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DE OLIVEIRA**

**INGLÊS PARA TURISMO: CONTRIBUTO PARA O  
USO DA LÍNGUA ATRAVÉS DE *MOBILE LEARNING***

**ENGLISH FOR TOURISM: CONTRIBUTION TO  
LANGUAGE USE THROUGH MOBILE LEARNING**



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Tese apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Doutor em Linguística, realizada sob a orientação científica da Professora Doutora Maria Teresa Gomes Roberto, Professora Auxiliar do Departamento de Línguas e Culturas da Universidade de Aveiro e do Professor Doutor Carlos Manuel Martins da Costa, Professor Catedrático do Departamento de Economia, Gestão e Engenharia Industrial da Universidade de Aveiro.

I dedicate this thesis to my mother. Her support, encouragement, and unconditional love have sustained me throughout my life.

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## palavras-chave

Linguística Funcional Sistêmica, Turismo, Educação em turismo, m-learning, economia das experiências

## resumo

O setor do Turismo está em franco crescimento e é cada vez mais competitivo. Por estes motivos, cada destino precisa de encontrar formas de demonstrar a sua singularidade que lhe permita diferenciar-se dos demais. A necessidade de oferecer características singulares torna as economias mais competitivas e a concorrência é um elemento central na diferenciação. A tecnologia assume-se como uma mais-valia para a competitividade no setor turístico, pois permite a internacionalização dos destinos.

Neste cenário, a investigação acerca das tendências no setor aumentou em diversas áreas, nomeadamente na Sociologia e no Marketing. No entanto, existem áreas em que não existe ainda muita investigação: tais como a área das identidades, comunicação e relações interpessoais. Neste campo os estudos linguísticos têm um papel importante por diversas razões: em primeiro lugar, estudam a língua em uso, em segundo lugar, a língua é o veículo que permite o intercâmbio cultural e, por fim, é através do enriquecimento dos seus falantes que é possível inovar no setor do Turismo e no conhecimento como um todo. Esta inovação, por outro lado, tem repercussões em áreas como a gestão, a internacionalização e o Marketing.

É, portanto, objetivo desta tese dar a conhecer experiências de uso de língua que ocorrem em aulas de língua Inglesa com alunos de Turismo, assim como mostrar os resultados de reforço de uso de língua em contextos em que a aprendizagem através de dispositivos móveis foi adotada. Para o efeito, desenvolveram-se estratégias que conciliaram a investigação e a prática letiva que foram benéficas para o processo de ensino/aprendizagem uma vez que permitiram tomar decisões educativas fundamentadas na investigação.

A presente tese permite compreender melhor se os alunos aceitam trabalhar com tecnologias móveis no processo de aprendizagem. Permite, igualmente, compreender de que forma estão organizados os tópicos dos programas de língua Inglesa em cursos de Turismo. Por fim, esta tese também ilustra através das premissas da Linguística Funcional Sistêmica, que o uso da língua pode ser reforçado recorrendo às tecnologias móveis em aulas de língua Inglesa em cursos de Licenciatura em Turismo.

**keywords**

Systemic Functional Linguistics, Tourism, Education in tourism, m-learning, experience economy

**abstract**

Tourism is growing and is becoming more competitive. Destinations need to find elements which demonstrate their uniqueness, the singularity which allows them to differentiate themselves from others. This struggle for uniqueness makes economies become more competitive and competition is a central element in the dynamics of Tourism. Technology is also an added value for tourism competitiveness, as it allows destinations to become internationalised and known worldwide.

In this scenario, research has increased as a means to study Tourism trends in fields such as sociology and marketing. Nevertheless, there are areas in which there is not much research done and which are fundamental: these are the areas concerned with identities, communication and interpersonal relations. In this regard, Linguistics has a major role for different reasons: firstly, it studies language itself and through it, communication, secondly, language conveys culture and, thirdly, it is by enriching language users that innovation in Tourism and in knowledge, as a whole, is made possible. This innovation, on the other hand, has repercussions in areas such as management, internationalisation and marketing as well.

It is, therefore, the objective of this thesis to report on how learning experiences take place in Tourism undergraduate English language classes as well as to give an account of enhanced results in classes where mobile learning was adopted. In this way, an alliance between practice and research was established. This is beneficial for the teaching and learning process because by establishing links between research based insight and practice, the outcome is grounded knowledge which helps make solid educational decisions.

This research, therefore, allows to better understand if learners accept working with mobile technologies in their learning process. Before introducing any teaching and learning approach, it was necessary to be informed, as well, of how English for tourism programmes are organised. This thesis also illustrates through the premises of Systemic Functional Linguistics that language use can be enhanced by using mobile technology in Tourism undergraduate language classes.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES .....</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES .....</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>CHAPTER 1  INTRODUCTION.....</b>	<b>13</b>
1.1 – Introduction to the research design .....	14
1.2 – Interest and scope of the research .....	14
1.3 – Objectives and methodology.....	15
1.4 – Structure of the thesis.....	17
<b>CHAPTER 2  THE FUNDAMENTALS OF SYSTEMIC FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS .</b>	<b>19</b>
2.1 – Introduction to the fundamentals of Systemic Functional Linguistics.....	20
2.2 – Systemic Functional Linguistics: a “permeable” discipline.....	20
2.3 – Analysing texts – the importance of texture .....	28
2.3.1 – The context of culture in a text.....	29
2.3.2 – The context of situation in a text.....	35
2.3.3 – Language metafunctions .....	39
2.4 – Analysing the clause .....	46
2.4.1 – Clause as message – Theme and Rheme .....	46
2.4.2 – Thematic structure: marked and unmarked sequences.....	50
2.4.2.1 – Types of marked Themes .....	52
2.5 – Synopsis .....	53
<b>CHAPTER 3  FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS OF TOURISM.....</b>	<b>55</b>
3.1 – Introduction to a framework of Tourism.....	56
3.2 – Tourism: the world’s largest industry .....	56
3.2.1 – Tourism as a generator of employment.....	57
3.3 – Approaching concepts.....	62
3.4 – Education in Tourism.....	74
3.5 – Synopsis .....	80
<b>CHAPTER 4  AN OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGE LEARNING .....</b>	<b>83</b>
4.1 – Introduction to fundamentals of Mobile Learning.....	84

4.2 – Language learning methods .....	84
4.2.1 – Grammar translation Method .....	85
4.2.2 – Reform Movement and the Methods era .....	86
4.2.3 – Audio-lingual Method .....	87
4.3 – English for Tourism as a branch of ESP .....	89
4.4 – Learning with mobile devices .....	93
4.4.1 – Mobile assisted language learning .....	101
4.4.2 – Mobile devices that enhance Tourism experiences .....	104
4.4.3 – Planning Mobile Learning: Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology .....	107
4.5 – Synopsis .....	114
<b>CHAPTER 5   METHODOLOGY .....</b>	<b>115</b>
5.1 – Introduction to the methodological development of the research .....	116
5.2 – Structuring the research design .....	116
5.3 – From literature review to research design .....	118
5.3.1 – Research in Linguistics .....	119
5.3.2 – Research in Tourism .....	120
5.3.3 – Research in Mobile learning .....	123
5.4 – Problem under research .....	124
5.5 – Research hypothesis .....	128
5.6 – Epistemology and methodology in Social Sciences .....	130
5.6.1 – Quantitative and qualitative Research .....	132
5.7 – Population and samples .....	135
5.7.1 – Students and teachers sample .....	136
5.7.2 – Population of the Higher Education Institutions’ programmes .....	139
5.7.3 – Sample of documents produced by the students .....	141
5.7.4 – Interviews conducted on students .....	143
5.8 – A Mixed Methods Research .....	143
5.8.1 – Research methods .....	147
5.9 – Data collection techniques .....	150
5.9.1 – Survey by questionnaire .....	151
5.9.1.1 – Definition of the survey constructs .....	153
5.9.2 – Documents – Programmes and texts produced by the students .....	155
5.9.3 – Interviews .....	158
5.10 – Data analysis .....	161
5.10.1 – Statistical analysis of the survey .....	162

5.10.2– Content analysis .....	164
5.10.2.1 – Content analysis of the Programmes.....	166
5.10.2.2 – Content analysis of the documents produced and perceptions of interviews..	169
5.10.3– Characteristics of the texts .....	170
5.10.3.1 – Interviews – perceptions .....	173
5.11 – Synopsis .....	174
<b>CHAPTER 6  MOBILE LEARNING ACCEPTANCE IN HIGHER EDUCATION .....</b>	<b>175</b>
6.1 – Introduction to Mobile Learning acceptance data.....	176
6.2 – Data analysis and discussion.....	176
6.2.1 – Analysis of the items used in estimating UTAUT .....	182
6.2.2 – Internal consistency.....	190
6.2.3 – Correlation between constructs .....	192
6.2.4 – Regression analysis .....	192
6.3 – Limitations of the analysis .....	194
6.4 – Synopsis .....	195
<b>CHAPTER 7  ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE AND MOBILE LEARNING .....</b>	<b>197</b>
7.1 – Introduction to Tourism and Linguistics analysis.....	198
7.2 – Framework of Tourism programme contents.....	198
7.3 – Theme and Rheme analysis: The case of Tourism students’ texts.....	206
7.3.1 – Characteristics of the mobile devices.....	207
7.3.2 – Characteristics of the activities .....	209
7.3.3 – Text analysis.....	210
7.3.3.1 – First year students – Text A.....	218
7.3.3.2 – First year students – Text B.....	221
7.3.3.3 – First year students – Text C.....	231
7.3.3.4 – First year students – Text D.....	238
7.3.3.5 – Second year students – Text A .....	241
7.3.3.6 – Second year students – Text B .....	246
7.3.3.7 – Second year students – Text C .....	251
7.4 – Interviews.....	254
7.5 – Synopsis .....	258
<b>CHAPTER 8  CONCLUSION.....</b>	<b>261</b>
8.1 – Introduction to the main conclusions.....	262
8.2 – Main conclusions .....	262

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8.3 – Contribution .....	266
8.4 – Limitations of this study and suggestions for future research.....	266
<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>269</b>
<b>APPENDICES .....</b>	<b>301</b>
Appendix 1   Mobile Application.....	302
Appendix 2   Request for cooperation.....	309
Appendix 3   Tourism related courses.....	310
Appendix 4   Tourism related coursed analysed.....	311
Appendix 5   Survey to students (original version).....	312
Appendix 6   Survey to students (free translation by the author).....	316
Appendix 7   Survey to teachers (original version).....	320
Appendix 8   Survey to teachers (free translation by the author).....	324
Appendix 9   Items used to measure UTAUT .....	328
Appendix 10   Programmes request.....	329
Appendix 11   Permission to collect data - students.....	330
Appendix 12   Permission to collect data .....	331
Appendix 13   Original interview script.....	332
Appendix 14   Higher education institutions contacted.....	333
Appendix 15   Guidelines for composition 1 - 1 <sup>st</sup> year.....	334
Appendix 16   Guidelines for composition 2 - 1 <sup>st</sup> year.....	335
Appendix 17   Guidelines for composition 3 - 1 <sup>st</sup> year.....	336
Appendix 18   Guidelines for composition 4 - 1 <sup>st</sup> year.....	337
Appendix 19   Guidelines for composition 1 – 2 <sup>nd</sup> year .....	338
Appendix 20   Guidelines for composition 2 – 2 <sup>nd</sup> year .....	339
Appendix 21   Guidelines for composition 3 – 2 <sup>nd</sup> year .....	340
Appendix 22   Example of mind map.....	341

**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

BI	Behaviour Intention
BP	Bologna Process
CAQDAS	Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software
EE	Effort Expectancy
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
GSP	Generic Structure Potential
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HE	Higher Education
HORECA	Hotels, Restaurants and Cafés
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
IT	Information Technologies
m-learning	Mobile Learning
p.a.	<i>Per annum</i>
PDA	Personal Digital Assistant
PE	Performance Expectancy
SI	Social Influence
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
TSA	Tourism Satellite Account
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
UTAUT	Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology



**LIST OF TABLES**

Table 2.1 – Examples of unmarked and marked Themes .....	51
Table 3.1 – Employment in the Tourism industries .....	58
Table 5.1 – Alternative strategies of inquiry .....	144
Table 5.2 – Interview script.....	160
Table 5.3 – Coding of programmes.....	168
Table 5.4 – Number of texts under analysis.....	170
Table 6.1 – Internal consistency reliability measured by Cronbach's Alpha .....	191
Table 6.2 – Collinearity statistics.....	191
Table 6.3 – Inter-construct correlation.....	192
Table 6.4 – Multiple linear regression statistics.....	192
Table 7.1 – Contents taught in Portuguese public higher education Tourism courses.....	201
Table 7.2 – English contents taught in Tourism Information courses.....	202
Table 7.3 – English contents taught in Tourism Management courses.....	202
Table 7.4 – English contents taught in Tourism courses.....	203
Table 7.5 – English contents taught in Hotel Management .....	203
Table 7.6 – English contents taught in other Tourism related courses.....	204
Table 7.7 – English contents in public Tourism related higher education courses in NUTS II.....	205
Table 7.8 – Mobile phone operative systems (first and second year students) .....	208
Table 7.9 – Summary per document and year.....	211
Table 7.10 – Total of words according to SFL categorization .....	211
Table 7.11 – List of difficult words chosen by students .....	213
Table 7.12 – Frequency of chosen difficult words in the total texts .....	215

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 – Firth's analogy of Linguistics as a prism.....	23
Figure 2.2 – Stratification and instantiation in relation to learner's life .....	27
Figure 2.3 – Genre.....	30
Figure 2.4 – Register: Field; Tenor and Mode. ....	36
Figure 2.5 – Genre in relation to register and language .....	37
Figure 2.6 – Theme and Rheme analysis .....	49
Figure 3.1 – Overnight stays in Portugal.....	59
Figure 3.2 – Profits of Tourism in Portugal generated by international tourists .....	59
Figure 3.3 – Portugal: Direct contribution of travel and Tourism to employment.....	60
Figure 3.4 – Portugal: Total contribution of travel and Tourism to employment .....	60
Figure 3.5 – Leisure, recreation and tourism.....	65
Figure 3.6 – Leisure, recreation and tourism.....	66
Figure 3.7 – The framework of Tourism futures.....	68
Figure 3.8 – Components of a Tourism plan.....	72
Figure 3.9 – The four realms of an experience.....	77
Figure 4.1 – Wired Virtual Learning Environment of Today .....	95
Figure 4.2 – Wireless Virtual Learning Environment of Tomorrow.....	95
Figure 4.3 – Communication and Information Needs in the Stages of Tourism Consumption .....	105
Figure 4.4 – The Role of Stories in the Process of Deriving Meaning from Travel Experiences..	107
Figure 4.5 – UTAUT model.....	109
Figure 4.6 – Items used to measure UTAUT .....	112
Figure 5.1 – Structure of the research .....	117
Figure 5.2 – Subject areas of the study .....	119
Figure 5.3 – Study of Tourism Choice of Discipline and Approach.....	122
Figure 5.4 – Subject areas of the study – Analysis model.....	124
Figure 5.5 – Subject areas of the study – Epistemology .....	130
Figure 5.6 – Subject areas of the study – Population and samples.....	135
Figure 5.7 – Students' reply percentage per HE institution .....	138
Figure 5.8 – Teachers' reply percentage per HE institution.....	138
Figure 5.9 – Undergraduate places in Higher Education in Tourism in Portugal .....	139
Figure 5.10 – Students enrolled for the 1 <sup>st</sup> time in Tourism in Higher education .....	140
Figure 5.11 – Summary of courses and programmes .....	141

---

Figure 5.12 – First year students, age, according to gender .....	142
Figure 5.13 – Second year students’ age, according to gender .....	142
Figure 5.14 – Subject areas of the study – Methods .....	143
Figure 5.15 – Explanatory Sequential Design.....	145
Figure 5.16 – Subject areas of the study – Data collection techniques .....	151
Figure 5.17 – UTAUT model.....	152
Figure 5.18 – Subject areas of the study – Population and samples.....	162
Figure 6.1 – Students’ gender .....	176
Figure 6.2 – Teachers’ gender.....	176
Figure 6.3 – Students’ age.....	177
Figure 6.4 – Teachers’ age .....	177
Figure 6.5 – Distribution per academic year of student respondents .....	177
Figure 6.6 – Distribution of academic degree of teachers.....	178
Figure 6.7 – Distribution of teachers’ academic experience in years in Tourism courses .....	178
Figure 6.8 – Mobile devices owned by students and teachers .....	179
Figure 6.9 – Social networks usage.....	179
Figure 6.10 – Social networks used by teachers and students.....	180
Figure 6.11 – Social network access through mobile devices (Students) .....	181
Figure 6.12 – Social network access through mobile devices (Teachers).....	181
Figure 6.13 – Mobile devices used for teaching or learning purposes .....	182
Figure 6.14 – Usefulness of Mobile Learning.....	183
Figure 6.15 – Quicker accomplishment of tasks .....	183
Figure 6.16 – Productivity increase.....	184
Figure 6.17 – Increase of chances of getting better academic results .....	184
Figure 6.18 – Interaction is clear and understandable .....	185
Figure 6.19 – Becoming skilful is easy .....	185
Figure 6.20 – Using Mobile Learning would be easy .....	186
Figure 6.21 – Operating with Mobile Learning would be easy.....	186
Figure 6.22 – People who influence behaviour think Mobile Learning should be used .....	187
Figure 6.23 – Important people think Mobile Learning should be used .....	187
Figure 6.24 – Helpfulness of teachers/senior management in the use of Mobile Learning .....	188
Figure 6.25 – Support of the school in the use of Mobile Learning.....	188
Figure 6.26 – Intention to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months.....	189
Figure 6.27 – Prediction to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months .....	189
Figure 6.28 – Plan to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months.....	190

---

Figure 7.1 – Undergraduate places in Higher Education in Tourism in Portugal .....	199
Figure 7.2 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Tourism courses .....	200
Figure 7.3 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Tourist Information courses ....	200
Figure 7.4 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Tourism Management courses	200
Figure 7.5 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Hotel Management courses .....	200
Figure 7.6 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in other Tourism related courses .	200
Figure 7.7 – Total English Curricular units in the Tourism area courses.....	200
Figure 7.8 – English contents in public Tourism-related higher education courses.....	206
Figure 7.9 – Mobile devices (first and second year students) .....	207
Figure 7.10 – Model of analysis of the texts .....	210
Figure 7.11 – Occurrence of unrepeated words per text (1 <sup>st</sup> year) .....	216
Figure 7.12 – Average of SFL categories per text .....	217
Figure 7.13 – Average of repeated words per category per text .....	217
Figure 7.14 – Word cloud – Total of composition A .....	218
Figure 7.15 – Tree map – Composition A: Marked Themes.....	219
Figure 7.16 – Word cloud – Total of composition B .....	221
Figure 7.17 – Tree map – Composition B: Marked Themes .....	222
Figure 7.18 – Word cloud – Total of composition C .....	232
Figure 7.19 – Tree map – Composition C: Marked Themes.....	233
Figure 7.20 – Word cloud – Total of composition D .....	238
Figure 7.21 – Tree map – Composition D: Marked Themes.....	239
Figure 7.22 – Word cloud – Total of composition A .....	242
Figure 7.23 – Tree map – Composition A: Marked Themes.....	243
Figure 7.24 – Word cloud – Total of composition B .....	246
Figure 7.25 – Tree map – Composition B: Marked Themes.....	247
Figure 7.26 – Word cloud – Total of composition C .....	251
Figure 7.27 – Tree map – Composition C: Marked Themes.....	252



*The use of technologies is becoming ubiquitous throughout today's society. As philosophies and practice move toward learner-centered pedagogies, technology, in a parallel move, is now able to provide new affordances to the learner, such as learning that is personalized, contextualized, and unrestricted by temporal and spacial constraints.*

(Crompton, 2013b, p. 47)



## **CHAPTER 1 | INTRODUCTION**



## **1.1 – Introduction to the research design**

This chapter is designed to present, in section 1.2, the research project developed in this thesis, along with a general view of the importance of this research for language teachers who teach on Tourism courses as well as for Tourism managers. Then, the objectives and methodology of the thesis are presented in section 1.3. Finally, in section 1.4 the overview of the structure of the thesis is outlined.

## **1.2 – Interest and scope of the research**

The present study combines three research areas: Systemic Functional Linguistics; Tourism and Mobile Learning. In this section the aim is to explain the interest of combining these different research fields.

People use language for different purposes. However, language is not produced randomly: it needs to make sense, for others to understand it. The social interaction which occurs between people is materialised in texts, so data can be analysed. Doing text analysis fosters the understanding of the quality and efficacy of the texts produced in different social contexts which involve interaction.

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is an analysis framework which allows for the description and interpretation of texts (Eggins, 2004). This framework is based on language functions, which permits the understanding of what language does and how it does it (Halliday, 1994). The social contexts in which the texts are generated and interpreted provide the working ground for Systemic Functional Linguistics.

From the numerous social interactions available among human beings, the educational setting is a possible field of analysis, as students produce various texts according to the course they take and the subjects they study.

Tourism is the biggest world industry and provides employment for millions of people around the world (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2013). This industry has evolved over the decades and it deals with different areas, from tourist attractions to transportation services, accommodation, among other (Inskeep, 1991), offering a vast and multifarious field for research. In Portugal, Tourism is one of the few competitive sectors but it lacks

research in many different key areas such as international business (Breda, 2010), or education (Salgado, 2007).

Studies in language education have important implications at management level. This is because the more the training of Tourism professionals is understood and enhanced, the more enlightened will be the management and educational decisions made in this ambit.

One of the approaches which is transversal to both Tourism (Neuhofer & Buhalis, 2012; Sheldon, 1997) and education is technology, namely mobile technology (Crompton, 2013a; Moura, 2011).

Mobile technologies allow, in the educational setting, for the development of Mobile Learning (m-learning) which currently represents an exponential increase of learner-centred pedagogies as well as new learning opportunities (Crompton, 2013a). This is due to the opportunity to learn in any context (either at school or outside) via mobile devices.

These learning opportunities are not confined to the educational setting. In the Tourism industry, the use of technology has enabled unique learning experiences among tourists (learning about the destination on the Web before travelling; virtually visiting the place they are travelling to learn about its characteristics; accessing information about the destination, when they are actually on site and instant sharing of tourist experiences in the social networks) (Neuhofer & Buhalis, 2012).

In both contexts (educational or in the Tourism industry) learning takes places in multiple contexts and in different social situations, using people's electronic devices (Crompton, 2013a). This helps us to understand how Mobile Learning permeates both education and Tourism as m-learning is "learning across multiple contexts, through social and content interactions, using personal electronic devices" (Crompton, 2013a, p. 4).

Language learning among professionals allows for substantial increase in the unique potential of Tourism destinations and for the provision of unique experiences. However, no research in this ambit was found during this study.

### **1.3 – Objectives and methodology**

The main objective of this study is to understand to what extent English language learning can be enhanced with Mobile Learning strategies. For this purpose, two first analyses were

conducted. The first identifies which language contents are taught; the second informs about the acceptance of mobile technology.

Particularly, it aims at understanding whether:

- i) English programme contents for Tourism-related courses are the same in public HE organisations.
- ii) Performance expectancy will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.
- iii) Effort expectancy will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.
- iv) Social influence will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.
- v) Exposing students of Tourism-related courses to Mobile Learning strategies enhances their language use

To attain these objectives, and according to the literature review and the hypotheses formulated, a mixed methods approach was followed in this research, as further explained in chapter 5. A national survey by questionnaire was used to gain access to a detailed understanding of the acceptance of technology among Tourism students and teachers of English language who teach in Tourism related courses in Higher Education (HE) institutions. Document analysis (English language programmes) was carried out to gain a clear understanding of which themes are taught in English language classes, on Tourism courses, at national level.

The research regarding the identification of topics taught in language programmes and Mobile Learning acceptance served as an informational basis of the case study later developed. The reason why the case study method was chosen was to make the work feasible although it would be interesting to conduct it at national level.

Besides the analysis previously mentioned, documents (texts produced by students) were analysed to identify the development in English language use and, at the end of the case study, interviews were conducted to question the same students, in order to further document their reactions to the developed language work and to the Mobile Learning approach they were involved in.

## **1.4 – Structure of the thesis**

The thesis is organised in two parts. The first part, made up of four first chapters, gradually introduces the theoretical background to the research, whereas the second, which is developed in chapters 5, 6 and 7, presents the empirical analysis conducted, which starts with the methodology used, followed by the results obtained.

Chapter 1 introduces an outline of the study as far as its interest and scope are concerned. It also presents the research objectives and methodology used throughout the study and the structure of the thesis.

Chapter 2 presents a literature review on Systemic Functional Linguistics and language use; aiming to provide an overview of this field of analysis as well as the framework which is used in the analysis, in particular, Theme markedness.

Chapter 3 brings in relevant issues on Tourism, mainly contextualising Tourism in the world and the importance of the industry as an employment generator. It also addresses the concepts of leisure, recreation and Tourism and their interconnectedness with different study areas, due to its eclectic nature. Besides, it also focuses on the importance of Tourism education in the development of the industry.

Chapter 4 reviews language learning approaches. It gives an historical overview from past approaches to the present, when technologies are used.

Chapter 5 provides a discussion of the development of this research, from the literature review and theoretical background; the analysis model adopted and the epistemological issues. It also presents population and samples under study; the methods used and data collection techniques as well as a description of the data analysis developed. After addressing the theoretical background of the thesis and its methodological support, the empirical analysis and results are presented in the following chapters.

Chapter 6 addresses the results obtained from the national survey on Mobile Learning acceptance in Higher Education. This was conducted with teachers of English and undergraduate students and the chapter outlines data analysis and their discussion.

Chapter 7 discusses the empirical study developed and interprets the results obtained from the analyses. This chapter starts by presenting an overview and analysis of the documents

under study (first, the English language programmes, followed by the texts produced by the students), and, finally, it describes the main findings of the interviews.

Chapter 8 shows the main outcomes and conclusions of the thesis and addresses its main theoretical contribution. The discussion of the limitations of this study and future areas of research are suggested, concluding this final chapter.

**CHAPTER 2 | THE FUNDAMENTALS OF SYSTEMIC  
FUNCTIONAL LINGUISTICS**

## 2.1 – Introduction to the fundamentals of Systemic Functional Linguistics

The present chapter deals with Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and language use. It starts, in section 2.2, by outlining the main characteristics of SFL as well as its importance in the teaching and learning processes. It also explains how SFL can be interconnected, from an ecological point of view, with other subjects, namely Tourism and technology. Afterwards, in section 2.3, there is a focus on how texts can be analysed from this linguistic perspective, taking into consideration both the contexts of culture and of situation where texts are produced. Section 2.4 devotes special attention to the specific scope of the clause organisation in its components of Theme, marked Theme and Rheme.

## 2.2 – Systemic Functional Linguistics: a “permeable” discipline

In the walled gardens in which the disciplines have been sheltered . . . each has claimed the right to determine not only what questions it is asking but also what it will take into account in answering them . . . this leads to the construction of elegant self-contained systems that are of only limited application to real issues – since the objects themselves have no such boundary walls. (Halliday, 1978, p. 3)

This citation from Halliday draws our attention to the importance of having an ecological view of disciplines and, consequently, of knowledge. This means that, in order to understand “real issues” of real life, disciplines and areas – such as Tourism, Linguistics and Information Technology (IT) (Mobile Learning, more specifically) in the case of this study – need an ecological approach. In a work which looks at language in use, language itself cannot be bound by “walled gardens” of linguistic analysis only. To provide a richer view of language in use, it needs to be perceived as an ecological whole. Having these premises as background, this research also provides an ecological approach as the language under analysis is produced within the area of Tourism which is an area that has its own language idiosyncrasies (e.g. dialogues between tourists and professionals in a hotel or in a restaurant, among other situations). Besides focusing on language produced in the Tourism area, the research also involves language work developed with IT tools. Altogether, this work provides not a “sheltered” and “walled garden” analysis, but a view of “real issues” which combines three

different, but complementary and interconnected areas, breaking apart from the ‘comfort’ and shelter that the walled gardens of disciplines provide.

For the purpose of this work, and in the case of the discipline of Linguistics, the Systemic Functional approach to language was chosen to give shape to the analysis. SFL was developed by Michael Halliday in the 1960s and it was influenced by the work of the linguist J.R. Firth; by the Chinese linguist Wang Li and the linguists of the Prague School (Martin, 1984). Prague School linguists analysed sentences in its communicative function and, for whom, the origin of the sentence is known information, or Theme, while what is said about the known information is considered the Rheme (Bussmann, 2006). SFL linguists differ from the Structural linguists, for whom, language was envisaged as a set of rules, for example, and whose main focus was the study of discreet units like, for example, sentence patterns.

Systemic Functional Linguistics was developed with the wish to understand how language is constructed/how it works and to establish general principles with regard to language use. It aims at understanding the nature of texts in their social and cultural contexts.

Halliday regarded language as a resource to exchange meanings in a creative process that entails the orchestrated use of the whole language system and even non-linguistic elements that communication calls upon. For him, language is a very complex system; it is a “semiotic system” (Halliday, 1970) as he defines it and studies it as such.

Some semiotic systems can be bi-unique and these are arbitrary and established by social convention. This means that there is no direct link between their content (meaning) and their expression (realisation). A social convention is needed to attach a particular meaning to a specific realisation. For example, there is no direct link between the meanings “do not go any further” and a red traffic light. It is the social convention that imposes this.

The linguistic system, on the other hand, differs from bi-unique semiotic systems – such as the traffic lights – because it is a three level semiotic system. At the content level it is divided into: semantics; lexico-grammar (further developed in section 2.3.3), and content is expressed through phonology/graphology.

The relationship between the linguistic signs and the objects is also established by social convention. Each sign has meaning from its relation to the other signs in language, which means that a sign occurs both in a specific sequence in relation to others and has a specific function (axis of chain – syntagmatic) and it occurs in opposition to other existing signs (axis



of choice – paradigmatic). Therefore, language occurs in a logical sequence and meaning comes from the combination of different constituents. These constituents occur in logical sequence to convey meaning (e.g. subject, verb and object in declarative sentences), but the words that are used in messages are mentally chosen by the speaker from a vast array of options. This choice is possible because, as Halliday (1978) postulates, language is a meaning-making resource, and when learning a language, users select from a system of available linguistic options to communicate.

For Halliday (1978), language has a “meaning potential” (Halliday, 1978, p. 39), therefore, when people learn languages they learn a potential to make meaning. In other words, the user chooses the language that is appropriate to the situation he/she is in because this is an essential element in the “ability to mean” and not “an optional extra in language” (Halliday, 1978, p. 34). Therefore, choice is significant for the realisation of meaning. Besides, language also involves using many systems simultaneously, that is why language is said to be polisystemic<sup>1</sup> (Christie, 1999). As Linguistics studies language use situations which occur among individuals as elements functioning in society – contributing to it and collecting from it – this means that it also studies the meaning of society itself.

An analysis of texts using the premises of SFL is not a prescriptive analysis of how people should use English or about right or wrong but rather a descriptive analysis. By descriptive we mean that SFL is concerned with accounting for how language is used and not “the moral and social judgements made by people about how the grammar of English should be used” (Eggins, 2004, p. 139). To see how language is used we can look at it as if through a prism. The prism analogy is used by Firth (1957, p. 192 cit. in Caffarel, Martin, & Matthiessen, 2004) where he explains that language conveyed by a text is the white light which on one side seems to be a whole but when looked at by descriptive Linguistics – which Firth compares to a prism – disperses into three dimensions of meaning, as light disperses when

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<sup>1</sup> The Mood system, for example, comprises the linguistic patterns for forming imperatives and indicative statements. Within indicative sentences, for example, the language user can choose from interrogative or declarative structures, according to the different roles and relationships he has with the other user(s). Because of the available linguistic choices in English Mood, this allows the user to construe different meanings. Hence, as the use of language involves drawing upon many systems simultaneously, it is said to be polisystemic (Christie, 1999).

looked at through a prism. In the case of language, a Linguistics analysis allows for the identification of three meanings: Ideational; Interpersonal and Textual.

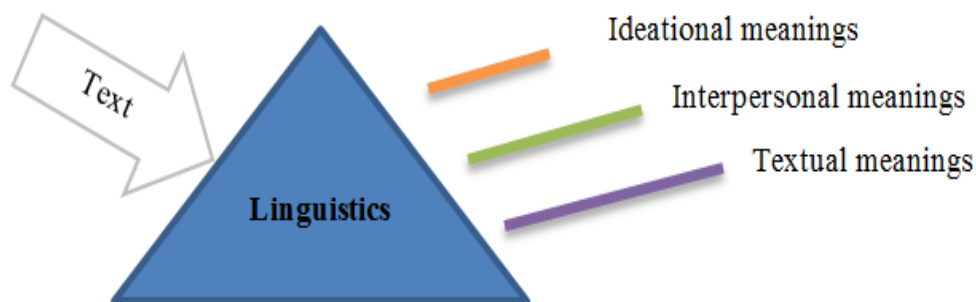


Figure 2.1 – Firth's analogy of Linguistics as a prism

Source: Own creation

This means that a SFL analysis describes a given instance of communication. When language is used there is a set of choices from which one decides the words; types of clauses (e.g. interrogatives or affirmatives); genres (e.g. narrative; guide book, dialogue) and these choices convey meaning. For example, when speakers use structures such as: “She went to the baker’s on Saturday night” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 74) this is called an unmarked structure because it is the usual structure in affirmative clauses. Nevertheless, when the language user chooses to say/write “On Saturday night, she went to the baker’s, there is choice implied. In this case, an unusual or marked structure is used because a prepositional phrase (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 74) is chosen to become the beginning or Theme of the sentence. This type of Thematic organisation is the main focus of the present Linguistics analysis because it is the organisation of the elements of the clauses which is “the most significant factor in the development of the text” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 105). This organisation is called Thematic organisation, which is further developed in section 2.4.2.

As has been mentioned before, there are different ways of combining and using language which might seem difficult to analyse in all its multiple manifestations. However, Halliday and his followers in the Systemic Functional Linguistics School of discourse analysis propose a systemic and functional analysis of language and not an analysis based on discrete grammatical structures or rules alone.

In adopting a Systemic approach, paradigmatic relations are the primary focus, but as language is perceived as a system with functional constituents, form is also studied as a typological support for the discourse in hand. This means that for SFL both paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations are analysed and the various strands of meaning-making considered and avowed.

SFL is the underlying framework of the present work; therefore, the texts produced by Tourism students are admitted to analysis that focuses on a description of both syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations. For example, the (teaching/learning) context where the texts were produced is analysed as well as the lexico-grammar and formal aspects of the texts, while also addressing aspects of appropriacy in and for the given (simulated) context.

One of the most significant differences between SFL and other schools of discourse analysis is the predominance placed on above-the-sentence elements. This includes the aligning of sentences in longer tracts of discourse and the articulation of sentences in multi-sentence text.

In order to understand a text, it is necessary to focus on what a text is in SFL. According to Halliday and Hasan (1976), a text is a “semantic unit: not of form [as for formalists] but of meaning . . . it does not consist of sentences; it is realised by, or encoded in, sentences” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 1–2) because it is a semantic unit and not a part of the lexico-grammar rank scale; it is unity which is considered the main characteristic of a text (Halliday & Hasan, 1991). Besides, a text is “any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 1–2). It is this characteristic of being a unified whole, or of having “texture” as Halliday and Hasan state (1976), that distinguishes a text from a non-text. The texture is what holds the text together to give it unity with respect to its environment and can metaphorically be understood as the cross-cutting elements of cohesion and coherence (to be discussed in depth further on in section 2.3.) articulated within the basis of meaning-making smaller components of lexico-grammar. Therefore, when analysing a text, it is important to perceive it as an “ongoing process of meaning” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 524); to be regarded “dynamically” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 524). Furthermore, a text interrelates several dimensions. These dimensions are to be found within the text (its lexico-grammar) and outside the text (in its alliance with the context in which the text is realised).

For the above reasons, the analysis to be undertaken in chapter 7 deals with the texts produced by the students and the overriding learning context in which they are produced: Tourism. In this way, the SFL analysis carried out here intermingles these areas which intends to overcome the “walled gardens” (Halliday, 1978) of Linguistics, Tourism and technology, aiming at an ecological and integrative analysis.

In this chapter, however, the SFL context is to be provided before the analysis itself. Therefore, it is now important to understand that a text is made up of a sequence of lexical and grammatical occurrences (e.g. morphemes, words, clauses, phrases, – its lexico-grammar). This lexico-grammar is in itself the discursive material that conveys the intended meaning in a text and, together with the combined meaning that a particular type of text has within a given context of use, is influenced and, simultaneously, influences the context in which it is used.

Context is to be understood in its duality of categories: context of situation and of culture, terms coined by Malinowski (1972 cit. in Eggins, 2004). The context of situation allows for different language choices and speakers realise their choices through different texts. The context of situation involves choices of register<sup>2</sup>, whereas the choices made regarding genre (structures) involve the context of culture (Malinowski, 1935). These concepts, identified by Malinowski and later by Firth, served as foundation for Halliday who developed them further. The notion of context of culture and situation are still the basis for understanding how a text conveys meaning in SFL.

For these reasons, and to provide a holistic overview of the work developed, the contexts of both situation and culture are explained in the analysis chapter. Nevertheless, only a brief account is given as these are not the core of the analysis, thematic organisation is.

The present work focuses on texts produced by students who are adults. Halliday (1978) perceives the linguistic system of adults as a “culturally specific and situationally sensitive range of meaning potential” (p.24), then culture is relevant for SFL because this is a social

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<sup>2</sup> There are several models of register, and the theory with respect to register has changed considerably over the years. For discussions on register, please see Halliday, McIntosh, & Strevens (1964), Swales (1981, 1990) and Bhatia (1993).

theory about social life. SFL is about experience and the critical role of language in the construction of everyday social life (Christie, 1999; Eggins, 2004).

Language is viewed, by Halliday (1978), as social semiotic because it is a product of the social process of people using language with each other (Halliday, 1975) and “language is as it is because of what it has to do” (Halliday, 1973, cit. in Eggins, 2004, p. 112). Therefore, to learn a language is to learn how to mean within a culture. In this sense, knowing a language has, for SFL theory, a “pedagogical significance” (Christie, 1999, p. 761) because people learn what is culturally accepted. This viewpoint is important for this project in that it provides the connection between discourse analysis, language learning and the availability of cultural competence to learners of a foreign language, through the skilled use of textual genres in particular contexts.

In this regards, SFL is a theory of social action, as Christie (1999) clarifies, as it explores the social construction of the users’ experience and it helps to understand how language use works. Therefore, teachers who use a SFL perspective help students in attaining the requirements of genre production which will help them to achieve language learning success. Indeed, SFL has contributed to the development of research in language in education, which is considered, by Christie (1999), an applied linguistic area. In the case of learning a foreign language, according to Matthiessen (2006), this learning depends on several factors: from the context of learning and teaching; to the age of the learners and their learning styles; finally, on the teacher’s perception of language. This last point is crucial in the sense that it determines the teacher’s approach regarding what is made relevant in the process of teaching and learning and the materials that are used to support this process. Only by having a holistic understanding of what language is can a teacher face the challenges that the educational context presents. Besides, the success of any approach to support second language learning depends on the theoretical background that underpins it. It is our belief that SFL is such a theoretical background and we will endeavour to demonstrate how it can propitiate the framework both for teaching and for analysing the outcomes of teaching.

Learning a language is learning how to mean in that language and learning about language is part of becoming an autonomous learner, a lifelong learner. As such, appropriate pedagogical strategies need to be adopted to maximise the students’ learning. This is supported by studies (Centeno-Cortés, 2003; Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Lantolf & Yáñez,

2003; Ohta, 2001) which state that learners have their own “agendas for which aspects of the language they decide to focus on at any given time” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007, p. 205), both inside and outside the classroom and these agendas do not necessarily coincide with the wish of the teacher.

From this point of view, the present work encompasses both activities in and outside the classroom. During these, students develop their own learning, at their own pace, anytime, anywhere, taking their own agendas into account, which is mainly allowed by the Mobile Learning activities developed, which are further explained in chapter 7. Besides, these students are capable of learning how to mean in context because, taking into consideration Matthiessen’s figure below (Matthiessen, 2006), they fit into the tertiary education level. In this level, students have learned the foreign language for some years and have already learned how to sound, how to word and how to mean and are, therefore, capable of learning how to mean in context.

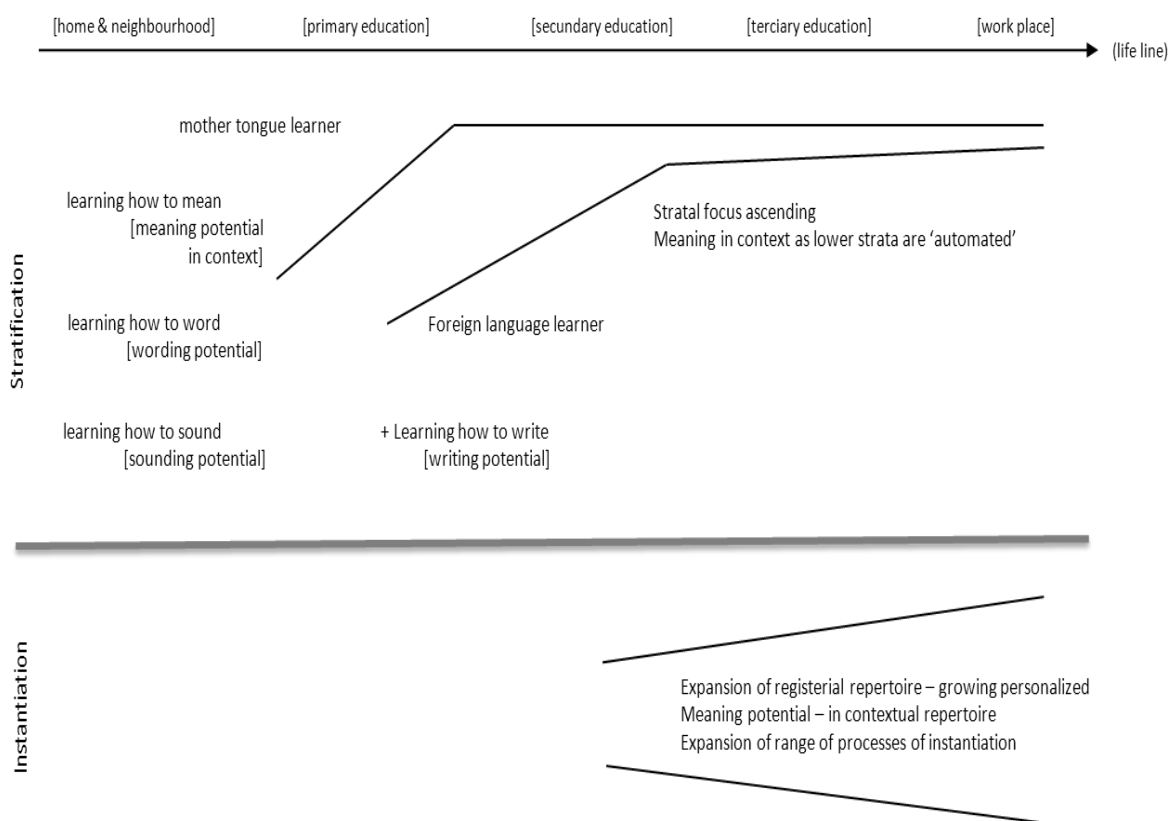


Figure 2.2 – Stratification and instantiation in relation to learner’s life

Source: (Matthiessen, 2006, p. 43)

However, as was previously mentioned, each student has his/her own agendas for learning. Therefore, one of the aims of the study developed with students is to help them, both in and outside the classroom, to become successful by acquiring a broader knowledge of the language and language uses through a strategy that is with them anytime, anywhere – their Mobile Learning activities.

As the main focus of this work is to understand to what extent Mobile Learning can improve the English language learning experience for Tourism students, there is a need to have, as background of analysis of their texts, a framework that is both broad enough to encompass this aim and specific enough to shed useful light onto the research. Envisaging language as a system is considered useful to fit the areas of the analysis, as language develops in context, in this case in the scope of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) subjects with Tourism students. The aim of these ESP subjects that students attend is to help them construe experience in terms of language potential, taking into consideration their interest in the area of Tourism and their access to and interest in technology. There is also the aim to potentiate their future professional social roles by helping them construe meaningful messages in their professional context. In order to attain this goal, several exercises were put at the disposal of students and co-created with them. Afterwards, we asked them to produce texts in order to analyse whether the activities contributed to broadening their language skills or not.

### **2.3 – Analysing texts – the importance of texture**

Having explained why SFL is important for language learning and teaching there is a need to consider how it can serve the purpose of this thesis in analysing students' texts. As was previously stated (in section 2.2) there are several factors involved in the meaning of texts. Text meaning is dependent on texture, which can be defined as the “process whereby meaning is channelled into a digestible current of discourse” (Martin, 2003, p. 35) “instead of spilling out formlessly in every possible direction” (Halliday, 1994, p. 311).

Texture gives unity to the clauses of the text because it involves the interaction between coherence and cohesion (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Coherence refers to the outer context of the text (context of culture, further developed in section 2.3.1, and the conceptual content that predicates the ideas that constitute what is communicated, as well as the context of

situation, further developed in section 2.3.2) and cohesion refers to the “relations of meaning” (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 4) that exist between the components of the text that bind it as a whole. When coherence and cohesion coexist in a text, the linguistic resources used are meaningful in both a situational and cultural context.

The context of culture “frames the context of situation” (Fenton-Smith, 2005, p. 115) because situations are recurrent in response to the contextual demands of a specific culture. The strata of culture and situation are, therefore, “permeable and mutually constructive” (Fenton-Smith, 2005, p. 115) because the first determines and is determined by situation types and the context of situation construes and is construed by the linguistic system. This sustains what was previously said regarding the holistic perspective we have of language; (foreign) language learning, and the uses to which language is put.

According to Eggins and Martin (1997), the text is the weaving together simultaneously of several different strands of meaning because the various contextual dimensions get ‘into’ the text (context of culture – conveyed by genre and context of situation – conveyed by register). All in all, context dimensions impact on language by representing meaning choices and their linguistic expression, aligned with cohesion and coherence, creating the warp and the weft of texture in text.

### **2.3.1 – The context of culture in a text**

In the case of the context of culture here explained, Eggins (2004), who gives a more current vision of SFL, uses this figure (Figure 2.3 – Genre) to schematise how language works for Systemicists and this is used at the beginning of some parts of this work as well, in order to situate the different language components within the fundamental scheme of SFL.

The triangles give an overview of language use from its smallest components (the lexico-grammar) to its broadest scope (the context of culture) and the different dimensions involved that constitute a text from the SFL perspective. Although all aspects are interconnected and of indisputable relevance, only the most prominent within the scope of this work are further developed: namely Thematic organisation (section 2.4.1).



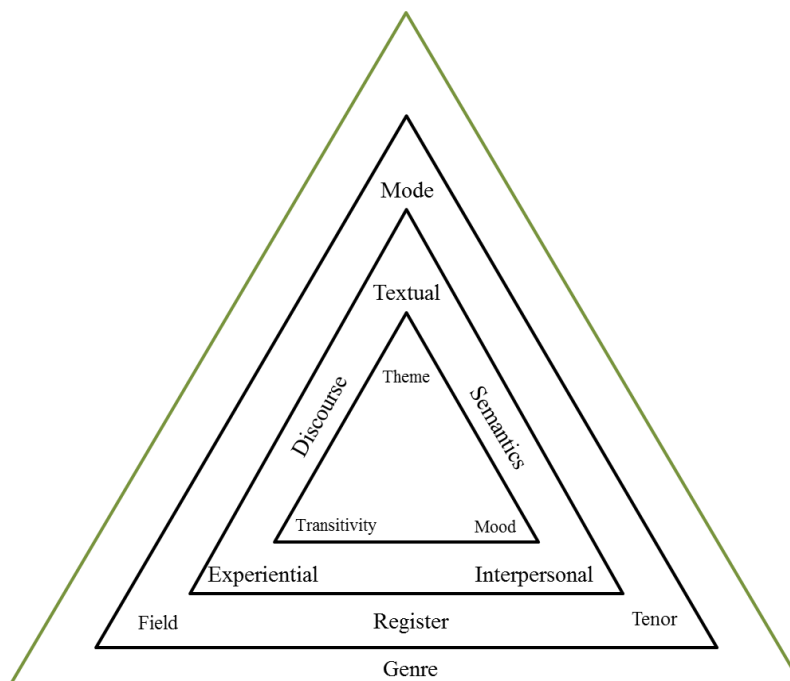


Figure 2.3 – Genre

Source: Eggins (2004, p. 111)

As was previously mentioned, coherence is essential in texts. This section focuses on one dimension of coherence which is the dimension of culture. Systemicists describe language as being employed in social and cultural contexts. This leads us to the theory of genre developed by Martin (1984), Halliday (1994), Matthiessen (1995), and Hasan (1996). The theory of genre is, according to Martin, Christie and Rothery (1994) “a theory of language use” (Martin et al., 1994, p. 232).

The dimension of context of culture is present in a text when it is possible to identify its structure, purpose and wording as belonging to a specific genre used in a given culture. As Martin (1984) propounds, “a genre is a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture” (p. 155), it is “how things get done, when language is used to accomplish them” (p. 250). By writing a text according to a particular genre it is being identified with others that are used and recognised by the culture where it is produced and there are “as many different genres as there are recognizable social activity types in our culture” (Eggins, 2004, p. 56), as for example educational genres (report, essay writing, examination, among others).

Generic coherence occurs in a text when it is possible to identify the purpose of the genre (to tell a story – a narrative, a verbal exchange to deal with clients - a dialogue). When purpose is identified in a text, its meaning is attached to what it is culturally established for that specific purpose.

When students produce a dialogue, for example, they are conveying meaning through language but they do it in a way that fits the conventions of culture, because their dialogue, to be understood as such, needs to be similar to others that the culture around them recognises as being dialogues. According to Frow (2006), genres are conventionally structured. Or, as Martin (1984) postulates, we do “what other people accept” (p. 1). Therefore, conventions are the underpinnings of meaning in context, where generic structure is concerned.

In the case of the students’ work analysed in the case study, two conventional contexts are at play: the first, which is socially constructed, stems from the students’ understanding of the genres involved, from their previous contact with these genres and their competence in (re)producing them; the second conventional context stems from their being asked to write in English, as part of an exercise for their English class, by their teacher of English. As a result, no other language was used because it was conventionalised to be this way. The second conventional context is dependent on their experience as students of English and can be considered an extension of the first. The students are conscious of the requirements of the exercises and mobilise their English language competence, in articulation with their knowledge of the genres, in order to comply with the teacher’s instructions.

In the first text the students produced, they were allowed to use Portuguese, their mother tongue. This proved beneficial because, in this way, the teacher was able to identify what the students’ lexical needs in the foreign language were. However, in subsequent texts Portuguese was no longer accepted. One of the students, however, used Portuguese because of his difficulties in English, as he had never had previous contact with the language and had to carry out extra work to acquire basic knowledge in it.

In the subsequent texts, they were asked to use the conventions of the genre – e.g. dialogue – within certain specified parameters. As students of English, they have experience of this type of simulation and the inherent artificiality of writing something that in authentic communication contexts is spontaneous and spoken. Accordingly, they submit to the convention and integrate the suggested material in their written dialogues, using the

lexico-grammatical skills they have and the genre format they have constructed through their contact with language, as “language is knowledge” (Halliday, 1978, p. 13). If the (learning) situational context was not a language classroom, the students would probably write without the constraints imposed by the dialogue as specific genre or by the correspondent lexico-grammar and they would probably produce it in their mother tongue.

Pointing out the conventionalised aspects of a genre to the students, both in the teaching process and later when soliciting the production of a text helps to reinforce the specific structure (e.g.: dialogue). They will follow the text conventions (a question is followed by an answer); therefore, a purpose is identified (to communicate via dialogue). If the students’ texts present replies without questions or if they mix genres in a way that hinders the comprehension of what they are trying to convey, then meaning is compromised and this can be more clearly demonstrated to them.

Halliday and Hasan (1991) propounded Generic Structure Potential (GSP) to map the different stages of a genre as it unfolds and applied a set of symbols and segment labels to reflect the ordering of these different stages of a particular genre. They state that genres include a set of obligatory and optional elements that can be mapped in a given sequence and these will reflect all the different exemplars of that genre. This is a useful tool in that it captures the basic and additional characteristics of texts belonging to the given genre and presents them in a schematic structure. GSP demonstrates the preferred textual organisation for texts and is underpinned by the social/communicative purpose of the genre and the conventions that have informed it, with contributions from the members of the community that uses it. GSP was extensively used by Hallidayan followers as it is a useful analytic device that allows for a large number of possible exemplars that can be included and actualised.

An example of how the genre determines a structure to be followed and its GSP occurs when buying goods, for example, for which there are basic stages. For Martin (1984) these can be mapped as follows (‘^’ is used to indicate sequence):

e.g.: Greeting ^ Service Bid ^ Statement of Need ^ Need Compliance ^ Decision to Buy ^ Payment ^ Leave-taking (Martin, 1984, p. 161)

During these basic stages others may occur or these may occur in a different order as this is not a fixed sequence and many things can happen during the purchase. Nonetheless, people

would still be able to buy what they wished. However, this structure varies according to the cultural setting in which it occurs. The stages would be different, according to the same author, if buying goods occurred within a culture where it is conventionalised that prices are not fixed and there is a need to bargain before actually paying.

Another example of genre and its stages is the narrative genre which is construed in the following stages: { (abstract) ^ orientation ^ complication ^ evaluation ^ resolution ^ (coda) } Martin & Rose (2008)<sup>3</sup>.

In order to identify a text as part of a genre there are some dimensions it needs to fulfil (Eggins, 2004):

i) Co-occurrence of a particular contextual cluster (its register configuration): this occurs when there is a habit in performing an action or using language in a specific way to save time and psychological effort to understand what is said and to be understood. There is a re-utilisation or, as Berger and Luckmann (1966) refer: “all human activity is subject to habitualization” (1966, cit. in Eggins, 2004, p. 56). Human beings become “habitualised” because as Martin and Rose (2003) clarify:

[a]s children, we learn to recognise and distinguish the typical genres of our culture, by attending to consistent patterns of meaning as we interact with others in various situations. Since patterns of meaning are relatively consistent for each genre, we can learn to predict how each situation is likely to unfold, and learn how to interact in it. (Martin & Rose, 2003, p. 7)

ii) Staged or schematic structure - It is the schematic structure, as Christie and Unsworth (2000) observe, that enables communicative purposes to be achieved. The schematic structure connects parts of the complete meanings that must be produced in order that genres can be realised with success (Martin, 1985). Bakhtin in his 1953 essay, *The Problem of Speech Genres*, asserts that:

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<sup>3</sup> This notation is one means by which linguists express what appear to be the obligatory and optional stages of genres. The caret sign ^ means that the stage to the left precedes the one to the right. The stages within brackets () are optional features of the genre; the brace {} indicates that the stages within are recursive. Adapted from Eggins and Slade (2004).

we learn to cast our speech in generic forms and, when hearing others' speech, we guess its genre from the very first words; we predict a certain length (that is, the approximate length of the speech whole) and a certain compositional structure; we foresee the end; that is, from the very beginning we have a sense of the speech whole, which is only later differentiated during the speech process. (Bakhtin, 1986, pp. 78–79)

Bakhtin (1986) elucidates that genres are predictable as well as their structure and, according to Eggins (2004), they develop linguistic expression through “functional stages” (2004, p. 58). The different stages have distinctive recognisable functions in the text because they have specific semantic and lexico-grammatical patterns (Eggins & Slade, 2004).

Genre theory suggests (Eggins & Martin, 1997) that texts that do different tasks in culture will unfold differently and through different stages. However, the relationship between the context of culture (genre) and the text is not deterministic, only probabilistic because there are alternatives as was exemplified above (in the buying goods structure). Besides, genres are not prescribed, they are open and flexible, according to the text producer's interest, and because different genres may be mixed, as long as the text makes sense (Eggins, 2004). Nonetheless, in order to attain a certain cultural goal, the probability to make certain linguistic choices is more likely than to make choices of a more structural nature by making the text unfold in a particular way. Hence, different purposes will affect different linguistic choices and sustain a specific unfolding of its possible structures. As such, the text allows us to deduce context and to predict structure up to a point.

The deliberate and systematic use of genres is useful for students when learning English as a Second Language for several reasons:

1. They offer a principled way to identify and focus upon different types of English texts, providing a framework in which to learn features of grammar and discourse.
2. They offer students a sense of the generic models that are regularly revisited in an English-speaking culture, illuminating ways in which they are adapted or accommodated in long bodies of text in which several distinct genres may be found.
3. They offer the capacity for initiating students into ways of making meaning that are valued in English-speaking communities.
4. Because they permit all these things, they also form a potential basis for reflecting on and critiquing the ways in which knowledge and information are organised and constructed in the English language. (Christie, 1999, p. 762)

The appropriateness of this citation is amplified in this dissertation to include English for Specific Purposes as, in the case of this project, students are studying English for Tourism as a foreign language as well.

When analysing what genre a text belongs to, besides identifying it, one should also approach it critically; determine what cultural work is being done; whose interests are being served; why it is important for the culture and what it tells us about the culture that uses it (Eggins, 2004). For the stated reasons, these items will be further explained in chapter 7.

The texts analysed in this work belong to the narrative genre and to the dialogue genre and they have two functions. Firstly, their didactic function, which is to help students develop competence and confidence in the use of English and proficiency in the language classroom, as well as their understanding of the generic specificities required by each of the given genres, but also, in a broader sense, they serve to improve the learners' future skills as Tourism professionals and lifelong learners.

Secondly, they are meant to help students, despite the simulated nature of the context, to constantly improve their future professional skills, by being trained on how to use Mobile Learning strategies, which may be a helpful tool in their future career.

Although the generic structure potential is interesting in the analysis of cultural aspects of a text, and although the texts under analysis were requested to be written according to the conventions of the particular genre, this type of analysis is not the focus of this work. What we intend to analyse in more depth is not at the genre structure level but at the lexico-grammar level. The genres under analysis are familiar to the students both in their mother language and in the foreign language, serving as a guideline to make the textual productions homogenous and adapted to the programme being taught.

### **2.3.2 – The context of situation in a text**

As Martin (1984) suggests, genre is a “parasite” because as a semiotic symbol, it has no phonology of its own. It needs language and its words as well as meanings of other semiotic systems (images, gestures, etc.) to convey meaning. Besides, genre makes meanings by shaping register as well because it is genre that conditions the dimensions of register (field, tenor and mode) here explained (Figure 2.4 – Register: Field; Tenor and Mode).

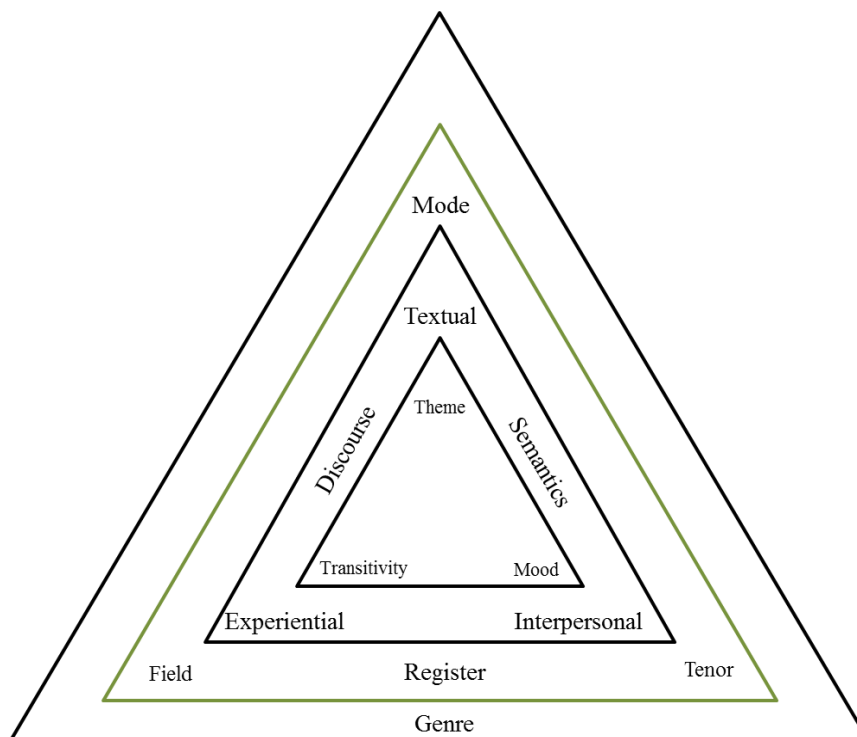


Figure 2.4 – Register: Field; Tenor and Mode.

Source: Eggins (2004)

As previously said, “a genre is a staged . . . activity” (Martin, 1984, p. 155) with different patterns (Eggins & Slade, 2004) and it is this patterning of language that leads to another dimension of coherence, the dimension of register. Register reflects the context of situation (“each context of situation corresponds to a location along the dimension of register variation – that is to a register” [Matthiessen, 2003, p. 236]) whereas genre reflects the context of culture.

The social norms define the genre of the text whereas the register actualises, through discourse, the semantic choices made by whoever produces the text, according to the situation in which the discourse takes place. Figure 2.5 is a further visual materialisation of the organisation of genre and register here described.

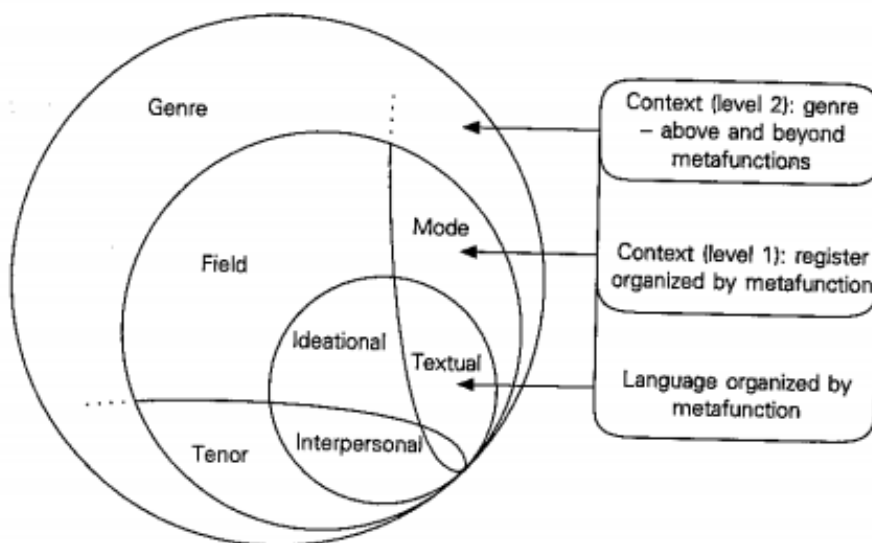


Figure 2.5 – Genre in relation to register and language

Source: Eggins and Martin (1997, p. 243)

Halliday asserts that situational factors are determinants of the text and that there are three categories that make an impact on how language is used in several situations: the register variables of Field; Tenor and Mode that define the register of a social context (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday, 1978).

Mode refers to the role that a text plays in a specific event and it involves the channel taken by the language, such as spoken; written; extempore or prepared as well as the social function the text performs (being descriptive, narrative, didactic, persuasive, among others). Tenor reflects the relationship between the participants; their role relations of power and solidarity; the social status and discourse roles as well as the emotional issues of a speech event. Field refers to the ongoing activity or the total event; the socially recognised physical setting where the text occurs and includes all the activities that the language users are involved in (Halliday & Hasan, 1991; Patten, 2007).

Field, tenor and mode produce a register and presuppose it, and genre incorporates and enhances the register (Martin, 1992). It is by considering field, tenor and mode that the observer can derive the systematic norms which govern the text in the speech situation. These systematic norms constitute the register (Halliday, 1978).



In the texts analysed in the case study, as in all texts, the more institutional or professional the situation, the more prominence the field will have in the exchange and the less prominence the tenor will have, because there are less inter-relational elements. Care was taken to solicit two genres (narrative and dialogue) that would demonstrate how the students reflected register variables in their production and would, simultaneously, allow them sufficient latitude to make their discourse pend towards a more institutional exchange or have a more personal slant.

As the focus of this work is the students' textual production, there was a need to understand how their language and text-production competence progressed from one text to the next and showed the impact of the mobile activities that were used in the teaching strategies. The mode variable has an interesting expression in the whole teaching and text-production exercise of this project, due to the interrelation of the text genres used during both stages. In the teaching stage, the genres used were dialogues and narratives. We must understand that the ubiquitous nature of the communication means (mobile technology) chosen to support the teaching stage, greatly distorts canonical conceptions of mode. Research on how mode can be determined in text that is spontaneous and dialogic yet written (messaging) is scarce, so we have little grounding to argue how Hallidayan theory would interpret this, but we can adduce that the composite mode of messaging (as in Short Message Service – SMS, in which students, presently, are amply proficient) probably aided the students in producing their dialogues and will assist them in producing like-genres in the future.

In comparison with mode, the tenor variable is more easily identifiable in the power relations expressed in the students' texts – primarily in the dialogues – where they needed to reflect their role of professional expertise (Tourism) in which their authority should be evident, while mitigating this with the deference of the service-provider. However, students may know how the text develops but lack lexico-grammar to make the register of their production conventionally acceptable. Between client and professional assistant, the register ranges from highly formal to semi-formal and conventionalises the lexico-grammar associated with it.

The field variable was, to a certain extent, prescribed to the students, as they had to comply with the subject proposed by the teacher. However, their treatment of the theme(s); relative depth and expanse of the subject matter; variability of the lexico-grammar; interconnection

of the various ramifications of the theme, among others, shed light on the students' understanding and competence in addressing the subject matter.

### **2.3.3 – Language metafunctions**

The lexico-grammar (or grammar) is the intermediate coding level, between content and expression, which makes of language not a bi-unique system but a complex system, as previously mentioned in section 2.2. Lexico-grammar allows language to have “unlimited creative potential” (Eggins, 2004, p. 115) as it allows for the creation of more meanings than those that exist and it can mean more than one thing at a time. For example, the lexico-grammar allows the language user to coin new words or to combine existing words in different ways to create different meanings without the need to invent a new sound, as would be the case if language was a bi-unique semiotic system.

In either case, the lexico-grammar allows for the combining of finite phonological units into words that, arranged in different grammar structures, make infinite meanings.

The grammatical structures also contribute to making meaning, either by using different tenses or by asking questions or making statements in unusual situations. The latter is possible because unusual (or marked) grammatical structures can be used to convey a different meaning from that which is usual. For example, if a tourist wishes to get to know the region of the Douro, instead of asking where he can get a guide, he can simply say that the region seems interesting but he has no idea of how to explore it. It is up to the Tourism professional to understand that the client might be asking for a guide but doing it by means of a statement instead of using an interrogative. In this case, the client may wish for help without wanting to ask directly where he/she can get a guided tour. In this case, when unusual or marked structures are used, grammatical metaphor is being used.

Lexico-grammar allows the user, therefore, to create more meanings than those that exist already but also to mean more than one thing at a time, as previously stated. This is possible because each sentence bears different meanings which, as a consequence, convey meaning potential to texts that can be actualised in different ways according to the context of culture or situation in which they are received.

Egins (2001) propounds that in order to identify the meanings conveyed in a text, there is a need to describe the organisation of its lexico-grammar because there is a link between these two, once the lexico-grammar realises the semantics. Besides, it is in the structure of the clause where meaning is identifiable through its different patterns.

Halliday (1973), with regard to the social functions of language, establishes a difference between those of children and those of adults. In children, language fulfils basic functions (instrumental, regulatory, interactional, personal, heuristic, imaginative, and representational (better named informative, according to the same author). Nonetheless, these evolve and become functionally more complex and abstract by adulthood: adults use the grammatical system that provides the mechanism for different functions to be combined according to their needs. Despite becoming more complex, language functions reduce to only three (ideational, interpersonal and textual). As the present work focuses on adults, only their assigned metafunctions will be considered and explained in the following paragraphs.

In exploring the metafunctions of language we are, simultaneously, relating the meaning-making potential of discourse with the register content, as previously presented in Figure 2.4. For example, in the sentence: ‘Peter visited the Douro vineyards’ – this sentence has a declarative structure, conveying that information is being given and not asked for (as in interrogatives), nor demanding Peter to carry out an action (as in commands). The role relationship between a writer/speaker and the reader/listener as well as the former’s attitude towards what is being communicated conveys interpersonal meaning and this metafunction is realised in the structure as well as in the other lexico-grammatical elements of the sentence.

The interpersonal function reflects the social and interpersonal relationship between interactants (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). It represents the speaker’s meaning potential as an “intruder” (Halliday, 1978) because he/she participates in the context of a communicational situation which presupposes that language serves the purpose of establishing and maintaining social relations. In this way, users are able to perform social roles that include communication roles. For example, to ask and answer questions, to get things done by interacting with other people. This function is concerned with the way the individual positions himself in the situations, that is: “his attitude and judgements, his encoding of the role relationships in the situation, and his motive in saying anything at all” (Halliday &

Hasan, 1976, p. 27), because by enabling him or her to interact with others, language serves to express and develop the user's personality.

