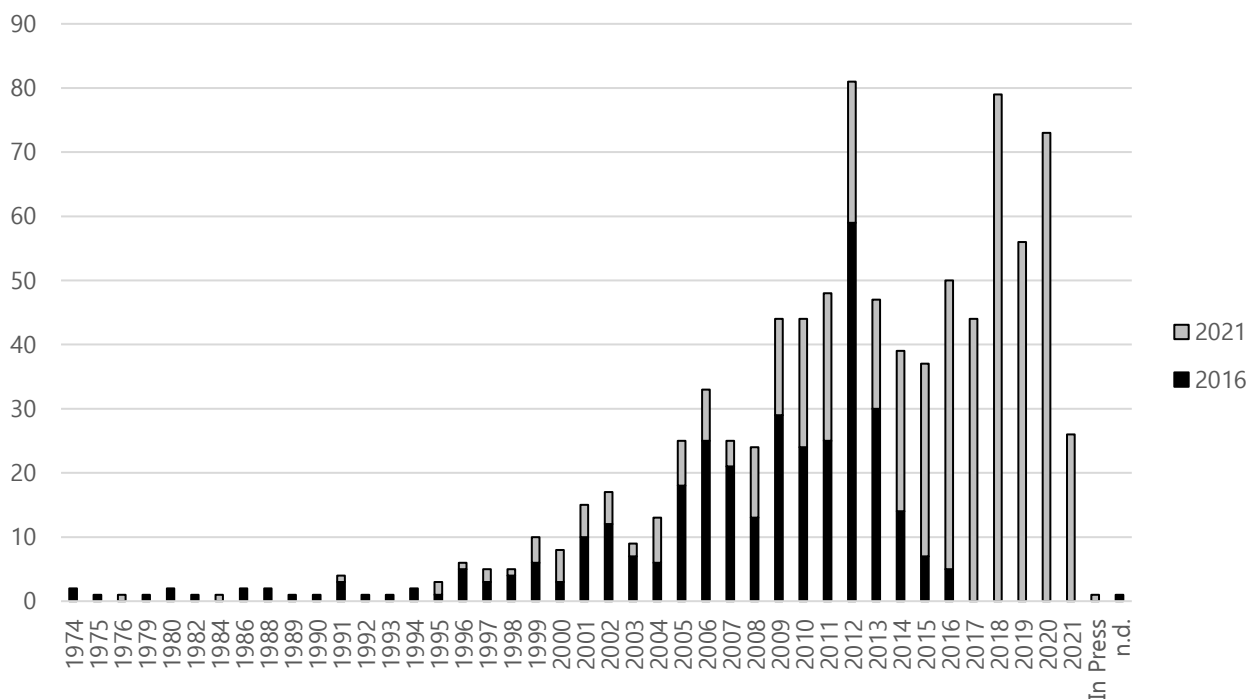
---

<sup>8</sup> Data saturation is the point at which a collected set of qualitative data is sufficiently large to formulate a theory. In many qualitative studies, saturation can be achieved with as few as five sources (i.e., texts, interlocutors, or respondents), assuming the right questions are posed to elicit comprehensive responses from suitable sources. In 2016, it was not possible to locate five or more texts which offered a comprehensive definition of the term “English for tourism.” Thus, the aim of the 2016 study was to compile a corpus of texts which were representative of the complete body of scholarship on the topic. Within this context, unique parameters for data saturation were negotiated with the sample. Specifically, data collection ceased after five consecutive pages of search results—on Google Scholar and Google Books, respectively—produced no additional texts and, therefore, no additional themes. Saturation was confirmed by performing additional searches on other repositories of academic literature.

these new restrictions, in June 2021 Google Books displayed 469 texts (47 pages) and Google Scholar displayed the maximum of 1000 texts (100 pages) for *English for tourism*. For *English of tourism*, Google books showed 227 texts (23 pages) and Google Scholar showed 130 texts (13 pages). Thus, the total number of search results increased by 526, from 1,300 in 2016 to 1,826 in 2021.

After data saturation was achieved in 2016, the remaining sample of relevant texts included 348 journal articles, book chapters, conference papers, student theses, and teaching materials. The categorization and coding of all 2021 search results produced a much larger sample of 891 texts, or an additional 543 texts. These additions include texts which:

1. were published after March 2016;
2. were published prior to March 2016, but were uploaded to an online repository indexed by Google after March 2016;
3. were published and uploaded prior to March 2016, but were not discovered by Google bots until after March 2016;
4. have still not been uploaded to a repository but have since been cited by another text that has.



**Fig. 1:** 2016 sample and 2021 additions by year of publication

The distribution of the 2016 sample and the 2021 additions across years of publication is provided in Figure 1. It should be noted that not all texts found on Google Scholar in 2016 were found again in 2021, implying that there were additional texts accessible online that were not identified as relevant by the search algorithms. In addition, Figure 1 suggests that it is likely that there have been more texts published in the last few years that have not yet been indexed by Google, as was also observed in 2016. If this is true, then the updated sample demonstrates that the exponential increase in publication on topics relevant to teaching English for tourism since the 1990s has continued.

### ***2.1 Intra-rater reliability***

During the initial stages of the qualitative analysis, the first twenty results that had already been found during the 2016 study were blindly re-categorized and re-coded by the author as a rudimentary test of intra-rater reliability,<sup>9</sup> which had not been tested in 2016. Nineteen of these results were assigned identical codes for every categorical variable: sub-corpus (EfT versus EoT), thematic focus, region of application, country of application, year of publication, and genre. Only one text received a different code for the variable ‘thematic focus,’ in that it was categorized as a study of ‘market needs’ instead of a study of ‘learner needs’ (see Section 2.2 for an explanation of the difference). After some reflection, the originally assigned code was maintained. Given the number of variables and the number of categories for each variable, as well as the exploratory nature of the study, a 95% joint probability of agreement was considered more than satisfactory.

### ***2.2 Concepts and categories***

The first two categories that emerged from the qualitative analysis in 2016 were published teaching materials and published research and scholarship, which were soon divided into four sub-categories:

1. Course books for international markets;

---

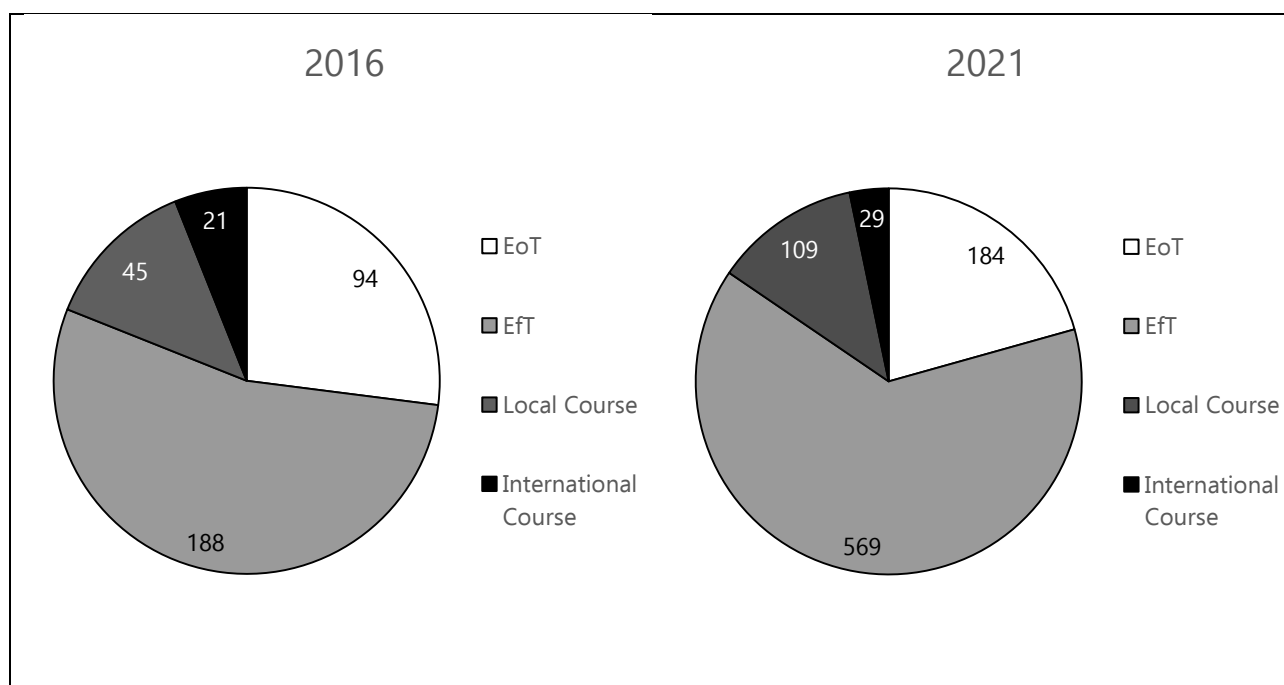
<sup>9</sup> Calculations of intra-rater reliability—that is, the consistency of rating or coding by an individual rater over time and/or across observations—are not common practice in grounded theory. This is because most grounded studies use small sample sizes and require the researcher to embed him/herself in the research context. Studies involving larger data sets often utilize software to assist analyses, such as NVivo, which includes built-in functions for inter and intra-rater reliability. Due to the nature of this study as a replication of a grounded review of a comprehensive corpus of literature, at least a rudimentary check for intra-rater reliability seemed warranted.



2. Course books for local, regional, and national markets;
3. Studies and reflections on the English used within the tourism sector;
4. Studies and reflections related to the teaching and learning of English as a second (ESL) or foreign (EFL) language for the purpose of study or employment in the field of tourism.

During the coding process, it also became apparent that while the search term *English for tourism* returned some results that best fit the third sub-category, many of which at least mentioned a teaching application of the research results, the term *English of tourism* returned very few results with a direct focus on language pedagogy or acquisition. EfT was therefore determined to be the best label for research and scholarship on teaching and learning, while EoT was applied as the label for research and scholarship on language, discourse, literature, and communication in tourism.

The only change in the categories found in the 2021 sample of texts was a shift in their proportions. The number of texts in each category increased, but the increases in the number of course books for international markets and the number of studies on EoT were disproportionately small, while the increase in the number of EfT texts was disproportionately large. The proportion of teaching materials developed for local markets remained nearly identical (see Figure 2).



**Fig. 2:** Comparison of the four categories of texts in the 2016 and 2021 samples

### ***2.3 Published course books***

The 2021 sample contained more than twice as many published course books (n=138 versus n=66). But as stated in the previous section, a majority of the new discoveries during the present study were course books published for local markets (n=64 versus n=8). Of the 72 new coursebooks, 58 had been written prior to 2016. Most of these new books were developed for a specific course at a technical high school or university, or to support the delivery of a national curriculum to a network of educational institutions.

The qualitative analysis of the textbooks did not challenge the previous findings. This was in part because many of the new additions consisted of recent citations or texts which had recently been catalogued in an institutional library (often a single library) and in part because the full text versions or excerpts could not be located online. But of those that were analyzed, no substantial differences in EFL/ESL teaching content or methodologies were observed.

Teaching methods employed for both internationally-minded and locally-minded textbooks remained predominantly communicative, especially task-based and content-based approaches, with varying degrees of reliance upon functional grammar, genre analysis, and lexical approaches to specialized lexis. The crucial difference between books for local markets and books for international markets was in the selection of thematic content and the contextualization of tasks. Books published by the major global publishers of ELT materials (e.g., Cambridge, Oxford, MacMillan, and Pearson Longman), tend to contain tasks with universal appeal to professionals working in a tourism industry, such as the hotel industry or the travel industry. However, the more locally produced and consumed a textbook is—nationally, regionally, locally—the more it can focus on the specific needs of local learners.

A textbook designed for the international market will present a selection of cases involving popular tourist destinations around the world as contextual frames to introduce domain-specific language and/or to practice language skills needed for generalized encounters with tourists, staff, or suppliers, vis-à-vis major themes in tourism. A textbook designed for a local market, on the other hand, tends to limit contexts to national or local sites which are well known to the target learners—and important for the construction of their personal, cultural, and national identities—in order to practice and develop the very specific language and communication skills they will need for careers in the local tourism sector. In addition, textbooks created for international markets tend to sample language content from the most frequently used lexis and grammar found in oral and written texts composed by L1 speakers, who are often the materials writers themselves. Locally designed books, which are often developed after a formal needs

analysis (see Section 2.4), are typically more flexible to the strengths and weaknesses the learners have with the English used in the local context.

Given the abundance of local textbooks in the sample, it appears that many EfT instructors, especially university instructors, prefer to develop their own pedagogical materials, as is recommended by most ESP experts (e.g., Garcia Laborda 2011; Belcher 2009; Walker 1995). This does not necessarily imply that the textbooks sold by the big publishers have no value in EfT. The large publishers tend to have access to collections of authentic source material—including corpora—and contract highly experienced ELT materials writers. Even if international courses prove to be inappropriate for a local context, the themes, texts, and tasks they contain can complement or inspire tailor-made materials. For their part, courses developed locally can offer insights for practitioners in other contexts in terms of needs analysis, course design, and lesson planning.

A final observation is that the sample of coursebooks reveals that EfT praxis can be divided into teaching English for occupational purposes (EOP)—that is, the professional English necessary to perform work duties—and English for specific academic purposes (ESAP)—that is, the academic English necessary for the study of tourism. EOP can then be further classified in terms of specialization: tourism sector (e.g., ‘global tourism’), tourism industries (e.g., ‘travel industry’), tourist services (e.g., ‘hotels’), and tourism occupations (e.g., ‘tour guides’). These levels of specialization also characterize EfT research.

Table 1 presents some of the most salient terminology used in the sample to denote forms and levels of specialization in EOP and ESAP. New additions to Ennis (2019) are marked in bold, red font. Two notable additions relate to aviation, which is in line with increasing scholarly interest in aviation English (e.g., Estival, Farris and Molesworth 2016). Another notable addition is the term *English for tourism purposes* (ETP), which seems to have gained in popularity in Eastern Europe and Southeast Asia since 2016 and appears in research texts.

EOP for Tourism	ESAP for Tourism
<p><b>Tourism Sector</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>English for tourism management</i></li> <li>• <i>English for international tourism</i></li> <li>• <i>English for domestic tourism</i></li> <li>• <i>English for the tourist/tourism sector</i></li> <li>• <i>English for tourism professionals</i></li> <li>• <b><i>English for tourism purposes*</i></b></li> <li>• <b><i>English for aviation*</i></b></li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <i>English for tourism studies</i></li> <li>• <i>English for tourism students</i></li> <li>• <i>English for tourism/hospitality in higher education</i></li> <li>• <b><i>English for tourism + at vocational schools*</i></b></li> <li>• <b><i>English for tourism correspondence study*</i></b></li> </ul>

---

### Tourism Industries

- *English for the hotel and travel industries*
- *English for tourism and hospitality*
- *English for hospitality and tourism*
- *English for hospitality*
- *English for the hospitality industry*
- *English for the travel **(and tourist)\*** industry*
- *English for hotels and restaurants*
- ***English for health tourism\****

---

### Tourist Services/Tourism Occupations

- *English for guides*
  - *English for restaurants*
  - *English for hotels*
  - *English for hotel staff/personnel*
  - *English for reception*
  - *English for travel agents/agencies*
  - *English for airline ground attendant service*
  - ***English for cabin crew\****
  - ***English for tourism and catering\****
  - *English for tourist police*
- 

**Tab. 1:** Terminology of EOP and ESAP for tourism

## 2.4 Research themes

After careful deliberation, the same fourteen EoT and EfT research themes identified in Ennis (2019) were maintained with slight modifications. The resulting categories presented in Table 2 are intended to be especially useful for instructors and researchers of EfT but may also prove helpful to EoT research.

---

### EoT research themes

---

1. **Language features:** *Descriptive linguistics, corpus linguistics, and text analysis*
  2. **Written texts:** *Corpus linguistics, text analysis, genre analysis, discourse analysis, and communication*
  3. **Spoken language:** *Discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, and **(face-to-face)** communication*
  4. **Written texts and spoken language:** *Multimodal analysis, genre analysis, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics, and communication*
  5. **Translation studies**
  6. **Needs analyses:** *Focus on needs of markets and service providers **with at most an acknowledgement of learners and teaching application***
-

---

**EfT research themes**


---

1. **Needs analyses:** Focus on needs of learners and educational institutions **for the purpose of materials development and course design**
  2. **Second language acquisition:** Models and processes of language learning
  3. **Pedagogy:** Teaching approaches, methods and materials **also with support of instructional technology; including teaching linguistics**
  4. **Cultural awareness and intercultural competence**
  5. **Assessment:** Models, practices **and technology**
  6. **Teacher education and training**
  7. **Language policy and curriculum development**
  8. **Concepts, theories, and literature reviews**
- 

**Tab. 2:** EfT and EoT research perspectives

Many new items categorized and coded under EoT investigate the linguistic and literary features of the traditional tourism texts investigated in the 2016 sample: travel literature, travel reports, travelogues, and advertising and promotional material (e.g., websites, brochures, leaflets), including investigations of cross-linguistic comparisons and lexical borrowings. EoT studies still adopt methodological perspectives rooted in corpus linguistics, multi-modal analysis, sociolinguistics, and/or (critical) discourse analysis. One new development in EoT is that there are a few recent studies of spontaneous face-to-face interaction in tourist spaces. This is important because the 2016 study found analyses of spoken language to be lacking, and the conclusions drawn by the authors of the new studies suggest that such interactions are not marked by the same patterns and tropes found in traditional tourism texts, even multi-modal ones (e.g., Wilson 2018). Another new development in EoT is the apparent new interest in emergent tourism genre, including apps and customer reviews (e.g., Denti 2018).

There was also something of a ‘technological turn’ in EfT scholarship found in the sample. EfT, like ESP more broadly, is founded upon the concept of needs analysis, while the foundations of EfT teaching are task-based language teaching (TBLT), project-based learning (PBL), genre analysis, role play, and data-driven learning. Numerous recent studies have begun to investigate the use of instructional technologies in EfT, including the application of machine translation, virtual reality, augmented reality, blended learning, MOOCs, gamification, and distance learning (e.g., Chien 2019; Stewart 2019). There were so many new studies and reflections on the use of technology in teaching and learning, that it was briefly considered to create a new category of EfT research. However, all these texts treat language acquisition, language pedagogy, and/or language assessment centrally, and were therefore easily classifiable

within the existing categories. Strangely, there were only two texts which mentioned Covid-19 or coronavirus, though this is likely due to normal delays in academic publishing and the lag in indexing by Google.

The 2021 sample also included additional studies on content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in tourism studies contexts (e.g., Álvarez 2020) and one on critical needs analysis (Petrie 2019). The later development is of particular significance. The new sample confirms two perspectives on needs analyses: a learner-centered approach and a market-centered approach. For instance, a language audit conducted on guides at a tourist attraction that forms a list of all the language errors that the guides make in the performance of their jobs would be classified as EoT: market needs. But an exploratory study conducted with current or former students of a university tourism studies program with the aim of surveying their perceptions of their needs in order to monitor a course or curriculum would be classified as EfT: learner needs (see Table 2).<sup>10</sup> Even most of the learner-centered needs analyses are beholden to market interests. Whereas EoT research has long adopted a critical perspective on tourism discourse, in particular tourism marketing, a critical perspective towards neoliberal influences on the teaching of EfT is clearly lacking.

Another welcome development is that some well-known EoT scholars seem to be delving more explicitly into teaching applications in their research (e.g., Cappelli 2016). Concurrently, some of the most prolific authors of EfT scholarship have published on EoT (e.g., Aleson-Carbonell 2018). This highlights the interdependence of EoT and EfT, as many scholars of EoT in fact instruct EfT at the university level and therefore have a vested interest in EfT discourses, while EfT scholars rely on EoT research to define learning content and objectives. The most interesting example of this cross-over was a text that reflected on teaching the sociolinguistics of tourism, which has tentatively been classified as EfT pedagogy (Hallett 2018).

Figure 3 illustrates the shifting interests in the EfT and EoT academic discourses between 2016 and 2021, suggesting an increase in spoken language, needs analyses, and language pedagogy.

---

<sup>10</sup> These examples are of course illustrative, as not all texts in the sample are this straightforward; learner-centered needs analyses aim to triangulate data by collecting from diverse stakeholders.