This is what we find in the present work, where the case study focuses on texts produced by students of the same class and who have the same communicational objectives (e.g. write a dialogue). These allow students to talk/write about specific realities (in this case: wine), for a specific audience (tourists) through English. The role relationships are assigned to them as future professionals and to (their conceptualisations of) tourists in their assignments.

When establishing communication, people use language to express something. Therefore, experiences represented/constructed within language or what a text is about portrays the ideational meaning. This metafunction represents the meaning potential of the speaker as an "observer" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 27) because he/she observes and represents experience of the 'real world' in language. Language encodes cultural practices and the speaker encodes his/her own experience of the world as a member of the culture he/she belongs to (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday, 1978). In other words, language helps facilitate social action in a specific environment and helps create an environment as well (Halliday, 1978).

In order to transmit their experiences, the speakers/writers use clauses/sentences that make up a text. Therefore, textual meaning refers to the organisation of a written or spoken text. The structure of the clauses conveys meaning because information given in a clause also relates to information that may be included in other clauses of the text. As a result, not only ideational and interpersonal but also textual meaning occurs when using language. The textual metafunction represents the speaker's "text-forming component in the linguistic system" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 27); it is that which makes a text relevant and "coherent within itself and with the context of situation" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 27) because language has the potential to make links with itself and with the situation in which it is used. This means that it is language that enables the user to build connected passages which are relevant to the situation he/she is facing.

The three strands of meaning are simultaneously expressed in language units (e.g. texts; sentences; clauses). The balance between the interpersonal and ideational metafunctions varies according to the register (Matthiessen, 2006, p. 39) (for example descriptive texts tend to be more ideational whereas recommending texts tend to be more interpersonal). The

textual function enables the other two. This means that, it is through the textual meanings, which connect the different constituents of the text, that ideational and interpersonal meanings are ‘actualised’. This is possible because “the textual component has an enabling function in respect of the other components: language can effectively express ideational and interpersonal meanings only because it can create text. Text is language in operation” (Halliday, 2002a, p. 26). Therefore, the textual component has the function of “making the difference between language in the abstract and language in use. In other words it is through the semantic options of the textual component that language comes to be relevant in its environment” (Halliday, 2002a, p. 29).

This work focuses its analysis mainly on the lexico-grammar; in particular, on the thematic choices at the clause level, in order to understand the meanings which are encoded in the texts of the students and the manner in which they substantiate the metafunctions.

The three functions – or “metafunctional principle – have shaped the organization of meaning in language” (Halliday & Webster, 2006, p. 18) and “every use of language in every social context” (Halliday, 1978, p. 112); “every act of meaning embodies all three metafunctional components” (Halliday & Webster, 2006, p. 18). For this reason, as texts are acts of meaning, it is understandable why the three functions are to be integrated and found in them (Halliday, 1978). Texts are made up of language and the essence or the “powerhouse of language” (Halliday & Webster, 2006, p. 276) “lies in its lexico grammar, and specifically in the way meaning is . . . construed . . . as a metafunctional complex” (Halliday & Webster, 2006, p. 210). Language links the ideas (ideational function, to interact socially (interpersonal function), through cohesive structures which are meaningful and context related (textual function) and are coherent with the context of situation. Language has evolved in these functional contexts, as one of the characteristics of the development of the human species. Therefore, it has been this evolution that has shaped the way grammar and lexis are organised now.

This study focuses on an ecological approach in the sense that it emphasises the setting where learners use language (in and outside of the classroom; in their access to information through technology; in their undergraduate studies in Tourism; in their background knowledge and the social reality that surrounds them, and macrostructurally, within their context of culture). Besides, students take into consideration the interconnection of experiences: their own and

the ones they wish their clients to share. There is the purpose of sharing the ideational references of the context of situation, in order to make communication feasible in the sense of shared knowledge. Also, the students are trained to become more aware of the multicultural setting of their future work in Tourism and to be able to transpose their knowledge from Portuguese into English.

In the growing need to share information in a multicultural world, students become more aware of the impact of their own and their interlocutor's context of culture and by acquiring lexico-grammar that helps them verbalise communicative needs, they adapt to the culture of the tourists and engage in professional exchanges with greater ease and confidence.

This is what can be seen in chapter 7 when students write the first material that is analysed in the present work. From their experience of the wine related world they choose the words that are socially conventionalised to produce a text. For students who had little or no contact with the lexico-grammar of wine characteristics their meaning potential, as observers, is reduced or non-existent. Therefore, whenever the lexico-grammar to express experience and ideas are lacking they are asked to write in their mother tongue. This procedure is allowed, firstly, so that students are not deterred from sharing what they know, and secondly to help the teacher diagnose lacks and needs in language competence and decide on what teaching materials and strategies to use. These are customised in order to help students enrich their lexico-grammar and make meaning potential appropriate to communicating in English.

In the first texts it is possible to identify what language and cultural experiences are lacking. These are very important, as they allow the teacher to choose when and how to immerse students in those experiences. This immersion can be either through texts; mind maps or guided field study trips, in English. The latter strategy is used to involve the students' senses and awaken the need for language in the foreign language, to be able to communicate the cultural aspects that are experienced in the field. Through in-class and out of class strategies, students have a more holistic learning experience and can mobilise knowledge of the world obtained in other academic disciplines to associate with the learning experiences in the English classes. This is particularly important as it propitiates the broadening of their experiential and ideational involvement as well as their skills in English.

In order to analyse the texts produced by the students (chapter 7) or any other text, one must necessarily consider the composite construction that defines it as such: its structural

components that were previously discussed; the manner in which lexico-grammar contributes towards its semantic material and how cohesion is brought to effect. The dimension of cohesion (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; Halliday, 2002b; Hasan, 1968) is essential because it is a set of resources that help in constructing associations in discourse that transcend grammatical structure, to convey meaning (Halliday, 1994).

Cohesion is meant to move beyond structural resources of grammar and to highlight the importance of discourse links which involve much more than grammar structures only. This means that for cohesion to exist, the interpretation of each element in the discourse is dependent on other elements of the text as well. Therefore, there is always a close connection between the elements because one presupposes the interconnection of each in the construction of meaning (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

For cohesion to exist there has to be a semantic connection between elements of a text and these have to be decoded and understood. Halliday and Hasan (1976) listed the cohesive resources into 5 groups:

- i) Reference occurs when referring to a participant or circumstantial element whose identity is recoverable (demonstratives, the definite article, pronouns, comparatives, phoric adverbs – here, there, now, then).
- ii) Ellipsis is the omission of a clause or some part of a clause or group in case it can be inferred in the context (e.g. Did they win? Yes, they did. – in the case of people who are talking about a known subject)
- iii) Substitution occurs through place holders that signal omission (e.g. *so* and *not* in clauses; *do* for verbal groups and *one* for nominal groups – “My axe is too blunt. I must get a sharper one” [Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 89]).
- iv) Conjunction refers to the connectors that link clauses in discourse. They are linkers which connect sentences between each other (excluding paratactic and hypotactic [coordinating and subordinating] linkers which are considered structural by Halliday).
- v) Lexical cohesion involves open system items: repetition of lexical items; synonymy; near synonymy (including hyponymy) and collocation.

These cohesive devices are related to a presupposed item in a text, as mentioned already. This relationship is referred to as a cohesive tie which is dependent on the register of the text. Halliday and Hasan (1976) state that:

The concept of cohesion can therefore be usefully supplemented by that of register, since the two together effectively define a text. A text is a passage of discourse which is coherent in these two regards: it is coherent with respect to the context of situation and therefore consistent in register; and it is coherent with respect to itself, and therefore cohesive. (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 23)

Besides the internal cohesion of the elements there has to be cohesion with the extra-textual context where the text takes place and in which it has to circulate. The context of situation, previously explained, helps understand any indeterminacy of meaning that the text may be unable to pass to the reader. In fact, some texts are only understandable when the context is present. In these cases, when only through context awareness can meaning be conveyed, the text presupposes a high level of shared socio-cultural identity between language users. Different types of genre also carry indeterminacies of meaning. Furthermore, indeterminacies caused by double meaning of words is also conveyed through texts (literary texts, for example) (Eggins, 2004). In the case of everyday texts there is a tendency to link them to the context so as to reduce indeterminacies of meaning. Therefore, text needs context to be legible, in an outward meaning direction, but there is also an inward movement from the context to the text itself: there are traces of the context in the text and they are identifiable every time we manage to deduce the source of a text simply by reading it. Context gets “into” the text influencing the words and expressions of the person who produces it, as a result the linguistic options allow us to identify different contexts in which texts are produced (Eggins & Martin, 1997). Language is legible when placed in its context of situation and texts are socially accepted constructs and they are what they are because of what they have to do.

In addressing cohesion and context in previous sections extra-textual forces and their impact on the meaning-making elements of text were considered; one now needs to return to the lexico-grammar in order to understand how language is structured to enable interpersonal, ideational and textual meanings; these are structures of Mood, Transitivity and Theme which are further examined in the following section. Transitivity choices express the experiential meaning; consistent mood choices express the text’s interpersonal meaning and the



reiteration of thematic choices expresses the textual meaning. These are to be addressed in the following section.

## **2.4 – Analysing the clause**

### **2.4.1 – Clause as message – Theme and Rheme**

The production of text exists whenever people speak or write (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004) as was aforementioned. A text can be addressed from different angles, applying various forms of analysis and yielding diverse information, as we have explained before as well. In English, the lexicogrammatical construct that carries the thread of meaning of clauses as messages is the Thematic structure.

The clause, in English, is organised as a message and the Theme is one major element involved in constituting it. The configuration of the clause is divided into two functional components, that of Theme and Rheme (Egins, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).

The notions of Theme and Rheme can be traced back to 1844 in Henri Weil's work (Adjémian, 1978; Leong Ping, 2004a) where he defends the existence of a point of departure, that is understood by the speaker and listener, and another part that develops it. These notions were further developed by the Prague School and by Halliday.

Theme and Rheme, together, constitute the message as Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) propound:

We may assume that in all languages the clause has the character of a message: it has some form of organization giving it the status of a communicative event. But there are different ways in which this may be achieved. In English, as in many other languages, the clause is organized as a message by having a special status assigned to one part of it. One element in the clause is enunciated as the theme; this then combines with the remainder so that the two parts together constitute a message. (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 64)

Theme is “what the clause is about” (Halliday, 1985, p. 39); it is “the starting point for the message” (Halliday, 1994, p. 38). Its “definition is functional . . . [it] is one element in a particular structural configuration which, taken as a whole, organizes the clause as a message” (Halliday, 1994, p. 38). It is “the element which serves as the point of departure

of the message; it is that which locates and orients the clause within its context” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 64), it “extends from the beginning up to, and including, the first element that has an experiential function” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 112). These examples of definitions account for the differences that exist to define the term, as some refer to Theme as being either a position or a function, for example.

In English language the functional definition of Theme and its structural position at the beginning of a clause coincide. However, this does not always happen in other languages, such as Portuguese, for example (Gouveia & Barbara, 2004).

The initial position of components in a clause is of extreme importance in discourse coherence analysis. Themes allow a connection to what is said before and establishes a coherent connection with how discourse will continue, in order that the message be understandable. Thematic structure is realised by the sequencing of elements in an accepted way by the culture in which it is realised and is one way of appraising coherence. This is because Theme and Rheme are related to how information flows along the text; to how there is acceptability of a certain sequence in a specific context. Acceptability depends on how sentences are adequate in the scope of the surrounding environment of the text, allowing this to be a unit with orientation. Sentences can be grammatically well constructed but may not be acceptable or coherent.

The remainder of the message – the Rheme – is where the Theme is developed; it is what the speaker says about the Theme. The structure of a message is, therefore, made up of clauses which consist of Themes followed by Rhemes. In this regard, Rheme is the most contributive constituent of the clause because it represents what the speaker wants to convey to the people involved in the communication process. In this sense it is the Rheme that accomplishes the “communicative purpose of the utterance” (Baker, 2011, p. 134). Therefore, every clause has the structure of a message in the sense that the Rheme says something about something else, the Theme.

The Theme represents the point of departure of what the speaker wishes to convey. This may suggest that the Theme is more important than the Rheme. However, this is not the case because Theme selection in a clause which is part of a text is not in itself significant. What is actually important is the general choice of Theme order within the text, especially in

independent clauses. It is the organisation of Themes on the whole that provides orientation in the text.

As the Rheme is discursively more important than the Theme, the option to make markedness should be in the Rheme and not in the Theme. This is not the case because there is a difference between local prominence and overall prominence. Marked thematic structures reveal local prominence of the Theme at the clause level, whereas Rheme is prominent at the overall discourse level.

The Theme-Rheme structure “is speaker oriented” (Baker, 2011, p. 155) because it rests on what the speaker wishes to express as a starting point and in what he/she wants to say about it. This structure is a “feature of the context rather than of the language system” (Baker, 2011, p. 153) because it exists within a linguistic or situational context.

The strong contextual nature of the texts produced by the students in this project makes Baker’s viewpoint especially pertinent, as both the situational context (the students are at a Tourism site speaking to visitors) and the communicative need (the students are describing a particular feature of a Tourism product) guide the students’ choices of Theme and Rheme and foment expectations as to possible choices they may make.

A Theme consists of two assumptions: i) it is just one structural element which ii) is represented by just one unit (either a nominal group; an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase). However, the Theme can also be constituted by two or more groups or phrases, which is a nominal group complex but it still constitutes a single Theme. For example, in the following sentence the Theme and Rheme are identified:

Peter and Michelle	//	are dancing.
<b>Theme</b>		<b>Rheme</b>

In the case of sentences which consist of more than one clause, several layers of thematic structure are to be found, as in the example of Stephen Hawking’s “A Brief History of Time”, analysed by Baker (2011):

Aristotle thought that the earth was stationary and that the sun, the moon, the planets, and the stars moved in circular orbits about the earth. He believed this because he felt, for mystical reasons, that the earth was the center of the universe, and that circular motion was the most perfect (Hawking, 1988, cit. in Baker, 2011, p. 134).

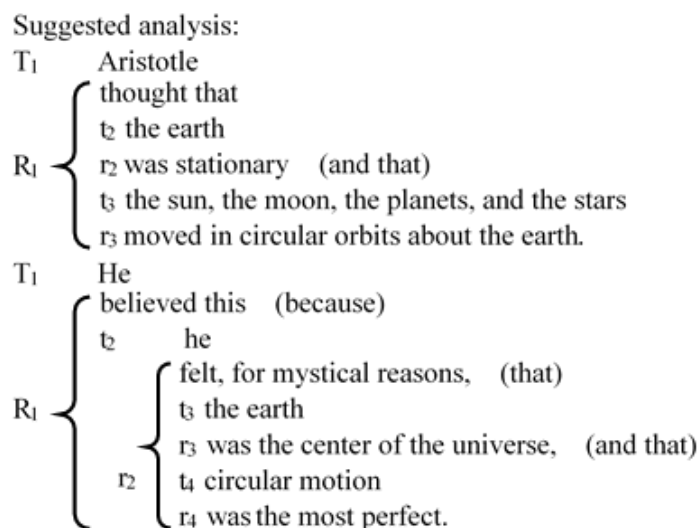


Figure 2.6 – Theme and Rheme analysis

Source: (Baker, 2011, p. 134)

From this example, according to Baker (2011), it is possible to identify some aspects which are relevant when doing Theme and Rheme analysis:

- i) There are several layers of thematic structure. Each sentence has a Theme and Rheme which are included in a larger structure of Theme and Rheme.
- ii) Elements which are not part of the basic thematic structure, because they are not part of the propositional meaning of the message, can be placed in parentheses. These include conjunctions such as “and that” and “because” and disjuncts which express the attitude of the speaker (e.g.: in my opinion, unfortunately). These elements usually come at the beginning of clauses in English, making them thematic. They relate what has been said before to what the speaker is about to say (conjunctions) or they express an opinion on what is being said (disjunct). However, they are not considered purely thematic in the same way as the main elements of the clause: the subject, the predicator, the object, the complement and the adjunct. There are specific ways of including conjunctions and disjuncts into thematic analysis. In this study, we have considered them indicative of the student’s

enhanced language awareness and have deemed their appropriate use as instances of markedness. The analysis we undertake in the scope of the present work focuses on the basic thematic structure of the students' texts as our aim is to map the propositional meaning and Thematic sequencing of their writing.

iii) Subject-predicate distinction is different from Theme-Rheme distinction. The former is based on grammatical differences; the latter is text based and this distinction was already discussed above. In the following sections, other characteristics that involve Theme/Rheme analysis will be dealt with.

#### **2.4.2 – Thematic structure: marked and unmarked sequences**

When using language, users make choices to organise the meaning they wish to convey and the “thematic organization of the clauses . . . is the most significant factor in the development of the text” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 105). This statement by Halliday and Matthiessen is the main premise that sustains the linguistic analysis of this work, as Theme organisation is what is dealt with throughout the analysis which is endeavoured here.

In the clauses that people produce, if the Theme role conflates with Mood roles – that is, if the Theme is subject; finite; etc., according to the type of clauses – in a “usual” or “typical” (Egins, 2004, p. 318) way, then these Themes are unmarked. In the case of unmarked sentences, no particular choice takes place, as this is the natural occurrence by default of the elements of the clause. In English, an unmarked Theme signals the Mood of the clause and provides indication as to whether the speaker is making a statement, asking a question or giving an order as can be seen in Table 2.1.

However, when unusual conflation between Theme and other Mood constituents exists, marked Themes occur. To make this more explicit, one uses the example of a declarative clause. The usual role of the unmarked Theme is to conflate with the subject. Therefore, other types of conflation give rise to a marked Theme. Different examples are provided in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 – Examples of unmarked and marked Themes

Clause	Type of Theme	Role conflation	Example
Declarative	Unmarked	Theme = subject	She # went to the baker's.
	Marked	Theme ≠ subject	On Saturday night # I lost my wife.
Polar interrogative	Unmarked	Theme = finite	Did you #sleep okay?
	Marked	Theme ≠ finite	On the right # is it?
WH - Interrogative	Unmarked	Theme = WH-element	Who # wants a glass of white wine?
	Marked	Theme ≠ WH-element	Now about The Love Song of Alfred J. Prufrock, # what is that poem about?
Imperative	Unmarked	Theme = predicator	Keep # quiet
	Marked	Theme ≠ predicator	You # keep quiet

(Theme – Rheme boundary is shown by #)

Source: adapted from Halliday and Matthiessen (2004)

Therefore, meaning, choice and markedness are concepts which are interconnected in a text. A word carries meaning when it is selected over other possibilities of choice. For this reason, meaning and choice are interconnected and have an impact on the configuration of them. According to the SFL literature, “skilful writers and speakers choose marked themes to add an emphasis to their text” (Eggs, 2004, p. 320) and for people to mark elements in a clause, they are “motivated” (Matthiessen, Teruya, & Lam, 2010, p. 237) to make certain elements “prominent . . . emphasized . . . [and] salient for listeners to pay attention to” (Qi, 2012, p. 201). When marked Themes are used they convey “communicative and practical significance in language use” (Qi, 2012, p. 202) which is further developed and exemplified in the following section.

### 2.4.2.1 – Types of marked Themes

In English there are different ways of creating markedness in Themes (Eggins, 2004; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013) which are here further developed. Baker (2011), in her study about translation, propounds fronting as a type of markedness. Fronting is the term applied to the “achievement of marked theme by moving into initial position an item which is otherwise unusual there” (Greenbaum & Quirk, 1998, p. 407), becoming a “variable factor of some importance in the total sequential organization of the message” (Quirk, Greenbaum, & Svartvik, 1972, p. 768). In this line, Eggins (2004) defends that, for example, “circumstantial relational processes encode meanings” (2004, p. 244). Therefore, by fronting a location or temporal circumstance, a link between what was said before and what is currently being said is established. This is possible because experiential elements can be placed in the initial position in clauses, which have the function of conferring cohesion and have great importance for textual cohesion and coherence (Qi, 2012). By recalling and recontextualising the interlocutor, the speaker/writer “recalibrates the expectations for where the text will go next” (Eggins, 2004, p. 52).

Complements can also be placed in initial position as they are movable in the clause as well (Eggins, 2004). Another way of marking the Themes is by using explicit conjunctions (Eggins, 2004) to exemplify what the speaker wishes to develop regarding a certain topic (e.g. ‘for example’). By doing so, the speaker further develops “on the experiential meaning” (Eggins, 2004, p. 278) of what he knows showing greater capacity to chain ideas and to expand the text (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013).

Markedness is also achieved by reordering the constituents of the clause (Eggins, 2004). This is possible, as previously mentioned, because the textual metafunction is an “enabling” (Halliday, 2002a, p. 26) metafunction. Which means that textual meanings can be given “relevance” (Eggins, 2004, p. 298) by reorganising the clause, according to the purpose and context, altering the perspective according to the speakers’ choice (Qi, 2012). Thus, “elements placed at the front of a clause for thematic prominence vary in style and effect” (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 768). By arranging the clause order, the “end-focus falls on the most important part of the message” (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 768) as in the following example: “Most of these problems a computer could take in its stride” (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 768), where there is an inversion in the natural sequence of the sentence.

An illustration of the reorganisation of the clause occurs when the speaker inverts hypothetically related clauses using the dependent clause as the Theme, instead of the main clause. This way, the listeners' expectations are drawn to the second part of the clause because the listener will be expecting central information after the dependent clause (Eggs, 2004). Therefore, the marked Theme highlights relevant information in the Rheme (Qi, 2012).

Another example of the marked effect of the "simple reordering of the constituents" (Eggs, 2004, p. 297) occurs when the relation of cause and effect are inverted in clauses, holding the listeners' attention. Also, when a vocative is used in initial position, this also denotes choice, as vocatives are "fairly mobile" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 133). A vocative seeks "to call the attention of the person addressed, and especially to single him out from others who may be within hearing"; they can also mean "respectful distance or friendliness" (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 324).

Respect and politeness markers, such as 'please', also "tone down" (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 350) the abruptness of commands, when imperatives are used as in: "Please eat up your dinner". In this case, the request is more tactful (Brown & Levinson, 1994; Quirk et al., 1972). As these "politeness expressions" (Eggs, 2004, p. 101) are movable, by choosing to front them, this also creates markedness.

These are some examples of markedness. Although diverse models from Halliday's metafunctional approach to language exist (such as Leong's [2004a, 2004b]) the present work is based on the fundamentals advocated by Halliday (namely in 2004) as this supports Theme as the anchor of experience.

## **2.5 – Synopsis**

Systemic Functional Linguistics provides a broad framework for analysing language use. Several steps account for a thorough linguistic analysis. In the specific case of Theme and Rheme analysis, the text must be perceived as a system or a holistic unit for analysis.

The text cannot be approached as a fixed and independent entity. Therefore, the researcher who uses SFL needs to be aware that the context is of extreme importance to be able to understand the language use situation. Texts can be analysed through different perspectives.



Nonetheless, Theme and Rheme analysis provide a great insight as far as the text as a whole is concerned as well as the context of situation where it is developed.

## **CHAPTER 3 | FUNDAMENTAL CONCEPTS OF TOURISM**

### **3.1 – Introduction to a framework of Tourism**

In a thesis that interconnects Linguistics, Tourism and Mobile Learning it is significant to understand the importance of each of these areas. The conceptual framework of Tourism is dealt with in this chapter, in order to understand how theoretical underpinnings lay part of the foundation for this work. For this purpose, section 3.2 begins by presenting Tourism as a worldwide leading industry and it explains how holistic this study area is, by providing indications of how Linguistics can relate to Tourism.

Subsequently, section 3.3 approaches the concepts of leisure, recreation and tourism and their interconnectedness. Considering that, in this thesis, it is argued that technology can be used during leisure time to enhance language use this section explains how work and leisure can be permeable. Section 3.4 presents some characteristics of education in Tourism and how it contributes to train competitive human resources for the ever-growing and demanding industry.

### **3.2 – Tourism: the world's largest industry**

Tourism is the world's largest generator of wealth and jobs worldwide because it is the world's largest industry (Costa, 2006). In the 1950's it registered 25 million international arrivals and by the turn of the century it rose to 700 million international travellers. This increase contributed substantially to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) of countries worldwide and the growth forecast is to increase in the future (Costa, 2006). In 2010, for example, Tourism evolution was positive in all world regions (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2010). In the European Union, it generates over 5% of its GDP and it employs approximately 5.2% of the total workforce (EC, 2010, cit. in Costa, Panyik, & Buhalis, 2013) which attracts political attention and the private sector. In fact, most nations are releasing resources to strengthen the private sector aiming at boosting the efficiency and effectiveness of organisations and to reduce public debt (Costa et al., 2013).

Thus, it is essential that governments and investors take advantage of this trend and invest in planning and management solutions to ensure more appealing Tourism and to take profit of the increasing trend of Tourism development. Besides, many nations rely on this dynamic industry as a primary source for generating revenues, private sector growth, infrastructure

development and employment, therefore the importance of Tourism cannot be underestimated.

This industry accounts for tourist movements worldwide and is made of several components, from transportation to accommodation (Inskip, 1991), which makes it very complex. In addition to rely on the former tangible components, the industry also depends on intangible, personal factors such as the reasons which people travel. Many researchers seek to find explanations for tourists to travel (Hall & Page, 2002); to leave their home area in order to visit other places; to choose a specific destination, as well as to choose an itinerary and activities to do (Pearce, 1995). Nevertheless, travel motivations vary considerably and several factors stimulate the powerful growth which Tourism experiences. On the one hand, for example, people can save money as transportation is affordable. On the other hand, they can stay in budget accommodation and have inexpensive meals. Besides, new technologies allow tourists to book, anytime, anywhere and without much effort, almost everything they need, from flights to accommodation and car hire without resorting to travel agencies. These are but a few reasons that make travelling a comfortable and enjoyable experience. These same conditions help the development of Tourism worldwide, as well as the subsidiary industries that support it.

For the above mentioned reasons, Tourism is a broad area and although a thorough analysis of its importance worldwide would be ideal, this work focuses on the Portuguese setting only. From the varied study areas of Tourism that could be approached in Portugal, the chosen focus was the training of future Tourism professionals in higher education institutions, as regards to language use. For this purpose, research was conducted with data gathered from Higher education Portuguese institutions.

### **3.2.1 – Tourism as a generator of employment**

As this study focuses on training future Tourism professionals, it is of utter importance to refer to the employment market of which Tourism is a major generator. This industry is composed of different sectors which contribute to its multifaceted nature. The sector of Hotels, Restaurants and Cafés (HORECA), in the European Union, registered a growth rate of people employed above the growth rate of total employment (EC, 2006, cit. in Costa et

al., 2013). In 2013, for example, Tourism provided over 10 million jobs, in 12 countries (Eurostat, 2013, p. 20) in different areas as Table 3.1 provides evidence of.

Table 3.1 – Employment in the Tourism industries

Country & reference year	Number of jobs	Number of hours worked	Number of full-time equivalent jobs	Notes
<b>CZ 11</b>	231 266	426 484 006	229 944	<i>Data are based on the CZSO's Tourism Employment Module. All data reflect the 'domestic' concept of employment.</i>
<b>DE 10</b>	2 858 748	:	:	
<b>EE 08</b>	:	:	:	
<b>ES 08</b>	2 556 800	:	2 235 600	
<b>FR 05</b>	:	:	:	
<b>IT 10</b>	:	:	:	
<b>LV 05</b>	97 862	:	:	
<b>LT 10</b>	41 300	:	:	
<b>NL 09</b>	398 472	:	247 448	
<b>AT 11</b>	315 100	:	254 500	
<b>PL 08</b>	:	:	159 657	
<b>PT 07</b>	444 717	876 417 734	404 693	<i>The figures refer to employment in tourism-characteristic industries.</i>
<b>RO 09</b>	:	:	:	
<b>SI 09</b>	:	:	:	
<b>SK 10</b>	118 423	209 450 685	114 057	<i>Data on employment includes only internationally comparable characteristic industries (1-10).</i>
<b>SE 10</b>	:	233 340 000	130 899	
<b>UK 09</b>	3 167 980	:	2 393 120	<i>Direct employment and FTE totals include data relating to 'other consumption products'.</i>
<b>IS 10</b>	8 463	:	8 463	<i>2009 data were used for this table.</i>
<b>NO 07</b>	:	:	137 800	<i>See note (1) below</i>
<b>CH 08</b>	:	:	149 389	<i>Tourism employment in all industries.</i>
<b>ME 09</b>	3 366	:	:	<i>See note (2) below</i>
<b>TR 10</b>	:	:	:	

Source: Tourism Satellite Account, table 7 cit. in Eurostat, 2013, p. 20

In the specific case of Portugal, this industry contributes, on a large scale, for employment as well, as it requires manpower for it to welcome the growing number of tourists who come to Portugal, as can be seen in the following figure.

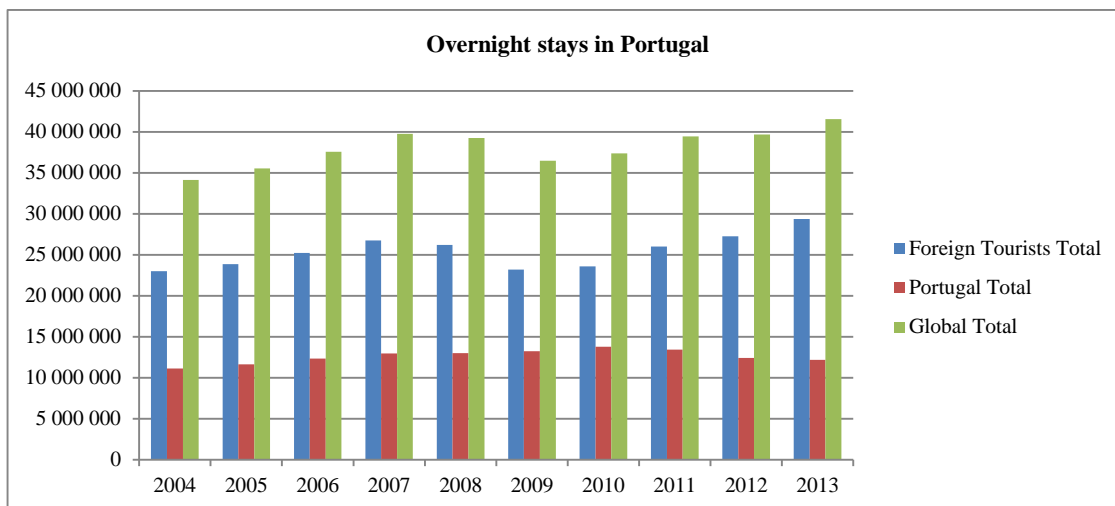


Figure 3.1 – Overnight stays in Portugal

Source: own creation adapted from (Turismo de Portugal, 2014a)

According to Turismo de Portugal (2014b), Tourism profits have grown from 5.700 million euros, in 2000, to 9.200 million euros, in 2013 as it is shown below (Figure 3.2).

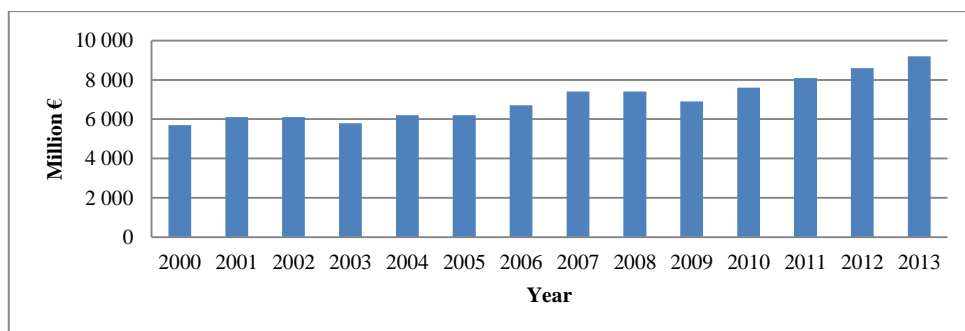


Figure 3.2 – Profits of Tourism in Portugal generated by international tourists

Source: own creation adapted from WTO (Turismo de Portugal, 2014b)

These profits account for the expenses that non-resident tourists generated in Portugal in accommodation, restaurants, food and beverage; fuel; transportation; entertainment; shopping, among others. The report of the World Travel and Tourism Council (2013) accounts for 325.500 direct jobs generated by the travel and Tourism industry in 2012 (7% of total national employment). This includes work in hotels, travel agencies, airlines and other transport services, as well in the restaurant and leisure industries. It is estimated that,

over the next ten years, employment will increase in the Tourism industry by about 1.5% *p.a.* (World Travel & Tourism Council, 2013) as can be seen in the following figure (3.3).

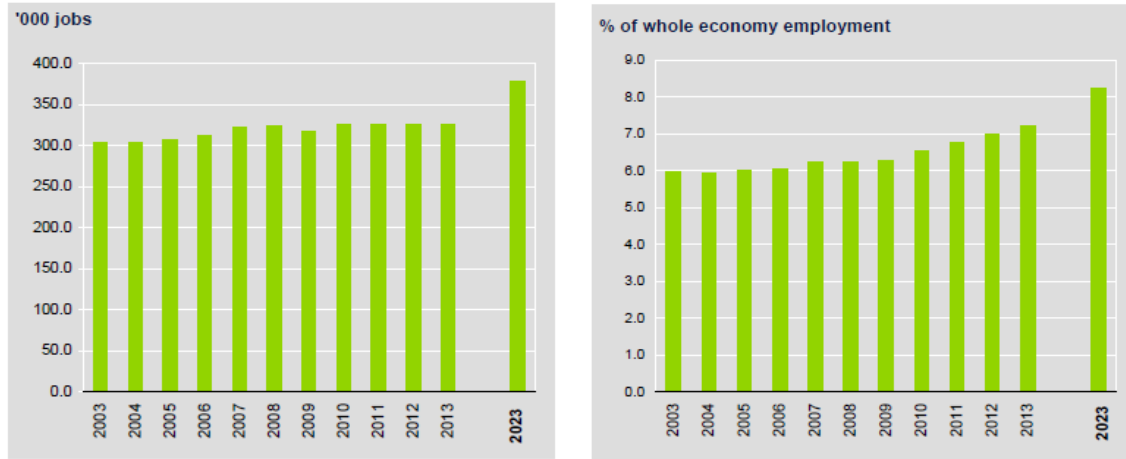


Figure 3.3 – Portugal: Direct contribution of travel and Tourism to employment

Source: World Travel & Tourism Council (2013, p. 4)

The Tourism industry also contributes towards employment in Portugal through investments made and the supply chain that Tourism activities involve. The overall impact of this industry was to create 860,500 jobs in 2012, which, in 2023, is forecast as representing 18.5% of the total employment rate and 954, 000 jobs (Figure 3.4). This rise represents 20.7% of the total employment (which means an increase of 1.0% *p.a.*).

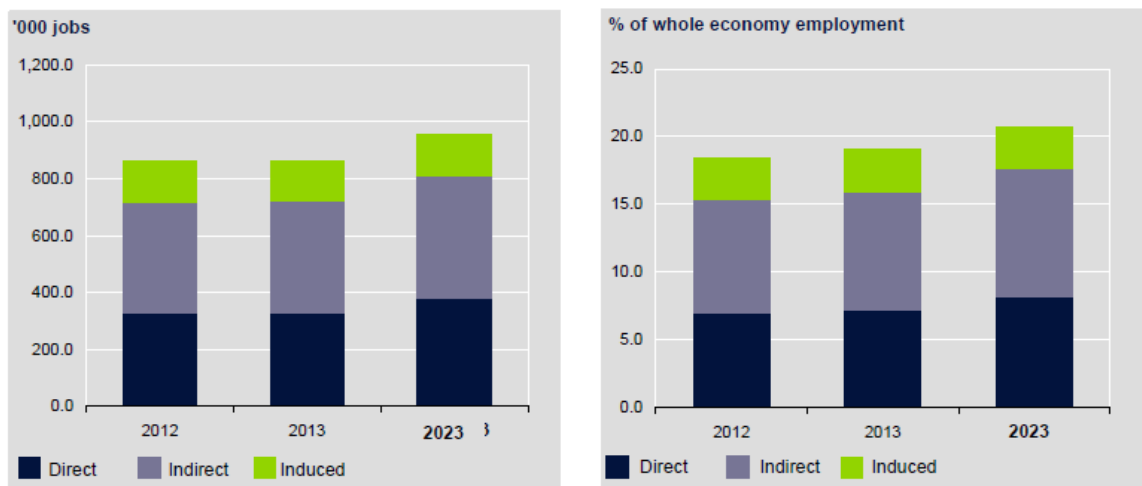


Figure 3.4 – Portugal: Total contribution of travel and Tourism to employment

Source: World Travel & Tourism Council (2013, p. 4)

Employment is of extreme importance for the present work, as students who undertake the Mobile Learning experience will be future Tourism professionals who need to improve the tourism experience. It would be highly relevant to focus on as many Tourism experiences that are offered around the world or in Europe as possible – as it is “the most visited tourist destination in the world” (Costa et al., 2013, p. 3) –, or on Portugal as a whole, however, admittedly, this would be impossible to cover under the scope of the present work. Therefore, the Tourism experiences were narrowed down to the Douro region and the educational implications, where English is concerned were confined to this topic area.

The choice of Douro was twofold: first, it was grounded in the moving force of the current trend in the development of Tourism systems. This development needs to be based “on an efficient and effective economy, linked to an interconnected local economic basis that orients its production towards the export of their products and services . . . [which will allow a destination to] gain competitive advantages in relation to other destinations” (Costa et al., 2013, p. 5). The second reason that sustains the choice of Douro, is supported by a Regional Innovation study developed in Douro and Aveiro (Brandão, 2014), which sustains that innovation in Douro is “regionally embedded”, but “many firms feel the need to access knowledge produced by external or foreign organisations” (p. 512). The same study propounds that innovation can be introduced through the “combinations of ‘hard’ (tangible equipment) and ‘soft’ (human capital, skills, practices) elements, the latter being more important for services innovation (Coombs & Miles, 2000, cit. in Brandão, 2014, p. 121). These reasons account for the importance of a local study which involves the human capital being trained, so that it can contribute to the competitive edge of this region, as the “link between territory and actors in the planning process” is of extreme importance, although “often neglected” (Costa et al., 2013, p. 4).

As far as the topic under scrutiny is concerned – wine and landscape – in the Douro, activities related to wine and gastronomy are those where tourists spend more time in (16,0%), only surpassed by visiting historical places (31%) (Comissão de Coordenação e Desenvolvimento Regional do Norte, 2011, p. 12). Wine (13,8%) and Port wine (9,5%) are the most referred words associated with the Douro region as well as words related to the landscape: beautiful (11,8%); vineyards (7,6%); nature (7,3%); river (7,0%); peacefulness (6,7%); wonderful (5,5%). These words represent the image that is retained by tourists after their Tourism experience. Besides the most frequently associated words with the Douro, the aspects that



are more positively striking to tourists are the landscape (17,3%); the wine and the vineyards (15,7%), the river Douro (9,6%) as well as the way tourists are welcome in the region (7,7%) (Comissão de Coordenação e Desenvolvimento Regional do Norte, 2011, p. 14).

As Tourism in the Douro is associated with specific products such as Port wine and landscape, these were the main focus areas to develop the learning experience using Mobile Learning. Besides, these topics are taught to the students under research because they fall under the theme of Food and Beverage – which is one of the tenets of the Tourism Satellite Account (Costa, 2006) – and the theme of Tourist attractions – which is one of the components of a Tourism plan (Inskeep, 1991).

The aim of this research is, therefore, to understand whether language use can be enhanced with Mobile Learning, in order to train future professionals. These professionals will contribute to reinforce the image the tourists retain of the Douro, by providing specific information about the two key areas of Food and Beverage as well as Tourist attractions.

This research focuses on Mobile Learning strategies that are used by students during their learning and leisure time. For the purpose of this research it is, therefore, crucial to understand what leisure is.

### **3.3 – Approaching concepts**

Considering how Tourism is organised, researchers hold different points of view as to its definition, mainly because the area is still at its infancy as far as consensus in definitions and established research is concerned. The English word ‘leisure’ may derive, according to Torkildsen (1992, p. 25), from the Latin word *licere* which means ‘to be permitted’ or ‘to be free’; and from the French word, also Latin derived, *loisir* which means ‘free time’. The concept of leisure is interpreted in different ways, according to the researchers’ backgrounds that focus on this concept. Two perspectives that account for leisure are the holistic and the organic (Costa, 1996; Murphy, 1987).

The organic perspective understands leisure as being divided into four parts: time; expenditure; a state of being and an antithesis to something that is not work or enforced (Torkildsen, 1992). It also perceives leisure as “time left over after work, sleep, and personal and household chores have been completed . . . [it is] free time that individuals spend as they

please” (Boniface & Cooper, 1994, p. 1). This concept of leisure is directly connected to “clock time” (Murphy, 1975, cit. in Reid, McLellan, & Uysal, 1993, p. 560). However, not all free time is leisure (Boniface, Cooper, & Cooper, 2012; Boniface & Cooper, 1994) as, for example, unemployed people do not choose to have free time, and therefore their free time is not perceived as leisure. Besides, different people have different and personal perceptions of play, education, and work. Thus, different perspectives on leisure have arisen (Murphy, 1987), namely among psychologist and psychiatrist researchers who argue that leisure should be regarded in a holistic perspective instead of in its organic perspective.

The holistic perspective presupposes that leisure is “an attitude of mind, a condition of the soul” (Pieper, 1952, cit. in Torkildsen, 1992, p. 27) and it occurs when the element of ‘choice’ is involved (Boniface et al., 2012, p.4). Leisure may, therefore, occur in all aspects of life, either at work, during education time, or during time assigned to religion. This is possible because the boundaries between work and leisure are increasingly blurred (Boniface et al., 2012; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1982 cit. in Murphy, 1987, p. 15). For example, there are people who make business during a round of golf and it can be felt as a leisure experience because it gives them internal motivation (Murphy, 1987) or highly paid executives are expected, during their holidays, to establish contact with their offices (Boniface et al., 2012).

Leisure is understood, namely by Csikszentmihalyi (1975), as a state of “playfulness or ‘flow’ [achieved when there is] . . . optimal interaction with the environment . . . [and]: (i) the individual is free from obligation; (ii) the activity pursued is a voluntary choice; (iii) the participation is pleasurable; and (iv) the activity pursued is culturally recognised as leisure” (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, cit. in Murphy, 1987, p. 14-5). Leisure is considered, according to this holistic perspective, as a *continuum* (Boniface & Cooper, 1994; Cooper, Gilbert, Fletcher, Wanhill, & Shepherd, 1998; Tinsley & Tinsley, 1982, cit. in Murphy, 1987), which can occur “in the shower or on the job, while writing a poem or driving a car or planting flowers in the garden” (Murphy, 1987, p. 15). Leisure involves, therefore, self-fulfilment and choice, as well as “a sense of freedom, intrinsic motivation, enjoyment, and relaxation” (Mannell and Iso Ahola, 1987, cit. in Reid, et al, 1993, p. 560).

From this perspective, the current study encompasses students whose aim is to study English language, nevertheless, their study stretches far beyond the classroom walls. This is possible through the use of their Mobile Learning activities inside and outside classes. This means

that students can have access to materials and study during their free time. Then, this study needs to be regarded in a holistic perspective, as leisure and work/study intermingle in the students' life experience. It depends on the students' intrinsic motivation and free-will whether or not they wish to access their learning activities during their free time. Notwithstanding, students can also perceive self-fulfilment and freely choose to resort to the Mobile Learning activities during their education time, which allows them to experience leisure even during their education time. This is possible because leisure time can be used and experienced personally and in any creative way (Edginton, Coles, & McClelland, 2003).

According to Csikszentmihalyi (1975, cit. in Murphy, 1987, p. 15) flow experiences – therefore leisure – are momentary, episodic states of intrinsic motivation and the conditions for its emergence are: “i) the centering of attention on a limited stimulus field; ii) a total involvement resulting in loss of self-awareness; iii) loss of anxiety and constraint; iv) a lack of consciousness of time and space; v) enlightened perception; and vi) enjoyment”. According to the same researcher, people are imposed “artificial ‘motivation’” that obliges them to do things at school (or at work) that they don't enjoy. Therefore, they need to ‘recuperate’ (Murphy, 1987, p. 15) from meaningless habits that do not give them intrinsic motivation, through leisure activities. This occurs because leisure time is restorative (Edginton et al., 2003) and can occur during daily activities such as watching television (Ali-Knight & Robertson, 2004). Experiencing leisure is a right recognised by the United Nations (United Nations, 1948). Thus, if people understand how intrinsic motivation rewards work, it is possible to “incorporate flow into non-play activities, to make the roles available in society more playful and therefore more free and creative” (Murphy, 1987, p. 15).

It is this perception of leisure (with loss of perception of time and freedom from obligation) that is identified during the students' interviews which were conducted after they were in contact with language activities using Mobile Learning (see chapter 7). As they are available from and in their mobile devices, students can use them, free from obligation, anytime, anywhere as long as this gives them pleasure and motivation.

Researchers (Costa, 1996, 2006), as mentioned above, sustain that work and leisure must be viewed in a holistic perspective. This means that work and leisure are not antonyms, as the organic perspective sustains, but they are interrelated, as shown in Figure 3.5.

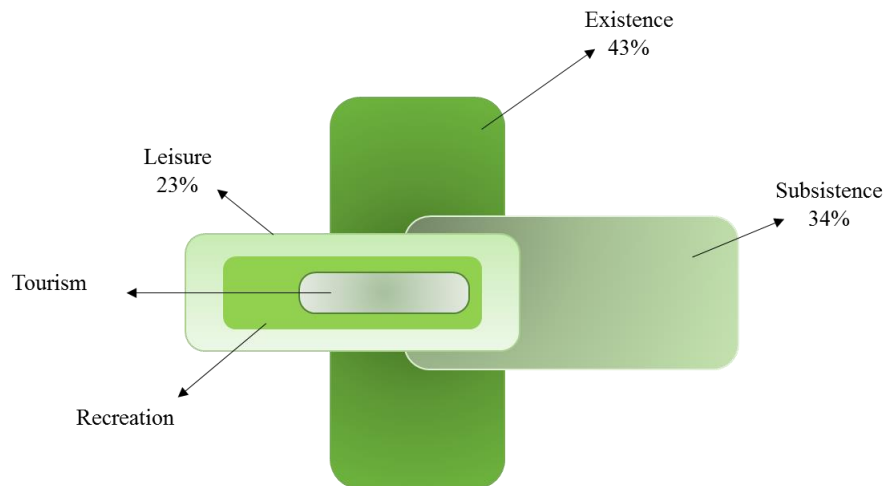


Figure 3.5 – Leisure, recreation and tourism

Source: Costa 1996, p. 6

This interconnection occurs because people's time is organised into subsistence time; existence time and recreation time. Recreation time is perceived as activities undertaken during leisure time as a means to refresh one's strength and spirit. These activities range from watching television at home to going on holiday abroad (Boniface et al., 2012). Nevertheless, when leisure time is used to go and stay somewhere outside the work and residence areas and to practice activities in that place, people undergo a Tourism experience (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Therefore, considering leisure as a state of being that involves choice and recreation as the activities undertaken during leisure time, Tourism could be perceived as "simply one type of recreation activity" (Boniface et al., 2012, p. 4). However, Tourism is a specific form of recreation which is different from homebased recreation, daily leisure and day trips, as can be perceived in Figure 3.6. For Tourism to occur, leisure time has to be blocked together to allow a stay away from home.

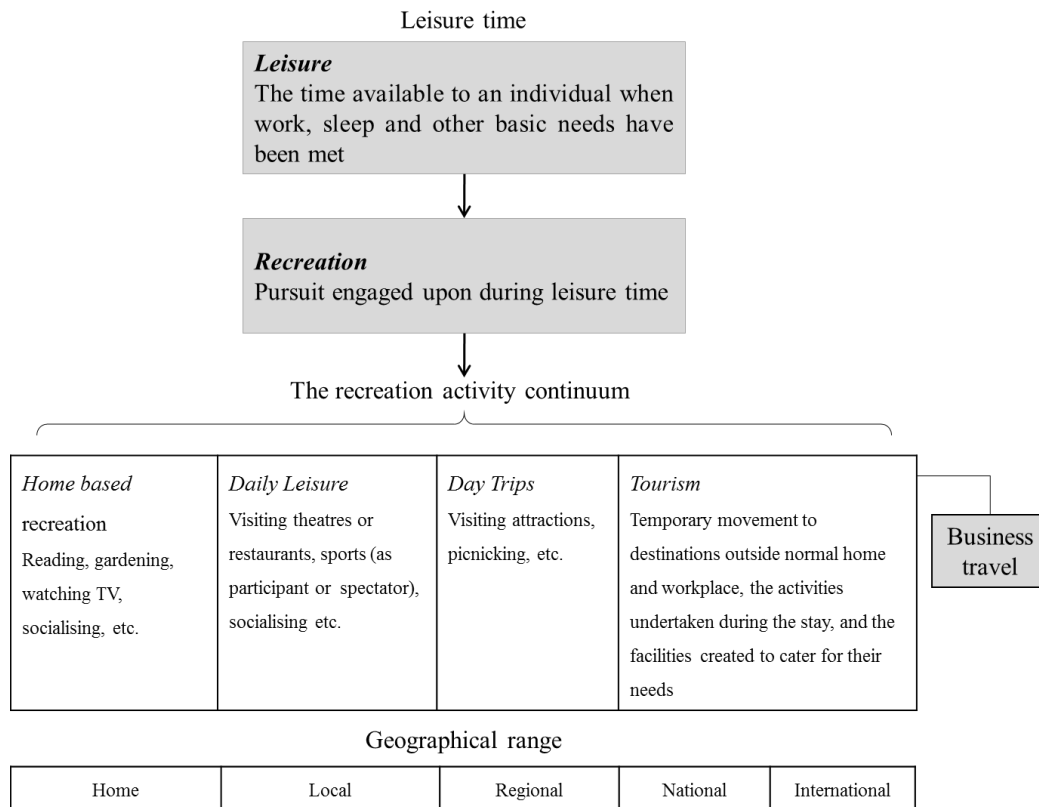


Figure 3.6 – Leisure, recreation and tourism

Source: (Boniface et al., 2012, p. 4)

Tourism has been defined in different ways, of which a short summary follows:

Leiper (1979), defines Tourism as

the system involving the discretionary travel and temporary stay of persons away from their usual place of residence for one or more nights, excepting tours made for the primary purpose of earning remuneration from points en route. The elements of the system are tourists, generating regions, transit routes, destination regions and a tourist industry. These five elements are arranged in spatial and functional connections. Having the characteristics of an open system, the organization of five elements operates within broader environments: physical, cultural, social, economic, political, technological with which it interacts (pp. 403-404).

Later, Mathieson and Wall (1982) sustain that Tourism is “the temporary movement of people to destinations outside their normal places of work and residence, the activities undertaken during their stay in those destinations, and the facilities created to cater to their needs” (p.1). Murphy (1985) advocates that Tourism is “the sum of . . . the travel of

non-residents (tourists, including excursionists) to destination areas, as long as their sojourn does not become a permanent residence; it is a combination of recreation and business” (p.9).

In 1994, the World Tourism Organisation sustains that Tourism “comprises the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes” (1994b, p. 5).

From the above definitions, one can assume that tourism and leisure are interconnected and that leisure should gradually permeate and overlap the times of subsistence; existence and recreation because, when this occurs, leisure becomes in itself a way of spending time and not only something that occurs during free time or while doing tourism. This means that, no matter where one is, or what one does, leisure can be present in one’s life and it becomes a common denominator in life.

In 2006, theory about leisure, recreation and tourism (Costa, 2006) (Figure 3.5) was put into practice in the Tourism Futures Framework (Figure 3.7). This model complements the previous one in the sense that when leisure becomes a continuous activity in people’s lives, then this has to emerge with products; management; instruments and an industry of Tourism which is adjusted to these new markets and conditions.

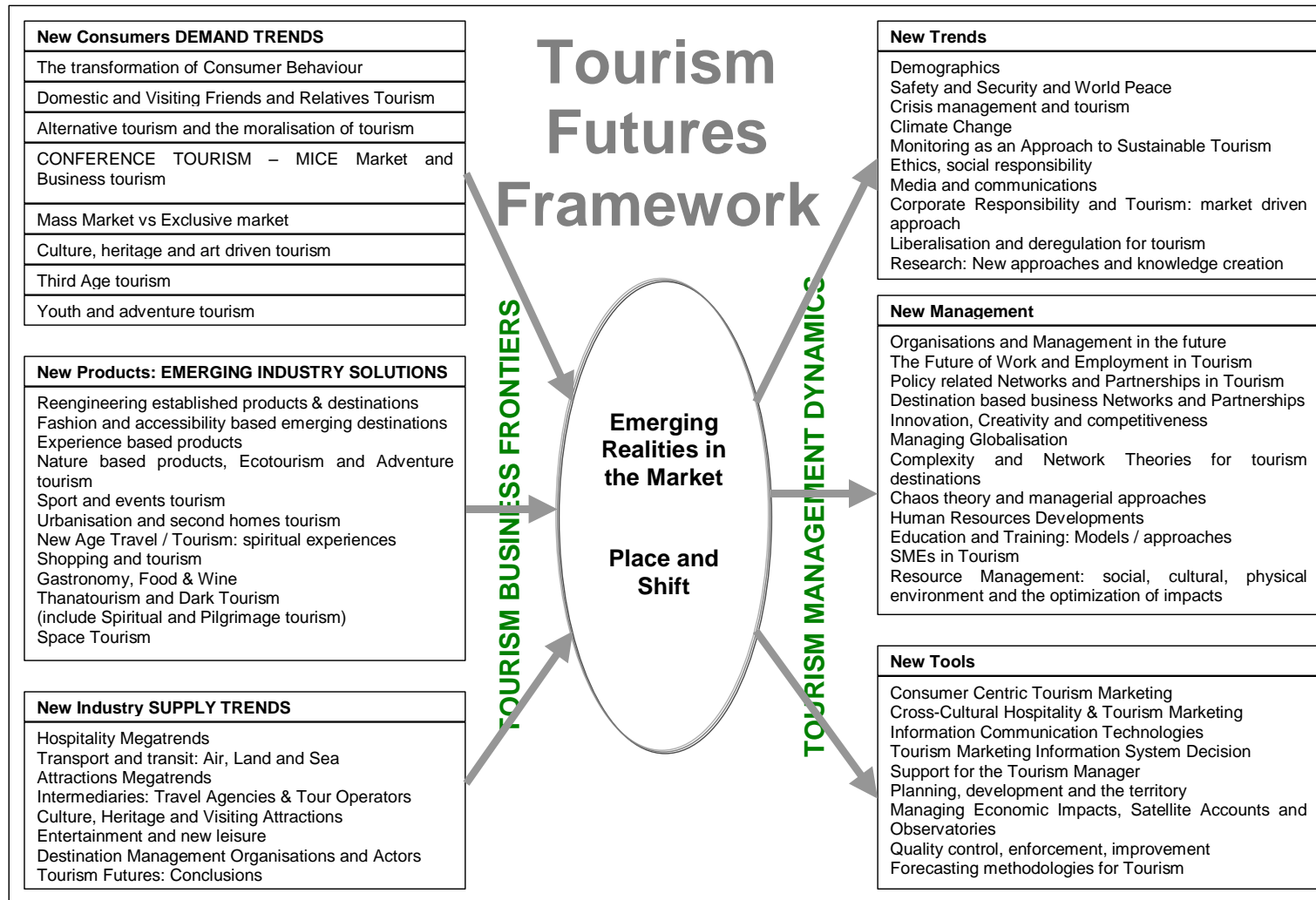


Figure 3.7 – The framework of Tourism futures

Source: (Costa & Buhalis, 2006, p. 2)

The present study incorporates Mobile Learning activities that are passed on to the students' devices and to the social network they use for leisure. This would allow for anytime, anywhere learning, becoming part of their leisure use of time.

Tinsley and Tinsley (1982, cit. in Murphy, 1987, p. 15) consider that the leisure state is a state of mind of the individual rather than an activity. Its characteristics are: i) absorption or concentration on the ongoing experience; ii) lessening of focus on self; iii) feelings of freedom or lack of constraint; iv) enriched perception of objects and events; v) increased intensity of emotions; vi) increased sensitivity of feelings; and vii) decreased awareness of the passage of time.

In order that people experience leisure, there are conditions that, according to the same researchers, need to be fulfilled:

- (i) that the individuals perceive freedom to choose an activity is personal rather than a result of external coercion; (ii) that they engage in an activity to obtain benefits inherent in that pursuit; (iii) that the individual experiences an optimal level of arousal; and (iv) that the individual is committed to fulfilling his or her potential through that activity (Tinsley and Tinsley, 1982, cit. in Murphy, 1987, p. 15).

Therefore, leisure is a way of life or a philosophy of living and not the opposite of work once that, increasingly, leisure and work are considered to be on a continuum. Leisure which is free from compulsion and necessity gives greater potential for human self-fulfilment. Torkildsen (1992) asserts that leisure has to do with activities, chosen usually for their own sake, in relative freedom, which bring intrinsic satisfaction. Therefore, leisure is not time, but "leisure" use of time.

The change in the operationalisation of leisure presented here reflects a change from considering leisure as being objective (the organic perspective), to being subjective (the holistic perspective). This shift in conceptualising leisure has given rise to different ways of perceiving and conducting leisure research as leisure can be considered "interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary, and transdisciplinary" (Henderson, 2010, p. 398). Leisure studies can be interdisciplinary as they can combine the knowledge from different disciplines to understand leisure from new perspectives. They can also be multidisciplinary as their approaches are organised around a complex applied social problem or phenomenon. And, leisure studies



can also be transdisciplinary as they can “cross many disciplinary boundaries to create a holistic approach to a subject” (Henderson, 2010, p. 398).

The present study also encompasses different disciplines in order to provide a better understanding of how the language use experience, in the specific area of Tourism, can be enhanced by Mobile Learning as a leisure and learning (work) activity. This approach is essential to understand how leisure can be part of the students’ lives to enhance their learning and to become better professionals.

Taking into consideration that students will become future Tourism professionals it is important to understand which factors are determinant for the workplace. On the one hand there is tourist demand and on the other there is tourist supply.

As far as demand is concerned, several factors are involved in tourist motivations to undertake Tourism (Fridgen, 1996; Iso-Ahola, 1980, 1982; Ryan, 1995 cit. in Uysal & Hagan, 1993) and motivation is the most important determinant of recreation travel. It is tourist demand that is also crucial to design Tourism supply (Neves, Magalhães, & Lourenço, 2007). The unprecedented access to information, improved by the fast pace of technological development, and the influence of globalised markets have enlarged tourist knowledge about world destinations and their interest in travelling. Nevertheless, the demand factors are not dealt with in the scope of the present work, as Tourism professionals account for part of the supply factors of Tourism.

Tourism supply comprises businesses which provide goods and services that enable pleasure and leisure activities for tourists who are far from their usual environment (Smith, 1988) and professionals are a crucial part of these businesses. This is because the services provided are easily known worldwide due to official business websites, to traveller generated content websites, and to the social media in general. Therefore, in order to have success and be competitive in the fiercely changing globalised world (Costa et al., 2013; Dwyer & Edwards, 2010; Liburd, Hjalager, & Christensen, 2014; Pine & Gilmore, 1999), businesses need to provide innovation (Brandão, 2014; Costa et al., 2013), quality and memorable (Baum, 2006) experiences because the services they sell are meant to be experienced on site (Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993; Kotler, 1984; Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009) and not to be consumed after visiting a destination, as goods are (Middleton et al., 2009) – such as

delicatessen products bought as a gift for a relative or for a friend. Besides, the European Tourism policy set “sustainable competitiveness” as its main goal (Costa et al., 2013).

For the above stated reasons, training as well as information technology are recognised as strategic areas to promote competitiveness by “the ‘Tourism and Employment’ process, launched in 1997” (Costa et al., 2013, pp. 3-4). In this scenario, and to vouch for quality education, higher education institutions need to take into consideration the market trends and needs.

As far as Tourism supply needs are concerned, different world organisations (the World Tourism Organisation [UNWTO], the United Nations Statistics Division [UNSD], the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development [OECD] and the Statistical Office of the European Union [Eurostat]) established a system of ‘Tourism satellite accounts’<sup>4</sup> (TSA). These ensure common concepts, definitions and classifications which are internationally recognised for measuring the economic importance of Tourism and tourist activities. The main supply activities that TSA identify are: accommodation; food and beverage; transportation; intermediaries, tour operators, travel agencies and tourist guides; rent-a-car; cultural services and leisure and recreation activities (Costa, 2006). Besides, Inskip (1991) also accounts for some supply factors: institutional elements; tourist attractions and related activities; transportation facilities and services; accommodation; other tourist facilities and services; and, finally, infrastructures, as can be identified in Figure 3.8.

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<sup>4</sup> In 2013 the TSA report accounts for results submitted by 22 countries of which 17 are Member States, 3 EFTA countries and 2 candidate countries. The 17 Member States account for nearly 90 % of Tourism activity in Europe and are thus likely to be representative of the EU as a whole. The development of Tourism Satellite Accounts involving countries around the world evinces the worldwide importance of Tourism planning.

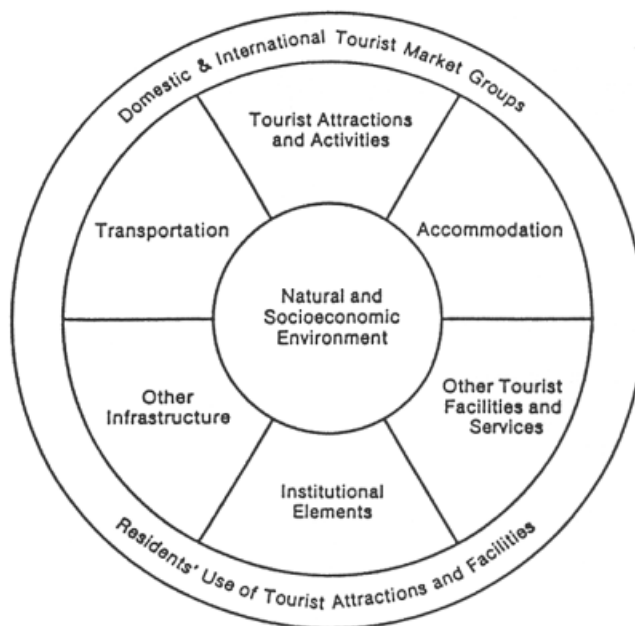


Figure 3.8 – Components of a Tourism plan

Source: (Inskeep, 1991)

The premises of the Tourism Satellite Accounts, as well as Inskeep's are used in the present work as they help in building the framework of analysis of part of the work done (analysis of English for Tourism programmes). Although other components of Tourism exist, they are not mentioned as they are not relevant for the categorisation of the analysis. The following supply items<sup>5</sup> here presented serve as basis for the aforementioned analysis, which is dealt with in chapter 7, part 7.2:

- i) institutional elements involved in Tourism (Inskeep, 1991), such as tourist boards; marketing strategies; promotion programmes, help the development and management of Tourism;
- ii) Tourist facilities and services in the destination areas (Inskeep, 1991; World Tourism Organisation, 1994a);
- iii) Intermediaries, tour operators, travel agencies and tourist guides who support travel details and tourist information (TSA model, Carvalho-Oliveira & Cymbron, 1994).

<sup>5</sup> The items here presented have been published and further developed in Oliveira et al., 2014.

- iv) Accommodation (Costa, 2006; Inskip, 1991; Smith, 2013). (In this regard, we are aware that several types of accommodation exist, nevertheless, its classification is not considered relevant for the present study as there is no account of it in the documents under analysis.)
- v) Transportation (Robbins & Dickinson, 2013) is responsible for 15-20% of all passenger km in the EU (Peeters, Szimba, & Duijnsveld, 2007). (This item accounts for a subdivision: surface transportation by land or water and air transportation (Inskip, 1991);
- vi) Rent-a-car (TSA);
- vii) Destinations (country; region; city, among others) (Holloway, 1989; Leiper, 1990). This item is of extreme relevance in Tourism because it gathers demand and supply elements) and it is the place to which tourists go and to which they are attracted (Cooper et al., 1998);
- viii) Attractions (TSA, Boniface et al., 2012; Cooper et al., 1998; Inskip, 1991) – either natural or artificial; cultural (museums, historic buildings); traditions (music); scenic (landscape) and others (e.g. health resorts) (Peters, 1969).
- ix) Tourism marketing (Carneiro, Costa, & Crompton, 2013) – essential for Tourism sites and services, as these are perishable (Middleton et al., 2009; Riley, 1991) and this helps reduce the impact of perishability and ensures competitiveness of the industry (Smith, 1994; Tucker & Sundberg, 1988);
- x) Staff communication skills: essential to provide quality and information – on site; by email or on the phone – in Tourism services which are provided and consumed in immediacy (Riley, 1991). This information can be about:
  - safety and security procedures (MacLaurin, 2001);
  - health care activities (Voigt, 2014);
  - festivals; events (Getz, 2007);
  - recreation activities (Boniface & Cooper, 1994);
  - entertainment available (Ali-Knight & Robertson, 2004);

A robust knowledge of the supply items along with theoretical concepts about Tourism (Cooper et al., 1998) are essential for Tourism and for Tourism professionals, in order that they may be able to provide quality services. Working in Tourism is very demanding, for the above mentioned reasons and others that are not dealt with in the scope of this work.

Therefore, it is necessary that the Tourism professionals' training and academic knowledge provide them with the necessary tools to become an added value in this highly complex and continually changing industry.

### **3.4 – Education in Tourism**

Today's radical global changes are a catalyst for the dramatic changes in tourism around the world. Not only is it imperative that tourism education adapts to match these external shifts in order for graduates to succeed as leaders and stewards of the future industry, but it is also important to give space and time to imagine, discuss and create the future we want for tourism education. (Prebežac, Schott, & Sheldon, 2014, p. xix)

Research applied to Tourism, according to Kaspar (1994), started around the 1940's with the work of leading thinkers and strategists of the theoretical body of knowledge of 'Tourism'. Since then, several disciplines made contributions to the field (from Sociology, Psychology, Geography and Medicine).

The International Association of Scientific Experts in Tourism (AIEST) embraced a role of catalyst and initiator for studies in the area, which also contributed to the corpus of research in Tourism. Ever since 1950, with AIEST efforts of incrementing research, Tourism continued to benefit from interdisciplinary research. Tourism research is perceived as a system, which implies an open whole with relations between parts; as a multidimensional perspective is mandatory in order to be able to cope with the diversity and complexity which characterises Tourism research, bearing in mind the need for complementarity between theory and practice. This makes studies in Tourism highly practice-oriented with academia being involved in real world Tourism problems, which enriches the educational process as well (Kaspar, 1994; Liburd et al., 2014).

Education is increasingly intertwined with economy because education should take the industry needs into consideration so that undergraduates can be competitive, productive and innovative, after they leave HE institutions, and can be able to face the needs of the industry. For this purpose, interdisciplinary Tourism education needs to be considered.

To gain competitiveness (Cooper et al., 1998; Grönroos, 1983), the professional human resources who work in the industry need to be highly skilled. The performance of professionals depends upon their qualities and knowledge to make the tourists' experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) as memorable as possible. The knowledge and skills of Tourism professionals are developed during their educational training.

The term 'Experience Economy' refers to the business setting where customers anticipate that the services they buy are going to be memorable and enriching experiences. Nowadays, consumers are striving for experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999) and wish to have access to the experiences that consuming the products they buy can offer them (Morgan, Lugosi, & Ritchie, 2010).

Offering memorable experiences or events for customers is an effective way to differentiate a product or service from others because products have become interchangeable, replicated and commoditised (Morgan et al., 2010). Therefore, providing memorable experiences is a way to compete in the global market as it allows the Tourism entity to avoid being commoditised (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Since its recognition in the 1960's, experience is a term associated with several meanings (Moscardo, 2008). Pine and Gilmore (1999) state that experiences, as an economic offering, create new possibilities for economic expansion. The experience economy is the latest stage of an evolution aimed at extracting as much value from the market as possible. From this perspective, the agrarian economy offered raw materials for the markets, while the industrial economy offered manufactured standardised goods to the users. The service economy offers customised services to clients, while the experience economy offers personal experiences to the guests and customers (Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

Today, the success of a product, thus, depends on the involvement that it creates for the customer as we are shifting to the Experience Economy. Executives realise that if their products become commoditised the only thing customers will look for is price. As a consequence, prices will go down, profits will decrease and businesses will be at risk. Besides, in the research that Shaw and Ivens (2002) conducted, they found that "85 percent of senior business leaders agree that differentiating solely on the traditional physical elements such as price, delivery and lead times is no longer a sustainable business strategy"

(p. 2). For this reason, customer experiences should be given major importance, as this is the businesses differentiator.

According to Pine and Gilmore (1999) “an experience occurs when a company intentionally uses services as the stage, and goods as props, to engage individual customers in a way that creates a memorable event” (p. 98). The experience derives from the interaction between the staged event and the individual’s state of mind. Thus, the experience is basically individual. Although many individuals may have similar experiences, no two individuals can have the same.