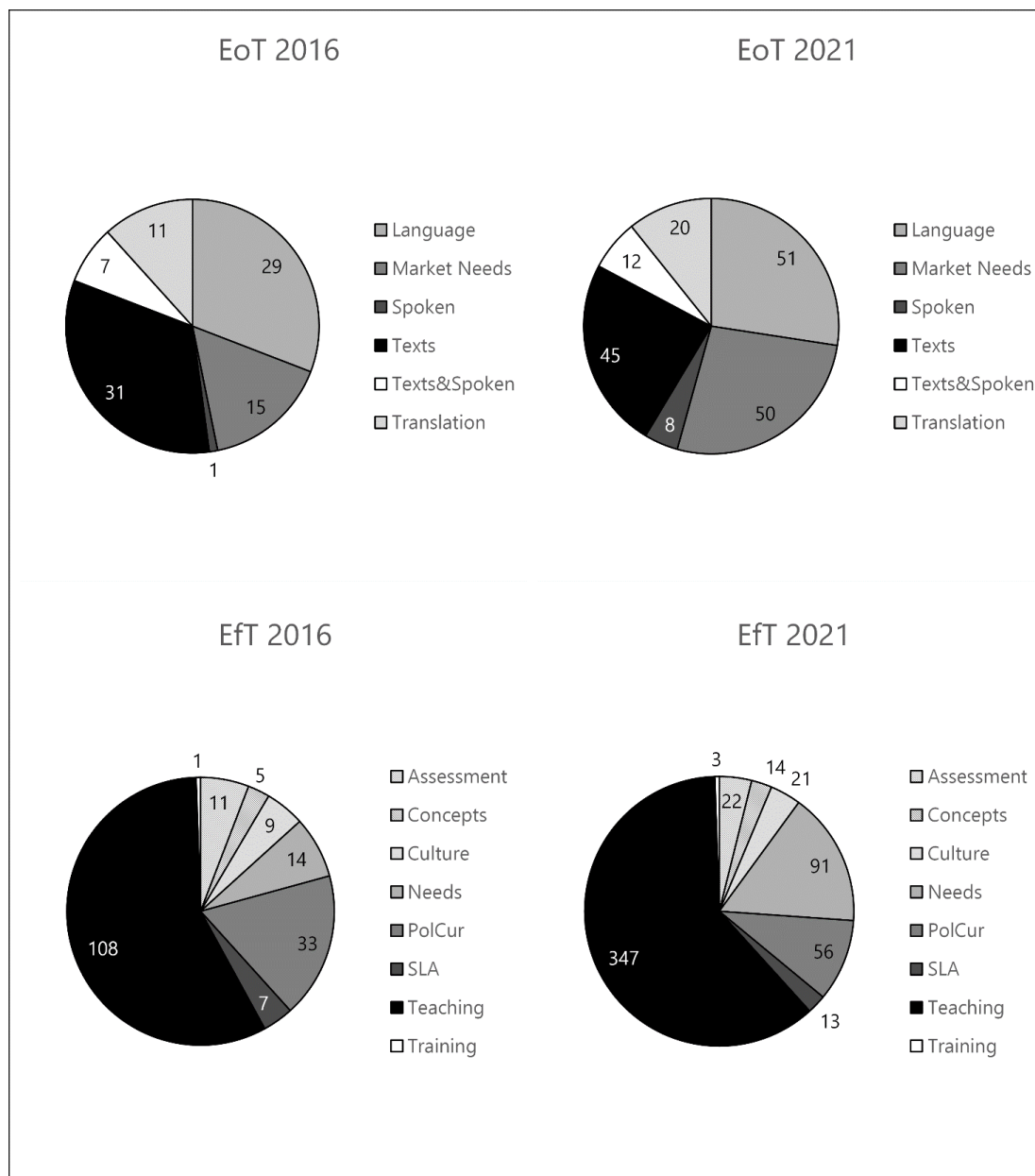


Fig. 3: Comparison of Eft and Eft research themes in the 2016 and 2021 samples

### 2.5 Towards a theory of Eft

Based on the 2021 sample, the model of Eft elaborated in Ennis (2019) appears to be stable. Eft and EoT constitute interconnected and interdependent discourses, at least from the perspective of Eft. Research on EoT provides a theoretical framework which can inform the educational content of Eft instruction (see Figure 4). What separates EoT scholarship from Eft scholarship is that the study of EoT is often treated as being an end in itself. Many EoT studies reflect on how research findings may be applicable to the provision of tourist services, the education of tourism students, and/or the professional development of employees in tourism.

But in Eft research, language education is the point of departure, rather than an upshot (see Figure 5):

In short, from the perspective of Eft, EoT research elucidates the need to develop specialized language and communication skills for the tourism sector, but Eft establishes how institutions and instructors can effectively foster the development of the specialized language and communication skills of the field. (Ennis 2019, 21)

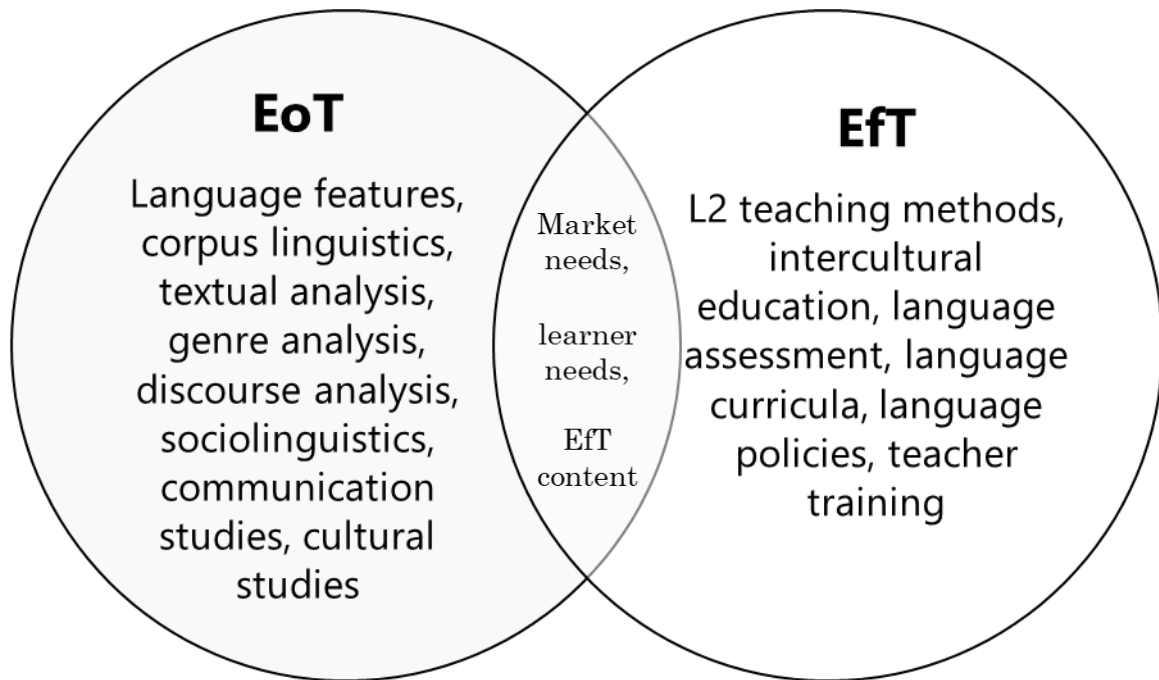


Fig. 4: A model of Eft pedagogy

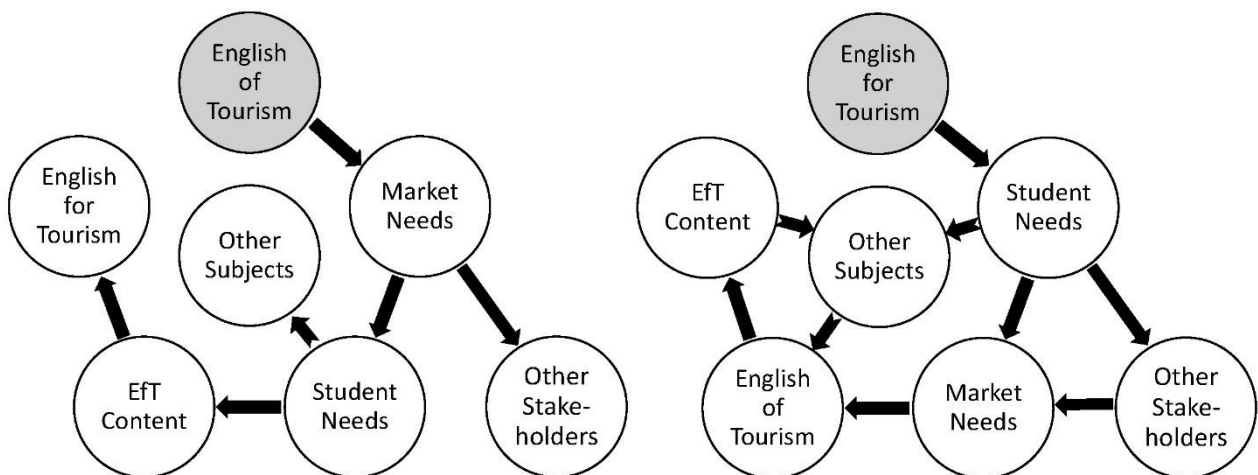


Fig. 5: The interdependent research perspectives of EoT and Eft



## 2.6 Semantic fields of EoT and EfT

During the 2016 study, a post hoc quantitative analysis was conducted to confirm and qualify the findings of the qualitative analysis. The first step was to comparatively analyze word frequencies and keywords in two sub-corpora of EoT and EfT abstracts. A comparison of the one hundred most frequent words in the two corpora showed that certain words related to tourism English discourse (e.g., *English, tourism, language, communication, industry*) or general academic language (e.g., *study, research, article, paper*) were prevalent in both corpora. The differences between the wordlists confirmed the divergence in research perspectives and foci, where

the most frequent words in the EfT corpus [were] related to ELT and ESP (e.g., *students, teaching, learning, ESP, needs, learners, skills, course, teachers*), whereas the most frequent words in the EoT corpus [were] related to the study of the communicative acts and linguistic phenomena observed [in tourism discourse] (e.g., *tourist(s), travel, texts, words, discourse, analysis, corpus, meaning, word, terms, translation*). (Ennis 2019, 23)

The keyword analysis—whereby each corpus was used as a reference corpus for the other—further disentangled EoT from EfT. The keywords of EoT

[included] terms situated in semantic fields at the intersection of linguistics and tourism studies (e.g., *borrowings, discourse(s), postcards, advertising, genre, promotional, text(s), travel(ler)(s), gaze, anglicisms, tourist, brochures, textual, etymological, discursive, semantic, multimodal, literary*). The results for the EfT corpus [were] firmly nested in the semantic fields of ELT (e.g., *education, learning, classroom, instruction, teachers, test(s), competence, learner(s), efl, comprehension, textbook, student(s), teaching, oral, assessment, tasks, testing, evaluation, esp, effectiveness, acquisition*). (Ennis 2019, 23)

This analysis, conducted with LancsBox (v 3.0.2),<sup>11</sup> was repeated with the 2021 sample. A comparison of the sizes of the sub-corpora in 2016 and 2021 is provided in Table 3.