An experience can be considered a “product”, since it must be produced or staged to be made available. Experiences are connected to the “consumption” of goods and services, by using them, by participating in activities and events, or by visiting or living in the vicinity of places and attractions. Experience products are, as a consequence, very varied and can be consumed in different ways. Experience products depend on the “relationship” between the customer and the product itself (Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

Customers can either be passive; absorbing an experience presented, or active; by being part of the experience. Customers are passive when enjoying a movie, or active when hiking or attending a football match as supporter (Pine & Gilmore, 1999).

It is important to mention the fact that producing experiences is more than simply about entertaining customers; it is about actually engaging them in a way they personally affect the performance or event, leaving behind a memory (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). However, experiences cannot be equated with entertainment as they are not about simply adding entertainment to the existing products.

Pine and Gilmore (1999) divide the experience economy into four realms (4Es) of experiential value which can be added to businesses. The four realms are divided into: entertainment; educational; aesthetic and escapist experiences that can add experiential value to businesses. The four realms refer to a person’s active or passive participation and to his absorption or immersion in the experiences.

There is passive participation when customers do not directly affect or influence what they are experiencing; therefore, they are not involved in the creation of it, for example, when customers passively watch a product demonstration. Active participation, on the other hand,

would entail the customer's active participation in the experience (when customers are actively involved in trying a product for themselves).

Absorption occurs when the customer's attention is occupied by "bringing the experience to the mind". Immersion occurs when customers become "physically or virtually a part of the experience itself" (Pine & Gilmore, 1999, p. 31).

As we can see in the following figure, the four realms are separated by the way customers are involved in experience. Entertainment and Aesthetic dimensions are characterised by passive participation of the customers, whereas Educational and Escapist dimensions are characterised by active participation in experiences. In Entertainment and Educational dimensions, customers "absorb" the experience, while in Aesthetic and Escapist dimensions they are "immersed" in the experiences offered.

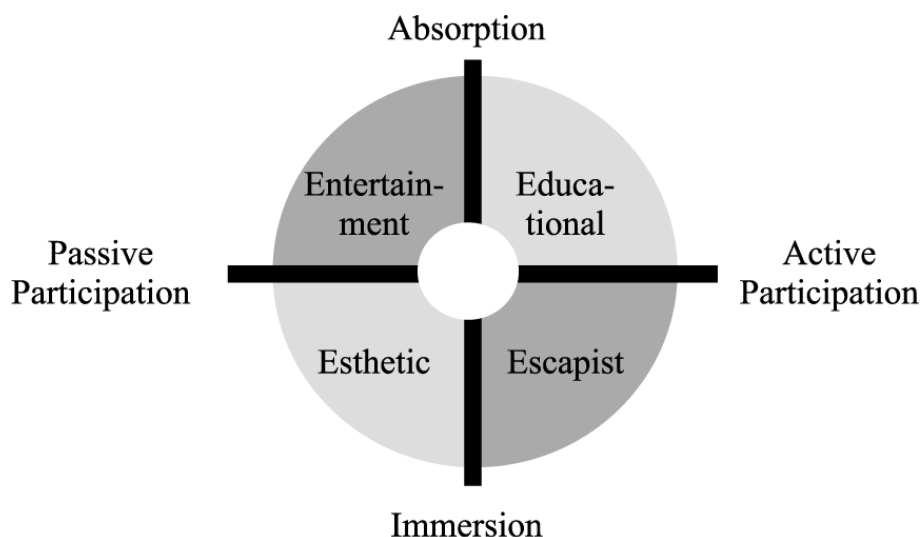


Figure 3.9 – The four realms of an experience

Source: (Pine & Gilmore, 1999, p. 30)

Although there are four different dimensions this does not mean that a business should only focus on one of them. It can, in fact, focus on creating a mixture of the four dimensions.

In order to be able to train professionals who can cope with the ever growing demands of the industry, Tourism education needs to grant high levels of access to knowledge, concepts and techniques related to Tourism which are adapted to the competitive market. According to Cooper et al. (1998) it is the educators' role to facilitate innovation, encourage



empowerment, motivate the workforce and, together with industry, to work in order to overcome the problems of Tourism.

Where academic education in Tourism is concerned, it needs to prepare students with “new different skills, aptitudes and knowledge to succeed” (Sheldon, Prebežac, & Fesenmaier, 2014, p. 1) in the vulnerable and seasonal Tourism sector. Tourism education has to be broad enough to tackle the wide range of requirements and skills that respond to the global challenges impacting Tourism and the job market. Besides, HE institutions need the cooperation of the job market, as well, to better work towards its needs. Nevertheless, Salgado (2007) sustains that there is little interest from the latter in cooperating, although cooperation among institutions, the government and the industry stakeholders is crucial in an educational network in Tourism studies.

In order to prepare professionals for the ever changing and competitive Tourism industry, higher education institutions need to provide rigorous curricular planning (Salgado, 2007) and access to cutting edge knowledge, besides, “old ways of doing things must be transcended” (Sheldon, Prebežac, et al., 2014, p. 1). At “university level tourism programs must build the capacity in our graduates to lead in a new and different way” (Sheldon, Prebežac, et al., 2014, p. 1). The “need to transform tourism educational programmes so as both to prepare students for a different world and to help them contribute to and create this world . . . to reshape tourism education worldwide . . . and to help leaders of the tourism industry follow practices that are rooted in basic values” (Sheldon, Prebežac, et al., 2014, pp. 1–2).

Education, nowadays, requires students to engage as part of the experience economy as well. Therefore, they are no longer passive subjects (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Educational experiences aim at increasing the customers’ (students’) skills and enriching their knowledge by actively participating in the experience.

The educational involvement integrates the student’s environment to enhance its objectives, this is why study trips, for example, occur: to include all five senses in the learning experience, to make it richer than by merely absorbing concepts. Besides the Web has also allowed a radical change in the way students have access to information and the way they communicate. From passive consumers; readers or listeners of the traditional media, they

became participant and active creators of contents as they share their experiences online (Adell, 2010).

One of the initiatives to help reshape Tourism education is the Tourism Education Futures Initiative (TEFI), formed in 2007, and whose objective is “to provide vision, knowledge and a framework for Tourism education programs that promote global citizenship and optimism for a better world” (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, & Tribe, 2014, p. 14).

One of the areas which cannot be disregarded in Tourism education is technology. Platforms such as INNOUTOUR (Liburd et al., 2014) already integrate forums, blogs, wikis, tutorials and streamed sessions which help teachers and students to have more interesting teaching and learning experiences based on Web 2.0 tools. Innovative initiatives, such as INNOUTOUR, which involve technology and co-creation of contents, have been reported as a way to develop reciprocal relationships, a way to prepare students for their field of practice in a sustainable way.

Besides preparing students for the future job market, it also prepares them to face the more knowledgeable tourist who is empowered by technology to gain access to knowledge. The tourist has become a ‘prosumer’ who is the consumer who designs customised and economical travel experiences by himself (Moutinho, Rate, & Ballantyne, 2013) and is demanding in his/her choices as they are usually well informed by different means, such as the social media. Technology has made Tourism and tourists accessible 24/7, therefore, Tourism has at its disposal powerful, technology-enhanced tools to reach customers (Buhalis & Matloka, 2013). For these reasons, higher education institutions need to ensure access and foment awareness of these cutting edge means which are changing the Tourism industry, and help students gain competitive advantage. After they graduate, students will be applying for jobs that may not have existed when they decided to study Tourism, as this is an ever evolving industry and what they are taught might be obsolete by the time they finish their studies (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, et al., 2014; Sheldon, Prebežac, et al., 2014), Prebežac, et al., 2014). Yet new perspectives and new work will, perforce, be generated by the ever-evolving dynamics of the sector.

So far, human resources who work in the Tourism industry, in Portugal, lack of professional qualification motivated by the lack of recognition, among employers, of its importance, as well as they do not recognise the importance of providing lasting employment due to the

seasonal nature of Tourism. Besides, requalification of employees is not given much importance either (Neves et al., 2007) apart from staff is hospitality (Neves et al., 2007) whose training is considered, by employers, an investment from which profit can be obtained.

Where language learning in Tourism education is concerned, Ritchie (1990) identifies its prominence for the industry. It was originally disregarded in Jafari's model of 'Disciplines of relevance to tourism studies' (p. 128); it is also included by Salgado (2007). At the European level, great emphasis is placed on learning foreign languages, apart from the UK (Holloway, 1993) where learning foreign languages is optional (Lavery, 1989). In continental countries, foreign languages are taught, given the great relevance which is recognised to travelling and working abroad and being proficient in foreign languages is usually a mandatory requirement in job applications. In Portugal, foreign language proficiency in the Tourism industry is considered insufficient (Neves et al., 2007).

Currently, human resources who work in the Tourism industry, in Portugal, lack full professional qualification due to the lack of recognition, among some employers, of the importance of education and specialist training. Some employers also do not recognise the importance of providing lasting employment due to the seasonal nature of Tourism, despite the benefits they would have in accruing experienced workers.

### **3.5 – Synopsis**

Tourism is a multi-faceted industry which is still in its infancy as a research area. However numerous studies, journals and international events have proliferated around this area which is gradually building its theoretical basis. Because the industry is complex and is highly competitive, it requires businesses to be innovative to attract tourists and professionals need to be highly skilled in order to maintain quality and competitiveness at world scale. To provide everlasting experiences is, therefore, one of the objectives of the Tourism professionals, in order to evince the destinations' uniqueness, as presupposed by the premises of the Experience Economy.

Higher education institutions can give their contribution to provide access to the most up-to-date trends. These institutions provide professionals with added value when there is a

connection with the job market needs and when education and the market demands are intertwined, there is a higher possibility of contributing to the success of the industry; of professionals and of institutions as a whole.



## **CHAPTER 4 | AN OVERVIEW OF LANGUAGE LEARNING**

## 4.1 – Introduction to fundamentals of Mobile Learning

In the following chapter, in section 4.2 there is a contextualisation of the evolution of learning methods, in order to provide better understanding of the scope of this work and to situate the current learning and teaching strategy involving Mobile Learning in the methodological *continuum*. Section 4.3 extends the previous section by specifying what English for specific purposes is, and to provide the background for the need for English for Tourism.

Given the importance of Mobile Learning (section 4.4), sections 4.4.1 and 4.4.2 explore the concept in both education (4.4.1) and Tourism-related contexts (4.4.2), providing a thorough understanding of the pervasive nature of mobile devices, especially in these two areas. However, in order that mobile devices can be successfully adopted, either in education or in any other area, it is useful to understand how people accept and use technology. For this purpose, section 4.4.3 provides the basis of a model for surveys to be made as far as the acceptance and use of technology is concerned.

This chapter presents the evolution of English language learning and teaching in general and, then, focuses specifically on the core area of the present work which is English for Tourism students. It then follows into the understanding of trends that use mobile devices for learning and teaching purposes.

## 4.2 – Language learning methods

Experience in using different teaching approaches and methods can provide teachers with basic teaching skills that they can later add to or supplement as they develop teaching experience. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 16)

Learning a language has long become a necessity for people around the world and throughout time. There has always been a quest for new language learning methods. However, the “right” method has not been found yet, nor, indeed, can it be, for different social and technological contexts, among others, will foster diverse means and methods in teaching.

The twentieth century was very rich in language teaching methods. This was due to the compulsory status of modern languages learning in schools; to the development of telecommunications systems, as well as to the era of globalised activity we live in. It was a century when several teaching methods were developed and changed, in line with the social needs in different historical periods. The present methods have evolved from a long tradition and accompany the current social trends.

As it is hoped that this section will evince some milestones in the development of language teaching tradition, which will be briefly touched upon, in an attempt to show how language teaching has adapted to social change in a quest to implement optimal strategies that serve the needs of the learners in different periods. This idea is developed in the following sections taking into account the social context of the present study which is developed according to the current learning and teaching trends that encompass technological developments that are being assimilated worldwide into higher education organisations.

#### **4.2.1 – Grammar translation Method**

The first past foreign language teaching method to be addressed is the grammar-translation method. This derived from the classical method of teaching Greek and Latin. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), it required students to translate whole texts word for word and memorise numerous grammatical rules and facts, as well as vocabulary lists to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language. Therefore, the student's native language was the medium of instruction in class.

The goal of the method was to enable students to read and write and little or no attention was paid to speaking or listening. This was due to the fact that during the period when the grammar translation method was used, accuracy was of great importance, as the number of written exams grew. By then, syllabuses consisted of language and grammar lists which were graded across levels (Richards, 2006).

In the mid and late nineteenth century, opposition to this method arose in European countries. By then, the Reform Movement, as the opposition to the method was named, set the ground for developing different ways of teaching languages that are still evolving, according to, as was previously mentioned, the social setting where teaching takes place.



#### **4.2.2 – Reform Movement and the Methods era**

The mid-nineteenth century was a period of great social development and oral proficiency grew in importance, due to the demand of communication between Europeans. However, teaching and learning foreign languages, using the Grammar Translation Method, did not allow great communicative competence to be developed among students (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Therefore, at that period, teachers began to experiment with new ways of teaching which laid the foundations for the development of the current trends which are still evolving.

The Reform Movement, which opposed the Grammar-Translation Method, tried to propose alternative ways for language teaching. Reformers focused on the way learners learnt their first language and the so called Direct Method followed the Grammar-Translation method. It sought to immerse the learner in the second language in the same way as when a first language is learnt. Besides, the teacher would use mime, images and demonstrations to help the learner acquire new vocabulary. Learners, on the other hand, should use language directly and spontaneously in the classroom and grammar would be learnt inductively by them through sequences of strictly-chosen grammatical phrases. With this method, both speaking and listening were very privileged as there were intensive interactions between the teacher and the learner through questions and answers and by means of listening and repetition.

The Direct Method is regarded as the first language teaching method to have truly called the attention of language teachers and specialists. This fact and its novel methodology allowed language teaching to move into a new teaching era: the “methods era” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 14). The Direct Method had great popularity but it was difficult to use, mainly because it required teachers to be native speakers or to have native-like fluency and it was sometimes counterproductive, as teachers had to go through a great effort to avoid using native language when a brief explanation using the students’ native language would be more effective. The weakness of the Direct Method also lies in the assumption that a second language can be learnt in exactly the same way as a first language, when, in fact, the conditions under which a second language is learnt are very different. However, after a period of decline, this method was revived, leading to the emergence of the Audio-lingual Method.

### 4.2.3 – Audio-lingual Method

The Audio-lingual method is the product of three historical settings. First, linguists, such as Leonard Bloomfield, developed training programs based on an intensive oral-based approach<sup>6</sup> for Indian language learning. In his structural view of language, Bloomfield gave emphasis to mastering the building blocks of language and learning the rules for combining them. Second, psychologists, such as Skinner, developed behaviourism, a theory which defended that behaviour (and language was also considered a behaviour) was learnt through repetition (stimulus and response), and reinforcement. Finally, with the outbreak of the Second World War, and the entry of the United States, there was a need for fluent personnel in the ally's and in the enemy's languages. So, audio-lingualism (also known as the Army Method) drew on this necessity as well.

Audio-lingualism is, therefore, a method which combines and enhances intensive oral practice of structures based on the behaviourist theory of repetition and reinforcement. With regard to materials, it relied on tapes and language laboratories to help students improve their speaking and listening skills (essential for this approach). With this method, students have a passive role whereas the teacher is very active and essential as a model.

In the 1970's there were reactions to the traditional language teaching approaches (such as audio-lingualism) and the latter fell out of fashion as the centrality of grammar in language learning was questioned. By then, other non-mainstream approaches developed but they were not extensively pursued<sup>7</sup>.

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<sup>6</sup> Bloomfield developed training programs for the learning of American Indian languages based on the "informant method". This relied on a source – a native speaker – which provided sentences for imitation as there were no textbooks to learn these languages. Through intensive drills students learnt how to speak the languages and their basic grammar.

<sup>7</sup> Non-mainstream language teaching methodologies were developed around theories of learners and theories of a single theoriser. Therefore, they are little developed in what language theory is concerned. Total Physical Response (coordinates speech and action); Silent Way (the teacher should be silent most of the time and the learner should produce as much language as possible by discovering and creating what was to be learnt); Counselling or Community Learning (learners choose the topics they want to learn about; the teacher must be highly proficient in the students' native language and in the foreign language as he is supposed to translate learners' ideas into the second language so that students can communicate in pairs/groups); Suggestopedia (combines suggestion and pedagogy; memory power is the result of stimulation of the learners' personality by reinforcing their self-confidence and spontaneity through a rich sensory environment); Whole Language (real-world texts should be used instead of commercial texts; the teacher is a facilitator instead of an expert passing

In this period, relevance was given to skills needed in using language for communicative purposes such as making requests and suggestions, for example (Richards, 2006). Therefore, for communicative competence to be developed the syllabuses needed to focus on i) different purposes and situations to be developed in class (e.g. business; hotel industry; travel). They had to contemplate ii) specific settings (e.g. on an airplane; in a hotel) where, in order to be able to communicate, students have to take on different iii) roles (e.g. Hotel director; receptionist; client). In the different settings, iv) communicative events were developed (e.g. making a telephone call, taking an order); which involve v) different language functions (e.g. giving explanations) and vi) notions or concepts (e.g. history of a place); vii) grammar and viii) lexical content that are presented using the different ix) discourse and rhetorical skills (e.g. giving effective business presentations) according to the x) variety of the target language (e.g. American/Australian/British English) (Richards, 2006).

From these new ways of addressing language learning, the communicative syllabus and English for specific purposes (ESP) movement arose. The latter being the one on which this work focuses and it will be further developed in section 4.3.

In the 1990's there was great criticism of methods and approaches. At that time, methods were no longer seen as the key issue for language success or failure. Methods came under criticism as the role of the teacher was marginalised and good teaching was seen as a way to understand and apply the prescribed techniques. Besides, the role of the students was also criticised as they were seen as passive agents in the learning process.

In the 1990's growing importance was given to the teacher's creativity, initiative and personal teaching style. The learners, as well as their learning styles and preferences, became central to the teaching process (Crompton, 2013a). Therefore, learning methods should be flexible and adapted to the learner's needs and interests. Besides, the context where teaching takes place must be taken into consideration (local, political, institutional, classroom, among others). The choice of teaching method cannot be determined in isolation from other planning and implementation practices. Therefore, teachers should use approaches and

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on knowledge; the work plan is negotiated collaboratively; materials are chosen by them as well); Multiple Intelligences (learners are unique and instruction must respond to uniqueness).

methods in a flexible and creative way, transforming and adapting them according to their experience and students' needs.

It is thought (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, et al., 2014) that many different factors might help change teaching in the future; from teachers themselves to government policies; to influences from academic disciplines or as a response to technology. As such, learning and technology cannot be seen as separate realms but as being interconnected and interdependent, to help put the learner at the centre of the learning process (Crompton, 2013a). Bearing these premises in mind, this study wishes to integrate mobile technology in the learning of English as a support tool as this is becoming broadly used in society. Also, as in the past and as was described in the previous sections, it is society; its evolutionary potential and demands that propels for adaptation in teaching.

### **4.3 – English for Tourism as a branch of ESP**

Teaching English for Specific Purposes started around 1576 (Stevens, 1978), when the first dictionary in six languages was edited to support language learning for those who wished to travel to foreign countries<sup>8</sup>. The term English for Specific Purposes (ESP) was coined in the 1960's (Brunton, 2009) when general English courses aimed at establishing a "general level of proficiency" (Chrystal, 1995, p. 108) but did not meet the market requirements, nor the learners' demands (Stevens, 1978). It was considered that learning English should be relevant for the learner's chosen career and therefore it would be more motivating instead of learning the "whole of" the foreign language" (Stevens, 1978, p. 185). The contents of ESP are "determined by the professional needs of the learners" (Chrystal, 1995, p.108) which supports ESP's "guiding principle 'Tell me what you need English for and I will tell you the English that you need'" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 8). Therefore, for ESP "the language-using purposes of the learner are paramount" (Stevens, 1978, p. 190).

Some authors (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987) refer some reasons that account for the advent of ESP. One of them is the end of the Second World War that brought with it the

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<sup>8</sup> *Colloques ou dialogues avec un dictionnaire en six langues* by Henry Heyndricx, Antwerp, 1576 (Stevens, 1978, p. 190).

development of commerce and technology and English became the international language of these areas. The economic power of the United States of America granted English the status of international language. For trade to develop, people needed to learn the specific language of different areas. Therefore, the learners' special needs contributed towards language teaching becoming customised for different situations, according to the communicative purpose it was needed for in different specialist areas (for commerce; engineering; medical purposes, among others).

Another reason for the emergence of ESP was a "revolution in Linguistics" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 7) as there was a shift in the focus of Linguistics from describing the rules of English use, that is, grammar, to studying "how language is used in real communication" (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 7) because several people wanted to learn English but they knew exactly what they wanted to learn. This new trend in Linguistics acknowledged a difference between written and spoken English in different contexts (in engineering, medicine and commerce, for example).

The third reason for the rise of ESP, referred by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), was the development in educational psychology. This sustained that the learner was the centre of the teaching process and his/her motivations and specific learning needs required specific approaches to teaching.

These reasons help understand why English for specific purposes emerged. Nevertheless, the demand for English for specific purposes continues to increase and expand throughout the world (Ahmed, 2014) due to its principle of helping learners attain specific goals which vary considerably.

For ESP, some people need to learn English not because they have interest in English language itself, but because they need to perform specific tasks in English. Some examples of these tasks are studying other specialist subjects, that are taught or have books written in English, or for their jobs, as it is the case of people who work in the Tourism industry (Robinson, 1989).

According to these premises, English for Tourism is, therefore, a branch of English for Specific Purposes that encompasses teaching English to people who will work in the tourist industry, as hotel managers, travel agents, tour guides, among others. The main focus for teaching in this sector is language in use as well as vocabulary related to Tourism and cultural

aspects (Ruiz, 2004; Simion, 2012). The latter are particularly important so that when dealing with tourists from different nationalities students are aware of cultural issues, differences and preferences. Another important aspect is to allow students to learn about their own country in authentic contexts, in order to increase the students' awareness of the environment that surrounds them and their own culture (Hsu & Lee, 2011; Laine & Joy, 2009).

In order to allow students to interact, communicative competences need to be developed (Richards, 2006). For this purpose, different principles need to be taken into consideration. First, the goal for using language needs to be clear. According to Richards (2006), the ability to produce sentences in a language needs to be developed (such as parts of speech, tenses and clauses). However, having grammatical competence is not enough to use language because people can master grammar rules and still be unsuccessful in establishing meaningful communication.

Communicative competence presupposes, according to the same author (Richards, 2006):

- Knowing how to use language for different purposes and functions;
- Being able to vary the use of language according to the setting and participants (e.g. using formal or informal speech; using appropriate language in written and oral forms);
- Being able to produce and understand different types of texts (e.g. conversations, narratives, reports);
- Being able to know how to maintain communication despite having language knowledge limitations (by using different communication strategies).

For these reasons, it is understandable that there is much more in communication than simply knowing grammar rules. In the case of the present study, there are situations where there are grammatically well built sentences yet meaning is not clearly conveyed, which impairs communication.

The second principle which is important in using language for communicative purposes is how learners actually learn the language. As was previously stated, language learning was formerly understood as mastery of grammatical competence through the formation of habits. At that time, errors were meant to be avoided in controlled settings because students memorised dialogues and performed drills. For communicative purposes, however errors are normal and are seen as being part of language use itself which can be corrected by:

- Interacting with other language users and not only through teacher control;
- Creating meaning in a collaborative way;
- Creating interactions with language with a specific purpose and in a meaningful way instead of drilling;
- Negotiating meaning as the learner and the interlocutor arrive at an understanding of what is being said;
- Learning through feedback that is given while using the language, therefore they understand whether the message is clearly put through or not and may rephrase and self-correct possible mistakes;
- Paying attention to the language heard and incorporating new forms, in order to develop their own communicative competence. By doing so the learner is much more responsible for his or her learning;
- Trying and experimenting different ways of saying things.

For these same reasons, the present study does not penalise students' mistakes in their assignments as documents are used in their original format to allow for an analysis of what they do during the routine of the semester. Analysing documents produced during routine tasks comprehends accepting errors (Flick, 2009). No error analysis is carried out as the purpose of the work is not to analyse students' errors but to understand how they use language in different communicative settings (in written form, in this case) after having been through language learning activities both in and outside the classroom context and through their mobile devices.

The third principle that underlies communicative language teaching and learning, according to Richards (2006), are the activities developed with learners. This approach gives importance to drills and memorisation but also to role playing, to pair and group work as well as project work to develop language learning.

For these same reasons, the work developed with the students involved in the case study portrays interactions between two or more participants as if they were role playing real life situations, according to the knowledge acquired.

As language classes for communicative purposes presuppose more interaction, more fluidity as well as spontaneity from the student, this leads to the final principle of this approach,

which is the role of teachers and students in the classroom. Students need to be cooperative as they need to be involved in activities. Although some work is individual in the sense that it is the student who is building knowledge and feeling for the language, students cannot be individualistic in class as they are expected to interact with other language learners. They need to listen to others, and not only to the teacher, to be able to negotiate meaning. In this way, they become more responsible for their own learning process. Teachers, on the other hand, become facilitators of communicative and language learning situations. The teacher becomes a monitor of language use in class instead of being the only model to follow.

#### **4.4 – Learning with mobile devices**

The new challenges education faces with mobile devices makes it imperative that educational strategies be theoretically backed while, at the same time, inclusive of the learner's everyday practices. Although many students use social networking sites such as Facebook, they are not used to using Web 2.0 tools in educational contexts (Liburd et al., 2014).

Learning through social network sites like Facebook has its roots in social constructivism which is an educational philosophy built from other learning theories (e.g. Piaget, Vygotsky) and is, in broad terms, cognitive and social learning where the learner, upon his experiences and motivations, constructs knowledge and meaning (Wankel & Blessinger, 2013). That is, learning is built from the interaction of the learner and his social context in an active process of constructing knowledge. The objective of learning is not to acquire knowledge but to build it. Therefore, teaching is a way of facilitating the learning process instead of a way of providing knowledge (Coutinho, 2005).

The social networks are places of social contact where knowledge and experiences are shared and technology serves as the medium for accessing them. Connectivism, developed by George Siemens, is a theory that describes the characteristics of learning in the current times. The core principles of Connectivism, according to Siemens (2006, p. 31), are:

- i. Learning and knowledge require diversity of opinions to present the whole . . . and to permit selection of the best approach;



- ii. Learning is a network formation process of connecting specialized nodes or information sources;
- iii. Knowledge rests in networks;
- iv. Knowledge may reside in non-human appliances, and learning is enabled/facilitated by technology;
- v. Capacity to know more is more critical than what is currently known;
- vi. Learning and knowing are constant, ongoing processes (not end states or products);
- vii. Ability to see connections and recognize patterns and make sense between fields, ideas, and concepts is the core skill for individuals today;
- viii. Currency (accurate, up-to-date knowledge) is the intent of all connectivist learning activities;
- ix. Decision-making is learning. Choosing what to learn and the meaning of incoming information is seen through the lens of a shifting reality. While there is a right answer now, it may be wrong tomorrow due to alterations in the information climate affecting the decision.

The same author postulates that our capacity for learning is tremendous and when learning is “seen as a function of ecology, diverse options and opportunities are required”. Therefore, the context where learning occurs is crucial because

as a function of the environment, the learner forages for knowledge when and where it is needed. Real life, not theory, drives this learning type. [This type of learning is described by Siemens as Accretion] . . . Accretion learning is the constant activity of our work and life. We gain new insights from conversations, from a workshop, or an article. We gain experience through our reflection on failed (or successful) projects. We connect and bring together numerous elements and activities, constantly shaping and creating our understanding and knowledge” (Siemens, 2006, p. 35).

Accretion learning is, therefore, the most suitable in contemporary society because knowledge is ever-growing and the most important aspect in learning is the capacity to continue to learn more than what is actually known (Siemens, 2003).

To facilitate knowledge construction, electronic devices can be used. Learning through electronic devices, namely distance education, is not a new concept. In the past, distance education tried to respond to training needs because there were very noticeable geographical barriers to allow access to education. E-Learning has also had a remarkable influence on

learners’ education. However, this was considered a “tethered” learning solution (Kukulskahulme, Traxler, & Pettit, 2007, p. 55) as students need to be in a fixed location to learn, as is portrayed in Figure 4.1 below:

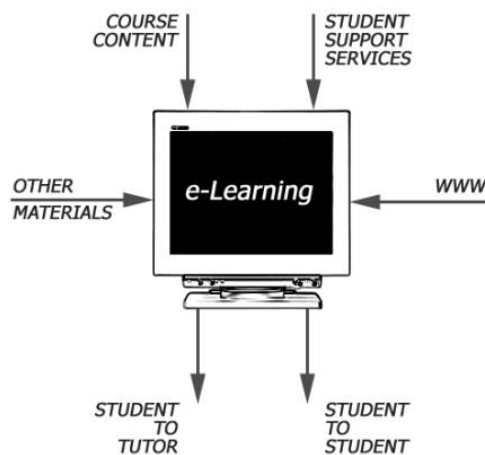


Figure 4.1 – Wired Virtual Learning Environment of Today

Source: Keegan (2002, p. 16)

In the first decade of the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the use of mobile devices and wireless access to the World Wide Web changed the landscape of communication in business and society as a whole. It is, then, not surprising that teachers explored them (Muilenburg & Berge, 2013) as they provide unique affordances for learning. They make education more accessible anywhere and anytime through wireless devices, as is shown in Figure 4.2.

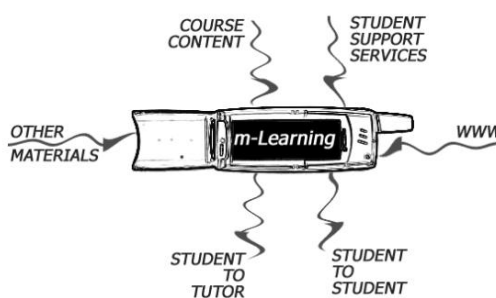


Figure 4.2 – Wireless Virtual Learning Environment of Tomorrow

Source: Keegan (2002, p. 16)

Mobile devices are widely owned and are defined as “any [technological] device that is small, autonomous and unobtrusive enough to accompany us in every moment and can be

used for educational purposes” (Trifonova, Knapp, Ronchetti, & Gamper, 2004, p. 3). Examples of mobile devices are Personal Digital Assistant (PDA), tablets, smartphones, among others.

These technological devices, besides allowing for the development of business and communication, also brought changes for students. The latter have become radically different from students in the past. They are not the people for which our educational system was designed (Prensky, 2001). The difference in students, which is identified by Prensky, refers to a new generation of young people who have widespread access to digital technologies, in recent decades, from kindergarten through college (Belanger, 2005; Brett, 2011; Chen & Li, 2010). This has led to access anytime, anywhere to information and to educational tools which are highly interactive.

Prensky states that in 2001 “college grads have spent less than 5,000 hours of their lives reading and over 10,000 hours playing video games” (Prensky, 2001, p. 1). Therefore, the students who make up the present classes are highly skilled in the use of technology, they are used to dealing with computer games, the Internet and, mobile phones, among others as these have been part of their lives and some use them to improve their learning capacities. Therefore, “they learn and process information differently . . . [they are] digital natives” who “speak” the digital language of these devices and the rest of the digital language users are “digital immigrants” who will have an “accent” as all immigrants do, that is, they will always have a “foot in the past”, as Prensky (2001, p. 1) sustains. More recently, Prensky prepones that the digital world can facilitate the development of wisdom and wise decision making, that is, “making wiser decisions because one is enhanced by technology” (Prensky, 2009, p. 3).

Today’s students prefer leisure learning because interactivity allows for the acquiring of knowledge through the Web and through their acquaintances, from no matter where in the world, because their vision of reality is made from the connections and networking they establish through the Internet (Velasco, 2010).

For the above mentioned reasons, it is necessary to meet students’ interests as they are used to multi-tasking and receiving information in a fast way; to instant gratification and to frequent rewarding, besides, today’s students are those who prefer playing games to “serious work” (Prensky, 2001), they enjoy problem-solving and participating “in social groups that

supply meaning and purpose to goals, interpretations, practice, explanations, debriefing, and feedback, conditions necessary for deep learning from experience” (Gee, 2008, p. 37).

As is described in the literature on this matter, the new students have new attitudes, as technology users, and they need to be understood, as well as the different study patterns they have as a new audience that they are (Kukulka-Hulme, 2005). This means that today’s teachers, who have a different “language” (from the digital one), are teaching people who have a very different “native language”. Therefore, young and less young teachers need to try to understand the new students and to grasp the possibilities of the new technologies (Kukulka-Hulme, 2005) to try to solve educational problems or increase student performance (Crompton, 2013a).

After having understood the different students that technology has moulded, there is a need to understand how the learning process is adapting to these new students. As technological advancement is undeniable, and its ownership is widespread, a new way of learning has also emerged: Mobile Learning. However, research in this area is still at its threshold. An example of its short existence is that only during 2005 was it recognised as a term (Crompton, 2013a) and in the educational setting there is still no conclusive definition of it (Muilenburg & Berge, 2013).

The first definitions of Mobile Learning accounted it as being “elearning through mobile computational devices” (Palms, Windows CE machines, or digital cell phones) (Quinn, 2000) and since then several attempts have been made to decide which features to include in its definition (Crompton, 2013a).

Crompton (2013a) gives an overview of its evolution from its initial focus to 2013. The initial focus was in the context of learning, as Vavoula et al. (2005) define it as “any sort of learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed, predetermined location, or learning that happens when the learner takes advantage of the learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies” (p. 6).

Mobile learning has also had technology centred definitions as Traxler’s (2005) “any educational provision where the sole or dominant technologies are handheld or palmtop devices” (p. 262). However, later definitions focus on the mobility of the learner (Sharples, 2006) and on the informal aspects of m-learning (Fallahkhair, Pemberton, & Griffiths, 2007).

In 2006, Winters states that Mobile Learning, as a concept, is “ill-defined; it seems to be all

things to all people” (Winters, 2006, p. 5). Later, in 2007, Mobile Learning was defined as “the process of coming to know through continuous conversations across multiple contexts amongst people and interactive technologies” (Sharples, Taylor, & Vavoula, 2007, p. 22). This definition was considered confusing because of the word conversations which may lead to interpret m-learning as pertaining to oral interaction only (Crompton, 2013a).

Mobile learning is considered learning mediated via handheld devices and potentially available anytime, anywhere, in real contexts and makes the learning experience more appealing, motivating and interesting as students learn on the move. This learning may be both formal or informal (Kukulka-Hulme & Shield, 2007; Vinci & Cucchi, 2007).

Quinn (2011) sustains that Mobile Learning is about performance. It is not about being able to do Mobile Learning; it is about enabling people to perform in their job more effectively.

In 2013, m-learning is viewed as having had three general phases. In the first, the focus was on devices; the second, on the learning outside the classroom and the third, the focus on the learner (Cochrane, 2013).

Due to the different perspectives on m-learning, for the purpose of this work a definition of it had to be adopted and Quinn’s enabling job performance definition and Crompton’s (2013a) are transversal to this work. Crompton (2013a) postulates that m-learning is “learning across multiple contexts, through social and content interactions, using personal electronic devices” (p. 4).

The meaning of context situates m-learning in “formal, self-directed, and spontaneous learning, as well as learning that is context aware and context neutral” (Crompton, 2013a, p. 4). In this sense, learning can occur according to the students’ own will, spontaneously or directed by teachers in both class or outside class, the physical environment being included in the learning experience or not. Ultimately, it is the aim of this study to help students perform more effectively in their future jobs.

The case study developed comprises both optional and directed learning experiences mediated by students’ handheld devices, not only in the academic setting but also anywhere the students wish. Besides, in some activities, the surrounding environment is necessary to encapsulate the experience but in other situations, context is irrelevant.

After having portrayed the student setting as well as the learning setting definitions, it is

important to understand the role of one of the facilitators of the learning process: the teacher. In order to develop an effective educational environment new skills are required of teachers; new pedagogies and digitally communicative new practices (Wagner, 2005). It is vital to allow learners to experience reality allowing it to permeate their learning because the “m-learning revolution is underway” (Cochrane, 2005, p.156), and it is transforming the educational setting (Alexander, 2004). Nevertheless, pedagogical practices are still very localised (Kukulka-Hulme, 2005), therefore, there is a growing need for more research in this area.

There is engagement in mobile content production from both students and teachers (Kukulka-Hulme et al., 2007) but Kukulka-Hulme (2005) calls the attention of researchers on m-learning to the fact that “there is no agreed method and there are no widely used novel tools for collecting evaluation data” (p. 4).

As m-learning started gaining momentum, several studies were conducted to verify the efficacy of using mobile devices as a learning and marking tool (Chen, Chang, & Wang, 2008; Thornton & Houser, 2005; Tsai, Tsai, & Hwang, 2010) and different academic institutions worldwide have been using Mobile Learning. At its threshold are Osaka Jogakuin College, in Japan, which provided Mobile Learning devices (iPods) to their students as well as Duke University (McCarty, 2005).

Montclair State University also introduced ‘MSU Campus Connect’, a programme that delivers communications and mobile services through the student’s cell phone. All freshmen received a phone with Mobile Learning tools; Wake Forest implemented the ‘MobileU’ program to test the efficacy of Pocket PC phones on campus; Apple Inc. also works with schools to implement mobile approaches in learning; and a last example of Mobile Learning practices is the International Academy of Design & Technology Online that allows access to features of the IADTOnline virtual campus with varied learning information, such as video and podcasts (Moustakas, Oliveira, Costa, & Roberto, 2012).

Mobile learning has attracted Higher Education (HE) teachers and learners worldwide. Therefore, there have been opportunities to re-think and re-design teaching and learning from the earliest stages of the development of digital technologies (Daanen & Facer, 2007). Mobile devices allow learning in everyday life situations, providing a flourishing ground for the conception of a new work setting, creating a personal ecology which meets learning

needs (Kukulka-Hulme, 2013; Luckin et al., 2010). Besides the personal benefits of m-learning, literature asserts that it will also benefit HE organisations, as it will entice more enrolments and allow students from different age groups to have access to materials (Ally & Prieto-Blázquez, 2014). As Mobile Learning is an emergent paradigm in intense development, Portuguese HE organisations must become aware of it as well.

Besides the devices which are mobile, and which allow students to have mobility in their learning, social networks also entice them to learn anytime, anywhere because learning opportunities are “ubiquitous” (Burbules, 2011). Social networks are made of people connected by different types of relations (friendship; family, shared interests, ...) and they allow that these relationships be made more visible than they are in our daily routine, as friends can know which friends they have in common with other people, for example, through Facebook. In 2013 it was estimated that more than 1.2 billion people used Facebook regularly and that more people are turning to social media for educational purposes than to other mediums like television (Johnson, Becker, Estrada, & Freeman, 2014).

For educational purposes, the social network sites gather people; allow them to share information and experiences and to participate in a community that shares the same purpose and they can reach as close as the classroom and as far as the family nucleus, or the community (Camacho, 2012; Martínez & Suñé, 2011). Social media is also “exciting for higher Education” because of its “inherent public aspect either by posting a video, image, or a text response in a conversation, anyone in the social network can engage with the content . . . and [create] opportunities for . . . collective thinking and action” (Johnson et al., 2014, p. 9). Besides, it is a space for interaction and communication that should be taken advantage of for educational purposes, for example, through synchronous and asynchronous communication students can learn in an informal, independent and autonomous way through the access to materials that are of interest for a specific subject (e.g. English), and it is also crucial that education organisations help students integrate social networks in their studies and make students understand how they can take advantage of them for their future (Castañeda & Gutierrez, 2010).

#### **4.4.1 – Mobile assisted language learning**

As previously mentioned, mobile devices are owned extensively and wireless access is also on the increase therefore, they are also becoming common in the support of language learning as their features (such as Internet access, SMS text-messaging, camera, and video-recording) facilitate communicative language practice; access to authentic content, and task completion (Chinnery, 2006).

Where the use of Mobile Learning in language learning is concerned, many authors refer to its benefits because it allows for the development of activities that are “short, for filling the gaps of waiting time; simple and with added value; which are delivered just in time/place” (Trifonova et al., 2004, p. 9).

In the European Academy of Bolzano, for example, a mobile language learning system was developed and it grants access from Personal Digital Assistants (PDAs) to the learning materials of a language learning platform a (ELDIT) (Trifonova et al., 2004). Another language project using mobile devices is INLET that provided introductory Greek phrases by means of SMS for tourists at the Olympic Games, in 2004. This project promoted ubiquitous and just-in-time contextualised language (Pincas, 2004).

Levy and Kennedy (2005) also report favourable evaluation and outcomes in learning Italian via mobile SMS within an Australian university context; Thornton & Houser, (2005) use e-mail and SMS to conduct English lessons in Japan, on a weekly basis, introducing words and daily mini lessons.

By 2006, Chinnery (2006) predicted that m-learning was going to become a “fashionable channel for language study” and indeed it did as years later research proliferated in this field (Kukulka-Hulme, 2013). Kukulka-Hulme and Shield (2007) review speaking and listening practice in synchronous and asynchronous interaction; Fallahkhair et al. (2007) used mobile phones and interactive television to develop language learning. Other studies regarding English language learning among Tourism students through mobile devices report that there are advantages regarding vocabulary retention and grammar learning (Hsu & Lee, 2011).

Cavus and Ibrahim (2009) used SMS to support learning of technical words; Aamri & Suleiman (2011) also researched the use and practices of cell phones in the process of learning the English language in Sultan Qaboos University, among freshmen and conclude



that these devices are used, however in a limited way. Moura (2011) reports several case studies using mobile devices for language learning with students of different schools in Portugal.

From 2013 through 2015, the “English in Action” (Walsh et al., 2013) model, in Bangladesh, aims to use mobile phones with thousands of teachers to provide continuing professional development to improve their communicative language as well as with millions of students to increase their English language proficiency with the purpose of providing them with greater social and economic opportunities in the future (Walsh et al., 2013).

Given the literature on research on mobile assisted language learning, it is nevertheless necessary to enlarge this research area because, as some studies conclude, although students are proficient in using mobile devices for entertainment purposes, they are not necessarily acquainted with their use for educational purposes (Demouy, Kan, Eardley, & Kukulska-Hulme, 2013; Simon & Fell, 2012). Furthermore, it is still to be widely explored how m-learning is perceived, by second language learners, as an effective learning tool (Chen, 2013).

In 2012, Quinn (2012) demonstrates just how powerful mobile devices have become and the benefits that mobile devices offer to higher education. Besides, he argues that

Mobile has matured and stabilized to the point where it now makes sense to understand, plan and start developing mobile solutions. What we have on tap is the opportunity to revisit the fundamentals of the learning experience and use technology to come closer to the ideals we would like to achieve (pp. 2-3).

In the case of this research, the aim is to help students become self-reliant and to continue to learn in diverse professional and social contexts over a lifetime (Kukulska-Hulme, 2013). Thus, this research is aimed at contributing to unveil some information about the Portuguese reality regarding language empowerment through mobile devices, and in this way contribute towards the Mobile Learning research area in this country. Besides, as previously mentioned, the WTO focuses on the importance of Information Technology in Tourism as a competitive tool at the international level and that research should focus on diverse approaches to investigation, based on contributions from different disciplines. This is the scope under which this research project falls. It is our aim to gather the insight potential of a Linguistic analysis of Theme and Rheme, as propounded by Systemic Functional Linguistics, which

shows how knowledge is appropriated by students and used in context. The language used by students is under the broad theme of Tourism which benefits from the use of technology as a means to learn anytime, anywhere.

In the case of this work, one of the outputs were texts produced by students, which will be further analysed in chapter 7, as well as a mobile application, in English, about the Port wine, landscape and places to visit (Appendix 1). The development of mobile applications has been referred to as a learning practice in some IT courses (Mahmoud & Popowicz, 2010; Teng & Helps, 2010) as a knowledge sharing tool that was developed through knowledge sharing skills; team work; listening; negotiation of contents to be integrated and by communicating the contents using multimedia technology. This is a way to prepare students for the market demands as future application developers as is recognised that “as mobile devices have become more powerful and pervasive, mobile computing has become more important” (Teng & Helps, 2010, p. 471). However, literature was not found that supported the development of applications by similar groups to this study for analogous purposes. Usually, already made applications are used for language learning purposes (Shih, Papa, & Cheng, 2013).

One of the outcomes of this work combines the elaboration of an application<sup>9</sup> by the students for Tourism purposes. This application aims at helping students put their knowledge into practice and to be more prepared for the job market as well. The methodology employed is further developed in chapter 5.

Mobile technologies were also used because they are considered a means of helping HE institutions become more competitive as they prepare students in using the most up to date learning tools. Students benefit from the fact that they become more competitive, themselves as they are being trained for a market which is in constant evolution and adaptation to the new and flourishing technologies.

It is the aim of this work to contribute to a better understanding of the extent to which Mobile Learning can enhance the English language learning experience for Tourism students from

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<sup>9</sup> The App is available for the Android market in the Android Play Store under the name: “Douro & Port”. This was a sponsorship by the company map2app (<http://www.map2app.com/>).

a case study developed in Portugal. In order to implement Mobile Learning with these students it is necessary to be aware of both technical possibilities and student's acceptance of technology. This will be developed in chapter 7.

#### **4.4.2 – Mobile devices that enhance Tourism experiences**

As this work focuses on Tourism students, it is appropriate to understand how the use of mobile technologies has also proliferated in the Tourism area. Therefore, a short summary of research is presented next.

Research accounts for a wide use of technology in the Tourism area and large enterprises such as airlines and accommodation chains have been at the forefront in adopting technology in the industry (Sheldon, 1997). Technology allows “virtual” (on the Internet), “imaginative” (phone, radio or television) or “corporeal” (along the Tourism infrastructures) travel (Urry, 2001). Besides, technology and the Internet have transformed the nature of Tourism itself as consumers search for destinations worldwide, more easily (Buhalis & Wagner, 2013) and mobile technologies allow tourists to retrieve information anytime, anywhere (Green, 2002). Consumers have also become more informed; more sophisticated and are more difficult to please, they are a “new breed of tourist consumers” (Gretzel, Fesenmaier, & O’Leary, 2006, p. 9), they are “online travellers” (Buhalis & Wagner, 2013, p. 119) who search the Web to find their holiday.

These factors require a re-engineering of marketing Tourism destinations; of Tourism products (Buhalis & Law, 2008) and of Web presence of destinations (Buhalis & Wagner, 2013). Therefore, social media, location based and mobile empowered (SoLoMo) marketing will be a crucial success factor for destinations as well as the development of mobile technologies (e.g. mobile apps and sites) (Buhalis & Wagner, 2013).

Tussyadiah and Fesenmaier (2009) mention that technology enhances and adds value to tourist experiences. This is possible because, for example, videos and images on the Web represent the tourist destinations and help mediate the tourist experience. Virtual reality, videos, blogs, social networking sites, personal photos and videos shared on the different social media, among other types of communication, enable people to travel in an imaginary way, creating mental pleasure without actually moving physically and “producing,

commenting, and classifying these media have become just as important as the more passive tasks of searching, reading, watching, and listening” (Johnson et al., 2014, p. 8).

On the other hand, Internet technologies also help physical travel. They help in the different stages of Tourism consumption (Gretzel et al., 2006), as is shown in Figure 4.3.

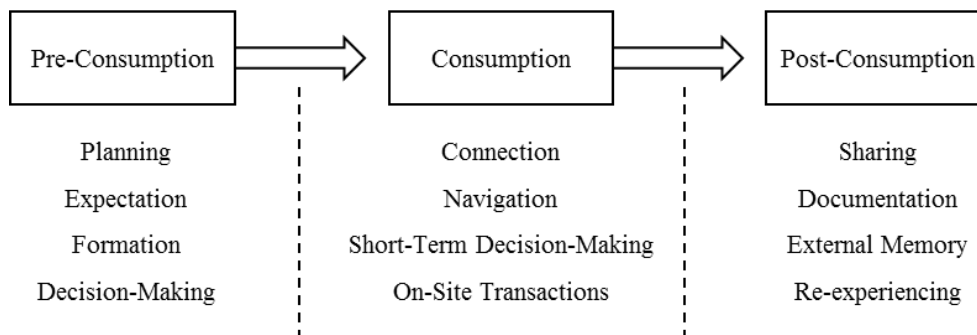


Figure 4.3 – Communication and Information Needs in the Three Stages of Tourism Consumption

Source: Gretzel et al. (2006, p. 10)

Technologies help in the pre-consumption stage (Gretzel et al., 2006) as they support the collection of information to plan the trip; to compare possible destinations and help decide which one to choose. Afterwards, it also helps contact the service providers to arrange the trip itself. During the travel experience, technology also helps by providing specific information which is relevant at a specific place and moment (for example information about food and beverages).

Mobile devices and the Internet also allow real time communication of experiences through photos shared at the moment the experience is being lived, as sharing these experiences is no longer time or space bound. This simultaneous and unbounded sharing of one’s experiences has led to changes in the way people experience Tourism themselves (Green, 2002) how they share it and in how they can promote a particular destination (or not).

Technologies can also provide city guidance as, for example, mobile tourist guides such as Just in Time Tourist<sup>10</sup>; INTRIGUE (Ardissono, Goy, Petrone, & Torasso, 2003) and P-Tour (Maruyama, Shibata, Murata, Yasumoto, & Ito, 2004) help develop tourist experiences while

<sup>10</sup> <http://www.jitt.travel/>

they are on site and on the move in different locations worldwide as navigational assistants (Kenteris, Gavalas, & Economou, 2008; Tussyadiah & Fesenmaier, 2009).

Another way of enriching tourist experiences through technology is the advent of Smart cities that involve people to manage the city resources with their devices and co-create experiences in cities that are technologically prepared for such (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013). Besides being an outdoor help, technology also supports indoors activities, namely in museums (Cabrera et al., 2005; Damala, 2007; Semper & Spasojevic, 2002; Solaiman & Abuelrub, 2010; Sung, Hou, Liu, & Chang, 2010; Vavoula, Sharples, Rudman, Meek, & Lonsdale, 2009; Zancanaro, Stock, & Alfaro, 2003). For example, the use of mobile devices can help increase the duration of visits to these institutions (Semper & Spasojevic, 2002). This increase occurs before and after visits, to the extent that before actually going to a museum, activities can be made available that guide visitors and, after the visit, various opportunities for reflection and exploration of ideas related to what was seen and experienced *in loco* may be offered.

Another example is a study (Damala, 2007) about the design principles of mobile guides in museums, which mentions that these are the ideal environment for doing tests with educational and entertainment mobile applications, since the museums promote the combination of enjoyment and interpretation of historical objects in amenable way. The same study observes that mobile guides are a form of advantageous interpretation compared with more “traditional” media, insofar as they allow access to necessary, accurate and contextualised information, every time it is needed.

From these examples it is possible to understand that mobile technologies allow for the implementation of applications tailored to the needs of each user, through customised interfaces; contextualised and multimodal services; dynamic content adaptation, among many other possibilities that help interpret the contents of the museums (Brelot, Cotarmanac’h, Damala, & Kockelcorn, 2005). Besides, in museums the user is mobile as well as technology, which is one of the main principles of learning through mobile devices (Sharples, Taylor, & Vavoula, 2005).

After having planned the Tourism experience (pre-consumption stage) and actually experiencing it (consumption stage), the last phase arises; that of documenting, sharing and reliving it in personal websites, for example, and the tourists, once again, do it using

technologies (Gretzel et al., 2006). This stage is also very important in the building of tourist experiences as, by telling other people stories about what was lived, it helps make the experience itself more memorable and meaningful. This is possible because as a story is retold, isolated fragments of information that were lived make sense in different storytelling settings and according to different listeners. Therefore, by remembering and adapting the lived experiences, the narration changes, as well as the meaning of the travel experience itself can change (as can be seen in Figure 4.4).

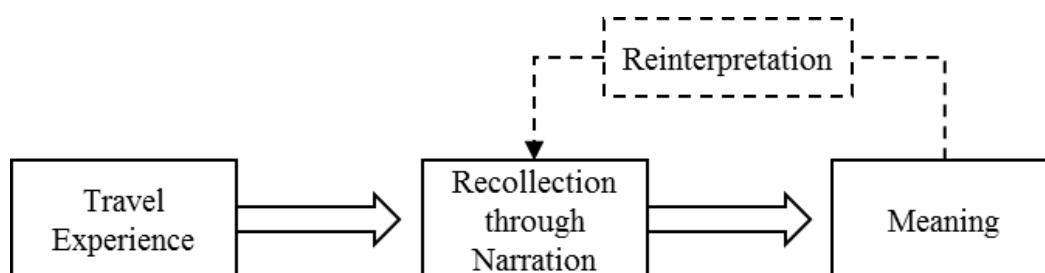


Figure 4.4 – The Role of Stories in the Process of Deriving Meaning from Travel Experiences

Source: Gretzel et al. (2006, p. 16)

From the previously stated examples of the use and importance of technology in the Tourism area, it is possible to understand how used to technology the area is and how diversified the technological offer for tourists is. Therefore, Tourism student education also needs to prepare students for these tools as future professionals. From these premises, the researcher chose to use mobile devices as a facilitating and complimentary tool for language learning, seeking to improve and strengthen the quality and effectiveness of training.

#### 4.4.3 – Planning Mobile Learning: Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology

Several models have been developed to examine the acceptance and intention to adopt new technologies, by individuals, as far as technology is concerned. One of them is the Unified Theory of Acceptance and use of Technology (UTAUT) which was proposed by Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis (2003). This model can be a useful tool for organisations who wish to improve their productivity with the introduction of technology. As technology is to be

used by employers, if organisations understand what affects the employers' behaviour regarding those technologies is, it allows them to think about and implement strategies (e.g. training) that will make the use of technology more effective and productive. It has been used, for example, in as different areas as in mobile banking (Zhou, Lu, & Wang, 2010) and information technologies in the health sector (Kijisanayotin, Pannarunothai, & Speedie, 2009).

This model has also been adjusted for the introduction of technology in the field of education with adaptations for this reality (Akbar, 2013; Donaldson, 2011; Thomas, Singh, & Gaffar, 2013; Yu-Lung, Yu-Hui, & Pei-Chi, 2008). For example, if the technology to be introduced is mobile technology, then the questions to be addressed in a survey need to be adapted to this premise. If the audience is to be students or teachers, the questions also need to be adapted to these, which is the case of the present research and the examples above. The adaptations made in this work are further explained in chapter 5.

There have been several studies using the assumptions of UTAUT to help understand the reality of the context where mobile technologies are intended to be used. For example, Donaldson's (2011) study demonstrates the acceptability of the use of mobile devices in an institution of higher education. The results of this study can be helpful for teachers and HE organisations responsible staff to adjust their training strategies, providing more up to date, student oriented language (and not only) learning and use strategies.

UTAUT has the ability to explain about 70% of behaviour intention to use technology systems (Venkatesh et al., 2003). Other researchers, however, find lower explanatory percentages (Adell, 2009; Al-Gahtani, Hubona, & Wang, 2007; Wang & Shih, 2009) which helps explain the diverse results, regarding the different constructs of UTAUT, as exemplified below.

The model is grounded on eight technology acceptance models. To be precise, it derives from the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM), the Motivational Model, the Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB), a model that combines TAM and TPB, the model of Personal Computer Utilization, the Innovation Diffusion Theory and the Social Cognitive Theory (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

Venkatesh et al. (2003) compared the eight referred models in an empirical study and formulated a unified model (UTAUT) which involves technology and users' characteristics.

Its principle is that behavioural intention is a predictor of technology use behaviour as well as facilitating conditions. Behavioural intention derives from three different constructs (that are based on the eight technology adoption models mentioned), as shown in Figure 4.5.

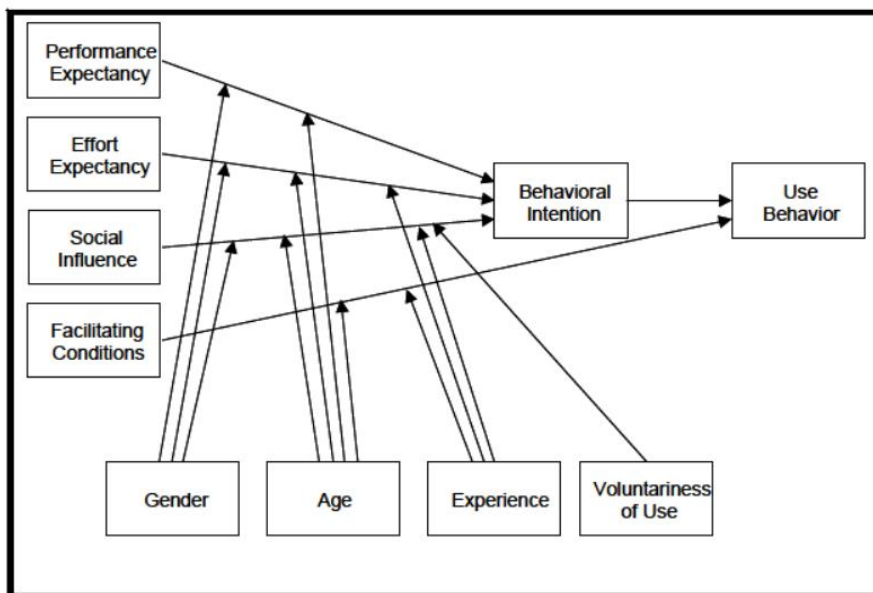


Figure 4.5 – UTAUT model

Source: (Venkatesh et al., 2003, p. 445)

The three constructs considered as direct determinants of Behaviour Intention to use technology are Performance Expectancy (PE); Effort Expectancy (EE) and Social Influence (SI). The fourth construct of the model (Facilitating Conditions) is only a direct determinant of Use Behaviour, along with Behavioural Intention (Venkatesh et al., 2003).

For these reasons, only the three first constructs were taken into consideration in the survey analysis which is further developed in chapter 5, as this study aims at understanding behaviour intention to use mobile technology for learning purposes and not actual use behaviour.

In particular, the four constructs are (Venkatesh et al., 2003):

- i) Performance Expectancy that is the degree to which individuals believe that using a system will bring them job performance gains. This is the strongest predictor of intention. It is also significant in both mandatory and voluntary settings, according to UTAUT premises (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000; Venkatesh et al.,



2003). Several studies account for PE as a significant predictor of behaviour (Al-Gahtani et al., 2007; Nassuora, 2012; Wang & Shih, 2009).

As far as performance expectancy is concerned, regarding Mobile Learning, it needs to be understood as individuals finding it useful for their teaching/learning activities. Some studies find performance expectancy a significant predictor of behaviour (Alawadhi & Morris, 2008; Donaldson, 2011), while others found it as not influencing behaviour intention (Cheng, Yu, Huang, Yu, & Yu, 2011);

- ii) The second UTAUT construct is Effort Expectancy which is the degree of ease perceived in the use of technology. This construct is also significant in voluntary and mandatory settings. It is significant as difficulties in dealing with technology might be perceived. However, it becomes non-significant with usage (Plouffe, Hulland, & Vandebosch, 2001; Venkatesh et al., 2003). Some studies, however, found that effort is not a significant predictor of intention (Al-Gahtani et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2011; Donaldson, 2011; Raman et al., 2014), while other studies find this construct as significant predictor of behaviour intention (Jairak, Praneetpolgrang, & Mekhabunchakij, 2009; Nassuora, 2012).
- iii) Social Influence is the third UTAUT construct which is the extent to which individuals perceive that people who are important to them believe that they should use the technology. This construct is not significant in voluntary contexts but it behaves the other way round in mandatory contexts. This too, with use, eventually becomes non-significant (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000; Venkatesh et al., 2003).

As far as social influence is concerned regarding Mobile Learning, it needs to be understood as individuals being affected by other people's opinion (e.g. teachers, colleagues, parents, etc.). Some studies support this construct as being a predictor of behaviour (Donaldson, 2011). Alawadhi and Morris' study (2008) concludes that the less experienced students are with a specific technology, the more influenced they will be by other people (Alawadhi & Morris, 2008).
- iv) The fourth UTAUT construct is Facilitating Conditions. These are the degree to which individuals perceive that the organisational and technical infrastructures, required to support the use of technology exist and therefore remove usage barriers. This construct is not considered by the model as predictor of behavioural

intention because when performance expectancy and effort expectancy constructs are present, facilitating conditions are non-significant of behaviour intention. Nevertheless, it has a direct influence on use behaviour.

As far as the importance of facilitating conditions in Mobile Learning are concerned in a literature review on mobile technologies and learning, Naismith, Lonsdale, Vavoula, and Sharples (2004) refer to the importance of these. The authors perceive facilitating conditions, such as training and support regarding this technology, as relevant for the success of mobile devices among learners.

The items used in estimating UTAUT entail the questions on the following figure.

<p><b>Performance expectancy</b></p> <p>I would find the system useful in my job.</p> <p>Using the system enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly.</p> <p>Using the system increases my productivity.</p> <p>If I use the system, I will increase my chances of getting a raise.</p>
<p><b>Effort expectancy</b></p> <p>My interaction with the system would be clear and understandable.</p> <p>It would be easy for me to become skilful at using the system.</p> <p>I would find the system easy to use.</p> <p>Learning to operate the system is easy for me.</p>
<p><b>Attitude toward using technology</b></p> <p>Using the system is a bad/good idea.</p> <p>The system makes work more interesting.</p> <p>Working with the system is fun.</p> <p>I like working with the system.</p>
<p><b>Social influence</b></p> <p>People who influence my behavior think that I should use the system.</p> <p>People who are important to me think that I should use the system.</p> <p>The senior management of this business has been helpful in the use of the system.</p> <p>In general, the organization has supported the use of the system.</p>
<p><b>Facilitating conditions</b></p> <p>I have the resources necessary to use the system.</p> <p>I have the knowledge necessary to use the system.</p> <p>The system is not compatible with other systems I use.</p> <p>A specific person (or group) is available for assistance with system difficulties.</p>
<p><b>Self-efficacy</b></p> <p>I could complete a job or task using the system...</p> <p>If there was no one around to tell me what to do as I go.</p> <p>If I could call someone for help if I got stuck.</p> <p>If I had a lot of time to complete the job for which the software was provided.</p> <p>If I had just the built-in help facility for assistance.</p>
<p><b>Anxiety</b></p> <p>I feel apprehensive about using the system.</p> <p>It scares me to think that I could lose a lot of information using the system by hitting the wrong key.</p> <p>I hesitate to use the system for fear of making mistakes I cannot correct.</p> <p>The system is somewhat intimidating to me.</p>
<p><b>Behavioral intention to use the system</b></p> <p>I intend to use the system in the next &lt;n&gt; months.</p> <p>I predict I would use the system in the next &lt;n&gt; months.</p> <p>I plan to use the system in the next &lt;n&gt; months.</p>

Figure 4.6 – Items used to measure UTAUT

Source: Venkatesh et al. (2003, p. 460)

Although attitude toward using technology, self-efficacy and anxiety are considered in the previous list, they were considered, in the same study (Venkatesh et al., 2003), not to be direct determinants of behaviour intention. Therefore, they are not considered in this study either.

Besides the four constructs, the UTAUT model also comprises four moderating variables of age, gender, experience and voluntariness of use, which are important in understanding the characteristics of different user groups. However interesting the moderating variables are to understand the difference between groups (e.g. male and female users) they were not taken into account for the study, as the present work is not meant to address the technology component alone but also the field of Linguistics and Tourism. This analysis, however, may be considered in future research.

Although from the previous review there are variations among research surveys regarding the acceptance and use of technology, these may be explained by different factors (Thomas et al., 2013). Straub, Keil, and Brenner (1997), for example, in their study that includes individuals from three countries (Switzerland, the U.S. and Japan) have postulated that there are cultural dimensions and tendencies that can affect technology acceptance. For example, in Japan, greater power distance between managers and workers may deter the latter from finding e-mail useful in their work. Other studies show that culture and country differences – in Guyana (Thomas et al., 2013); Saudi Arabia (Al-Gahtani et al., 2007), Jordan and in the U.K. (Al-Qeisi, 2009) – may influence the UTAUT research results.

Another factor that contributes towards variations among research using the UTAUT model is the variety of data analysis methods used to measure this model (Thomas et al., 2013). Some studies, for example, use structural equations (Al-Gahtani et al., 2007; Thomas et al., 2013; Yu-Lung et al., 2008) while others use regression analysis (Jairak et al., 2009; Tan, 2013). Therefore, the findings presented in this work may have different results in different countries where Tourism students and teachers are under analysis and if different data analysis methods are employed. However, this study intends to give a perception of the specific group which is composed of Tourism students in public HE institutions using the data analysis methods described in chapter 5.

#### **4.5 – Synopsis**

Language learning methods have gradually evolved as well as the materials which support language learning, in order to adapt to the constant evolution of market and learners' needs and wants, as well. This evolution ranges from traditional methods to the use of technology enhanced learning due to the importance that technology has acquired at a world wide scale. For this reason, technology, namely mobile devices, are being used as a learning enhancing strategy because they can be used anytime, anywhere. By improving their language potential, Tourism professionals can direct and enhance the tourist experience. And if learning strategies are used to broaden the students' vocabulary and language structures, Tourism can benefit, as well as tourists. Learning strategies, however, need to be carefully organised and implemented. One of the ways of verifying whether their acceptance and use is relevant is by using survey strategies (such as UTAUT) which is also adopted in the present work.

## **CHAPTER 5 | METHODOLOGY**

## **5.1 – Introduction to the methodological development of the research**

The previous chapters refer to the literature review underpinning the relevant concepts of this study. The present chapter accounts for how the study was developed as well as how its different phases were planned. Section 5.2 explains how the research design is structured so as to provide an overview of the research which is thoroughly developed in the following sections. The first step of the research was to conduct the literature review (section 5.3). After being informed by this, the problem under research that arose from the literature review is stated in section 5.4, as well as the research hypotheses that shape the present research (section 5.5). Having made the literature review, and established the research questions, the epistemology and methodology in social sciences (section 0) are analysed. Being informed of how to carry out research in this area, the chosen mixed methods research is further developed in section 5.8 and the specific methods used are specified in section 5.8.1. Each of these methods used to develop the research presuppose data collection techniques which are presented in section 5.9, these include survey by questionnaire (section 5.9.1); documents: programmes and texts produced by the students (section 5.9.2) and interviews (section 5.9.3).

In order to understand to whom the data collection was addressed, population and samples are presented in section 0. This section is subdivided, once again, according to the order of the data collection techniques: survey by questionnaire applied to students and teachers (section 5.7.1); documents: both programmes of the Higher Education Institutions (section 5.7.2) and documents produced by the students (section 5.7.3) and interviews conducted on students (section 5.7.4).

The final section presents information about the data analysis (section 5.10) of the questionnaire (section 0); and the content analysis (section 5.10.2).

## **5.2 – Structuring the research design**

The research design is the plan and the procedure for the whole research, that ranges from broad assumptions to the detailed methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2009). It enhances the decisions and steps to be taken and the sequence under which they are made (Pizam, 1994). The research design comprises the crossing of philosophical assumptions,

strategies of inquiry, as well as specific methods (Creswell, 2009). Goeldner & Ritchie (2012) describe it as the step at the heart of the research process and although different authors hold different perspectives on the number of its phases as well as on their denomination (Creswell, 2009; Hill & Hill, 2009; Pizam, 1994; United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2001; Veal, 2011), a sequential structure is undisputed. This structure, however, is not linear, therefore it does not always follow the same sequence of procedures (Veal, 2011) due to the variety of approaches to research.

As far as this research is concerned, a sequence is also followed and the research design relied on the subsequent steps:

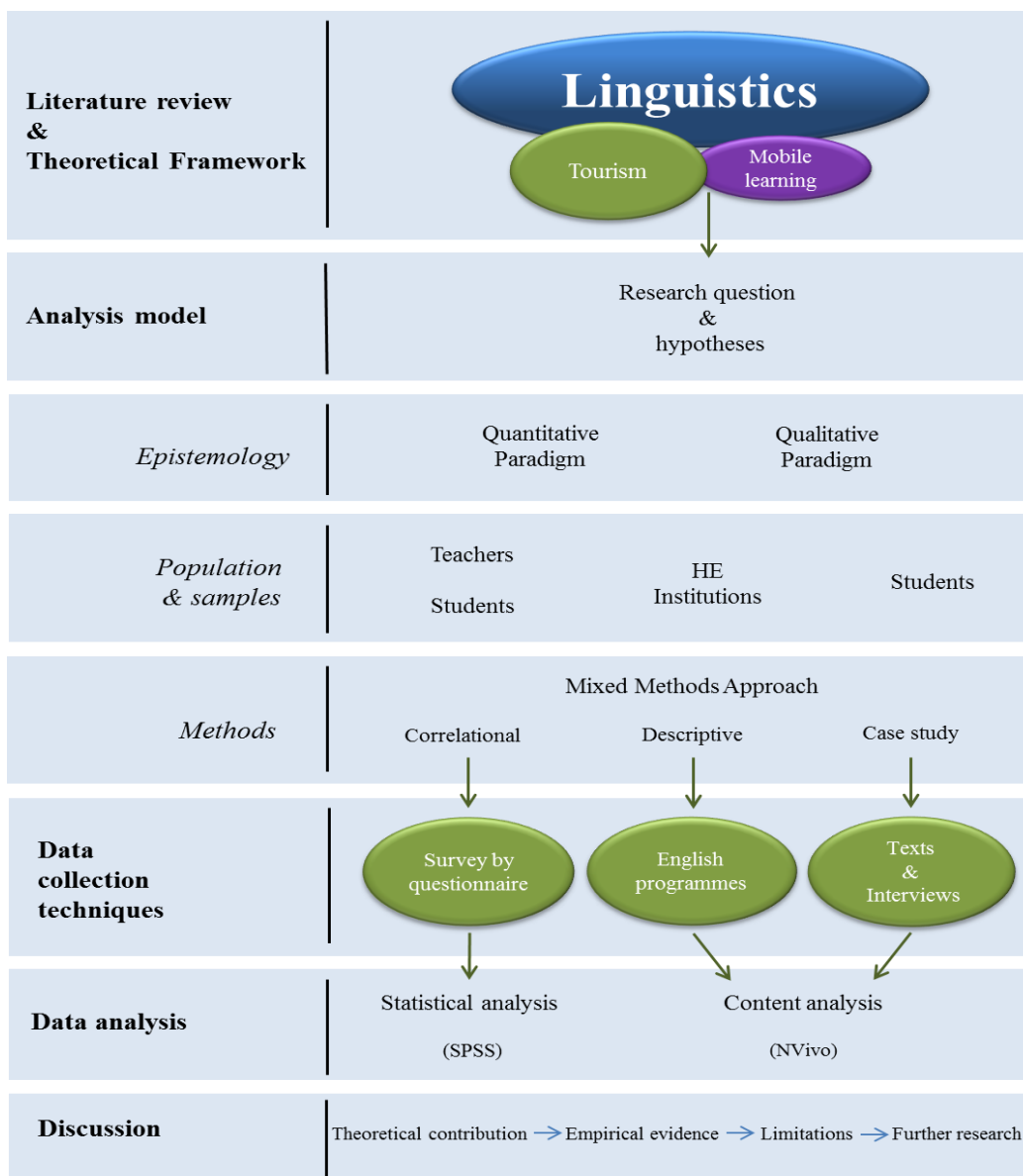


Figure 5.1 – Structure of the research



Respecting the structure of the research presented in Figure 5.1, the next sections reflect upon the different steps of a research, theoretically conceptualised, which is interwoven with a presentation of the specificities of this research.

### **5.3 – From literature review to research design**

In order to inform a research, literature review offers a reading of the essential issues and inter-relationships associated with the knowledge, arguments and themes that have been explored in different knowledge areas (Hart, 1998; Perry & Perry, 2011; Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). The understanding of the general and specific literature is crucial for researchers considering the construction of a research proposal (Given, 2008) because it helps the researcher gain an understanding of the current state of knowledge pertaining to that research idea (Pizam, 1994).

Afterwards, a visual map of studies relating to the topic should be drawn (Creswell, 2009). If properly carried out, it informs the reader about what research has and has not been done regarding the problem (Pizam, 1994), and if a revision or replication is needed. Therefore, it is possible to design a study according to research problems that arise.

By revising, it is possible to build a conceptual frame of analysis to analyse the data. It also helps in choosing the data collection methods to use according to the literature or according to the identified needs. Finally, the literature review helps make sense of the findings, once data analysis is complete.

Results allow for the confirmation of the theories analysed or the addition of new aspects to them. Innovation is, therefore, reached by presenting data upon work that has already been done, contributing to the accretion of knowledge (Pizam, 1994). After having described, in general terms, how the literature review is supportive of research in general, we will now present how the literature review contributes to the organisation of the present research.

In this particular case, the literature review deals with different subject areas of study:



Figure 5.2 – Subject areas of the study

The study is developed with Tourism students and teachers and focuses on Mobile Learning and on the perceptions of improvement when technology enhanced learning is practiced. In order to develop a study that involves these areas, it is important to understand how research is carried out in the different fields. Different perspectives of research in both Linguistics and Tourism are presented here.

### 5.3.1 – Research in Linguistics

With regards to research in the field of Linguistics or the “science of language” (Crystal, 2001, p. 454) it has a secular and rooted tradition (Crystal, 2001). Different authors (Johnson, 2011; Miles & Huberman, 1994) state that studies in Linguistics often subscribe to either the quantitative or qualitative paradigm even though a large number of studies fall somewhere between the two ends of the *continuum*.

According to Angouri (2010), some fields of Linguistics research (e.g. Sociolinguistics) have combined methodologies which have shown rich and diverse results, namely in workplace discourse. The benefits of combining the quantitative and qualitative methods have been discussed in the social sciences/humanities research methodology literature (Angouri, 2010; Creswell, 2009). Angouri (2010) states that there are several works that account for the benefits of mixing methods in research in the Linguistics field as it gives more insight to research than a single method (namely Harrington, Litosseliti, Sauntson, & Sunderland, 2008; Litosseliti, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003, cit. in Angouri (2010)).

According to Angouri (2010), linguistic research applicable to real-life issues is usual in academia. Moreover, it is becoming a growing trend in academia; therefore, combining this trend with different data collection techniques and quantitative and qualitative research methods, richer and more detailed outcomes related to linguistics can be found and provide a wider understanding of real-life issues, namely workplace issues.

As far as Systemic Functional Linguistics is concerned, this was conceived and continues to evolve as applicable Linguistics, and one of the potentials identified by Martin (2013) to its development and growth is its openness to “transdisciplinarity” (Martin, 2013, p. 53). Besides, SFL “draws strength of a dialectic of theory and practice across a range of interventions – educational . . . , clinical . . . , forensic . . . , translation . . . and so on” (Martin, 2013, pp. 53–54).

### **5.3.2 – Research in Tourism**

As far as Tourism research is concerned, this is still a recent work area, as it was not until the 1970s that Tourism became the focus of study in different disciplines (Dann, Nash, & Pearce, 1988; Echtner & Jamal, 1997). Some decades have passed and this area still lacks consistency and thoroughness although several interdisciplinary studies have contributed to it (Goodson & Phillimore, 2004; Tribe & Airey, 2007; Tribe, 1997, 2001, 2006). Besides, there is a wide range of research methods which vary according to the discipline in which the study in Tourism is being developed (Rejowski, 1999).

The discussion among scholars, as far as methods and approaches that should be developed in Tourism, has been constant throughout time (Dann et al., 1988; Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012; Graburn & Jafari, 1991; P. L. Pearce, 1993).

Although recent work has been published to help build theory and concepts in the area (Ateljevic, Pritchard, & Morgan, 2007; Goodson & Phillimore, 2004; Pearce & Butler, 2010; Pearce, 2012; Tribe & Airey, 2007), which envisages maturity in the domain (B. W. Ritchie, Burns, & Palmer, 2005), the World Tourism Organisation (United Nations World Tourism Organisation, 2001) states that there is still a need for a shift in research as it is underused both in theoretical and practical terms. Besides, this organisation recognises that there is a lack of theoretical framework and scientific research as opposed to other sectors and it

recognises that the main enemies of Tourism research are politicians and the industry, as they do not understand the relevance of research and do not integrate it in their daily practices, however the ‘schism between industry and research is closing’ (Cooper, 2003; Echtner & Jamal, 1997).

The WTO also explains that the reasons for the lack of research are the fact that Tourism itself is a very vast subject area and that education and Tourism research are disconnected. This work aims at establishing a bond between the two in a particular case, as other works have done as well (Salgado, 2007).

Another reason for the lack of research is that the canon is fragmented, therefore, it is still a ‘Cinderella area’ in the academy (Tribe, 2010). Research is also at a crossroads as many pioneer researchers are retiring and they are being superseded by a new generation (Tribe, 2010). Regardless of any weakness, the WTO points out the need of doing research, as Tourism is one of the most important revenue generator sectors in the world and because it helps integrate and adapt to the ever changing market demands. Both theoretical and applied research is recognised as essential for the sector. The first, to allow the generation of theoretical knowledge about the sector itself, and the second, to put into practice the generated theories.

Research is envisaged as a means to attain modernisation and to integrate technological developments in the sector. Research is, therefore, a way to become competitive both at the national and the international level. It allows companies and Tourism institutions to actually develop, bring and adapt the new technologies to their work activity.

The main focus of the WTO is on Information Technologies (IT) which is a source of continuous innovation; therefore, there is a need to constantly adapt to them. As a result, research on IT should be seen as a competitive tool at international level. Besides IT, as Tourism is a pre-paradigmatic<sup>11</sup> study area (Kuhn, 1970), it should have a greater tolerance for eclectic and diverse approaches to investigation (Pearce, 1993) which is visible through

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<sup>11</sup> If we take into account Kuhn’s philosophy of science (1970), Tourism is at its pre paradigmatic stage because for a paradigm to exist, there should be an “entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques, and so on shared by the members of a given community” (1970, p. 175). On the other hand, “throughout the pre-paradigm period when there is a multiplicity of competing schools, evidence of progress, except within schools, is very hard to find” (1970, p. 163).

the contribution of different disciplinary (Cooper, 2003) and research approaches (Melkert & Vos, 2010; Tribe, 2006) which need to be more systematic (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012) because there is a potential in integrating “different forms of data into a holistic analysis” (Melkert & Vos, 2010, p. 39).

To summarise, as Goodson and Phillimore (2004) postulate, research and discourse which are related to Tourism are multidisciplinary, and it is that multidisciplinary that can give the field dynamism and offer new opportunities for cross-fertilisation of ideas, practices and processes. Besides, as it is a complex phenomenon (Smith, 2010), the researcher must apply different methodologies and work with different disciplines (Korstanje, 2009).

The multidisciplinary character of Tourism itself is portrayed below (Figure 5.3) by Jafari and Ritchie (1981 cited in Tribe, 1997, p. 648).

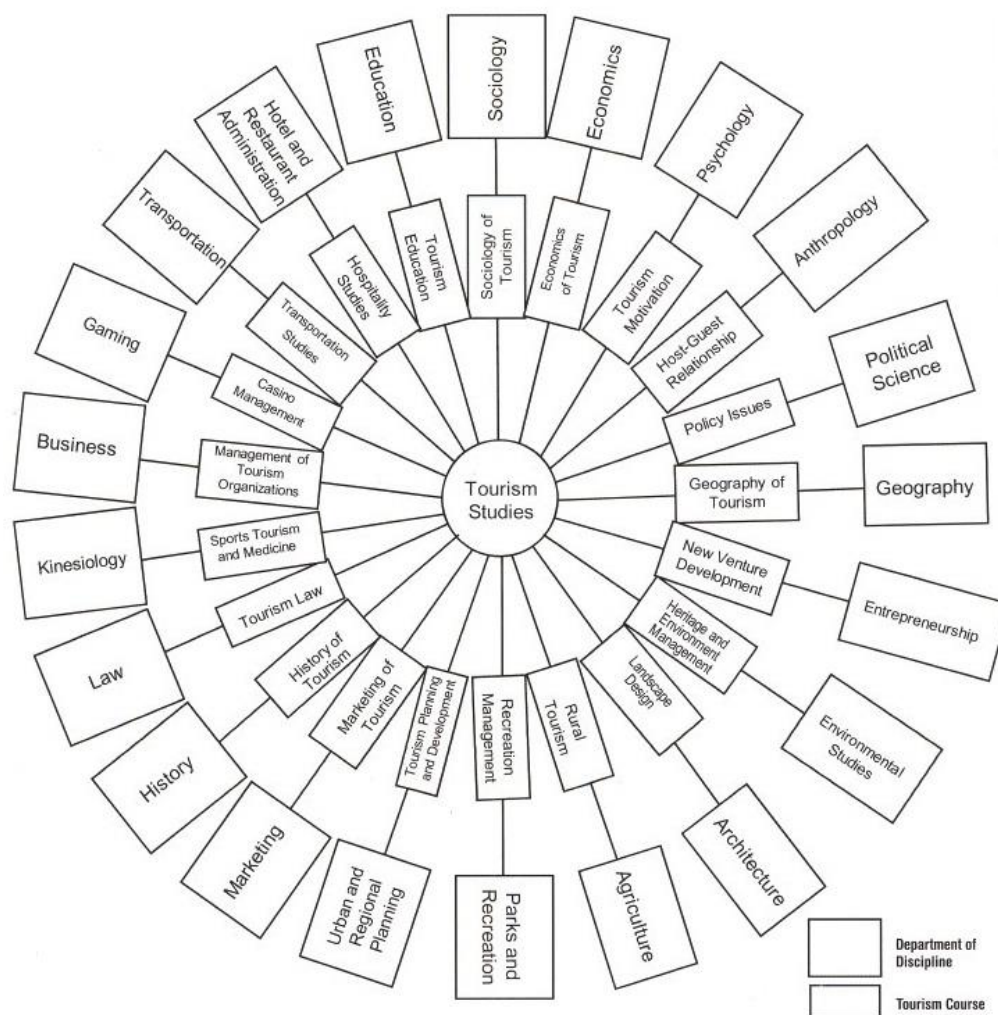


Figure 5.3 – Study of Tourism Choice of Discipline and Approach

In the case of this research project, which is the result of the researcher's practice, the need is felt to develop a multidisciplinary work which combines the integration of technology in classes as a way to take advantage of the potential of the students' devices, and of their natural affinity for the use of technology to enhance language learning and performance. Besides, it is felt that it might be beneficial for students to get used to using technology in their learning and in setting a trend for maintaining tools available after the course, creating a learning community with shared interests, to help them in lifelong learning instead of providing a start/stop course (Siemens, 2003). This continuing of connectedness with learning is possible through technology, which is a learning enabler (Siemens, 2003). Therefore, it is felt that in order to better prepare students for their future professional performance there is the need to break with the prohibition of the use of mobile devices in class as is customary in the previous (secondary) educational stage. Or, in the case of part time students who are professionally active and might use technology in their daily work, to extend their learning practices (through mobile devices at work) into class. The aim is to create, in and outside class, an environment or ecology, as similar as possible to their future professional setting.

Taking everything into account, research in Linguistics can be enriched with quantitative and qualitative studies and Tourism research is still at its infancy; besides technology is omnipresent in students' lives. The literature review makes one think about the possibility of the use of language in Tourism being enhanced by the integration of mobile technologies.

### **5.3.3 – Research in Mobile learning**

In 2006, Traxler & Kukulska-Hulme (2006) characterise m-learning as the “leading edge of learning technologies” (Traxler & Kukulska-Hulme, 2006, p. 143). However, pre-2005 m-learning studies were only pilots and trials. They also state that these early m-learning studies had lack of rigour in epistemological foundations, which account for the early forming research area. However insipient, they demonstrate “technological and pedagogic possibilities” (Traxler & Kukulska-Hulme, 2006, p. 143). By 2013, it is recognised that m-learning had spanned the whole world (Cochrane, 2013). Nevertheless, research studies submitted to some conferences on m-learning focus mainly on the delivery of teacher

generated and controlled content, instead of student-generated content and are developed resorting to case studies (Cochrane, 2013).

This research, however, encompasses contents generated by students themselves as well as by the teacher who is also the researcher. The research design is developed in the following sections and having thus identified the study areas and considered the various methodological strands open to this study, it is now important to present the problem under research.

#### 5.4 – Problem under research

The problem under research derived from teaching experience and it was substantiated by the literature review. The structure of the research developed so far is here outlined in Figure 5.4 to situate the reader within the framework developed.



Figure 5.4 – Subject areas of the study – Analysis model

The formulation of a scientific problem – an interrogative sentence or statement that asks for the relation between two or more variables (Pizam, 1994) – is essential and the answer to it is what is sought in the research (Kerlinger, 1973; Sunderland, 2010). “The formulation of the problem itself is, by far, more often essential than its solution” (Einstein & Infeld, 1938, cited in Pizam, 1994, p. 93).

Problems are the basis for research and the first step in the research process is to identify a well-defined problem. According to different authors, a good problem has many characteristics. Kerlinger (1986) asserts that:

- 1 - It should express a relation between two or more variables (Is A related to B? How are A and B related to C? How are A and B under conditions C and D?);

In this research care was taken to construct the research question in such a way that it would have the potential to address variables relating to Linguistics, Tourism and Mobile Learning;

- 2 - It should be stated clearly and unambiguously in question form. And we must bear in mind that the purpose of the study is not necessarily the same as the problem of the study and answer to which is what is sought in research.

It is not a desideratum of this research to propound a solution to the complex problem of teaching of foreign language in the complex specificity of Tourism, through Mobile Learning but, rather, to solidly contribute to exploring avenues of improvement;

- 3 - The problem and the problem statement should imply possibilities of empirical testing. In this study, empirical testing has been carried out through various means such as survey and interviews.

Kumar (2005) postulates that a problem is “like the identification of a destination before undertaking a journey” (p. 40) and the destination and journey of this research are further developed in the following sections.

Dewey (1938) states that “a problem well put is half-solved” (p. 108). In selecting a research problem, the following points must be borne in mind. The problem must be:

- 1 - Interesting, meaning that the topic should be of considerable interest to the researcher and also to others. It should not be dull or mundane but should excite the curiosity of the researcher.

This is the case of this research which includes the daily practice of the researcher and her students;

- 2 - Significant: The research problem should be significant to education from either a practical or theoretical viewpoint. Given that research in the field of Tourism education in Portugal has not been addressed so far, this is considered a significant study;



- 3 - Researchable: a problem should imply possibilities for testing (Kerlinger, 1986). In this case, several testable options are considered;
- 4 - Feasible: Even if the problem is researchable, doing the research may not be feasible in terms of time, money, and energy resources. An ambition of this research would be to carry out a follow up of its actions as, feasibility concerns and the necessary limitation imposed on our ambitions limited the study to a workable timeframe of 2 years, during which the data was gathered.

The general topic of research can be suggested by practical concerns or intellectual interests (Pizam, 1994). According to the same author, the scope of the topic must be broad enough so that it allows that not all aspects of the problem can be investigated at the same time. However, the topic cannot be too vast to be studied in depth. In order to confer depth to the present study, it had to be limited the variety and number of samples in the document corpus.

The selection of a research topic may arise from different motivations (Creswell, 2009; Veal, 2011): i) experience in the workplace; ii) issues identified by reading the research literature; iii) a policy or management problem; iv) an issue of social concern; v) a popular or media issue; vi) published research agendas; and/or brainstorming.

In this case the motivation arises from combining point i) “experience in the workplace” as the researcher professional experience arose the introduction of technology in Tourism English as a foreign language classes with point ii) “issues identified by reading the research literature”. It was by verifying that students increasingly go to classes with mobile devices, which they use to have access to information that the interest for approaching the classes through these devices grew.

One of the objectives of the present study is to map which Tourism experiences are provided in English language programmes. Afterwards, we intend to understand the behavioural intention of using mobile technologies among Tourism students and English language teachers in the teaching and learning process and, finally, to understand enhanced improvements that the use of Mobile Learning can have on the performance, regarding a specific topic of interest for Tourism.

Research studies depart from a research question, around which revolves the whole research process. In this case, the underlying question is:

To what extent can Mobile Learning improve the English language learning experience for Tourism students?

This question encompasses the multiple subjects under study. First, it approaches English language learning which, in this particular case, is taught as a second language to Portuguese students. In Portugal, the study of one or more foreign languages is usual in higher education courses. As it would not be possible to address a national study within the time limits of this work, the research question also encompasses another, more specific, focus of this work, that is, on Tourism courses only. This was the chosen area as it is where the researcher develops her teaching practices.

Tourism, as was previously explained, is one of the main revenue generators in the world, and technology has worked as an enhancing factor of this area, either by promoting the destinations or as a means of making trip arrangements, among many other uses. Bearing these premises in mind, as well as the current trends regarding the adoption of mobile technologies for language learning purposes (as explained in chapter 3), the research encompasses these main areas which are supported by different possible approaches.

Linguistics	Tourism	Mobile Learning
Systemic Functional Linguistics	Experiences economy Education in Tourism Technology in Tourism	Technology in education

The following step, after defining the work purposes and the research questions, is to develop and define concepts, variables and hypotheses which are the links between theory and the empirical work to be developed (Nunan, 1992; Pizam, 1994; Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

## 5.5 – Research hypothesis

A scientific work is a challenge for the researcher who must find an appropriate methodological path to find the answers to the identified research problems. At the beginning of a research all the different findings are mixed and confusing and it is the researcher who needs to gradually start building his/her work as if building a puzzle that no one before has solved or solved so well (Kuhn, 1970).

After choosing the specific scientific problem, general to specific reading needs to be carried out, so that the researchers' ideas and the parts of the "puzzle" start making sense together and others are excluded. Research starts being shaped as interesting and innovative points of analysis become meaningful. Research is a gradual work which needs to be systematic, controlled, empirical, and there has to be critical investigation of hypothetical propositions about the presumed relations among natural phenomena (Kerlinger, 1973). Then, the research problem that, because of its broad nature, cannot be scientifically solved unless it is reduced to hypotheses form (Kerlinger, 1986) will have to go through different stages: it has to be analysed; the hypothesis have to be formulated; the variables defined and research instruments chosen (Coutinho, 2011) according to the general and specific objectives of the research.

The different steps this research went through are here briefly presented and further developed in the following sections.

- i) First, data was gathered to understand which contents were taught at national level.
- ii) Then, a survey was conducted using some of the UTAUT survey variables (Venkatesh et al., 2003) in order to understand the behaviour intention of students regarding Mobile Learning, before actually introducing the technology in class. In order to make the present study useful for a wider number of teachers and institutions, the survey was conducted with students at a national level. Besides, a survey was also conducted on teachers to understand their behavioural intention to use the technologies as well.
- ii) Finally, a case study was developed which focused on two groups of Tourism students who used Mobile Learning to enhance their learning experience. This was developed to provide an in-depth overview of the evolution of language use through the analysis of the

process and the final outcomes in the form of student produced documents (text assignments).

Having thus identified the research hypothesis and given an outline of the research steps, these are going to be scrutinised to provide the necessary background to the study before discussing the results obtained in chapter 6.

According to Kerlinger (1986), hypotheses are the “working instruments of theory . . . and they are essential to the advancement of knowledge . . . [they] are important bridges between theory and empirical inquiry” (pp. 19-20). Once hypotheses are tested “apart from man’s values and opinions”, they enable the researchers “to get outside themselves”. The author ventures to say that “there would be no science in any complete sense without hypotheses” (p.19).

Some authors (Kerlinger, 1986; Pizam, 1994) mention that an hypothesis is a proposition that is stated, in testable form, and that predicts a particular relation between two or more variables. They appear in the form of predictions and it is what the researcher tries to support or refute. Bearing this in mind, the following hypotheses were addressed regarding the problem under research:

Language Programmes	H <sub>1</sub> English programme contents for Tourism-related courses are the same in public HE organisations.
Survey	H <sub>2</sub> Performance expectancy will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.
	H <sub>3</sub> Effort expectancy will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.
	H <sub>4</sub> Social influence will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.
Case study	H <sub>5</sub> Exposing students of Tourism-related courses to Mobile Learning strategies enhances their language use.

## 5.6 – Epistemology and methodology in Social Sciences

In order to conduct research, one needs to be informed about the literature review that provides theoretical background to the model of analysis but, for this to be developed, different ways of conducting the study need to be borne in mind. Therefore, a thorough understanding of epistemology of research in Social Sciences, in this case, has to be taken into consideration as it is depicted in Figure 5.5.

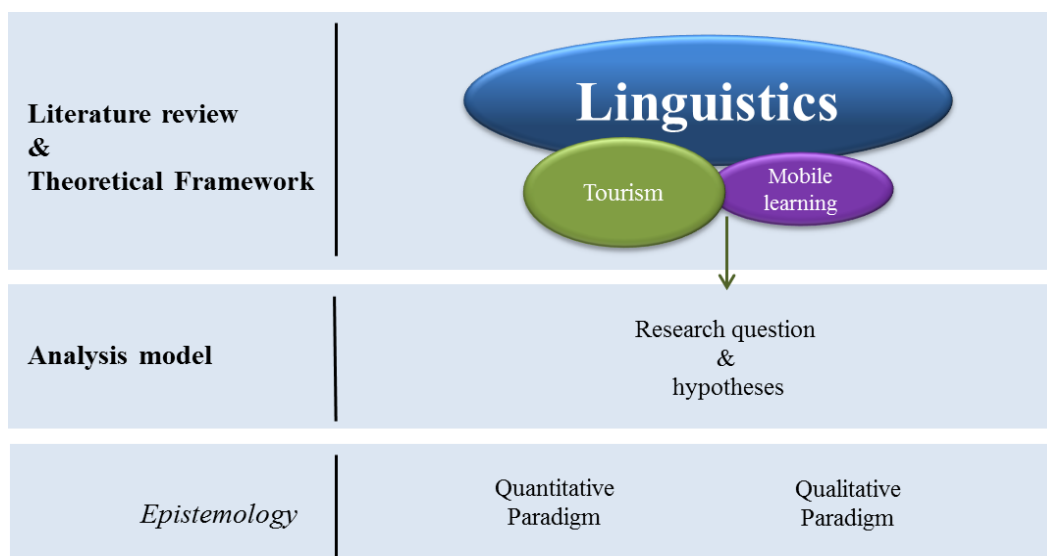


Figure 5.5 – Subject areas of the study – Epistemology

The present work concentrates on three main areas, as was previously explained. These areas are at different stages of scientific consolidation. Linguistics is a long established research field, whereas Tourism and Mobile Learning are at different stages of consolidation. However, they are progressing rapidly. This demands the capacity to find a methodology and a philosophy that enables the researcher to establish a bond between them, in an ecological way, by bringing to the research an understanding of aspects that are mutually relevant in each area.

In this section we present how research, in its entirety, must be conducted. Afterwards, the different steps given by the researcher are presented to establish the necessary bonds between these areas.

Doing research implies a philosophy which underlies the acceptance of the ways in which data about how a specific subject should be grouped, studied and used is employed. The

sociologist Norbert Elias propounds that research's aim is "to make known something previously unknown to human beings. It is to advance human knowledge, to make it more certain or better fitting... The aim is... discovery" (Elias, 1986, p. 20).

For Elias (1986), research aims at "discovery" and it is a tool of science whose purpose is to "advance human knowledge", distinguishing it, therefore, from other investigatory activities (Veal, 2011). Scientific research is, thus, conducted within the rules and conventions of science; based on logic, reason and systematic examination of evidence.

Research is based on paradigms which represent a "worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the 'world'; the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts" (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 107). These paradigms are conceptual frameworks shared by a community of scientists who are committed to the same rules and standards make science evolve (Kuhn, 1970).

Epistemology, or the theory of knowledge, is "a field of philosophy concerned with the possibility, nature, sources and limits of human knowledge . . . [and] with whether or how we can have knowledge of reality" (Sumner, 2006, p. 92). Therefore, epistemological guidance helps understand the reality under study and the methodology to be used in research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) by providing insight on ways of designing the study around research questions. They help "with the choice of methods – with decisions about the way in which scientific statements are to be dealt with" (Popper, 2002, p. 29). And the decision of the research methods and techniques adopted in any research project depend upon the questions and the focus of the researcher (DeVaus, 2002; Popper, 2002; Seliger & Shohamy, 1989). Besides, methodology should be communicated in a research work (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) as methods are the investigative procedures; techniques and tools (Schwandt, 2007) to gather and analyse data (Alastalo, 2008) aiming at reducing the bias when conducting research.

Research design involves the intersection of philosophy, strategies of inquiry, and specific methods (Creswell, 2009). It needs to be objective, reproducible by other researchers to obtain the same results and systematised because it needs to be planned in advance (Pizam, 1994; Veal, 2011). Research needs to be unbiased and value free versus more subjective (Duff, 2010). When research is objective it is independent of the researcher's personal view with respect to the problems investigated.

In the case of social science research this is carried out using methods and traditions of social science (Veal, 2011). Traditionally, writers on education and Social Sciences research traditions have made a binary distinction between quantitative and qualitative research (Creswell, 2009, 2012; Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2005; Nunan, 1992). However, there have been recent changes added to this trend as mixed-methods also began to be explored.

### **5.6.1 – Quantitative and qualitative Research**

The first approach to be considered is the quantitative which is based on the philosophical ideas of August Comte, the French philosopher. He emphasised that through reason and observation reality is apprehendable (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). The quantitative approach assumes the world as objective and scientific methods can, more or less, readily represent and measure it.

Positivism adopts the research model of the Natural Sciences to research in Social Sciences using a quantitative methodology. Quantitative research includes several approaches and designs as well as tools such as correlations, surveys, multifactorial studies as well as experimental studies (Duff, 2010).

This approach is, according to Guba (1990), based on the attempt to find how reality really is and how it really works. The same author propounds that, under this approach, the researcher must put nature questions and nature has to answer back directly, therefore the phenomenon must be analysed as it is.

The advantage of quantitative methods, according to Patton (1980), is that it allows to measure the reactions of many people to a limited set of questions and this facilitates comparison and statistical aggregation of the data. This allows for a broad and generalizable set of findings which are presented succinctly and parsimoniously.

Positivism influenced research for a long time. However, it was criticised for generalising social and educational phenomena, due to its lack of concern for the individual. The human behaviour was viewed as passive and determined by the external environment. Besides, individualism and subjectivism were not taken into account when interpreting reality.

Bearing these considerations in mind, a different approach to research, the qualitative approach, gained strength. Qualitative research had its origin as a consequence to criticisms to the prior paradigm. It is, according to Creswell (2009), a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups attribute to a social or human problem. The process of research involves emerging questions and procedures; participant's setting is where data is typically collected; data analysis inductively builds from particular to general themes, and the researcher makes interpretations of the meaning of the data. The final report, according to the author, has a flexible structure. Researchers who use a qualitative approach envisage research in an inductive style; they focus on individual meanings, and the importance of interpreting the complexity of a situation.

According to Goodson and Phillimore (2004), this approach should place emphasis on understanding the world from the perspective of its participants, humanising problems and gaining an insider's perspective. It should study things in their natural settings, interpreting phenomena in terms of the meanings (Dey, 1993) people bring to them. Besides, it should view social life as being the result of interaction and interpretations.

According to Patton (1980), qualitative methods allow the collection of detailed information about a smaller number of people when compared with quantitative methods. This, however, rises the understanding of cases and situations under study but reduces generalisability (Patton, 1980).

Denzin and Lincoln (2005) divide the history of qualitative research into eight moments:

- i. First, the "traditional period" reflected the positivist approach to science and quantitative methods were given emphasis;
- ii. Second, the "modernist phase" during which more attention was given to qualitative approaches (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Willis, Jost, & Nilakanta, 2007);
- iii. Third, the "blurred genres moment" when qualitative research is further developed and multiple perspectives to research were understood as a way to complement the researcher's work;
- iv. Fourth, the "crisis in representation moment", when the influence of traditional research methods decreased;



- v. Fifth, the “postmodern period”, which sees the replacement of the grand narratives by more small-scale specific problems and specific situations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; Denzin, 2008);
- vi. Sixth, the “Post experimental inquiry moment” was when the distinction between Social Sciences and the humanities was encouraged to be blurred and experiments in methods for representing lived experience were given focus (Denzin, 2008);
- vii. Seventh, the “methodologically contested present” was committed with publishing, in flourishing qualitative journals, the best new work on qualitative research. However, because topics such as how to decide which articles to publish needed consensus among the journals, this period was known as one of conflict and anxiety (Willis et al., 2007);
- viii. The eighth movement, the “future” is pictured as a time when race, gender, globalisation, freedom and community issues are to be addressed (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Considering the evolution of the quantitative and qualitative approaches here described, it is important to consider them in the scope of the broad areas of this research: Linguistics and Tourism. Regarding Linguistics, this is a field that encompasses a broad and expanding assortment of approaches, such as conversation analysis, narrative research, content analysis (Duff, 2010), and different data collection techniques such as interviews; document analysis, and participant observation data, in order to understand and explain social phenomena.

Concerning Tourism, Jafari (2003) draws our attention to the importance of both quantitative and qualitative techniques and to the fact qualitative research techniques have allowed coming to results that are “impressive and appropriate” (Jafari, 2003, p. 478). Therefore, as research in both Linguistics and Tourism point at the importance of quantitative and qualitative approaches this leads us to the final research approach - mixed methods – that combines the aforementioned and that is further developed in section 5.8.

### 5.7 – Population and samples

This section refers to the population and samples used throughout the empirical analysis as it is evinced in Figure 5.6. The philosophy that underlies this section is to present the sampling procedure according to each phase of the research (survey; documents and interviews).

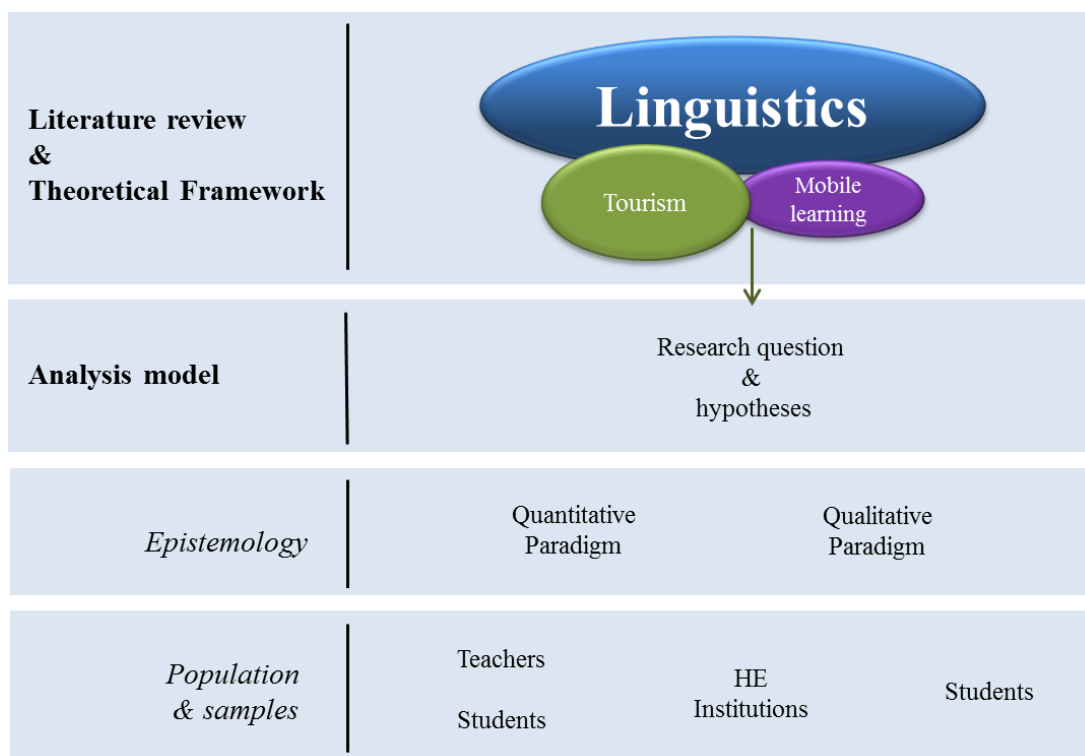


Figure 5.6 – Subject areas of the study – Population and samples

According to Krippendorff (2004), sampling allows gathering information that is representative of the entire universe under study and the results are assumed to be true for the whole population. Although there might be differences among individuals from a population “research findings need to be perfect only within certain limits” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 112). However selective, sampling is suitable for “analysing, differentiating, and perhaps testing assumptions about common features and differences between specific groups” (Flick, 2009, p. 117). Sampling can occur at different stages of the research process, for example, to conduct interviews, researchers decide which persons are to be interviewed;

when interpreting data, only parts may be selected to go under specific scrutiny, as well as when presenting findings only specific conclusions are drawn from the data gathered.

In order to be able to generalise conclusions, sampling “relies on the law of large numbers to estimate the bias introduced by generalizations from inadequate sample sizes, and it provides justifications for several sampling techniques aimed at minimizing such biases” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 112). There is no decision on sampling that is “right *per se*” (Flick, 2009, p. 125) the appropriateness of the chosen strategy to obtain a structure and contents for analysis “can only be assessed with respect to the research question” (Flick, 2009, p. 125). Although it is difficult to make valid generalisations based on a single case study, it is also difficult to make deep descriptions based on random sampling as well (Flick, 2009). As this research is sequential and one of its parts is a case study, sampling is considered, in order to make deep considerations about the case and to answer the research question. The following sections account for the sampling decisions in HEI programmes; in students’ texts and in interviews.

### **5.7.1 – Students and teachers sample**

This thesis explores the way that students and teachers have intention to use Mobile Learning in the teaching/learning process. Taking this into account, the ideal population to analyse would be worldwide or countrywide. Nevertheless, this would go far beyond the scope of this work. However important statistical inference is, it is not possible to generalise conclusions among different countries; regions; gender; educational background among other possible and interesting variables.

Bearing this in mind, we decided to look at the Portuguese situation in Tourism courses. With regard to this, the target population is composed of young-adult students from public Tourism higher education institutions and English language teachers from the same institutions.

For this study, a purposive sample type was used under the criterion of “convenience” (Flick, 2009). The inclusion criterion for students was to be attending a course in the area of Tourism either in the first, second or third year of undergraduate studies. As for teachers, the criterion

was to teach in undergraduate Tourism courses. Therefore, a sample was collected from the population, in order to ensure that results are non-biased and representative of the population.

In order to build a sample there are several factors to take into consideration with regard to its size, in order to be able to make inferences about the universe, namely available resources; research objectives and demand of statistical tests to be made.

In the case of this study, the subjects are selected because they are available for recruitment for the study and the researcher did not consider selecting subjects that are representative of the entire population. In all forms of research, it would be ideal to test the entire population, but, in most cases, the population is just too large and therefore it is impossible to include every individual. This is the reason why most researchers rely on sampling techniques like convenience sampling, the most common of all sampling techniques. Many researchers prefer this sampling technique because it is fast, inexpensive, easy and the subjects are readily available.

For the calculation of the sample, the population of Tourism students is known (N=5889) (Ministério da Educação e Ciência, 2013), therefore the sample size was calculated according to the following formula (Cohen, 1988):

$$n = \frac{N \cdot Z^2 \cdot p \cdot (1 - p)}{Z^2 \cdot p \cdot (1 - p) + e^2 \cdot (N - 1)}$$

n = sample to be determined

N = population

Z = level of trust/ Z value

p = percentage picking a choice

e = sample error

According to this, the sample size needed was: n=361. The data gathered from the students' survey accounts for a return of 527 replies which is comfortably higher than the sample size needed. This sample is a reliable number as the confidence level amounts to 95% and the confidence interval is 5.

As for the teachers, the population (N=50) was calculated from the names that were mentioned in the programmes gathered. The required sample would be 43. In pursuit of the objectives of the study the sample was constituted by 41 subjects.

The surveys were built using LimeSurvey 2.0 software and two links were made available. These links were sent by email to Tourism related course directors and they were asked to forward the survey links to the teachers and to the students to answer them online (Appendix 2). The surveys were available online for three months, between March and June 2013. The data gathered was entered into SPSS 21.0 to facilitate the analysis, which investigated the relationship of the independent variables (Performance Expectancy; Effort Expectancy and Social Influence) to the dependent variable (Behavioural intention).

For the purpose of the research, nineteen institutions were contacted and the results are presented in chapter 6 for both students and teachers.

The data here presented relies on the reply rates of 19 institutions which were contacted, as mentioned before. Data is presented below for both students and teachers side by side in order to provide a better understanding of these.

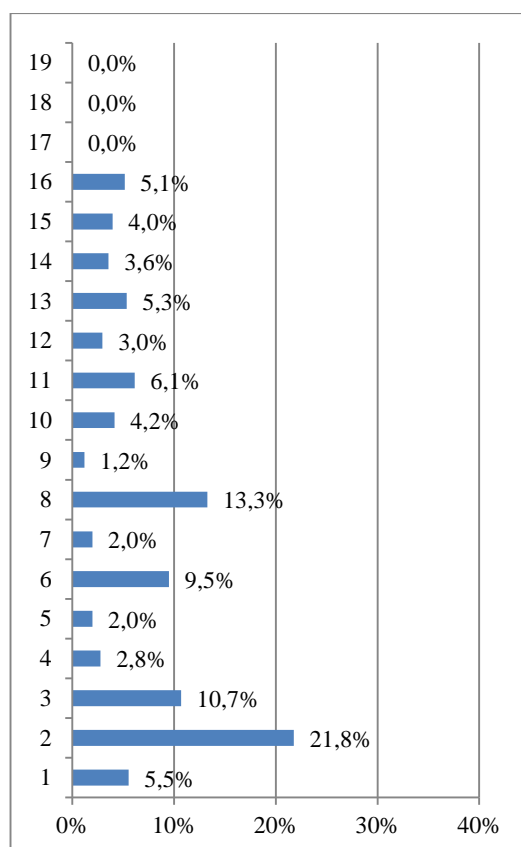


Figure 5.7 – Students' reply percentage per HE institution

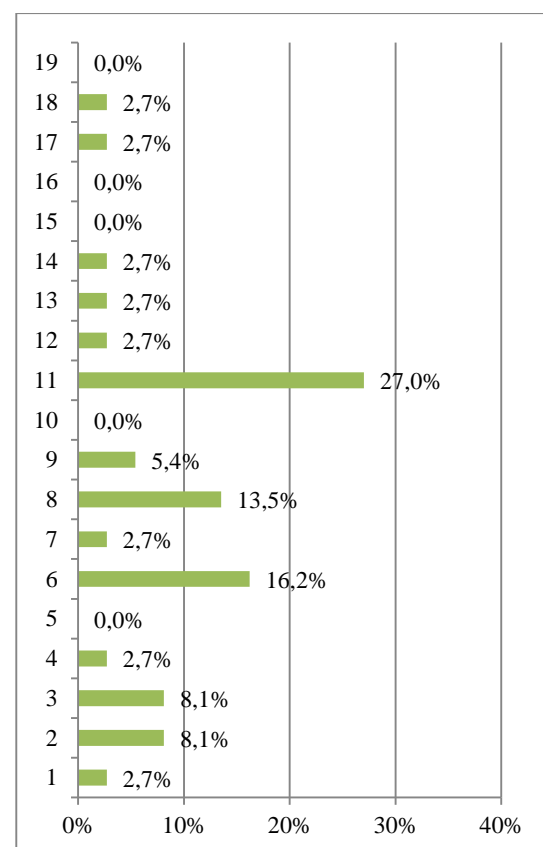


Figure 5.8 – Teachers' reply percentage per HE institution

In the case of students, out of the 19 higher education institutions contacted (6 universities

and 13 polytechnics) it was possible to gather data from 16 (6 universities and 10 polytechnics), and the reply percentage varied from 1.2% and 21.8% (Figure 5.7).

As far as teachers are concerned, although 19 institutions were also contacted, data was gathered from 14 institutions (4 universities and 10 polytechnics), and the reply percentage varied from 2.7% and 27% (Figure 5.8).

### 5.7.2 – Population of the Higher Education Institutions’ programmes

As far as the HEI programmes are concerned, public higher education institutions that teach Tourism related courses were chosen. The choice criterion was based on the data available on offer and demand of these courses. In their study, Salgado, Lemos, Costa, and Ramos (2010), postulate that, in Portugal, since the inception of Tourism degrees, in 1986, public organisations account for more offer (Figure 5.9) and more demand among students (Figure 5.10). Therefore, the chosen population to gather programmes from was public HEI.

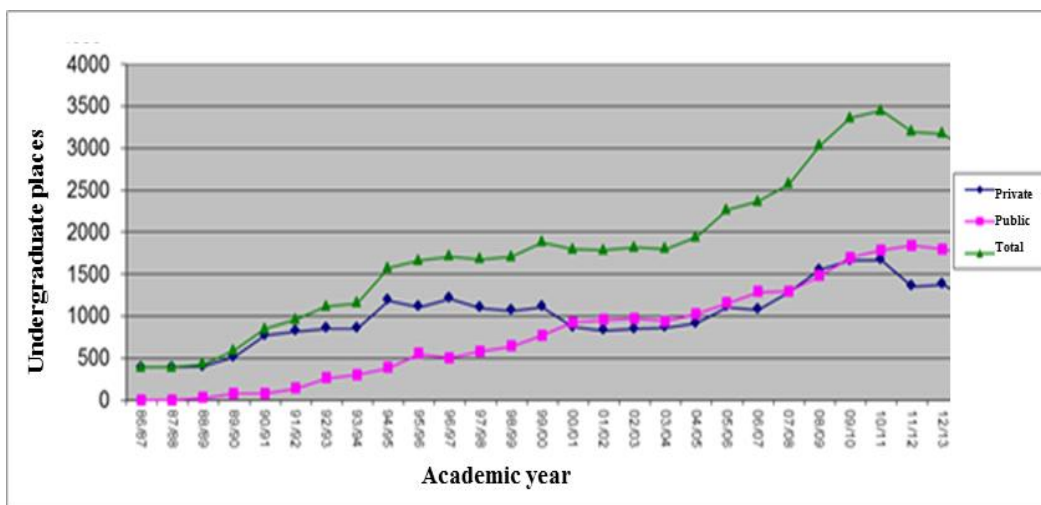


Figure 5.9 – Undergraduate places in Higher Education in Tourism in Portugal

Source: Salgado, Lemos, Costa, e Ramos (2013, p. 113)

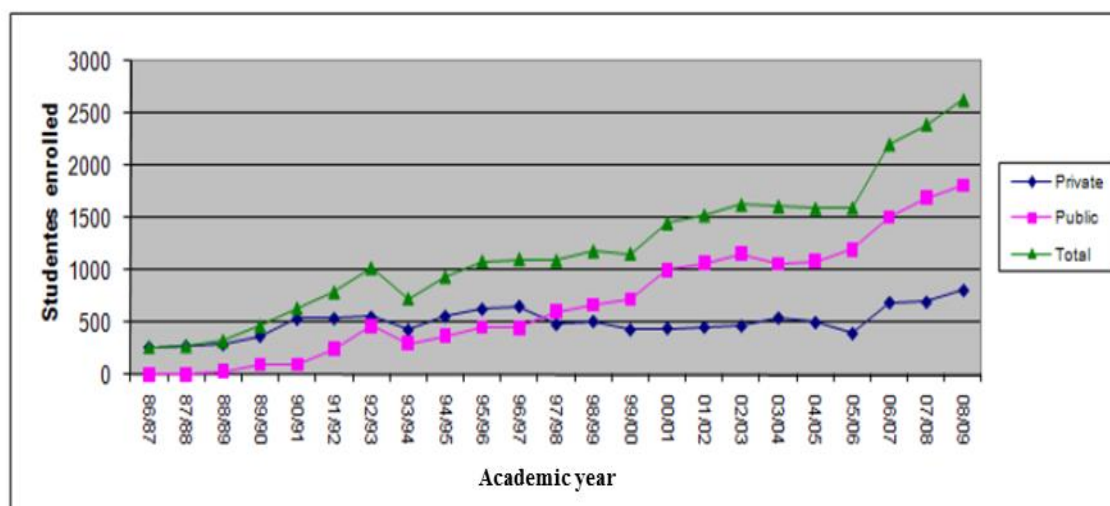


Figure 5.10 – Students enrolled for the 1<sup>st</sup> time in Tourism in Higher education

Source: Salgado, Lemos, Costa, e Ramos (2010, p. 780)

After having chosen the population under study, a purposive sample was aimed at, taking into consideration that not all institutions would reply to our query. Nevertheless, from the 51 Tourism related courses identified (Appendix 3), the rate of reply was 100%. Therefore, the data gathered reflects not a purposive sample but the population of public HEI programmes.

In order that the programmes be taken into consideration for the analysis, the criteria for avoiding biased results were that they be taught on different courses; in different cities (in case they were repeated); in one teaching schedule only and in one teaching system as well. From the 51 courses that were identified (Appendix 3), and according to the criteria established, only 39 were considered (Appendix 4). This was due to the fact that 12 courses were offered in different teaching schedules: 11 were taught as evening courses and 1 in a distance teaching system. For these reasons, these 12 courses are omitted from statistical analysis. As one of the institutions offers the same course in a different city, its programme was considered in the analysis.

In the 51 courses, 185 English curricular units and programmes were identified (Figure 5.11).

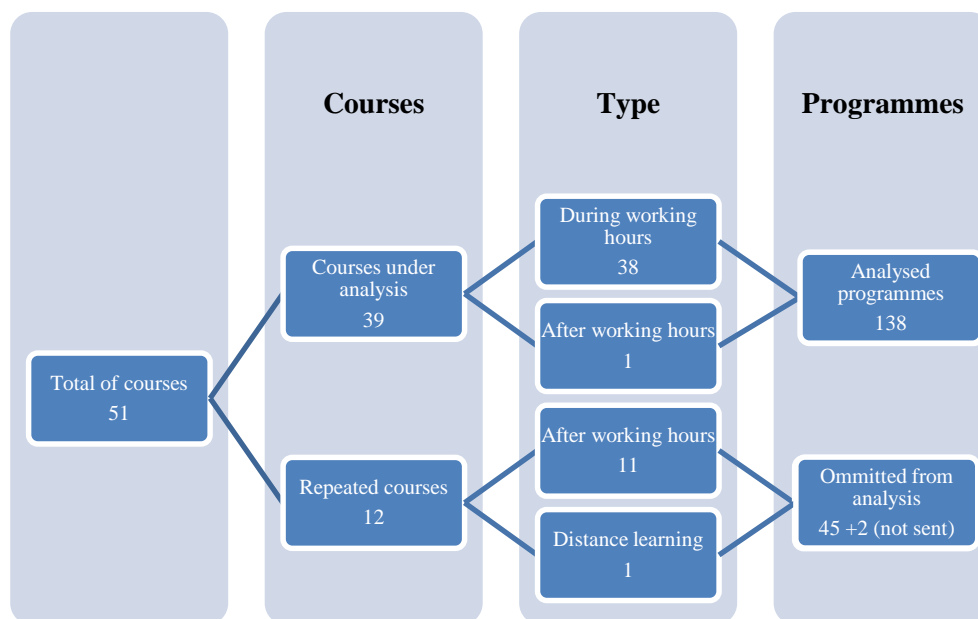


Figure 5.11 – Summary of courses and programmes

Source: Oliveira, Roberto, e Costa, 2014, p. 308<sup>12</sup>

For the previously mentioned reasons, only 140 programmes were considered. Nevertheless, 2 of them were not sent for analysis, which accounts for 138 programmes under scrutiny. Even though these 2 programmes were not included as they were not sent, the data gathered allows for sustained analysis and conclusions to be drawn, as these only represent an average of 1% of the universe.

### 5.7.3 – Sample of documents produced by the students

The criterion for selecting students' texts was purposive, once the researcher taught these students, which made it easier to collect data. The study developed using students' texts occurred during the second semester of the academic year of 2012-13. There were 29 students involved in this work, 23 attended first year bachelor degree and 6 attended second

<sup>12</sup> The material here presented was co-published by the author in the article "Tourism English programmes: do they mirror the reality and the contents of the tourism industry?", submitted to the Journal of Tourism and Development (Oliveira et al., 2014, p. 308).



year bachelor degree in Tourism as well. The age of both groups varies from under 20 to over 30.

The first year students' gender is homogenous (52% male and 48% female) and they are mainly under twenty and in their early twenties, with a small percentage of older students.

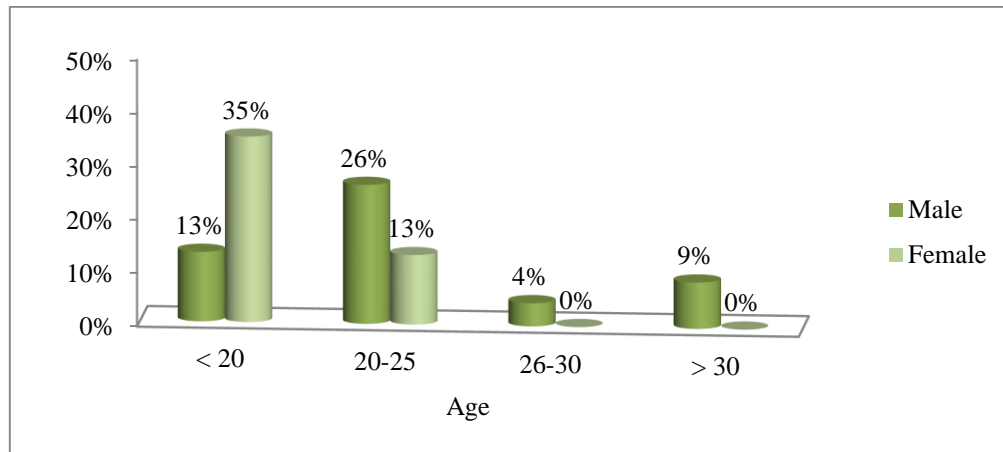


Figure 5.12 – First year students, age, according to gender

In this year, there are full time students (87%) and part time students (13%).

The second year students' gender is balanced as well (50% male and 50% female) and they are in their twenties and mid-twenties with no older students and they are all full time students.

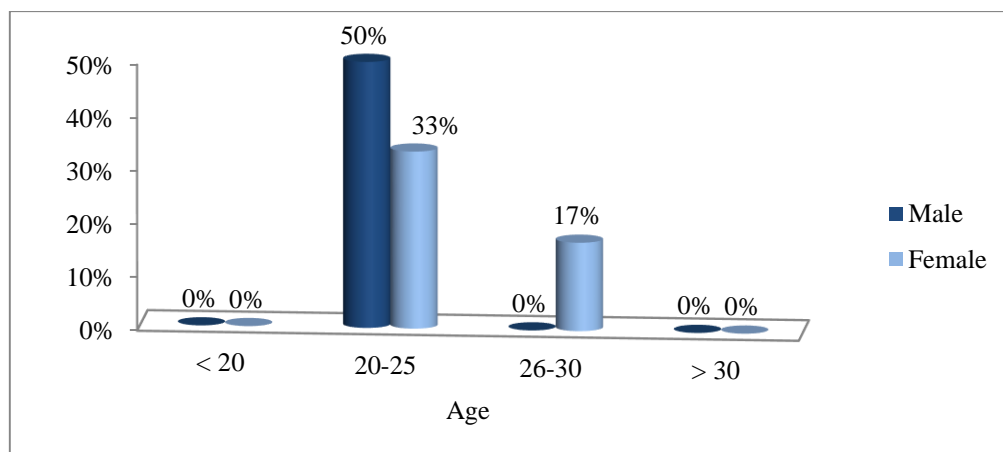


Figure 5.13 – Second year students' age, according to gender

### 5.7.4 – Interviews conducted on students

From the 23 students of the first year involved in the study, only 19 participated in the interview, as 4 gave up studying at the end of the semester, which made it impossible to interview them. As far as the second year students are concerned, they all (6) participated in the interviews. According to the literature, there may be only one; ten or twenty interviewees (Cohen & Manion, 1995 cit. in Mason, 2014).

### 5.8 – A Mixed Methods Research

Due to the eclectic nature of the study itself that tackles such different subjects as Linguistics, Tourism, and Mobile Learning, this research adopted and combined different methods and strategies of enquiry, which results in a mixed methods approach that encompasses different methods, as is depicted in Figure 5.14 and is further explained in this section.

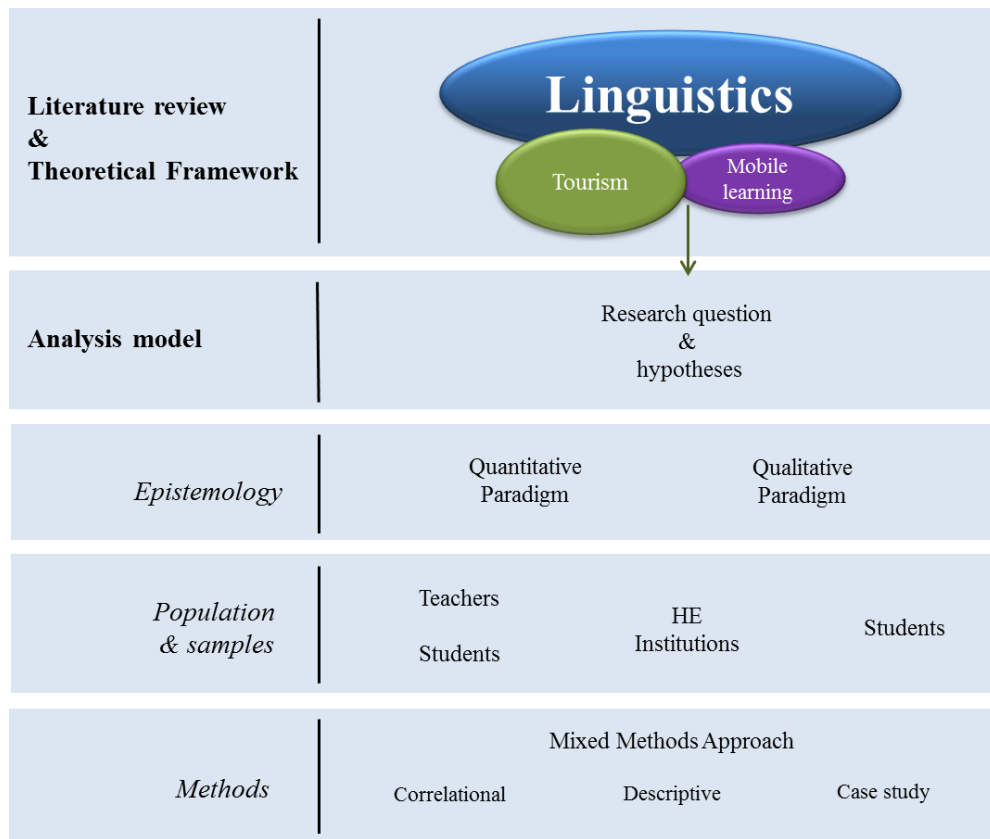


Figure 5.14 – Subject areas of the study – Methods

With the development and perceived legitimacy of both quantitative and qualitative research in the scope of the social sciences, mixed methods have become popular as a natural evolution of research methods in general. Mixed methods use the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research and they allow for the use of different perspectives in order to obtain a variety of information about the same subject and comparing it afterwards (Del Rincón, Arnal, Latorre, & Sans, 1995). According to several authors, a study may employ more than a sampling strategy and when quantitative and qualitative research are combined there is a wider insight of what is being investigated (Angouri, 2010; Creswell, 2009; Davies, 2003; Dörnyei, 2007; Melkert & Vos, 2010; Patton, 1980).

Creswell (2012) points out possibilities of strategies of enquiry which are presented below, on Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 – Alternative strategies of inquiry

Quantitative	Qualitative	Mixed Methods
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Experimental designs</li> <li>• Non-experimental designs, such as surveys</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Narrative research</li> <li>• Phenomenology</li> <li>• Ethnographies</li> <li>• Grounded theory studies</li> <li>• Case study</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Sequential</li> <li>• Concurrent</li> <li>• Transformative</li> </ul>

Source: Creswell, 2012, p. 12

From these, and bearing in mind the benefits of using different strategies as well as the interdisciplinary character of this research, it is needed an approach which can be broad enough to shed light into the understanding of aspects that influence the language use setting among Tourism students. Languages for specific purposes are influenced by and work on behalf of other subjects. In the case of this research, language use works on behalf of Tourism.

In this case, a sequential research is developed as quantitative and qualitative data was gathered sequentially in two phases and the first data collection informs the others. This is an explanatory mixed methods design, considered the most popular form of mixed methods design in educational research (Creswell, 2012). The rationale of the explanatory sequential

method presupposes collecting quantitative data first and these provide a general view of the problem under study and then qualitative data is gathered which refines and extends the general idea, following this design:

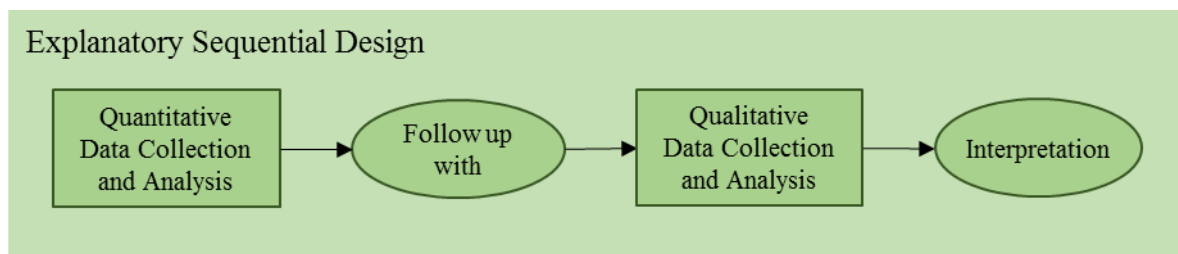


Figure 5.15 – Explanatory Sequential Design

Source: Creswell, 2012, p. 251

The observation of the research from different perspectives is named triangulation, which comprises the application of different methodological approaches to validate the procedures and results of the research (Flick, 2004). Triangulation has four different forms according to Denzin (1978, cit. in Flick, 2004, p. 178):

- Triangulation of data which combines data gathered from different sources and at different times, in different places or from different people;
- Investigator triangulation when different observers or interviewers are used to balance the subjective influence of the individuals;
- Triangulation of theories which occurs when there are different perspectives and hypothesis therefore different theoretical points of view can be put side by side to consider their usefulness and power.
- Methodological triangulation “within-method” (e.g. when different subscales are used within a questionnaire) and “between method” (by using different methods to maximise the validity of the research).

In this study, different perspectives are gathered from the survey to students and teachers to know their behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning; to analysing programmes, to know which contents are taught in Tourism English language classes; to the case study around students’ text production and interviews. Bearing Denzin’s (1978) typology of triangulation

in mind, this study uses triangulation of data as it gathers data from different people (students and teachers) and sources (programmes) at different times (in different years) and methodological triangulation once that it uses quantitative techniques (survey and its statistical analysis) as well as qualitative techniques (programmes and texts with its content analysis).

According to Mitchell (1986), when different types of triangulation are used, multiple triangulation occurs. This is particularly suitable to study complex phenomena and resorting to different methods and sources allows a better understanding of what is being studied. In the case of this research, resorting to multiple sources and methods was considered useful as they allow for a more detailed and informed perception of what is under study.

According to Creswell (2012), one of the advantages of the sequential method is that it allows identifying, at first, what participants actually disclose on a specific subject. It is also good for both the reader of the research and the researcher as well because it has a clear cut quantitative and qualitative design of its parts which are explained separately. The author expands the advantages of the method by mentioning that it captures the best of quantitative and qualitative data because the latter allows a refinement of the findings through in-depth exploration of the qualitative data. There are, nevertheless, shortcomings of using this method such as determining sample (individuals) that the qualitative study will focus on as well as the questions to ask in this second phase. Another disadvantage is that it requires intensive work, expertise and time to collect both data sets. In the case of this research the disadvantages are minored because the individuals under qualitative study are the researcher students, nevertheless it is a time consuming task.

Resorting to mixed methods reveals different aspects of “reality” (Lazaraton, 2005). However, there is a need to find an analysis strategy that helps understand the “diversity of views” and “stronger inferences” this approach allows being, thus, the mixed methods approach, commonly associated with the concept of triangulation (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Triangulation should be used because “no method is ever free of rival causal factors . . . because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality, multiple methods of observations must be employed (Denzin, 1970, p. 26). Therefore, triangulation of findings leads to better understanding of outcomes. Either triangulation or the combination of methodologies (which means combining different methods or data, or include quantitative

and qualitative approaches) in a study of the same phenomena strengthens a study design (Patton, 1980).

Due to the aforementioned benefits, in this study there is also triangulation to better answer our research question which is to understand to what extent Mobile Learning can improve the English language learning experience for Tourism students. The results of triangulation of data are presented in chapter 6.

As previously mentioned, the present research involves different research methods which are presented below.

### **5.8.1 – Research methods**

After having presented a general framework of mixed methods methodology, we now concentrate on discussing the specific methods used in this research. As far as the survey by questionnaire is concerned, a correlational method (Gay, 1981) was applied. The aim of this method is to determine quantifiable relations between variables which allow us to enlarge the scope of the results. This is achieved by exploring the relations between the variables or establishing even more solid relations among them, by testing hypothesis of association or by verifying theoretical models (Duhamel, Fortin, & Ducharme, 2009).

The correlational method allows us to understand a phenomenon or explain what happens in a specific situation. In the case of the present research, the method creates awareness as to the understanding of the behavioural intention of both students and teachers, as far as Mobile Learning is concerned.

With regard to the programmes, a descriptive method (Duhamel & Fortin, 2009) was used. This implies describing the characteristics of a population or its sample or a phenomenon. The aim of this method is to describe a concept that pertains to this population. In the case of this research, the population consists of different institutional programmes and the concepts under analysis are the different programme contents.

The other aim of descriptive method is to describe the characteristics of the population as a whole which is accomplished, in this study, by gaining access to all institutional programmes. The aim of this method is to attain a general profile of the phenomenon under

study through the interrelation between concepts. However, the type and degree of relations of these concepts is not the purpose of this method. Therefore, the concepts under analysis were the contents of the programmes, the descriptive analysis of which provides a profile of the setting of the institutional programmes. This profile was further developed by making a comparison of the contents of the various institutional programmes. This comparison aimed at identifying differences and similarities within the general profile and highlighted the existence of dissimilarities among the programmes.

The data collection techniques can be varied according to the research objectives and can range from more to less structured techniques. Ultimately, the data collection techniques will determine the selection of the analysis techniques. In case the former are qualitative, the latter can resort to content analysis.

The directors of the courses were asked by email to provide the institutional programmes. After organising them, they were analysed by the use of content analysis technique.

The techniques used to collect the institutional programmes were unstructured, as they rely on document collection, for that reason, content analysis was the chosen technique as it will be detailed in section 5.10.2.

Finally, as far as the documents of the students and the interviews are concerned, a case study was developed to look for answers to the research question: *To what extent can Mobile Learning improve the English language learning experience for Tourism students?*

This method was used as case studies are a strategy of inquiry in which a program, event, activity, process, or one or more individuals are analysed in detail and in depth in a natural context using as many data collection methods as reveal appropriate to understand what is happening in specific circumstances (Mason, 2014; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1994). One of the best known definitions of case study is:

investigation of a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident, and that relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulation fashion. (Yin, 1994, p. 13)

The case study of this research is developed with real students in their real life context, as Yin prepones, which accounts for part of its significance. The case study also relies on

different sources of evidence which need to be compared through triangulation, which is the use of a variety of techniques so that the results obtained are more reliable.

Hence, the aim of the research is holistic, in the sense that it aims to understand the case as a whole and in its uniqueness, as case studies focus on an “individual unit” or in what Stake (2008) calls a “functioning specific” or “bounded system.” (pp. 119–120).

Cases are bound by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection techniques over a sustained period of time. In the case of the present research data was gathered during a semester. The data collection techniques used were documents produced by students and interviews.

Cases are constructed to give a detailed and rich description of the setting, phenomena or individuals, followed by analysis of the data for themes or issues (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996; Stake, 1995). A case study is done to shed light on a phenomenon which is the processes, events, persons or things of interest for the researcher. (e.g. programmes, curricula, roles and events). They are “defined by interest in an individual case, not by the methods of inquiry used” and they call attention to what can be learned about the single case (Stake, 2005). Thus, they enhance understanding of the case instead of generalising beyond it. Both Yin (2009) and Stake (2005) recognise the challenging nature of case study. It is the aim of the present case study to understand the development of language use after having exposed students to Mobile Learning, as well as to understand students’ perceptions as far as this experience is concerned.

This type of research can either be simple or complex and it gains credibility through thorough triangulating descriptions and interpretations, therefore not by a single step only. It concentrates on experiential knowledge of the case and pays close attention to the influence of factors such as: its social, cultural, political and other contexts (Stake, 2005).

Studying a “case” involves doing an in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and data is collected in association with people involved in the “case”, usually through fieldwork. Besides, it is important that the researcher understands the perspective of the “case” participants. The collection of data was made in field work with students, which favours the involvement of the researcher in the “case” justified by personal motivations as explained in section 5.4.



There are five requirements to conduct a case study research: issue choice (its importance), triangulation, experiential knowledge, contexts (may help understand findings because they are a means of situating action [Dey, 1993]) and activities. The present research encompasses all these five requirements according to its design as it has been explained throughout this chapter.

Case studies can be chosen in accordance with their accessibility or the one with which we can spend the most time, as this provides better potential for analysis and learning. “Sometimes it’s better to learn a lot from an atypical case than a little from a seemingly typical case”. By seeing and inquiring about the case personally, one can come to understand the case in different ways.

In the specific case of Linguistics studies, case studies are frequently conducted (Perry & Perry, 2011). These provide insights into language use contexts which can be analysed in a holistic way.

### **5.9 – Data collection techniques**

We started off this research by doing a literature review that supported the analysis model, which was further substantiated by the epistemology and methodological options. At this point we will focus on the empirical study and its different stages.

The first stage focuses on the different data collection techniques used during the research. They are divided according to the survey conducted on students and teachers; the documents analysed (both programmes and the texts of the students) and, finally, the interviews to the students as it is shown in Figure 5.16.