EoT Corpus 2016	EoT Corpus 2021
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 85 files</li> <li>• 27,304 tokens</li> <li>• 4,819 types</li> <li>• 4,144 lemmas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 169 files</li> <li>• 43,337 tokens</li> <li>• 6,073 types</li> <li>• 5,279 lemmas</li> </ul>

<sup>11</sup> LancsBox is a free concordancer developed at Lancaster University. It is now in version 6, but in order to maintain research instruments, version 3 was used again in 2021.

EfT Corpus 2016	EfT Corpus 2021
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 117 files</li> <li>• 27,745 tokens</li> <li>• 3,997 types</li> <li>• 3,468 lemmas</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 431 files</li> <li>• 93,356 tokens</li> <li>• 7,150 types</li> <li>• 6,291 lemmas</li> </ul>

**Tab. 3:** Comparative sizes of the EfT and EoT corpora

The most frequent words found in the 2021 corpora were very similar to those found in 2016. The few replacements were fully situated in the same semantic fields observed in 2016 and were indicative of some of the more recent trends noted during the qualitative analysis, such as increasing interest in curricula and teacher training in EfT scholarship (e.g., *training*, *program*, *curriculum*). Appendices 1 and 2 compare selections from the first 100 running words from each corpus by year of analysis. The words, which are ranked by occurrences per 10,000, include only those words which are rarely among the most frequent in corpora that represent contemporary varieties of English.

The keyword analysis resulted in more variation between the 2016 and 2021 corpora. In the case of EoT, variations were indicative especially of shifts in the tourism texts and contexts that were analyzed and the national contexts of application. For instance, *Serbia* was replaced by *Macedonian*, *Croatian*, *British*, and *Italian*, and words like *brochures*, *drink*, *menu*, *café*, *police*, and *comic* were overtaken by *reception*, *websites*, *apps*, and *operators*, which may support the finding of a shift toward face-to-face and tech-mediated encounters. Although there were more differences between the old and new EfT corpora, most newcomers were related to an interest in curricula and materials development (e.g., the appearance of *model*, *curriculum*, *designing*, *materials*, *design*) or were essentially interchangeable with words they replaced (e.g., *experimental*, *participants*, *post-test*, and *pre-test* instead of *validity* and *statistical*, which all relate to experimental methods). Two quite significant changes were the appearance of several new acronyms *EfT*, *ETP*, and *TE* (tourism English) and the disappearance of *Spain*. The latter finding relates to national trends in EoT and EfT scholarship, which will be discussed in the final section.

## 2.7 Historical and national trends

Two final quantitative analyses performed on the 2016 sample were:

1. a basic timeseries plot of the number of publications by sub-corpus (courses, EfT, and EoT);

2. a simple cross-sectional comparison of the prevalence of EoT and EfT research themes by country of interest.

The timeseries data demonstrated a clear exponential growth in the number of publications per year since the 1990s. The cross-sectional data revealed that while there had been an increase in EfT and EoT research in recent years, interest was not evenly distributed geographically and discourses at a national level varied according to a preference for EoT or EfT, as well as preferences for particular research themes. For instance, it was found that Spanish and Chinese applied linguists had produced the majority of EfT research in the sample, while Italian and Romanian applied linguists displayed a preference for EoT. Spanish colleagues favored pedagogy, while Chinese colleagues had a keen interest in integrating EfT into language policies and curricula at a provincial or national level. In Italy, many studies focused on tourism texts, including travel literature and promotional material, while in Romania most studies focused on linguistic features at a micro level, such as lexical borrowings and etymology. Thus, national discourses seemed to be characterized by a degree of specialization, which also left many gaps to be filled.

A replication of these two analyses on the expanded sub-corpora revealed some important trends as well as new or persistent gaps in the literature. First, the trend of exponential growth in publication was sustained, with some periodic spikes in EoT publications in the form of major conference proceedings or edited volumes (see Figure 6). In addition, the number of countries represented in the sample increased from forty-three to sixty-eight. A ranking of countries by number of publications (see Figure 8), shows once again that EfT and/or EoT discourses are more prevalent in some countries than others, although with some notable shifts in positions and tendencies. A quite large number of new texts from the Indonesian (n=126), the Thai (n=55), and the Vietnamese (n=31) contexts were found. There were also numerous new publications from Eastern Europe (Russia, Serbia, and Ukraine) and evidence of an emergent discourse on the African Continent (Algeria and South Africa). Some countries had comparatively few new publications, including Croatia, Hong Kong, Saudi Arabia, and Singapore. Most of the new published teaching materials were courses developed at the local level in Thailand (n=11), Indonesia (n=8), Italy (n=6), Ukraine (n=6), and Romania (n= 5) (see Figure 7).

Turning to the research themes (see Figure 9), most of the tendencies described above were also observed in the 2021 sample. However, some countries with a research tradition in EoT seem to have shifted somewhat toward more EfT (Italy, Romania, and Serbia) or vice versa (Spain, Indonesia, and Portugal). Moreover, it is important to note that in Southeast Asia (Indonesia, Thailand, and Vietnam)—which contributed a large portion of the new texts to the expanded

corpus—needs analyses from both a market perspective and a learner perspective seem to be an important strand of research, which reflects the importance placed on tourism in economic development policies in this part of the world.

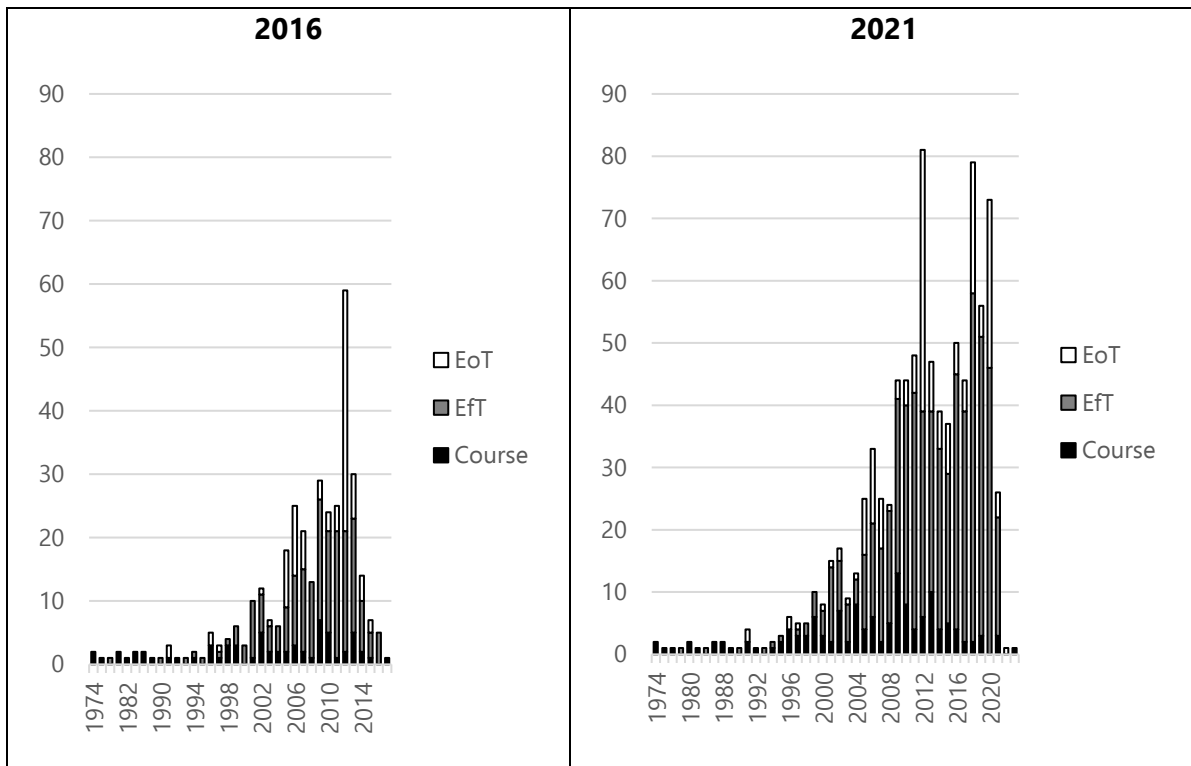


Fig. 6: Historical trends in EoT and EfT publications, 2016 and 2021

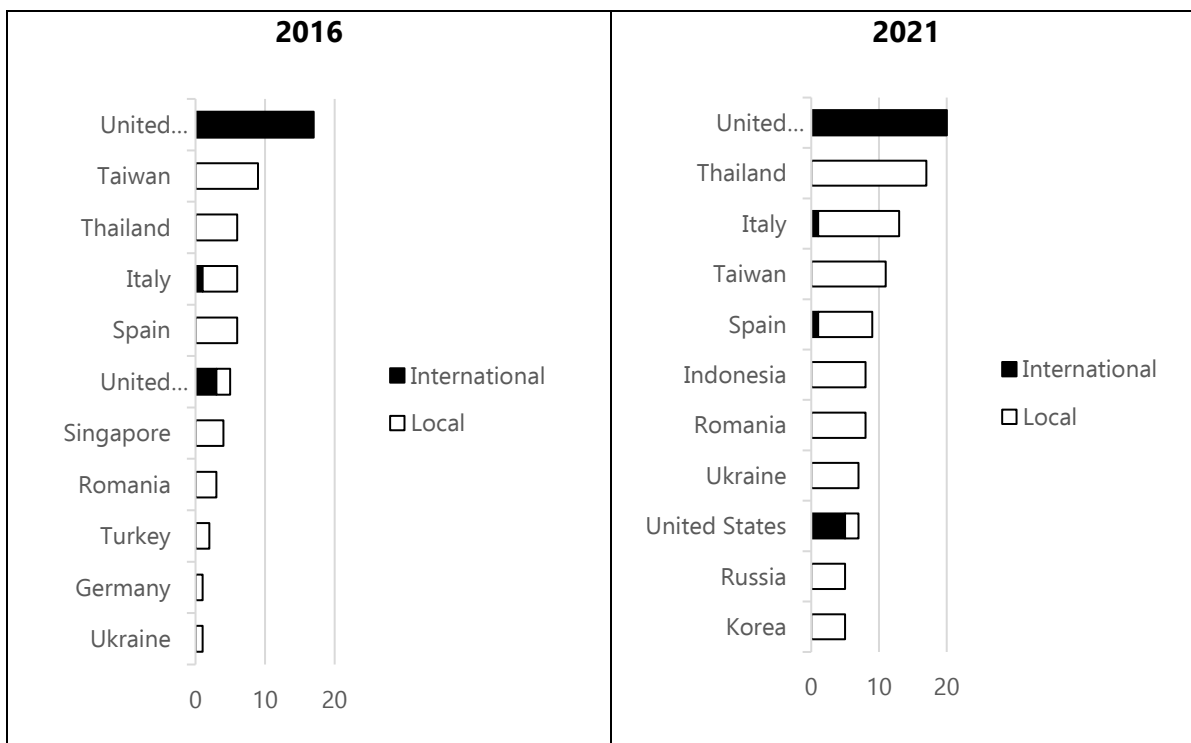


Fig. 7: Publication of EfT teaching material by top eleven countries, 2016 and 2021