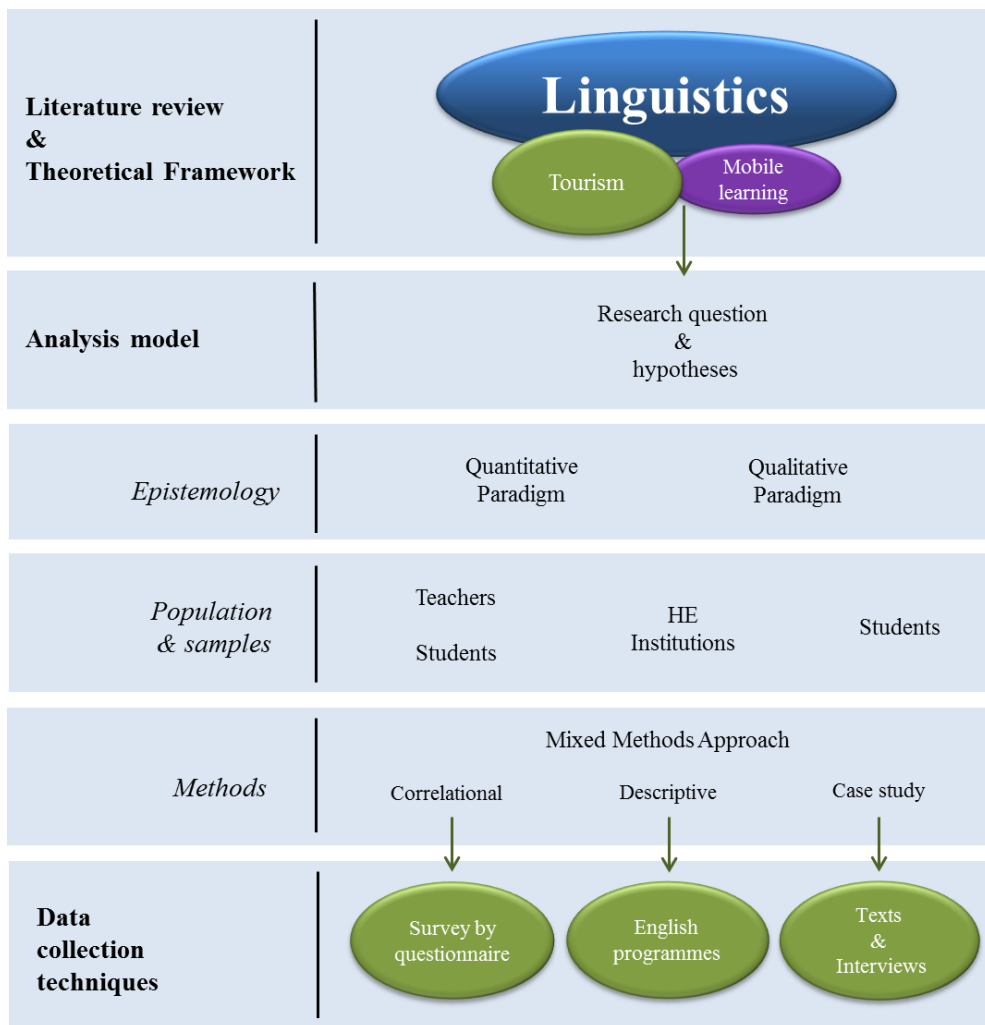


Figure 5.16 – Subject areas of the study – Data collection techniques

### 5.9.1 – Survey by questionnaire

As far as data collection techniques of this research are concerned, these rely on the literature review (UTAUT). In the first place, the researcher was used to the traditional teaching methods of using books and audios as was previously mentioned in chapter 1 and no Mobile Learning strategies had been introduced before in the English language classes. Facing the ever growing presence of different mobile devices among students in and outside class, we endeavoured to use technology in favour of language teaching and learning. Before adopting such a strategy, we decided to carry out a survey among students (Appendix 5) and teachers (Appendix 7) to understand which factors would be predictors of behaviour intention.

Mobile devices are owned and are present in our daily lives. However, it is necessary to understand which mobile devices students and teachers use. In order to achieve this goal a questionnaire was built and distributed to both teachers and students. These comprised two parts. The first gathers items related to i) Internet access and to personal mobile devices owned and used ii) frequency of Internet access through mobile devices; iii) Internet access on mobile devices iv) social networks used; frequency of access to social networks through mobile devices; v) mobile devices used for learning purposes; vi) in class and outside class use of mobile devices for learning purposes; vii) learning activities used in mobile devices; viii) preferred places to use learning activities; ix) benefits and risks of using Mobile Learning; and xi) personal data (institution; course; academic year; gender; and age).

Besides the demographics data of the first part it was also important to understand which variables are predictors of the behaviour intention towards Mobile Learning. For this purpose, the model of the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (Venkatesh et al., 2003) was used in the second part of the questionnaire. The model is divided into 4 independent variables (Performance Expectancy; Effort Expectancy; Social Influence and Facilitating Conditions) which are moderated by four other variables (gender, age, experience, and voluntariness of use).

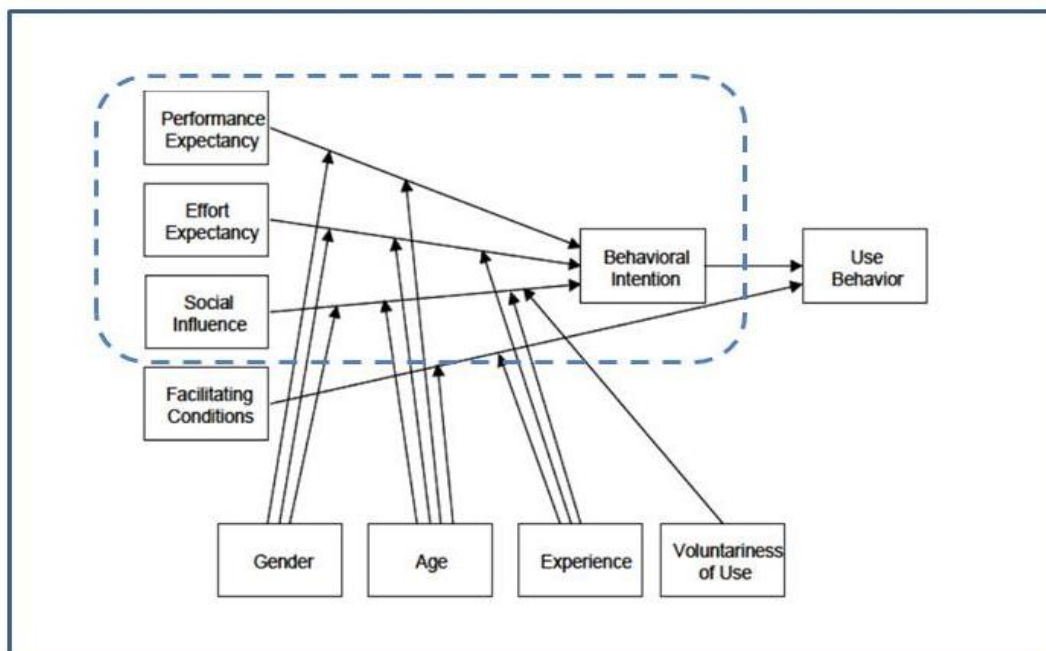


Figure 5.17 – UTAUT model

Source: (Venkatesh et al., 2003, p. 445)

Following the literature review in chapter 4, section 4.4.3, it is shown that UTAUT has several constructs that are predictors of intention to use technology (Appendix 9). However, for this thesis, only the issues related to behavioural intention were taken into consideration. Therefore, only “effort expectancy”, “performance expectancy” and “social influence” are dealt with as far as its predictors. These variables influence behaviour intention and are composed of different items, as it was mentioned in the literature review.

Concepts provide a rationale for the study (Creswell, 2009), they are “general representations of the phenomena to be studied – the ‘building blocks’ of the study” (Veal, 2011, p. 57). They are the terms that refer to the characteristics of events, situations, groups, and individuals that are studied (Selltiz, Wrightsman, and Cook, 1976, cit. in Pizam, 1994). They express “an abstraction formed by generalisation from particulars. Constructs are “concepts with added meaning, deliberately and consciously invented or adopted for a special scientific purpose” (Kerlinger, 1973, p. 29).

#### **5.9.1.1 – Definition of the survey constructs**

After having presented the theory under scrutiny, the different constructs involved are here presented. A scientific construct can be defined and specified so that it can be measured and observed. This operational definition “assigns a meaning to a construct or a variable by specifying the activities or ‘operations’ necessary to measure it . . . [being] a sort of manual of instructions to the investigator . . . . it defines or gives meaning to a variable by spelling out what the investigator must do to measure it” (Lee, 2007, pp. 24–25). This work comprises different constructs such as the dependent variable and the independent variables.

#### **Behavioural intention**

The dependent variable is measured through tests of the independent variables. The latter comprise “effort expectancy”; “performance expectancy” and “social influence” which are described below. As the original model refers to any IT “system” in order to be broad enough to test behavioural intention of any IT System, this word was replaced by “Mobile Learning”.

### **Effort expectancy**

This construct, one of the independent variables, is defined “as the degree of ease associated with the use of the system” (Venkatesh et al., 2003, p. 450). In the present work it is verified whether there is a relation between effort expectancy and the dependent variable behaviour intention. Behavioural intention is “a person’s relative strength of intention to perform a certain behavior” (Donaldson, 2011, p. 49) to which contribute four items (Venkatesh et al., 2003, p. 460). For this purpose, the following items to estimate UTAUT were modified from the original model to refer to Mobile Learning:

My interaction with Mobile Learning would be clear and understandable.

It would be easy for me to become skilful at using Mobile Learning.

I would find using Mobile Learning easy to use

Learning to operate Mobile Learning is easy for me

### **Performance expectancy**

This construct is “the degree to which an individual believes that using the system will help him or her to attain gains in job performance” (Venkatesh et al., 2003, p. 447). In this research it is aimed to see the relation between the independent variable of performance expectancy and behaviour intention to use Mobile Learning according to the four items that estimate UTAUT. For this purpose, the following items were modified from the original model, as well, to refer to Mobile Learning:

I would find Mobile Learning useful.

Using Mobile Learning enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly

Using Mobile Learning increases my productivity.

If I use Mobile Learning, I will increase my chances of getting better academic results.

### **Social influence**

Social influence is the “degree to which an individual perceives that important others believe he or she should use the new system” (Venkatesh et al., 2003, p. 451). In this study, the relation between behavioural intention and social influence is also scrutinised according to

the four items that estimate UTAUT. As in the previous variables, the following items were modified from the original model to refer to Mobile Learning as well:

People who influence my behaviour think that I should use Mobile Learning.

People who are important to me think that I should use Mobile Learning.

Teachers have been helpful in the use of Mobile Learning.

This question was adapted for teachers:

The senior management has been helpful in the use of Mobile Learning.

The school has supported the use of Mobile Learning.

The questions have been adapted to fit Mobile Learning research purposes as in previous studies (Donaldson, 2011). For example, the word “system”, from the original model, was replaced by the expression “Mobile Learning” and it was translated into Portuguese by two people, followed by a back translation by a third person, according to survey translation methods by Hill and Hill (2009) and it was validated by a panel of translation and IT experts. In the case of the Portuguese reality Mobile Learning was translated into “mobile devices” as “Mobile Learning” was considered, in the pre-test, a non-understandable concept among Portuguese students and teachers.

As far as measure scales are concerned, nominal and ordinal scales were used. Questions are nominal and questions through are ordinal. In the case of the ordinal scale, the five item Likert scale was adopted, ranging from “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” and a “do not know/do not reply” item was also considered taking into consideration that students might not have access to Mobile Learning through their devices or not be used to using it.

### **5.9.2 – Documents – Programmes and texts produced by the students**

For the purpose of this research, different documents were analysed. Documents are “independent methodological and situationally embedded creations of their producers” (Wolff, 2004, p. 285) because they are usually intended to communicate with particular and legitimate recipients. There are different types of documents, one of them are official documents, characterised by belonging to organisations (Del Rincón et al., 1995) and,

therefore, provide “institutionalised traces” (Wolff, 2004, p. 284) which legitimately allow to draw conclusions about the organisations the documents belong to (Wolff, 2004).

Official documents can be internal or external. Internal documents are produced to be available within the organisation, whereas external documents are produced to communicate outwards, providing information about the organisation. Another type of document that can be analysed, in the educational context, are curricular documents, such as exams (Del Rincón et al., 1995, p. 358). Although other types of documents exist they were not considered in the scope of the present study. In the case of this research, the English language programmes analysed, that belong to different HE organisations, fall under the scope of official external documents and the texts produced by the students are curricular documents.

Document analysis is a systematic and planned activity that involves examining documents to obtain useful and necessary information in order to provide answers to the research. This approach is very convenient and suitable to obtain retrospective information about phenomena, situations or programmes and its analysis can be a complementary strategy to other methods such as interviews (Flick, 2009), as is the case in this research where different methods are implemented.

Analysing documents needs to be in context as they allow to understand perspectives of those who produce them (Del Rincón et al., 1995, p. 342) once they are a “means for communication” (Flick, 2009, p. 257), “making a specific case out of a . . . process.” (Flick, 2009, p. 261). The data obtained from documents can be analysed quantitatively and qualitatively as well (Flick, 2009), which is what the present research does: it analyses the documents in both ways to gather as much information as possible.

When collecting documents, some ethical issues need to be borne in mind such as “obtaining permission” (Flick, 2009, p. 141) and protecting the anonymity of the respondents which was taken into account as the HEI programmes are not identified individually; informed consent was asked both of the students and of the school president where the study was conducted and the material gathered omits any reference to the individuals involved, namely, in the texts where students wrote their names as Tourism professionals, these were replaced by a general code.

When selecting documents, it is important to bear in mind some criteria (Scott, 1990, p. 6 cit. in Flick, 2009, p. 257): authenticity; credibility; representativeness and meaning.

Authenticity refers to the documents as being primary or secondary. In this case, they are primary documents as they are the original programmes used in the different organisations and the original text productions of the students.

Credibility addresses the accuracy of the documents and their origin. In this case all documents are reliable. In the case of programmes, they are official documents and students' texts were produced by students enrolled in Tourism courses and are, therefore, not anonymous respondents.

As far as representativeness is concerned, the programmes from all institutions were collected and analysed, apart from two programmes which were not sent to the researcher (as further explained in the following section). Students' texts are also representative of the tasks language students perform in language classes to develop their productive skills.

The last selection criterion is meaning. This stands for the intended meaning of the documents for their authors and for their readers. In this case, programmes are written by teachers to establish contents and regulations within the English language classes of each organisation and, for the researcher, they are a source of information regarding the same intent. Students' texts are produced to be part of the assessment and to show evidence of acquired knowledge. For the researcher, in this study, they demonstrate how language is being used during the case study and the outcome of the teaching/learning process.

Having established the selection criteria, it is important to understand the benefits and drawbacks of using documents for content analysis. There are advantages in using documents as they provide an understanding of the dynamic and lively educational context where they are produced, of a certain didactic approach and it allows for the understanding of facts observed through other means and it is a simple way of understanding other people's perceptions, which is considered more reliable than observation and interviews. However, there are also shortcomings related to the use of documents, such as the process of collation being time consuming or these being difficult to obtain.

Considering the shortcomings of using documents, in the case of the present research, the programmes of the curricular units of the 2012/13 academic year were sent to the researcher by the course directors after being requested by email (Appendix 10). Nevertheless, some efforts to gather them had to be undertaken, namely to address follow-up emails, in some



cases. The data collection was gradual and it was conducted during one month (February 2012), after which all programmes, apart from two, were made available for analysis.

As for the students' texts and interviews (further explained in the following section), they were not difficult to obtain as the researcher worked directly with the students, who allowed their use (Appendix 11); so did the school president (Appendix 12) considering these as necessary (Flick, 2009, p. 141), besides the texts were collected the day they were produced.

As for the advantages, the present research involves programmes from all institutions, which provides a thorough panoramic knowledge of the educational context. Besides, the students' texts reflect inside, but also outside class contact with English language, allowing the learning context to be anytime, anywhere, therefore, it is hoped that by using these documents the dynamic and lively context where the case study is developed can be better understood. By using these two types of documents, we aimed to comprehend whether the development of the students' language use reality occurred and if it was enhanced by the learning experience.

### **5.9.3 – Interviews**

The interviews were recorded (Veal, 2011) and conducted based on a “retrospective inspection” (Flick, 2009, p. 151) of the Mobile Learning approach experience, in order to understand how this was perceived by students. They were conducted in Portuguese to elicit unfiltered responses from respondents who may not be fluent in English. The excerpts which were extracted from the interviews were transcribed and translated, followed by back translation method.

Interviews, for this research, are secondary data that help inform the study and are in line with the context of the research question (Schmidt, 2004). According to Flick (2009), some criteria need to be taken into consideration when conducting interviews:

- Design and use an interview protocol which is a form with approximately five open-ended questions that allow narrowing the central question of the research (Table 5.2).
- Depth and personal context are also mentioned by Flick (2009, p. 151) as being relevant in an interview. These are achieved by the interviewers by ensuring that answers go beyond

simple statements. This is guaranteed if questions focus on feelings and comparisons to other situations. Depth and personal context are achieved with the questions under study, as they interweave between students' personal routines and how Mobile Learning impacted on them and on students' in class routines.

- No-direction which is achieved by asking, in this case, semi structured questions as they address a "concrete issue" (Flick, 2009, p. 150) of the students' learning process and the responses are left open;

- The criterion of specificity which refers to the impact or meaning of a specific event. In the case of this research, the "event" was the experience lived by the students and the perception of its impact.

In order to increase specificity, the researcher should:

- Encourage "retrospective inspection" (Flick, 2009, p. 151) by asking a set of explicit questions that aid the respondent to focus on the required research information. Considering this, in the present research, some questions are more general, whereas others are more specific.

Table 5.2 – Interview script<sup>13</sup>

Perceptions of Mobile Learning	
1	What is your opinion about the <i>Mobilelearner</i> group?
2	Which were your favourite activities developed in class?
3	Which were your favourite activities developed outside class?
4	Were you a <i>Facebook</i> user?
5	How often did you have access to it?
6	During this semester, did you change your use routine of <i>Facebook</i> ?
7	In which way did the use of mobile devices change the way you used grammars/dictionaries?
8	How would you assess the effort to have access to the materials by using mobile devices?
9	How would you assess your language performance after using Mobile Learning?
10	Which mobile devices did you use to have access to the materials?
11	Where did you have access to the materials?
12	Would you like to continue with Mobile Learning activities?
13	Which advantages do you identify in Mobile Learning?
14	Which disadvantages do you identify in Mobile Learning?

Facebook is a social network that the students use frequently, so, in order to make them feel comfortable about being interviewed, questions regarding a Facebook group, created to gather the material delivered for their Mobile Learning experience, were included. These were followed by questions addressing the use of mobile devices for learning purposes which we perceived to be a new experience that might make students mobilise filters and prevent the former from being at ease and answering openly and frankly.

- According to Flick (2009, p. 151) the range of the questions also needs to be considered when conducting an interview. Range aims at ensuring that all the relevant aspects that are important for the research question are approached. This means that although the interviewees can divert the conversation with the introduction of new topics, the interviewer should tactfully lead the interview back to any topic that was not developed deeply enough.

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<sup>13</sup> Free translation by the author. Please check Appendix 13 for the original script.

In the case of these interviews, as the opening question was about a familiar topic and the interviewees felt at ease talking about it, this meant that the researcher, sometimes, had to realign the questions and the relative answers of the informants in order to clarify responses and focus.

Interviews, according to Creswell (2007), should follow eight steps which were taken into consideration during the present study:

- First, interviewees are chosen according to the purpose of the research. In this case they were the researcher's students;
- The practical type of interview has to be chosen according to the research. In this case, it was a one-on one interview. For this purpose, the interviewees should not be hesitant to speak and share ideas as a shy interviewee can be a challenge and provide less adequate data. To avoid the hindrance of language, as students were Portuguese, the interviews were conducted in Portuguese, as previously mentioned;
- Use adequate recording equipment. In this case, the interviews were recorded on the computer, using Audacity open source software;
- Refine the interview questions through pilot testing. Pilot cases are selected on the basis of convenience, access and geographic proximity. In this case, students from other classes were used to test the questions.
- Determine the place, which in this case was one of the school rooms that had no scheduled activities;
- Obtain the consent of the interviewee (Appendix 11);
- During the interview, the interviewer must follow the sequence of the questions. This was the procedure that was adopted throughout in this research.

After presenting the data collection techniques used, it is necessary to understand how data were analysed. This is presented in the following section.

### **5.10– Data analysis**

When conducting an empirical study, and after having identified the data collection techniques, the population and samples on which it is conducted, it is necessary to inform the reader on the last stage of the research – the analysis techniques used to be able to provide

a discussion around the subject under study and come to conclusions on its concerns. This last phase is depicted in Figure 5.18 that encompasses the whole of the study process. This section follows the same criterion as the preceding sections; presenting the techniques according to each phase of the research (survey; documents and interviews).

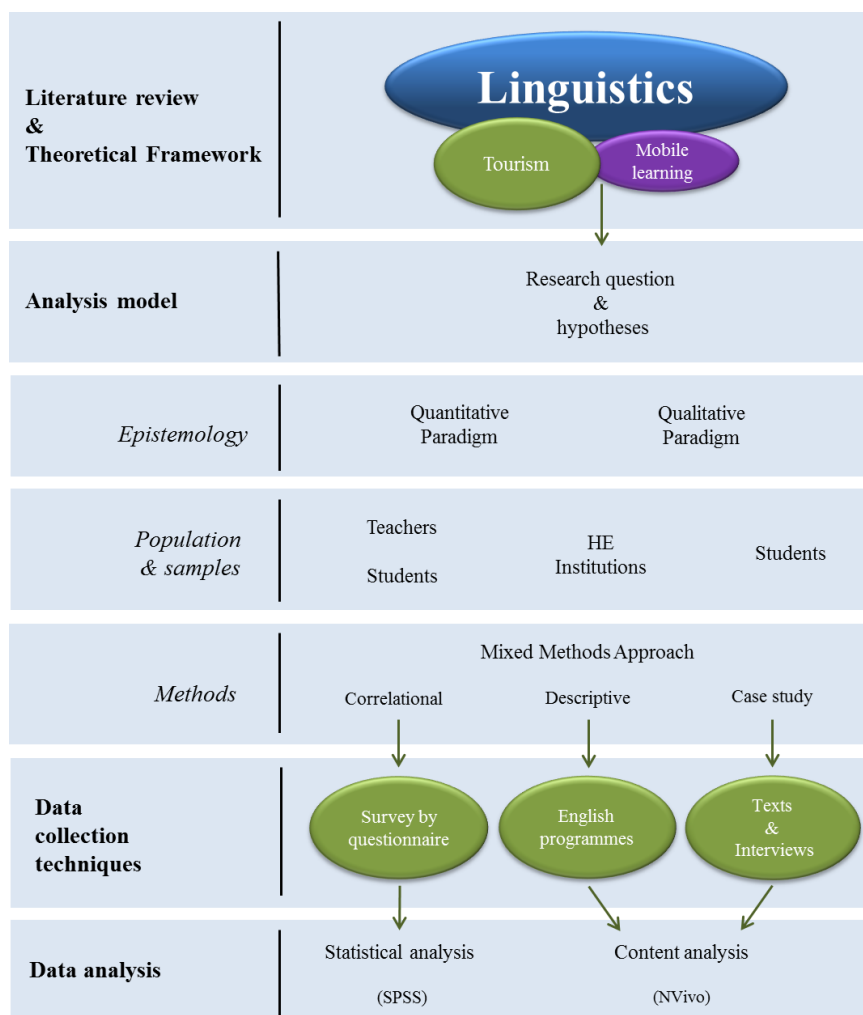


Figure 5.18 – Subject areas of the study – Population and samples

### 5.10.1 – Statistical analysis of the survey

After having collected all the necessary data within the population/sample, SPSS statistics data analysis software is used to find reliable answers to support the validity of the research problem. In order to estimate the constructs of UTAUT, several analysis techniques were conducted, using this software. First, the internal consistency reliability (ICR) was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha for each construct. Cronbach's Alpha is based on the average

correlation among the items studied. When ICR is above 0.7 (Bryman & Cramer, 2011) values show that the items used to measure that construct represent it in a correct manner and generate similar scores.

Following the ICR analysis, the inferential statistics to test the hypotheses was conducted. A multiple regression as well as multicollinearity tests followed. The regression model presupposes that the explaining variables are linearly independent, in other words, that there is no multicollinearity (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 1991). The degree of multicollinearity can be analysed through Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF).

Tolerance measures the degree in which a variable (Behavioural intention, in this case) is explained by the other independent variables. When Tolerance is low, multiple correlation is high and there is the possibility of multicollinearity, i.e., if tolerance figures are close to zero multicollinearity is likely (Bryman & Cramer, 2011). The limit value below in which there is multicollinearity is 0.1 (Pestana & Gageiro, 2008).

The reverse of tolerance is Variance Inflation Factor. The closer it is to one, the lower the multicollinearity. The value usually considered as the limit above which multicollinearity exists is ten (Pestana & Gageiro, 2008).

The correlation matrix was also extracted. The correlation matrix presupposes that when the probability of an outcome, associated with an item, is unrelated to another outcome, associated with another item, and vice versa, then both items are independent variables and when these are independent, the covariance between them is 0. Therefore, there is no relation between the results from one variable and the other (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 1991).

Finally, a linear regression was used. This accounts for the significance of the independent variables (Performance Expectancy, Effort Expectancy and Social Influence) as predictors of the dependent variable. The dependent variable is a linear function of a series of independent variables and an error term (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 1991). Bearing these in mind, the study model was the following:

$$\text{Behavioural intention} = B_0 + B_1 \text{ Effort Expectancy} + B_2 \text{ Performance Expectancy} + B_3 \text{ Social Influence} + \varepsilon$$

In order to understand if the items of the model are statistically different from zero, the *t* of student test is used, “this statistic will be normally distributed with a variance of 1 and, if the null hypothesis is true, a mean of 0” (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 1991, p. 37). The *F* test analyses the model as a whole instead of each of its items. For a significance level of 1%, it reveals that the hypothesis of nullity of the coefficients of the independent variables considered in the model it is to be rejected.

The Durbin-Watson test shows if the residuals of serially recorded observations are correlated or not (Pindyck & Rubinfeld, 1991, p. 143). When the value obtained is near 2 it can be concluded that there is no correlation.

After having conducted several tests to understand the behavioural intention of both students and teachers at national level, a case study was developed. During this, other analysis techniques were employed which are described below.

### **5.10.2 – Content analysis**

After having identified the analysis techniques applied to the survey by questionnaire, it is necessary to present how documents and interviews were analysed. The chosen technique was content analysis which is explained in this section, however, the specific content analysis technique of the documents produced by the students and the interviews are developed in sections 5.10.2.2 and 5.10.2.1, respectively.

Content analysis is a research technique that is used to systematically analyse the contents of documents through “quantitative measures of the frequency of appearance of particular elements in the text” (Scott, 2006, p. 40), and “the number of times that a particular item is used, and the number of contexts in which it appears, are used as measures of the significance of particular ideas or meanings in the document” (Scott, 2006, p. 40). In order to measure the frequency of elements, documents need to be coded according to a classification scheme.

As research, and coding, to be more precise, is a time consuming activity, technological aids can help make the process faster. For this purpose, computer programmes can be used to analyse the content of documents.

Computer programs to analyse textual data have been available since the 1960's, as is the case, for example of *The General Enquirer* (Kelle, 2004) but they were only appealing to the area of quantitative content analysis. Only with the introduction of personal computer- assisted text processing was the potential of Information Technologies (IT) for manipulating texts recognised. It was only in the 1980's that qualitative researchers started to develop and place on the market IT-supported text database systems (such as *NUD.IST*). At first, they were difficult to use but, throughout time, improvements were introduced and more comprehensive, user-friendly and ergonomic software for content analysis were made available, such as Nvivo.

The widespread availability and use of this software in qualitative research has allowed several developments in this area, as for example the establishing of the term Computer-Assisted Qualitative Data Analysis Software (CAQDAS) and, in the University of Surrey, the constitution of the CAQDAS – Networking project<sup>14</sup> was created. The latter provides practical support, training and information about software programs, which assist qualitative data analysis, as well as platforms for debating methodological and epistemological issues that arise from the use of the different software.

Using software for content analysis is applicable in different study areas and is suitable, namely for linguistic analysis (Bardin, 1977). As Carley (1997, cit. in Neuendorf, 2002) propounds, “language can be represented as a network of concepts and relationships among them. This network can be thought of as a social structure of language or, equivalently, the representation of extant social knowledge” and CAQDAS helps “map interrelationships among concepts” (p. 196). This is one of the reasons why software is used in the current research. Other reasons are that CAQDAS allows the researcher to perform rapidly; there is more rigour, because the computer refuses ambiguity; the software is flexible, in the sense that data can be reused under different premises; the reproduction and exchange of documents and database is facilitated; it allows handling with complex data; it lets the researcher have more free time for being creative and to make reflexions instead of carrying out long and laborious tasks and to find co-occurrences (two or more registered units in the same document) (Bardin, 1977).

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<sup>14</sup> <http://www.surrey.ac.uk/sociology/research/researchcentres/caqdas/>



However useful for research, the use of CAQDAS in qualitative research is, it does not gather consensus among researchers. This is because CAQDAS performs different tasks from software that deals with statistical analysis. They are not tools for analysis but to structure and organise text data (Kelle, 2004). These procedures are attainable through the various available techniques such as (Given, 2008) functionalities to imitate highlighting of text and writing margin notes; to diagram ideas and create models that develop as the analysis progresses, maintaining the integrity of the original document; a category system that organises data in two ways: documents can be organised according to specific attributes (such as age and gender of the writer) as well as individual sections of data arranged according to codes. Besides, coding and retrieval are simple as well as combining coding systems. Given the potential of the software and bearing in mind that it does not do analysis as such, it is the researchers' skill and knowledge that allows him/her to analyse the data and come to conclusions.

NVivo is one of the popular programmes (Creswell, 2007) and it is considered the best among qualitative analysis software (Amaral, 2011); it has a user-friendly interface; it allows for note taking; it allows the researcher to work with a large number of documents and it has several tools that allow for different classification groupings. These account for the reasons of its choice for treating data in this research project.

#### **5.10.2.1 – Content analysis of the Programmes**

As far as the analysis of the programmes of the different HE institutions is concerned, these were also subject to content analysis. The different steps involved to implement the technique are here presented.

The documents and programmes, in this case, were gathered and a coding system was elaborated. According to Flick (2009), coding represents the “operations by which data is broken down, conceptualised and put back together in new ways” (2009, p. 307) to allow deeper understanding and further interpretation of documents. Coding can be developed in different procedures, one of which is “open coding” (Flick, 2009, p. 307). Its aim is to express data in the form of concepts. To reach these, according to Flick (2009), data needs to be segmented and attached to codes which may result in dozens of codes.

Afterwards, these codes are categorised by grouping them according to what is discovered from the data and to what is relevant for the research question. The codes of the categories are more abstract in the second phase and can be borrowed from the literature and can have different degrees of detail. A text can be coded line by line, sentence by sentence or paragraph by paragraph, among other different types of coding criteria established in accordance with the interests of the research in effect.

The programme contents were first inserted in NVivo, in order to create a corpus (Flick, 2009). A coding per institution and per course was made, taking into account courses offered in the Portuguese mainland and in the isles (Appendix 14).

As one of our research objectives is to find out the Tourism contents taught in Portugal in public higher education organisations, we knew not what to expect therefore a procedure without prior categorisation occurred (Bardin, 1977) as no pre-existing or a priori codes were established (Creswell, 2007). It was the context (Bardin, 1977) that allowed categories to be formed and categories for these contents were established according to general codes (Flick, 2009). These codes were attributed according to Tourism supply elements (explained in chapter 3) as we verified that contents corresponded to these.

Table 5.3 identifies the different elements, as well as references of the literature support.

This option was made taking into consideration that “documents are communicative devices rather than . . . containers of contents” (Flick, 2009, p. 216). Therefore, they need to be clustered according to the context. Some categories are also subdivided, according to the literature. For example, “Transportation” is subdivided into “Surface transport”; “Air transport” and “Transportation issues and operation”. “Surface transport” is also subdivided into “Road transport”; “Rail transport” and “Water transport”, because the context of the programmes required such subdivisions and there is support in the literature for such division.

Table 5.3 – Coding of programmes

Main themes		Literature support
1	Accommodation and reservations	TSA; Inskeep, 1991
2	Conceptualisation	Cooper et al., 1998
3	Food and beverage	TSA
4	Marketing	Kotler, Haider, & Rein, 1993; Kotler, 1984; Carneiro, Costa, & Crompton, 2013
5	Intermediaries, tour operators, travel agencies and tourist guides	TSA
6	Billing	
7	Human resources	Cooper, Gilbert, Fletcher, Wanhill, & Shepherd, 1998; Grönroos, 1983; Baum, 1993; Go, 1993; Jafari, 1993; Baum & Conlin, 1996; Jafari & Fayos-Sola, 1996; Johns, 1996
8	Tourist attractions	1- Landscape and man-made attractions
		2- Cultural attractions
		3- Traditions
9	Business and products	WTO, 1994
10	General English	
11	Communication	Riley, 1991
12	Destinations and regions	Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Leiper, 1979; Leiper, 1990; Holloway, 1989; Cooper et al., 1998
13	Transportation	1- Road transport
		2- Rail transport
		3- Water transport
		Air transport
	Transportation issues and operation	TSA Inskeep, 1991
14	Future/ Trends	Buhalis & Matloka, 20013
15	Institutional elements	World Tourism Organisation, 1994a; Inskeep, 1991
16	Leisure and Recreation	TSA; Boniface & Cooper, 1994
17	Non General English/ Non Tourism	
18	Safety and security	MacLaurin, 2001
19	Festivals and events	Getz, 2007
20	Arts and entertainment	Yeoman et al., 2004,
21	Food and health care	Voigt, 2014
22	Rent-a-car	TSA

The contents that did not fit any of the categories were, again, grouped taking into consideration the context in which they occurred. For example, the content “Offering and

requesting” was grouped under the category of “General English” because the lack of context does not allow understanding whether this content is related to “Accommodation and reservations” or “Food and beverage” or with any other category. In this category were also included items which do not fit into the themes of any particular Tourism category, as for example the content “Question words”.

Another category named “Non Tourism/non general English” was also established because some contents could not be framed under any of the previous, as for example “Recording vocabulary” or “Revision”.

Finally, the results obtained from the categorisation were submitted to sequencing, in order and frequency of occurrence, to understand which contents were given more relevance, from which results are presented and discussed in chapter 7. These contents occurred as main topic; sub topic and subsub topic. In some cases, some subjects were not clear to which Tourism or language area they belong to, which rendered it impossible to categorise.

After identifying the major themes at national level, another coding, by territorial statistic units (NUTS) was attributed to the main categories. In this case, NUTS II was chosen as these account for a division of the territory into the following: North; Centre; Lisbon; Alentejo; Algarve; Azores and Madeira. Madeira is not considered for the analysis as there are no Tourism courses offered in institutions on the island. This coding allows us to shed light onto the main differences and similarities in Portuguese territory that is discussed in chapter 7.

#### **5.10.2.2 – Content analysis of the documents produced and perceptions of interviews**

Students’ texts were inserted into an NVivo database as a corpus. They were divided according to categories: Gender; Age; Academic Year; Order in which the documents were assigned.

The sources under study (110 compositions) were analysed in two main groups of compositions of first and second year students. These are made of four compositions, in the case of first year students, and three, in the case of second year students.

These sources were analysed according to three categories of linguistic analysis (Theme; Rheme and marked Theme) that emerged from the literature review (chapter 2) which can be of relevance to the study.

The analysis model which represents the analysis of the texts system is presented at the beginning of chapter 7.

### 5.10.3 – Characteristics of the texts

The texts under analysis (110) were produced by first year students (92) and by second year students (18), as portrayed in Table 5.4 below, during the second semester of the academic year of 2012/13.

Table 5.4 – Number of texts under analysis

	Text A	Text B	Text C	Text D	Sub-total	Total
1st year	23	23	23	23	92	110
2nd year	6	6	6	N/A	18	

The first texts (Texts A) were written without prior exposure of the students to the subjects under study: Douro landscape and Port wine, whereas the ones that followed were written after Mobile Learning materials were introduced.

The first texts (Appendices 15 and 19), of both first and second year students were asked to be written in the first week of classes. Students were asked to write what they would tell a tourist about the Douro landscape and Port wine. They were free to write whichever vocabulary they knew in Portuguese but did not know in English so as to allow the understanding of the existing knowledge.

The following required texts were written every three weeks, during the exposure period to materials created for Mobile Learning. As the first year students were doing Hotel English and the second year students were doing Tourism English (these two curricular units form part of English for Specific purposes in Tourism *continuum*), different texts were asked of them, according to these subjects. For these reasons, the first year students were asked to write dialogues (Text B: Appendix 16 and text C: Appendix 17) and an opinion on different topics (text D: Appendix 18). The first dialogue (text B) was between a Tourism professional

who works in a hotel reception and a tourist who asks for some information on things to do and places to visit in the Douro region. The strategy of simulating a situation was chosen as it allows a focus on particular lexical fields and also permits comparison between the different dialogues. The third dialogue (text C) was between a Tourism professional who works at a restaurant and two tourists who ordered their meals according to a provided menu. The students were asked to advise the tourists on the food pairings for each dish. In the last text (text D), students were asked to answer four questions during a job interview and only an opinion was asked for and not a dialogue. This strategy was used to allow the students a freer reign in mobilising vocabulary and linguistic structures, and it also permitted the use of subjective discourse to take place.

The second year students, on the other hand, were asked to write a dialogue (text B: Appendix 20) during a guided tour, between a tour guide and a tourist and finally a text (text C: Appendix 21) recommending a tourist on what to do during a two-day stay in the Douro region and accounting for their choices.

Returning back to the dialogue as the textual genre to elicit language, this allowed us to channel the vocabulary and general discourse into a particular situational context and exercise possible professional applications of the English language. The writing of the texts and the exposure to Mobile Learning envisages contributing to the enlargement of the lexical knowledge of the future professionals, by exposing them to more contact with this lexicon and knowledge of the central and fundamental themes and respective terms.

In order to approach Douro landscape and Port wine themes, several official documents were consulted (Comissão de Coordenação e Desenvolvimento Regional do Norte, 2011; Estrutura de Missão do Douro, 2013; IDTOUR, 2012) as well as official websites<sup>15</sup>. As the material is too vast to analyse in language classes, choices regarding the main characteristics of the landscape and Port wine were made to elaborate the materials for and with the students. During classes, mind maps were built from brainstorming exercises, gathering the different words that students knew on the subject. After classes, the mind maps built with the students were supplemented, by the teacher, with information that the students did not

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<sup>15</sup> [blog.grahams-port.com](http://blog.grahams-port.com); [www.quintadoportal.com](http://www.quintadoportal.com); <http://www.taylor.pt/en/>; [www.ivdp.pt](http://www.ivdp.pt)

know or at least did not mobilise in class. These mind maps were built online and made available to students through their mobile devices (see Appendix 22).

All the other materials were also made available for their mobile devices, bearing more in mind the premise of the importance of the mobility of the devices, than the mobility of the learners which was the next step, both with regards to the learning dynamics and in keeping with the sequence that this learning strategy acquired in the literature on this matter, as was previously mentioned in chapter 3 (Sharples, 2006). Nevertheless, as the material would occupy considerable mobile device memory, the materials were also made available for the Facebook group created for these classes (Facebook group name: Mobilelearner<sup>16</sup>). For the students who did not have a Facebook account and in order to allow them access to information, the material was also sent by email, as is supported by the literature (Shih et al., 2013) besides being made available on their mobiles.

After being exposed to the materials, the students were asked to produce different texts, these will be referred to as documents, as well, a term used in methodology (Del Rincón et al., 1995, p. 358), once they are curricular documents, as was previously mentioned. Therefore, the data collection technique is based on document analysis.

As for the data analysis, a content analysis of the documents was developed through NVivo 10.0 software. Content analysis focuses on the “word” and on language practice by identifiable users. Therefore, this analysis technique allows for understanding the language user or the specific context where language use occurs, according to the research objectives. In the case of this research, we aim at understanding the context of language use when Mobile Learning experiences are enhanced.

The data gathered from content analysis was, then, subject to quantitative and qualitative analysis. The documents were inserted in NVivo 10.0 software, and they account for the corpus under analysis. These documents were classified according to the students’ academic year and document writing order and categorised from document A to D in the case of first year material, and from document A to C for second year material. From a word query made to these documents, the total number of words is presented in chapter 7.

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<sup>16</sup> Facebook group URL: <https://www.facebook.com/groups/120285208155477/?fref=ts>

Afterwards, nodes were created according to Halliday's (1994) framework of "Theme"; "marked Theme" and "Rheme", which are Systemic Functional Linguistics units of analysis under which the texts were considered, a characterisation of these is explained in chapter 2. For SLF every clause has a thematic structure and theme is its initial position and the remainder of the clause is the Rheme. The importance of the initial position serves as the "point of departure of the message" (Halliday, 1994, p. 38) as well as of its semantics and pragmatic functions. Themes contribute to building the coherence of discourse by displaying how discourse proceeds, as it expresses a connection between what was said (anaphoric reference) and what is going to be said next (cataphoric reference).

After creating the nodes, all the sentences were coded according to the category they belonged to, either Theme, Rheme or marked Theme (distinction explained in chapter 2). When this process ended, the phase of queries started, making it possible to understand the distribution of the words in the different categories, according to each document and to run word frequency queries as is shown in chapter 7. The quantitative and qualitative analysis is presented in that chapter as well. After coding and several word frequency queries had been run, the results and discussion of which will be developed in chapter 7.

### **5.10.3.1 – Interviews – perceptions**

Interviews are another form of data collection that represents a series of steps in a procedure. After conducting the interviews, they were transcribed and inserted in NVivo to form a corpus. They were coded according to the questions asked but only excerpts that are particularly relevant for the study were included in this work (Patton, 1980), then, they were translated and back translated, as is customary in translation methods (Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin, & Ferraz, 1998; Guillemin, Bombardier, & Beaton, 1993). The anonymity (Creswell, 2007) of the participants is also protected by masking their names in the data. According to the previously stated objectives of the interviews (to understand how the Mobile Learning experience was perceived by students), the results were developed in section 7.4.



### **5.11 – Synopsis**

The present chapter started with brief considerations on the framework of the research, followed by epistemological and methodological aspects related to the social sciences. This was followed by the different stages of the research as far as population and samples used in the study; the methods used, as well as the data collection techniques and analyses are concerned. The population studied address higher education institutional documents and the samples refer to teachers and students. As for methods, the chosen approach was mixed methods, as the study relies on both quantitative and qualitative methods. Regarding data collection techniques, three techniques were used. First, a survey by questionnaire was conducted, followed by the collection of (official) documents. Data was analysed using SPSS and NVivo 10.0 where data was introduced, labelled and results were analysed according to the literature review.

**CHAPTER 6 | MOBILE LEARNING ACCEPTANCE  
IN HIGHER EDUCATION**

## 6.1 – Introduction to Mobile Learning acceptance data

This chapter refers to the study developed using a national survey. Section 6.2 describes the data analysis developed using SPSS software which is followed by the discussion of the results obtained. Both analysis and discussion of results address English teachers and students of English of public higher education institutions where Tourism is taught. Section 6.3 refers to the limitations of both analysis and results.

## 6.2 – Data analysis and discussion

This study is conducted with data gathered from Portuguese public HE institutions. In spite of the inconsistencies observed in the literature (chapter 4), it is the aim of this chapter to confirm the basic form of the UTAUT model.

From the reply percentage, and upon application of descriptive statistics, it is concluded that 527 students participated in the research, of which 177 are male (33.6%) and 350 are female (66.4%) (Figure 6.1). As far as teachers are concerned, 41 participated in the research, being 10 men (24.4%) and 31 women (75.6%) (Figure 6.2).

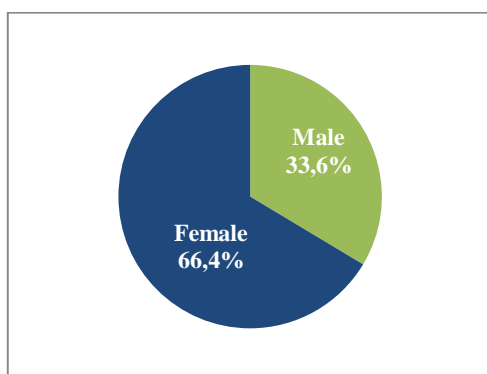


Figure 6.1 – Students' gender

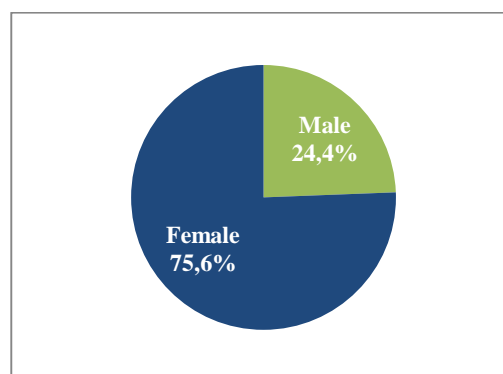


Figure 6.2 – Teachers' gender

From the gathered sample, it is observable that most students are young adults in their twenties and thirties (71.3%), followed by younger students (16.9%) (Figure 6.3). As far as teachers are concerned, the majority is in their twenties or mid-thirties (46.3%) which accounts for a young teacher generation in Tourism courses (Figure 6.4).

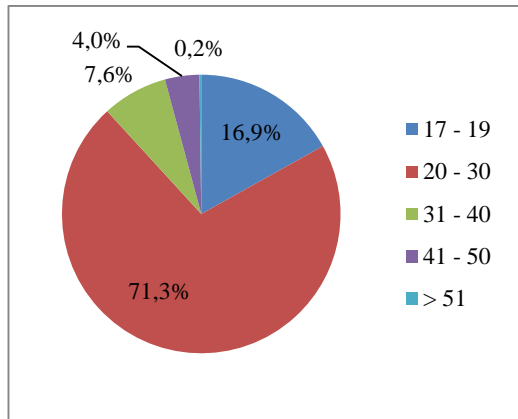


Figure 6.3 – Students’ age

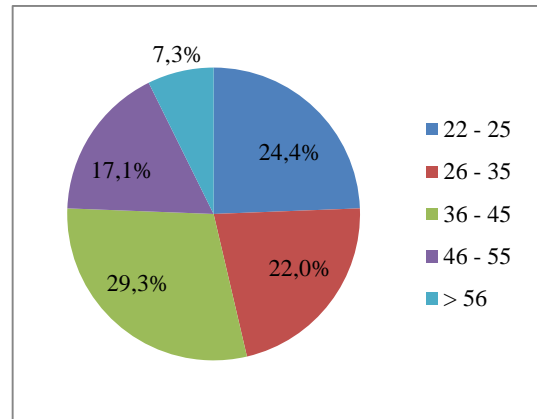


Figure 6.4 – Teachers’ age

The students’ sample is representative along the three undergraduate years as the reply percentage is very similar among second (36.1%) and third year students (36.7%), whereas, first year students replied slightly less (27.3%) (Figure 6.5). From the 527 students only 50 (9%) did not reply in a valid way to this question.

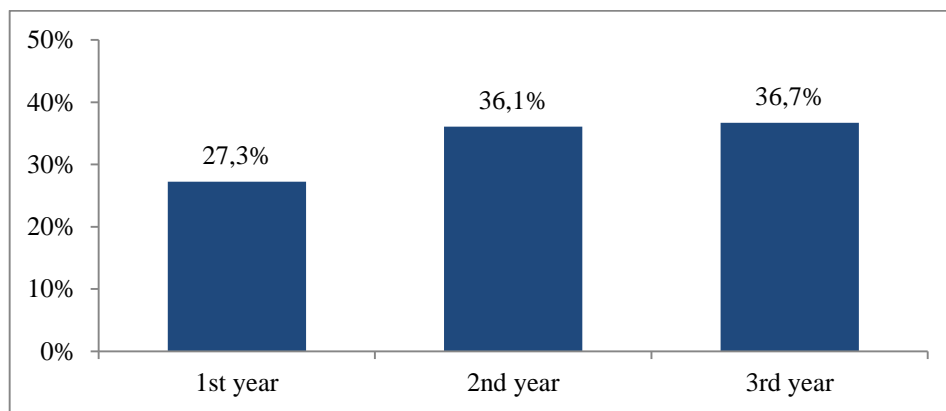


Figure 6.5 – Distribution per academic year of student respondents

As far as the academic degree of teachers is concerned, most teachers hold a PhD (36.6%) followed by master degrees (34.1%) and the Portuguese degree: Licenciatura (29.3%) (Figure 6.6).

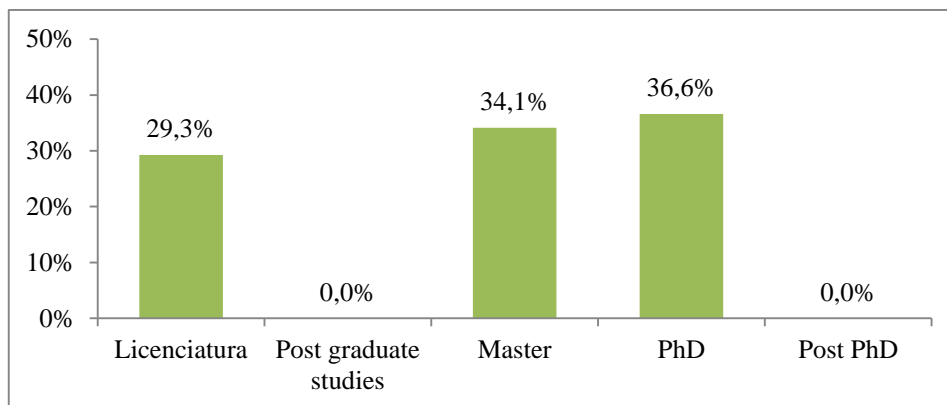


Figure 6.6 – Distribution of academic degree of teachers

The majority of teachers (29.3%) has up to three years experience in teaching English in Tourism courses and only a lower percentage (14.6%) has over twenty years experience (Figure 6.7).

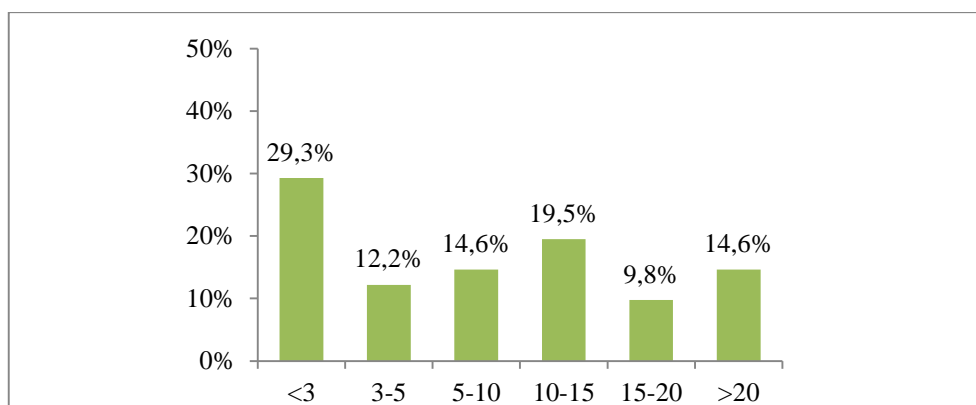


Figure 6.7 – Distribution of teachers' academic experience in years in Tourism courses

As far as the mobile devices owned by students and teachers, there is a balance regarding mobile phones (80%) and smartphones (34%) and it can be verified that both groups also have access to other mobile devices although in a lower percentage, as by the time the survey was made technology was still emerging on the market and its potential was changing. This means that Mobile Learning, if teachers and students wish, has a flourishing ground to develop (Figure 6.8).

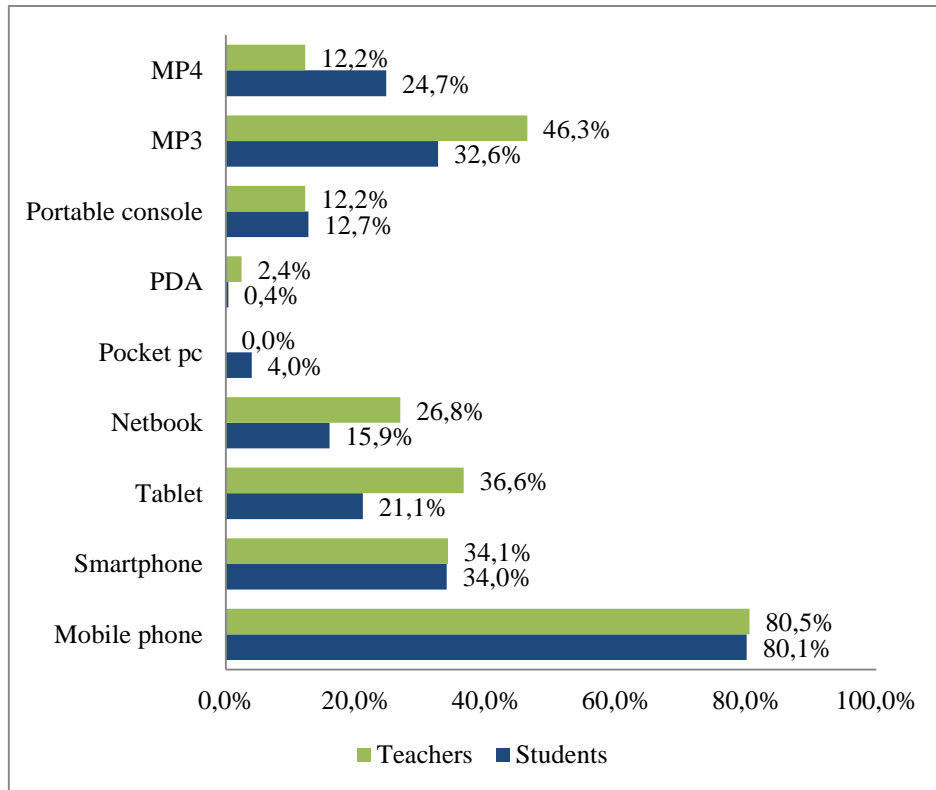


Figure 6.8 – Mobile devices owned by students and teachers

As Mobile Learning implies, mostly, the mobility of the learner and as social networks allow mobile access, we wish to understand if these are used and which are the most used social networks by both groups. The purpose is to understand which networks can be used as channels for a teaching/learning strategy.

As far as students are concerned, only a minor percentage does not use social networks (5%) although among teachers these are less used (15%). The social network Facebook was mostly used by the students of the case study as well. Therefore, the materials were inserted in it as an ever present strategy in order to develop the case study.

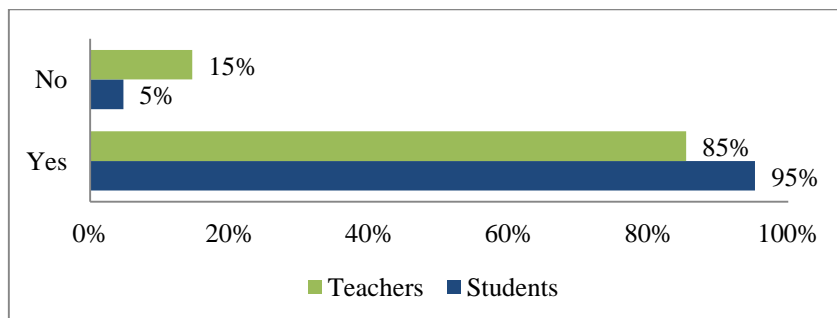


Figure 6.9 – Social networks usage

The most used social network among Tourism students and teachers is Facebook (94% and 85%, respectively), which can be an indicator for future work with it. Other social networks were also mentioned but in a lower percentage (Students referred: Orkut (0.9%); Filmow (0.2%); Tumblr 2.5%); Pinterest 1.1%); Odnoklassniki (0.2%); Instagram 2.1%); Skype (0.2%); Blogger (0.4%); Badoo (0.2%); Hotmail (0.2%); Tagged (0.2%); Myspace (0.4%); sonico (0.2%); Foursquare (0.2%); myguide (0.2%); Twoo (0.2%); Fashiolista (0.2%); Ask (0.2%); Youtube (0.4%); Hi5 (0.4%); Palco principal (0.2%); Viber (0.2%); Whatsapp (0.2%). Teachers only use Ning (0.2%) besides the provided social networks).

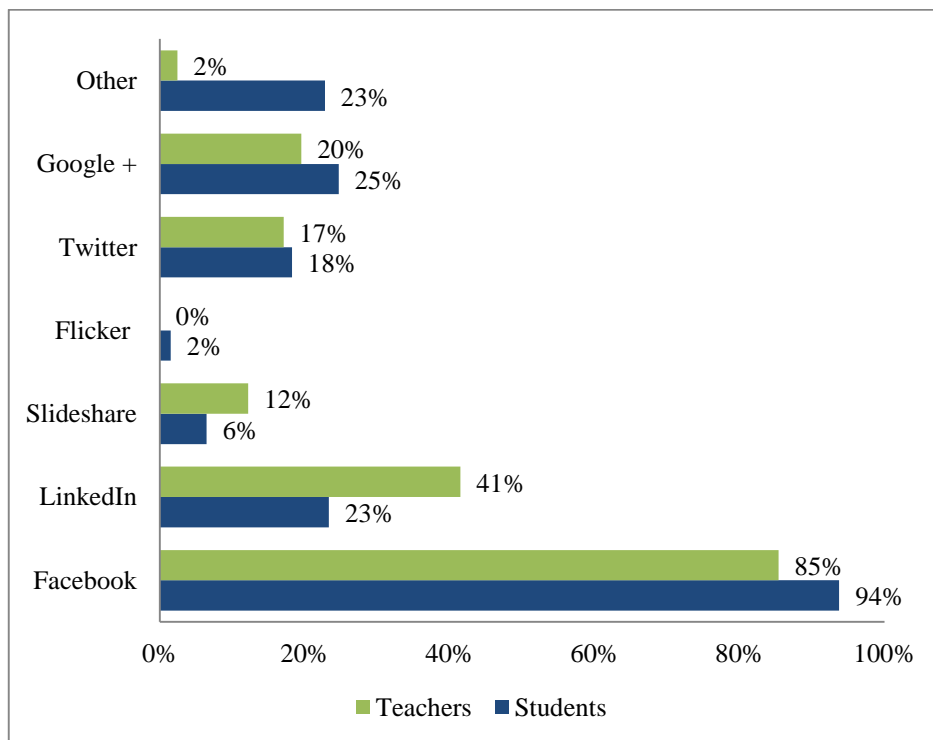


Figure 6.10 – Social networks used by teachers and students

It was also interesting to understand whether the social networks were accessed through mobile devices in a daily basis or not, to provide a fuller understanding of this reality among these two groups. In this case, a large percentage of students (49.9%) and teachers (68.3%) uses their devices to have daily access to the social networks which provides a good way to reach the students for learning purposes, in case the social networks are to be used besides providing offline teaching materials to mobile devices.

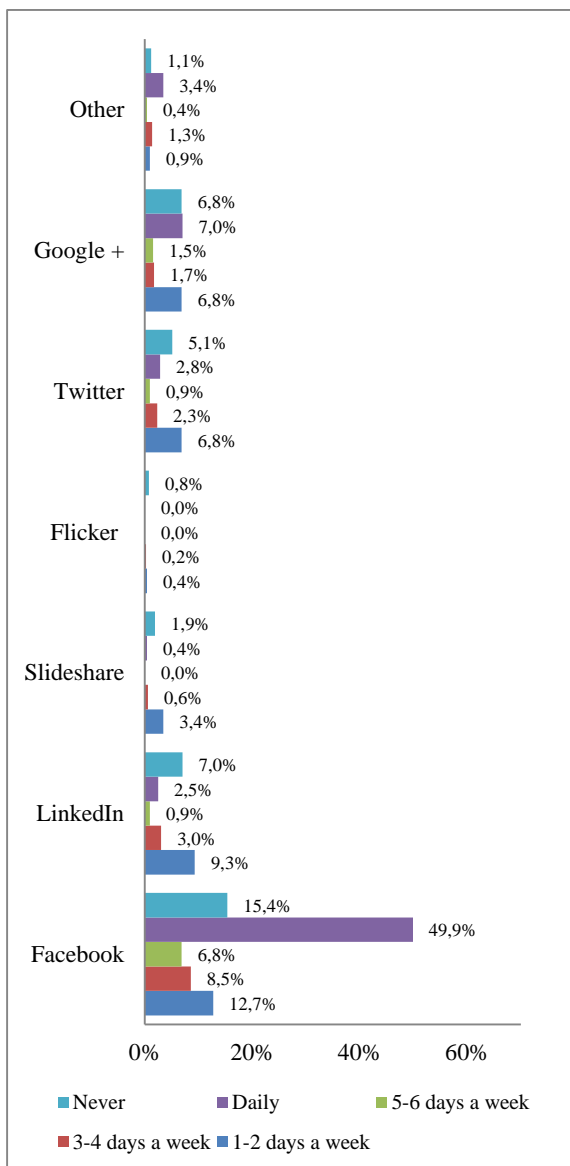


Figure 6.11 – Social network access through mobile devices (Students)

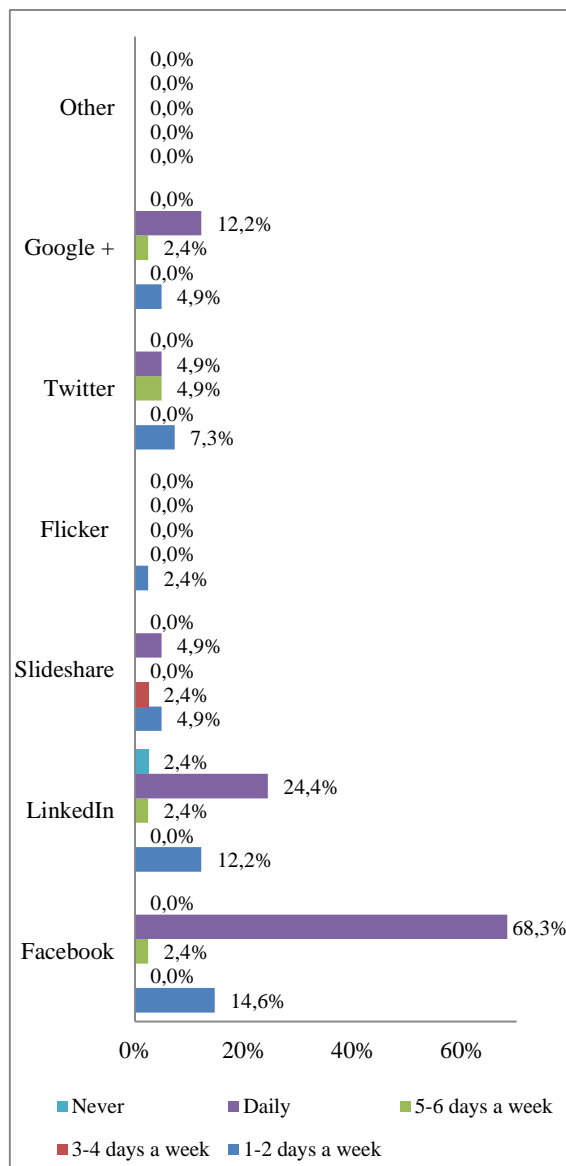


Figure 6.12 – Social network access through mobile devices (Teachers)

As far as using their mobile devices for learning, students (83%) account for more use than teachers do use for teaching purposes (49%), being the most used among teachers the MP4 (27%) most likely for listening activities, as teaching languages presuppose working the listening skill. Students resort to their mobile phones/smartphones more than teachers do for learning purposes which can be seen as an interesting ground to explore for more learning opportunities.



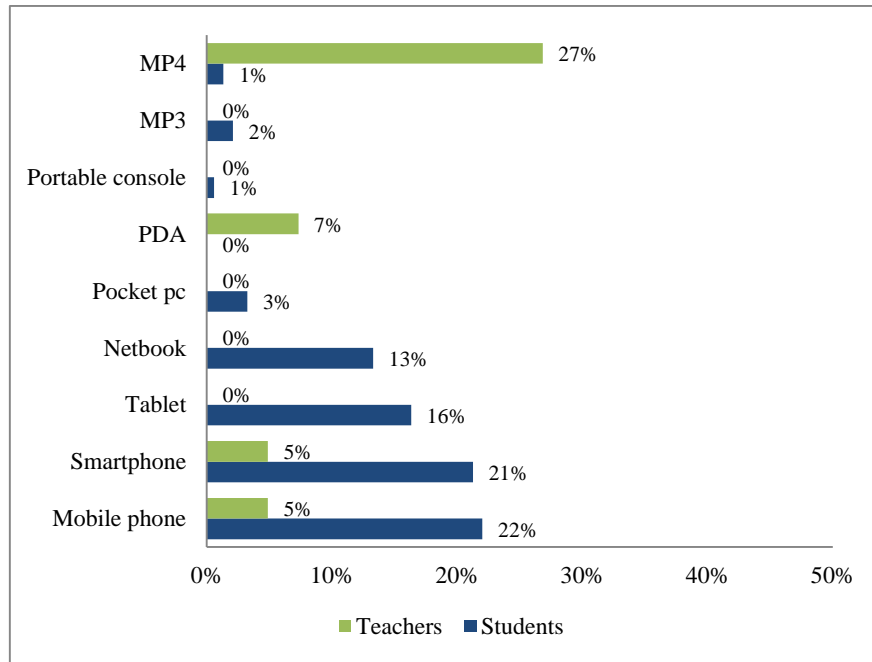


Figure 6.13 – Mobile devices used for teaching or learning purposes

### 6.2.1 – Analysis of the items used in estimating UTAUT

After having characterised both groups here follow the results obtained from the survey regarding the acceptance and use of technology.

The survey was divided into two parts, as it was mentioned in the methodology chapter. As far as each question is concerned, a description of the gathered results is here presented for each group (students and teachers), side by side to allow a better understanding of the results.

As it was previously mentioned, the model used was the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology which presupposes different independent variables (Performance Expectancy; Effort Expectancy; Social Influence) to estimate its dependent variable (Behaviour Intention).

As far as usefulness of Mobile Learning is concerned, the majority of both students and teachers perceive it as useful. For students, replies range between agree (43.1%) and strongly agree (45.8%). As for teachers, most agree (38.5%) followed by those who strongly agree (33.3%). The used scale was: 1- Strongly disagree; 2- Disagree; 3- Neither agree nor disagree; 4- Agree; 5- Strongly agree.

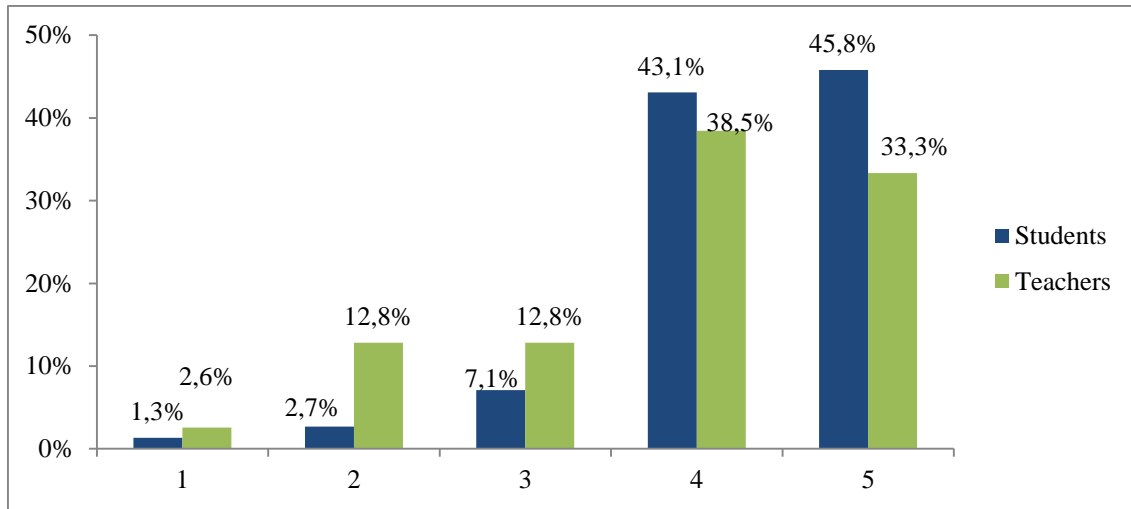


Figure 6.14 – Usefulness of Mobile Learning

When asked if Mobile Learning enables them to accomplish tasks more quickly students agree (44%) followed by those who strongly agree (31%). Teachers replies also vary from agree (29.7%) and strongly agree (24.3%).

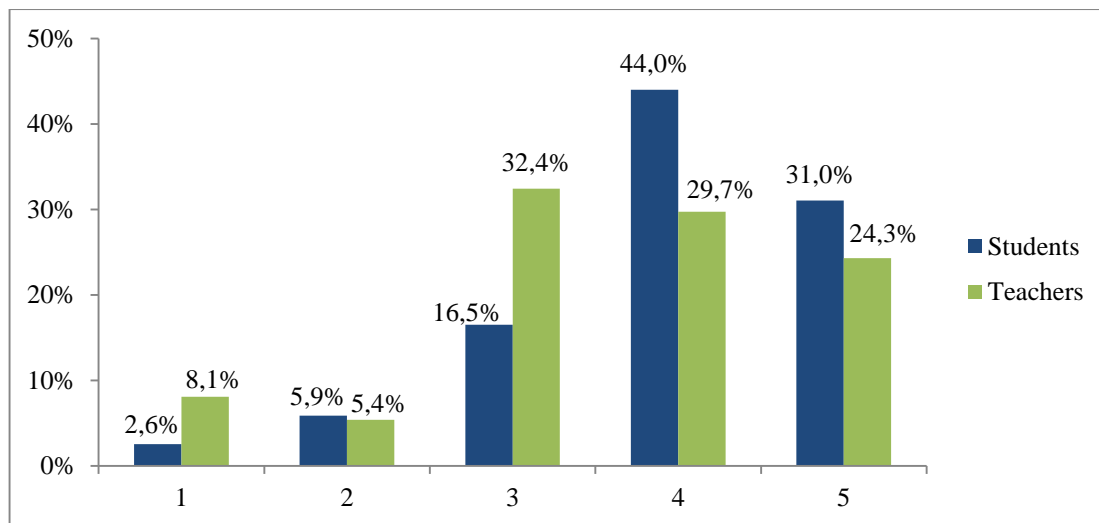


Figure 6.15 – Quicker accomplishment of tasks

In where Mobile Learning increases productivity, the majority of students agrees (40.2%) that Mobile Learning is determinant followed by those who strongly agree (28.5%). In their majority, the teachers also agree (31.4%) followed by others who strongly agree (25.7%).

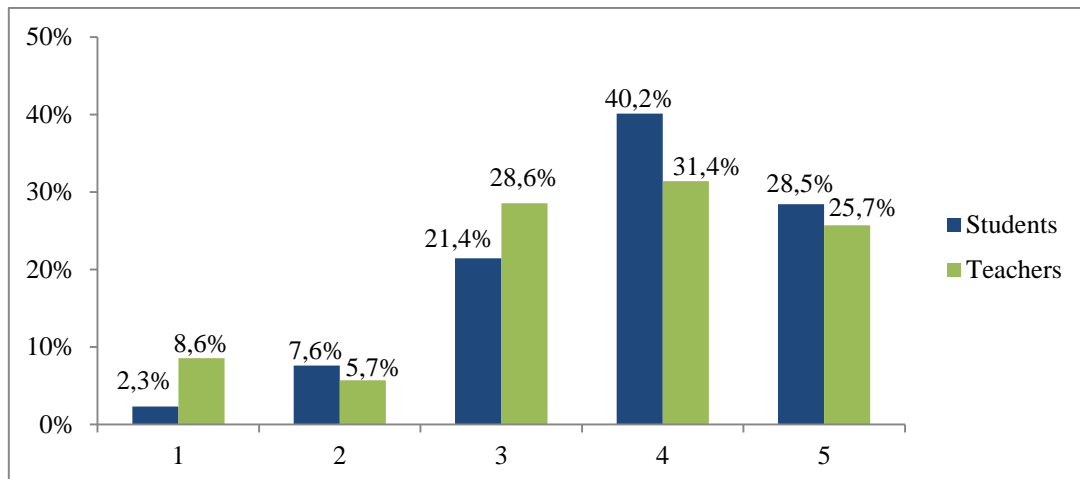


Figure 6.16 – Productivity increase

Regarding the chances of getting better academic results through Mobile Learning, most students agree (33.2%) followed by others who strongly agree (21.4%). Teachers also agree (27.8%) and others strongly agree (22.2%).

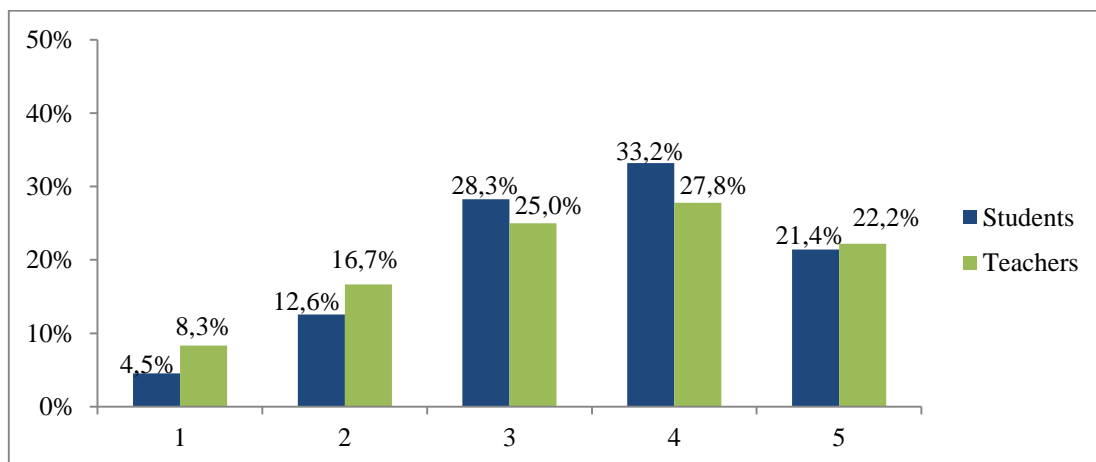


Figure 6.17 – Increase of chances of getting better academic results

As far as Mobile Learning being perceived as being clear and understandable to interact with, both mostly agree (students: 49.5%; teachers: 48.6%), followed by others who strongly agree (students: 22.8%; teachers: 18.9%).

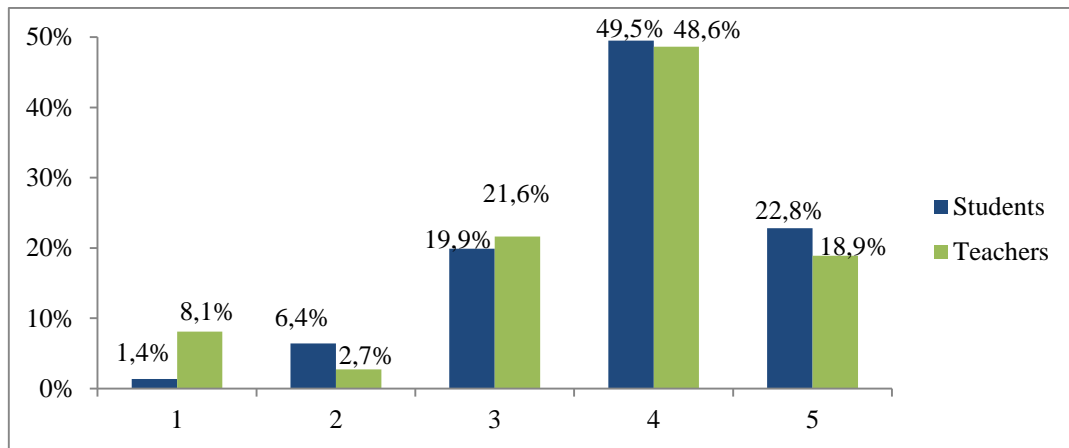


Figure 6.18 – Interaction is clear and understandable

Both students (51.1%) and teachers (30.7%) agree it would be easy to become skilful at using Mobile Learning followed by those who strongly agree (students: 30.7%; teachers: 20%).

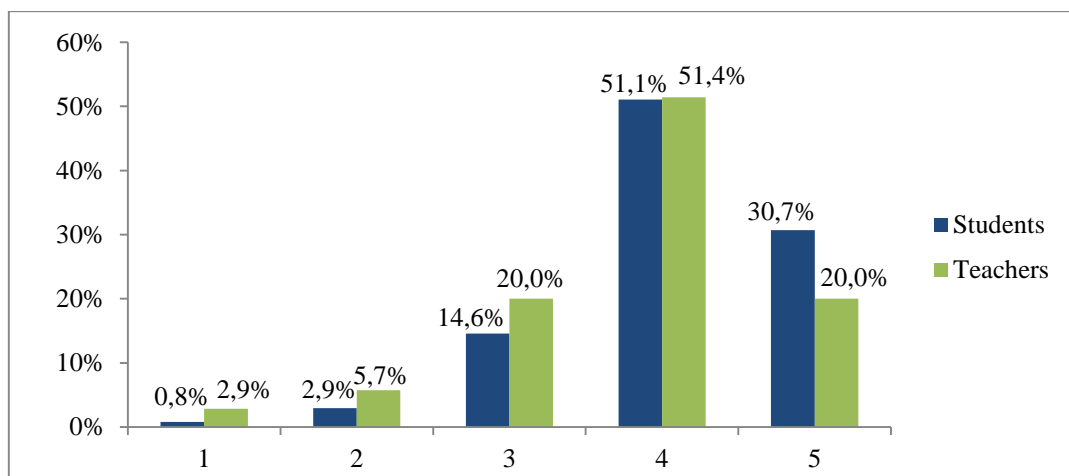


Figure 6.19 – Becoming skilful is easy

The majority of both students (51.6%) and teachers (48.6%) agree that they would find Mobile Learning easy to use, while other students (31.3%) and teachers (25.7%) strongly agree.

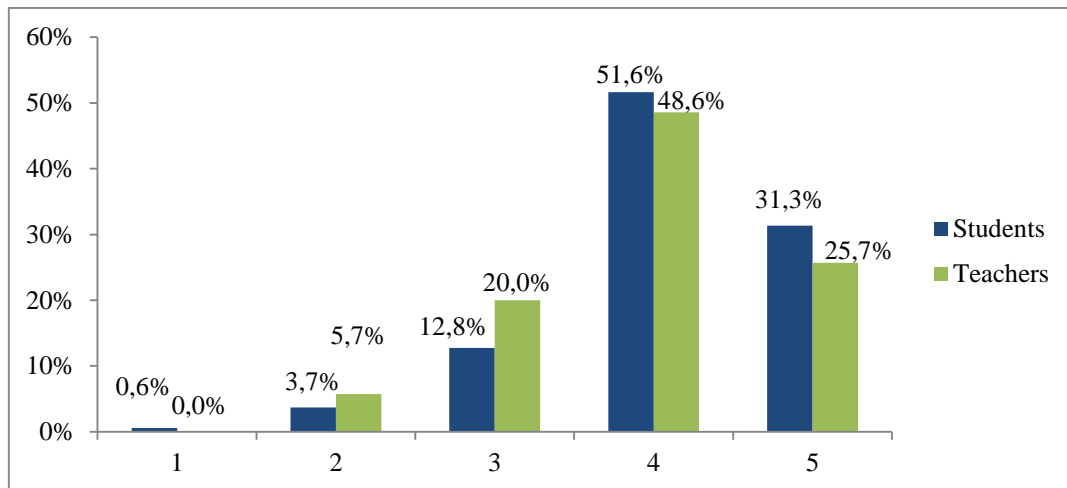


Figure 6.20 – Using Mobile Learning would be easy

The majority of both students (53.9%) and teachers (36.1%) agrees that it is easy to learn how to operate Mobile Learning followed by those who strongly agree (students: 31.6%; teachers 27.8%).

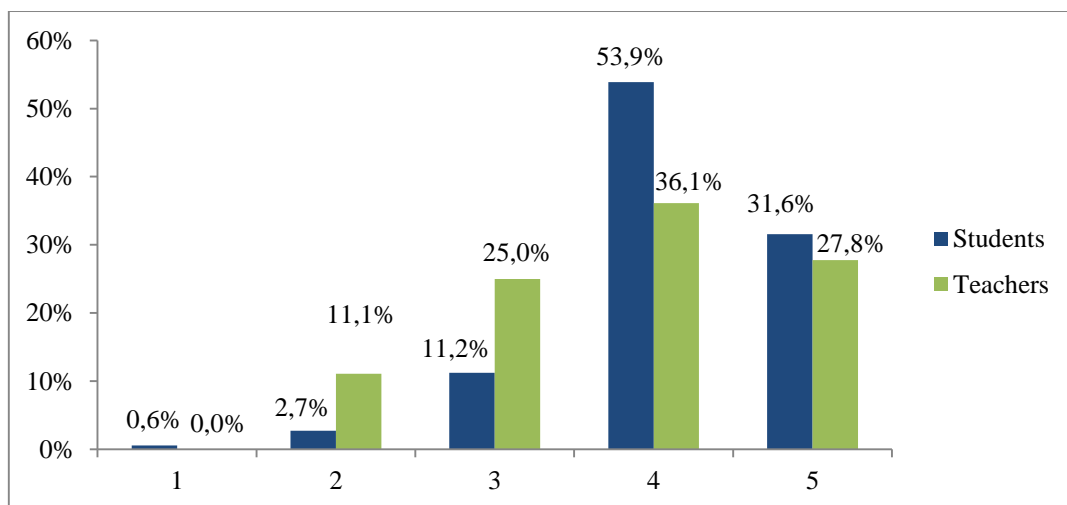


Figure 6.21 – Operating with Mobile Learning would be easy

The majority of students agrees (32.3%) or strongly agrees (10%) that people who influence their behaviour think they should use Mobile Learning. Teachers, agree (27.3%) or strongly agree (18.2%).

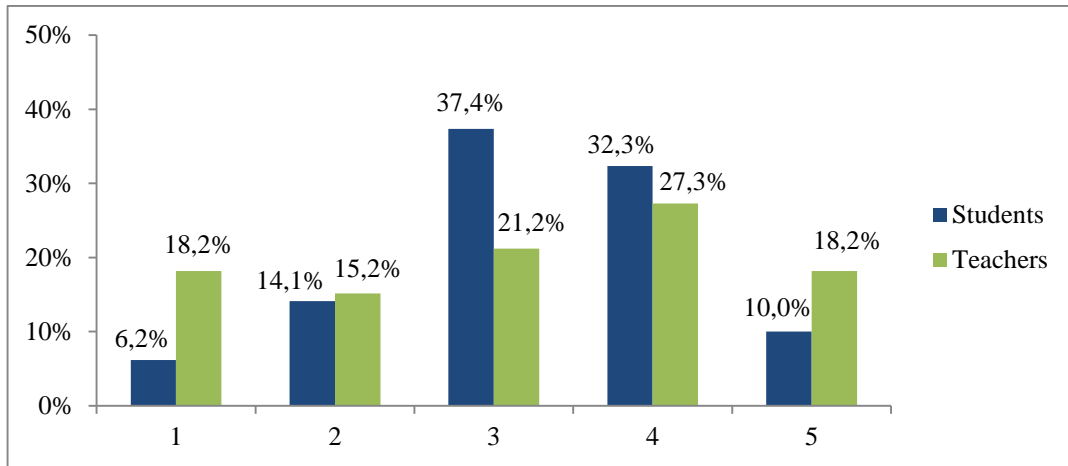


Figure 6.22 – People who influence behaviour think Mobile Learning should be used

The majority of students agrees (31.5%) or strongly agrees (10.4%) that people who are important to them think they should use Mobile Learning. Teachers mostly agree (agree: 22.6%; strongly agree: 16.1%).

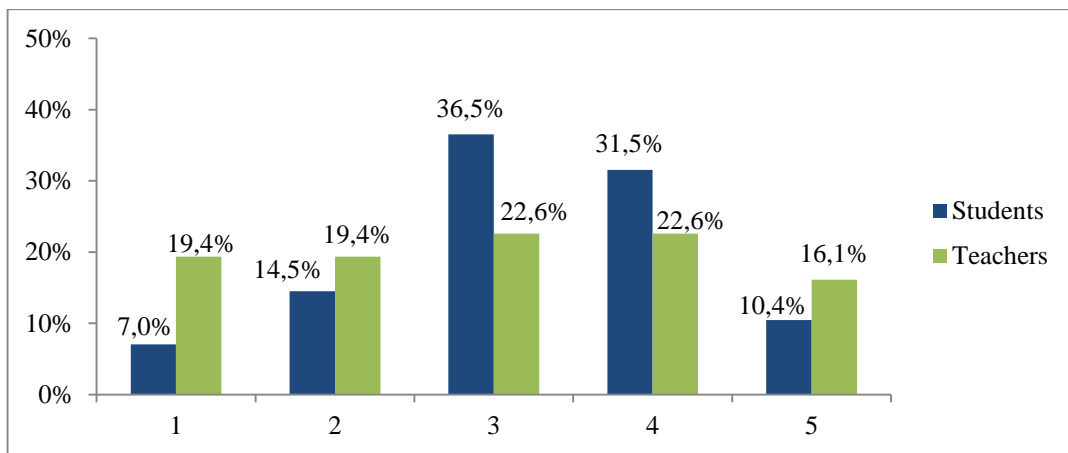


Figure 6.23 – Important people think Mobile Learning should be used

Most students perceive teachers as being helpful in the use of Mobile Learning (agree: 30.2%; strongly agree: 8.9%), whereas the majority of teachers disagrees (22.2%) or strongly disagrees (13.7%) that the senior management has been helpful in this matter.

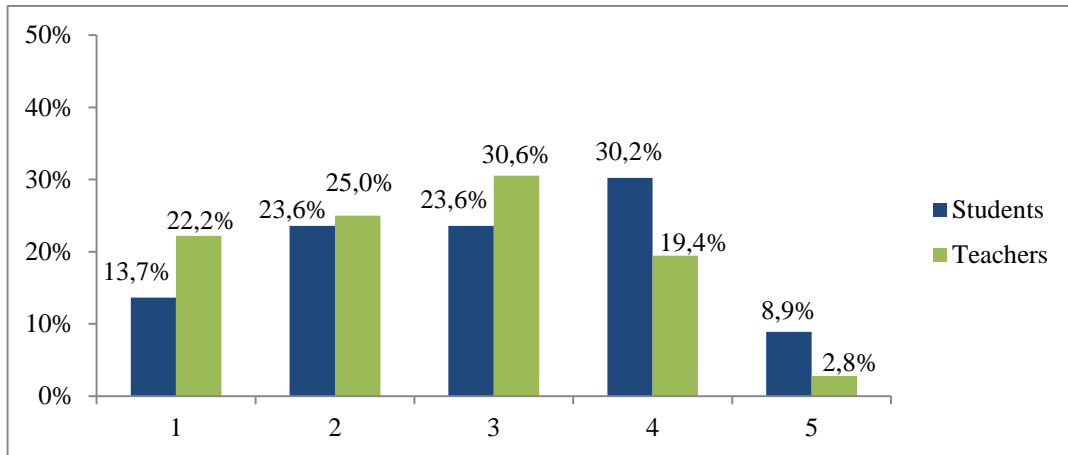


Figure 6.24 – Helpfulness of teachers/senior management in the use of Mobile Learning

As far as the school being perceived as supportive of the use of Mobile Learning, most students agree that their institutions are supportive (agree: 35.7%; strongly agree: 12.3%). However, most teachers have a neutral opinion in this regard (48.6%).

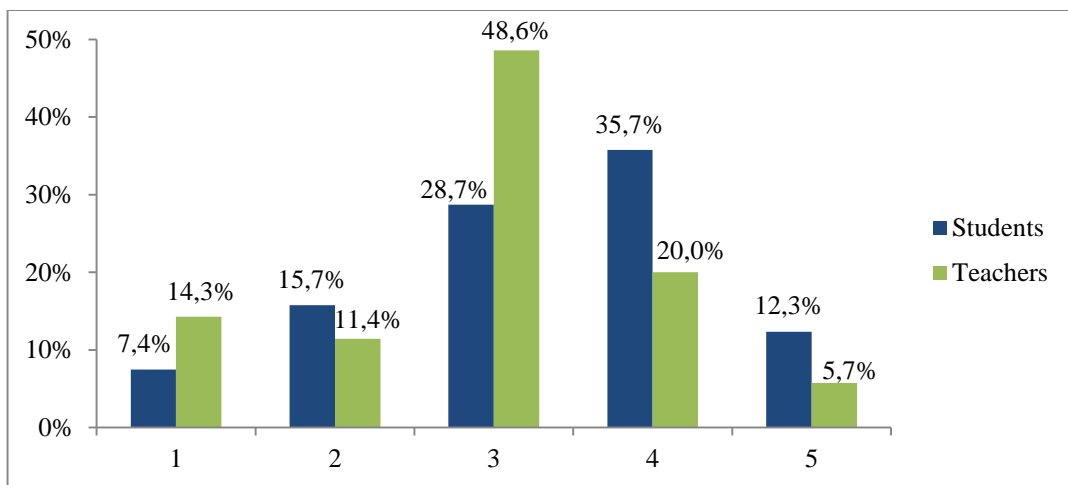


Figure 6.25 – Support of the school in the use of Mobile Learning

As far as the intention to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months, most students agree (41.4%) and strongly agree (24.2%). Most teachers strongly agree (30.3%) and agree (24.2%). However, some (27.3%) neither agree nor disagree.

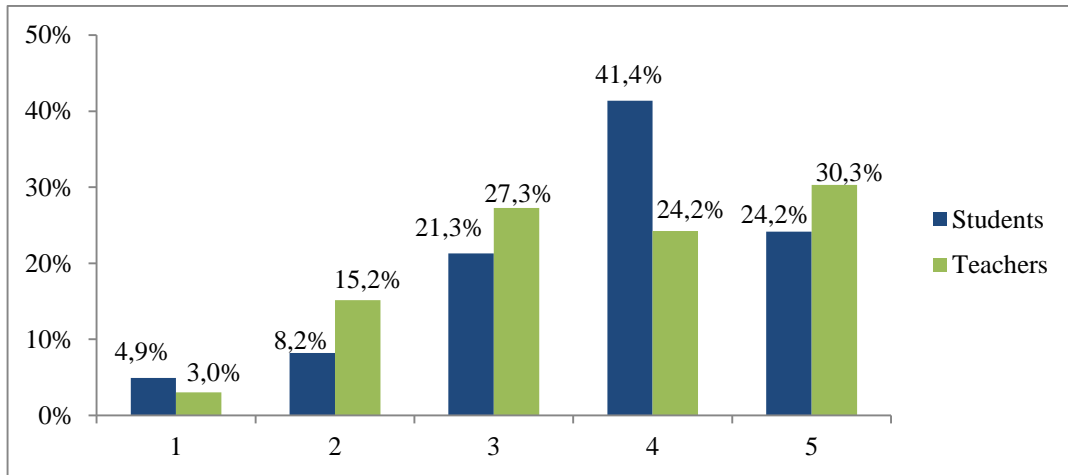


Figure 6.26 – Intention to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months

Most students agree (41.8%) that they predict to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months followed by others (24.8%) that strongly agree. As for teachers, most strongly agree (30.3%) that they predict to use it in the same time period, followed by some who agree (24.2%). However, others (24.2%) have a neutral opinion on this matter.

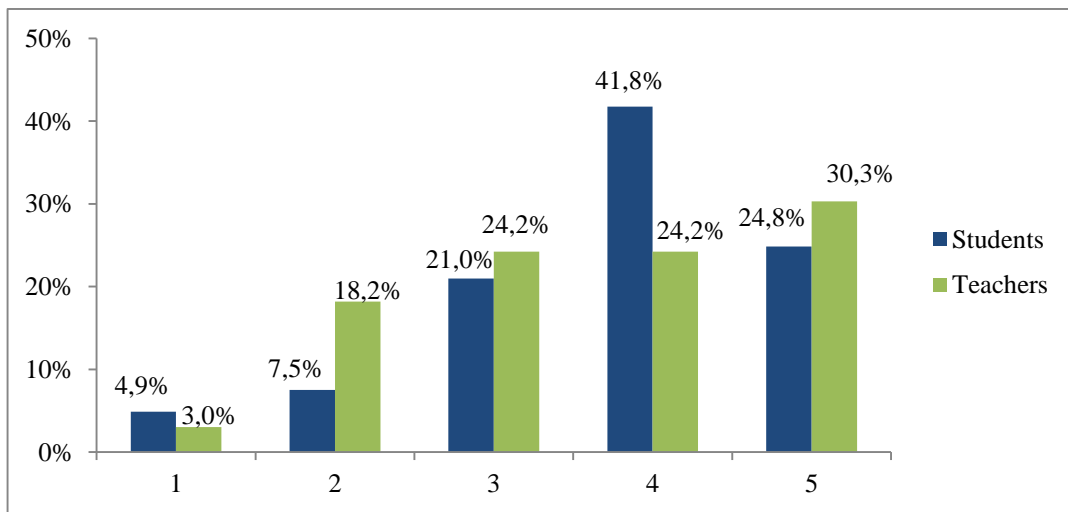


Figure 6.27 – Prediction to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months

As far as making plans to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months, most students agree (39.9%) followed by others who strongly agree (22.8%). Most teachers strongly agree (29.4%) and some (26.5%) agree.



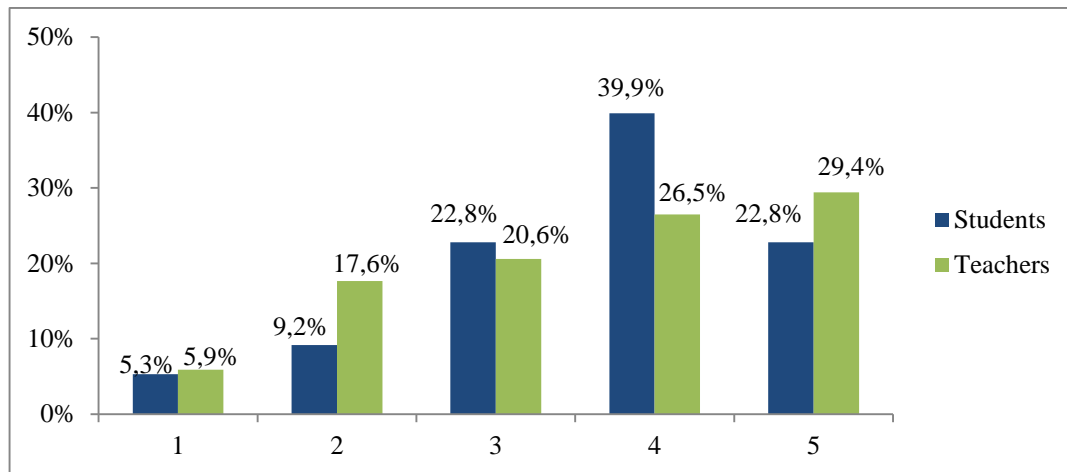


Figure 6.28 – Plan to use Mobile Learning in the following 12 months

After having described the data obtained from the questions addressed to both students and teachers regarding the questions to estimate the constructs of UTAUT, a linear regression was used to understand the connection between Behavioural Intention and the independent variables. The study model was the following:

$$\text{Behavioural intention} = B_0 + B_1 \text{ Effort Expectancy} + B_2 \text{ Performance Expectancy} + B_3 \text{ Social Influence} + \varepsilon$$

### 6.2.2 – Internal consistency

The UTAUT survey items were already validated by its authors. However, this study re-examines the validity of the instrument to ensure its reliability for this specific context. Therefore, the internal consistency reliability (ICR) was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha for each construct (Table 6.1).

Cronbach's Alpha is based on the average correlation among the items studied. When ICR is above 0.7 (Bryman & Cramer, 2011) values show that the items used to measure that construct represent it in a correct manner and generate similar scores.

In this case, the results from the Internal Consistency reliability show that all constructs had an ICR higher than 0.7. Therefore, the results to be obtained are reliable.

Table 6.1 – Internal consistency reliability measured by Cronbach's Alpha

	Students	Teachers
	$\alpha$ - Cronbach's	$\alpha$ - Cronbach's
Performance Expectancy	0.875	0.931
Effort Expectancy	0.890	0.913
Social Influence	0.825	0.887

Following the ICR analysis, the inferential statistics to test the hypotheses are here presented. A multiple regression was made as well as multicollinearity tests. The regression model presupposes that the explaining variables are linearly independent, in other words, that there is no multicollinearity. The degree of multicollinearity can be analysed through Tolerance and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF).

Tolerance measures the degree in which a variable (Behaviour intention in this case) is explained by the other independent variables. When Tolerance is low, multiple correlation is high and there is the possibility of multicollinearity, i.e., if tolerance figures are close to zero multicollinearity is likely (Bryman & Cramer, 2011). The limit value below which there is multicollinearity is 0.1 (Pestana & Gageiro, 2008).

The reverse of tolerance is called Variance Inflation Factor (VIF), the closer it is to one, the lower the multicollinearity. The value usually considered as the limit above which multicollinearity exists is ten (Pestana & Gageiro, 2008). In this study, the lowest values are 1.467 for students and 2.242 for teachers and the highest is 1.497 for students and 4.334 for teachers (Table 6.2), therefore there is no significant correlation between the independent variables. As there is no multicollinearity this is a heteroscedastic model.

Table 6.2 – Collinearity statistics

Model	Students		Teachers	
	Tolerance	VIF	Tolerance	VIF
Performance Expectancy	0.678	1.476	0.262	3.821
Social Influence	0.682	1.467	0.446	2.242
Effort Expectancy	0.668	1.497	0.231	4.334

### 6.2.3 – Correlation between constructs

The correlation matrix (Table 6.3) shows that the correlation between the several constructs is not very significant in the case of students, whereas for teachers it is more significant.

Table 6.3 – Inter-construct correlation

	Students				Teachers			
	Behavioural Intention	Social Influence	Performance Expectancy	Effort Expectancy	Behavioural Intention	Social Influence	Performance Expectancy	Effort Expectancy
Behavioural Intention	1				1			
Social Influence	0.498	1			0.699	1		
Performance Expectancy	0.476	0.483	1		0.829	0.691	1	
Effort Expectancy	0.530	0.494	0.498	1	0.657	0.734	0.854	1

### 6.2.4 – Regression analysis

Table 6.4 – Multiple linear regression statistics

Independent variables	Students			Teachers		
	Behavioural intention			Behavioural intention		
	Beta Coeffic.	t	sig.	Beta Coeffic.	t	sig.
Constant						
Performance expectancy	0.203	4.064	***	0,910	4,059	***
Effort expectancy	0.350	6.054	***			
Social influence	0.250	5.005	***	0,345	2,012	**
R Square	0.378			0.750		
Durbin Watson	1.835			2.652		
F	75.217			19.025		
Sig.	0.000			0.000		
N	368			23		

\*\*\* significant at 1% (0-0.01) \*\* significant at 5% (0.01-0.05) \* significant at 10% (0.05-0.1)

In order to understand if the items of the model in use are statistically different from zero, the *t* of student test was used. This reveals that the independent variables (PE, EE and SI) show significant values for significance levels below 10%, being, therefore, determinant in

the analysis, in the case of students for all items, and effort expectancy is not significant for teachers.

The  $F$  test analyses the model as a whole instead of each of its items. For a significance level of 1%, it reveals that it is to be rejected the hypothesis of nullity of the coefficients of the independent variables considered in the model. Which means that, in the whole, the considered UTAUT model is adjusted for the study developed.

The Durbin-Watson test shows if the residuals of serially recorded observations are uncorrelated or not. As the value obtained is near 2 (1.835 for students; 2.652 for teachers) it can be concluded that there is no correlation.

The regression, here presented, accounts for the significance of the independent variables (Performance Expectancy, Effort Expectancy and Social Influence) as predictors of the dependent variable for both students and teachers.

Much effort was made to obtain the maximum number of replies, however as there were missing replies to some questions which are related to the Do not know/Do not reply possibility, the sample was reduced in the regression from 527 to 368 in the case of students and from 41 to 23 teachers.

From the results obtained we can sustain that our first research question, which considers Performance Expectancy as a significant predictor of behavioural intention is validated for both students and teachers.

H<sub>1</sub> Performance expectancy will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.

As for the second research question which accounts for effort expectancy as a significant predictor of intention to use Mobile Learning this is validated for the sample of students only, as a significant predictor.

H<sub>2</sub> Effort expectancy will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.

The literature review asserts that before a system is used, in this case, Mobile Learning, the perception of effort is high but with use, the perception of effort lowers.

As for teachers, this variable is not significant, which goes in line with other studies that conclude that the acceptance of technology is not mediated by effort expectancy (Al-Gahtani et al., 2007; Cheng et al., 2011; Raman et al., 2014).

The independent variable of social influence is also a predictor of the dependent variable (behaviour intention) for both students and teachers; therefore, the research hypothesis is also validated.

H<sub>3</sub> Social influence will be a significant predictor of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning.

### **6.3 – Limitations of the analysis**

The present study was conducted having into consideration only the three independent variables that are considered as moderators of behaviour intention: Performance Expectancy, Effort Expectancy and Social Influence. The fourth variable (Facilitating Conditions) is not considered because, in the UTAUT model, this is only taken into account to measure Use Behaviour. The latter is an interesting factor to examine, however it was not the aim of this study.

The UTAUT model also comprises four moderating variables of age, gender, experience and voluntariness of use, as previously mentioned in chapter 5. This analysis is also interesting to understand how different groups behave bearing these variables into consideration; especially because the literature asserts that there is evidence of difference when these are considered for study. Nevertheless, it was not the aim of this work to make an in-depth study of every characteristic of the samples. The intent is to give teachers and HE organisations general guidelines on which factors contribute to behaviour intention of students regarding m-learning. In the case of students, the results can help teachers focus on what influences the Tourism students, in general, and adjust their approach accordingly in order to have mobile devices working in a successful way as a learning facilitating tool.

Another factor that can be more positive is a higher teachers' valid reply rate. This can account for a more substantial result.

#### **6.4 – Synopsis**

The educational setting is changing driven by a rapid access to technology. This is a worldwide phenomenon in both developed and developing countries. Several studies are made to understand the acceptance of technology at different educational levels.

The survey here described provides a further understanding of the role of mobile devices in the teaching and learning process among Portuguese Tourism students from public HE institutions. It also provides insight for teachers regarding their students' perceived needs.

In the case of the latter all the independent variables are predictors of the behaviour intention. However, as it is reported in the literature, effort expectancy may decrease with use. Therefore, for future research, it would be interesting to understand whether this group sustains this theory.

In the case of teachers, performance expectancy is the most significant predictor of behaviour intention followed by social influence although with less significance and effort expectancy is not significant for this sample.

In both cases, it would be interesting to address a new survey regarding the use of technology with teachers and new generations of students, when its use is widespread, in order to verify whether the results would suffer any changes.



**CHAPTER 7 | ENGLISH LANGUAGE USE  
AND MOBILE LEARNING**



## **7.1 – Introduction to Tourism and Linguistics analysis**

The present chapter presents the final analysis of the documents gathered as well as of the interviews conducted. Section 7.2 provides an in-depth analysis of the Tourism programmes gathered at national level. This analysis was made taking into account Tourism supply elements and as well as language topics. In section 7.3 the analysis of the case study is presented. First, it characterises the material students had available (mobile devices) to participate in the study; this was followed by the characterisation of the activities developed for and with students which were made available for learning purposes. Finally, after the activities were implemented, students produced texts which were analysed according to the premises of Systemic Functional Linguistics of Theme and Rheme. The last section (7.4) addresses the perceptions of students after having had contact with Mobile Learning experiences in their learning process.

## **7.2 – Framework of Tourism programme contents**

In Portugal there are 72 Higher Education (HE) courses in Tourism (Salgado et al., 2013, p. 113). Both Universities and Polytechnic Institutes offer these courses. Polytechnic Institutes outnumber Universities in the universe of providers of Tourism education. In Polytechnics there are 61 courses, whereas in Universities there are 11. Of the 72 Higher Education courses in Tourism, 23 are taught in private Higher Education institutions and 49 in public institutions. Research indicates that there were 3173 undergraduate places for Tourism courses for the academic year of 2012/13. Public HE institutions have also outnumbered the private over the past three years (e.g. in 2012: 1794 – public; 1379 – private) as we can see in Figure 7.1.

Taking into consideration that access to the conceptual population of both public and private institutions might be very restricted (Smith, 2010) and once our objective is not to study the whole Tourism Higher Education system, the population under study (Smith, 2010) in this survey is based on public institutions only.

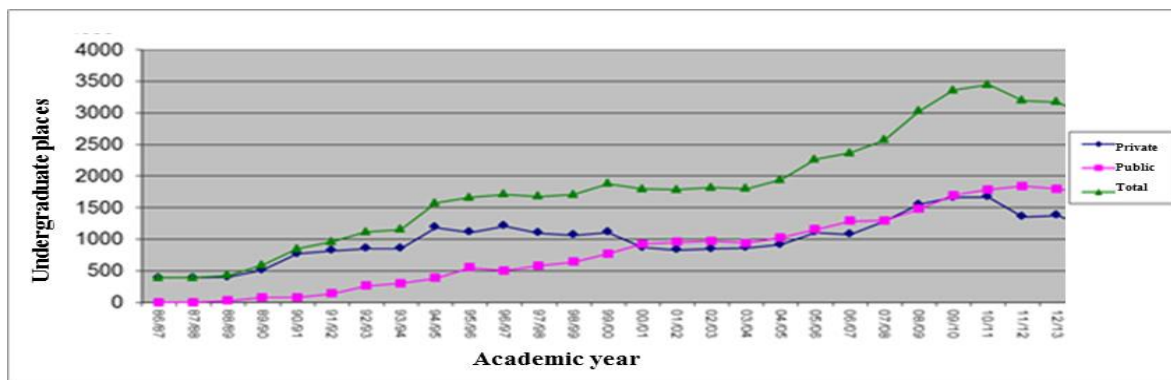


Figure 7.1 – Undergraduate places in Higher Education in Tourism in Portugal

Source: Salgado et al. (2013, p. 113)

The themes and language contents that are taught in Tourism courses were collated and analysed and although some (5.2%) indicate “Non General English/Non Tourism” and “General English”, the majority (94.8%) reflected Tourism topics.

This phase of the research relies on the analysis of English language programmes of public higher education due to the need to verify whether the *curricula* address Tourism related subjects only or if, on the contrary, they focus on non-Tourism related themes. The methodology described here allows us to verify, as well, which are the topics and general subject matter most dealt with. Finally, through listing the areas covered by the programmes analysed, it was possible to substantiate whether new Tourism trends are being dealt with in order to make the learning experience as enriching and up to date as possible.

The number of English curricular units varies in the different Tourism-related courses<sup>17</sup>. As there are very different course designations, a division has been made, taking into consideration the first term of the courses. The result of the categorisation was the following: Tourism (15 courses); Tourist Information (3 courses); Tourism Management (9 courses); Hotel management (5 courses) and other Tourism-related courses (7 courses).

In each of these categories, the number of curricular units was analysed. They range from the first to the third year of studies which, in some cases, totalise six semesters. The results are presented from Figures 7.2-7.7 below.

<sup>17</sup> The results here presented were already published in Oliveira et al., 2014

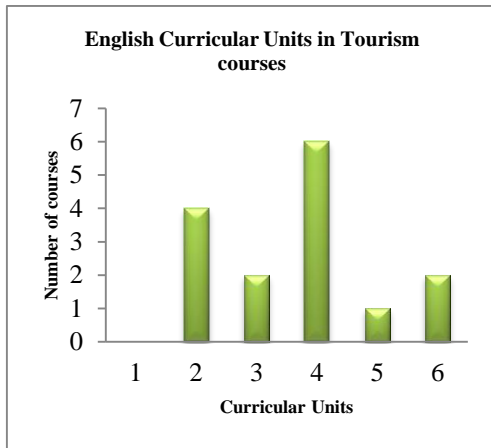


Figure 7.2 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Tourism courses

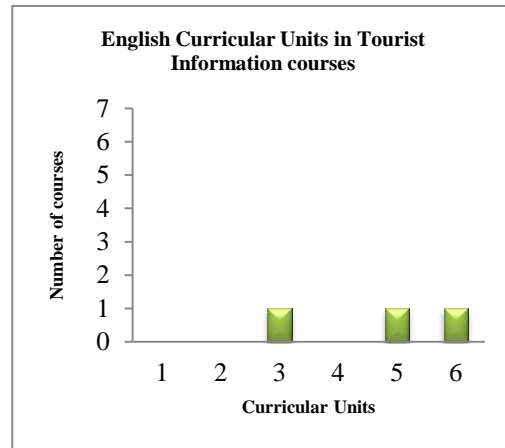


Figure 7.3 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Tourist Information courses

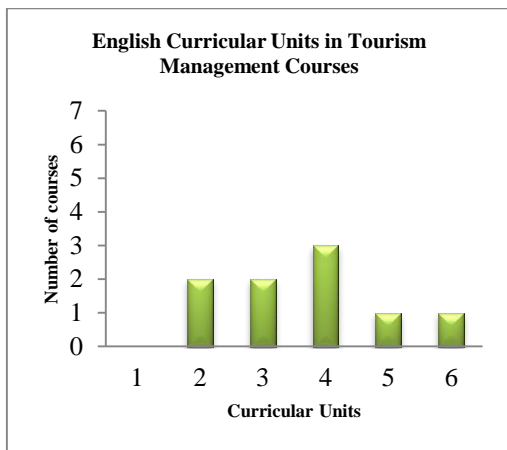


Figure 7.4 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Tourism Management courses

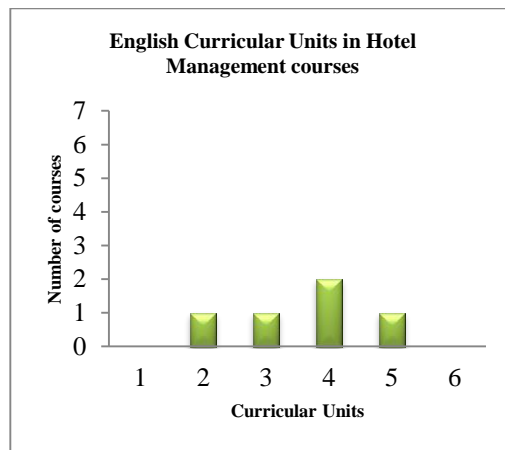


Figure 7.5 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in Hotel Management courses

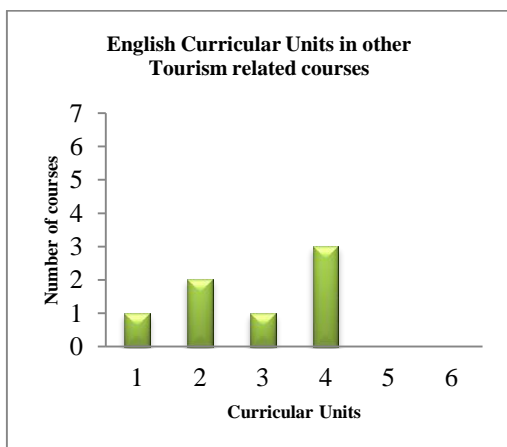


Figure 7.6 – Number of courses with English Curricular units in other Tourism related courses

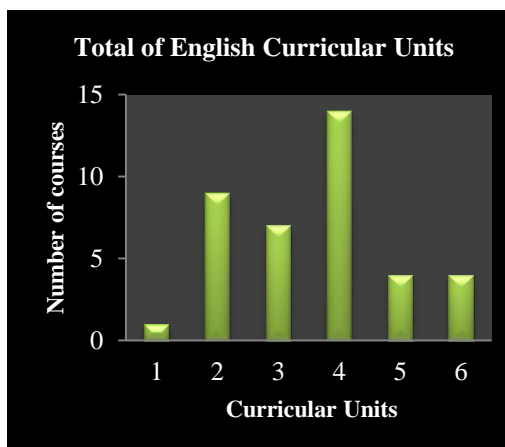


Figure 7.7 – Total English Curricular units in the Tourism area courses

From the analysis some conclusions can be draw. Firstly, the number of English curricular units is not homogenous within the same course area nor among the different course areas. Secondly, Tourism; Tourist Information and Tourism Management courses are the ones which comprise a longer teaching contact with the language (2-6 curricular units), whereas Hotel Management scores less teaching contact (2-5) followed by other Tourism related courses (1-4). Third, most courses comprise four curricular units.

In the second part of the analysis, which refers to the results obtained from the categorisation and sequencing, in order of occurrence, 22 different groups were identified (see Table 7.1). These groups were established according to the broad contents identified through the literature review on Tourism supply elements, as previously mentioned.

The results obtained are presented in two phases. First, the total percentages of contents which are taught as main topic; sub topic and subsub topic are presented in table 7.1.

Table 7.1 – Contents taught in Portuguese public higher education Tourism courses

	Total %
Accommodation and reservations	18,7%
Conceptualisation	9,9%
Food and beverage	9,7%
Marketing	8,3%
Intermediaries, tour operators, travel agencies and tourist guides	7,1%
Billing	6,8%
Human resources	6,1%
Tourist attractions	5,7%
Business and products	4,6%
General English	4,2%
Communication	3,9%
Destinations and regions	2,6%
Transportation	2,6%
Future/ Trends	2,3%
Institutional elements	2,0%
Leisure and Recreation	1,4%
Safety and security	1,0%
Festivals and events	0,9%
Non General English/ Non Tourism	0,8%
Arts and entertainment	0,6%
Food and health care	0,5%
Rent-a-car	0,2%

From the data gathered, some conclusions can be drawn. First, the programmes range from a variety of contents and are not consistent in terms of wording as different programmes designate similar or comparable contents differently. Therefore, it was necessary to find a common superordinate terminology to proceed with the classification.

From the analysis we can also determine that numerous areas (22) are covered although some as main topic, sub topic or subsub topic and that the general subjects vary from accommodation and reservations (the most recurrent) to rent-a-car (the least recurrent). Although the 22 subjects appear in the tables as distinct units of analysis, they are, indeed, permeable among themselves as they all strengthen the Tourism industry and without which Tourism would be less alluring, less competitive or threatened. After presenting the global data of the contents, these are presented by course-specific area. The results can be seen in the following tables:

Table 7.2 – English contents taught in Tourism Information courses

	Total %
Tourist attractions	19,7%
Destinations and regions	12,0%
Accommodation and reservations	9,2%
Human resources	8,5%
Communication	8,5%
Conceptualisation	7,7%
Intermediaries/tour operators/ travel agencies/ tourist guides	7,0%
Marketing	4,2%
Business and products	4,2%
Food and beverage	3,5%
General English	3,5%
Institutional elements	2,8%
Billing	2,8%
Future/ Trends	2,8%
Transportation	1,4%
Arts and entertainment	1,4%
Festivals and events	0,7%
Leisure and Recreation	0,0%
Non General English/ Non Tourism	0,0%
Safety and security	0,0%
Food and health care	0,0%
Rent-a-car	0,0%

Table 7.3 – English contents taught in Tourism Management courses

	Total %
Accommodation and reservations	19,3%
Conceptualisation	11,9%
Food and beverage	8,9%
Billing	7,2%
Marketing	6,7%
Intermediaries/tour operators/ travel agencies/ tourist guides	6,5%
Business and products	5,2%
Human resources	5,0%
Communication	5,0%
Tourist attractions	4,1%
Leisure and Recreation	3,9%
Transportation	3,5%
General English	2,2%
Destinations and regions	2,2%
Future/ Trends	2,2%
Institutional elements	2,0%
Arts and entertainment	1,3%
Food and health care	0,9%
Non General English/ Non Tourism	0,7%
Safety and security	0,7%
Festivals and events	0,4%
Rent-a-car	0,4%

Table 7.4 – English contents taught in Tourism courses

	Total %
Accommodation and reservations	13,4%
Intermediaries/tour operators/ travel agencies/ tourist guides	11,9%
Marketing	9,9%
Conceptualisation	9,2%
Human resources	7,9%
Business and products	6,7%
General English	6,5%
Tourist attractions	6,2%
Food and beverage	4,5%
Billing	4,5%
Transportation	4,5%
Communication	3,7%
Institutional elements	2,7%
Future/ Trends	2,5%
Destinations and regions	2,0%
Festivals and events	2,0%
Non General English/ Non Tourism	1,5%
Leisure and Recreation	0,2%
Arts and entertainment	0,2%
Safety and security	0,0%
Food and health care	0,0%
Rent-a-car	0,0%

Table 7.5 – English contents taught in Hotel Management

	Total %
Accommodation and reservations	19,7%
Food and beverage	14,2%
Marketing	9,2%
Human resources	8,4%
General English	7,9%
Conceptualisation	7,1%
Safety and security	5,0%
Future/ Trends	4,2%
Business and products	3,8%
Billing	3,3%
Communication	3,3%
Intermediaries/tour operators/ travel agencies/ tourist guides	2,9%
Tourist attractions	2,1%
Institutional elements	1,7%
Food and health care	1,7%
Transportation	1,3%
Non General English/ Non Tourism	1,3%
Destinations and regions	0,8%
Leisure and Recreation	0,8%
Festivals and events	0,8%
Rent-a-car	0,4%
Arts and entertainment	0,0%

Table 7.6 – English contents taught in other Tourism related courses

	Total %
Accommodation and reservations	31,0%
Food and beverage	19,0%
Billing	15,7%
Conceptualisation	11,2%
Marketing	10,3%
Intermediaries/tour operators/ travel agencies/ tourist guides	4,5%
Tourist attractions	3,3%
Human resources	1,7%
Business and products	0,8%
General English	0,8%
Destinations and regions	0,8%
Institutional elements	0,4%
Festivals and events	0,4%
Communication	0,0%
Transportation	0,0%
Future/ Trends	0,0%
Leisure and Recreation	0,0%
Non General English/ Non Tourism	0,0%
Safety and security	0,0%
Arts and entertainment	0,0%
Food and health care	0,0%
Rent-a-car	0,0%

From the previous data it is possible to understand how the English language contents are organised and that the contents taught in the different course areas vary (Tourism Information courses; Tourism Management; Tourism; Hotel Management and other Tourism-related courses). We can conclude that there is no great balance among the course related areas.

The following table shows another analysis conducted with the recurrence of the subjects, as main topic only, by territorial statistic units (NUTS II) (Table 7.7).

Table 7.7 – English contents in public Tourism related higher education courses in NUTS II<sup>18</sup>

Contents	North	Centre	Lisbon	Alentejo	Algarve	Azores	Madeira
Accommodation and reservations	2,84%	6,58%	0,45%	1,05%	1,79%	0,15%	N/A
Conceptualisation	3,29%	5,23%	0,60%	0,45%	1,35%	0,60%	N/A
Marketing	3,74%	4,04%	0,60%	0,45%	1,35%	0,45%	N/A
Intermediaries, tour operators, travel agencies and tourist guides	2,24%	3,29%	0,15%	0,45%	1,79%	0,60%	N/A
Food and beverage	1,64%	4,33%	0,90%	0,45%	0,60%	0,15%	N/A
Tourist attractions	2,54%	0,75%	0,90%	0,60%	1,05%	0,30%	N/A
Human resources	1,35%	1,49%	0,60%	0,30%	1,49%	0,90%	N/A
General English	0,30%	3,14%	0,00%	1,49%	0,75%	0,45%	N/A
Business and products	0,90%	1,64%	0,45%	0,90%	1,35%	0,30%	N/A
Billing	1,05%	2,24%	0,00%	0,00%	0,15%	0,30%	N/A
Destinations and regions	0,60%	0,30%	1,64%	0,30%	0,45%	0,15%	N/A
Transportation	0,75%	1,64%	0,00%	0,15%	0,45%	0,15%	N/A
Communication	0,90%	1,20%	0,30%	0,15%	0,00%	0,30%	N/A
Institutional elements	0,45%	0,60%	0,00%	0,30%	0,90%	0,00%	N/A
Future/ Trends	0,30%	0,30%	0,75%	0,00%	0,60%	0,15%	N/A
Festivals and events	0,45%	0,30%	0,00%	0,45%	0,60%	0,00%	N/A
Non General English/ Non Tourism	0,00%	1,49%	0,00%	0,15%	0,00%	0,00%	N/A
Safety and security	0,30%	0,90%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	N/A
Food and health care	0,15%	0,60%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	N/A
Leisure and Recreation	0,00%	0,15%	0,30%	0,00%	0,30%	0,00%	N/A
Arts and entertainment	0,15%	0,30%	0,15%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	N/A
Rent-a-car	0,00%	0,30%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	0,00%	N/A

From the data previously gathered, a summary table was made to understand which themes were the most frequent at national level. These can be seen in Figure 7.8.

<sup>18</sup> The material here presented was co-published by the author in the article “Tourism English programmes: do they mirror the reality and the contents of the tourism industry?”, submitted to the Journal of Tourism and Development (Oliveira et al., 2014, p. 310).



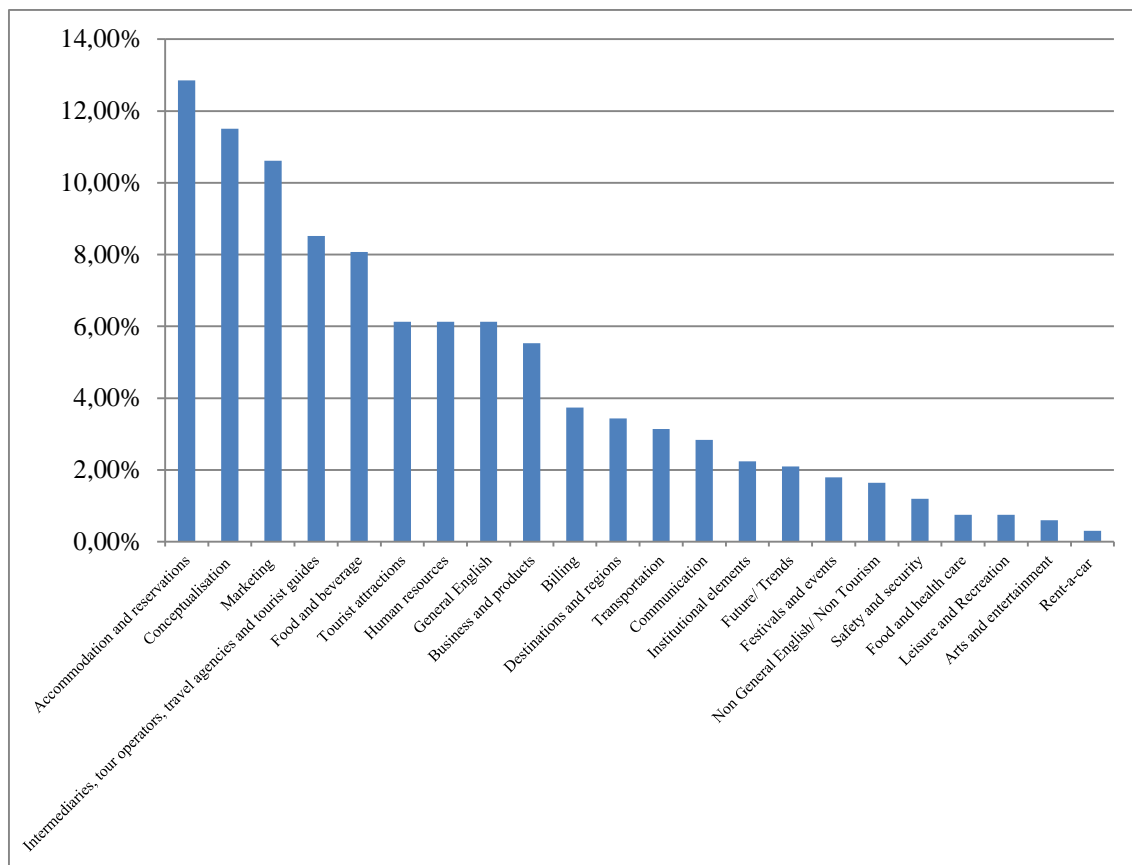


Figure 7.8 – English contents in public Tourism-related higher education courses<sup>19</sup>

From the data gathered, it can be said that Tourism involves a number of activities and some of these appear in the list of contents taught. However, despite that, Tourism comprehends diverse activity areas and English language curricular programmes are not able to address them all.

### 7.3 – Theme and Rheme analysis: The case of Tourism students' texts

This chapter presents the results of the content analysis of the documents produced by the students. This part is divided into 3 sections: section 7.3.1 characterises the mobile devices which students had available during the study; section 7.3.2 presents the characterisation of

<sup>19</sup> The material here presented was co-published by the author in the article “Tourism English programmes: do they mirror the reality and the contents of the tourism industry?”, submitted to the *Journal of Tourism and Development* (Oliveira et al., 2014, p. 311).

the activities developed with and for the students and which were made available for learning purposes. The final section, 7.3.3, presents the analysis of the texts which were produced by the students after the Mobile Learning activities were implemented. This analysis was elaborated according to the principles of Systemic Functional Linguistics of Theme and Rheme.

### 7.3.1 – Characteristics of the mobile devices

Before starting the present case study, we sought to understand if there were conditions to work with mobile devices to enhance students' use of English. A survey was conducted which showed that students possess different mobile phones as is shown in Figure 7.9.

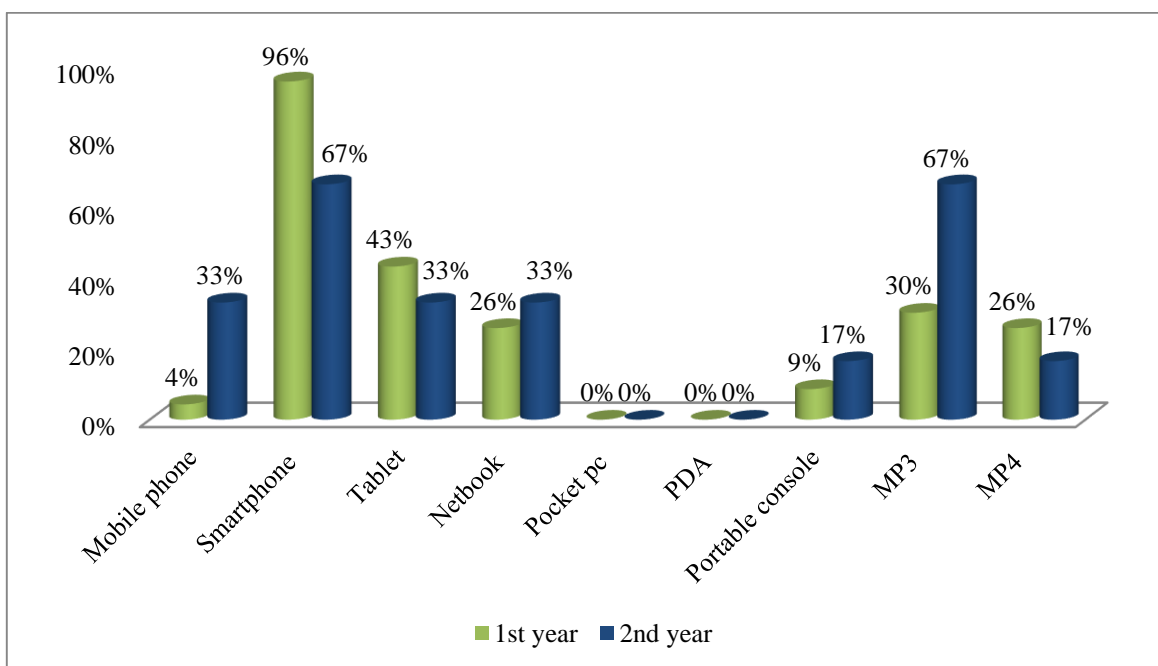


Figure 7.9 – Mobile devices (first and second year students)

Given that there were differences in the devices owned the chosen device to work with were the students' mobile phones because they all had one. It was concluded that most students possessed mobile phones with Android operative system in both first and second year. A much reduced percentage had Symbian and iOS operative systems (see Table 7.8).

Table 7.8 – Mobile phone operative systems (first and second year students)

Operative System	1 <sup>st</sup> year students	2 <sup>nd</sup> year students
Android	91,3%	67%
iOS	4,35%	0
Symbian	4,35%	33%

Due to the characteristics of the groups, the materials (quizzes) were developed by the researcher to run in the different operative systems. The materials that did not require running in any particular operative systems (videos; photos; audio) were sent to the students using Bluetooth.

As in the first year class there were some part time students and as students, in general, could miss some classes, there was a strong possibility that they could miss the material or even slow down the classes when they came while gaining access to the materials. To guarantee access to the materials anytime, anywhere and because students resort to social networks for educational purposes, as was stated in the literature review (Johnson et al., 2014) the researcher used the Facebook social network as a materials repository, among other uses.

At the beginning of the study most students of the first year had a Facebook account (91%) as well as most second year students (87%). For the students who did not have an account (9% - first year; 13% - second year), the materials were sent by Bluetooth as well and by email to ensure that in case something happened to the mobile device, they would still have access to the study materials. However, this group of students ended up creating a collective account as a group, as is mentioned in the interviews at the end of the study. In the case of the only student who did not create an account, the material was used when he was with other colleagues (at the café, for example) because he asked them to use their Facebook accounts even though the student had the material in his email account. The Facebook group worked as a nucleus for knowledge creation and dissemination (with materials and activities produced for and with students as well as material from the Web to overcome difficulties identified in class – such as lists of functions; vocabulary; collocations and grammar).

### 7.3.2 – Characteristics of the activities

The materials that were used for Mobile Learning purposes were developed with the students, by the teacher or taken from the Internet. As is listed below, they were of different types:

- |       |  |
|-------|--|
| i)    | quizzes;   |
| ii)   | podcast;   |
| iii)  | original videos made by the researcher (using Voki and Go Animate)   |
| iv)   | videos from the Internet;  |
| v)    | mind maps built with the students;   |
| vi)   | photos taken by the students to integrate the mobile application and by the teacher to illustrate grammar points;  |
| vii)  | poll questions to vote for the photos that they took and that would be in an application to be developed by students and would be illustrated with their photos; Poll question to vote for the application name; |
| viii) | links for websites with collocations; grammar; courses; links to Facebook pages that posted language use material;   |
| ix)   | lists of functions; vocabulary; collocations; grammar;   |
| x)    | images to illustrate vocabulary and cultural aspects.  |

A broad spectrum of educational resources was developed: quizzes; podcast; videos and polls. The students were involved in the development of the mind maps and took photos for the application which were then voted on Facebook. Finally, they wrote the texts for the application and chose the layout of the interface of the mobile application (colours; icons; folders, among other details) which fostered the spreading of the educational resources themselves and a participatory attitude among the students. In the sense that they created and consumed (to study), students become prosumers (a mix of producers and consumers) (Pralhad & Ramaswamy, 2004, cit. in Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2012, p. 39) of their own educational experience. These materials, as well as the Internet materials, were used as a support for language use and as input to help the students to write the different documents written by them.

### 7.3.3 – Text analysis

The students' texts were analysed according to the following model of analysis (Figure 7.10) which is further explained below:

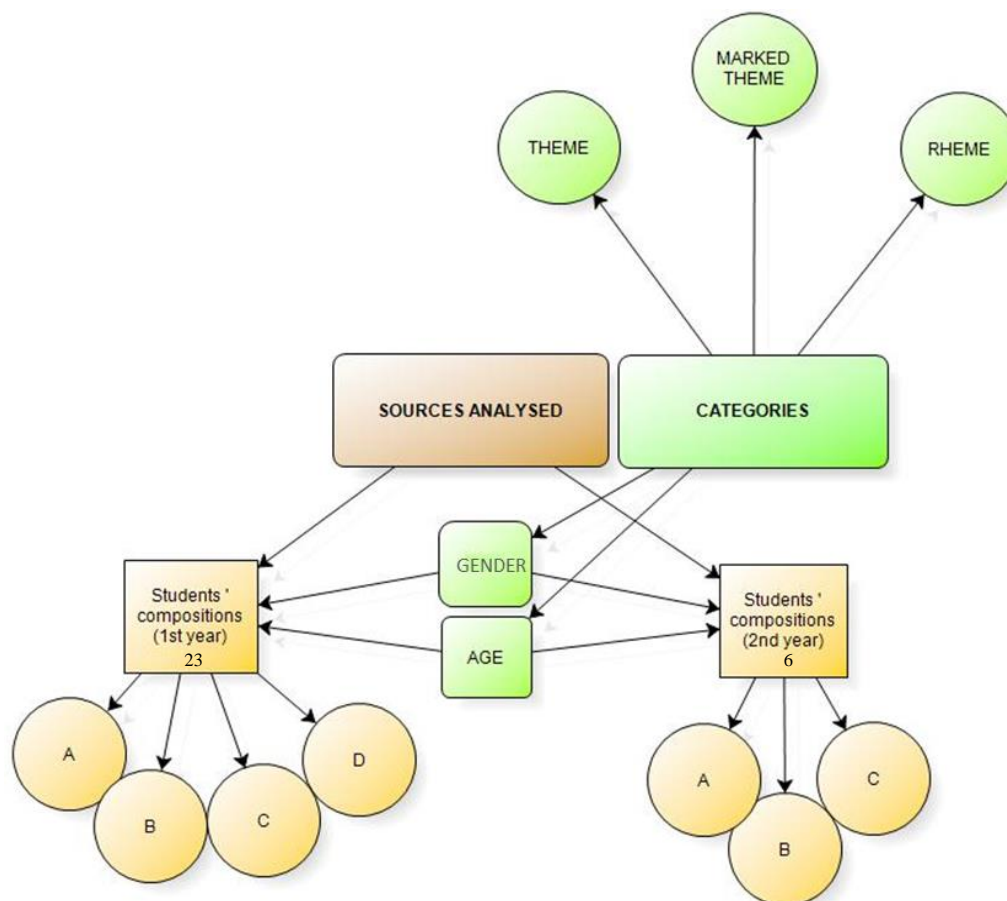


Figure 7.10 – Model of analysis of the texts

The sources analysed are the documents produced by the students (23 of the first year students and 6 of the second year) and the categories under analysis are Theme, Rheme and marked Theme as previously explained in chapters 2 and 5 and the general results are presented below. The data that refers to sex and age was already presented in the Methodology chapter when the sample was characterised.

From the analysis of the documents it is possible to summarise the data in each group of texts which are presented in Table 7.9 (number of words per text; number of rhemes; its percentage as well as average, and this sequence is repeated in themes and marked themes).

Table 7.9 – Summary per document and year

1 <sup>st</sup> year text	No. of words/ Text	No. of Rhemes	Rhemes (%)	Average of Rhemes	No. of Themes	Themes (%)	Average of Themes	No. of Marked Themes	Marked Themes (%)	Average of Marked Themes
A	697	128	4,9%	5,6	119	4,8%	5,2	12	2,4%	0,5
B	4286	1090	41,7%	47,4	1191	48,1%	51,8	132	26,6%	5,7
C	4353	832	31,8%	36,2	792	32,0%	34,4	154	31,0%	6,7
D	2983	564	21,6%	24,5	372	15,0%	16,2	199	40,0%	8,7
Total	12319	2614	100%		2474	100%		497	100%	

2 <sup>nd</sup> year text	No. of words/ Text	No. of Rhemes	Rhemes (%)	Average of Rhemes	No. of Themes	Themes (%)	Average of Themes	No. of Marked Themes	Marked Themes (%)	Average of Marked Themes
A	254	43	7,4%	7,2	36	7,9%	6,0	8	4,8%	1,3
B	2361	408	70,3%	68,0	342	74,8%	57,0	103	62,4%	17,2
C	1121	129	22,2%	21,5	79	17,3%	13,2	54	32,7%	9,0
Total	3736	580	100%		457	100%		165	100%	

From this data, it is possible to identify a decrease in the number of words in the last text productions because texts B and C (1st year students) and text B (second year students) were dialogues. However, in a more specific analysis of the number of words which were used in each analysis category (Theme, Rheme and marked Theme) there is an increase in the number of words in marked Themes which accounts for a more substantial relevance given to these structures and to the improvement of the writing skills (Table 7.10).

Table 7.10 – Total of words according to SFL categorization

		Words (%)		Words (%)		Words					
		1st year	2nd year	1st year	2nd year	1st year	2nd year				
<b>Rhemes</b>	A	5,5% (530)	6,3% (190)	<b>Themes</b>	A	7,3% (131)	9,5% (36)	<b>Marked Themes</b>	A	3,9% (36)	7,8% (28)
	B	33,9% (3262)	62,8% (1884)		B	44,1% (787)	67,6% (255)		B	25,7% (237)	62,0% (222)
	C	36,8% (3535)	30,9% (927)		C	32,0% (570)	22,8% (86)		C	26,9% (248)	30,2% (108)
	D	23,8% (2287)			D	16,5% (295)			D	43,5% (401)	
<b>Subtotal</b>		100% (9614)	100% (3001)	<b>Subtotal</b>		100% (1783)	100% (377)	<b>Subtotal</b>		100% (922)	100% (358)
<b>Total</b>		12615		<b>Total</b>		2160		<b>Total</b>		1280	

As the total number of words is substantial it was necessary to establish analysis criteria. Not all vocabulary is considered relevant for the study, as for example “things” or “talk” which are not directly related to the semantic field of landscape or Port wine. Besides, other words, such as “Douro”; “wine”; “Port” and “region”, although related to the semantic field, they were broadly known among the students. The analysis criterion established relied on semantic validity (Krippendorff, 1990).

Semantic validity is the “degree to which the analytical categories of texts correspond to the meanings these texts have for particular readers or the roles they play in a chosen context” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 323). This technique states that users of the texts can serve as validating entities for the categories employed in content analysis. In this case, students used and created the texts and are aware of their own needs and doubts along the learning process. Semantic validity is challenged in Linguistics by creating counterexamples. For example, when all the sentences of a grammar are considered correct by a linguist, “another comes up with examples of sentences that this grammar will misidentify” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 326). In the case of the present research, we are aware that other words can be made relevant by other users of the materials, according to their expert knowledge of the semantic field of the Douro landscape and of Port wine. Nevertheless, what accounts for the accuracy of the choices made and their validity is the context of the analysis (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 323).