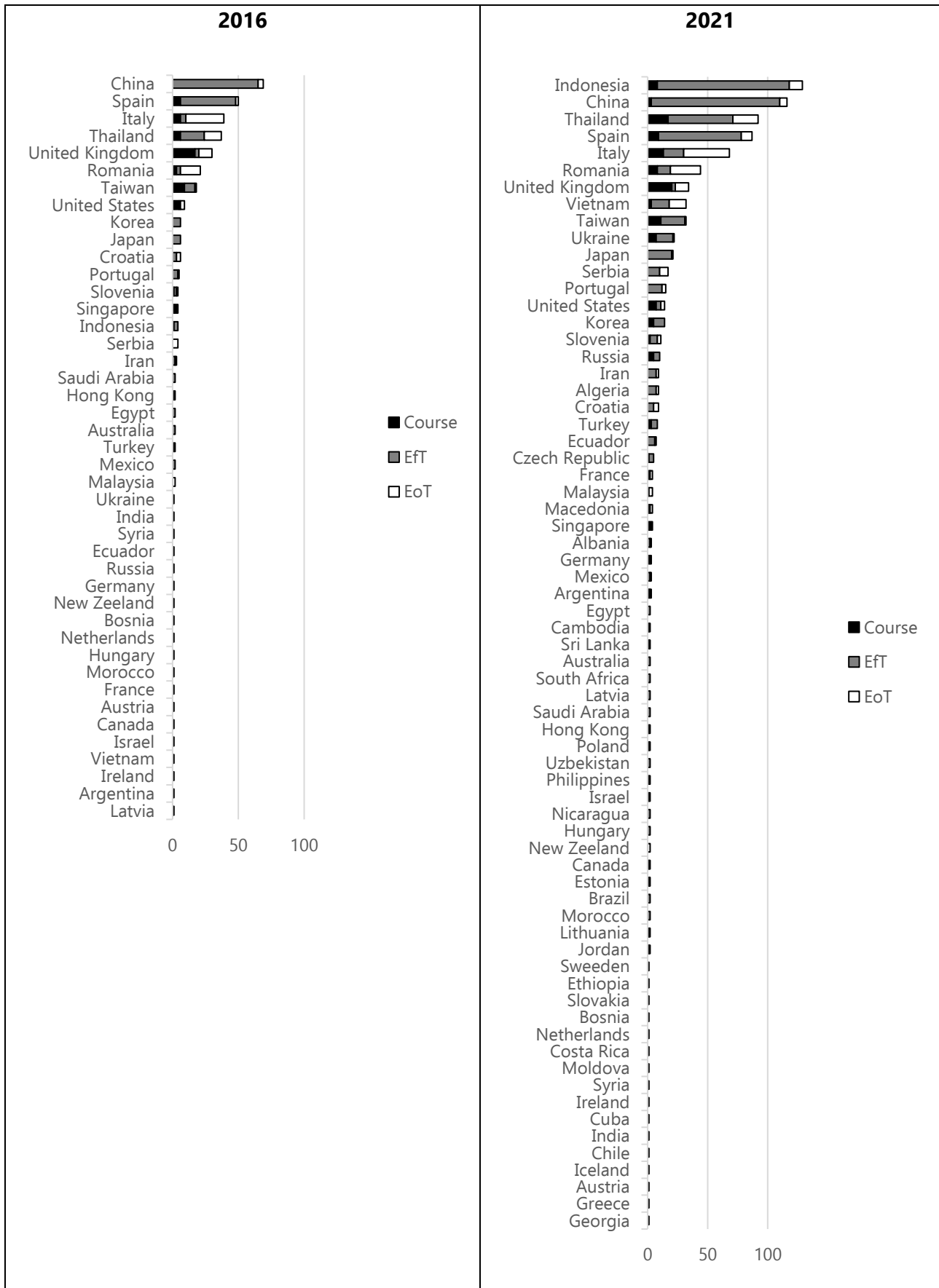


Fig. 8: Rankings of countries by total publications, 2016 and 2021

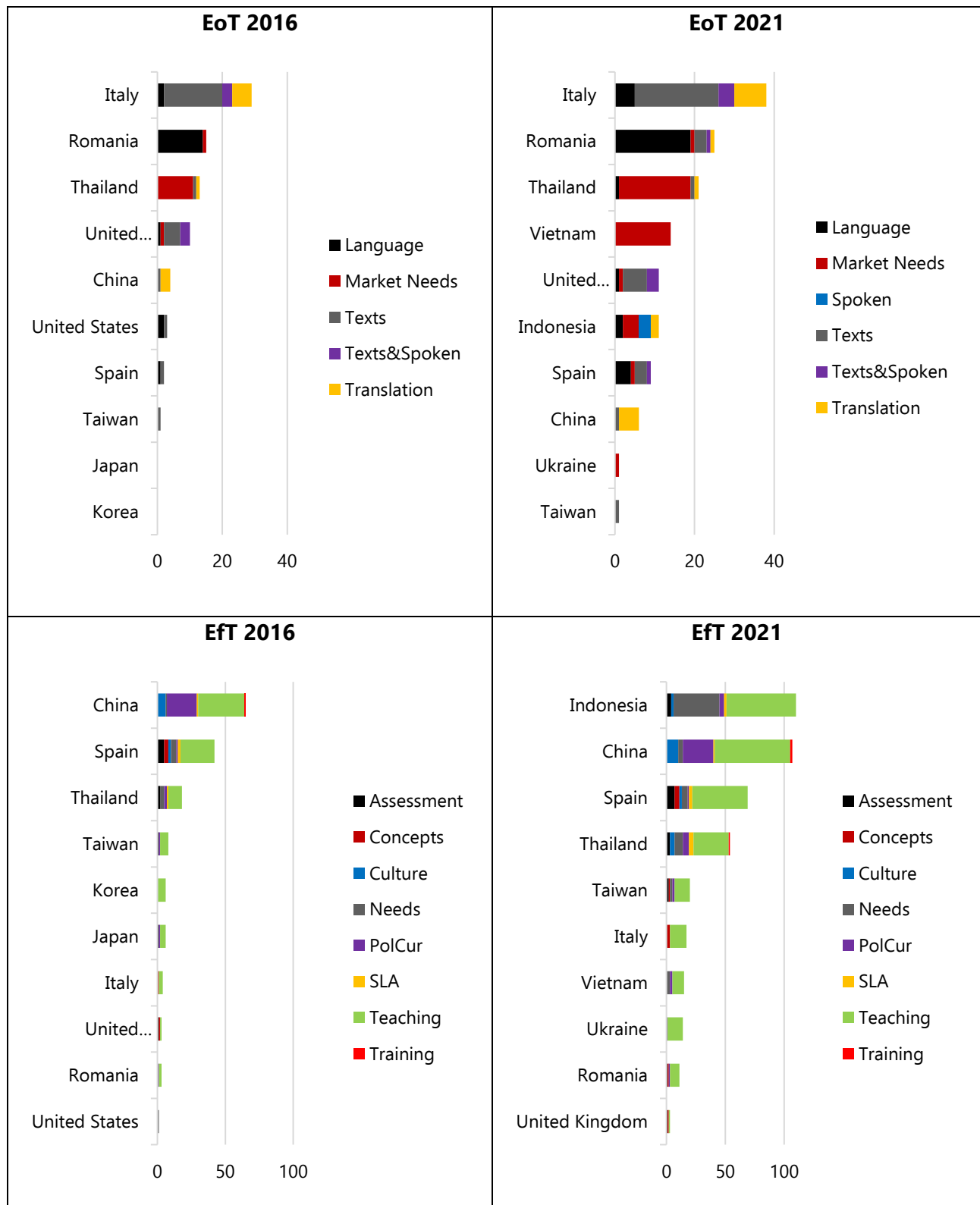


Fig. 9: Prevalence of Eft and EoT research themes by top ten countries, 2016 and 2021

### 3. Conclusion

The results of this study reconfirm the existence of two distinct, yet interconnected and inseparable branches of English for specific purposes, one which studies the linguistic features of the English *of* tourism and one that studies the teaching and learning of English *for* tourism. The results also point to the continually growing global importance of these academic discourses, although with great variation between countries in terms of prevailing research perspectives.

Recent themes in EoT and EfT are paradigmatic of new technologies which are used to promote tourism products, facilitate communication between stakeholders, and instruct languages. New ICTs are being driven by the evolution of Web 2.0—participatory websites with user-generated content—into Web 3.0—user-friendly mobile apps powered by complex algorithms. New instructional technologies include advents such as virtual reality and augmented reality, as well as open-source software and freely accessible applications which enhance blended, distance, and autonomous learning. Such developments present exciting new prospects for tourism, the study of tourism discourse, and the teaching of English for tourism.

However, several gaps in the literature remain. Internationally, there have been very few studies on EfT teacher training and there seems to have been limited research on the EoT used in face-to-face and virtual interpersonal interactions (Wilson 2019). Some countries, like Italy, could benefit from more student-centered EfT research, while countries like Spain could benefit from more EoT to inform the teaching of EfT locally. For this reason, more cross-over research between EoT and EfT should be encouraged, including collaborations between applied linguists with different areas of expertise.

Finally, the EfT discourse lacks a critical perspective. This is perhaps best evidenced by the academic discourse in Southeast Asia, where many of the studies in the sample were found to have focused on the needs of stakeholders in the marketplace. Critical needs analyses could be used to expose learners' complex set of concrete and abstract "language desires" (see Petrie 2019), which are not one-hundred percent compatible with the influence that economic and political aspirations have over tourism development, language policies, and educational curricula. This is of course easier said than done given the role that tourism plays in economic development. For instance, multiple EfT studies from Indonesia cite the 2013 national curriculum, which emphasizes the learning of English for tourism—and which is also one explanation for the abrupt increase in EfT research there. When an EfT practitioner's job security and livelihood are inextricably dependent upon tourism development, any reluctance to embrace the tradition of critical pedagogy is understandable.