For these reasons, the words under analysis are those which the students considered the most relevant content words on the two topics, which they identified in the Mobile Learning material. A list of 90 words, which accounts for terms related to the semantic field of landscape and Port wine, was drawn up. These words were the ones the students felt most unfamiliar with such as “schist”; “fortification” and “wineries”; or those that they were not aware of as being related to the topics under study such as “chocolate” and “game”. Other words were chosen as they were considered the most relevant to remember such as “pair”; “buttressed” and “exquisite”. Finally, foreign words were also chosen as “*mortórios*”; “*colheita*”; “*patamares*” and “*foie gras*”. The use of these foreign terms was encouraged as they convey singularities of meaning in highly culture related concepts: “*Mortórios*” for the metaphorical substance of the concept and the appropriation of the term from the “dead” vineyards; “*Colheita*” as a designation of a category of Port wine in the subtype Tawny; “*Patamares*” as a particular landscape feature; “*foie gras*” as a famous French delicacy that pairs with Port. The chosen words are here presented according to the classification of nouns;

verbs and adjectives, as these lexical categories denote concepts, objects and ideas, they are content words (Radford, Atkinson, Britain, Clahsen, & Spencer, 1999) (Table 7.11). Function words, on their own, do not denote objects or ideas, instead, they fulfil functions when inserted in sentences and engender more context-dependent meaning.

Table 7.11 – List of difficult words chosen by students

<b>Verbs</b>	to add	to age	to bank	to bottle	to pair	
<b>Nouns</b>	<i>aguardente</i>	<i>colheita</i>	game	<i>quintas</i>	transformation	
	almonds	Corgo	ham	rows	villages	
	apple	dates	LBV	Ruby	vines	
	aroma	desserts	<i>mortórios</i>	salmon	vineyards	
	barrels	dishes	oxidation	sauce	vinification	
	brandy	earth	partridge	schist	Vintage	
	cake	farm	<i>patamares</i>	<i>socalcos</i>	walls	
	caramel	fermentation	phylloxera	spices	winemaking	
	casks	flavours	pie	stonewalls	wineries	
	cheese	<i>foie gras</i>	pruner	Tawny	yeast	
	chocolate	fortification	prunes	terraces		
	cigars	fruit	pruning	<i>terroir</i>		
	<b>Adjectives</b>	<i>alto</i>	exquisite	regulated	unique	
		breath-taking	extra	reserve	upper	
buttressed		golden	salted	upright		
complex		indication	soft	<i>vinhateiro</i>		
cured		<i>lágrima</i>	strong	<i>vínica</i>		
dried		Lower	Superior	white		
dry		mature	sweet			

Certain specific terms relating to winegrowing/scenery and associated subjects are made up of more than one lexical item (e.g. Reserve Port). These terms sometimes function as single designations and are, therefore used essentially as nouns. At other times, they are broken down and their component parts may be used as adjectives; nouns or even verbs (e.g. reserve:



as in hotel reservation), depending on their productivity and their flexibility to change word category.

The nouns category accounts for 13 words which are not English as they refer to the cultural context that describes the region and associated cultural values, like food and drink. These are *aguardente; colheita; Corgo; foie gras; Lágrima; Mortórios; Patamares; quinta; Socalcos; terroir; Vindima; vinha; vinho*. Not surprisingly, some of these words are borrowed from French that has a noted tradition in this domain. There are fewer Portuguese adjectives: *Alto; Superior; vinhateiro* and *vínica*. As for verbs, students do not feel the need to use any verb which is not English.

The selection of these words is supported by the literature on Systemic theory, once linguistic behaviour is interpreted as a speaker's choice which is determined by context (Halliday, 1994). As such, given that the context of the descriptions required accounts for contextual words in another language, it is acceptable that these borrowings be included in the selection made. These, however, may vary in further studies, as the students' background influences their choices.

The previous words (Table 7.10) were subject to quantitative analysis in order to answer the research question which aims at understanding to what extent they were used by students in their texts. The analytical technique relies on tabulations, a technique used in content analysis, due to the large volumes of text that this type of analysis considers. This is "the most common technique used to render data comprehensible . . . [It accounts for] collecting same or similar recording units in categories and presenting counts of how many instances are found in each" (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 192). This technique shows data in the form of tables of absolute frequencies, such as the number of words occurring in each category or relative frequencies, in the form of percentages which are relative to the sample analysed, for example. Frequencies are shortcuts to extensive lists and allow for statistical considerations to be drawn. Whenever a content analyst considers frequencies noteworthy, this implies that these deviate from the uniform and not noteworthy pattern of the categories and leads to search for reasons to it (Krippendorff, 2004). In the context of the present research, the frequency of the previously mentioned words along time reveals a noteworthy report.

Table 7.12 – Frequency of chosen difficult words in the total texts

Word	Occurrence	Word	Occurrence	Word	Occurrence
added	296	farm	52	salted	14
ages	270	fermentation	52	sauce	14
<i>aguardente</i>	224	flavour	50	schist	14
almonds	208	<i>foie gras</i>	50	<i>socalcos</i>	12
<i>alto</i>	196	fortify	48	soft	12
apple	180	fruit	46	spice	12
aroma	176	game	38	stone	12
to bank	136	golden	38	strong	12
barrels	118	ham	34	superior	12
bottle	118	indication	34	sweet	10
brandy	116	<i>lágrima</i>	32	tawny	8
breathtaking	116	LBV	30	terraces	6
buttressed	100	lower	30	terroir	6
cake	96	mature	30	transformation	6
caramel	92	<i>mortórios</i>	28	unique	6
casks	92	oxidation	28	upper	6
cheese	90	to pair	26	upright	6
chocolate	90	partridge	26	villages	6
cigars	86	<i>patamares</i>	24	<i>vindimas</i>	10
<i>colheita</i>	82	phylloxera	24	vine	6
complex	80	pie	24	vineyard	6
<i>corgo</i>	76	pruner	22	<i>vinhateiro</i>	4
cured	72	prunes	20	<i>vínica</i>	4
dates	72	pruning	20	vinification	4
dessert	68	<i>quinta</i>	20	vintage	4
dishes	68	regulated	18	wall	4
dry	66	reserve	16	white	4
earth	58	row	14	winemaking	2
exquisite	56	ruby	14	winery	2
extra	54	salmon	14	yeast	2
				<b>Total</b>	3552

From the previous table, we can conclude that students made full use of the content words they found most unfamiliar with and which they identified in the Mobile Learning materials.

As far as the total of words is concerned and not the difficult words that students associated with the topics, in the first year students' texts, the average number of words per text exponentially increases from text A to text B, followed by a slight increase in text C and then, followed by a downturn in text D (Figure 7.11) (this is due to the nature of the text

itself which is explanatory and not a dialogue). When text A was written, no Mobile Learning strategies had been adopted, as explained in the methodology chapter.

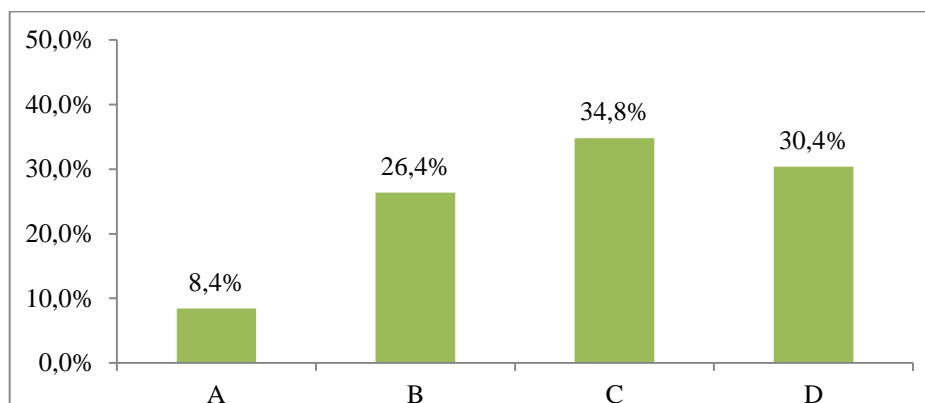


Figure 7.11 – Occurrence of unrepeated words per text (1<sup>st</sup> year)

The four texts produced by the first year students were analysed into Systemic Functional categories of Theme, marked Theme and Rheme. The average of these varies along the texts in uneven trends (Figure 7.12). On the one hand, the average number of Rhemes and Themes increases steadily from text A to B, followed by a decrease in texts C and D. As was explained previously, contingencies relating to the programme disallowed the use of yet another dialogue as genre for the fourth task. On the other hand, the average number of marked Themes grows throughout the four texts. This evinces a growing competence in including more complex language structures that mark the Theme.

Similarly, the average number of words in the SFL categories under analysis shows irregular trends. The average of words in Rhemes increases up to text C and decreases in text D. This trend is not verified as far as the average of Themes and marked Themes is concerned. The average number of words in Themes, on the one hand, rises from text A to text C followed by a decrease in text D. In text A Themes are very reduced in number of words and the lexico-grammar which comprises them is simple and shows a basic grasp of sentence structure with the main choices tending towards a single subject: most Themes are “Port”; “Port wine”; “This wine”; “The climate”; “the vineyards” and the pronoun “it”.

Marked Themes, on the other hand, show a different trend, as they increase from text A through text D (Figure 7.13).

Considering both categories per text and the words which compose these categories, we can conclude that despite the fluctuation between Themes and Rhemes and the words which compose them, there is a continuous growth in marked Themes as well as the words which compose these, which shows that there is growing elaboration of the subjects being developed.

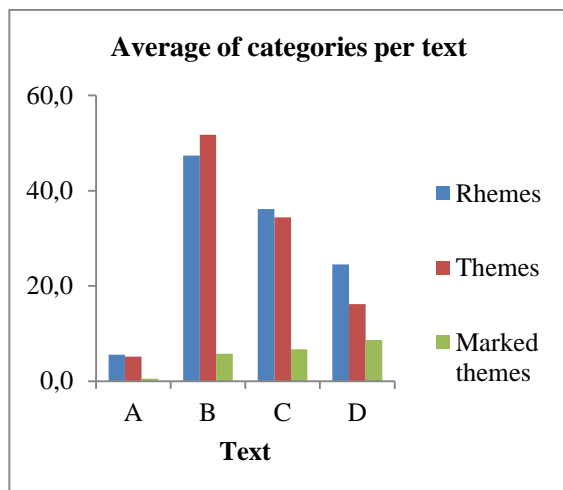


Figure 7.12 – Average of SFL categories per text

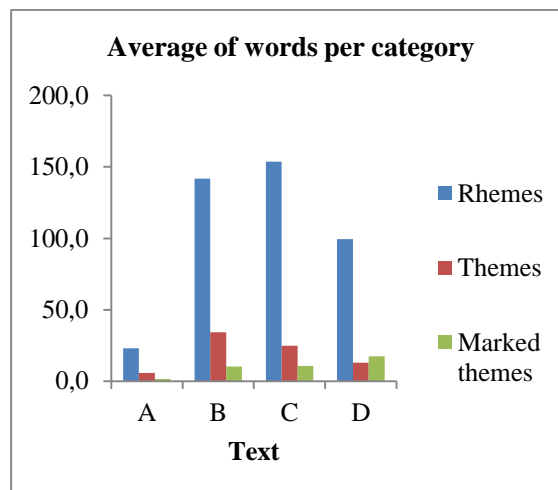


Figure 7.13 – Average of repeated words per category per text

From the analysis of this data, some striking aspects can be highlighted. First, the difference between the first texts and the following ones, as the percentage of words increases exponentially after being exposed to materials relating to Port Wine and Douro landscape. The second and the most relevant aspect for this study is the increase in marked Themes. As stated in chapter 2, for SFL “skilful writers and speakers choose marked Themes to add an emphasis to their text” (Eggins, 2004, p. 320) and people mark elements in a clause because they are “motivated” (Matthiessen et al., 2010, p. 237) to do so.

An analysis of the students’ texts is presented in the following sections.



wine	days	port	century	formerly	means	porto	restaurants	transport	unesco	used
	douro		discover	heritage	old	portugal	times	transportation	vintage	xvii
		ancient	example	later	people	recognized	traditional	typical		

Figure 7.15 – Tree map – Composition A: Marked Themes

After having presented the quantitative data, the qualitative analysis which refers to the Marked Themes is now presented<sup>20</sup>. In these texts, marked Themes start mostly with a location or circumstance. As explained in chapter 2, “circumstantial relational processes encode meanings” (Eggins, 2004, p. 244) and this strategy of fronting a location or temporal circumstance allows one to establish a link between what was said before and what is currently being said.

E.g.1 Text A1.12

This wine // was discovered by the English people that *exportavam* for their country.

Later the Port wine // won matter for the Portuguese people for the all world that love this typical wine of Portugal.

In our days this wine // is very famous and it is one of the more important things that describe Portugal people on the outside of the country.

E.g.2 Text A1.7

The Port Wine // is the most knowed in Portugal.

He // is from Douro

...

In the old days the wine // is transported in *veleiros* a long the Douro River.

E.g.3 Text A1.13

Port wine // is produced in the Douro Valley. . .

In the ancient times, the port wine // was transported in an iconic symbol from the region the “Barco Rabelo” boat.

Port wine // is cultivated in Oporto,

it' // s the most famous wine in Portugal and from Portugal.

It' // s a wine very sweet and tasty but also very expensive.

In Douro the restaurants // offer food pairing, who machth with port wine, ...

Another example of a marked Theme is evinced after a fact has been presented: “We can keep a bottle of port wine for long time”. In this case the marked clause elaborates or develops on the meaning of the first clause, by means of exemplification, using an “explicit conjunction” (Eggins, 2004, p. 280) which is “for example”. Using this conjunction the student elaborates on which wine can be kept for a long time, which denotes the capacity to

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<sup>20</sup> The use of double slash (/) in the examples shows the boundary between (marked) Theme and Rheme. Underlined words or expressions identify marked Themes. Words or expressions in italics refer to words in another language (either French borrowings into English or Portuguese words for which the students were not able to find an equivalent in English).





course	drink	husband	sir	wife	white	chocolate	birthday	follow	now	tart	yes	aromas	chilled	curls	dessert	end	every	exam	father
												best	choice	finally	help	hot	ice	inde	inside
main	wine	please	week	dessert	appetizers	eat	bring	however	pair	tawnies	accept	better	choose	fine	lady	may	mean	minu	mom
												allow	brulée	colheita	first	lbv	mon	old	one
		cake	ruby	caramel	lágrima	rolls	time	another	caps	crabmeat	give	lettuce	nam	port	cours	quint			
									categories	mind	something	vintage	answer	cheap	cream	golden	match	ely	port
		case	bear	crispy	normally	spring	way	anything	aperitif	chicken	crème	guess	may	need	possible	request	restaurant		
									aperitif	chicken	crème	guess	may	need	possible	request	restaurant		

Figure 7.17 – Tree map – Composition B: Marked Themes

The qualitative analysis of the second text shows not only that there are more marked Themes but also the nature of their markedness is more varied as well. For example, there is a recurrent use, in hypothetically related clauses, of the dependent clauses as Theme, instead of the main clause. This sets up expectations for the second part of the sentence because if a dependent clause occurs, a main clause is expected (Eggins, 2004).

In the following example, the waiter has the know-how to recommend a wine and uses a structure that holds the client's attention to the suggestion being made. This is possible because the main clause is preceded by the dependent clause.

E.g. 1 Text B1.17

Customer: I // want a vanilla ice cream.

Waiter: If you allow me, // with the vanilla ice cream a white port called Lágrima pairs so good.

It // is the best thing that you will prove.

In the following example, a dependent clause is also used as Theme but this demonstrates two things: not only a textual capacity to arrest the customer's attention but also, in the development of the text, it shows the ability to suggest the most appropriate wine to pair with a specific food and also the interpersonal ability to meet the customer's wish of enjoying a non-expensive wine, adapting his/her wine knowledge to the context of situation. This expertise allows for the client to ask for a recommendation for a special occasion that is introduced by a conjunction "This time", which, again, reinforces the contrast and cohesion between the situation at the moment and a future event.

E.g. 2 Text B1.1

Customer: We // don't know wich of this wines is more appropriate.

Waiter: Do you // have preference in wine?

Customer: Yes, we // want port wine and not too much expensive, please.

Waiter: So, I // think that the port wine more appropriate is Vintage.

Customer: I // would like that.

Waiter: This wine // pairs very well with chocolate cake but is expensive.

If you want another wine, // try the white wine, is good with cured cheese.

Customer: Thank you.

By the way, this week, me and my wife // do marry birthday.

Which wines // do you think that I should take for the occasion?

Waiter: Well, a good wine for the occasion...

Customer: This time, it // can be a expensive wine port.

Again, in the following examples, the dependent clauses are used as Theme not only by the waiter (e.g. 3) but also by the customer (e.g. 4), asking twice for an opinion after having heard a detailed description of the available wines. In the second utterance, the request is made in a reinforced way, by using the dependent clause as Theme, to ask for a personal opinion “What // do you recommend? If you were me, // what would you chose?” (E.g. 4 Text B1.19).

E.g. 3 Text B1.12

Customer: What // do you recommend?  
 Waiter: If you want something to drink // I would recommend you a Port wine,  
and if you want something to eat // I recommend crispy spring Rolls.  
 This appetizers // pairs well with lágrima.

E.g. 4 Text B1.19

Waiter: In the Ruby's, you // can find red Ruby, Reserve, the named LBV or a Late Bottled Vintage, [. . .]  
In the Tawny's, you // can find the Tawny Port and Tawny Reserve.  
 Customer: Hum, that //’s a lot of information.  
 What // do you recommend?  
If you were me, // what would you chose?  
 Waiter: If I was you, // maybe I would ask for an LBV.  
 It //’s a very good wine,  
 and it // pairs very well with your food.  
 Customer: Great, that //’s it then.

In example 5 a dependent clause is also used as Theme as well as the pronoun “that” which refers back to the context where the waiter explains the price of the wine and the customer reflects upon it and chooses the option of a more expensive wine.

E.g. 5 Text B1.20

Waiter: I // recommend a vintage.  
 It // ’s the best, because it’s not a mix and it’s just produced one time in three decades, but also it’s very expensive one.  
 Customer: Oh, that //’s not a problem.  
If the lady wants that //, bring that.

In the following examples, another way of marking the Theme is used by fronting the complement instead of the unmarked subject “I”, the student shows the capacity to manipulate the syntactical elements with more confidence. This derives from greater contact with this type of structure and with the knowledge that better discursive effect is gained from

this type of enumeration, as these elements are “clause rank constituents [and are] independently movable” (Eggins, 2004, p. 130).

E.g. 6 Text B1.4

Waiter: To go with the crispy spring rolls, I // advise a Lágrima Port because its sweetness will blend quite well with the shrimp.

E.g. 7 Text B1.3

Customer: For my husband, I // would like a glass of “Colheita” Port

E.g. 8 Text B1.13

Waiter: With the golden crabmeat purse, I // would recommend a “lágrima” port.  
For the main course, you // both must keep the “lágrima” because that’s the perfect port to pair with your dish.  
For dessert, I // will recommend a tawny with the crème brûlée and a ruby port with chocolate cake.

The following example shows a reinforced marked structure. Not only does it demonstrate a frequent linguistic structure of continuity from the previous segment with “And”, but it also initiates a rhetorical question in “can I”.

Conjunctions allow for the expansion of the text, providing a semantic relation within it (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013). This relation allows the text to be organised as “a flow of meaning” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 587) which gradually unfolds or extends.

E.g. 9 Text B1.4

Waiter: Would you // like some desert?  
 Customer: Yes.  
 It // will be chocolate cake for the two of us.  
 Waiter: That //’s fine.  
And to go with the chocolate cake can I // recommend a Ruby Port wine or an LBV or a vintage that will pair in perfection with the cake, because it is a wine with a rich flavor and it is a little bit dry.

Another example of marked Theme is present in the relation of cause and effect being inverted with the effect becoming fronted in the clause. Changing the order of the clause is possible but it changes the effect of the sentence: “the effect of . . . simple reordering of the

constituents is marked” (Eggins, 2004, p. 297). Here the reason (birthday) is fronted as the waiter has perceived that the priority element in the Theme is the person’s birthday with a connotation that this event is important and, therefore, deserving of a superior wine.

E.g. 10 Text B1.3

Customer: And I // would like a Port to take home.  
 Waiter: Certainly.  
 Is // it for any particular occasion?  
 Customer: Yes, it // is for my birthday.  
 Waiter: Oh, that // is special.  
Since it is for your birthday, I // would recommend a Vintage.  
 It // ’s the King of Ports.

In the following examples, students chose to prioritise circumstantial adjuncts. As was previously mentioned, according to Eggins, (2004) “circumstantial relational processes encode meanings” (Eggins, 2004, p. 244). In the following cases, this is visible when advice is given taking into consideration the time when the action is taking place. Therefore, care is shown with the context of situation as a whole.

E.g. 11 Text B1.2

Waiter: This week, we // have a selection of the Port wines.

E.g. 12 Text B1.5

Waiter: In this time of the year I // recommend white Port wine.

Another means of marking the Theme is by fronting the vocative, as mentioned in chapter 2. Because it is “fairly mobile” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 133), when students choose to front it, there is a variance of choice and they mark the Theme. Besides, as the vocatives occur “before the first topical Theme, are also classified as interpersonal Themes” (Eggins, 2004, p. 304), as it is usual in dialogic contexts (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013). In this case, the waiter is calling the client’s attention and “enacting the participation of the addressee . . . in the Exchange” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 133), as previously stated in chapter 2. Although Halliday describes the function of the vocative in many dialogic contexts, as it is more negotiatory and therefore the speaker uses it “to mark the interpersonal

relationship, sometimes thereby claiming superior status or power” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 133), this is not the case here, as the superiority of the waiter is only in terms of knowledge of wines. In these cases, the vocative is mainly used to call the customer’s attention by means of a “respectful distance” (Quirk et al., 1972, p. 324).

E.g. 13 Text B1.6

Customer: What // do you recommend?

Waiter: Sir, I // recommend a red port wine, an LBV (late bottled vintage).

E.g. 14 Text B1.9

Waiter: Sir, did you // enjoy your dinner?

In the following example, modalisation is used because the speaker is expressing an “attitude towards what he/she is saying” (Eggins, 2004, p. 174). The customer is not sure about his choice and it accounts for markedness. After the tentative proposition, the waiter reinforces the option made to assure the client he has made a good choice.

E.g. 15 Text B1.19

Waiter: We // have the Lágrima, fine, dry and extra dry white Port’s.

Customer: Hum, I // see.

I guess I // will have the Lágrima.

Waiter: Excellent choice // sir.

In the following examples, a recalling strategy is used to recontextualise or “recalibrate the expectations for where the text will go next” (Eggins, 2004, p. 52) the interlocutor, as mentioned in chapter 2. In these cases, both the customer and the waiter recalibrate the dialogues so as to keep the dialogue flowing according to its logical sequence (e.g.: first course – main course; food – drink) which contributes to the cohesion of the text.

As the recalibration occurs before asking the questions, this becomes a marked structure. This markedness exists because the Theme does not conflate with the Mood structure of Wh-interrogatives.

## E.g. 16 Text B1.2

Customer: I // want eight ingredient hot and sour soup.

Customer: I // want crabmeat and mango salad.

Waiter: As you // wish.

About the main course, what // do you want?

## E.g. 17 Text B1.3

Waiter: So, that // 's two golden crabmeat purse with Port tonic, two spicy crispy orange beef and a mixed green salad.

Is that // right?

Customer: Yes, it // is.

And to drink, what // do you recommend?

## E.g. 18 Text B1.3

Customer: For me, // a chocolate cake.

For my husband, // a *crème brûlée*.

Waiter: To drink, what // would you like, madam?

The following marked Themes start with a conjunction - “but” – which although it does not represent any “referential entity” (Eggins, 2004, p. 212), it provides a strong reinforcement of cohesive tie and “textual link” (Eggins, 2004, p. 212) between the previous and the following messages. Besides, this conjunction is not followed by the subject, in the two first declarative sentences, nor by the interrogative pronoun in the last interrogative sentence, which account for their reinforced markedness.

## E.g. 19 Text B1.8

Customer: I // want an aperitif first.

What // do you recommend?

Waiter: We // have a good menu of appetizers.

But to give you a better answer, I // have to ask you first what you want to drink.

Customer: I // don't know.

What // do you have?

Waiter: We // have an excellent selection of wines.

But for the aperitif, I // think that a White Port will be perfect.

Customer: Sure. Why not?

I // love port wine.

Waiter: We // have the Lágrima or fine white Port, which will be perfect with Crispy Spring Rolls.

Customer: Ok.

But for the main course, what // do you recommend with this wine?

In the following examples, imperatives are used. An “‘imperative’ clause imposes an obligation” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 627). However, this is mitigated by the adverb “please”. In formal language we find many markers of politeness (Eggins, 2004; Quirk et al., 1972) such as ‘please’. This adverb, because it is movable and was written in the Theme,

mitigates the obligation (Brown & Levinson, 1994; Quirk et al., 1972) imposed by the waiter as he has a low power relation with the customers.

E.g. 20 Text B1.10

Waiter: Please, follow // me.  
Please sit.

The following sentence is an example of markedness as the Theme of the declarative does not correspond to the Mood structure of declaratives (Subject first). Again, a recontextualising strategy is used to “recalibrate the expectations for where the text will go next” (Eggins, 2004, p. 52). In this case, it shows a logical sequence as well as a starter may have preceded the main course and a second course will follow. This organisation of the sentence contributes to the cohesion of the text because the mental organisation is being translated into discursive terms. The fronting chosen by the speaker appears to promote a mental discursive organisation (of starter; main course and desert) and the discourse reflects the focus he/she wants to place on the main course. Besides, the student also uses the inversion of the pronoun in “my husband and I”.

E.g. 21 Text B1.3

Customer: As a main course my husband and I // will have the Spicy Crispy Orange Beef, please.

In the following examples, the Theme of the declarative sentences is not the subject but the action itself. For this reason, and because there is a reordering of the sentence, this is also a marked Theme, as it was previously mentioned (Example 10).

In the last example of this series, besides the inversion, there is also a time reference – “now” – which connects the present wine suggestion with previous ones showing a succession of suggestions which are recalibrated at this point, imparting more cohesion to the dialogue.

E.g. 22 Text B1.5

Customer: To eat we // want Veal Escallops

E.g. 23 Text B1.6

Customer: To eat I // would like to order grilled chops served with sauté potatoes.  
...  
Customer: To pair with seafood, I // would like a white port, lágrimas.



E.g. 24 Text B1.19

Customer: You // have impressed me with that white Port.  
Do you // have any more that can pair with my meal?  
Waiter: Yes sir.  
To pair with your choice, now I // suggest a Tawny or a Ruby Port wine.

The following marked Themes show a cohesive tie between the previous Rheme and the following Theme, while using an expression that interconnects this tie: “bear in mind”. The use of idiomatic expressions shows a more proficient use of language because the student uses a discourse which goes beyond literal meanings; he/she uses a figurative expression that conveys meaning through allusional content (Glucksberg & McGlone, 2001).

E.g. 25 Text B1.3

Waiter: If I were you, I // would order two Tawnies with an indication of age or colheita which go well with the orange in the palate.  
However, bear in mind that there // are four types of Tawny . . .  
This wine // is more full-bodied.  
. . .  
Waiter: For the vanilla ice cream, I // would recommend a glass of “Lágrima” Port and for the chocolate cake a glass of Ruby.  
However, bear in mind that there // are six types of Ruby.  
For example, Single Quinta Vintage Port // is less expensive and less full-bodied although it tastes as good as Vintage.

In the following examples, there are enumerations as Themes which are relevant for the “development of the discourse” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 474) as they contribute to the “unfolding of the text” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 474) by granting discursive cohesion between what is previously said and with what will be said afterwards. When enumerating, the interlocutor can be reinforcing what he is saying (E.g. 26, 28 and 29) as well as equating (E.g. 27) (Quirk et al., 1972).

E.g. 26 Text B1.3

Waiter: (However, bear in mind that there // are four types of Tawny: Fine Tawny and Tawny Reserve which are young and stored upright, tawny with an indication of age which is a blend of wine from several year.  
This wine // is more full-bodied  
And finally, the “Colheita” Port // which is crisp and austere.

## E.g. 27 Text B1.8

Customer: It // 's my father's birthday.  
 Waiter: So, in that case, I // will recommend the Vintage.  
 This // is a special wine, considered the King of the Kings of Port wine.  
 It // has an intense, fruity and unique flavour.  
 It // 's difficult to describe all the flavours, and it has a complex seductive rounded.  
 This wine // is only produced three times in a decade.  
 It // 's more expensive,  
 but it // 's really unique.  
 I // think it is worth the risk.  
 Customer: Wow, it // seems really good.

## E.g. 28 Text B1.17

Waiter: Good evening // Mr and Miss.  
 How can I // help you?  
 Customer: Good evening // lady.  
First, I // would like the lunch menu please?  
 Waiter: Here you // are, sir.

## E.g. 29 Text B1.13

Customer: May you // explain us,  
 why you // have chosen those ports, sir?  
 Waiter: Of course, bear // with me.  
 We // find three major groups of Port wine: white port, Tawny and Ruby.  
Inside the white port, we // find the extra dry port, which goes very well as an aperitif,  
 always served chilled.  
 We // may also drink it with tonic, lemon and mint.  
 You // may find the "Lágrima", which is a very sweet wine, the perfect choice with the  
 seafood.  
 You // may find also the aged red port, which goes very well with dried fruits desserts.

**7.3.3.3 – First year students – Text C**

This word cloud is representative of the richness and diversity of words related to the lexical field of the topics under scrutiny. These include specific nouns as *phylloxera*; *socalcos*; *schist*; *slopes* and adjectives such as *regulated* and *upper* which account for the use of specific lexical references instead of general words as those in composition A.



region	landscape	want	well	galli	slopes	19th	area	first	order	suppos e	way	20th	autu mn	cent	collec tive	fact	farm	farmer s	farms	farmer
				man		ago	bedroo m	just	ritzi	sure	wonder	accoun t	begin ning	certain ly	contin uing	fight	hill	home	howev er	humbl e
		end	wine		time							action	better	chanc e	cours e	finally	import ant	indeed	italy	last
			nowadays		alto	demarc ated	magnifi cent	socalco s	trip	years	ahea d	boat	charact eristics	dam	finish	like	makes	maybe	mediter anean	
douro	morning				wake															
		see	century	phylloxera		anythin g	east	natural	sorry	vinha	1930	around	bug	climat e	day	flat	look	ninete enth	often	opinion
										2000	art	call	closer	exam ple	high	make	norma lly	oppen ed	outsid e	

Figure 7.19 – Tree map – Composition C: Marked Themes

As far as the qualitative analysis of the third texts are concerned, students also use hypothetically related clauses. Nevertheless, in some cases, dependent clauses are used as Theme which accounts for a marked structure, as previously mentioned.

E.g. 1 Text C1.5

Receptionist: Douro // is the oldest wine regulated region.  
 It // has 250 000 ha. and is divided into three sub-regions: Douro Superior (near Spain), Upper Corgo, between Douro Superior and Lower Corgo and Lower Corgo.  
 Customer: If I want to see all this unique region, I // have to go to three regions.

E.g. 2 Text C1.19

Customer: So, what // do you recommend me to visit during my stay?  
 Receptionist: If I were you, // maybe I would visit some Quintas, where you can find the old buildings that stay, usually, on the top of the hill.

In the following examples, circumstantials are used to begin the sentences. For this reason, they account for marked Themes, as it was mentioned before (Example 1).

E.g. 3 Text C1.4

Receptionist: Then // it starts the cut that in most of the quintas or vineyards still done the old way, that consists in smashing the grapes gently with macacos and at the same pass the feet.  
 This process // will release the tannins and flavor of the grapes.  
When fermentation // starts they add a young type of brady that stops the fermentation and give wine its character.  
 I // hope that you have enjoy my little explanation of the region,  
 and I // wish you return in September to see whit your own eyes.  
 Customer: That //’s wonderful.

E.g. 4 Text C1.5

Receptionist: There // are “patamares” or vineyards supported by banks of earth.  
 They // are less expensive  
 and machines // can work in these vineyards.  
By the end of the 20th century, // men created the vertical vineyards.  
 Customer: That // is fabulous.

E.g. 5 Text C1.6

Customer: I // d like to know why this region became so special and unique.  
 Receptionist: Since 2000, this region // became world heritage, because the character is totally different from other places where produce wine.  
 This landscape // is based in the scarcity and adversity

In this case, besides the circumstantial adjuncts, enumeration is also used, which provides a reinforcement of the context by unfolding the history of the evolution of the vineyards in an elaborate way. This, again, shows how confident in language the user is as marked structures are used and the Rheme is substantially developed.

E.g. 6 Text C1.3

Receptionist: From the end of the nineteenth century till 1930 we // had post- phylloxera vines with wide surfaces, with four, five or more rows, more yields, more geometric and less manpower was needed to work the breathtaking vineyards.

At this time, we // introduced the American rootstock, our vines were grafted in American rootstock to prevent phylloxera destruction.

After that, we // had “patamares” (vineyards supported by banks of earth instead of schist walls) that allowed man to introduced mechanization.

Men // destroyed the walls of schist of pre phylloxera socialcos to make the slopes slighter.

Finally, we // have unique vertical vineyards created at the end of twentieth century.

Another marked structure which is used in these compositions is the vocative, which is a mobile structure in the clause. The vocative is usual in dialogues for different purposes, one of which is to call the attention of the listener, enacting his/her participation in the exchange (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013), and it helps set the moves of the conversation. In this case, the client states that his wife and he would like some information and the receptionist uses both names to capture the attention not only of the husband but of the wife as well. The vocative marks the interpersonal relationship which is being established. Sometimes, it also claims superior status or power. It is not the case of the receptionist as he is the employee; nevertheless, his power relies not on his social role but as the person who has the information which is needed. So, instead of replying in an unmarked way, the student grants power to the speaker and manipulates, not only the information he has but also the interpersonal context where the situation takes place.

E.g. 7 Text C1.18

Customer: Good morning.

My wife and I // would like to know some information about the amazing and unique landscape, if possible?

Receptionist: Sure.

Ms Galli and Mr Ritzi, // what would you like to know?

Customer: Well, can you // tell us something about the fantastic landscape that we could see when we opened our bedroom window?

E.g. 8 Text C1.22

Customer: Is this landscape // all natural or it have the interview of man?  
Ms Galli, // I can tell you that in nineteenth century it was a bad moment to the people  
of this region . . .

In text C, tentative expressions are also used, this time by customers and receptionists. In the second example, the receptionist tries not to impose places to visit, as there are many, nor a specific period during which to visit the Douro, as the Douro landscape evolves all year round. Instead, he uses tentative expressions to advise the tourist.

E.g. 9 Text C1.7

Customer: I wonder if you // could tell me what is different of the region, and the  
Demarcated Douro Region?

E.g. 10 Text C1.22

Customer: What // do you recommend?  
Receptionist: In my humble opinion, I // think you should visit the traditional douro  
quintas.  
Customer: In this trip // I don't have time to visited because I'm living tomorrow.  
When // is the best season to visit douro?  
Receptionist: Personally, I // think that the best season to visit douro is in September.  
  
You // can do the harvest, tast the different wines, do boat trip in the douro river.  
That // sounds nice.  
I // will take your advice

Another way of marking the Theme is by enumerating, as mentioned before. In this case, the receptionists are preparing and announcing the enumeration they are about to make. They do not rest on enumeration by itself (first; second . . .) as in composition B, they reinforce the enumeration. In example 11, the receptionist calls attention to the purpose of the enumeration - “In order to”; in example 12, there is a reinforcement of the description of the region – “sublime” (which is one of the adjectives that can be found in one of the materials proposed in the Facebook group<sup>21</sup> as an alternative to the usual adjective “beautiful”).

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<sup>21</sup> www.thesaurus.com

## E.g. 11 Text C1.16

Customer: I // love Douro.

I // came all the way from Italy just to experience this natural landscape.

Is it // only natural?

Receptionist: Well, Douro landscape // isn't only natural sir.

This place // was also man-made.

In order to preserve this region, // man had to adapt houses and villages, build and destroy amazing stone walls.

## E.g. 12 Text C1.6

Receptionist: It // has natural elements in environment such as water and soils are scarce, steepest slopes.

Other characteristics of this sublime region // are the schist.

## E.g. 13 Text C1.23

Receptionist: This scenery // is natural, with much granite

Customer: Very good.

Receptionist: What is more, this // is demarcated Douro region.

The final marked Theme is the inversion of cause and effect, in that the effect is brought to the beginning of the sentence to hold the listener's attention.

## E.g. 14 Text C1. 21

Receptionist: People who leave here // have a saying about temperature because in the summer it is very hot and the winter it is terribly cold.

Because of this, the population // says that there are "nine months of winter and three months of hell".

## E.g. 15 Text C1.13

Receptionist: Phyloxera // was a bug which destroyed the Douro region completely.

In result of that // we still find the "Mórtorios".







As far as the qualitative analysis results of the last texts produced by the students are concerned, the use of the dependent clause as marked Theme is also present. This denotes, as previously mentioned, the writer's choice setting thematic expectations for the second part of the sentence, as a dependent clause presupposes a second clause, as can be seen in the examples below, where students recommend different food pairings for the different types of Port wine. The food pairings were available from the Mobile Learning material. In the first text produced, this type of marked Theme is not used but it starts being more frequent after the second, through to the fourth. In the sentences and clauses chosen, students use this structure to unfold the information they are aware of, as far as Port wine is concerned. In example 1, the student advises the tourist whereas in example 2, after fronting the dependent clause, the student reinforces the second statement made with the expression "with no doubt" and fronts the object instead of the unmarked subject "I", the student shows the capacity to manipulate the syntactical elements with more confidence.

E.g. 1 Text D1.19

If you chose fish // I recommend a with port,  
 ...  
For the dessert, if I was you, // I would get a ruby port.

E.g. 2 Text D1.14

If your choice to the main course will be meat // I suggest a tawny.  
For dessert and with no doubt // I recommend a vintage port specialy withe crème-brulée,  
 I // 'm sure that you'll never regret this choice.

In this example, after having fronted the dependent clause, the student fronts the pricing of the action mentioned in the preceding Rheme. This flow of events accounts for the cohesion of the text, which shows a sequence in the discourse as if it is a chain of information, used to hold the attention of the listener/ reader.

E.g. 3 Text D1.16

If the client has a lot of money and wants to enjoy the view, // he must buy tickets for a boat trip called 'XXX'.  
Despite of being very expensive, // there's nothing more beautiful than to watch Douro landscape.

In the following example, in the main clause, which is preceded by a dependent clause, there is the use of a verb related to the wine growing syntactic field: ‘to pick’ which is also present in the Mobile Learning material. This verb was absent from the initial composition which reinforces the improvement that students show in terms of vocabulary.

E.g. 4 Text D1.17

If you came visit us, // you can pick grapes at the vineyards.

In this example, the first and last marked Themes start a circumstantial adjunct that draws the reader’s/listener’s attention to the whole of the visit. Afterwards, there is a narrowing of the space limit – from the stay in general, to a trip along the river; and, finally, to the specific setting of the hotel where the client is staying. In general, what students show, is a growing ability to appropriate different vocabulary to the different situations, along the compositions and the ability to ideationally move in space. This shows how at ease they are with their acquired knowledge.

E.g. 5 Text D1.22

During your stay // you can do a visit to a vineyard, taste the wines  
and // enjoy our amazing views.

However, if you want full appreciate our region, // you should do a boat trip along the river.

In our hotel with river view // you can enjoy an outside dinner while enjoy a tasty, rich and complex vintage port.

### 7.3.3.5 – Second year students – Text A

The following word cloud that represents the most significant words of composition A also denotes that the words used are very general and do not refer to lexical specificities of the topics under study. Besides some of the words are not well written, such as whine or are literal translations from Portuguese: pipes.

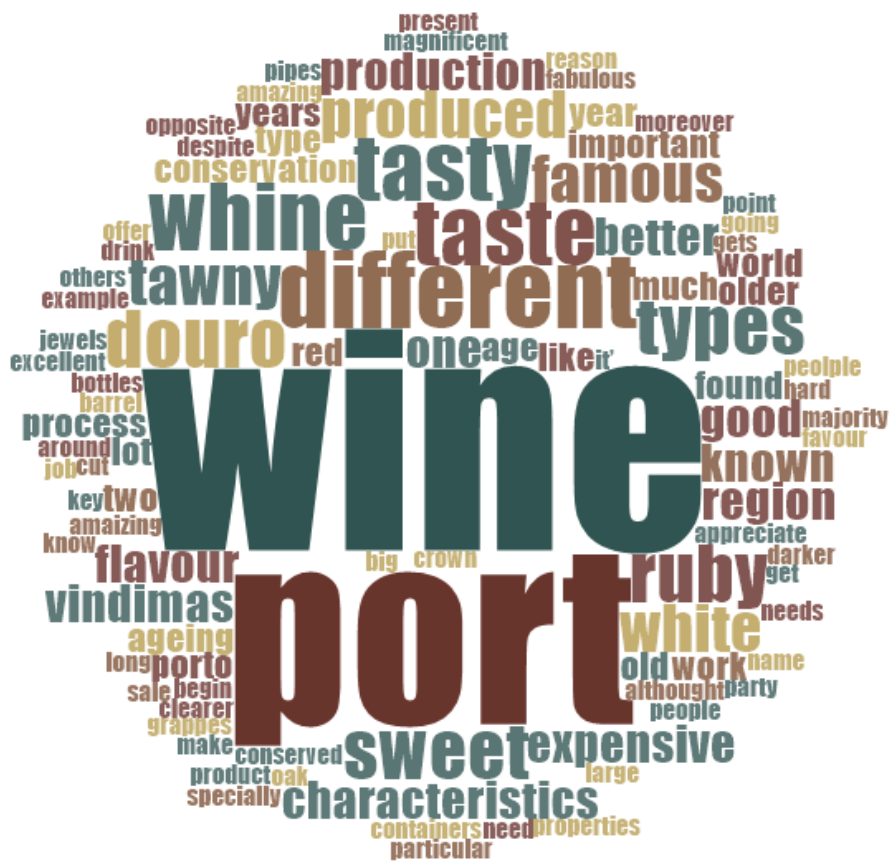


Figure 7.22 – Word cloud – Total of composition A

The tree map below reveals that the initial words used in marked Themes are very general as they were in the first year compositions where general words are used such as Douro and wine.

vindimas	wine	like	traditions	although	douro	good	moreover	point	region	view
		people	without	despite	flavour	make	offer	process	want	wonderful

Figure 7.23 – Tree map – Composition A: Marked Themes

As far as the second year students are concerned, different types of marked Themes occur in the first composition, as well, which also shows evidence of personal choice among the “alternatives” that language and its “meaning potential” (Halliday, 1978, p. 39) allow its users.

For example, students used a dependent clause as Theme, which denotes their choice by setting thematic expectations for the second part of the sentence, as a dependent clause presupposes a second clause (Eggins, 2004, p. 315):

E.g.1 Text A2.5

If you want to offer a good wine, // Port is a good present.

In the following example, a dependent clause is also used as a marked Theme “and without these people and traditions like *vindimas* you”. However, this is a more elaborate construction because, whereas the previous sentence (E.g.2 Text A2.5) can be understood without any previous context, this clause can only be fully understood in the context of the previous part of the text. This means that the reader can only have a full understanding of this utterance if he/she knows who “these people” refer to (the people who cut the grapes) and this information was given in prior sentences. In this case, the writer attains cohesion by referring back to the subject of the previous sentences. Here, an overall statement about what had been said is made. This marked Theme, by referring back to what had been said, creates a sense of conclusiveness by its circular return to the starting point, therefore it “realises the final stage, the Coda” (Eggins, 2004, p. 320), this means that this marked structure signals that “the story is told” (Eggins, 2004, p. 72).

E.g.2 Text A2.3

The *vindimas* // is the time of the year when people begin to cut the grappes to do Port whine.

It // 's a hard job like an old party.

Although the *vindimas* // are a very important stage on Port Whine production you // need to know it's a very long process during all the year.

The Port Whine // is a world famous product,

but in my point of view, all the process to make the win // is the key for his famous, and without these people and traditions like *vindimas* you // can not taste this amaizing favour.

This final part of the text also includes another marked Theme “Although the vindimas” which starts with a conjunction. The use of a conjunction is a “complementary resource for creating and interpreting text. It allows for the marking of logico-semantic relationships ” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 538) between texts of different extent, for example.

This clause shows a strong reinforcement of cohesive tie between this segment and the previous ones (“the *vindimas*” and “hard job”) which allows the text to flow in an “unproblematic” (Eggins, 2004, p. 47) way. This is because “conjunctive cohesion adds to the texture of the text, helping to create that semantic unity that characterises unproblematic text” (Eggins, 2004, p. 47). Conjunctions help create structural links in such a chain in that they help to build cohesion in the text. In this case, the sentence starts with the subordinate clause where the conjunction is, which helps the reader/listener understand that a contrast is going to be established. It is stated that the *vindimas* is an important stage but, in order to be able to do it, a long process takes place throughout the year. By this time, the student is aware of this long process, but is unable to describe it due to being unaware of specific vocabulary relating to the wine growing/production process.

The third marked Theme “but in my point of view, all the process to make the win” the clause also starts with a conjunction “but” followed by modalisation. This occurs when the speaker is expressing an “attitude towards what he/she is saying” (Eggins, 2004, p. 174) because he/she “cannot pose as an authority” (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013, p. 619) on what he is saying, therefore a subjective orientation towards the subject being expressed, is used. Modalisation allows “subtlety in expressing of judgment of certainty” but it also is indicative of a “tentative” proposition as the more people say that “something is certain, the less certain it is” (Eggins, 2004, p. 175). The expression of modalisation, as well as the previous examples, is governed by choice because when giving and demanding information people can choose to express it or not (Eggins, 2004, p. 176).

The second year students also resort to fronting a location circumstance (the importance of which has been described in Example 1 of the first year students) as well as to conjunctive cohesion through the conjunction “moreover” which allows for “extension” (Eggins, 2004, p. 47) of the meaning made in another sentence as it adds information to what is being said/written while reinforcing the cohesion of the text itself.





wine	region	result	hand	man	port	treaders	firstly	patamare s	terraces	weather	2nd	around	century	day	else	further more	galli	geologi cal	get	gives	
											accordi ng	begins	comple ted	dessert	every	gorge	insect	instead	lit'	juice	
douro	first	corgo	landscape	one	process	winter	however	reason	unique	years	advers e	brandy	corte	devast ation	explan ation	grapes	just	landmar k	lastly	late	
											afterwa rds	brown	course	develo pment	fermen ting	harves t	known	least	local	mans ios	mortór ios
	nowadays	finally	lower	phylloxera	stage	ago	many	schist	upper	1930	ageing	cachão	cut	dinner	food	human	lagare s	let	mount ains	nowh ere	openi ng
										1970	area	centuri es	darker	due	fortifica tion	indeed	land	like	next	opportunity	
					come	now	see	valeira	19th												

Figure 7.25 – Tree map – Composition B: Marked Themes

In this second text students were asked to write a guided tour in the presence of some tourists who could intervene during the tour. In these texts, as far as qualitative analysis is concerned, the students also use markedness by fronting circumstantial adjuncts (as in Example 1 of the first year students) and by fronting the dependent clause as Theme (in the following clauses) as happens in the previous analysis.

In the following example, the ideational meaning goes far beyond the present time. The student coherently links a local saying to future visits of the tourists either in the summer or in the winter. Ideationally the guide is making the tourist aware of the local environment and making him/her aware of it either for him/her or for other tourists. Tourism, as was previously mentioned, lives from the marketing of the places, namely by word-of-mouth. By appealing to the senses through the images of the local saying, the guide establishes a link which is coherent, and semantically sequenced, with the following clauses ending up in the acknowledgment by the tourist, signalling an understanding of the advice.

E.g.1 Text B2.1

Guide: So, according to a local saying, there // are nine months of winter and three months of hell,  
so if you come here in winter // my advice would be bringing a warm jacket.  
However, if you come in the summer, // it might be a good idea to bring white and fresh clothes.  
 Tourist: Oh, thank you // for you advice!

The following excerpt starts with an enumeration which refers back to a description that will go on unfolding in the same semantic field – the wine making process – and it allows to understand the direction the guide wishes the tourists’ understanding to follow: from picking; to the cutting, followed by ‘*Liberdade*’ and fermentation. The text which unfolds next is an example of what Eggins (2004) describes as a

successful negotiation of a text . . . [as it] involves more than just expressing sequences of content in text. The content must be expressed in a way which makes clear its relationship to prior text, and which signals to us which part of the text is more/less important towards an understanding of the overall text”. (Eggins, 2004, p. 295)

The enumeration allows for sequencing of the information and for providing a sort of mind map of what is being explained.

## E.g.2 Text B2.5

Guide: Just like the picking, this // is also a tough process.

It // is called the “cut” and it is meant to crush the grapes, in order to release their juice, but not to destroy the pips or seeds inside, which is why the human foot // is ideal.

After that, the 2<sup>nd</sup> stage // begins, called “Liberdade”.

Unlike the cut, they // can now move around freely, without anyone setting paces.

It // is also customary to have music and dancing while in the Liberty stage, so it // turns out to be a party on its own.

Tourist: I // had no idea of this,  
it // 's a really wonderful tradition.  
And what // happens afterwards?

Guide: Afterwards, the seeds // that weren't crushed in the process surface and form a layer.

The darker and brown they // are, the better the cut was performed, and likely, the better the wine.

It // will then “sit” there, fermenting.

At this time, there // will be no more foot treading.

Instead, the treading // shall be done with wood plungers called macacos and await fortification.

Another strategy used to catch the attention of the tourists, during this guided tour, and which has been previously described, is the use of the vocative. This strategy allows the enacting of the participation of the tourists (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2013).

## E.g.3 Text B2.4

Guide: Ms. Galli do you // know more things about the vineyards?

In this example, the marked Theme starts with a circumstantial adjunct followed by an inversion which denotes the knowledge of the taught structures but also the inclusion in the Rheme of vocabulary semantically related to wine growing. Besides, the circumstantial adjunct is allusive to the senses of the tourist as well as to his/her experiences. It is a daring statement, however, as the place being described is the Douro, a world heritage site, this grants the guide security for stating it and for making the statement marked as well. This positioning of the students is completely different from the initial one as now they are aware of structures as well as of vocabulary provided through the Mobile Learning activities and class activities and which allows them to be assertive in their statements and more confident in their choices.

## E.g.4 Text B2.5

Guide: Nowhere else will we // see a winemaking landscape such as this, with both alluvial and fertile soil ideal for grapegrowing

In the following example, the marked Theme shows a recentering of the topic in pragmatic terms. This shows that, although there was an interruption of the main issue, which is usual in guided tours as tourists ask different questions about divergent issues, the guide returns to the main point he/she wishes to make. This return is signalled so that it is understandable that the flow of the discourse is going to proceed.

In this example, there is a Theme where the aim is the recall of the previously broached subject. The student does this resorting to the gerund.

## E.g.5 Text B2.1

Returning to the subject, this landscape // has a unique character wich is the scarsity and adversity of the natural conditions, water and soil are scarce!

In the example below, the circumstantial adjunct is fronted, therefore marking the Theme. Again, the time aspect is given relevance so as to enumerate and guide, in chronological order, how the evolution of the landscape takes place.

## E.g.6 Text B2.1

Around 1930, the “post-phylloxera terraces” // appeared, and instead these had wide surfaces, around 4 to 5 rows of vines and weren´t so irregular in their configuration.  
It was not until 1970 however, // that the mortórios were re-planted, giving place to “patamares”, with slight inclination, 2 rows of vines and no walls.

In these two examples, the marked Theme is tentative so as to direct the tourists’ gaze at what is being mentioned, allowing the tourists to interrupt the guide, in case they cannot actually see what they are meant to.

## E.g.7 Text B2.1

Guide: As you can see, down there // is the Douro River, wich is the backbone of the region.

## E.g.8 Text B2.5

Guide: As we can see, they // line up side by side and starting marching with discipline, at a very slow pace, pace that is set by one of the pickers.

In this example there is a tentative change of the sequence of the question. The cause is presented as Theme before actually asking the question (although the initial structure is not correct).

E.g.9 Text B2.1

Due to the weather being so adverse, // how did people of the Douro adapte?

In this last example, the context is provided before asking the question. Despite the untoward opening of the Theme, the fact that the student provides a setting for the rationale of the question, that is subsequently asked, evinces linguistic agility.

E.g.10 Text B2.4

And the scenery, what // do you know about it, Ms. Gomez?

### 7.3.3.7 – Second year students – Text C

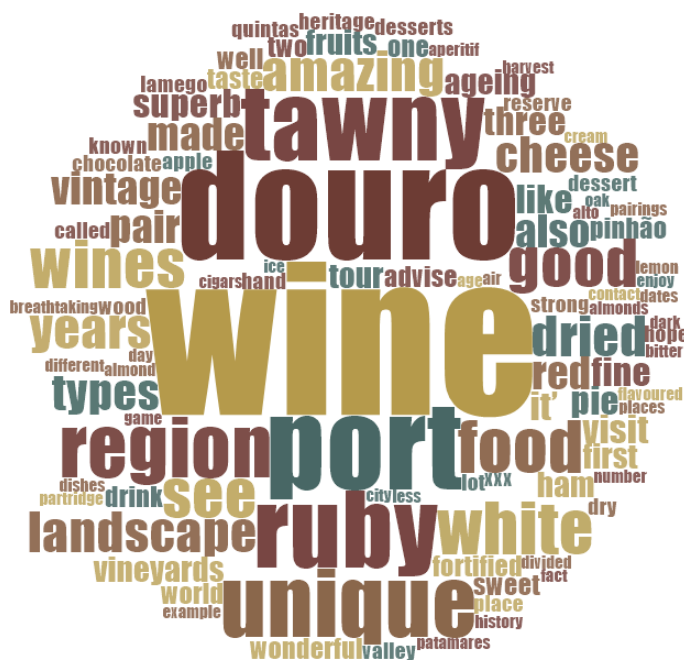


Figure 7.26 – Word cloud – Total of composition C

The last tree map also portrays lexical items related to the topic under study such as: ageing; Tawny and vats.

douro	wine	port	first	however	reasons	years	also	believe	even	husband	looking	now	quintas	red	régua	see
							although	category	everywh ere	landscap e	moreove r	pairings	seeing	sure	taste	though
		day	food	it'	tawny	addition	apprecia te	choose	fact	last	neverthel ess	personall y	sightseei ng	three	visitors	wines
region	good					ageing	avoid	dessert	final	later	next	prices	since	types	wooden	xxxxxxx
		example	hand	one	tour	ago	basic	eaten	five	like	note	quality	spite	vats	xxxxx	you'
						allow										

Figure 7.27 – Tree map – Composition C: Marked Themes

In this text, the second year students were required to advise a tourist on places to visit and on food and drink to try. In these they also used the dependent clause as Theme. In the case of the third example, there is a concern to expand the lexical richness in the Rheme so as to provide further information on the region. Again, the development of the topics resorts to specific vocabulary which is present in the mobile activities and which serve to broaden their arguments on what to say to the tourist, namely the process of vinification and Port wine as being fortified, which were concepts that were absent from their early writings. As is mentioned in the interviews, the lexical variety on Port wine and Douro landscape was very present during the students' daily routines through the mobile activities. This reinforces the burgeoning complexity of the texts.

E.g.1 Text C2.1

Travel agent: If you appreciate a good wine with good food, you // 're in the right place.

E.g.2 Text C2.2

Travel agent: If you are looking for good food and good wine you // are in the perfect region.

E.g.3 Text C2.4

Travel agent: If you go to the Douro region you // have to see the process of vinification of the fortified Port Wine.

The clause starts with a circumstantial adjunct that focuses on the personal and therefore ideational and experiential realms of the tourists to call their attention. Afterwards, a tentative construction is used to provide further particulars of the region that is supposed to meet their needs. In this case, the tentative expression reinforces the uncertainty to meet their needs but there is an attempt to do it.

E.g.4 Text C2.1

Travel agent: Since you and your husband // enjoy sightseeing, tasty food and unique wines, then allow me // to say that the Douro Region is a suitable destination for you, due to the fact that it has great terraces with dazzling socialcos, unique mortórios with phylloxera traces, amazing vinhas ao alto and patamares.

In the following example, the students resort to enumeration to further illustrate the general statement made about food pairing. The student departs from a broad assumption to provide



a particular example. This example is provided by a marked Theme, which, once again, denotes confidence in the use of the lexis and in providing tourist information.

E.g.5 Text C2.5

Travel agent: These wines // pair very well with dried frits, dried fruits desserts, apple pie, ham, partridge, foie gras and cheese, specially with vintage.  
An example of these pairings // are the traditions of British's pairings which is stilton (cheese) and vintage.

The same happens in this example where the student provides the general information about what “*quintas*” are: places made of vineyards and buildings; and establishes a contrast with other types of *quintas* that are made of vineyards only, through the conjunction ‘Nevertheless’ which enriches the first description of *quintas*.

E.g.6 Text C2.2

Travel agent: You // can taste this not only in the restaurants but also in the Quintas, which are places made of vineyards and buildings.  
Nevertheless, some Quintas // are made of vineyards only.

In this example, the travel agent calls the tourist’s attention by making a general statement in an unmarked structure. However, it appeals to the uniqueness of the region. The word ‘unique’ is in itself appealing due to its exclusive nature. This is one of the adjectives that is present in the Mobile Learning material as well. This is then followed by the development of the Rheme but in a marked way, through an enumeration of the reasons for the uniqueness of the region. Besides, an inversion is used which holds the reader/listener’s attention up to the end of the Rheme.

E.g.7 Text C2.2

Travel agent: Douro landscape // is unique.  
Not only is it // a work of nature but also of man.

#### 7.4 – Interviews

The main conclusions taken from the interviews are that students identify benefits in using Mobile Learning in their learning process. They acknowledge that the activities help them improve their writing skills; their participation in class, as well as their pronunciation (“Eu acho que melhorou em termos de escrita e de ficarmos de certa forma mais participativos.”). Students recognised that some information they did not understand in class and about which

they did not ask for clarification, they understood through the material, either through the word clouds or the videos (“os esquemas . . . ajudam porque é uma maneira de sintetizar a matéria . . . é tudo detalhado, do que propriamente aqueles documentos de matéria sempre excessiva.”; “Muita matéria fui percebendo graças ao grupo, ao ver as fotografias que a professora punha, os esquemas, coisas que eu não percebia nas aulas, percebia ali. Ajudou muito.”). As far as the latter are concerned students felt they could listen and watch the videos (wine growing videos) whenever they wanted and at their pace and had more contact with the foreign language applied to their interest area.

They also find it fun, useful and easy to use, which is supported by the literature (“É mais divertido aprender”; “... tem sido muito útil porque temos acesso facilitado à matéria. . . acho que não complica a vida a ninguém. . . é fácil”). It is also accessible anytime, anywhere (“... aceder onde quiser, não se torna tão monótono como estar a olhar para uma folha. Porque, enquanto estamos num café, com os amigos, e há aqueles tempos mortos, nós podemos aceder, não temos de levar as folhas atrás de nós, porque o telemóvel anda sempre connosco, nunca nos esquecemos dele”; estando online, no Mobilelearner é muito mais rápido, . . . podemos ver nas notificações quando a professora coloca o material, enquanto que se eu estiver em casa, e não estiver no computador, posso demorar horas ou até dias a ir ao email. Então acho que é uma mais-valia.”).

The students under analysis accessed the devices in different places because their mobile phones are always with them: in class and at home but they also mention that they used them during their free time such as on the street or during their trips by train or bus, to revise the contents taught, although in the tunnels the Internet connection could be weak or inexistent, which was a hindrance (“Nos cafés, em casa, na rua. Até mesmo no comboio.”; “nós muitas vezes, quando tínhamos exame na semana a seguir, íamos no comboio a estudar.”). Students also mention that they used the devices and did activities while they were smoking, by the window, and even when they were cooking with other class colleagues or doing house-hold tasks (“quando a professora postava as gravações, nós muitas vezes estávamos em casa, e quando não havia nada para fazer, ou quando eu estava a cozinhar, e a \*\*\* estava à minha beira. Nós... eu cozinhava, ela estava a fumar um cigarro, nós ouvíamos aquilo, às vezes até imitávamos.”).

Another benefit they mention is the fact that having the material always with them makes them freer because they are not dependent on taking worksheets or books with them to study. Some even mentioned that although they prefer to use their personal computers to study, these are not always with them. This is supported by the literature, as it mentions the benefits of the mobility of the devices.

Besides, the introduction of the students' technology in class is recognised as beneficial for them because it is something new and different from what they are used to. Therefore, this way of having access to learning material becomes less monotonous than using paper only. It is a way to cooperate with others using their devices and having instant feedback from their colleagues, namely in shared documents using Googledocs; Facebook surveys or in listening/comprehension exercises in the form of live class survey (“partilhamos ideias, partilhamos também conhecimentos, aprendemos sempre alguma coisa, um não sabe dizer uma palavra, o outro já sabe... enriquece sempre.”; “a escrita colaborativa .... foi uma coisa diferente, e que eu não sabia, que eu nunca tinha visto . . . nem sabia como é que se fazia, por isso, estou a aprender uma coisa nova, e foi por isso que me surpreendeu.”; “gostava muito da parte do *listening* e quando. . . havia a interação com o grupo, quando nos era pedido para fazer alguma tarefa . . . na plataforma on-line, portanto era algo que fugia da rotina, e pronto, acabava por motivar...”; “é bastante útil para termos mais interatividade com a disciplina de Inglês”).

They also recognise more features in their mobile devices many of which most students did not even know how to operate, namely having access to the Internet. Most students only used the mobile devices for receiving and making phone calls and writing and receiving messages or taking photos (“para mim o telemóvel servia para mandar mensagens e fazer chamadas, pouco mais. Agora uso para ir à Internet, para o Facebook, para o email”). They, therefore, developed an interest in Internet services through wireless connection, and for receiving class material through Bluetooth as well. As the material was also posted on Facebook (Mobilelearner group), and as students used it for personal reasons and for leisure, they also started using it for studying (“...o Facebook era algo que, de certa forma, como nós usávamos várias vezes, era algo que facilitava bastante o acesso à informação, já que nós íamos várias vezes ao Facebook aproveitávamos e fazíamos também os exercícios.”; “principalmente no Facebook, é algo que maior parte dos estudantes tem, onde grande parte dos estudantes se distraem, é a melhor forma de estarem num site que gostam e ao mesmo

tempo estudarem.”; “...porque podia aceder onde queria, tinha lá a matéria, quando queria estudar para um exame, sabia que encontrava lá tudo.”). As students also started using the Internet on their devices, they received notifications of new messages from the study group. This makes them curious and eager to be updated. (“Tenho sempre curiosidade em verificar”; “o telemóvel . . . está sempre a receber notificações, então dá sempre aquele bicho da curiosidade de ir lá ver o que é.”). Students even consulted it in their workplace which goes in line with the literature which sustains that leisure can intermingle with work time; during their leisure time with their families; as well as during the assignments for other classes (“é uma maneira de estudar mais prática, se não tiver . . . grande tempo... antes do teste estava a trabalhar, e nos intervalos que eu tinha, naqueles poucos minutos, até haver ou não serviço, ia dando uma vista de olhos”; “Quando estamos a fazer algum trabalho”; “No meu local de trabalho, pronto, tentamos sempre... é um bocadinho, digamos... só mesmo em casos extremos, porque . . . estamos no trabalho. . . tentamos separar um bocadinho as águas até porque depois aí acaba por haver, se calhar, um bocadinho, um bocadinho de falta de ética, mas se fosse possível, era... era... sim, conseguia fazê-lo.”; “para mostrar à minha filha como é que eram os tipos de jogos, porque ela também tem o inglês... e ela é muito interessada no inglês, e para lhe mostrar”). Another student mentions the fact that during her leisure time with friends she also accessed the material as a way to escape tedious conversations. Besides, they also recognise that they started using the Facebook social network for learning purposes and not for “gossiping” only. They understood that they could be involved in the learning process wherever they were. This even developed in them the interest for information posted on other groups they belonged to but only had access to on their personal computers.

(“Agora já não vou só ao Facebook para cuscar a vida dos outros. . . Agora vou ver os grupos, também, o Mobilelearner. Também pertenço a um grupo que é o grupo da \*\*\*, então estou sempre informada do que se passa.”; “anteriormente eu tinha colegas e amigos meus que diziam que o Facebook era um disparate, porque as pessoas iam para lá publicar coisas da vida delas privadas – e então . . . ao falar comigo numa aula disse-me que cada um faz do Facebook aquilo que quer, e ninguém tem que expor a vida pessoal.”)

The classes under study also had part time students. They refer that having the material on their mobile phones and on Facebook allowed them to be updated with what was being taught and they could have daily access to the materials, even when they could not go to

school (“tive a preocupação também de aceder com mais frequência, até para de certa forma poder estar a par de alguma informação que fosse colocada on-line, portanto, e dessa forma mantendo-me sempre atualizado.”).

At the beginning it was difficult to make students aware of the uses of their mobile phones. Nevertheless, even older students, who could have had more difficulties because of being technology immigrants, demonstrated great openness, especially because they recognise that technology can take them a step forward into the 21<sup>st</sup> century (“...este tipo de abordagem vem revolucionar, ... quando digo revolução,... permite-nos... encarar o sistema de ensino de uma forma diferente, se calhar mais direcionada para o século XXI, e aproveitando muito bem . . . os recursos informáticos que hoje estão cada vez mais acessíveis ao público em geral. . . desta forma, acho que continuar com este tipo de abordagem será enriquecedor para... mesmo até para o sistema de ensino, porque não?”

Students even recognise the possible importance of mobile devices in the marketplace as a last minute resource to take care of doubts, in case they need clarification (“se dessem assim uns quizzzitos, eles [turistas] até eram capaz de achar engraçado, acerca . . . dos monumentos que visitam . . . até era uma boa opção a considerar”; “vamos imaginar que eu estou com um grupo de turistas e que me esqueço de alguma coisa; que me dá um bloqueio. Eu tenho ali o telemóvel; tenho a informação e consigo explicar muito melhor.”)

However useful and ever present, mobile devices are not meant to replace the personal computer, but to supplement its usefulness and this is also recognised by students (“ Eu pessoalmente gosto mais do computador do que do telemóvel, só que ando todos os dias com o telemóvel, e com o computador não.”). Whenever the adoption of technology is perceived as useful, it is indeed adopted. As one of the students states, she bought another mobile device (tablet) to supplement the one she had already (mobile phone).

## 7.5 – Synopsis

From the above analysis of the contents of the programmes (section 7.2), a great variety of themes can be observed and this is due to the specific nature of the different courses which compose the Tourism industry. However, some of the contents are impossible to classify within Tourism topics and do not ensure a homogenous framework adapted to either the

geographical location or regional specificities of the training needs or to the general themes of Tourism.

As “further education is part of a complex web of international competition and collaboration” (Liburd et al., 2014, p. 130), it is important that contents are well grounded in the Tourism area to allow for international understanding of what is taught. Therefore, English language contents would be more adapted to the job market if they rose from a structured community network of researchers, to safeguard excellence and competitiveness in Tourism higher education.

In the following section (section 7.3), and after having explained how Theme; marked Theme and Rheme have evolved along the texts, a step by step analysis of marked Theme is made in order to give an overview of how the students have evolved along the semester and of how the ideational; interpersonal and textual metafunctions are dealt with by students. From the analysis of the texts, we may conclude that as more information is provided, the better students become. This is not new, however, what differentiates is the fact that technology has mediated the learning process and has made possible longer contact with language. Besides, contact with language was established in places and in periods of time which would not usually be used for this purpose. The strategy used has allowed an improvement in the students’ lexis; therefore, this has implications for management as well. This is possible because the more lexical items they are aware of and the richer their lexico-grammar becomes, the wider the themes they can approach, therefore, the more products and services are introduced in the communication chain, during the exchange with tourists. In this way destination marketing becomes differentiated because the human resources enhance singularity of the destinations and their potential. Management decisions have impact on the economy; therefore, they need to be disciplined. For this reason, the national programmes for the teaching of English have been studied, because, in this way, a broader, more informed perception of what is taught can be obtained and we can more confidently address management issues.

Finally, from the analysis of the interviews (section 7.4) it is possible to perceive positive testimonies which refer to the importance of the introduction of mobile devices for the improvement of different language skills, as well as a way to combine work and leisure time.



## **CHAPTER 8 | CONCLUSION**



## **8.1 – Introduction to the main conclusions**

This chapter presents the main conclusions drawn from the work developed (section 8.2) followed by the identification of the theoretical contributions (section 8.3) and, finally, it presents the limitations of the study and points out suggestions for future research (section 8.4).