The obvious limitation of this replication study is that it relied upon only two search terms: *English of tourism* and *English for tourism*. It must be stressed again that the purpose was not to compile an exhaustive bibliography of EoT and EfT literature. Rather, the aim was to collect a representative sample of texts of direct relevance to teaching EfT. Other search terms might render the corpus more comprehensive. Indeed, there are a handful of texts that the author has knowingly omitted because the sampling methods did not produce those specific results. Some of these works are seminal texts on tourism discourse and the language of tourism, and some in fact appear among the works cited below. In corpus-informed research, however, a given sampling frame must be maintained.

A future replication could include the search term *tourism English* (TE), a collocation that has become quite popular in EfT/EoT research in ELF contexts, especially in Asia. The frequent terms *language of tourism* and *tourism discourse* would undoubtedly expand the sample considerably but would also produce numerous results not directly related to the (teaching of the) English language. In addition, it would be very interesting to add the most recent studies which will become accessible over the coming months to explore the effects of coronavirus travel restrictions on EoT and the effects of emergency remote teaching on EfT. However, the immediate next step is to update the selected bibliography that resulted from the original study (Ennis and Petrie 2019, 221-244).<sup>12</sup>

**Michael Ennis** is the Didactic and Scientific Coordinator for the English Language at the Language Centre of the Free University of Bozen-Bolzano. He has taught German and English language and culture at universities in the United States, Germany, and Italy, and he has given numerous presentations and published widely on his interests in cultural studies, ESP/EAP, CLIL, learner motivation, intercultural language teaching, and the application of data analytics and data science to reflective practice and language curriculum monitoring. He is co-editor of *Teaching English for Tourism: Bridging Research and Practice* (Routledge, 2020).

## Works cited

Aleson-Carbonell, Marian. "Advertising as the Base of the Construction of the Language for Tourism: Caveats and Implications." *Applied Linguistics and Knowledge Transfer: Employment, Internationalization and Social Challenges*, 19-21 April 2018, University of Cádiz, Cádiz, Spain.

---

<sup>12</sup> For now, the corpus and spreadsheet can already be made available upon request.



- . "Tourism: The Problems of the Definition of a New ESP: A Study of the Didactic Implications of this Characterisation." *Proceedings from III Congr s Internacional sobre Lleng es per a Finalitats Espec fiques: Ease Seminar*. Edited by Frances Luttikhuisen. Barcelona: University of Barcelona, 2000. 11-15.
- Arlt, Wolfgang. *China's Outbound Tourism*. Oxon: Routledge, 2006.
-  lvarez, M<sup>a</sup>  ngeles Escobar. "Developing CLIL in Tertiary Education: Working with Tourism Texts." *English for Specific Purposes Instruction and Research*. Edited by Nalan Kenny, Elvan Eda Işık-Taş and Huang Jian. Cham: Palgrave Macmillan, 2020. 269-288.
- Belcher, Diane. "What ESP Is and Can Be: An Introduction." *English for Specific Purposes in Theory and Practice*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 2009. 1-20.
- Bielenia-Grajewska, Magdalena and Enriqueta Cortes de los Rios. *Innovative Perspectives on Tourism Discourse*. Hershey: IGI Global, 2018.
- Bosch, Gloria and Torsten Schlak. *Teaching Foreign Languages for Tourism: Research and Practice*. Bern: Peter Lang, 2013.
- Brezina, Vaclav, Tony McEnery and Stephen Wattam. "Collocations in Context: A New Perspective on Collocation Networks." *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics* 20.2 (2015): 139-173.
- Cappelli, Gloria. "English for Tourism: Using Translated Texts in the Classroom to Improve Writing Skills." *Lingue e linguaggi* 17 (2016): 21-38.
- Charmaz, Kathy. *Constructing Grounded Theory: A Practical Guide through Qualitative Analysis*. London: Sage, 2006.
- Chien, Chi-ying. "English for Ecotourism and Its Sustainability with Augmented Reality Technology." *International Education Studies* 12.6 (2019): 134-147.
- Crystal, David. *English as a Global Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2003.
- . *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2018.
- Dann, Graham. *The Language of Tourism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective*. Oxon: CAB International, 1996.
- Denti, Olga. "Authenticity and the Construction and Perception of Identity in Tourism Apps." *Strategies of Adaptation in Tourist Communication*. Edited by Gudrun Held. Leiden: Brill, 2018. 241-269.
- Dudley-Evans, Tony and Maggie Jo St. John. *Developments in English for Specific Purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998.

- Ennis, Michael Joseph. "Teaching and Assessing Academic Writing for Tourism Studies: An Example of Reflective Practice from the Field." *Approaches to English for Specific and Academic Purposes*. Edited by Michael Joseph Ennis and Jemma Prior. Bozen-Bolzano: Bozen-Bolzano University Press, 2020. 85-118.
- . "What is 'English for Tourism'? A 'Grounded Review' of Textbooks and Secondary Literature." *Teaching English for Tourism: Bridging Research and Praxis*. Edited by Michael Joseph Ennis and Gina Mikel Petrie. London: Routledge, 2019. 9-40.
- Ennis, Michael Joseph and Gina Mikel Petrie. "Introduction: A Response to Disparate/Desperate Circumstances." *Teaching English for Tourism: Bridging Research and Praxis*. Edited by Michael Joseph Ennis and Gina Mikel Petrie. London: Routledge, 2019. 1-6.
- Estival, Dominique, Candace Farris and Brett Molesworth. *Aviation English: A Lingua Franca for Pilots and Air Traffic Controllers*. Oxon: Routledge, 2016.
- Fox, Renata. "English in Tourism: A Sociolinguistic Perspective." *Tourism and Hospitality Management* 14.1 (2008): 13-22.
- Francesconi, Sabrina. *Reading Tourism Texts*. Bristol: Channel View Publications, 2014.
- Garcia Laborda, Jesús. "Revisiting Materials for Teaching Languages for Specific Purposes." *Language, Linguistics and Literature: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies* 17.1 (2011): 102-112.
- Gotti, Maurizio. "The Language of Tourism as Specialized Discourse." *Translating Tourism: Linguistic/Cultural Representations*. Edited by Oriana Palusci and Sabrina Francesconi. Trento: Editrice Università degli Studi di Trento, 2006. 15-34.
- Hallett, Richard W. "Teaching the Sociolinguistics of Tourism." *Innovative Perspectives on Tourism Discourse*. Edited by Magdalena Bielenia-Grajewska and Enriqueta Cortes de los Rios. Hershey: IGI Global, 2018. 214-228.
- Held, Gudrun. *Strategies of Adaptation in Tourist Communication: Linguistic Insights*. Leiden: Brill, 2018.
- Huntley, Susan and Pilar de Juan González. "English for Tourism: Its Position within ESP." *Proceedings from III Congr s Internacional sobre Lleng es per a Finalitats Espec fiques: Ease Seminar*. Edited by Frances Luttikhuizen. Barcelona: University of Barcelona, 2000. 187-190.
- Hutchinson, Tom and Alan Waters. *English for Specific Purposes: A Learning Centered Approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1987.

- Jaworski, Adam and Annette Pritchard. *Discourse, Communication and Tourism*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications, 2005.
- Jenkins, Jennifer. "English as a Lingua Franca from the Classroom to the Classroom." *ELT Journal* 66.4 (2012): 486-494.
- Jenkins, Jennifer, Will Baker and Martin Dewey. *The Routledge Handbook of English as a Lingua Franca*. London: Routledge, 2017.
- Korstanje, Maximiliano E. "Unspeakable Discrimination: Underlying Concerns in Instrumentalizing English as Lingua Franca in Tourism Research." *Academic Journal of Studies in Society, Sciences and Technologies: Geplat Papers* 1.2 (2020): 1-22.
- Li, Shaofeng and Hong Wang. "Traditional Literature Review and Research Synthesis." *The Palgrave Handbook of Applied Linguistics Research Methodology*. Edited by Aek Phakiti, et al. London: Palgrave-Macmillan, 2018. 123-144.
- Maci, Stefania. *Tourism Discourse: Professional, Promotional and Digital Voices*. Bergamo: CELSB, 2010.
- . *Tourism Discourse: Professional, Promotional and Digital Voices*. Genova: Edizioni Culturali Internazionali, 2013.
- Maci, Stefania, Michele Sala and Šarolta Godnič Vičič. "The Language of Tourism: An Introduction to the Topical Issue." *Scripta Manent* 12 (2018): 1-5.
- MacKenzie, Ian. *English, as a Lingua Franca: Theorizing and Teaching English*. London: Routledge, 2014.
- McEnery, Tony and Andrew Hardie. *Corpus Linguistics: Method, Theory and Practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 2011.
- McHenry, Tracey. "The Politics of Englishes for Tourism: A World Englishes Perspective." *Teaching English for Tourism: Bridging Research and Praxis*. Edited by Michael Joseph Ennis and Gina Mikel Petrie. London: Routledge, 2019. 68-90.
- Otilia, Simion Minodora. "English: The Language of Communication in Tourism." *Annals of "Constantin Brâncuși" of Târgu-Jiu, Economy Series* 1 (2013): 306-309.
- Petrie, Gina Mikel. "Exploring Stakeholders' Language Desires in English for Tourism: An Argument for Uniqueness." *Teaching English for Tourism: Bridging Research and Praxis*. Edited by Michael Joseph Ennis and Gina Mikel Petrie. London: Routledge, 2019. 41-67.
- Rață, Georgeta, Ioan Petroman and Cornelia Petroman. *The English of Tourism*. Newcastle Upon Tyne: Cambridge Scholars, 2012.

- Redondo-Carretero, María, et al. "Language Tourism Destinations: A Case Study of Motivations, Perceived Value and Tourists' Expenditure." *Journal of Cultural Economics* 41.2 (2017): 155-172.
- Ruiz Garrido, Miguel and Ana Saorín-Iborra. "Why Call it Business English If We Mean English for Tourism? Some Reflections." *ESP SIG Newsletter* 29 (2006): 9-12.
- Salim, Muhammad Arfin Bin, Noor Aireen Binti Ibrahim and Hanita Hassan. "Language for Tourism: A Review of Literature." *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 66 (2012): 136-143.
- Shambaugh, David. *China Goes Global: The Partial Power*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2013.
- Stainton, Hayley. "The Commodification of English Language Teaching in Tourism: A Sustainable Solution?" *Tourism Management Perspectives* 25 (2018): 123-130.
- Stewart, Dominic. "English for Tourism in the Non-Native English Classroom: Machine Translation and Corpora." *Teaching English for Tourism: Bridging Research and Praxis*. Edited by Michael Joseph Ennis and Gina Mikel Petrie. London: Routledge, 2019. 114-130.
- Stevens, Peter. "Special Purpose Language Learning: A Perspective." *Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts* 10.3 (1977): 145-163.
- Swales, John M. "ESP Comes of Age? 21 Years After 'Some Measurable Characteristics of Scientific Prose.'" *UNESCO-ALSED LSP Newsletter* 7.2 (1984): 9-20.
- Thurlow, Crispin and Adam Jaworski. *Tourism Discourse: Language and Global Mobility*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 2010.
- Timmis, Ivor. *Corpus Linguistics for ELT: Research and Practice*. New York: Routledge, 2015.
- Wade, Phil. "English for tourism." *Modern English Teacher* 84 (2013): 52-53.
- Walker, Robin. "Teaching the English of Tourism." *IATEFL ESP SIG Newsletter* 4 (1995): 8-13.
- Wilson, Adam. "The Local Language of Tourism in International Tourist Information Encounters: Adapting the What and the How." *Strategies of Adaptation in Tourist Communication*. Edited by Gudrun Held. Leiden: Brill, 2019. 121-144.
- World Tourism Organization. *International Tourism Highlights, 2020 Edition*. Madrid: UNWTO, 2021.
- . *UNWTO Tourism Highlights: 2018 Edition*. Madrid: UNWTO, 2018.

**Appendix 1: Comparison of Most Frequent Words in the EoT Corpus, 2016 and 2021 (words in red, boldfaced font do not appear in other list)**

<i>EoT Corpus 2016</i>				<i>EoT Corpus 2021</i>			
Rank	Type	Rel Freq	CV	Rank	Type	Rel Freq	CV
7	tourism	146.50	0.98	7	tourism	173.99	0.90
10	english	101.82	1.18	8	english	122.07	1.14
13	language	69.95	1.14	12	language	79.15	1.14
22	tourist	50.54	1.54	21	tourist	48.46	1.75
27	travel	36.62	2.54	29	study	31.84	1.48
28	texts	34.06	1.97	30	analysis	31.61	1.52
32	words	30.03	1.76	32	texts	29.77	2.27
35	analysis	26.37	1.66	33	travel	29.77	2.76
36	discourse	25.64	2.46	34	research	27.23	1.73
37	study	23.44	1.45	39	communication	23.31	2.27
38	linguistic	23.44	1.59	41	tourists	23.07	2.33
40	cultural	23.07	2.89	45	discourse	21.69	2.96
47	tourists	19.41	2.27	46	words	21.69	2.26
52	research	18.68	2.00	47	linguistic	20.77	2.01
55	languages	17.21	2.87	48	cultural	20.31	3.03
61	communication	16.48	2.47	53	paper	19.38	1.61
62	text	16.11	2.67	58	industry	17.31	2.62
67	corpus	15.38	2.33	63	needs	16.38	2.94
69	industry	14.65	2.68	65	terms	16.15	2.87
71	meaning	13.92	2.48	<b>66</b>	<b>hotel</b>	<b>15.92</b>	<b>3.09</b>
72	specific	13.92	2.21	70	text	15.46	3.59
<b>75</b>	<b>global</b>	<b>13.18</b>	<b>4.08</b>	71	corpus	15.46	2.44
76	romanian	13.18	4.11	<b>73</b>	<b>information</b>	<b>15.23</b>	<b>2.19</b>
78	word	12.82	2.42	74	translation	15.00	4.03
79	terms	12.82	2.82	78	specific	14.54	2.31
80	needs	12.45	3.17	81	languages	13.15	3.34
81	paper	12.45	1.84	82	meaning	12.69	3.08
82	translation	12.09	4.18	<b>84</b>	<b>data</b>	<b>12.46</b>	<b>2.54</b>
87	approach	11.72	2.23	87	field	11.77	2.59
92	advertising	11.35	5.55	88	advertising	11.77	5.69
<b>94</b>	<b>dictionary</b>	<b>10.99</b>	<b>3.26</b>	92	service	11.31	3.26
<b>96</b>	<b>heritage</b>	<b>10.99</b>	<b>3.92</b>	<b>93</b>	<b>international</b>	<b>11.31</b>	<b>2.54</b>
98	field	10.62	2.65	96	approach	10.61	2.56
				<b>97</b>	<b>results</b>	<b>10.61</b>	<b>2.17</b>
				<b>100</b>	<b>purpose</b>	<b>10.38</b>	<b>2.46</b>

## Appendix 2: Comparison of Most Frequent Words in the EFT Corpus, 2016 and 2021 (words in **red, boldfaced font** do not appear in other list)

<i>EFT Corpus 2016</i>				<i>EFT Corpus 2021</i>			
Rank	Type	Rel Freq	CV	Rank	Type	Rel Freq	CV
7	english	170.84	1.58	6	english	208.77	0.91
9	tourism	126.87	1.05	8	tourism	183.38	0.77
10	language	118.22	0.96	10	students	124.47	0.98
12	students	93.35	1.01	14	language	84.41	1.21
21	teaching	51.90	3.53	17	study	62.34	1.21
22	study	51.18	1.22	18	learning	59.13	1.61
24	learning	46.86	1.91	19	teaching	57.09	2.65
27	esp	39.29	2.36	30	research	41.24	1.59
32	needs	32.80	2.00	31	Esp	37.28	2.05
33	learners	32.44	1.97	34	needs	33.63	1.98
36	skills	29.55	2.16	35	skills	31.81	1.94
38	research	28.11	1.61	37	course	28.81	2.32
39	course	27.75	2.33	39	specific	26.89	1.83
42	specific	26.31	1.66	40	purposes	26.03	1.77
45	foreign	23.43	1.95	41	materials	24.96	2.64
50	teachers	20.18	2.04	44	<b>development</b>	23.14	2.51
51	paper	20.18	1.88	45	data	22.82	1.78
52	purposes	19.82	1.69	46	analysis	22.49	1.91
<b>53</b>	<b>business</b>	<b>18.74</b>	<b>3.89</b>	48	teachers	22.39	2.70
58	communication	17.30	2.36	49	industry	21.42	2.28
60	level	17.30	2.22	51	communication	21.21	2.51
61	university	16.94	1.96	52	speaking	20.99	2.65
62	reading	16.94	3.93	56	learners	19.71	2.48
63	results	16.94	1.86	60	results	18.10	1.83
66	industry	16.22	2.22	61	education	17.67	2.73
67	languages	15.86	2.77	62	university	17.57	2.09
<b>68</b>	<b>test</b>	<b>15.86</b>	<b>3.49</b>	63	need	17.14	2.28
69	education	15.86	2.34	64	foreign	17.03	2.94
70	speaking	15.86	3.50	65	paper	17.03	2.00
74	approach	15.14	2.63	66	hospitality	16.07	6.70
78	professional	14.78	2.32	<b>68</b>	<b>training</b>	<b>15.21</b>	<b>3.31</b>
79	materials	14.42	4.12	<b>69</b>	<b>vocabulary</b>	<b>15.21</b>	<b>3.62</b>
81	classroom	13.70	2.29	<b>71</b>	<b>program</b>	<b>15.00</b>	<b>3.25</b>
85	hospitality	12.98	7.46	73	level	14.68	2.52
<b>86</b>	<b>context</b>	<b>12.98</b>	<b>3.14</b>	74	approach	14.35	2.75
87	data	12.98	2.15	<b>76</b>	<b>activities</b>	<b>14.03</b>	<b>3.22</b>
91	analysis	12.61	2.52	78	professional	13.82	3.15
<b>93</b>	<b>resources</b>	<b>12.61</b>	<b>2.99</b>	79	material	13.71	4.12
97	competence	11.89	3.40	80	reading	13.50	4.39
<b>98</b>	<b>linguistic</b>	<b>11.89</b>	<b>2.70</b>	<b>81</b>	<b>curriculum</b>	<b>13.18</b>	<b>3.39</b>
				84	classroom	12.75	2.90
				86	competence	12.64	3.29
				<b>89</b>	<b>communicative</b>	<b>12.21</b>	<b>3.80</b>
				<b>91</b>	<b>field</b>	<b>12.21</b>	<b>2.76</b>
				<b>94</b>	<b>design</b>	<b>12.00</b>	<b>2.64</b>
				<b>98</b>	<b>local</b>	<b>11.03</b>	<b>4.08</b>
				<b>99</b>	<b>content</b>	<b>10.93</b>	<b>3.12</b>

**Appendix 3: Top 100 Keywords in the EoT Corpus (Eft Reference), 2016 and 2021 (words in red, boldfaced font do not appear in other list)**

	Type 2016	Statistic 2016	Type 2021	Statistic 2021
1	romanian	14.18	advertising	9.66
2	food	11.62	romanian	8.62
3	cuisine	10.89	promotional	7.26
4	borrowings	10.16	cuisine	7.23
5	dictionary	8.81	borrowings	6.77
6	discourses	8.32	word	6.01
7	<b>less</b>	<b>7.96</b>	food	5.38
8	islamic	7.96	islamic	5.38
9	welsh	7.59	dictionaries	5.31
10	postcards	7.23	welsh	5.15
11	volume	7.23	tourist	5.11
12	advertising	7.18	<b>reception</b>	<b>5.07</b>
13	russian	6.86	postcards	4.92
14	<b>genre</b>	<b>6.66</b>	volume	4.92
15	word	6.64	multimodal	4.86
16	frames	6.49	gaze	4.69
17	promotional	6.33	adjectives	4.69
18	text	6.11	meaning	4.68
19	travellers	5.76	discourse	4.67
20	gaze	5.76	frames	4.46
21	<b>serbia</b>	<b>5.76</b>	textual	4.46
22	city	5.76	francesconi	4.46
23	anglicisms	5.76	russian	4.45
24	tourist	5.55	french	4.42
25	<b>brochures</b>	<b>5.41</b>	authenticity	4.42
26	amphawa	5.39	text	4.35
27	textual	5.39	texts	4.33
28	francesconi	5.39	terminology	4.26
29	etymological	5.39	<b>macedonian</b>	<b>4.23</b>
30	traveller	5.39	discourses	4.09
31	visual	5.26	heritage	4.05
32	<b>form</b>	<b>5.23</b>	city	4.00
33	authenticity	5.05	anglicisms	4.00
34	wales	5.03	visual	3.96
35	district	5.03	<b>websites</b>	<b>3.92</b>
36	image	5.03	words	3.90
37	words	4.84	dictionary	3.89
38	identity	4.77	his	3.87
39	destination	4.76	discursive	3.86
40	adventure	4.66	image	3.82
41	dishes	4.66	semantic	3.77
42	borrowed	4.66	<b>adjectival</b>	<b>3.77</b>
43	magazine	4.66	amphawa	3.77
44	names	4.66	nouns	3.77
45	agritourism	4.66	etymological	3.77
46	nouns	4.66	<b>translation</b>	<b>3.70</b>
47	discursive	4.50	meanings	3.67
48	origin	4.50	origin	3.67