## **8.2 – Main conclusions**

The research question of this thesis aims at understanding to what extent Mobile Learning can improve the English language learning experience for Tourism students. To reach conclusions regarding this, it was first necessary to focus on a complex literature review which could show whether Linguistics, Tourism and Mobile Learning were areas permeable to mixed research.

On the one hand, the Systemic Functional Linguistics approach favoured this permeability as it acknowledges the importance of having an ecological view of disciplines, in order to understand language use. This is because it perceives disciplines where language is used not as “walled gardens”, as previously mentioned, but as an ecological whole. From the different possible approaches to language use that Systemic Functional Linguistics encompasses, Markedness is a way skilful writers use to emphasise their texts and to hold the listeners’ attention. Therefore, different texts were analysed at different stages to understand if there was an improvement in the language use during the process.

Tourism, on the other hand, is a holistic area, as it is multidisciplinary and contributions from each discipline strengthen it and shed light on its manifold interests and clarifies understanding. In the case of the present research, a specific analysis that addresses Tourism education is made, insofar as English language use can be increased, bearing in mind the improvement of the learning experience to strengthen the soft skill elements (human capital) which Tourism comprises. The broadest aims being to make the tourist experience better and help regions gain more competitive edge.

Finally, Mobile Learning relies on mobile devices to facilitate the learning experiences. This can also be used in different subject areas because it is customisable.

Bearing these premises in mind, various data was collected and triangulation of the results was made. This allows the research to shed light on the research question. For this purpose, English programme contents for Tourism-related courses were identified and classified so as to understand whether they are the same in public HE organisations, so as to be able to understand how Tourism education is organised. From the analysis carried out it is possible to verify that the themes taught are very varied and some difficult and sometimes even impossible to classify as belonging to the Tourism area. As such, thorough work within English language programmes is still needed so that institutions will be able to offer educational plans which are rooted in the specific area of Tourism taking into account its needs and lacks.

It would be advisable that broad themes and sub-themes be pre-established, to safeguard a more harmonious wording from which English language programmes would depart, according to the job market demands; the appropriacy for the course profile and geographical location of the school. It might also be beneficial for language programme design and to engender excellence and competitiveness in Tourism higher education, that a network of expert teachers would share and structure these contents. Besides, facing the ever-growing international mobility of students, the programme contents need to be fully intelligible to allow higher education institutions, in this domain too, to be recognised and acknowledged as competitive players worldwide. Moreover, by providing clear and logical contents, institutions can become attractive through differentiating factors and the use of up to date technologies is one of them.

Using mobile devices for educational purposes and for language learning, in particular, is not the panacea for problems that arise in this area nor is it merely the use of a different device for learning contents. It is yet another way of being closer to the students through their devices and to the world, allowing students to have access to information using the tools they have with them and sharing their work with the community. This makes the work carried out in class more meaningful and useful for the students and for the tourists they will work with.

Integrating mobile devices in the learning process, instead of forbidding them, also prepares students for the marketplace and for tourist demand as tourists are used to using devices for searching for information and sharing their Tourism experiences.

The use of mobile devices and of the Web is spreading across the globe, and reviews on places and on social networks work as word of mouth and as a recurrent means to inform tourists about destinations worldwide and the services provided there. As such, students need to be familiar with using these not only in the marketplace but in their education, as well, to help them foster lifelong learning.

The introduction of mobile devices in the educational setting also contributes towards the internationalisation of institutions as these are being gradually included worldwide, in increasing numbers of schools. Its importance is, therefore, of inescapable relevance for the higher education institutions. As Europe has a long established tradition of knowledge and know-how, with its different courses of different scope and of different levels – from bachelor degrees to post-PhD – it is of utter importance that professionals be trained for this ever-changing industry.

However, the implementation of mobile strategies in the teaching and learning process needs thorough planning. For this reason, it is considered relevant, and supported by the literature, that a study of the acceptance of Mobile Learning be conducted so as to understand what motivates and deters educational agents (both teachers and students) from using it. This led to the second, third and fourth research hypothesis which investigated whether Performance expectancy, Effort expectancy or Social influence are significant predictors of behavioural intention to use Mobile Learning. In the group of students of this study, the three factors are considered influential of their behaviour, which means that if students recognise that Mobile Learning is useful and it is an added value in their learning process, they are more likely to adopt Mobile Learning. Another very important factor for the students' acceptance of mobile technology is other people's opinions.

As far as teachers are concerned, performance expectancy is the most relevant predictor of behaviour, therefore, the usefulness of mobile devices would drive them to adopt these in their teaching practices, and they do not perceive it as difficult to do so. The influence of other people in the adoption of mobile technologies is, however, also somewhat significant for them. From these results, the adoption of Mobile Learning has conditions to be introduced as both teachers and students understand that as long as it proves beneficial for their performance they will embrace it. Effort expectancy can be reduced among students as long as they use it as described in the literature and, as teachers do not find it a hindrance, they can be true agents of change in the adoption of mobile technologies. Besides, as there

are accounts of good practices worldwide, social influence is already spreading and making it possible to broaden the use of Mobile Learning in the Tourism courses. Nevertheless, the students in the study use their devices more for learning purposes than teachers do for teaching purposes, apart from MP4 for listening/comprehension exercises. Therefore, it is urgent that the range of devices used be enlarged as well as explored to their utmost potential because students are willing to adopt them.

As far as the last research hypothesis is concerned, the results of the text analysis, as well as the interviews conducted provide evidence that exposing students to Mobile Learning strategies enhances their language use. This can be observed in the improvement in the use of marked Themes along the process, as well as the satisfaction which students accounted for after its adoption. They accessed the class material outside the classroom not only during their leisure and in a personal network – Facebook – but also in places where they would not do so if not thanks to the mediation of mobile devices. This is because personal computers are heavy and are not always with them.

Online materials encourage students to go beyond in-class training. They allow experimentation; error and repetition wherever and whenever students want to have access to them. Besides, using social networks on their mobile devices to have access to class material is not considered extra work. This further access allowed students to use the materials and repeat whenever they felt the need. However, these devices do not replace the role of the personal computers or other teaching and learning tools, they supplement them and, as long as they are perceived as useful, they are adopted. Web 2.0 is more than technology and new challenges for learning and teaching, it allows its user to be an “unbiased cultural actor on the civil society axis” (Liburd et al., 2014, p. 150) as one uses the tools and produces content for others which are open access (like the teacher who created contents for and with students; or students, themselves, who create contents); it involves students because it requires people to fuel the platforms. Projects that use Web 2.0 tools, such as INNTOUR, “disturb the well-established approach to learning, media, and knowledge, which calls for relentless questioning and rethinking that can bring universities into the 21<sup>st</sup> century” (Liburd et al., 2014, p. 150).

### **8.3 – Contribution**

This thesis brings together holistic approaches that try to find ways to approach three different areas, which account for its theoretical contribution. This is achieved by using mobile technology to increase the level of students' experiences and improve the English language use while learning English for Tourism. Moreover, the thesis unveils ways of establishing links between leisure and subsistence time, as is suggested by Costa (1996, 2006), as it intermingles leisure time and work experiences.

The methodological contribution intended by this research was generated by combining classical research methods – quantitative and qualitative – with mobile technology at the service of language use. From the data collected, a triangulation of results was made to place disparate results in dialogue, in order to find a more in-depth understanding of research findings.

Furthermore, an application for mobile phones was built in collaboration with students as a motivation strategy and as another language use tool which strives to be accessible to the general public. Besides, it attempts to combine English language programme contents (Landscape and Port wine), which are related to the Tourism industry in Portugal, with mobile technology.

### **8.4 – Limitations of this study and suggestions for future research**

Teaching and learning in Tourism courses is a flourishing study area, especially when combined with up-to-date technological developments which are constantly being improved and updated. Over and above, it requires that classes adopt specific work approaches to develop social interaction skills (soft skills) an identified need in the Tourism industry.

This research aimed at developing a methodology of analysis of the acceptance of mobile technologies and of the organisation of English language programmes taught in Tourism courses, both public and private. In this regard, and to prepare future research where private and public institutions are concerned, only public higher education institutions were integrated in the study.

Mobile Learning is another work tool among numerous others which can be perfected and lead to different practices to develop as well.

Systemic Functional Linguistics can help understand language use among students in numerous other ways. However, in order to provide one of the possible perspectives, Theme and Rheme analysis was adopted. A possible follow-on of this study could be the analysis of Rheme and its markedness.

For the above stated reasons, different methodological options and approaches can be made to attain other and pertinent results at national level. However, the approach depends on future research aims and the evolving needs of the Tourism industry.

Future research areas can focus on private institutions as well and broaden the scope of subjects under scrutiny. It would be interesting to carry out a similar study in the near future when the use of mobile technologies is widespread, as a possible comparative study.



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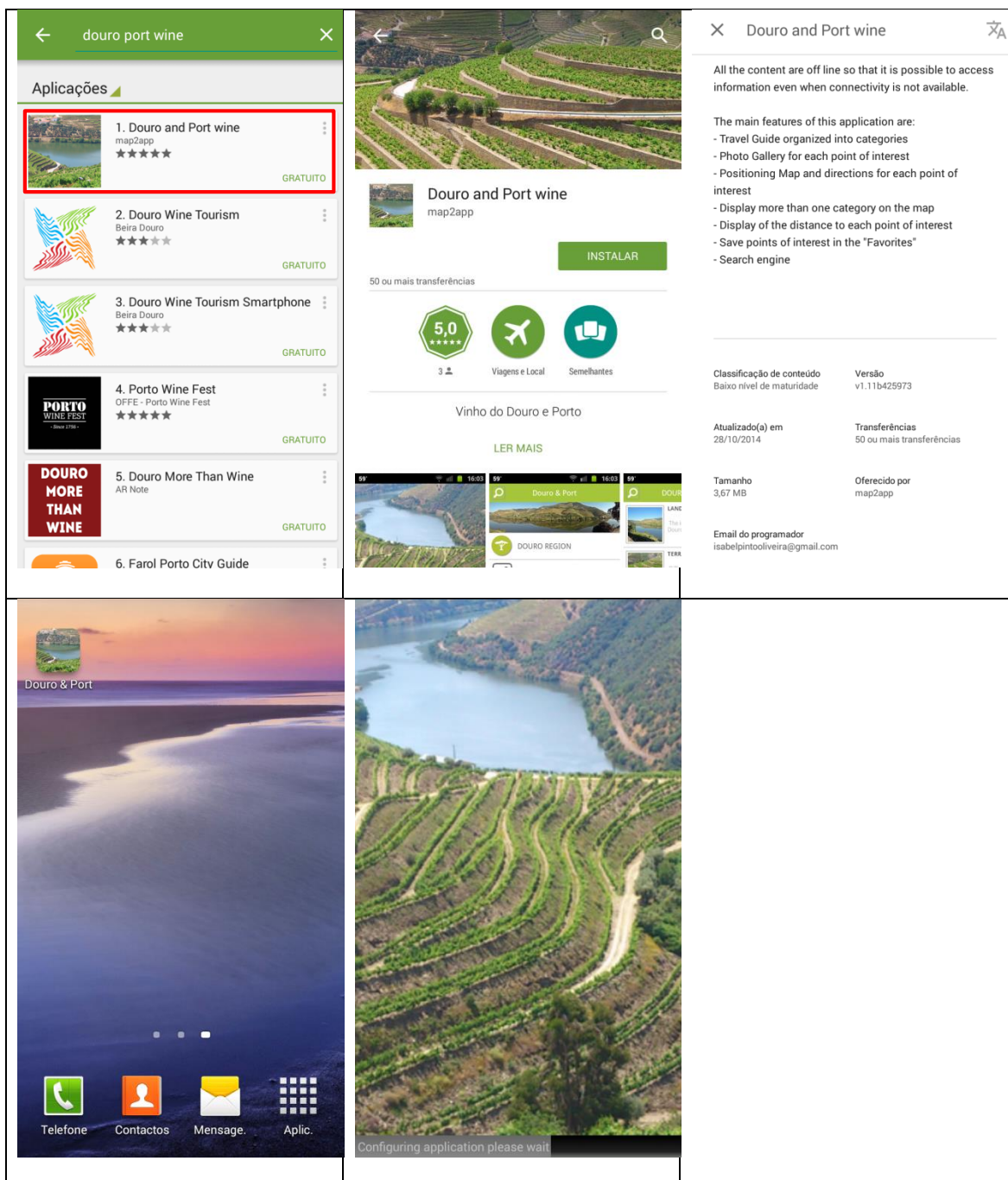
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## **APPENDICES**



## Appendix 1 | Mobile Application




<div style="background-color: #76b82a; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center;">  Douro &amp; Port         </div> <div style="background-color: #e74c3c; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center; margin-top: 5px;">  DOURO REGION         </div> <div style="padding: 5px; margin-top: 5px;">  PLACES TO VISIT         </div> <div style="padding: 5px; margin-top: 5px;">  CREDITS         </div> <div style="background-color: #34495e; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center; margin-top: 5px;"> <span>Home</span> <span>Map</span> <span>Favourites</span> <span>Updates</span> </div>	<div style="background-color: #76b82a; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center;">  DOURO REGION  </div> <div style="padding: 5px; margin-top: 5px;"> <div style="background-color: #76b82a; color: white; padding: 2px; text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;">  LANDSCAPE           </div> <p>The impressive landscape of the Douro Region makes it a unique place...</p> </div> <div style="padding: 5px; margin-top: 5px;"> <div style="background-color: #76b82a; color: white; padding: 2px; text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;">  TERRACES           </div> <p>Different types of terraces exist in the Douro region: Stone walled terraces...</p> </div> <div style="padding: 5px; margin-top: 5px;"> <div style="background-color: #76b82a; color: white; padding: 2px; text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;">  PORT WINE           </div> <p>Port wine is a fortified wine. It is produced in the Demarcated region o...</p> </div> <div style="padding: 5px; margin-top: 5px;"> <div style="background-color: #76b82a; color: white; padding: 2px; text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;">  RUBY PORT           </div> <p>It is a wine intended to preserve its dark colour, aromatic freshness and...</p> </div> <div style="padding: 5px; margin-top: 5px;"> <div style="background-color: #76b82a; color: white; padding: 2px; text-align: center; margin-bottom: 5px;">  TAWNY PORT           </div> <p>Tawny's golden colour is a result of ageing in small wood containers...</p> </div>
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<p style="text-align: center;"><b>PORT WINE</b></p> <p>Port wine is a <b>fortified wine</b>. It is produced in the Demarcated region of Douro. It is distinguishable from the common wines for its particular characteristics:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- high alcohol content (usually between 19 and 22 vol.)</li> <li>- normally highly sweet</li> <li>- great variety of colours</li> </ul> <p>The colours allow us to divide Port into three major traditional categories or styles: <b>Ruby Port</b>, <b>Tawny Port</b> and <b>White Port</b>. The newest Port style which is <b>Rosé Port</b>, is considered on the Ruby style, or more precisely a Light Ruby.</p> <p>One of the features of Port wine is that it is a wine whose <b>fermentation is stopped by adding brandy</b> to it. This added alcohol kills the yeasts, preventing these from transforming all the sugar into alcohol. Port is, therefore, a wine with natural sugar levels, which is the reason why it is so sweet.</p> <p>Taking into account the level of sugar, Port can be divided into: <b>extra dry</b>, <b>dry</b>, <b>semi-dry</b>, <b>sweet</b> and <b>very sweet</b>.</p> <p>It is more common to find such categories in White Port. Examples include the Extra Dry or Dry Port and the very sweet Lágrima (130gr of sugar/litre).</p> <p><b>Tips:</b></p> <p>If you have a bottle with a T-cork: Cellar it in</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>PORT WINE</b></p> <p>a Light Ruby.</p> <p>One of the features of Port wine is that it is a wine whose <b>fermentation is stopped by adding brandy</b> to it. This added alcohol kills the yeasts, preventing these from transforming all the sugar into alcohol. Port is, therefore, a wine with natural sugar levels, which is the reason why it is so sweet.</p> <p>Taking into account the level of sugar, Port can be divided into: <b>extra dry</b>, <b>dry</b>, <b>semi-dry</b>, <b>sweet</b> and <b>very sweet</b>.</p> <p>It is more common to find such categories in White Port. Examples include the Extra Dry or Dry Port and the very sweet Lágrima (130gr of sugar/litre).</p> <p><b>Tips:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• If you have a bottle with a <b>T-cork</b>: Cellar it in <b>upright position!</b></li> <li>• After opening a Port Wine... conserve it on the <b>fridge</b></li> <li>• Do not hesitate to open a vintage Port! Even if only for two! If you hesitate you already lose a chance to enjoy it! You can preserve the wine and continue enjoying it.</li> <li>• <b>Never waste sediments</b> from the decanting! Use them for <b>cooking</b>.</li> </ul>	
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>RUBY PORT</b></p> <p>It is a wine intended to preserve its dark colour, aromatic freshness and some vigour. In order to avoid the effect of oxidation it is aged in large containers such as oak vats and barrels. These are always filled to the brim and exposed to few movements over time, in order to avoid oxidation phenomena.</p> <p>The main red varieties are Touriga Nacional, Tinta Roriz, Touriga Franca, Tinta Barroca, Tinto Cão, among others.</p> <p><b>Ruby / Fine Ruby (non-vintage)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood from 3 to 4 years in large containers (Tonel and/or Balseiro)</li> <li>• It is young / fresh / close to original fruit, due to minimal oxidation.</li> <li>• It normally has a T-cork for easier consumption. It is not meant for ageing.</li> </ul> <p><b>Ruby Reserve (non-vintage)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood from 4 to 6 years. Depending on the style, we can use <i>Pipas</i>, <i>Toneis</i> or <i>Balseiros</i>, as containers.</li> <li>• This is a blend from the best Rubies. A mix between youth and complexity from the ageing in wood.</li> <li>• It normally has a T-cork for easier consumption. It is not meant for ageing.</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>RUBY PORT</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It normally has a T-cork for easier consumption. It is not meant for ageing.</li> </ul> <p><b>LBV (single year)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood from 4 to 6 years. It does not have to be in wood all the time; it depends on the year and/or style of the company.</li> <li>• This is a quality Ruby Port, very close to the Vintage Port, but smoother. There can be two different versions: Filtered or not filtered.</li> <li>• It has a normal cork to allow decision on ageing. It can age up to 10 years.</li> </ul> <p><b>Vintage (single year)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood for 2 years. It does not have to be in wood all the time; it depends on the year and/or style of the company.</li> <li>• This is the top quality Port from the Ruby Family. It is normally unfiltered. Different styles can be found but concentration in colour, fruity flavour, big on palate and an incredible capacity for ageing in bottle, are judge on the submission form for the approval of this wine.</li> <li>• It normally has a normal cork to allow decision on ageing. It can age up to 30-50 years.</li> </ul> <p><b>Single Quinta Vintage Port</b></p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>RUBY PORT</b></p> <p>ageing in bottle, are judge on the submission form for the approval of this wine.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It normally has a normal cork to allow decision on ageing. It can age up to 30-50 years.</li> </ul> <p><b>Single Quinta Vintage Port</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood for 2 years. It does not have to be in wood all the time; it depends on the year and/or style of the company.</li> <li>• It is also the top quality from the Ruby family. This is the result of a single parcel or Quinta. It is normally unfiltered. It is very close to a classic Vintage Port in terms of quality and ability for ageing.</li> <li>• It is bottled with a normal cork to allow decision on ageing. It can age up to 20-40 years.</li> </ul> <p><b>Crusted (non-vintage)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages up to 4 years in wood and ideally 3 years in bottle.</li> <li>• It is a blend from the best years and it is unfiltered. It shares a close philosophy to the classic Vintage Port but from different years.</li> <li>• It is bottled with a normal cork to allow decision on ageing. It can age up to 10-20 years.</li> </ul>

<p style="text-align: center;"><b>TAWNY PORT</b> </p> <p>Tawny's golden colour is a result of ageing in small wood containers called: <i>Pipas</i> or casks and barrels. As the wine has more contact with air in casks, it oxidises more and it loses its dark colour but it becomes more complex in flavour. It ages for up to 3 years in wood. Its complexity comes from the oxidation in wood and not from its evolution in bottle, but we can have good surprises if decide to age it.</p> <p><b>Tawny/ Fine Tawny (non-vintage)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages from 3 to 4 years in small containers (<i>Tonel</i> and/or <i>Pipas</i>)</li> <li>• It is golden in colour, fresh, young with fruity and spicy aromas.</li> <li>• It normally has a T-cork for easier consumption. It is not meant for ageing.</li> </ul> <p><b>Tawny Reserve (non-vintage)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages from 5 to 7 years in wood. Depending on the style, <i>Pipas</i>, <i>Toneis</i> or <i>Balseiros</i> can be used.</li> <li>• It is a blend from the best Tawnies that count on the complexity of the old Tawnies and some freshness of the younger ones.</li> <li>• It normally has a T-cork for easier consumption. It is not meant for ageing.</li> </ul> <p><b>Tawny with an indication of age (non-vintage)</b></p> <p style="text-align: center;">     </p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>TAWNY PORT</b> </p> <p><b>Tawny with an indication of age (non-vintage)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood. Better results are obtained if they are stored in small capacity containers (<i>Pipas</i>). It is a blend of 10, 20, 30 and more than 40 year Old Tawnies. The indication of age is based on the quality of the wine and not on the arithmetical average.</li> <li>• It has a growing complexity of dried fruit, spiciness, honey character and golden colour.</li> <li>• It normally has a T-cork for easier consumption. It is not meant for ageing. Some styles have a normal cork which can lead to good surprises after some years.</li> </ul> <p><b>Colheita (single year)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages for a minimum of 7 years in wood and better results are achieved if it ages in small containers.</li> <li>• This is an excellent Tawny from a fine year. The companies can decide to bottle it every year, or do it only in specific periods! So... do not forget to see the year of bottling! It is mandatory to mention it in the back label!</li> <li>• It is bottled with a normal cork to allow decision on ageing; this will depend on the year, style of the wine producer and your preference.</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;">     </p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>WHITE PORT</b> </p> <p>White Port is also fortified and normally, it ages like a Tawny. Its colour varies from very light to almost resembling a Tawny. The main white varieties are Arinto, Gouveio, Moscatel, Rabigato, Viosinho, among others. The different categories of white Port are divided in accordance with the sweetness (grams of sugar per liter of wine).</p> <p><b>Lágrima (&gt;130gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years.</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork, but evolution in bottle can be interesting.</li> </ul> <p><b>White/ Fine white (90-130gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork, but evolution in bottle can be interesting.</li> </ul> <p><b>Medium Dry (65-90gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years.</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork.</li> </ul> <p><b>Dry (40-65gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years.</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork. It is better to</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;">     </p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>WHITE PORT</b> </p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years.</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork, but evolution in bottle can be interesting.</li> </ul> <p><b>White/ Fine white (90-130gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork, but evolution in bottle can be interesting.</li> </ul> <p><b>Medium Dry (65-90gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years.</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork.</li> </ul> <p><b>Dry (40-65gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years.</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork. It is better to enjoy a recent bottling.</li> </ul> <p><b>Extra Dry (&lt;40gr/l)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It ages in wood up to 2-3 years.</li> <li>• It is usually bottled with a T-cork. It is better to enjoy a recently bottled Extra Dry.</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;">     </p>



<p style="text-align: center;"><b>PORT AND FOOD PAIRING</b> </p> <p><b>Ruby Port pairs well with:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Bitter chocolate young LBV</li> <li>Chocolate cake older LBV &gt;7years</li> <li>Almond pie Ruby reserve</li> <li>Strong-flavoured cheese mature LBV 10 year old/ older Vintage Port</li> <li>Ice-cream with red fruits young Ruby</li> <li>Soft mature cheese old LBV/Vintage chilled Tawny can be a great discovery!</li> <li>Game dishes or dishes with spices old Ruby</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>PORT AND FOOD PAIRING</b> </p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Game dishes or dishes with spices old Ruby</li> <li>Strongly flavoured meat young Ruby</li> <li>and.... with cigars Rubies and chilled Tawnies</li> </ul> <p><b>Tawny Port pairs well with:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Dried fruit-based desserts old Tawny &gt;20years old</li> <li>Sweet caramelized sugar 10 year old Tawny</li> <li>Dried fruits any Tawny, depending on the fruit</li> <li>Apple Pie 10 or 20 year old Tawny</li> <li>Sweetened sauces or salad with dried fruits young Tawny</li> </ul>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>PORT AND FOOD PAIRING</b> </p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Sweetened sauces or salad with dried fruits young Tawny</li> <li>Ham young Tawny</li> <li>Partridge 20-30 year old Tawny</li> <li>Foie gras old Tawny</li> </ul> <p><b>White Port pairs well with:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Salted almonds Extra Dry or Dry White Port</li> <li>Dried prunes or dates White or fine White</li> <li>Cured cheese any White Port served chilled</li> <li>Salmon Fresh and a citrus style of a White Port</li> </ul>
<p style="text-align: center;">Home Map Favourites Updates</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Home Map Favourites Updates</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Home Map Favourites Updates</p>
<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Douro &amp; Port</b></p>  <p> DOURO REGION</p> <p> PLACES TO VISIT</p> <p> CREDITS</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>PLACES TO VISIT</b> </p> <p><b>QUINTA DO PORTAL</b> QUINTA DO PORTAL Quinta do Portal is a family winemaking company for...</p> <p><b>MUSEU DE LAMEGO (MUSEUM)</b> Museum of Lamego The Museum of Lamego is installed in the ancient...</p> <p><b>MUSEU DO DOURO (MUSEUM)</b> MUSEU DO DOURO The Museu do Douro, as a territory museum,...</p> <p><b>MOSTEIRO DE SANTA MARIA DE SALZEDAS (MONASTERY)</b> SANTA MARIA DE SALZEDAS Monastery The male Cistercian...</p> <p><b>MOSTEIRO DE SÃO JOÃO DE TAROUCA (MONASTERY)</b> SÃO JOÃO DE TAROUCA Monastery The male Cistercian monastery of São...</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>PLACES TO VISIT</b> </p> <p><b>SANTA MARIA DE SALZEDAS (MONASTERY)</b> SANTA MARIA DE SALZEDAS Monastery The male Cistercian...</p> <p><b>MOSTEIRO DE SÃO JOÃO DE TAROUCA (MONASTERY)</b> SÃO JOÃO DE TAROUCA Monastery The male Cistercian monastery of São...</p> <p><b>PONTE E TORRE FORTIFICADA DE UCANHA (BRIDGE AND FORTIFIED...)</b> UCANHA Fortified Bridge The most well-known bridge over the Varosa...</p> <p><b>CONVENTO DE SANTO ANTÓNIO DE FERREIRIM (CONVENT)</b> SANTO ANTÓNIO DE FERREIRIM Convent The Earl of Marialva, D...</p> <p><b>CAPELA DE SÃO PEDRO DE BALSEMÃO (CHAPEL)</b> SÃO PEDRO DE BALSEMÃO Chapel The chapel of São Pedro de Balsemã... lo para a área de transitar...</p>
<p style="text-align: center;">Home Map Favourites Updates</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Home Map Favourites Updates</p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Home Map Favourites Updates</p>

<p><b>QUINTA DO PORTAL</b></p>  <p>N323 5060</p> <p>HIGH SEASON Every day: 10h00 - 19h00</p> <p>VISITS AND DAILY TASTINGS At 11h, 14h30 and 16h30 -Customized wine tastings -Group visits (pre-booking required) -Make your own blend activity Only for groups. Price €10,00 per person -Guided Visit and Tasting: €5,00 per person</p> <p><b>QUINTA DO PORTAL</b></p> <p>Quinta do Portal is a family winemaking company for fine wines that embraced the "Boutique Winery" concept with passion. We proudly produce DOC Douro wines, premium Port Wines and Moscatel. This project that started in the early 90's of the twentieth century had as its base an estate that is more than a century old, where our family has been producing Port since the last years of the XIX century. Our commitment to the production of quality wines has been, since the first moment, the heart and soul of Quinta do Portal. This effort, passion and dedication have been recognized both at a national and international level throughout the years.</p> <p>quintadoportal.com/</p>	<p><b>MUSEU DE LAMEGO (MUSEUM)</b></p>  <p>Largo Camões 5100-147 - Lamego</p> <p>From 10 AM to 6 PM Closed: - Mondays - January 1st - May 1st - Easter Sunday - Municipal Holiday (September 8th) - Christmas Day (December 25th)</p> <p>www.facebook.com/museu.de.lamego</p> <p><b>Museum of Lamego</b></p> <p>The Museum of Lamego is installed in the ancient Episcopal Palace, whose reconstruction is due to D. Manuel de Vasconcelos Pereira, the Bishop of Lamego, between 1773 and 1786.</p> <p>Founded in 1917, after the 1910 Revolution, its highly eclectic collection, is continuously enriched by new donations. At present and in permanent exhibition, it has sections dedicated to painting, tapestry and paraments, sculpture, gold-craftsmanship, ceramics, ornamental tiles, archaeology, chapels, vehicles and furniture.</p>	<p><b>MUSEU DO DOURO (MUSEUM)</b></p>  <p>Rua do Marquês de Pombal 5050-282 - Peso da Régua</p> <p>Winter (1st Nov - 1st Mar): Tuesday-Sunday   10h00 - 18h00. Summer (1st Apr - 31st Oct): Every day   10h00-18h00</p> <p><b>MUSEU DO DOURO</b></p> <p>The Museu do Douro, as a territory museum, represents the natural and cultural heritage of the Douro Demarcated Region, declared as World Heritage by UNESCO as an evolving and living cultural landscape. The building is located in the city of Peso da Régua and is the result of the restoration and refurbishing of one of the most remarkable buildings in the history of the Douro Demarcated Region of the XVIII century - the Casa da Companhia. The Museum holds the memories and identity of this wine region and is, simultaneously, an instrument that values the activities associated with viticulture, cultural tourism and wine tourism. Contiguous to the exhibitions area there is the Restaurant A Companhia, the Gift Shop, the Archive, the Library, the Reading Room, the Wine Bar and the exterior bar in the garden with a view over the Douro River. The adjacent modern building is the workspace of the Educational Services of the Museum. The permanent exhibition «Douro, Matter and Spirit» represents the Vine and Wine cultures, the vineyard activities, the construction of the landscape, the path to the production of excellent wines, the fauna and flora, the <i>rabelos</i>, the <i>quintas</i>, the historical heritage, the harvest traditions, the tools and the images of the great port wine brands.</p>
<p><b>MOSTEIRO DE SANTA MARIA DE SALZEDAS (MONASTERY)</b></p>  <p>Praça António Pereira de Sousa 3610</p> <p>www.facebook.com/valedovarosa</p> <p><b>SANTA MARIA DE SALZEDAS Monastery</b></p> <p>The male Cistercian monastery of Santa Maria de Salzedas was founded in 1156 and its construction started in 1168.</p> <p>It was in the late 16th century and during the 17th century that the monastery had its first great renovation works done to it. The medieval cloister was replaced, around 1700, by another, in Baroque style. The maltese architect Carlos Gimach designed the latter and it was one of the most emblematic transformations in the monastery.</p> <p>valedovarosa.pt</p>	<p><b>MOSTEIRO DE SÃO JOÃO DE TAROUCA (MONASTERY)</b></p>  <p>Avenida António Teixeira 3610</p> <p>www.facebook.com/valedovarosa</p> <p><b>SÃO JOÃO DE TAROUCA Monastery</b></p> <p>The male Cistercian monastery of São João de Tarouca was the first Cistercian monastery built in Portugal. It was founded in 1140 and its construction started in 1154.</p> <p>One of the most well-kept monastic buildings is the church, which preserves its Cistercian Romanesque style. The sacristy, built in 1704, exhibits one of the most impressive Portuguese collections of Delft like tiles.</p> <p>From the remaining monastic area, the extensive archaeological excavations made between 1998 and 2007, allow you to identify the original medieval monastic quarters.</p> <p>valedovarosa.pt</p>	<p><b>PONTE E TORRE FORTIFICADA DE UCANHA (BRIDGE AND TOWER)</b></p>  <p>Largo Professor Leite Vasconcelos 3610</p> <p>www.facebook.com/valedovarosa</p> <p><b>UCANHA Fortified Bridge</b></p> <p>The most well-known bridge over the Varosa river is the Ucanha bridge. It was probably built during the 14th-15th century and replaced another Roman bridge. The tower, by the bridge, was built in 1465 through the initiative of D. Fernando, abbot of Santa Maria de Salzedas monastery. The tower was the entrance to the monastic "couro" (land) and served as a tollhouse where the travellers had to pay to cross it.</p> <p>valedovarosa.pt</p>

<div style="background-color: #92d050; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <b>CONVENTO DE SANTO ANTÓNIO DE FERREIRIM (CONVENT)</b> </div>  <p>Avenida Mestres Pintores de Ferreira 5100</p> <p><a href="http://www.facebook.com/valedovarosa">www.facebook.com/valedovarosa</a></p> <p><b>SANTO ANTÓNIO DE FERREIRIM Convent</b></p> <p>The Earl of Marialva, D. Francisco Coutinho and his wife D. Brites de Menezes, devotees to St. António, made the land donation on January 28, 1525 to the Franciscans, demanding in return that they safeguard and maintain the pre-existing tower (12th century), and reserved the chapel as their tomb.</p> <p>One of the most important collections stored in the convent are the 16th century altarpiece boards, ordered by the Bishop of Lamego D. Fernando de Meneses Coutinho to Cristóvão de Figueiredo, painter to the Cardinal-Infant Afonso.</p> <p><a href="http://valedovarosa.pt">valedovarosa.pt</a></p>	<div style="background-color: #92d050; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <b>CAPELA DE SÃO PEDRO DE BALSEMÃO (CHAPEL)</b> </div>  <p>Unnamed Road 5100 - Lamego</p> <p><a href="http://www.facebook.com/valedovarosa">www.facebook.com/valedovarosa</a></p> <p><b>SÃO PEDRO DE BALSEMÃO Chapel</b></p> <p>The chapel of São Pedro de Balsemão is located in a small plain along the Balsemão river banks. Although the chapel is now part of a seventeenth century manor, its interior still preserves 10th century traits, namely Mozarabic Iberian architecture techniques, which make it one of the rare examples in Portuguese territory.</p> <p>Another remarkable element of this small temple is D. Afonso Pires' sarcophagus as well as the Roman influence that it exhibits, which are visible in several inscribed stones, reused in the construction of the chapel walls.</p> <p><a href="http://valedovarosa.pt">valedovarosa.pt</a></p>	
<div style="background-color: #92d050; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <b>Map</b> </div>  <p>Home Map Favourites Updates</p>	<div style="background-color: #92d050; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <b>Douro &amp; Port</b> </div>  <p><b>DOURO REGION</b></p> <p><b>PLACES TO VISIT</b></p> <p><b>CREDITS</b></p> <p>Home Map Favourites Updates</p>	<div style="background-color: #92d050; color: white; padding: 5px; text-align: center;"> <b>CREDITS</b> </div> <p><b>Text credits:</b></p> <p>Douro region: Tourism students</p> <p>Places to visit: Organisations</p> <p><b>Photographic credits</b></p> <p><u>Douro Region:</u> João Oliveira   Isabel Oliveira   Tatiana Cardoso</p> <p><u>Museu do Douro:</u> Coleção Museu do Douro   Luis Ferreira Alves.</p> <p><u>Quinta do Portal:</u> Sonja Dräger   Rui Pires   Paulo Coutinho</p> <p><u>Museu de Lamego:</u> DRCN   Museu de Lamego   Pedro Martins</p> <p><u>Mosteiro de São João de Tarouca; Mosteiro de Santa Maria de Salzedas; Convento de Santo António de Ferreira; Capela de São Pedro de Balsemão; Ponte e Torre fortificada de Ucanha:</u> DRCN   Vale do Varosa   Pedro Martins e DRCN   Museu de Lamego</p> <p>Teacher: Isabel Oliveira</p> <p>Technical supervision: Paulo Coutinho - Quinta do Portal winemaker</p> <p>Home Map Favourites Updates</p>

**Appendix 2 | Request for cooperation**

*Caro Colega Prof. X*

**ASSUNTO: Pedido de Colaboração**

Antes de mais as nossas melhores saudações!!

No seguimento de um email que lhe enviámos anteriormente, vimos, novamente, solicitar-lhe a sua melhor atenção para a segunda fase do trabalho que nos encontramos a realizar sob o tema “Utilização das Tecnologias no ensino da Língua Inglesa Aplicada ao Turismo”, inserido no âmbito da tese de doutoramento da Mestre Isabel Oliveira.

Encontramo-nos a enviar-lhe este email para lhe fazer duas últimas solicitações:

(i) necessitamos que faça chegar este link aos alunos das várias licenciaturas da área do Turismo para que eles possam preencher um questionário online <http://questionarios.ua.pt/index.php/935131/lang-pt>.

(ii) e, ao mesmo tempo, que faça chegar o link que se segue aos docentes de língua Inglesa dessas mesmas licenciaturas. <http://questionarios.ua.pt/index.php/568785/lang-pt>.

Estamos cientes da carga de trabalho que o Colega tem, e das solicitações que permanentemente lhe são feitas. Contudo, gostaríamos de o sensibilizar para este nosso trabalho de investigação, que, desejamos, venha a coroar-se com interesse e mais-valia para as nossas Escolas de Turismo em Portugal.

Desde já os nossos sinceros agradecimentos, e a certeza de que no final do trabalho iremos fornecer-lhe informação global sobre este trabalho que estamos a realizar.

Caso possua alguma dúvida, ou deseje colocar alguma questão, não hesite em nos contactar através de:

Isabel Oliveira: \*\*\*\*\*

Com os nossos melhores cumprimentos (e saudações institucionais e pessoais)

Carlos Costa

Isabel Oliveira



## Appendix 3 | Tourism related courses

	HE organisation	Course name	Repeated course
1	Universidade do Algarve - Portimão	Informação e Animação Turística	
2	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Informação Turística	
3	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Informação Turística	X
4	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu - Lamego	Informação Turística	
5	Instituto Politécnico Castelo Branco - Idanha-a-Nova	Gestão Turística	
6	Instituto Politécnico do Cávado e Ave	Gestão de Actividades Turísticas	
7	Instituto Politécnico do Cávado e Ave	Gestão de Actividades Turísticas	X
8	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Gestão do Lazer e Animação Turística	
9	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Gestão do Lazer e Animação Turística	X
10	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Gestão Turística	
11	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Gestão Turística	X
12	Instituto Politécnico do Porto - ISCAP	Gestão das Actividades Turísticas	
13	Instituto Politécnico de Tomar	Gestão Turística e Cultural	
14	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu - Lamego	Gestão Turística, Cultural e Patrimonial	
15	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Gestão Turística e Hoteleira	
16	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Gestão Turística e Hoteleira	X
17	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Gestão do Lazer e Turismo de Negócios	
18	Universidade dos Açores	Turismo	
19	Universidade do Algarve - Faro	Turismo	
20	Universidade do Algarve - Portimão	Turismo	
21	Universidade de Évora	Turismo	
22	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda	Turismo e Lazer	
23	Instituto Politécnico de Portalegre	Turismo	
24	Universidade de Trás os Montes e Alto Douro	Turismo	
25	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu	Turismo	
26	Universidade de Aveiro	Turismo	
27	Instituto Politécnico de Beja	Turismo	
28	Instituto Politécnico de Bragança - Mirandela	Turismo	
29	Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra - ESEC	Turismo	
30	Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra - ESEC	Turismo	X
31	Universidade de Coimbra - Faculdade de Letras	Turismo, Lazer e Património	
32	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Turismo	
33	Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo	Turismo	
34	Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo	Turismo	X
35	Universidade do Algarve - Faro	Gestão Hoteleira	
36	Instituto Politécnico Castelo Branco - Idanha-a-Nova	Gestão Hoteleira	
37	Instituto Politécnico Castelo Branco - Idanha-a-Nova	Gestão Hoteleira	X
38	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Direcção e Gestão Hoteleira	
39	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Direcção e Gestão Hoteleira	X
40	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda	Gestão Hoteleira	
41	Instituto Politécnico do Porto - ESEIG	Gestão e Administração Hoteleira	
42	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Produção Alimentar em Restauração	
43	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Produção Alimentar em Restauração	X
44	Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra - ESAC	Ecoturismo	
45	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Marketing Turístico	
46	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Marketing Turístico	X
47	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Marketing Turístico	X
48	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Animação Turística	
49	Instituto Politécnico de Bragança - Mirandela	Guia Intérprete	
50	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda	Restauração e Catering	
51	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Restauração e Catering	

## Appendix 4 | Tourism related courses analysed

	HE organisation	Course name
1	Universidade do Algarve - Portimão	Informação e Animação Turística
2	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Informação Turística
3	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu - Lamego	Informação Turística
4	Instituto Politécnico Castelo Branco - Idanha-a-Nova	Gestão Turística
5	Instituto Politécnico do Cávado e Ave	Gestão de Actividades Turísticas
6	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Gestão do Lazer e Animação Turística
7	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Gestão Turística
8	Instituto Politécnico do Porto - ISCAP	Gestão das Actividades Turísticas
9	Instituto Politécnico de Tomar	Gestão Turística e Cultural
10	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu - Lamego	Gestão Turística, Cultural e Patrimonial
11	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Gestão Turística e Hoteleira
12	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Gestão do Lazer e Turismo de Negócios
13	Universidade dos Açores	Turismo
14	Universidade do Algarve - Faro	Turismo
15	Universidade do Algarve - Portimão	Turismo
16	Universidade de Évora	Turismo
17	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda	Turismo e Lazer
18	Instituto Politécnico de Portalegre	Turismo
19	Universidade de Trás os Montes e Alto Douro	Turismo
20	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu	Turismo
21	Universidade de Aveiro	Turismo
22	Instituto Politécnico de Beja	Turismo
23	Instituto Politécnico de Bragança - Mirandela	Turismo
24	Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra - ESEC	Turismo
25	Universidade de Coimbra - Faculdade de Letras	Turismo, Lazer e Património
26	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Turismo
27	Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo	Turismo
28	Universidade do Algarve - Faro	Gestão Hoteleira
29	Instituto Politécnico Castelo Branco - Idanha-a-Nova	Gestão Hoteleira
30	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Direcção e Gestão Hoteleira
31	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda	Gestão Hoteleira
32	Instituto Politécnico do Porto - ESEIG	Gestão e Administração Hoteleira
33	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril	Produção Alimentar em Restauração
34	Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra - ESAC	Ecoturismo
35	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Marketing Turístico
36	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Animação Turística
37	Instituto Politécnico de Bragança - Mirandela	Guia Intérprete
38	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda	Restauração e Catering
39	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria	Restauração e Catering

## Appendix 5 | Survey to students (original version)

### A percepção dos alunos perante as tecnologias móveis em atividades de aprendizagem.

O presente questionário destina-se a obter informações no âmbito de um estudo académico, integrado num projeto de tese de Doutoramento, da Universidade de Aveiro.

Pretendemos proceder ao levantamento de opiniões dos alunos de cursos de Turismo relativamente ao uso das tecnologias móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular. Para o efeito, solicitamos a sua colaboração através da resposta às questões que a seguir apresentamos. O preenchimento do questionário terá uma duração aproximada de 10 minutos. As respostas obtidas são confidenciais e para fins, exclusivamente, de investigação. O preenchimento deste questionário é de carácter voluntário. Salientamos que não existem respostas certas ou erradas.

Agradecemos, desde já, a sua disponibilidade e colaboração no desenvolvimento do presente estudo.

**NOTA:** O computador portátil não é um dispositivo móvel, pelo que não pode ser equacionado nas respostas. Existem 23 questões neste inquérito.

### Parte I - Dispositivos móveis pessoais e utilização da Internet

#### 1. Indique todos os dispositivos móveis que possui e usa.\*

Por favor, selecione todas as opções que se aplicam:

Telemóvel	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad ou equivalente)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consola portátil (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outro	<input type="checkbox"/>

Se seleccionou Outro, indique qual ou quais:

1	<input type="text"/>
2	<input type="text"/>
3	<input type="text"/>

#### 2. Utiliza redes sociais? \*

Sim	<input type="checkbox"/>
Não	<input type="checkbox"/>

**2.1. Que redes sociais utiliza?**

Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outra	<input type="checkbox"/>

2.1.1. Se seleccionou Outra, indique qual ou quais:

1	<input type="text"/>
2	<input type="text"/>
3	<input type="text"/>

**2.2. Com que regularidade usa, nos seus dispositivos móveis, as redes sociais que indicou?**

	1-2 dias por semana	3-4 dias por semana	5-6 dias por semana	Diariamente	Nunca	Dispositivo não permite aceder
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outra	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Parte II - Uso de dispositivos móveis na aprendizagem**

**3. Usa dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem (fazer pesquisas online, ouvir gravações,...)? \***

Sim	<input type="checkbox"/>
Não	<input type="checkbox"/>

**3.1. Quais dos seus dispositivos móveis usa como suporte à aprendizagem? \***

Responda a esta pergunta apenas se as seguintes condições são verdadeiras. Por favor, selecione todas as que se aplicam:

Telemóvel	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad ou equivalente)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consola portátil (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outro	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Parte III - Aprendizagens através de dispositivos móveis**

Selecione a opção que mais se adequa a si.

Por favor, selecione uma resposta apropriada para cada item:

	Discordo totalmente	Discordo	Não concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo totalmente	Não sei / Não respondo
4. É útil usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Executo tarefas mais rapidamente se usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Aumento a minha produtividade ao usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Tenho mais hipóteses de obter melhores resultados académicos, se usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. É claro e intuitivo interagir com dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. É fácil tornar-me hábil a usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. É fácil usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. É fácil aprender a usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. As pessoas que influenciam o meu comportamento (ex.: amigos, colegas, professores, família) pensam que devo usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. As pessoas que são importantes para mim pensam que devo usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Os professores têm-me ajudado na utilização de dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. A instituição onde estudo apoia a utilização de dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Tenciono usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular nos próximos 12 meses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Prevejo vir a usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular nos próximos 12 meses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Tenho planeado usar dispositivos móveis como suporte à aprendizagem curricular nos próximos 12 meses	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Parte IV Dados pessoais****19. Nome da instituição de ensino superior que frequenta \***

Por favor, escreva aqui a sua resposta:

**20. Curso em que está matriculado \***

Por favor, escreva aqui a sua resposta:

**21. Ano em que está matriculado \***

Por favor, escreva aqui a sua resposta:

**22. Sexo \***

Por favor, selecione apenas uma das seguintes opções:

Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Male	<input type="checkbox"/>

**23. Idade \***

Por favor, selecione apenas uma das seguintes opções:

Entre os 17 e os 19 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entre os 20 e os 30 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entre os 31 e os 40 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entre os 41 e os 50 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entre os 51 e os 60 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mais de 60 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>

Muito obrigada pela sua participação.

**Appendix 6 | Survey to students (free translation by the author)**

**Student’s perceptions on Mobile Learning**

You are invited to participate in a survey entitled “Student’s perceptions of Mobile Learning” that is part of a PhD student research student at the Universidade de Aveiro.

This questionnaire asks for information about Tourism students’ opinions about Mobile Learning.

The survey will take you approximately 20 to 30 minutes to complete. The responses obtained are confidential and for research purposes only.

Participation in this survey is voluntary.

Remember, there are no right or wrong answers.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

**NOTE:** Personal computers are not considered mobile devices.

**Part I – Personal mobile devices and internet use**

**1. Select all the mobile devices you have and use.\***

Please select all that apply:

Mobile phone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad or similar)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Handheld game console (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

1	
2	
3	

**2. Do you use social networks? \***

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

**2.1. Which social networks do you use?**

Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

1	<input type="text"/>
2	<input type="text"/>
3	<input type="text"/>

**2.2. How often do you use, on your mobile devices, the social networks you referred?**

	1-2 days a week	3-4 days a week	5-6 days a week	Daily	Never	The device does not allow access
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Part II - The use of mobile devices for learning purposes**

**3. Do you use your mobile devices for learning purposes (online research, listening/comprehension, ...)? \***

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

**3.1. Which of your mobile devices do you use for mobile learning? \***

Please select all that apply:

Mobile phone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad or similar)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Handheld game console (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>



**Part III – Mobile learning**

Please select one option:

	Totally disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Totally agree	No opinion/ don't know
4. I find Mobile Learning useful.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Using Mobile Learning enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Using Mobile Learning increases my productivity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. If I use Mobile Learning, I increase my chances of getting better grades.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. My interaction with Mobile Learning is clear and understandable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. It is easy for me to become skilful at using Mobile Learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I find Mobile Learning easy to use.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Learning to operate Mobile Learning is easy for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. People who influence my behaviour think that I should use Mobile Learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. People who are important to me think that I should use Mobile Learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The teachers have been helpful in the use of Mobile Learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. In general, the higher education institution has supported the use of Mobile Learning.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I intend to use Mobile Learning in the next 12 months.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I predict to use Mobile Learning in the next 12 months.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I plan to use Mobile Learning in the next 12 months.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Part IV Personal information**

Please provide some information about yourself.

**19. Name of the higher education institution where you study \*****20. Course name \*****21. Year (1<sup>st</sup>; 2<sup>nd</sup>; 3<sup>rd</sup>) \*****22. Gender\***

Please select one option:

Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Male	<input type="checkbox"/>

**23. Age group \***

Please select one option:

17-19	<input type="checkbox"/>
20-30	<input type="checkbox"/>
31-40	<input type="checkbox"/>
41-50	<input type="checkbox"/>
51-60	<input type="checkbox"/>
over 60	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you for your cooperation.

## Appendix 7 | Survey to teachers (original version)

### A perceção dos docentes perante as tecnologias móveis em atividades de ensino da língua Inglesa

O presente questionário destina-se a obter informações no âmbito de um estudo académico, integrado num projeto de tese de Doutoramento, da Universidade de Aveiro.

Pretendemos proceder ao levantamento de opiniões dos docentes de língua Inglesa de cursos de Turismo relativamente ao uso das tecnologias móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua. Para o efeito, solicitamos a sua colaboração através da resposta às questões que a seguir apresentamos. O preenchimento do questionário terá uma duração aproximada de 10 minutos. As respostas obtidas são confidenciais e para fins, exclusivamente, de investigação. O preenchimento deste questionário é de carácter voluntário. Salientamos que não existem respostas certas ou erradas.

Agradecemos, desde já, a sua disponibilidade e colaboração no desenvolvimento do presente estudo.

NOTA: O computador portátil não é um dispositivo móvel, pelo que não pode ser equacionado nas respostas. Existem 24 questões neste inquérito

#### Parte I - Dispositivos móveis pessoais e utilização da Internet

##### 1. Indique todos os dispositivos móveis que possui e usa.\*

Por favor, selecione todas as que se aplicam:

Telemóvel	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad ou equivalente)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consola portátil (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outro	<input type="checkbox"/>

Se selecionou Outro, indique qual ou quais:

1	<input type="text"/>
2	<input type="text"/>
3	<input type="text"/>

##### 2. Utiliza redes sociais? \*

Sim	<input type="checkbox"/>
Não	<input type="checkbox"/>

**2.1. Que redes sociais utiliza?**

Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outra	<input type="checkbox"/>

2.1.1. Se seleccionou Outra, indique qual ou quais:

1	
2	
3	

**2.2. Com que regularidade usa, nos seus dispositivos móveis, as redes sociais que indicou?**

	1-2 dias por semana	3-4 dias por semana	5-6 dias por semana	Diariamente	Nunca	Dispositivo não permite aceder
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outra	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Parte II – A sua prática letiva/opinião**

**3. Usa dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa? \***

Sim	<input type="checkbox"/>
Não	<input type="checkbox"/>

**3.1. Quais dos seus dispositivos móveis usa como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa? \***

Responda a esta pergunta apenas se as seguintes condições são verdadeiras:

Por favor, selecione todas as que se aplicam:

Telemóvel	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad ou equivalente)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Consola portátil (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outro	<input type="checkbox"/>

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**Parte III – Opinião: aprendizagens curriculares através de dispositivos móveis**

Selecione a opção que mais se adequa a si.

Por favor, selecione uma resposta apropriada para cada item:

	Discordo totalmente	Discordo	Não concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo totalmente	Não sei / Não respondo
4. É útil usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Executo tarefas mais rapidamente se usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Aumento a minha produtividade ao usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Existem mais hipóteses de obter melhores resultados académicos, se usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. É claro e intuitivo interagir com dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. É fácil tornar-me hábil a usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. É fácil usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. É fácil aprender a usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. As pessoas que influenciam o meu comportamento (ex.: amigos, colegas, família, alunos) pensam que devo usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. As pessoas que são importantes para mim pensam que devo usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. Os órgãos de gestão têm-me ajudado na utilização de dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. A instituição onde estudo leciono apoia a utilização de dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Tenciono usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa nos próximos 12 meses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. Prevejo vir a usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa nos próximos 12 meses.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Tenho planeado usar dispositivos móveis como suporte ao ensino da língua Inglesa nos próximos 12 meses	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Parte IV Dados pessoais****19. Instituição onde leciona \***

Por favor, escreva aqui a sua resposta:

**20. Curso/s em que leciona \***

Por favor, escreva aqui a sua resposta:

**21. Sexo \***

Por favor, selecione apenas uma das seguintes opções:

Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Male	<input type="checkbox"/>

**22. Idade \***

Por favor, selecione apenas uma das seguintes opções:

Entre os 22 e os 25 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entre os 26 e os 35 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entre os 36 e os 45 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Entre os 46 e os 55 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mais de 56 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>

**23. Formação académica \***

Por favor, selecione apenas uma das seguintes opções:

Licenciatura	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pós graduação	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mestrado	<input type="checkbox"/>
Doutoramento	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pós doutoramento	<input type="checkbox"/>
Outra	<input type="checkbox"/>

**24. Há quantos anos leciona a(s) unidade(s) curricular(es) de língua Inglesa em cursos de ensino superior de Turismo? \***

Por favor, selecione apenas uma das seguintes opções:

0-3 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
3-5 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
5- 10 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
10-15 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
15-20 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>
Mais de 20 anos	<input type="checkbox"/>

Muito obrigada pela sua participação.

**Appendix 8 | Survey to teachers (free translation by the author)**

**Teacher’s perceptions on Mobile Learning**

You are invited to participate in a survey entitled “Teacher’s perceptions of Mobile Learning” that is part of a PhD student research student at the Universidade de Aveiro.

This questionnaire asks for information about Tourism English language teachers’ opinions about Mobile Learning. The survey will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete. The responses obtained are confidential and for research purposes only. Participation in this survey is voluntary. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

**NOTE:** Personal computers are not considered mobile devices.

**Part I – Personal mobile devices and internet use**

**1. Select all the mobile devices you have and use.\***

Please select all that apply:

Mobile phone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad or similar)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Handheld game console (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

1	
2	
3	

**2. Do you use social networks? \***

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

**2.1. Which social networks do you use?**

Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>

1	<input type="text"/>
2	<input type="text"/>
3	<input type="text"/>

**2.2. How often do you use, on your mobile devices, the social networks you referred?**

	1-2 days a week	3-4 days a week	5-6 days a week	Daily	Never	The device does not allow access
Facebook	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
LinkedIn	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Slideshare	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Flicker	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Twitter	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Google +	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Parte II – Your opinion**

**3. Do you use your mobile devices for teaching purposes? \***

Yes	<input type="checkbox"/>
No	<input type="checkbox"/>

**3.1. Which of your mobile devices do you use for teaching purposes? \***

Please select all that apply:

Mobile phone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Smartphone	<input type="checkbox"/>
Tablet (iPad or similar)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Netbook	<input type="checkbox"/>
Pocket pc	<input type="checkbox"/>
PDA	<input type="checkbox"/>
Handheld game console (PSP)	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP3	<input type="checkbox"/>
MP4	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other (please specify)	<input type="checkbox"/>



**Part III – Mobile learning**

Please select one option:

	Discordo totalmente	Discordo	Não concordo nem discordo	Concordo	Concordo totalmente	Não sei / Não respondo
4. I find Mobile Learning a useful tool for language teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. Using Mobile Learning for language teaching enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Using Mobile Learning for language teaching increases my productivity.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. If I use Mobile Learning for language teaching, I increase my students' chances of getting better grades.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. My interaction with Mobile Learning for language teaching is clear and understandable.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. It is easy for me to become skilful at using Mobile Learning for language teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. I find Mobile Learning for language teaching easy to use.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. Learning to operate Mobile Learning for language teaching is easy for me.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. People who influence my behaviour think that I should use Mobile Learning for language teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. People who are important to me think that I should use Mobile Learning for language teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. The school managers have been helpful in the use of Mobile Learning for language teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. In general, the higher education institution has supported the use of Mobile Learning for language teaching.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. I intend to use Mobile Learning for language teaching in the next 12 months.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. I predict to use Mobile Learning for language teaching in the next 12 months.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. I plan to use Mobile Learning for language teaching in the next 12 months.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

**Part IV Personal information**

**19. Name of the higher education institution where you teach. \***

**20. Courses where you teach \***

**22. Gender\***

Please select one option:

Female	<input type="checkbox"/>
Male	<input type="checkbox"/>

**23. Age group \***

Please select one option:

22-25	<input type="checkbox"/>
26-35	<input type="checkbox"/>
36-45	<input type="checkbox"/>
46-55	<input type="checkbox"/>
over 56	<input type="checkbox"/>

**23. Academic degree \***

Please select one option:

Licenciatura	<input type="checkbox"/>
Post graduate studies	<input type="checkbox"/>
Master	<input type="checkbox"/>
PhD	<input type="checkbox"/>
Post PhD	<input type="checkbox"/>
Other	<input type="checkbox"/>

**24. How long have you been teaching English for Tourism in higher education institutions? \***

Please select one option:

0-3	<input type="checkbox"/>
3-5	<input type="checkbox"/>
5- 10	<input type="checkbox"/>
10-15	<input type="checkbox"/>
15-20	<input type="checkbox"/>
over 20 years	<input type="checkbox"/>

Thank you for your cooperation.

## Appendix 9 | Items used to measure UTAUT

<p><b>Performance expectancy</b></p> <p>I would find the system useful in my job.</p> <p>Using the system enables me to accomplish tasks more quickly.</p> <p>Using the system increases my productivity.</p> <p>If I use the system, I will increase my chances of getting a raise.</p>
<p><b>Effort expectancy</b></p> <p>My interaction with the system would be clear and understandable.</p> <p>It would be easy for me to become skillful at using the system.</p> <p>I would find the system easy to use.</p> <p>Learning to operate the system is easy for me.</p>
<p><b>Attitude toward using technology</b></p> <p>Using the system is a bad/good idea.</p> <p>The system makes work more interesting.</p> <p>Working with the system is fun.</p> <p>I like working with the system.</p>
<p><b>Social influence</b></p> <p>People who influence my behavior think that I should use the system.</p> <p>People who are important to me think that I should use the system.</p> <p>The senior management of this business has been helpful in the use of the system.</p> <p>In general, the organization has supported the use of the system.</p>
<p><b>Facilitating conditions</b></p> <p>I have the resources necessary to use the system.</p> <p>I have the knowledge necessary to use the system.</p> <p>The system is not compatible with other systems I use.</p> <p>A specific person (or group) is available for assistance with system difficulties.</p>
<p><b>Self-efficacy</b></p> <p>I could complete a job or task using the system...</p> <p>If there was no one around to tell me what to do as I go.</p> <p>If I could call someone for help if I got stuck.</p> <p>If I had a lot of time to complete the job for which the software was provided.</p> <p>If I had just the built-in help facility for assistance.</p>
<p><b>Anxiety</b></p> <p>I feel apprehensive about using the system.</p> <p>It scares me to think that I could lose a lot of information using the system by hitting the wrong key.</p> <p>I hesitate to use the system for fear of making mistakes I cannot correct.</p> <p>The system is somewhat intimidating to me.</p>
<p><b>Behavioral intention to use the system</b></p> <p>I intend to use the system in the next &lt;n&gt; months.</p> <p>I predict I would use the system in the next &lt;n&gt; months.</p> <p>I plan to use the system in the next &lt;n&gt; months.</p>

Source: Venkatesh et al. (2003, p. 460)

**Appendix 10 | Programmes request**

*Caro Colega Prof. X,*

**ASSUNTO: *Pedido de Colaboração***

Antes de mais as nossas melhores saudações! Desejamos que o ano letivo se encontre a decorrer da melhor forma.

Encontramo-nos a enviar-lhe este email pelo facto de estarmos a desenvolver uma tese de Doutoramento, da Mestre Isabel Oliveira, centrada na questão das ‘Tecnologias ao serviço da Língua Inglesa Aplicada ao Turismo’. Nesse sentido, gostaríamos de solicitar ao Colega, na sua qualidade de Diretor de Curso, a sua prestimosa colaboração.

Nesta fase do trabalho, e dado que nos encontramos a efetuar um estudo relativo aos conteúdos programáticos, metodologias de avaliação e materiais usados no ensino da Língua Inglesa em cursos de Turismo, gostaríamos de lhe solicitar o seu melhor apoio, e compreensão, para nos fornecer os Programas das disciplinas de Língua Inglesa que são usados no vosso curso de Turismo.

Estamos cientes da carga de trabalho que o Colega tem, e das solicitações que permanentemente lhe são feitas. Contudo, gostaríamos de o sensibilizar para esta nossa solicitação, que, desejamos, venha a coroar-se com interesse e mais-valia para as nossas Escolas de Turismo em Portugal.

Desde já os nossos sinceros agradecimentos, e a certeza de que no final do trabalho iremos fornecer-lhe informação global sobre este trabalho que estamos a realizar.

Caso possua alguma dúvida, ou deseje colocar alguma questão, não hesite em nos contactar através de:

Isabel Oliveira: \*\*\*\*\*

Com os nossos melhores cumprimentos (e saudações pessoais)

Carlos Costa

Isabel Oliveira

**Appendix 11 | Permission to collect data - students****PEDIDO DE CONSENTIMENTO**

Caro(a) discente,

Enquanto aluna de Doutoramento na Universidade de Aveiro, encontro-me a fazer um trabalho de investigação integrado na Tese de Doutoramento no qual se pretende estudar o impacto das tecnologias móveis no desempenho linguístico em estudantes do ensino superior de cursos de Turismo.

Por este meio solicito a sua colaboração para:

- Responder aos questionários;
- Responder e gravar entrevista;
- Usar o material escrito, de produção própria, para o analisar estatisticamente.

O seu anonimato será garantido.

Após a leitura atenta deste Pedido de Consentimento, eu

---

declaro autorizar a recolha dos dados solicitados para fazerem parte desta investigação, documento que vou assinar conjuntamente com a responsável pela investigação.

A responsável pela investigação

O (a) discente

**Appendix 12 | Permission to collect data**

Exmo. Sr. Presidente da Escola XXXXX

Isabel Maria Soares Pinto de Oliveira, aluna de Doutoramento na Universidade de Aveiro vem por este meio solicitar a devida autorização para a colaboração dos alunos dos cursos de XXXX da vossa instituição para:

- Recolha de produção textual
- Questionário
- Entrevista

Estes destinam-se a um trabalho de investigação, sobre o tema: “Inglês para Turismo: necessidades específicas”.

Face ao exposto, solicito a V.<sup>a</sup> Exa. autorização para a colaboração da instituição neste estudo, ficando assegurada a confidencialidade e anonimato dos alunos.

Sem outro assunto, apresento os meus cumprimentos ficando a aguardar uma resposta favorável ao meu pedido.

Os meus melhores cumprimentos,

---

Isabel Oliveira

## Appendix 13 | Original interview script

### Protocolo de entrevista | Projeto: Tese de Doutoramento

Hora: \_\_\_\_\_

Data: \_\_\_\_\_

Local: \_\_\_\_\_

Entrevistador: Isabel Oliveira

Entrevistado: \_\_\_\_\_

Perceções acerca da experiência com Mobile Learning	
1	Enquanto utilizador do grupo <i>Mobilearner</i> qual a sua opinião relativamente ao mesmo?
2	Quais as suas actividades preferidas em sala de aula?
3	Quais as suas actividades preferidas fora da sala de aula?
4	Era utilizador habitual do <i>Facebook</i> ?
5	Com que frequência acedia ao mesmo?
6	Durante este semestre alterou a sua rotina de utilização da rede social <i>Facebook</i> ?
7	De que forma a sua utilização de dispositivos móveis afetou a forma como consultava gramáticas/dicionários?
8	Como avalia o esforço realizado para aceder aos materiais através da utilização de dispositivos móveis?
9	Como avalia a repercussão do acesso a materiais via dispositivos móveis no seu desempenho linguístico?
10	Que dispositivos móveis usou para aceder aos materiais?
11	A partir de que locais acedeu?
12	Gostaria de continuar a utilizar dispositivos móveis para efetuar actividades de aprendizagem?
13	Relativamente às actividades em que participou: Que vantagens identifica na utilização de dispositivos móveis?
14	Que inconvenientes identifica na utilização de actividades via dispositivos móveis?

## Appendix 14 | Higher education institutions contacted

Public Universities	1	Universidade dos Açores
	2	Universidade do Algarve
	3	Universidade de Aveiro
	4	Universidade de Coimbra
	5	Universidade de Évora
	6	Universidade de Trás os Montes e Alto Douro
Polytechnic Institutes	7	Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo do Estoril
	8	Instituto Politécnico de Beja
	9	Instituto Politécnico de Bragança - Mirandela
	10	Instituto Politécnico de Castelo Branco
	11	Instituto Politécnico do Cávado e Ave
	12	Instituto Politécnico de Coimbra
	13	Instituto Politécnico da Guarda
	14	Instituto Politécnico de Leiria
	15	Instituto Politécnico de Portalegre
	16	Instituto Politécnico do Porto
	17	Instituto Politécnico de Tomar
	18	Instituto Politécnico de Viana do Castelo
	19	Instituto Politécnico de Viseu



### **Appendix 15 | Guidelines for composition 1 - 1<sup>st</sup> year**

In the future, as a professional of the Tourism industry, you may need to talk about the Douro region, its wine; weather; landscape among other aspects. What do you know about these?

Write whatever you can remember in English. In case you know words or expressions in Portuguese that you cannot translate into English, you can write them in Portuguese.

(There is no word limit as this is not for final assessment purposes).



### Appendix 17 | Guidelines for composition 3 - 1<sup>st</sup> year

Write a dialogue, as complete as possible, between you (the waiter at a restaurant) and two tourists. (Write about 200 words)

Advise on: Port Wine to pair with their meals. (Account for your choices)

Port wine to take home from the restaurant wine shop. (Account for your choices)

DOURO Restaurant	
<b>First course</b>	
Crispy Spring Rolls	3.95 €
Golden Crabmeat Purse	9.95 €
Spicy Veal Ravioli	6.95 €
Chicken Curls in Lettuce Cups	8.95 €
<b>Soups and Salads</b>	
Eight Ingredient Hot & Sour Soup	2.00 €
Shrimp Soup	5.50 €
Mixed Green Salad	4.95 €
Crabmeat and Mango Salad	9.95 €
<b>Main course</b>	
Pasta and Shrimp	9.50 €
Very Spicy Wild-Peppered Chicken	7.00 €
Chicken with Port wine Sauce	8.50 €
Orange Beef	9.50 €
Veal Escallops with Port wine Sauce	9.00 €
Shrimp	9.00 €
Sautéed Jumbo Crab cake	11.00 €

**Appendix 18 | Guidelines for composition 4 - 1<sup>st</sup> year**

You are going for a job interview for the worldwide famous five-star hotel chain: Dreamview. You are asked the following questions before you are admitted in one of the newly built hotels in the Douro.

Write down what you would like to say about the following (do not write a dialogue):

1. A client has heard that Port wine is incredible. He/she wishes to know the reason(s). As an employee of the Dreamview hotel, what can you tell him?  
(Mention at least 5 reasons.)
2. The same client wants to have dinner in a well-known restaurant. Before he leaves the hotel he asks for some advice on Port to pair with his meal because he wants to impress his friends.
3. An oriental client who has travelled all around the world wishes to know what the Douro landscape has on offer that makes it so special on the news and in magazines. This client usually spends large amounts of money when travelling. You do not want him/her to travel to another region. Therefore, what would you tell him/her to convince him/her to stay in the Douro?
4. What can you tell clients about the climate in the Douro?

Remember: the selection of candidates is very strict. Only the best will be chosen to work at the Dreamview.

## **Appendix 19 | Guidelines for composition 1 – 2<sup>nd</sup> year**

In the future, as a professional of the Tourism industry, you may need to talk about the Douro region, its wine; weather; landscape among other aspects. What do you know about these?

Write whatever you can remember in English. In case you know words or expressions in Portuguese that you cannot translate into English, you can write them in Portuguese.

(There is no word limit as this is not for final assessment purposes).



### **Appendix 21 | Guidelines for composition 3 – 2<sup>nd</sup> year**

Imagine that you work in a travel agency and a client in her twenties comes in. She is asking for your advice on a 2 day tour in the Douro. She wants to travel with her husband/boyfriend. They like sightseeing, good food and good wine.

Advise her on what to eat/drink; where to go, etc. and account for your choices.

(Write about 200 – 250 words.)

### Appendix 22 | Example of mind map