49	history	4.50	travellers	3.61
50	semantic	4.41	<b>front</b>	<b>3.61</b>
51	travel	4.39	<b>collocations</b>	<b>3.55</b>
52	his	4.35	wales	3.54
53	swansea	4.30	adventure	3.54
54	<b>tours</b>	<b>4.30</b>	literary	3.54
55	notions	4.30	<b>apps</b>	<b>3.54</b>
56	<b>systems</b>	<b>4.30</b>	notions	3.54
57	frame	4.30	<b>like</b>	<b>3.50</b>
58	picked	4.30	destination	3.49
59	extremely	4.30	history	3.48
60	adjectives	4.30	traveller	3.48
61	containing	4.30	point	3.43
62	river	4.30	you	3.42
63	<b>drink</b>	<b>4.30</b>	<b>operators</b>	<b>3.40</b>
64	<b>events</b>	<b>4.23</b>	<b>translating</b>	<b>3.38</b>
65	meaning	4.23	printed	3.38
66	discourse	4.16	<b>promotion</b>	<b>3.37</b>
67	point	4.00	<b>services</b>	<b>3.34</b>
68	you	4.00	dishes	3.31
69	multimodal	3.99	extremely	3.31
70	<b>visitors</b>	<b>3.97</b>	borrowed	3.31
71	holiday	3.97	names	3.31
72	compounds	3.93	agritourism	3.31
73	etymology	3.93	<b>website</b>	<b>3.29</b>
74	<b>american</b>	<b>3.93</b>	<b>representation</b>	<b>3.28</b>
75	<b>menu</b>	<b>3.93</b>	identity	3.28
76	<b>always</b>	<b>3.93</b>	<b>british</b>	<b>3.28</b>
77	<b>café</b>	<b>3.93</b>	travel	3.25
78	dictionaries	3.86	river	3.20
79	texts	3.77	<b>croatian</b>	<b>3.20</b>
80	<b>police</b>	<b>3.70</b>	<b>sites</b>	<b>3.08</b>
81	destinations	3.65	swansea	3.08
82	<b>tec</b>	<b>3.56</b>	picked	3.08
83	<b>day</b>	<b>3.56</b>	<b>reader</b>	<b>3.08</b>
84	distinctive	3.56	<b>translations</b>	<b>3.08</b>
85	<b>spelling</b>	<b>3.56</b>	compound	3.08
86	<b>culinary</b>	<b>3.56</b>	containing	3.08
87	literary	3.56	<b>office</b>	<b>3.06</b>
88	<b>belonging</b>	<b>3.56</b>	<b>registers</b>	<b>3.03</b>
89	<b>want</b>	<b>3.56</b>	district	3.03
90	<b>comic</b>	<b>3.56</b>	holiday	3.03
91	<b>verbal</b>	<b>3.56</b>	tourists	3.02
92	printed	3.56	<b>italian</b>	<b>3.00</b>
93	<b>patterns</b>	<b>3.56</b>	distinctive	2.99
94	terminology	3.43	<b>metaphor</b>	<b>2.99</b>
95	cannot	3.43	frame	2.99
96	<b>touristic</b>	<b>3.43</b>	magazine	2.99
97	heritage	3.40	destinations	2.96
98	<b>items</b>	<b>3.30</b>	<b>dann</b>	<b>2.96</b>
99	french	3.30	cannot	2.96



**Appendix 3: Top 100 Keywords in the Eft Corpus (EoT Reference), 2016 and 2021 (words in red, boldfaced font do not appear in other list)**

	Type 2016	Statistic 2016	Type 2021	Statistic 2021
1	education	12.34	teachers	9.81
2	<b>learning</b>	<b>11.14</b>	<b>vocational</b>	<b>9.14</b>
3	classroom	10.76	classroom	8.12
4	instruction	10.37	teaching	7.79
5	teachers	10.09	student	7.64
6	test	9.73	instruction	7.34
7	competence	9.44	textbook	7.00
8	learners		<b>model</b>	<b>6.92</b>
9	efl	8.65	oral	6.69
10	comprehension	8.57	<b>curriculum</b>	<b>6.58</b>
11	textbook	8.21	classes	6.47
12	students	8.12	test	6.41
13	<b>differing</b>	<b>7.85</b>	<b>designing</b>	<b>5.93</b>
14	teaching	7.32	teacher	5.91
15	student	7.13	<b>etp</b>	<b>5.82</b>
16	learner	7.13	assessment	5.78
17	tests	7.06	competence	5.72
18	oral	7.06	effectiveness	5.71
19	assessment	7.03	textbooks	5.67
20	high	7.03	higher	5.59
21	tasks	6.82	school	5.49
22	testing	6.77	developing	5.29
23	<b>evaluation</b>	<b>6.41</b>	education	5.28
24	esp	6.20	program	5.20
25	effectiveness	6.05	syllabus	5.14
26	acquisition	6.05	<b>experimental</b>	<b>5.07</b>
27	<b>spain</b>	<b>6.05</b>	<b>participants</b>	<b>4.92</b>
28	textbooks	5.74	<b>eft</b>	<b>4.90</b>
29	<b>contexts</b>	<b>5.74</b>	esp	4.83
30	<b>lsp</b>	<b>5.69</b>	learner	4.75
31	<b>webquests</b>	<b>5.69</b>	course	4.73
32	program	5.36	grade	4.64
33	classes	5.33	comprehension	4.64
34	undergraduate	5.33	tests	4.55
35	task-based	5.33	<b>materials</b>	<b>4.44</b>
36	programs	5.33	designed	4.36
37	developing	5.22	<b>class</b>	<b>4.33</b>
38	<b>carried</b>	<b>5.22</b>	<b>lesson</b>	<b>4.32</b>
39	appropriate	4.95	universities	4.25
40	showed	4.95	<b>college</b>	<b>4.21</b>

41	higher	4.95	learners	4.21
42	designed	4.95	implementation	4.03
43	<b>performance</b>	<b>4.95</b>	acquisition	4.00
44	development	4.84	collaborative	4.00
45	subject	4.77	subject	3.99
46	teacher	4.74	<b>technology</b>	<b>3.95</b>
47	good	4.69	<b>enhance</b>	<b>3.95</b>
48	level	4.66	<b>topics</b>	<b>3.91</b>
49	<b>requires</b>	<b>4.60</b>	showed	3.90
50	tertiary	4.60	<b>semester</b>	<b>3.89</b>
51	<b>additional</b>	<b>4.60</b>	<b>scores</b>	<b>3.89</b>
52	<b>application</b>	<b>4.60</b>	<b>metacognitive</b>	<b>3.89</b>
53	<b>cloze</b>	<b>4.60</b>	undergraduate	3.89
54	<b>future</b>	<b>4.55</b>	integrated	3.79
55	project	4.43	high	3.78
56	<b>situations</b>	<b>4.43</b>	<b>te</b>	<b>3.68</b>
57	implementation	4.32	<b>score</b>	<b>3.68</b>
58	task	4.32	tasks	3.58
59	<b>computer</b>	<b>4.24</b>	<b>post-test</b>	<b>3.57</b>
60	<b>empirical</b>	<b>4.24</b>	task-based	3.57
61	pedagogy	4.24	<b>icc</b>	<b>3.57</b>
62	pbl	4.24	testing	3.57
63	<b>taiwanese</b>	<b>4.24</b>	learn	3.57
64	<b>enrolled</b>	<b>4.24</b>	project	3.50
65	<b>opinions</b>	<b>4.24</b>	university	3.45
66	taiwan	4.24	taught	3.40
67	<b>idea</b>	<b>4.24</b>	efl	3.38
68	syllabus	4.11	<b>curricula</b>	<b>3.36</b>
69	technology	4.08	<b>proposed</b>	<b>3.36</b>
70	course	3.98	<b>lessons</b>	<b>3.36</b>
71	group	3.92	development	3.34
72	school	3.91	toward	3.34
73	learn	3.91	positive	3.31
74	<b>direct</b>	<b>3.88</b>	courses	3.28
75	<b>mobile</b>	<b>3.88</b>	<b>project-based</b>	<b>3.25</b>
76	<b>benefits</b>	<b>3.88</b>	taiwan	3.25
77	<b>foreign</b>	<b>3.76</b>	level	3.18
78	<b>article</b>	<b>3.74</b>	<b>develop</b>	<b>3.18</b>
79	<b>didactic</b>	<b>3.63</b>	tertiary	3.16
80	<b>studying</b>	<b>3.57</b>	<b>developed</b>	<b>3.16</b>
81	<b>intercultural</b>	<b>3.57</b>	<b>pre-test</b>	<b>3.14</b>

82	universities	3.57	purposes	3.14
83	evaluate	3.52	<b>material</b>	<b>3.14</b>
84	collaborative	3.52	<b>final</b>	<b>3.10</b>
85	integrated	3.52	<b>design</b>	<b>3.07</b>
86	<b>maritime</b>	<b>3.52</b>	group	3.05
87	<b>hong</b>	<b>3.52</b>	<b>participated</b>	<b>3.04</b>
88	<b>role-play</b>	<b>3.52</b>	<b>total</b>	<b>3.04</b>
89	<b>langauge</b>	<b>3.52</b>	pbl	3.04
90	grade	3.52	task	3.03
91	<b>krabi</b>	<b>3.52</b>	<b>improvement</b>	<b>3.03</b>
92	<b>validity</b>	<b>3.52</b>	<b>method</b>	<b>3.02</b>
93	<b>resources</b>	<b>3.46</b>	<b>implemented</b>	<b>2.99</b>
94	<b>statistical</b>	<b>3.37</b>	<b>year</b>	<b>2.98</b>
95	<b>reflection</b>	<b>3.37</b>	appropriate	2.98
96	<b>due</b>	<b>3.37</b>	<b>motivation</b>	<b>2.96</b>
97	teach	3.37	<b>methods</b>	<b>2.95</b>
98	<b>satisfaction</b>	<b>3.37</b>	good	2.94
99	<b>speaking</b>	<b>3.35</b>	pedagogy	2.93
100	<b>approaches</b>	<b>3.28</b>	evaluate	2.93